

# Chapter 19 Network Layer: Logical Addressing



#### 19-1 IPv4 ADDRESSES

An IPv4 address is a 32-bit address that uniquely and universally defines the connection of a device (for example, a computer or a router) to the Internet.

## Topics discussed in this section:

**Address Space** 

**Notations** 

**Classful Addressing** 

**Classless Addressing** 

**Network Address Translation (NAT)** 



## **IPV4 Address**

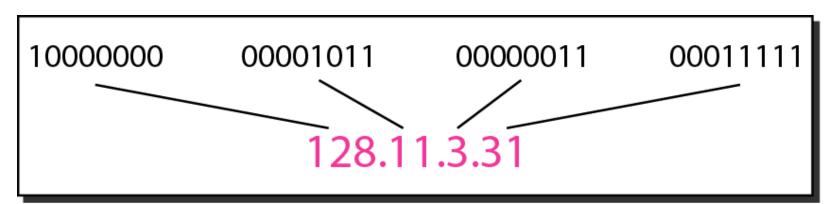
- An IPv4 address is 32 bits long.
- The IPv4 addresses are unique and universal.
- ☐ The address space of IPv4 is 2<sup>32</sup> or 4,294,967,296



## **IPV4 Address**

#### Notation

- Binary Notation :
  - The IPV4 address is displayed as 32 bits.
  - Each octet is often referred to as a byte.
- Dotted-Decimal Notation
  - To make the IPV4 address more compact and easier to read, Internet addresses are written in decimal form with a decimal point (dot) separating the byte.





## Notation (cont'd)

Hexadecimal Notation

0111 0101 1001 0101 0001 1101 1110 1010

**75** 

**95** 

**1D** 

EA

0x75951DEA

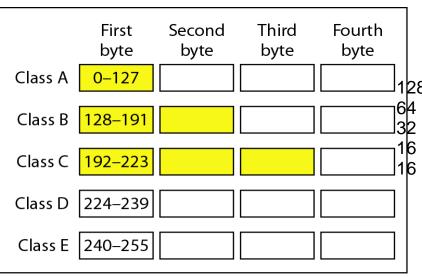
- 8 hexadecimal digits
- Used in network programming



- □ In classful addressing, the address space is divided into five classes: A, B, C, D, and E.
  - If the address is given in binary notation, the first few bits can tell us the class of the address.
  - If the address is given in decimal-dotted notation, the first byte defines the class.

	First byte	Second byte	Third byte	Fourth byte
Class A	0			
Class B	10			
Class C	110			
Class D	1110			
Class E	1111			

a. Binary notation



b. Dotted-decimal notation



- Classful Addresses
  - Unicast Communication A, B, C Class
     (~must be delivered to specific computer)
  - Multicast Communication D Class
     (~must be delivered to each member of the group)
  - For reserve E Class



#### Classes and blocks

One problem with classful addressing is that each class is divided into a fixed number of blocks with each block having a fixed size.

Table 19.1 Number of blocks and block size in classful IPv4 addressing

Class	Number of Blocks	Block Size	Application
A	128	16,777,216	Unicast
В	16,384	65,536	Unicast
С	2,097,152	256	Unicast
D	1	268,435,456	Multicast
Е	1	268,435,456	Reserved



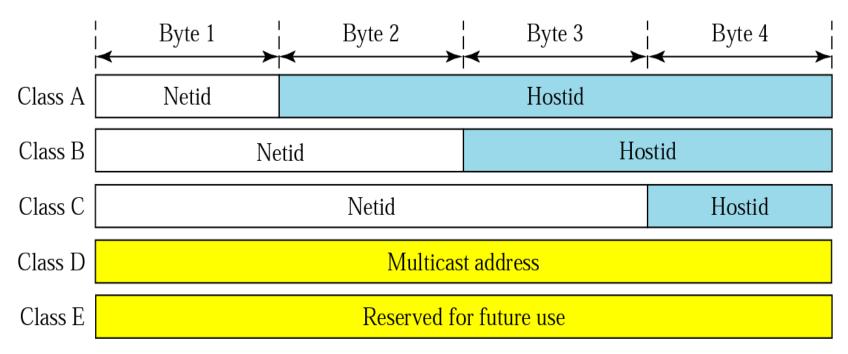
- Class A addresses were designed for large organizations
  - The most of the addresses were wasted and were not used.
- Class B addresses were designed for midsize organizations
  - Class B is also too large for many organizations.
- Class C addresses were designed for small organizations
  - Class C is too small for many organizations.
- Class D addresses were designed for multicasting
  - Each addresses in this class is used to define one group of hosts on the Internet.
- Class E addresses were reserved for future use.
  - Only a few used, resulting in another waste of addresses.

In classful addressing, a large part of the available addresses were wasted.



#### Netid and Hostid

- IP address in class A,B, or C is divided into netID and hostID.
  - netID defines a Network, and hostID defines a host in the networks.





#### MASK

#### Mask

- When a router receives a packet with a destination address, it needs to route the packet.
- The routing is based on the network address and subnetwork address.
  - The router outside the organization has a routing table with one column based on the network addresses;
  - The router inside the organization has a routing table based on the subnetwork addresses.
- The mask is a 32-bit binary number, and the mask can help to find the network and subnetwork address.
  - The routers outside the organization use a Default Mask to find the network address and,
  - The routers inside the organization use a Subnet Mask to find the subnetwork address..



## **Default Mask**

#### Default Mask

- ❖ A default mask is a 32-bit binary number, and the default mask for each class are as follows; 255.0.0.0, 255.255.0.0, 255.255.255.0.
- ❖ Default mask gives the network address when ANDed with an address in the block.
  - If the bit in the mask is 1, the corresponding bit in the address is retained in the output (no change)
  - •If the mask is 0, a 0 bit in the output is the result.

#### Table 19.1 Default masks

Class	Binary	Dotted-Decimal	CIDR
A	1111111 00000000 00000000 00000000	<b>255</b> .0.0.0	/8
В	1111111 11111111 00000000 00000000	<b>255.255.</b> 0.0	/16
С	1111111 11111111 11111111 00000000	255.255.255.0	/24



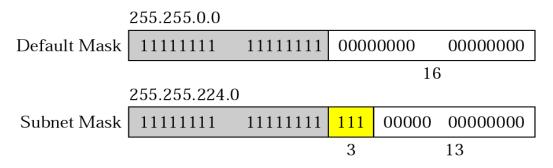
## **Subnet Mask**

#### Subnetting

A network is divided into several smaller networks with each subnetwork (or subnet) having its subnetwork address

#### Subnet Mask :

- We change some of the leftmost 0s in the default mask to make a subnet mask.
- **❖** The number of subnets is determined by the number of extra 1s.
  - If the number of extra 1s in n, the number of subnets is 2<sup>n</sup>.
  - If the number of subnets is N, the number of extra 1s is log<sub>2</sub> N.



$$2^{n} = 2^{3} = 8$$
 subnets



# Supernetting and Address depletion

## Supernetting

Combining several class C addresses to create a larger range of addresses

## Address Depletion

- The fast growth of the Internet led to the near depletion of the available addresses.
- Classful addressing, which is almost obsolete, is replaced with classless addressing.



## **Network Address**

#### Network Addresses

- \* The first address in a block is normally not assigned to any device;
- It is used as the network address that represents the organization to the rest of the world.

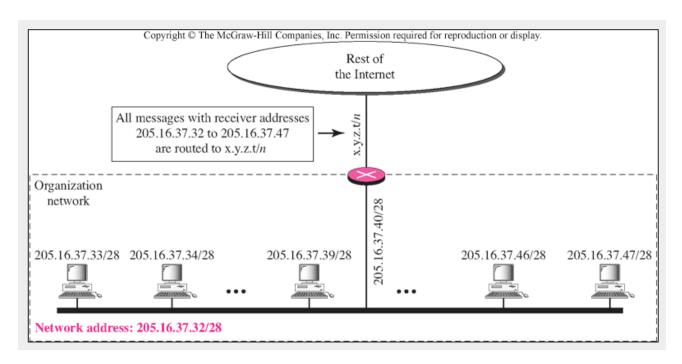


Figure 19.4 A network configuration for the block 205.16.37.32/28



#### **Network Address**

#### Hierarchy

- IP addresses have levels of hierarchy.
- For example, a telephone network has three levels of hierarchy.
  - The leftmost 3 digits define the area code, the next 3 digits define the exchange, the last 4 digits define the connection of the local loop to the central office.

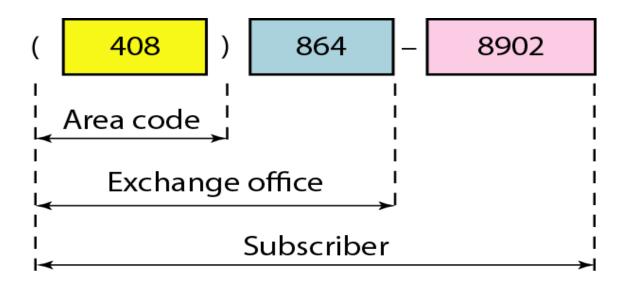


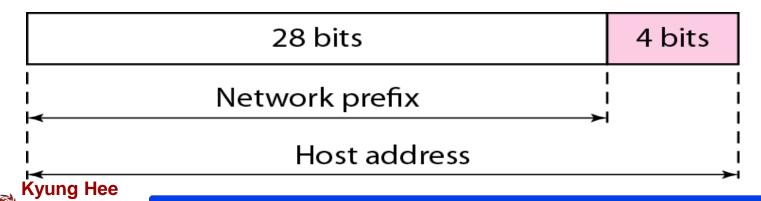
Figure 19.5 Two levels of hierarchy in an IPv4 address



# **Subnetting and Supernetting**

- Two-level Hierarchy : No Subnetting
  - Each IP address in the block can define only two-level of hierarchy when not subnetted.
    - the leftmost n bits (prefix) define the network;
    - the rightmost 32 n bits define the host.
  - The part of the address that defines the network is called the Prefix;
  - The part that defines the host is called the Suffix.
  - ❖ The prefix is common to all addresses in the network; the suffix changes from one device to another.

Figure 19.6 A frame in a character-oriented protocol



# **Subnetting and Supernetting**

- Three-Levels of Hierarchy : Subnetting
  - Creating clusters of networks (called subnets)

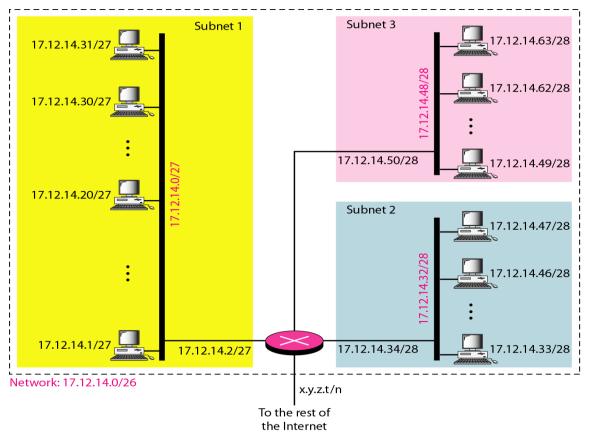


Figure 19.7 Configuration and addresses in a subnetted network



# **Subnetting and Supernetting**

- We have three levels of hierarchy through subnetting.
  - The subnet prefix length can differ for the subnets.

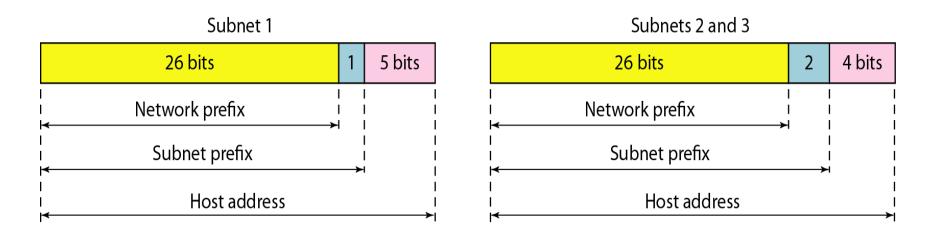


Figure 19.8 Three-level hierarchy in an IPv4 address

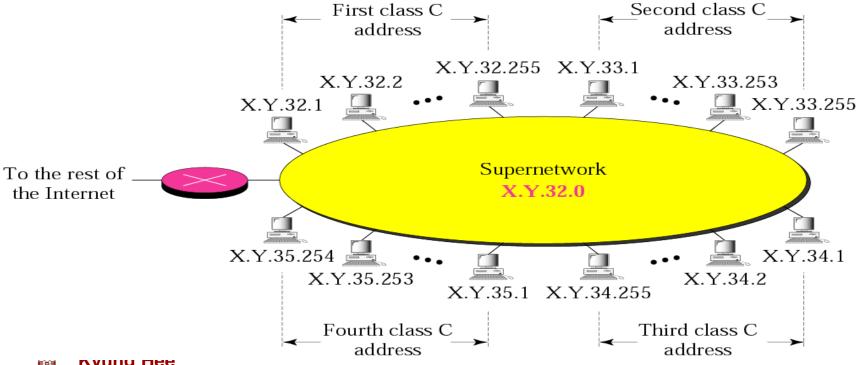


# Supernetting

## Supernetting

- A maximum number of Class C is 256 addresses,
- If organization needed more addresses, The Supernetting can combine several class C blocks to create a larger range of addresses.

(The mask changes from /24 to /22)





#### Network Address Translation (NAT)

- NAT enables a user to have a large set of address internally and one address, or a small set of addresses, externally.
- The Internet authorities have reserved 3 sets of addresses as private addresses.
  - Any organization can use an address out of this set without permission from the Internet authorities.
  - They are unique inside the organization, but they are not unique globally.
  - No router will forward this packet as the destination address.

 Table 19.3
 Addresses for private networks

Range			Total
10.0.0.0	to	10.255.255.255	$2^{24}$
172.16.0.0	to	172.31.255.255	$2^{20}$
192.168.0.0	to	192.168.255.255	$2^{16}$



#### ■NAT Implementation

- ❖ The router that connects the network to the global address uses one private address and one global address.
- **♦** The private network is transparent to the rest of the Internet; the rest of the Internet sees only the NAT router with the address 200.24.5.8.

Site using private addresses

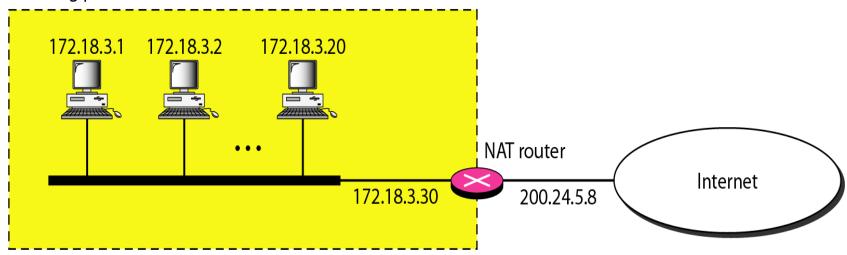


Figure 19.10 A NAT implementation



#### Address translation

- ❖ All the outgoing packets go through the NAT router, which replaces the source address in the packet with the global NAT address.
- **♦** All incoming packets also pass through the NAT router, which replaces the destination addresses in the packet with the appropriate private address.

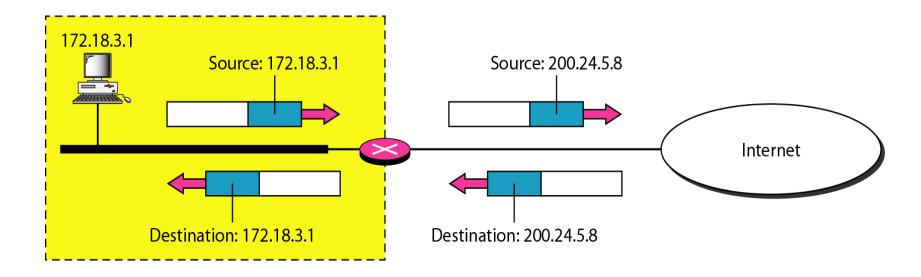


Figure 19.11 Addresses in a NAT



#### Translation Table

- ❖ When the router translates the source address of the outgoing packet, it also makes note of the destination address where the packet is going.
- ❖When the response comes back from the destination, the router uses the source address of the packet to find the private address of the packet.

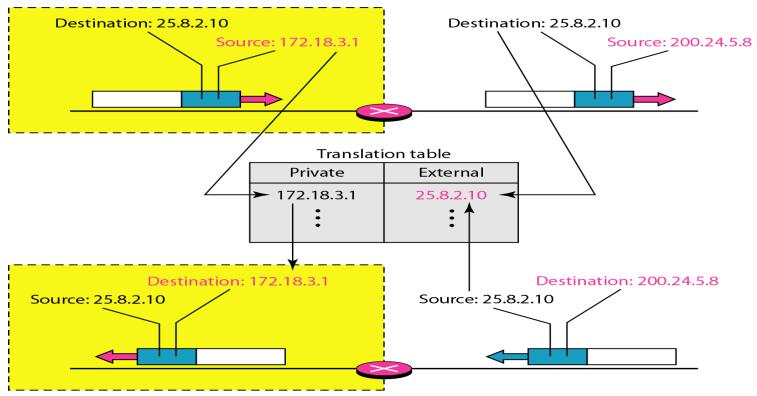




Figure 19.12 NAT address translation

## Using both IP addresses and port numbers

#### Table 19.4 Five-column translation table

Private Address	Private Port	External Address	External Port	Transport Protocol
172.18.3.1	1400	25.8.3.2	80	ТСР
172.18.3.2	1401	25.8.3.2	80	ТСР



#### 19-2 IPv6 ADDRESSES

Despite all short-term solutions, address depletion is still a long-term problem for the Internet. This and other problems in the IP protocol itself have been the motivation for IPv6.

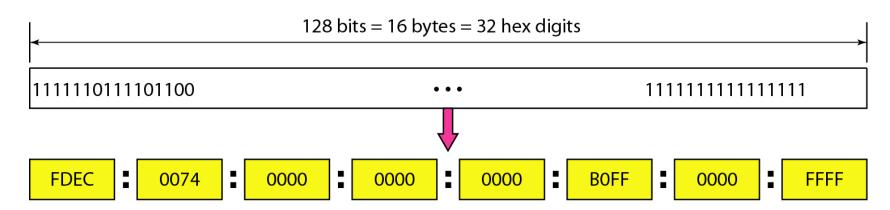
Topics discussed in this section:

Structure Address Space



#### Structure - IPv6

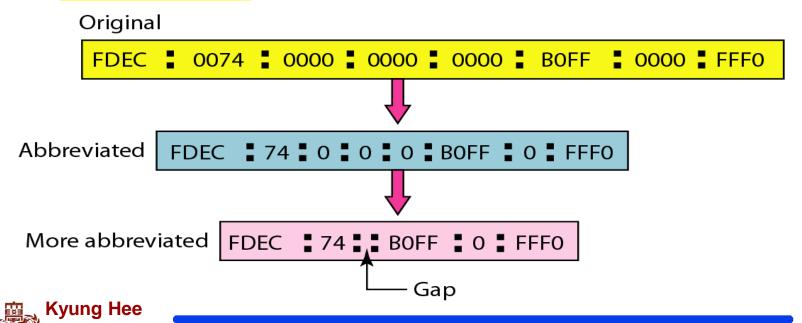
- An IPv6 address consists of 16 bytes (Octets); it is 128 bits long.
- Hexadeximal Colon Notation
  - In this notation, 128 bits is divided into eight sections, each 2 bytes in length.
  - Therefore, the address consists of 32 hexadecimal digits, with every four digits separated by a colon.





#### **Abbreviation**

- Although the IP address, even in hexadecimal format, is very long, many of the digits are zeros.
- The leading zeros of a section (four digits between two colons) can be omitted.
  - Only the leading zeros can be dropped, not the trailing zeros.



28

# **Address Space**

□ IPv6 has a much lager address space; 2<sup>128</sup> addresses are available.



# Summary (1)

- At the Network layer, a global identification system that uniquely identifies every host and router is necessary for delivery of packet from host to host.
- An IPv4 address is 32 bits long and uniquely and universally defines a host or router on the Internet.
- ☐ In classful addressing, the portion of the IP address that identifies the network is called the netid.
- □ In classful addressing, the portion of the IP address that identifies the host or router on the network is called the hosted.
- An IP address defines a device's connection to a network.
- □ There are five classes in IPv4 addresses. Classes A, B, and C differ in the number of hosts allowed per network. Class D is for multicasting and Class E is reserved.



# Summary(2)

- The class of an address is easily determined by examination of the first byte.
- Addresses in classes A, B, or C are mostly used for unicast communication.
- Address in class D are used for multicast communication.
- Subnetting devides on large network into several smaller ones, adding an intermediate level of hierarchy in IP addressing.
- Supernetting combines several networks into one large one.
- □ In classless addressing, we can divided the address space into variable-length blocks.



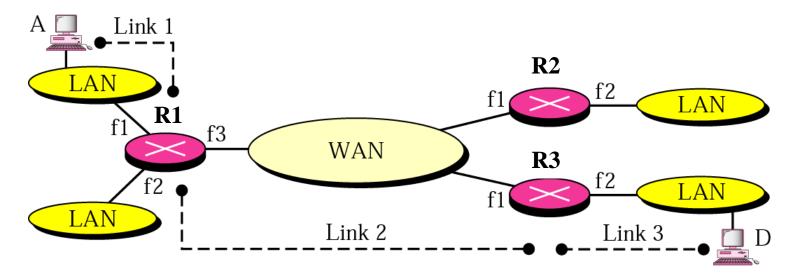


# Chapter 20 Network Layer: Internet Protocol



## Internetworking

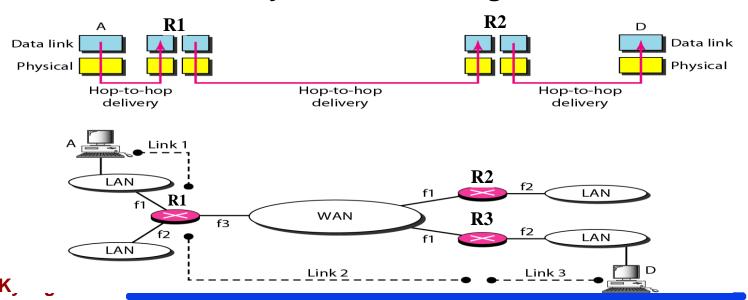
- The physical and data link layers of a network operate locally.
- These two layers are jointly responsible for data delivery on the network from one node to the next.





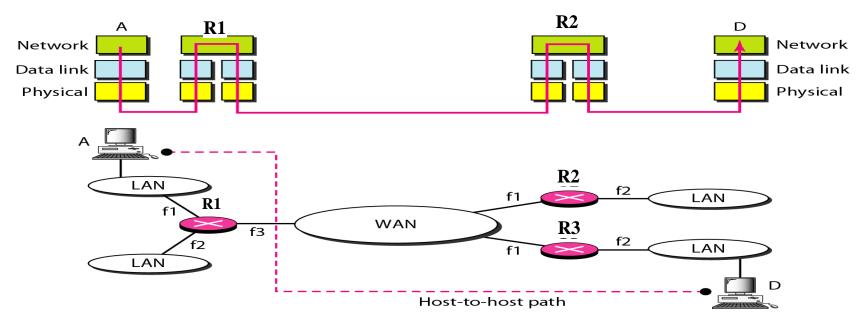
R

- When data arrive at interface f1 of R1, how does R1 know that interface f3 is the outgoing interface ?
  - **♦** There is no provision in the data link (or physical) layer to help R1 make the right decision. The frame dose not carry any routing information either.
  - **❖The frame contains the MAC address of the A and R1.**
- □ A LAN or a WAN carry the frame through one link.



## ■ Need for Network Layer

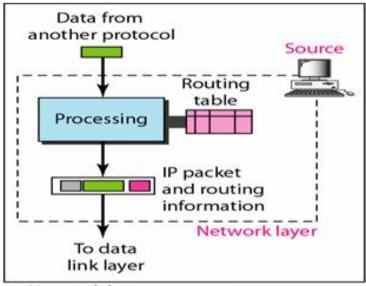
- ❖ To solve the problem of delivery through several links, the network layer (or the inter network layer, as it is sometimes called) was designed.
- The network layer is responsible for host-to-host delivery and for routing the packets through the routers or switches.





#### Network layer at the source

- The network layer is responsible for creating a packet from the data coming from another protocol.
- The header of the packet contains, among other information, the logical addresses of the source and destination.
- The network layer is responsible for checking its routing table to find the routing information.
- If the packet is too large, the packet is fragmented.

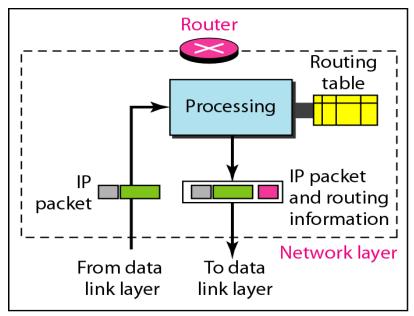






## Internetworking

- Network layer at the switch or router
  - The network layer is responsible for routing the packet.
  - When a packet arrives, the router or switch consults its routing table and finds the interface from which the packet must be sent.
  - The packet, after some changes in the header, with the routing information is passed to the data link layer again.

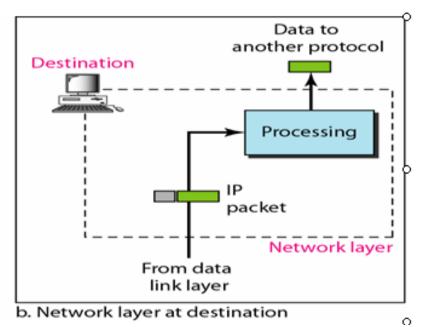


c. Network layer at a router



## Internetworking

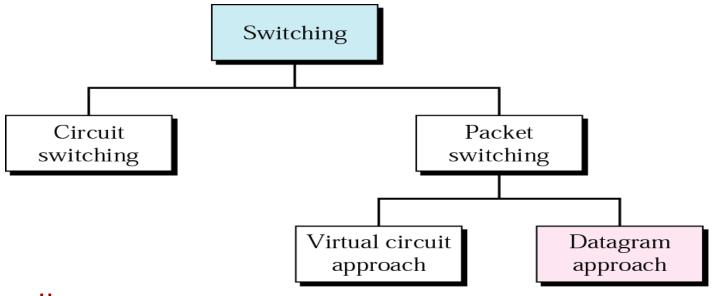
- Network layer at the destination
  - The network layer is responsible for address verification;
  - It makes sure that the destination address on the packet is the same as the address of the host.
  - If he packet is a fragment, the network layer waits until all fragments have arrived, and then reassembles them and delivers the reassembled packet to the transport layer.





# Internet as a Datagram Network

- The Internet, at the network layer, is a packet switched network.
- The Internet has chosen the datagram approach to switching in the network layer.
- It uses the universal addresses defined in the network layer to route packets from the source to the destination.





### Internet as a Connectionless Network

#### Connection-oriented service

- The source first makes a connection with the destination before sending a packet.
- When the connection is established, a sequence of packets can be sent one after another.
- They are sent on the same path in sequential order.
- When all packets of a message have been delivered, the connection is terminated.



### Internet as a Connectionless Network

#### Connection-oriented service

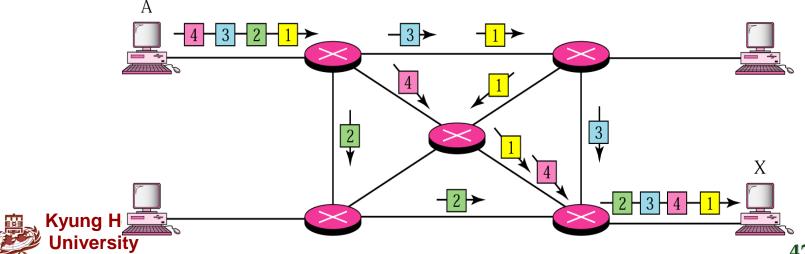
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### Internet as a Connectionless Network

#### Connectionless service

- The network layer protocol treats each packet independently, with each packet having no relationship to any other packet.
- The packets in a message may or may not travel the same path to their destination.
- This type of service is used in the datagram approach to packet switching.
- Communication at the network layer in the Internet is connectionless.



### 20-2 IPv4

The Internet Protocol version 4 (IPv4) is the delivery mechanism used by the TCP/IP protocols.

### Topics discussed in this section:

Datagram
Fragmentation
Checksum





### IPv4

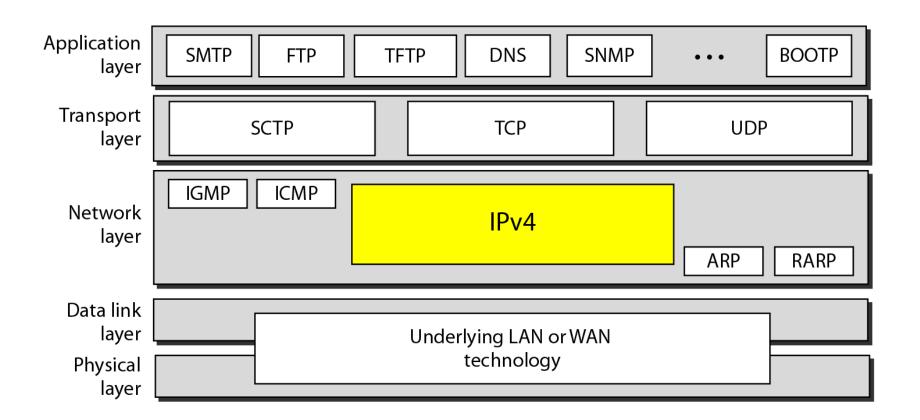


Figure 20.4 Position of IPv4 in TCP/IP protocol suite



### IPv4

#### Best-effort delivery

- Pv4 is an unreliable and connectionless datagram protocol a best-effort delivery service.
- The term best-effort means that IPv4 provides no error control or flow control (except for error detection on the header).

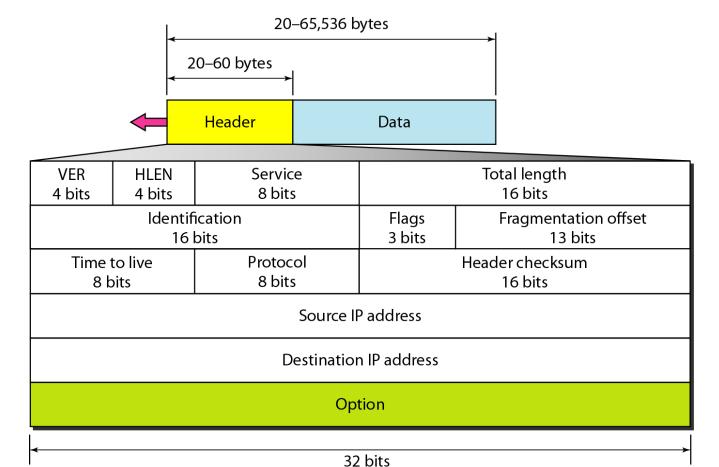
#### Connectionless protocol

- **Each** datagram is handled independently, and diagrams sent by the source to the same destination could arrive out of order.
- Also, some could be lost or corrupted during transmission.
- IPv4 relies on a high-level protocol to take of all these problem.



## **IPv4** Datagram

### ■ Packets in the IPv4 layer are called Datagrams.





## IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

A datagram is a variable-length packet consisting of a header and data.

#### Header

- ❖ length : 20 60 bytes
- Contains information essential to routing and delivery.
- Version (VER): It defines the Version of IPv4. it is 4.
- ☐ Header Length (HLEN): Defining the total length of the datagram header in 4byte words.

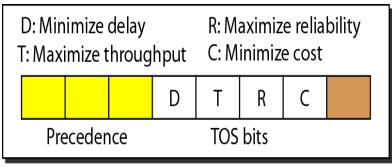


# IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

#### Differentiated Services

- ❖ The first 3 bits are called precedence bits. The next 4 bits are type of service (TOS) bits, and the last bit is not used.
- The precedence subfield was part of version 4, but never used.

### Figure 20.6 Service type or differentiated services



Service type

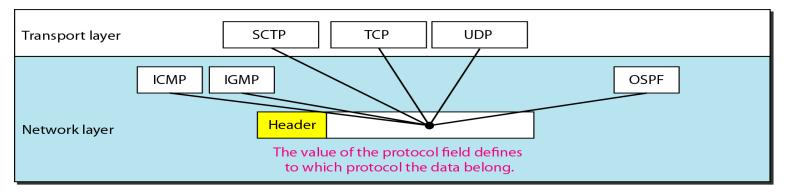


Codepoint



## IPv4 Datagram (cont'd)

- Protocol
  - Defining the higher level protocol that uses the services of the IP layer
    - TCP, UDP, ICMP, and IGMP
    - Multiplexing data from different higher level protocols



Value	Protocol
1	ICMP
2	IGMP
6	TCP
8	EGP
17	UDP
89	OSPF



### **Summary**

- IPv4 is an unreliable connectionless protocol responsible for sourceto-destination delivery.
- □ Packets in the IPv4 layer are called datagrams. A datagram consistes of a header(20 to 60 bytes) and data. The maximum length of a datagram is 65,535 bytes.
- The MTU is the maximum number of bytes that a data link protocol an encapsulate. MTU vary from protocol to protocol.
- Fragmentation is the division of datagram into smaller units to accommodate the MTU of a datalink protocol.
- The IPv4 datagram header consists of a fixed, 20-bte section and a variable options section with a maximum of 40 bytes.
- The options section of the IPv4 header is used for network testing and debugging.



# Summary (2)

- ☐ The six IPv4 options each have a specific function.
- □ IPv6, the latest version of the Internet Protocol, has a 128-bit address space, a revised header format, new options, an allowance for extension, support for resource allocation, and increased security measures.
- An IPv6 datagram is composed of a base header and a payload.
- Extension header add functionality to the IPv6 datagram.
- ☐ Three strategies used to handle the transition for version 4 to version 6 are dual stack, tunneling, and header translation.



# Thanks!

