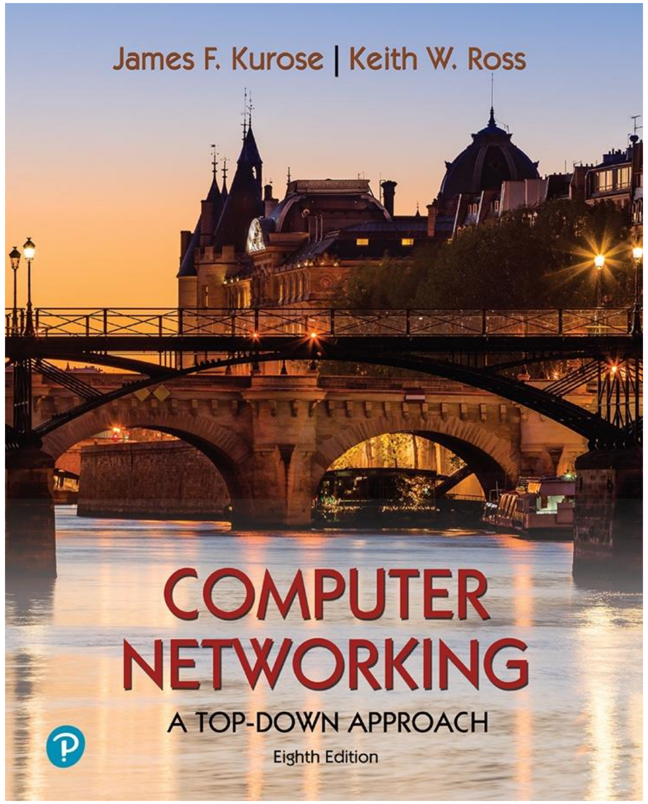
Computer Networks

Amir Mahdi Sadeghzadeh, Ph.D.

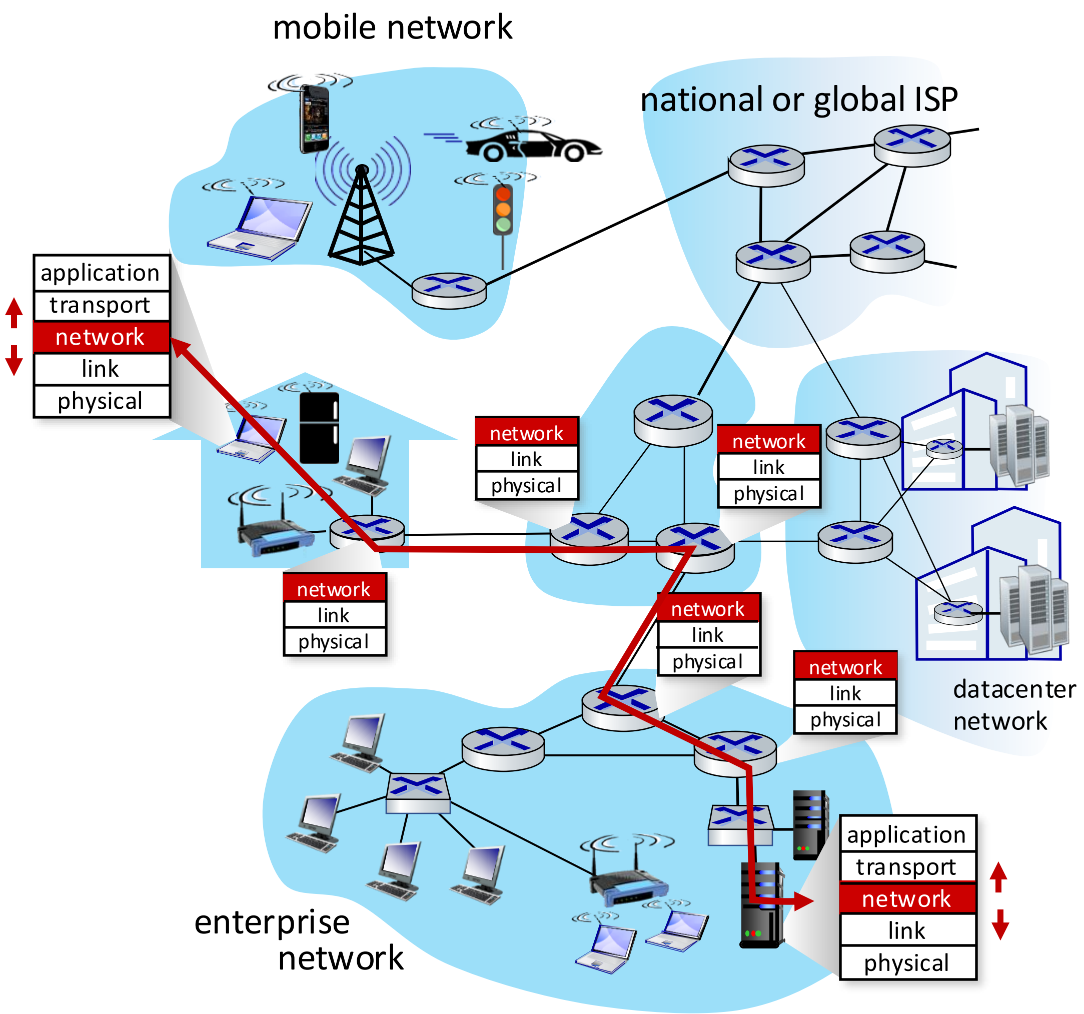
Chapter 4
Network Layer: Data Plane



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach
8th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Network-layer services and protocols

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
  - sender: encapsulates segments into datagrams, passes to link layer
  - receiver: delivers segments to transport layer protocol
- network layer protocols in *every Internet device*: hosts, routers
- routers:
  - examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it
  - moves datagrams from input ports to output ports to transfer datagrams along end-end path



Two key network-layer functions

network-layer functions:

- *forwarding:* move packets from a router's input link to appropriate router output link
- *routing:* determine route taken by packets from source to destination
  - *routing algorithms*

analogy: taking a trip

- *forwarding:* process of getting through single interchange
- *routing:* process of planning trip from source to destination

forwarding

routing

Network layer: "data plane" roadmap

- Network layer: overview
  - data plane
  - control plane
- What's inside a router
  - input ports, switching, output ports
  - buffer management, scheduling
- IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format
  - addressing
  - network address translation
  - IPv6

- Generalized Forwarding, SDN
  - match+action
  - OpenFlow: match+action in action
- Middleboxes

IP Datagram format

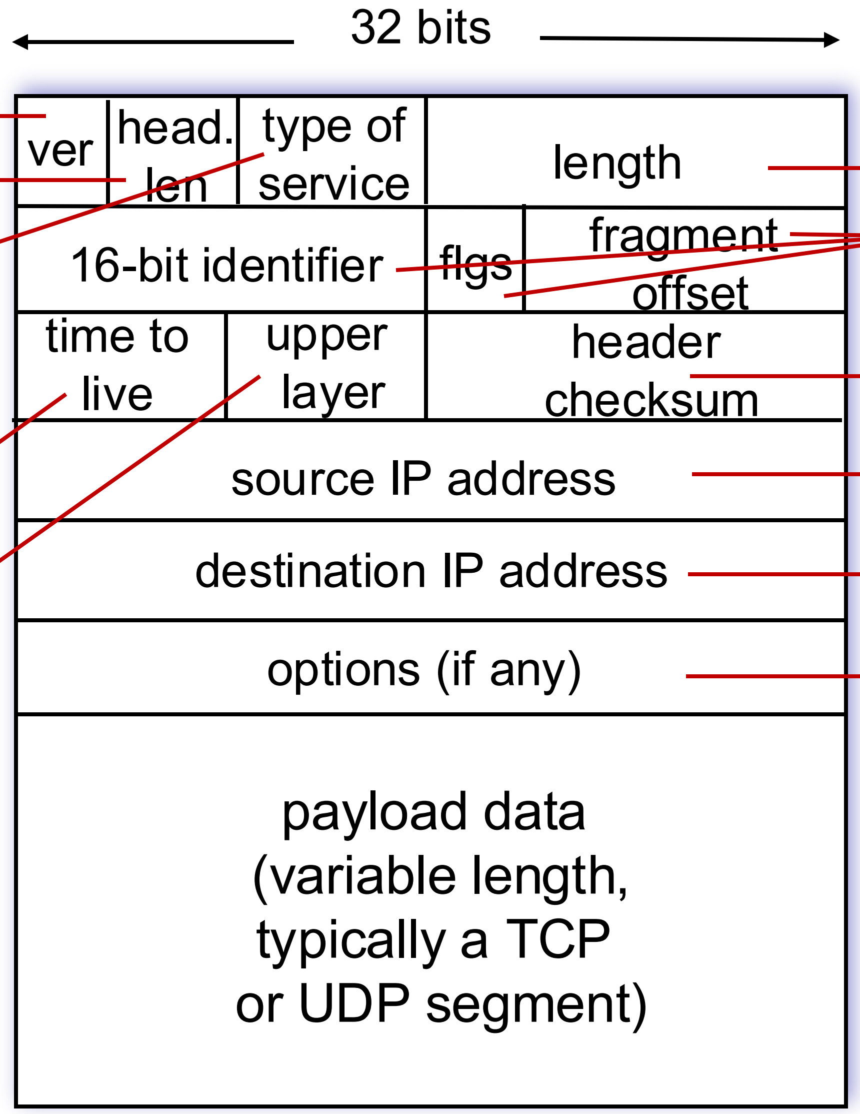
IP protocol version number

header length(bytes)

“type” of service:
- diffserv (0:5)
- ECN (6:7)

TTL: remaining max hops (decremented at each router)

upper layer protocol (e.g., TCP or UDP)



total datagram length (bytes)

fragmentation/ reassembly

header checksum

32-bit source IP address

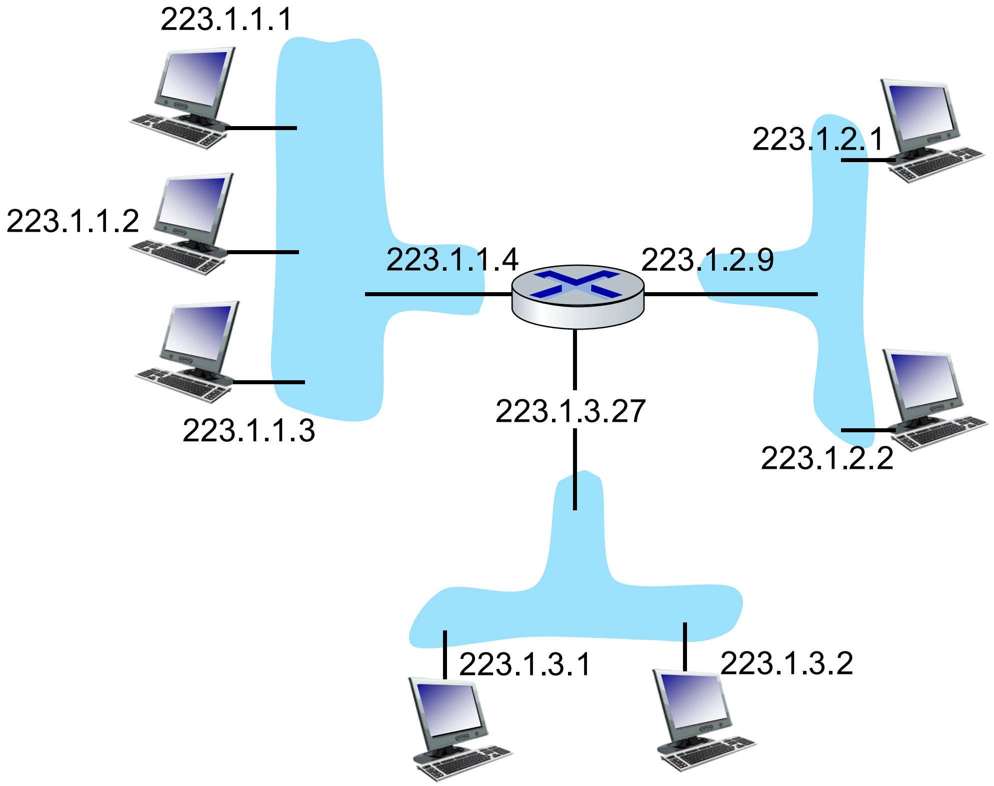
Maximum length: 64K bytes
Typically: 1500 bytes or less

e.g., timestamp, record route taken

overhead
- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes + app layer overhead for TCP+IP

IP addressing: introduction

- IP address: 32-bit identifier associated with each host or router *interface*
- interface: connection between host/router and physical link
  - router's typically have multiple interfaces
  - host typically has one or two interfaces (e.g., wired Ethernet, wireless 802.11)



dotted-decimal IP address notation:

$$223.1.1.1 = \underbrace{11011111}_{223}\ \underbrace{00000001}_{1}\ \underbrace{00000001}_{1}\ \underbrace{00000001}_{1}$$

IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing (pronounced “cider”)

- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address

subnet part | host part

11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000

200.23.16.0/23

IP addresses: how to get one?

That's actually two questions:

1. Q: How does a *host* get IP address within its network (host part of address)?
2. Q: How does a *network* get IP address for itself (network part of address)

How does *host* get IP address?

- hard-coded by sysadmin in config file (e.g., /etc/rc.config in UNIX)
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address from as server
  - "plug-and-play"

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

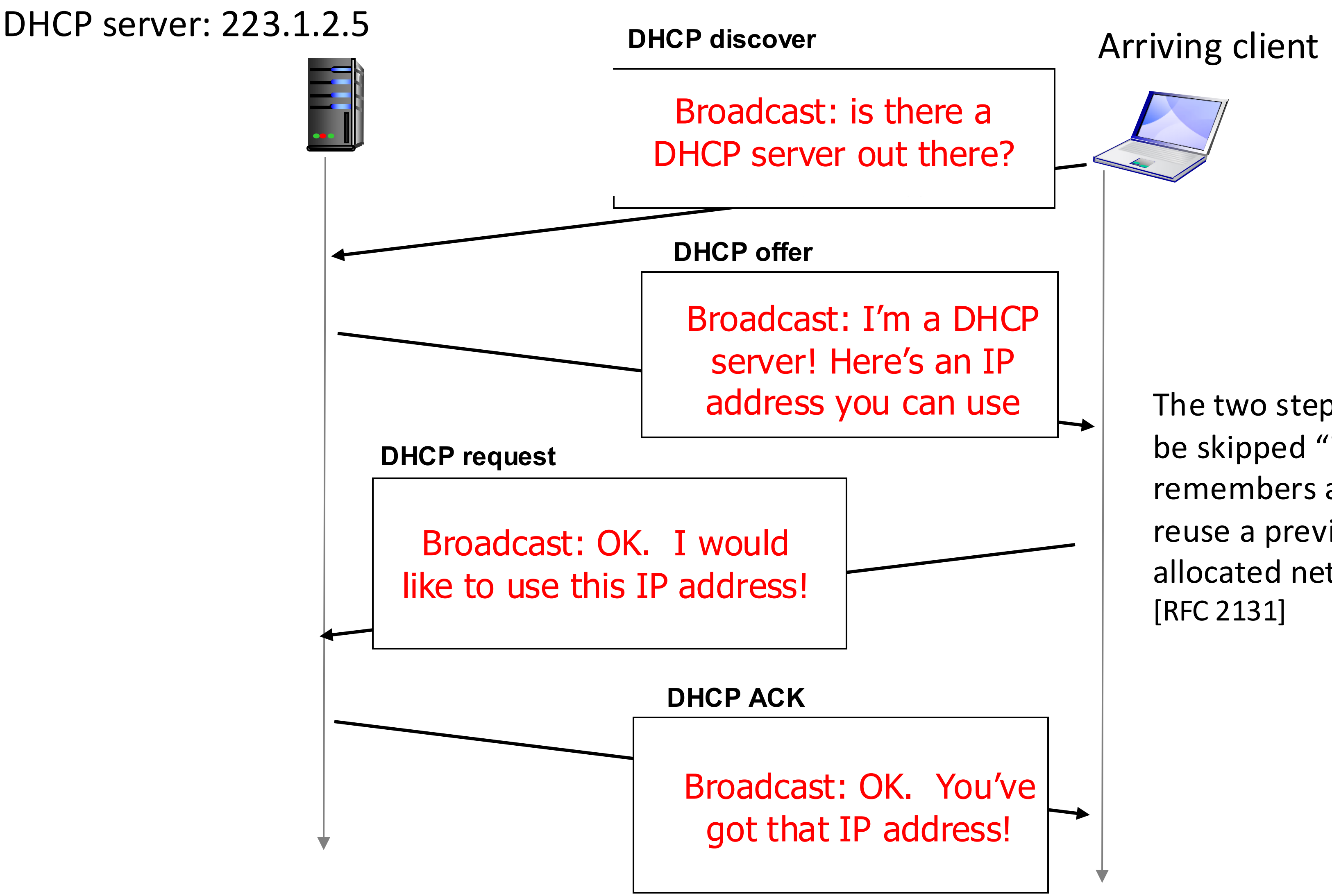
goal: host *dynamically* obtains IP address from network server when it "joins" network

- can renew its lease on address in use
- allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected/on)
- support for mobile users who join/leave network

DHCP overview:

- host broadcasts DHCP discover msg [optional]
- DHCP server responds with DHCP offer msg [optional]
- host requests IP address: DHCP request msg
- DHCP server sends address: DHCP ack msg

DHCP client-server scenario



The two steps above can be skipped "if a client remembers and wishes to reuse a previously allocated network address" [RFC 2131]

DHCP: more than IP addresses

DHCP can return more than just allocated IP address on subnet:

- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: how does *network* get subnet part of IP address?

A: gets allocated portion of its provider ISP's address space

ISP's block	11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000	200.23.16.0/20

IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: how does *network* get subnet part of IP address?

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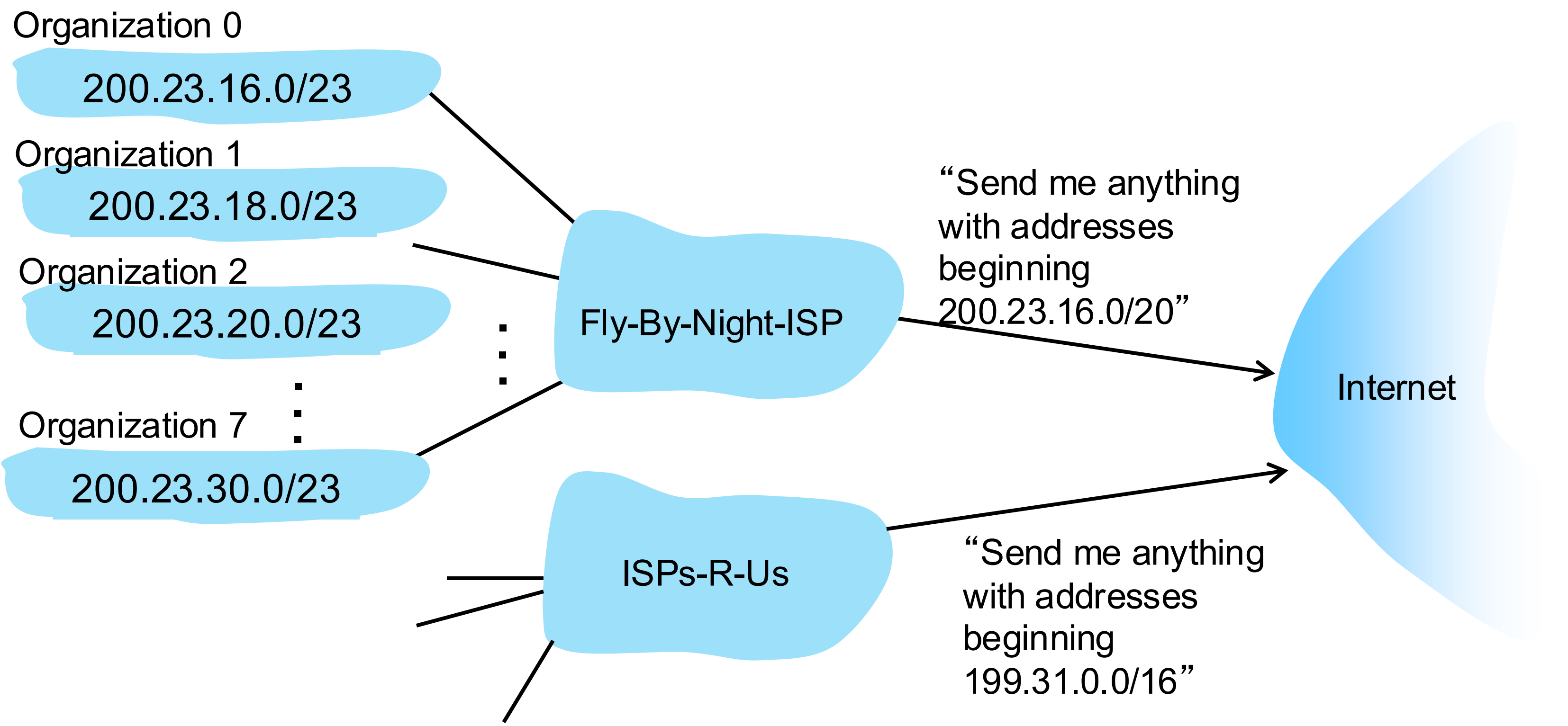
ISP's block	11001000	00010111	00010000	00000000	200.23.16.0/20

ISP can then allocate out its address space in 8 blocks:

Organization 0	11001000	00010111	00010000	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	11001000	00010111	00010010	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	11001000	00010111	00010100	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
...		.....		….	….
Organization 7	11001000	00010111	00011110	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

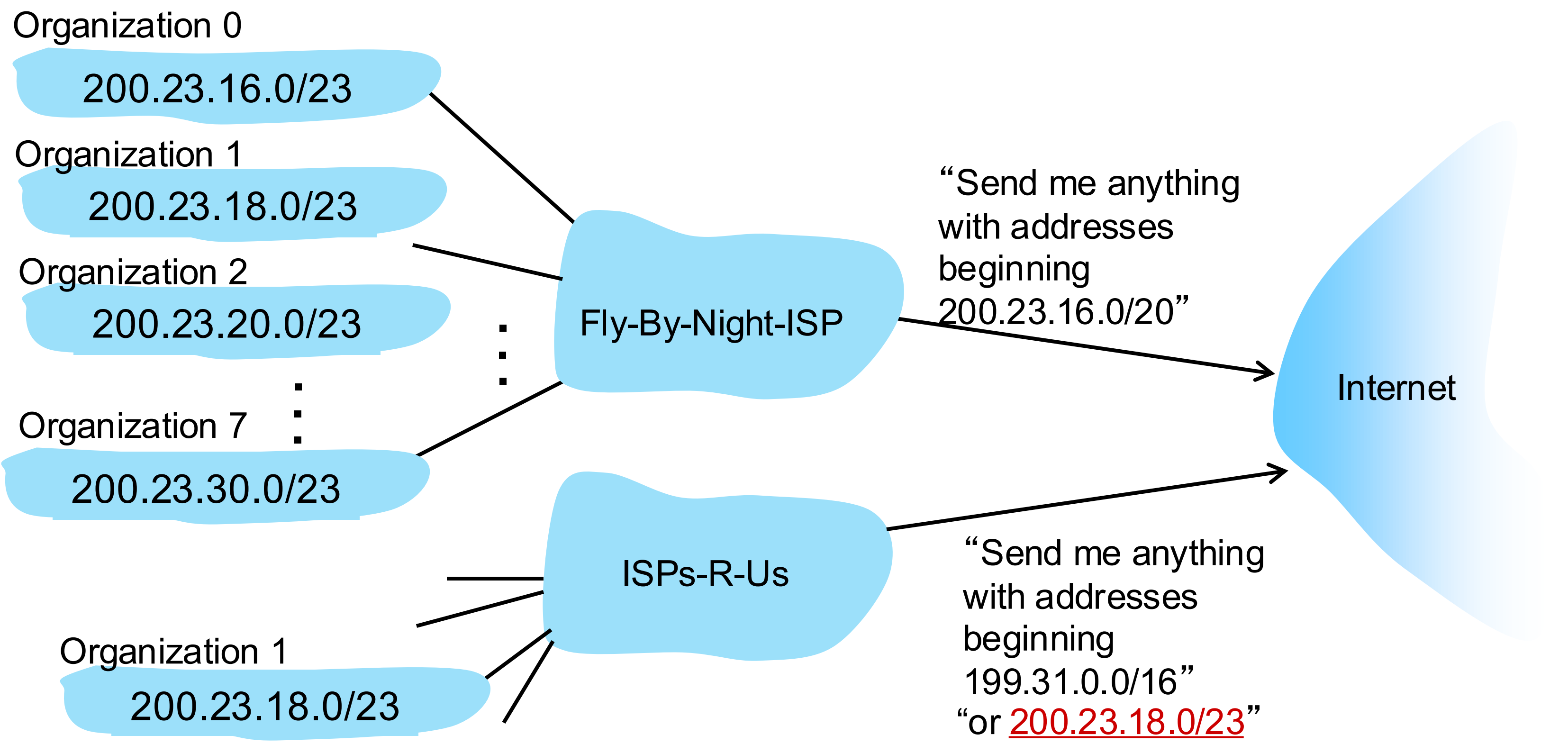
Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

- Organization 1 moves from Fly-By-Night-ISP to ISPs-R-Us
- ISPs-R-Us now advertises a more specific route to Organization 1



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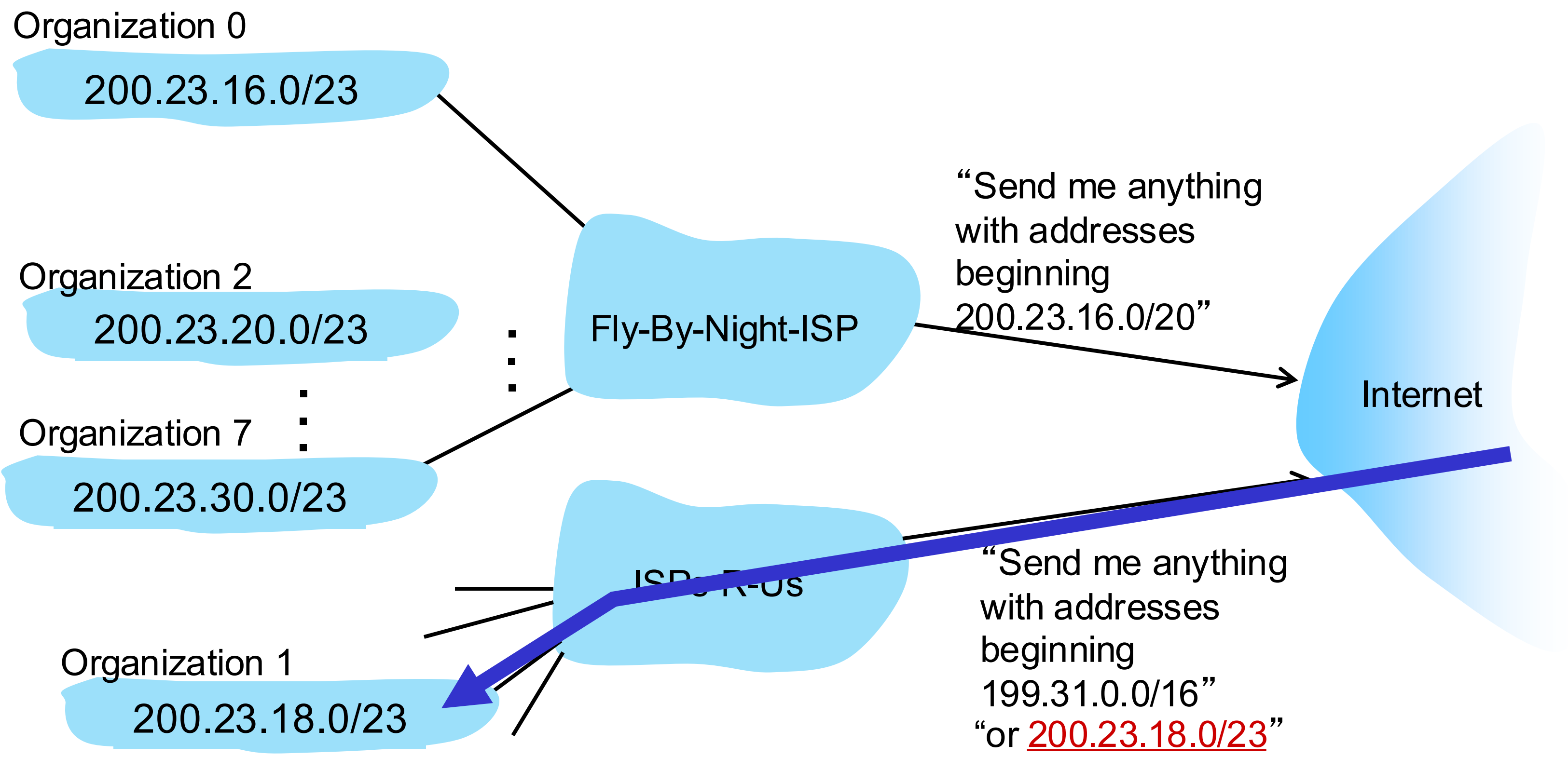

IP addressing: last words ...

Q: how does an ISP get block of addresses?

A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers http://www.icann.org/

- allocates IP addresses, through 5 regional registries (RRs) (who may then allocate to local registries)
- manages DNS root zone, including delegation of individual TLD (.com, .edu , …) management

Q: are there enough 32-bit IP addresses?

- ICANN allocated last chunk of IPv4 addresses to RRs in 2011
- NAT (next) helps IPv4 address space exhaustion
- IPv6 has 128-bit address space

"Who the hell knew how much address space we needed?" Vint Cerf (reflecting on decision to make IPv4 address 32 bits long)

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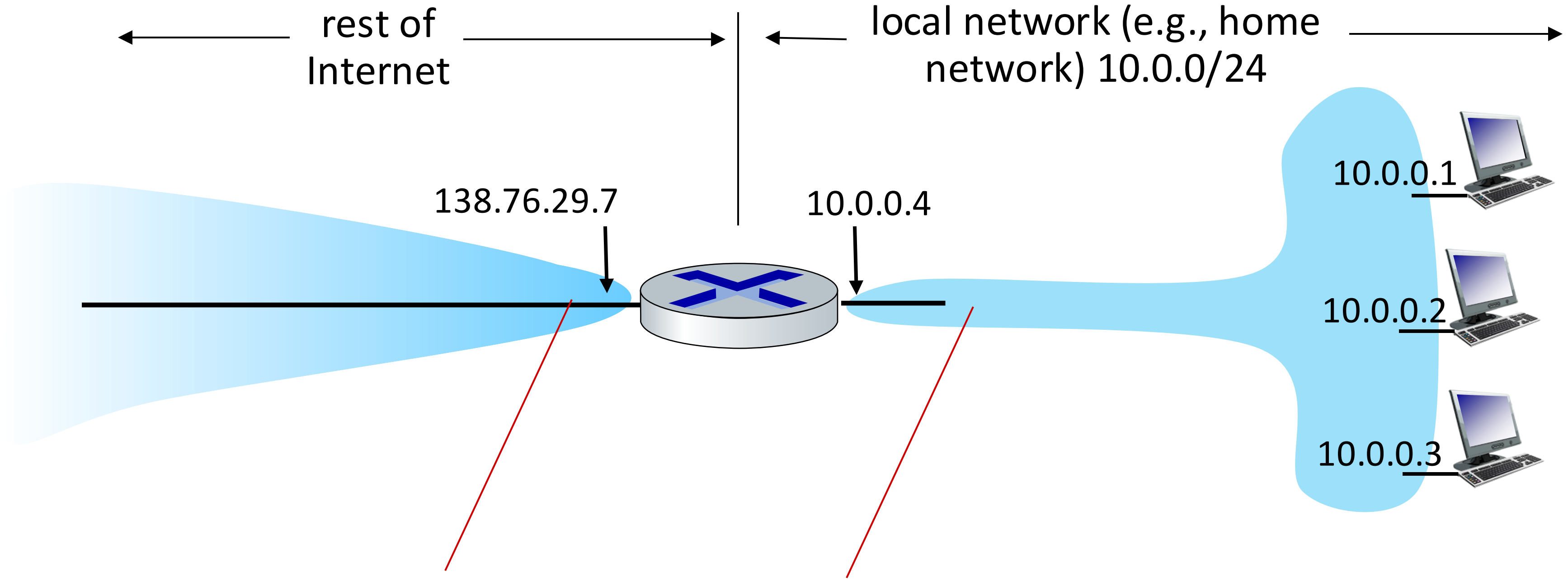
NAT: network address translation

NAT: all devices in local network share just one IPv4 address as far as outside world is concerned



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, but *different* source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

NAT: network address translation

- all devices in local network have 32-bit addresses in a "private" IP address space (10/8, 172.16/12, 192.168/16 prefixes) that can only be used in local network
- advantages:
  - just one IP address needed from provider ISP for *all* devices
  - can change addresses of host in local network without notifying outside world
  - can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
  - security: devices inside local net not directly addressable, visible by outside world

NAT: network address translation

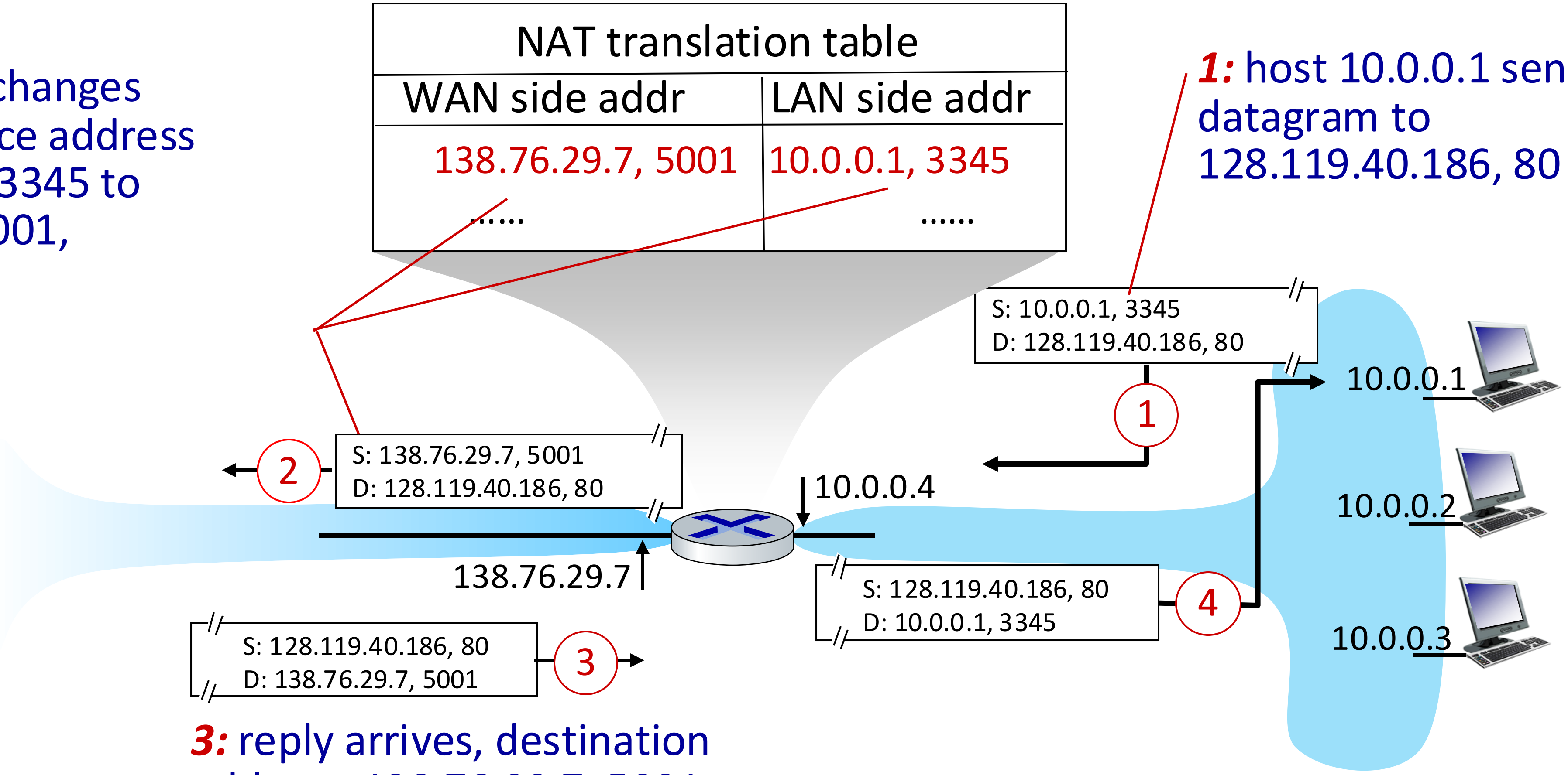
implementation: NAT router must (transparently):

- outgoing datagrams: replace (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)
  - remote clients/servers will respond using (NAT IP address, new port #) as destination address
- remember (in NAT translation table) every (source IP address, port #) to (NAT IP address, new port #) translation pair
- incoming datagrams: replace (NAT IP address, new port #) in destination fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT: network address translation

2: NAT router changes datagram source address from 10.0.0.1, 3345 to 138.76.29.7, 5001, updates table

1: host 10.0.0.1 sends datagram to 128.119.40.186, 80



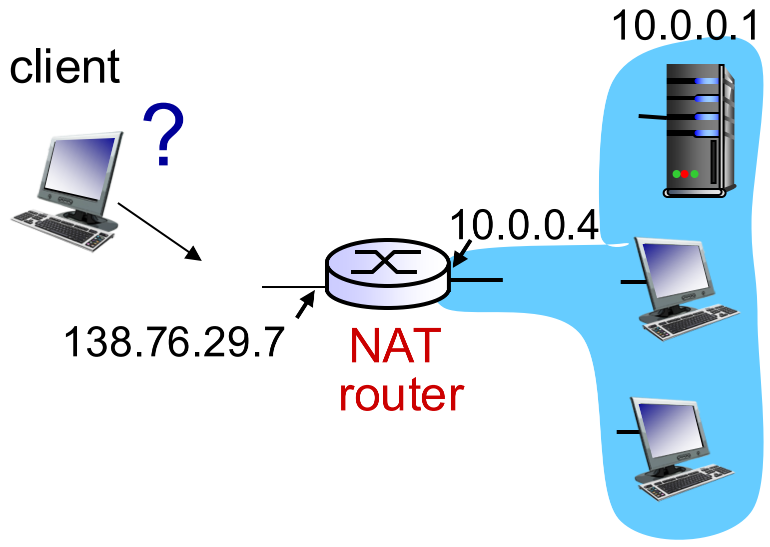
3: reply arrives, destination address: 138.76.29.7, 5001

NAT: network address translation

- NAT has been controversial:
  - routers “should” only process up to layer 3
  - address “shortage” should be solved by IPv6
  - violates end-to-end argument (port # manipulation by network-layer device)
  - NAT traversal: what if client wants to connect to server behind NAT?
- but NAT is here to stay:
  - extensively used in home and institutional nets, 4G/5G cellular nets

NAT traversal problem

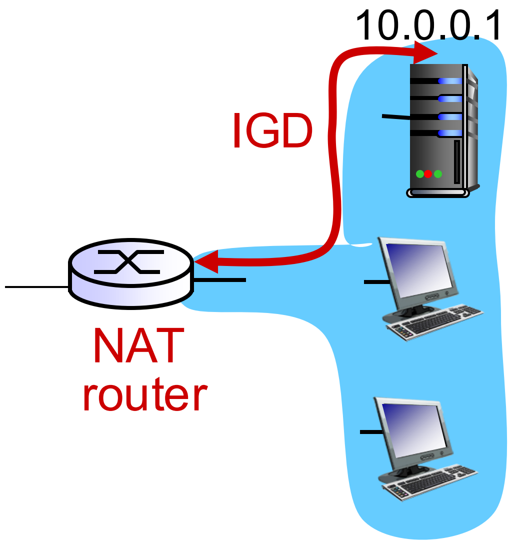
- client wants to connect to server with address 10.0.0.1
  - server address 10.0.0.1 local to LAN (client can't use it as destination addr)
  - only one externally visible NATed address: 138.76.29.7
- *solution1:* statically configure NAT to forward incoming connection requests at given port to server
  - e.g., (123.76.29.7, port 2500) always forwarded to 10.0.0.1 port 25000



NAT traversal problem

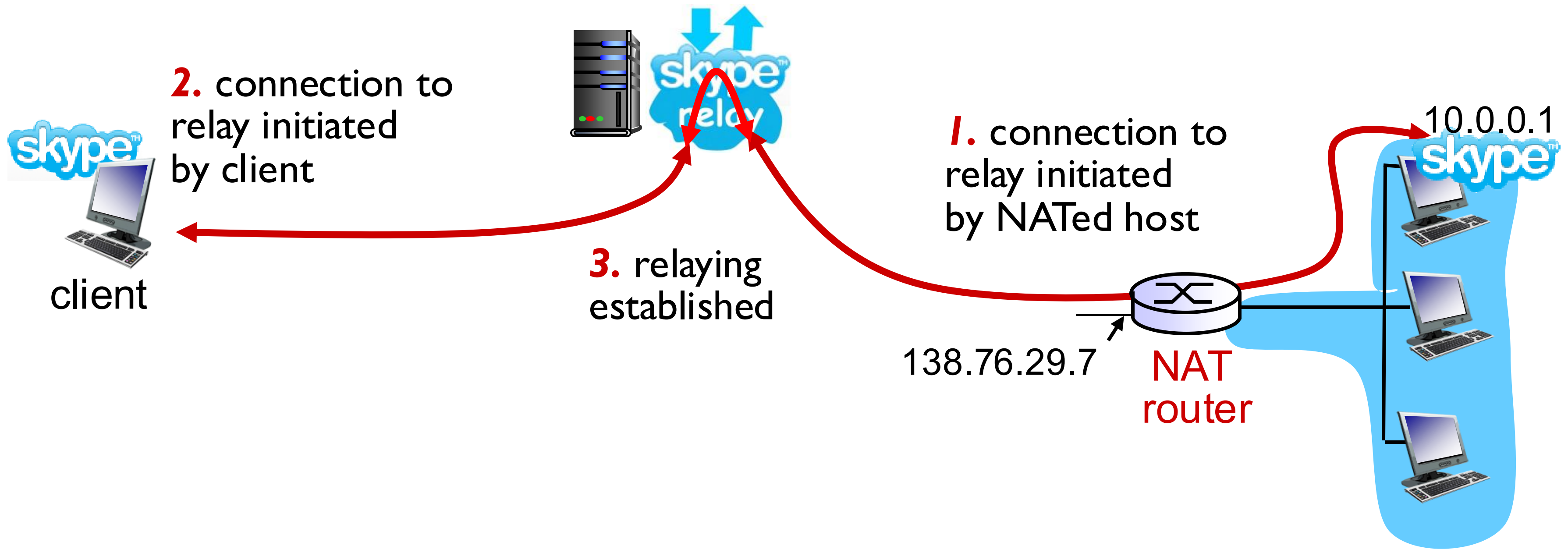
- *solution 2:* Universal Plug and Play (UPnP) Internet Gateway Device (IGD) Protocol. Allows NATed host to:
  - learn public IP address (138.76.29.7)
  - add/remove port mappings (with lease times)

  i.e., automate static NAT port map configuration



NAT traversal problem

- *solution 3:* relaying (used in Skype)
  - NATed client establishes connection to relay
  - external client connects to relay
  - relay bridges packets between to connections



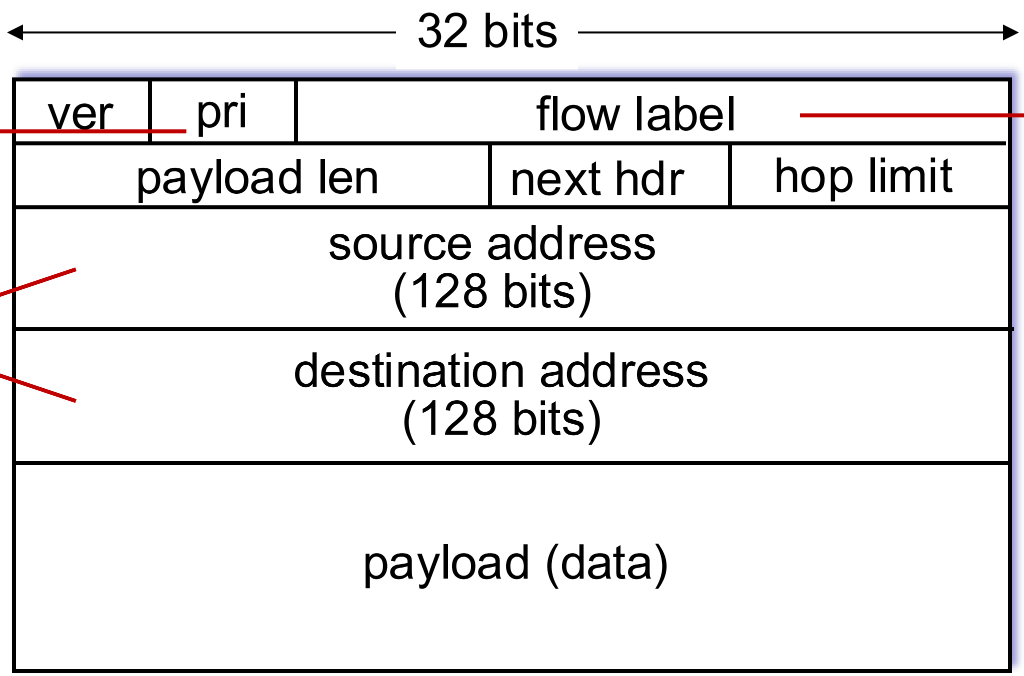
IPv6: motivation

- initial motivation: 32-bit IPv4 address space would be completely allocated
- additional motivation:
  - speed processing/forwarding: 40-byte fixed length header
  - enable different network-layer treatment of “flows”

IPv6 datagram format

priority: identify priority among datagrams in flow

128-bit IPv6 addresses



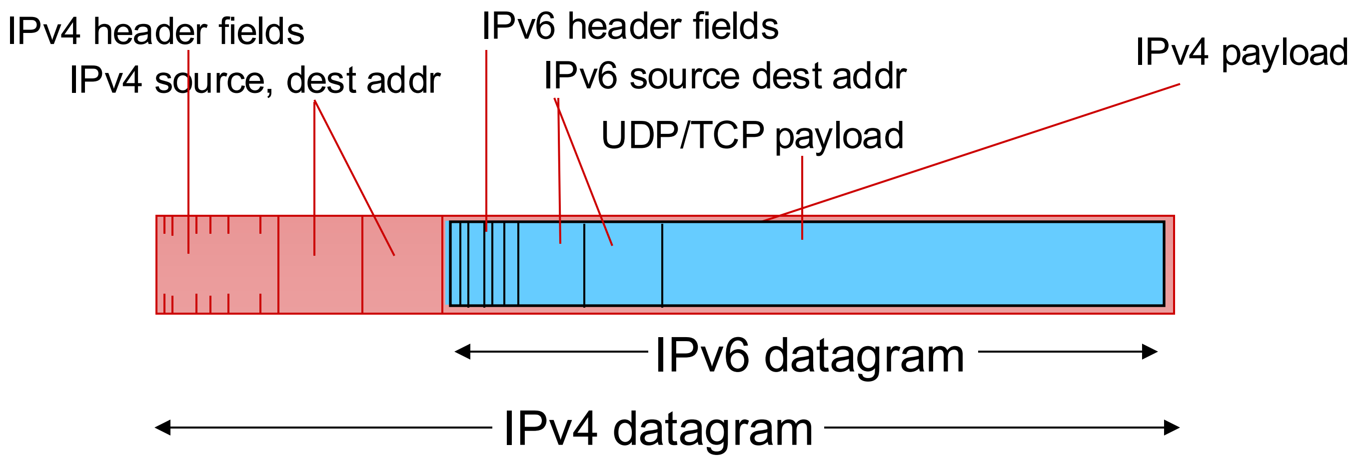
flow label: identify datagrams in same "flow.” (concept of “flow” not well defined).

What’s missing (compared with IPv4):

- no checksum (to speed processing at routers)
- no fragmentation/reassembly
- no options (available as upper-layer, next-header protocol at router)

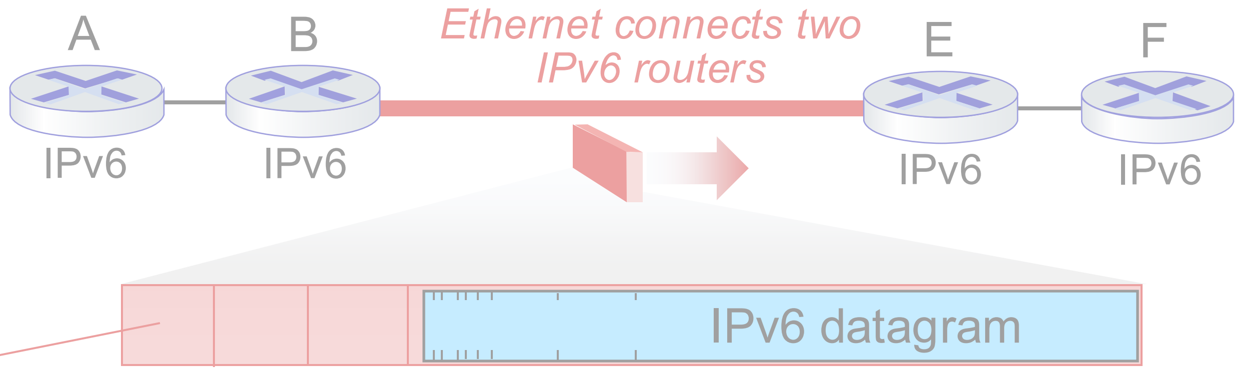
Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
  - no "flag days"
  - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- tunneling: IPv6 datagram carried as *payload* in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers ("packet within a packet")
  - tunneling used extensively in other contexts (4G/5G)



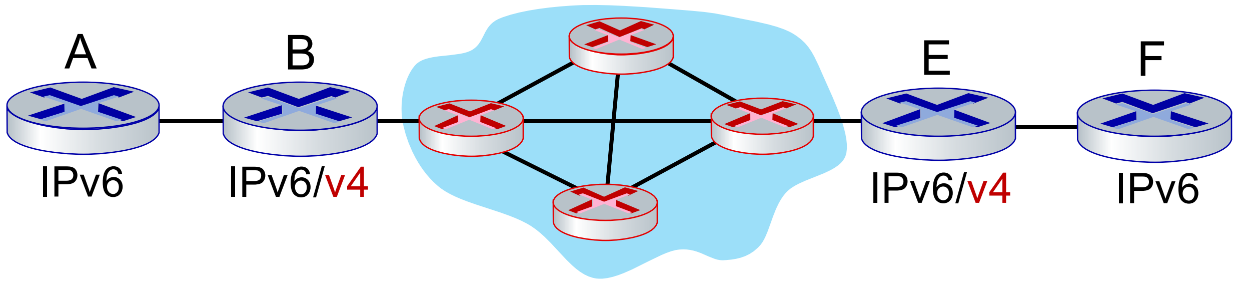
Tunneling and encapsulation

Ethernet connecting two IPv6 routers:



The usual: datagram as payload in link-layer frame

IPv4 network connecting two IPv6 routers



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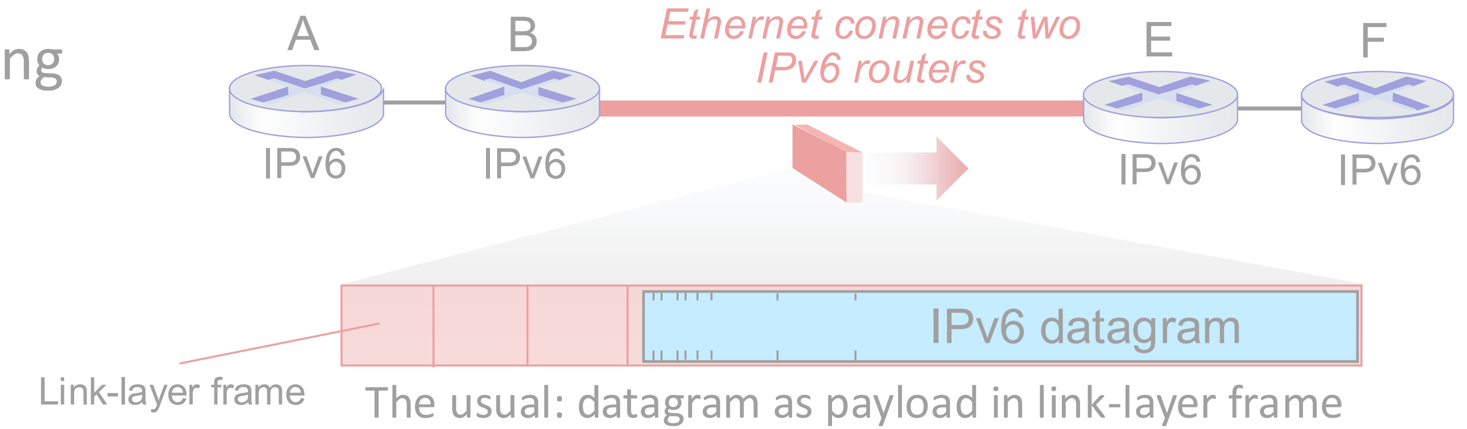
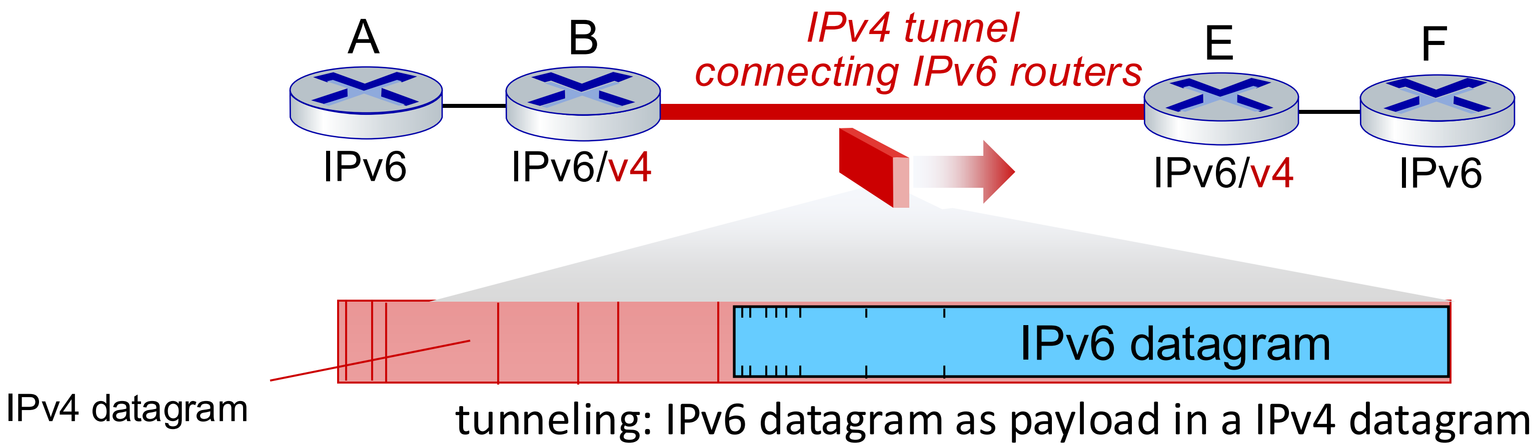


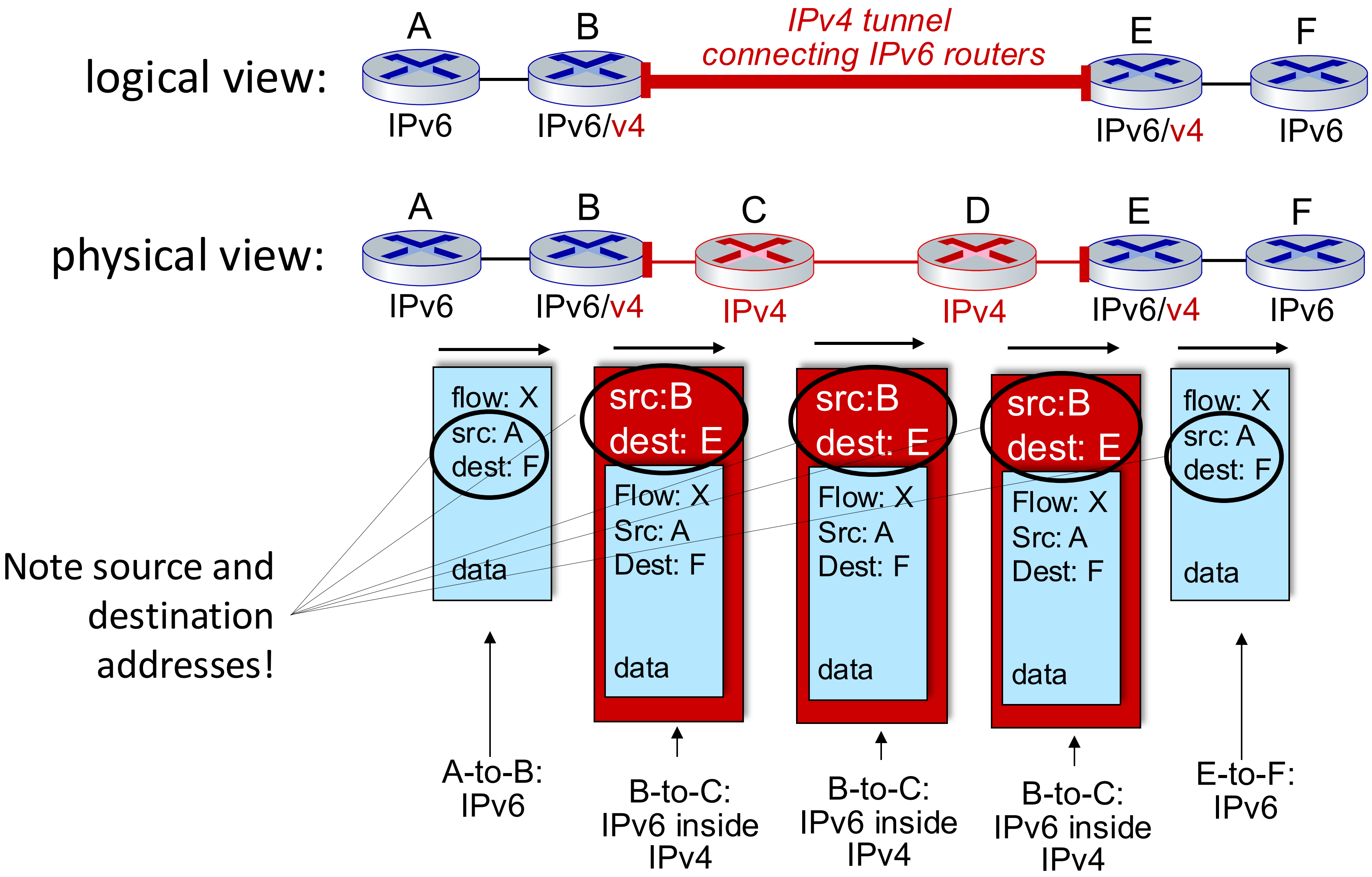
The usual: datagram as payload in link-layer frame

IPv4 tunnel connecting two IPv6 routers



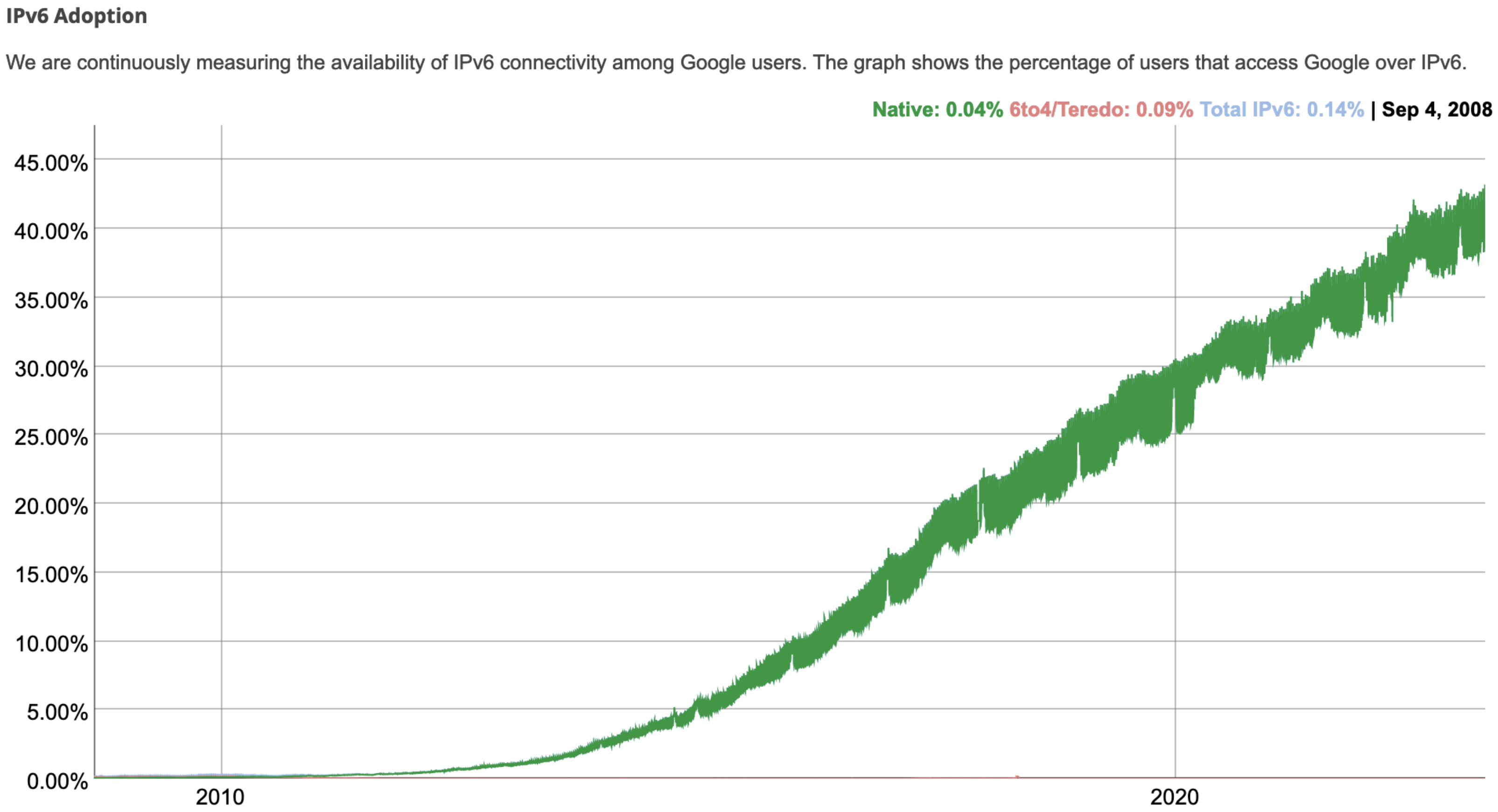
tunneling: IPv6 datagram as payload in a IPv4 datagram

Tunneling


logical view:
A
B
IPv4 tunnel
connecting IPv6 routers
E
F
IPv6
IPv6/v4
IPv6/v4
IPv6
physical view:
A
B
C
D
E
F
IPv6
IPv6/v4
IPv4
IPv4
IPv6/v4
IPv6
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
Note source and
destination
addresses!
A-to-B:
IPv6
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
E-to-F:
IPv6

IPv6: adoption

- Google[1]: ~ 40% of clients access services via IPv6 (2023)
- NIST: 1/3 of all US government domains are IPv6 capable



IPv6: adoption

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- NIST: 1/3 of all US government domains are IPv6 capable
- Long (long!) time for deployment, use
  - 25 years and counting!
  - think of application-level changes in last 25 years: WWW, social media, streaming media, gaming, telepresence, …
  - *Why?*

[1] https://www.google.com/intl/en/ipv6/statistics.html