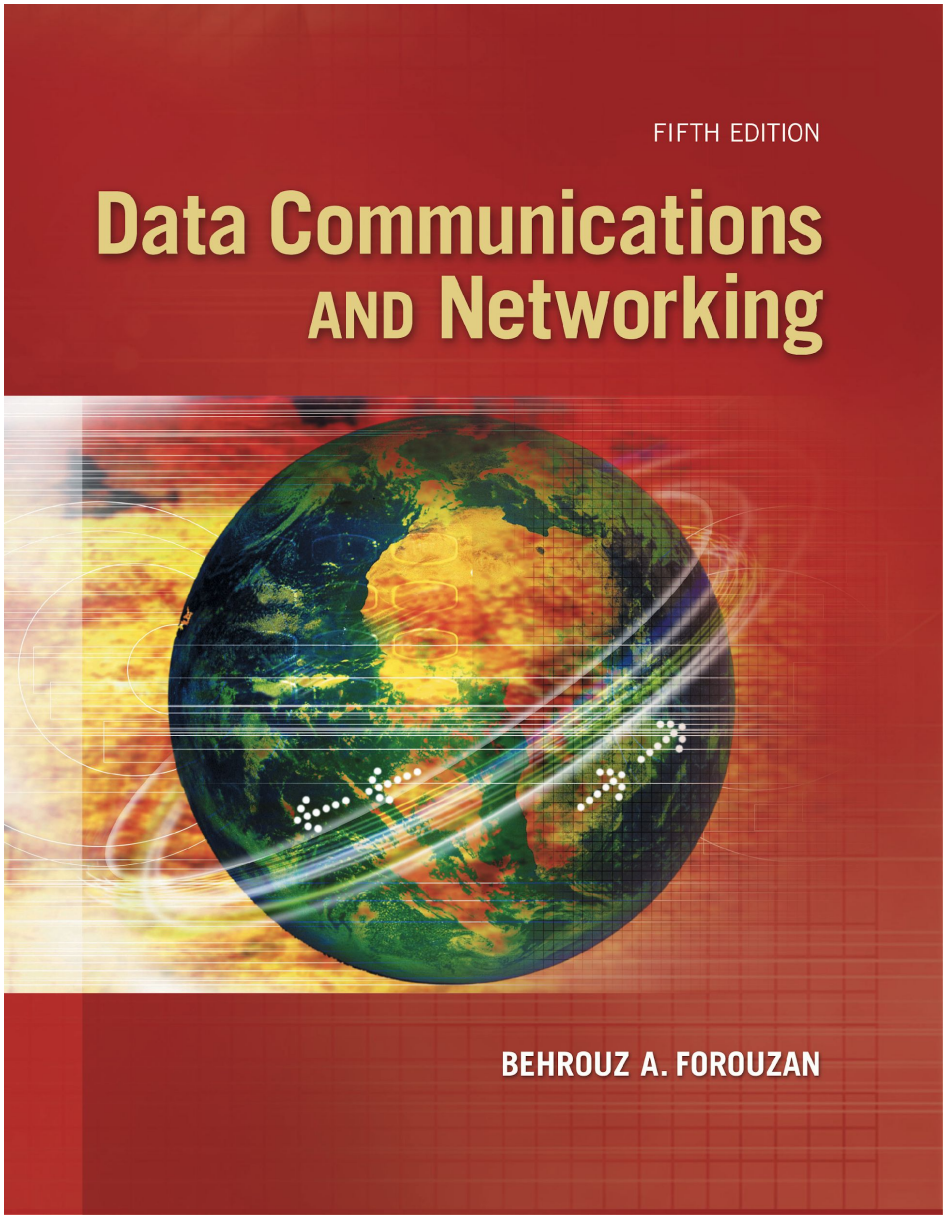
Introduction to Network Layer



Chapter 18: Outline

NETWORK-LAYER SERVICES

PACKET SWITCHING

IPv4 ADDRESSES

FORWARDING OF IP PACKETS

Routing

Chapter 18: Objective

- *The first section introduces the network layer by defining the services provided by this layer. It first discusses packetizing. It then describes forwarding and routing and compares the two. The section then briefly explains the other services such as flow, error, and congestion control.*

- *The second section discusses packet switching, which occurs at the network layer. The datagram approach and the virtual-circuit approach of packet switching are described in some detail in this section.*
- *The third section discusses network-layer performance. It describes different delays that occur in network-layer communication. It also mentions the issue of packet loss. Finally, it discusses the issue of congestion control at the network layer.*

Chapter 18: Objective (continued)

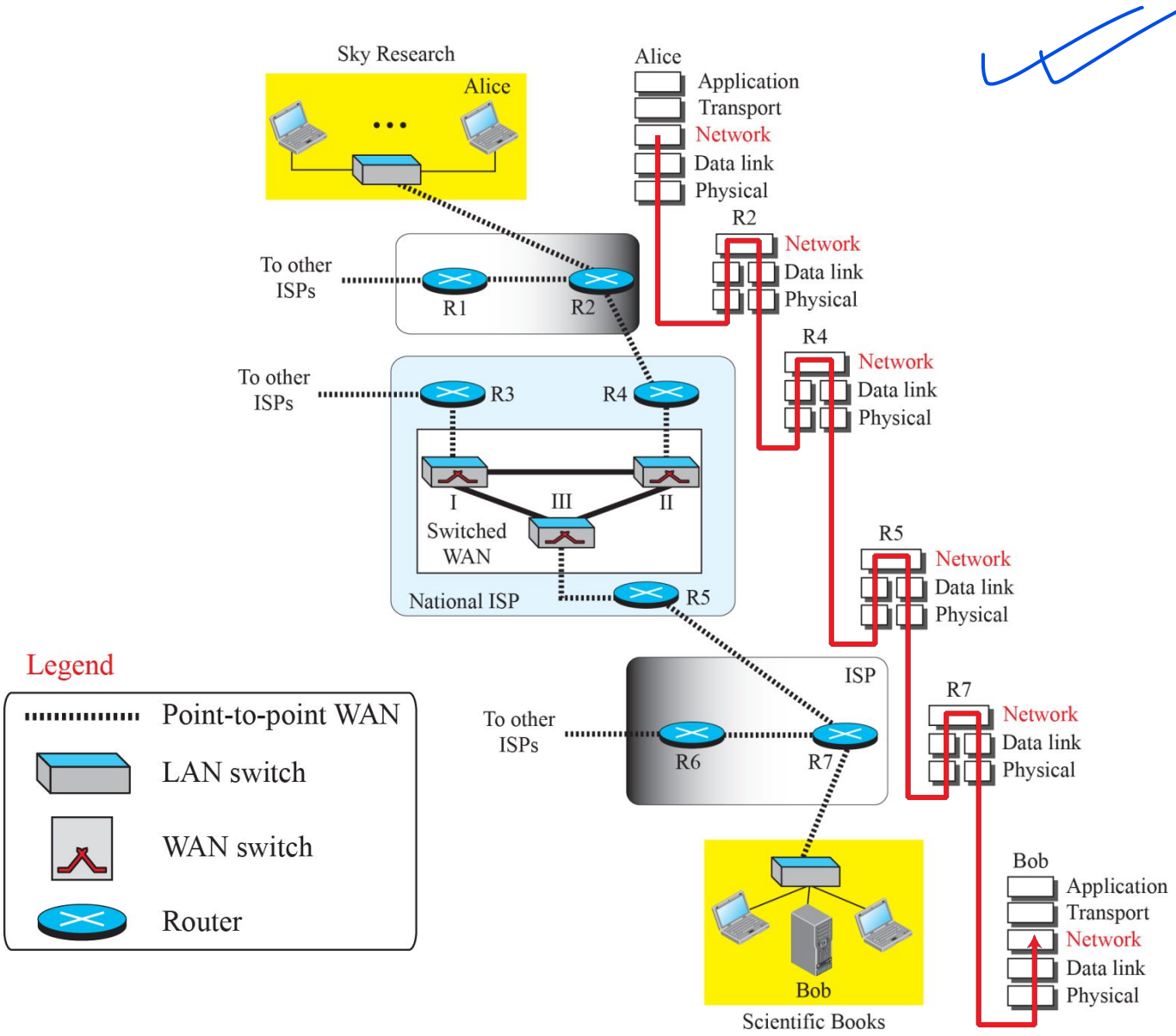
- *The fourth section discusses IPv4 addressing, probably the most important issue in the network layer. It first describes the address space. It then briefly discusses classful addressing, which belongs to the past but is useful in understanding classless addressing. The section then moves to classless addressing and explains several issues related to this topic. It then discusses DHCP, which can be used to dynamically assign addresses in an organization. Finally, the section discusses NAT, which can be used to relieve the shortage of addresses to some extent.*

- *The fifth section discusses forwarding of network-layer packets. It first shows how forwarding can be done based on the destination address in a packet. It then discusses how forwarding can be done using a label.*

18-1 NETWORK-LAYER SERVICES

Before discussing the network layer in the Internet today, let's briefly discuss the network-layer services that, in general, are expected from a network-layer protocol. Figure 18.1 shows the communication between Alice and Bob at the network layer. This is the same scenario we used in Chapters 3 and 9 to show the communication at the physical and the data-link layers, respectively.

Figure 18.1: Communication at the network layer



18.18.1 Packetizing

The first duty of the network layer is definitely packetizing: encapsulating the payload in a network-layer packet at the source and decapsulating the payload from the network-layer packet at the destination. In other words, one duty of the network layer is to carry a payload from the source to the destination without changing it or using it. The network layer is doing the service of a carrier such as the postal office, which is responsible for delivery of packages from a sender to a receiver without changing or using the contents.

18.18.2 Routing and Forwarding

Other duties of the network layer, which are as important as the first, are routing and forwarding, which are directly related to each other.

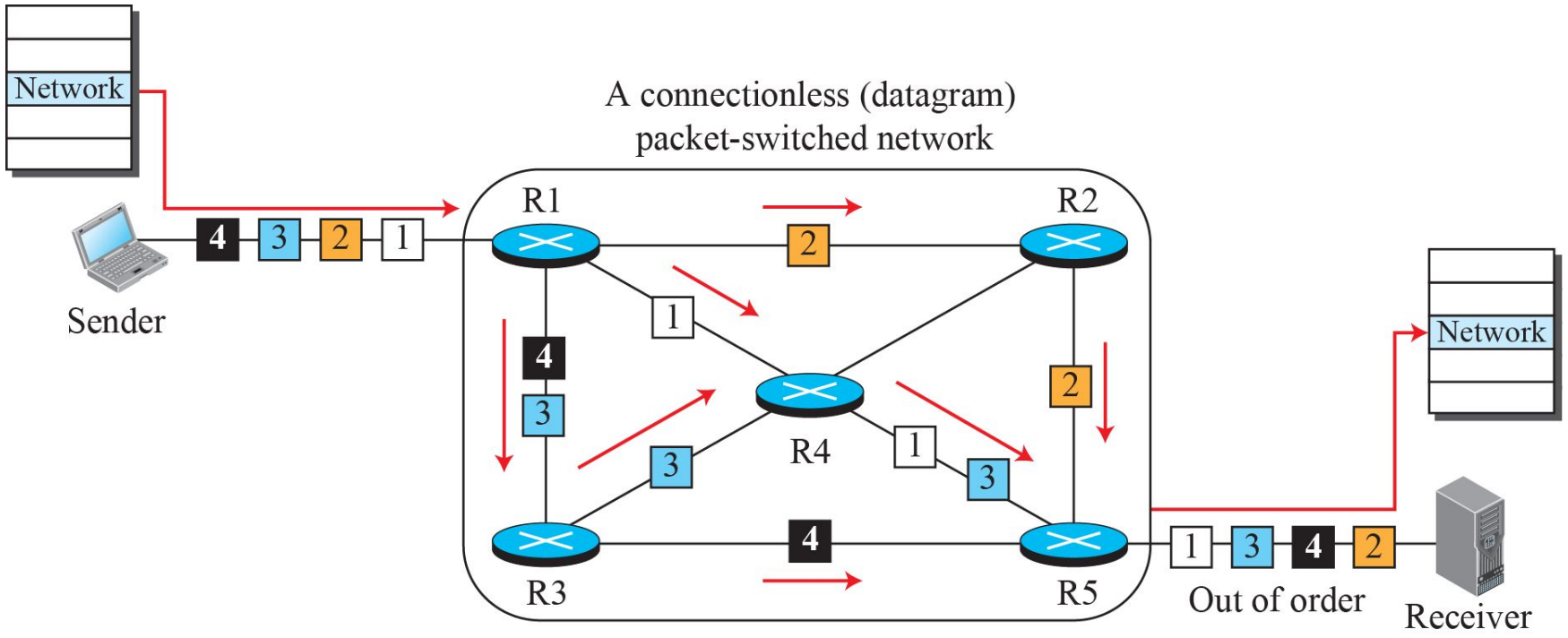
18-2 PACKET SWITCHING

From the discussion of routing and forwarding in the previous section, we infer that a kind of switching occurs at the network layer. A router, in fact, is a switch that creates a connection between an input port and an output port (or a set of output ports), just as an electrical switch connects the input to the output to let electricity flow.

18.2.1 Datagram Approach

When the Internet started, to make it simple, the network layer was designed to provide a connectionless service in which the network-layer protocol treats each packet independently, with each packet having no relationship to any other packet. The idea was that the network layer is only responsible for delivery of packets from the source to the destination. In this approach, the packets in a message may or may not travel the same path to their destination. Figure 18.3 shows the idea..

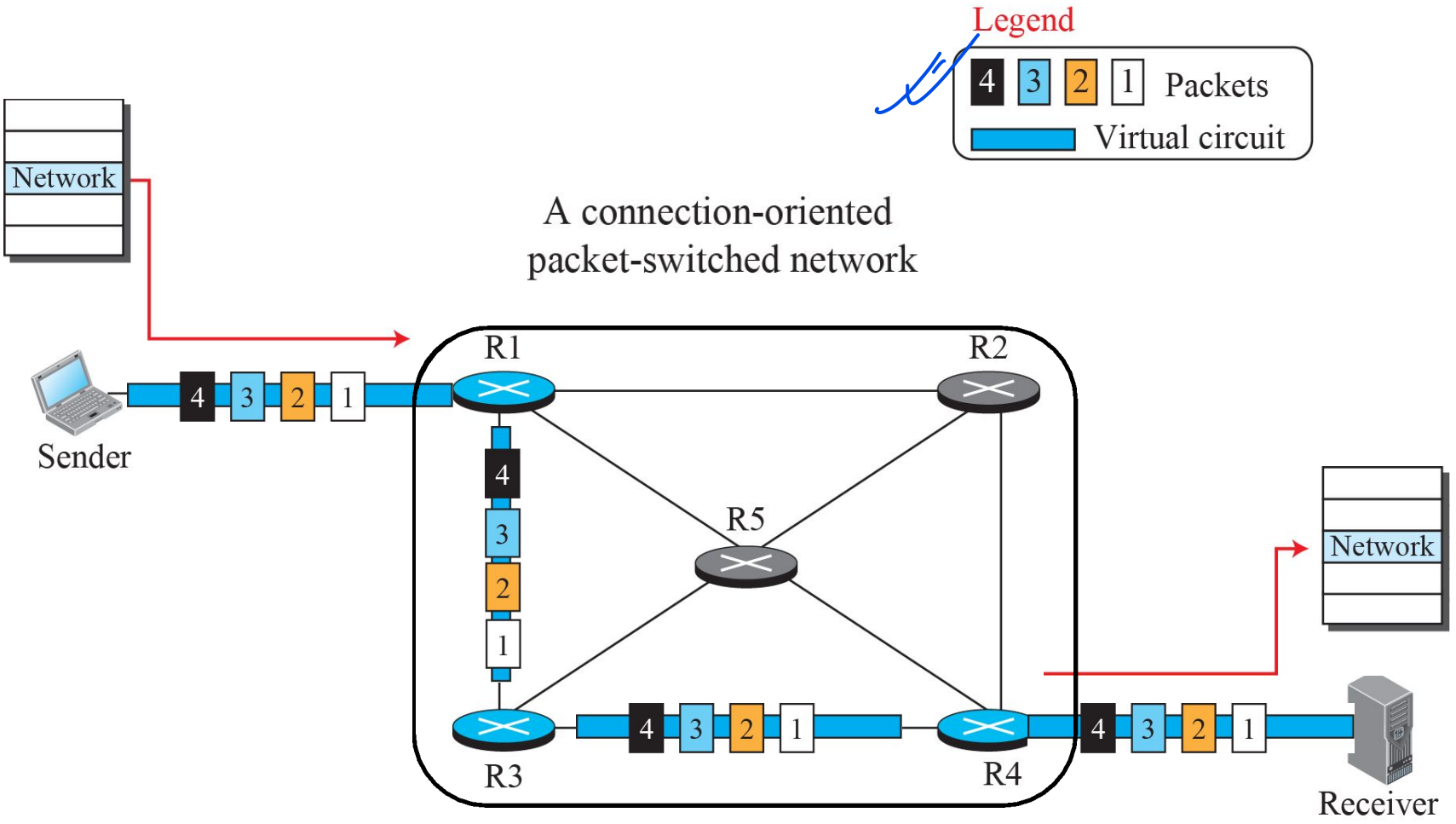
Figure 18.3: A connectionless packet-switched network



18.2.2 Virtual-Circuit Approach

In a connection-oriented service (also called virtual-circuit approach), there is a relationship between all packets belonging to a message. Before all datagrams in a message can be sent, a virtual connection should be set up to define the path for the datagrams. After connection setup, the datagrams can all follow the same path. In this type of service, not only must the packet contain the source and destination addresses, it must also contain a flow label, a virtual circuit identifier that defines the virtual path the packet should follow.

Figure 18.5: A virtual-circuit packet-switched network



18-4 IPv4 ADDRESSES

The identifier used in the IP layer of the TCP/IP protocol suite to identify the connection of each device to the Internet is called the Internet address or IP address. An IPv4 address is a 32-bit address that uniquely and universally defines the connection of a host or a router to the Internet. The IP address is the address of the connection, not the host or the router.

18.4.1 Address Space

A protocol like IPv4 that defines addresses has an address space. An address space is the total number of addresses used by the protocol. If a protocol uses b bits to define an address, the address space is 2b because each bit can have two different values (0 or 1). IPv4 uses 32-bit addresses, which means that the address space is 232 or 4,294,967,296 (more than four billion). If there were no restrictions, more than 4 billion devices could be connected to the Internet.

Figure 18.16: ***Three different notations in IPv4 addressing***

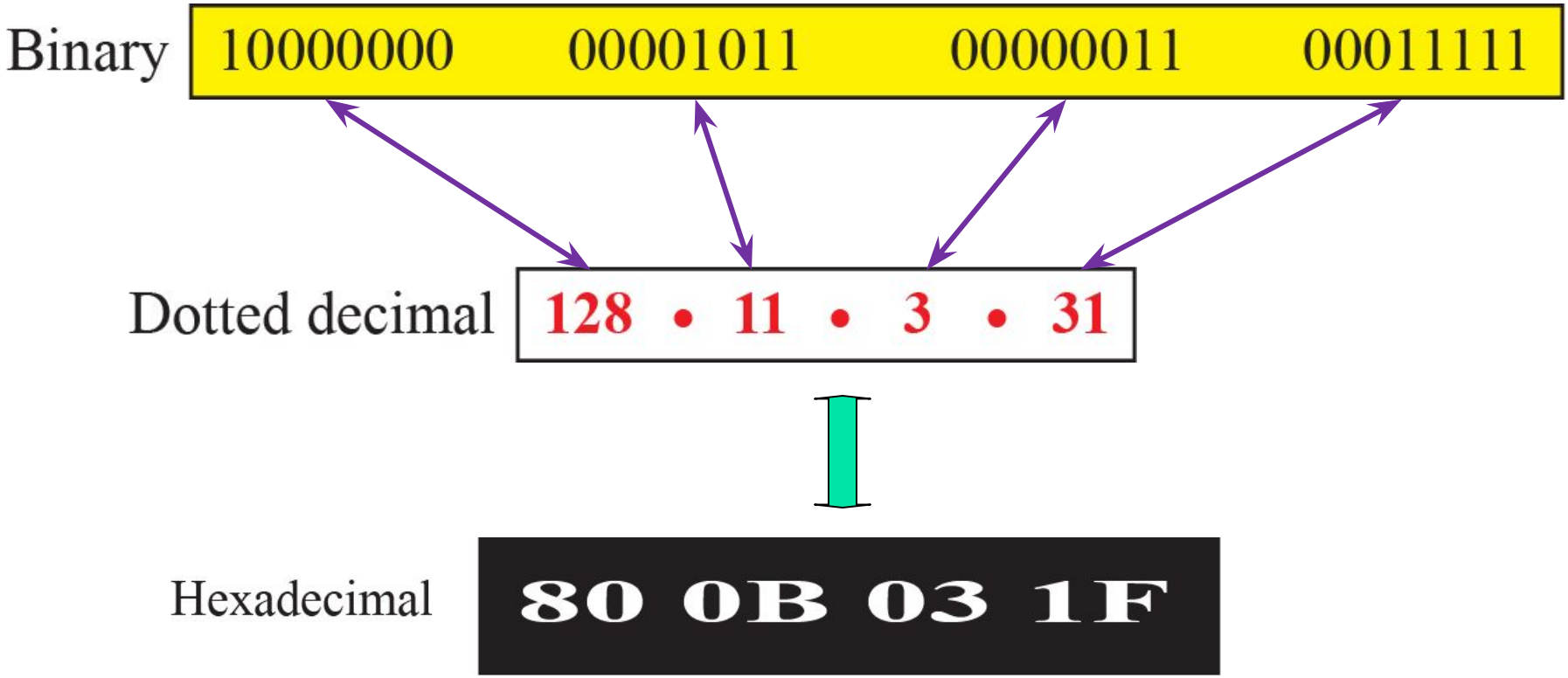
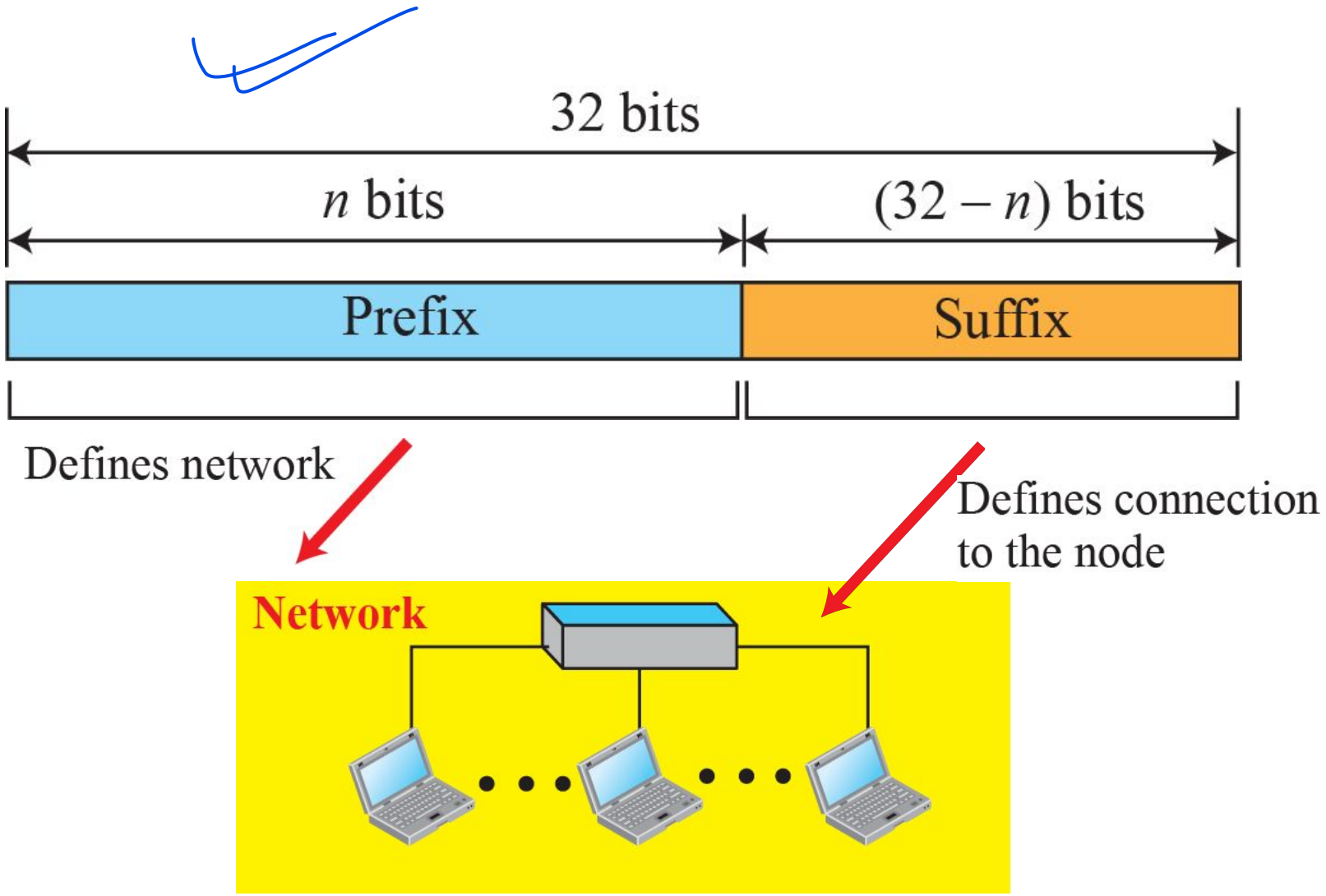


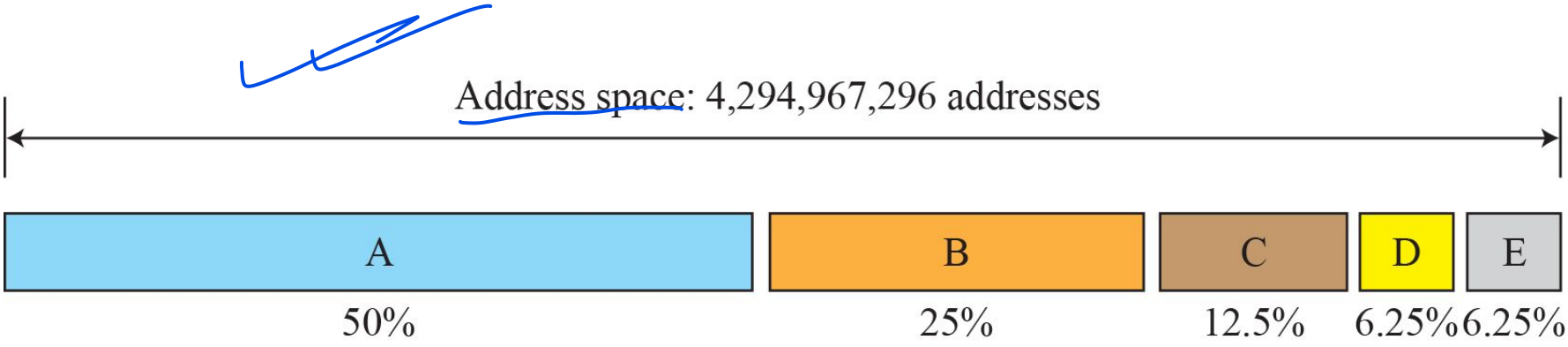
Figure 18.17: ***Hierarchy in addressing***

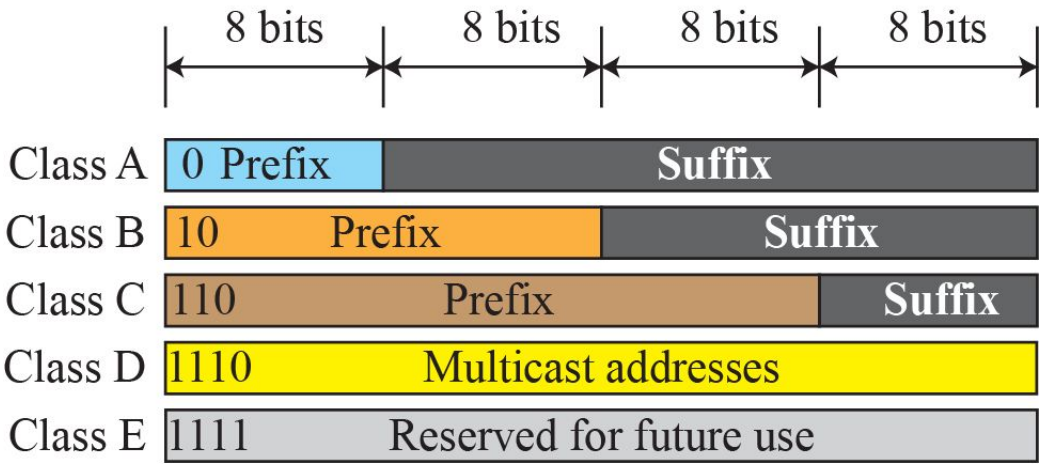


18.4.2 Classful Addressing

When the Internet started, an IPv4 address was designed with a fixed-length prefix, but to accommodate both small and large networks, three fixed-length prefixes were designed instead of one (n = 8, n = 16, and n = 24). The whole address space was divided into five classes (class A, B, C, D, and E), as shown in Figure 18.18. This scheme is referred to as classful addressing. Although classful addressing belongs to the past, it helps us to understand classless addressing, discussed later.

Figure 18.18: Occupation of the address space in classful addressing





Class	Prefixes	First byte
A	$n = 8$ bits	0 to 127
B	$n = 16$ bits	128 to 191
C	$n = 24$ bits	192 to 223
D	Not applicable	224 to 239
E	Not applicable	240 to 255

18.4.3 Classless Addressing

With the growth of the Internet, it was clear that a larger address space was needed as a long-term solution. The larger address space, however, requires that the length of IP addresses also be increased, which means the format of the IP packets needs to be changed. Although the long-range solution has already been devised and is called IPv6, a short-term solution was also devised to use the same address space but to change the distribution of addresses to provide a fair share to each organization. The short-term solution still uses IPv4 addresses, but it is called classless addressing.

Figure 18.19: Variable-length blocks in classless addressing

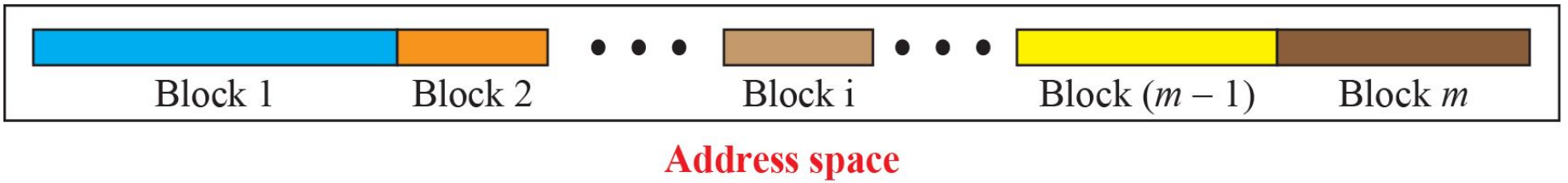
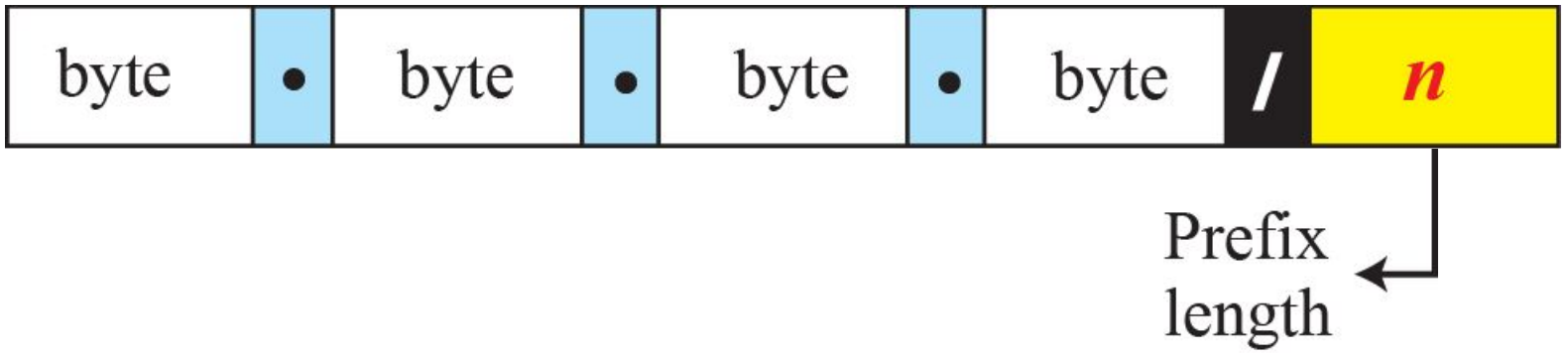


Figure 18.20: ***Slash notation (CIDR)***



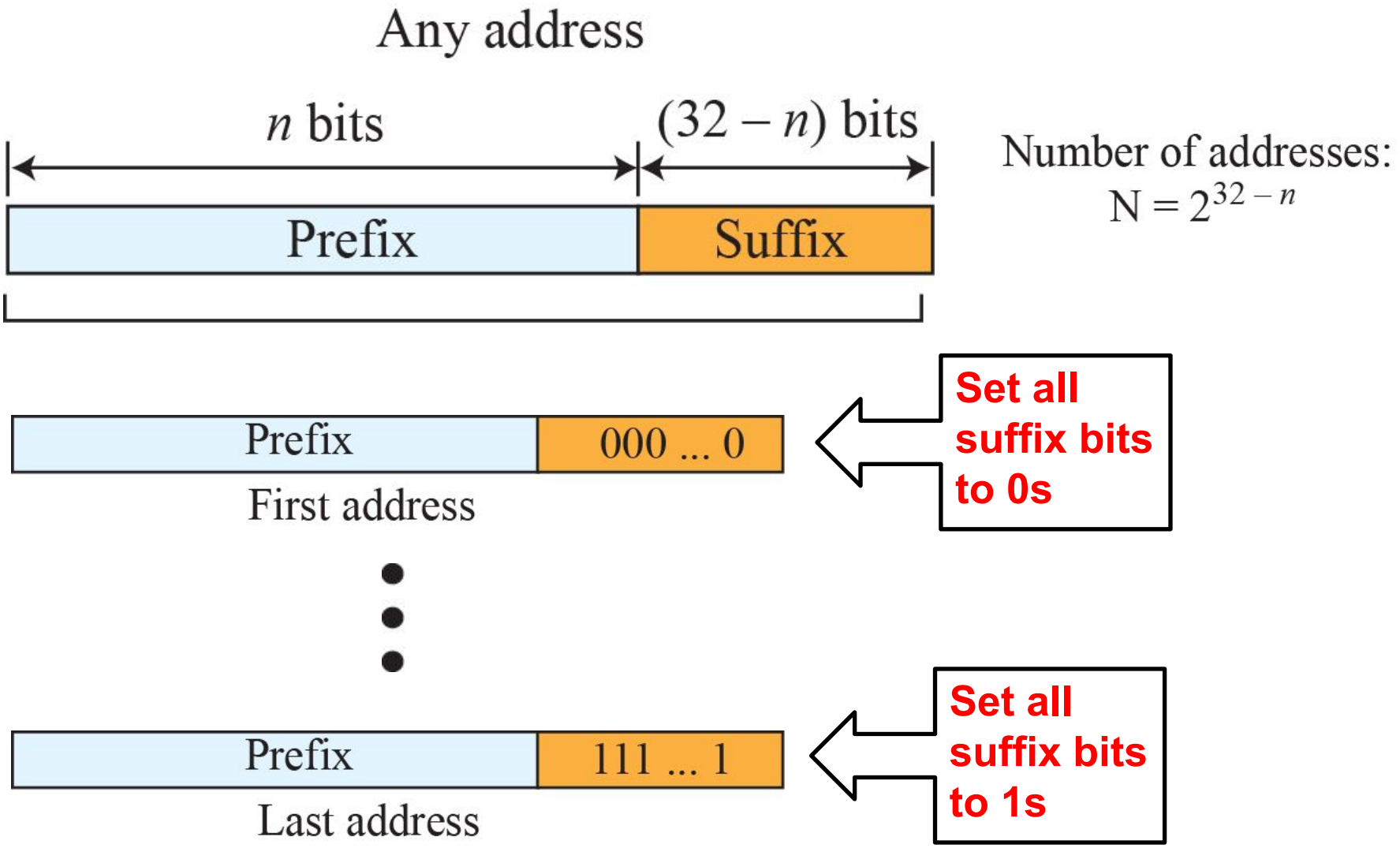
Examples:

12.24.76.8/**8**

23.14.67.92/**12**

220.8.24.255/**25**

Figure 18.21: ***Information extraction in classless addressing***



Example 18.1

A classless address is given as 167.199.170.82/27. We can find the above three pieces of information as follows. The number of addresses in the network is $2^{32-n} = 2^5 = 32$ addresses. The first address can be found by keeping the first 27 bits and changing the rest of the bits to 0s.

Address: 167.199.170.82/27	10100111	11000111	10101010	01010010
First address: 167.199.170.64/27	10100111	11000111	10101010	01000000

The last address can be found by keeping the first 27 bits and changing the rest of the bits to 1s.

Address: 167.199.170.82/27	10100111	11000111	10101010	01011111
Last address: 167.199.170.95/27	10100111	11000111	10101010	01011111

Example 18.2

We repeat Example 18.1 using the mask. The mask in dotted-decimal notation is 256.256.256.224 The AND, OR, and NOT operations can be applied to individual bytes using calculators and applets at the book website.

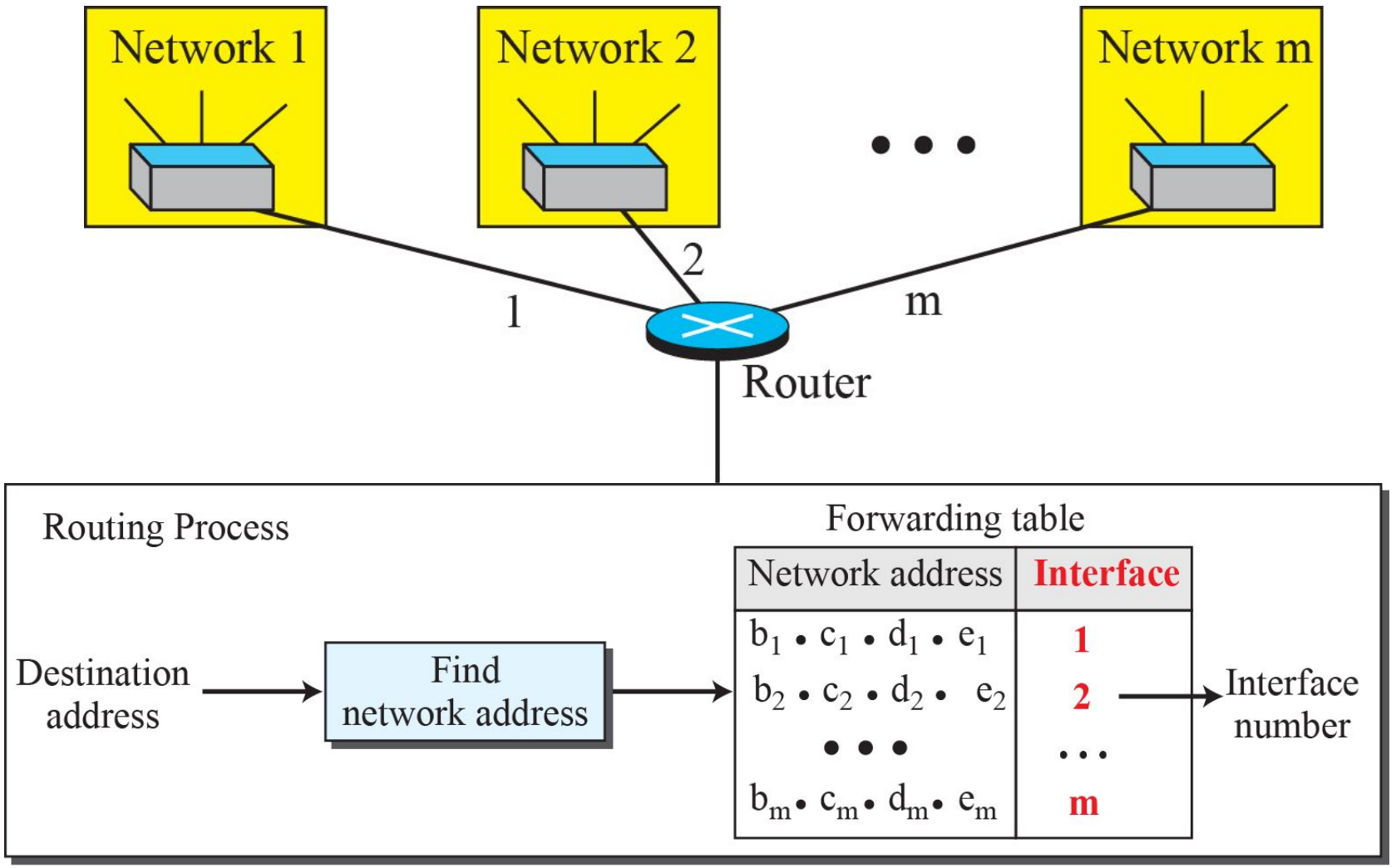
Number of addresses in the block:	N = **NOT** (mask) + 1= 0.0.0.31 + 1 = 32 addresses
First address:	First = (address) **AND** (mask) = 167.199.170. 82
Last address:	Last = (address) **OR** (**NOT** mask) = 167.199.170. 255

Example 18.3

In classless addressing, an address cannot per se define the block the address belongs to. For example, the address 230.8.24.56 can belong to many blocks. Some of them are shown below with the value of the prefix associated with that block.

Prefix length:16	→	Block:	230.8.0.0	to	230.8.255.255
Prefix length:20	→	Block:	230.8.16.0	to	230.8.31.255
Prefix length:26	→	Block:	230.8.24.0	to	230.8.24.63
Prefix length:27	→	Block:	230.8.24.32	to	230.8.24.63
Prefix length:29	→	Block:	230.8.24.56	to	230.8.24.63
Prefix length:31	→	Block:	230.8.24.56	to	230.8.24.57

Figure 18.22: ***Network address***



Example 18.4

An ISP has requested a block of 1000 addresses. Since 1000 is not a power of 2, 1024 addresses are granted. The prefix length is calculated as $n = 32 - \log_2 1024 = 22$. An available block, 18.14.12.0/22, is granted to the ISP. It can be seen that the first address in decimal is 302,910,464, which is divisible by 1024.

Example 18.5

An organization is granted a block of addresses with the beginning address 14.24.74.0/24. The organization needs to have 3 subblocks of addresses to use in its three subnets: one subblock of 10 addresses, one subblock of 60 addresses, and one subblock of 120 addresses. Design the subblocks.

Solution

There are $2^{32-24} = 256$ addresses in this block. The first address is 14.24.74.0/24; the last address is 14.24.74.255/24. To satisfy the third requirement, we assign addresses to subblocks, starting with the largest and ending with the smallest one.

Example 18.5 (continued)

a. The number of addresses in the largest subblock, which requires 120 addresses, is not a power of 2. We allocate 128 addresses. The subnet mask for this subnet can be found as $n_1 = 32 - \log_2 128 = 25$. The first address in this block is 14.24.74.0/**25**; the last address is 14.24.74.127/**25**.

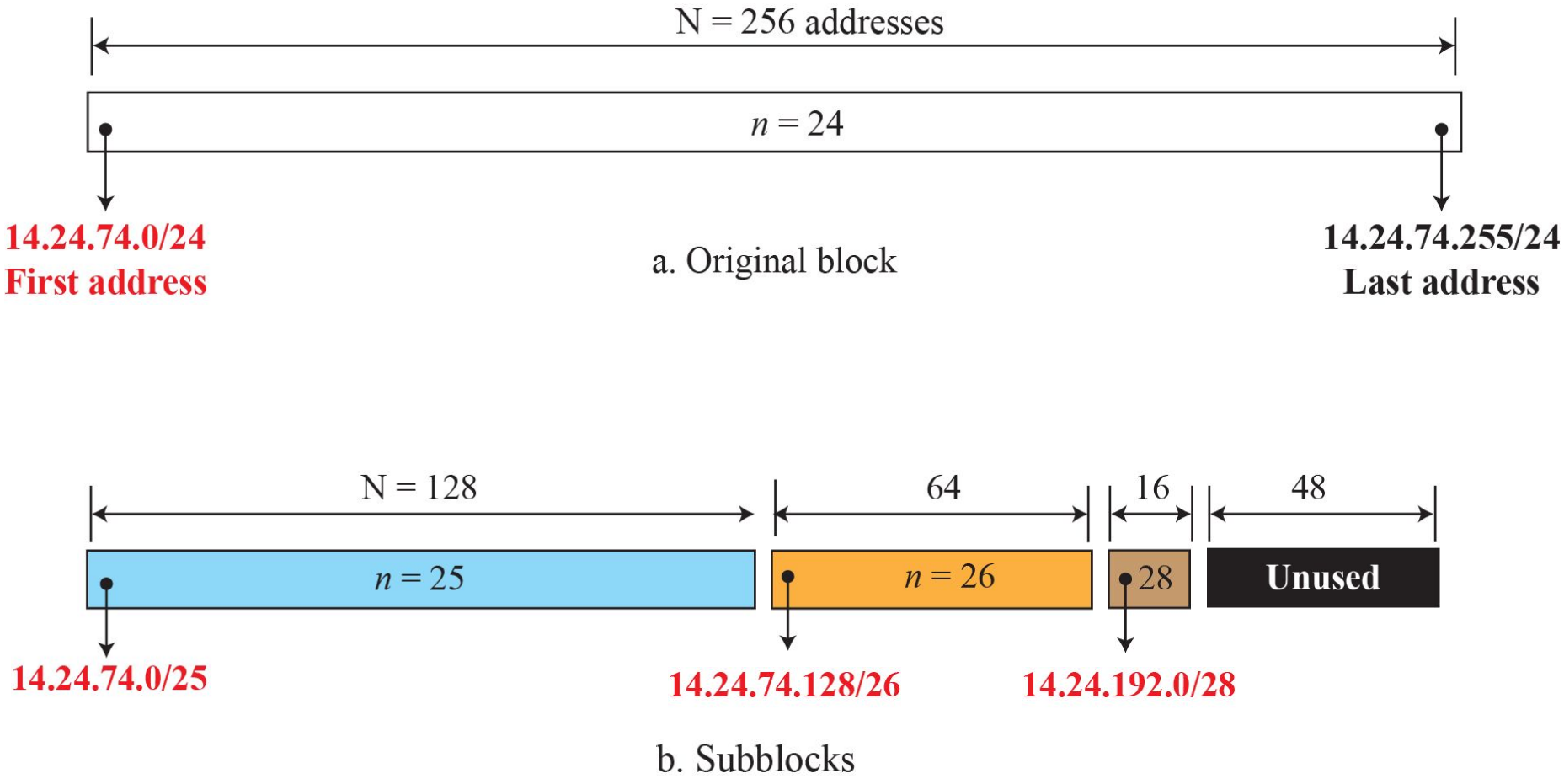
b. The number of addresses in the second largest subblock, which requires 60 addresses, is not a power of 2 either. We allocate 64 addresses. The subnet mask for this subnet can be found as $n_2 = 32 - \log_2 64 = 26$. The first address in this block is 14.24.74.128/**26**; the last address is 14.24.74.191/**26**.

Example 18.5 (continued)

c. The number of addresses in the largest subblock, which requires 120 addresses, is not a power of 2. We allocate 128 addresses. The subnet mask for this subnet can be found as $n_1 = 32 - \log_2 128 = 25$. The first address in this block is 14.24.74.0**/25**; the last address is 14.24.74.127**/25**.

If we add all addresses in the previous subblocks, the result is 208 addresses, which means 48 addresses are left in reserve. The first address in this range is 14.24.74.208. The last address is 14.24.74.255. We don't know about the prefix length yet. Figure 18.23 shows the configuration of blocks. We have shown the first address in each block.

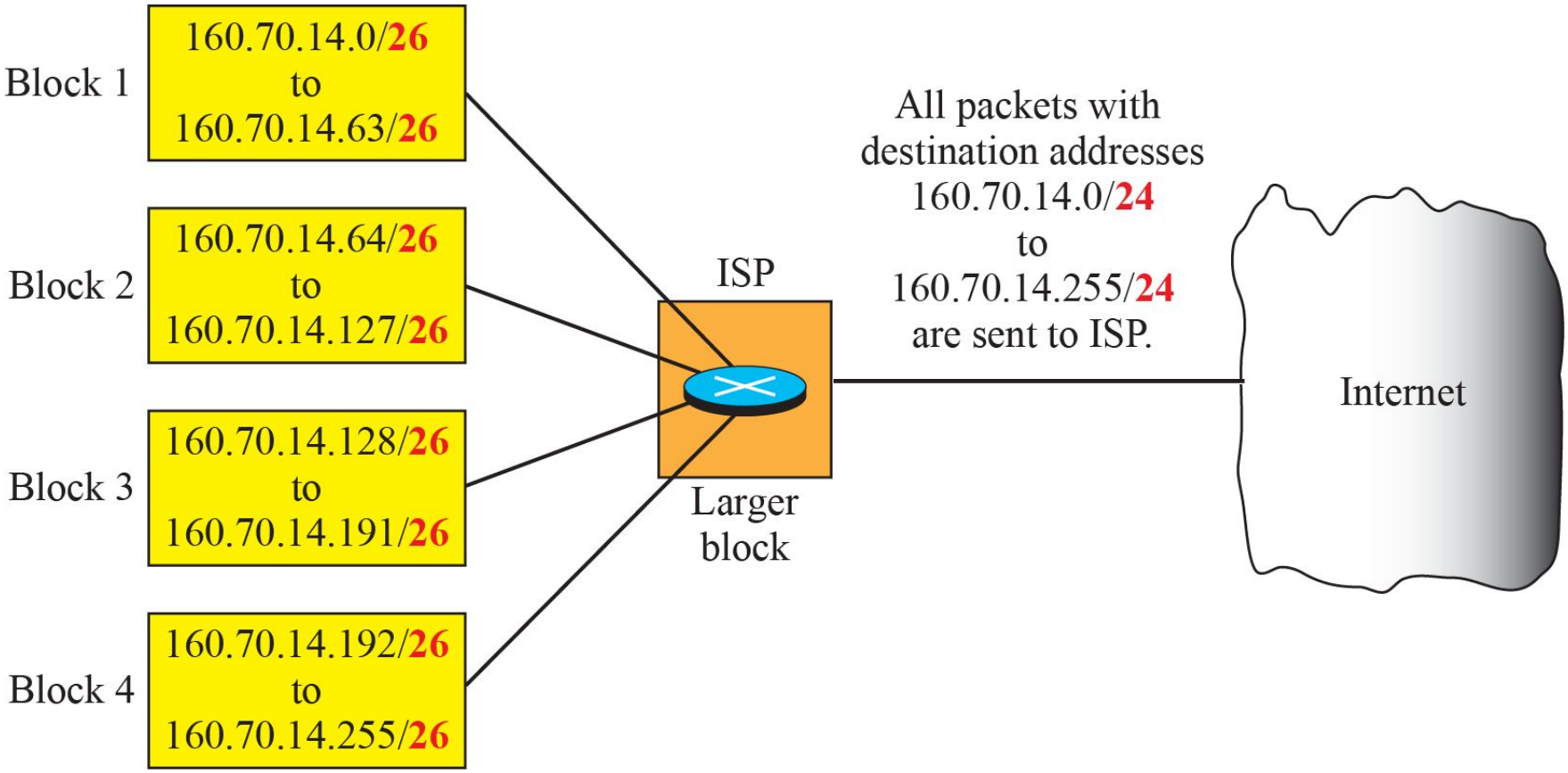
Figure 18.23: Solution to Example 4.5



Example 18.6

Figure 18.24 shows how four small blocks of addresses are assigned to four organizations by an ISP. The ISP combines these four blocks into one single block and advertises the larger block to the rest of the world. Any packet destined for this larger block should be sent to this ISP. It is the responsibility of the ISP to forward the packet to the appropriate organization. This is similar to routing we can find in a postal network. All packages coming from outside a country are sent first to the capital and then distributed to the corresponding destination.

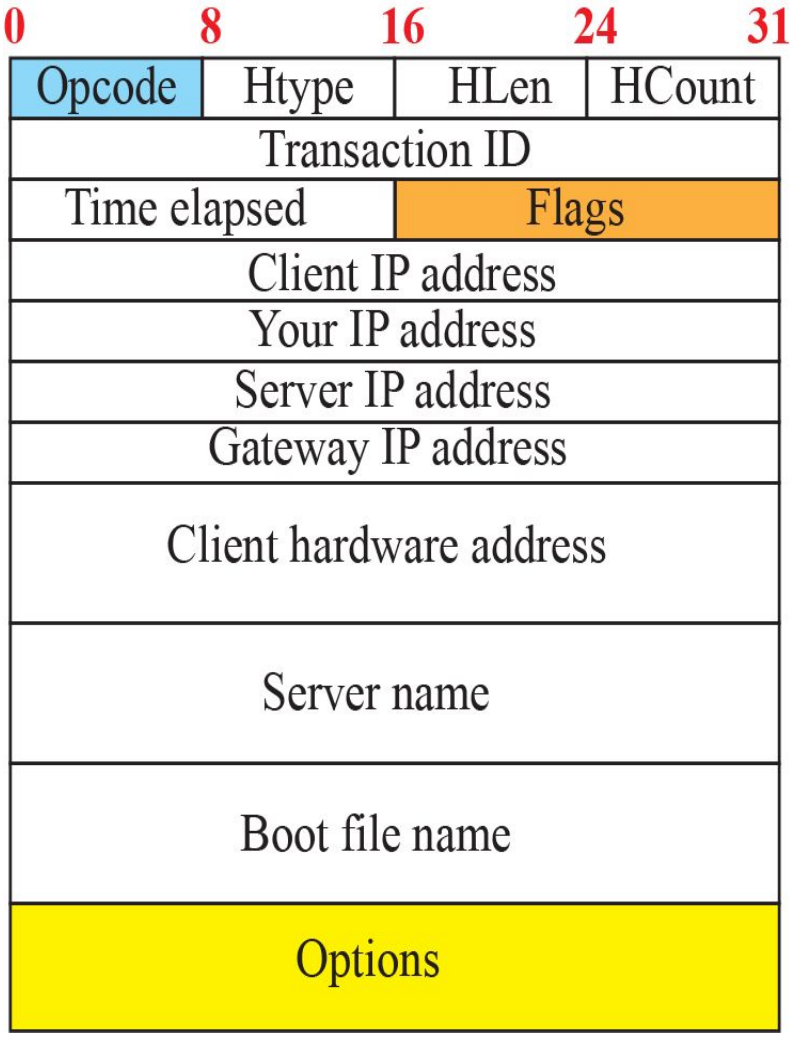
Figure 18.24: Example of address aggregation



18.4.4 DHCP

After a block of addresses are assigned to an organization, the network administration can manually assign addresses to the individual hosts or routers. However, address assignment in an organization can be done automatically using the Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP). DHCP is an application-layer program, using the client-server paradigm, that actually helps TCP/IP at the network layer.

Figure 18.25: DHCP message format



Fields:

Opcode: Operation code, request (1) or reply (2)
Htype: Hardware type (Ethernet, ...)
HLen: Lengh of hardware address
HCount: Maximum number of hops the packet can travel
Transaction ID: An integer set by client and repeated by the server
Time elapsed: The number of seconds since the client started to boot
Flags: First bit defines unicast (0) or multicast (1); other 15 bits not used
Client IP address: Set to 0 if the client does not know it
Your IP address: The client IP address sent by the server
Server IP address: A broadcast IP address if client does not know it
Gateway IP address: The address of default router
Server name: A 64-byte domain name of the server
Boot file name: A 128-byte file name holding extra information
Options: A 64-byte field with dual purpose described in text

Figure 18.26: ***Option format***

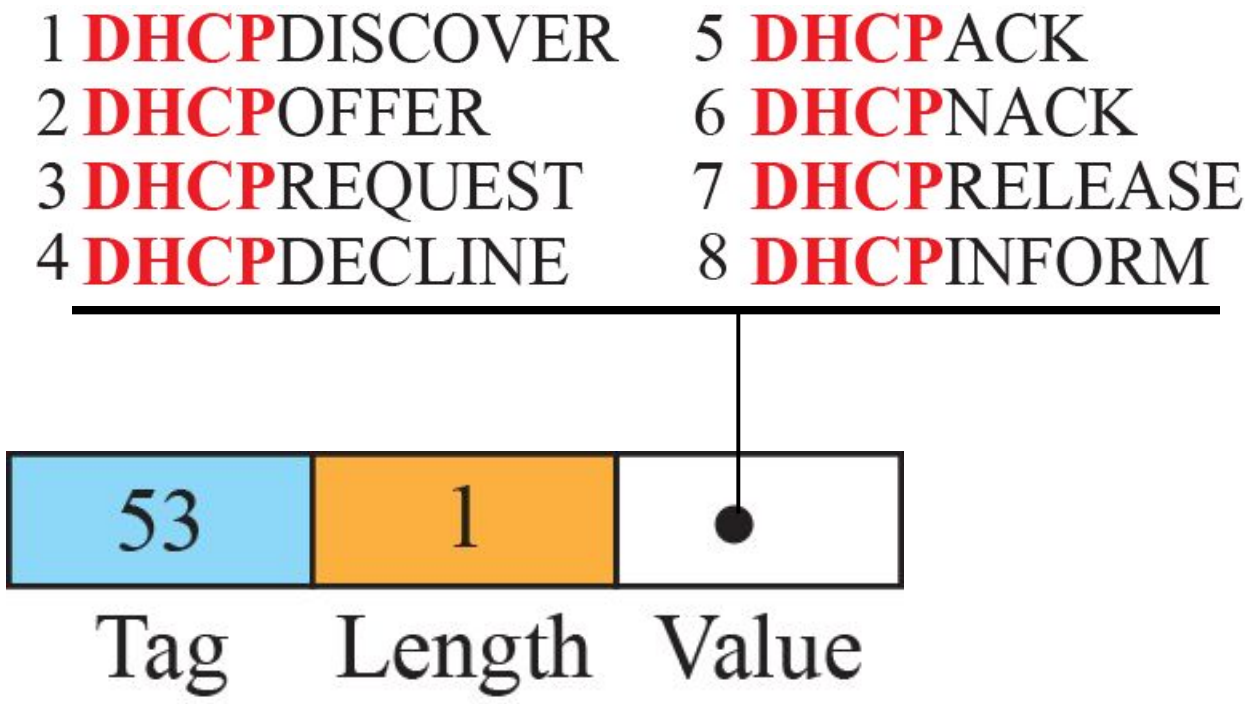


Figure 18.27: Operation of DHCP

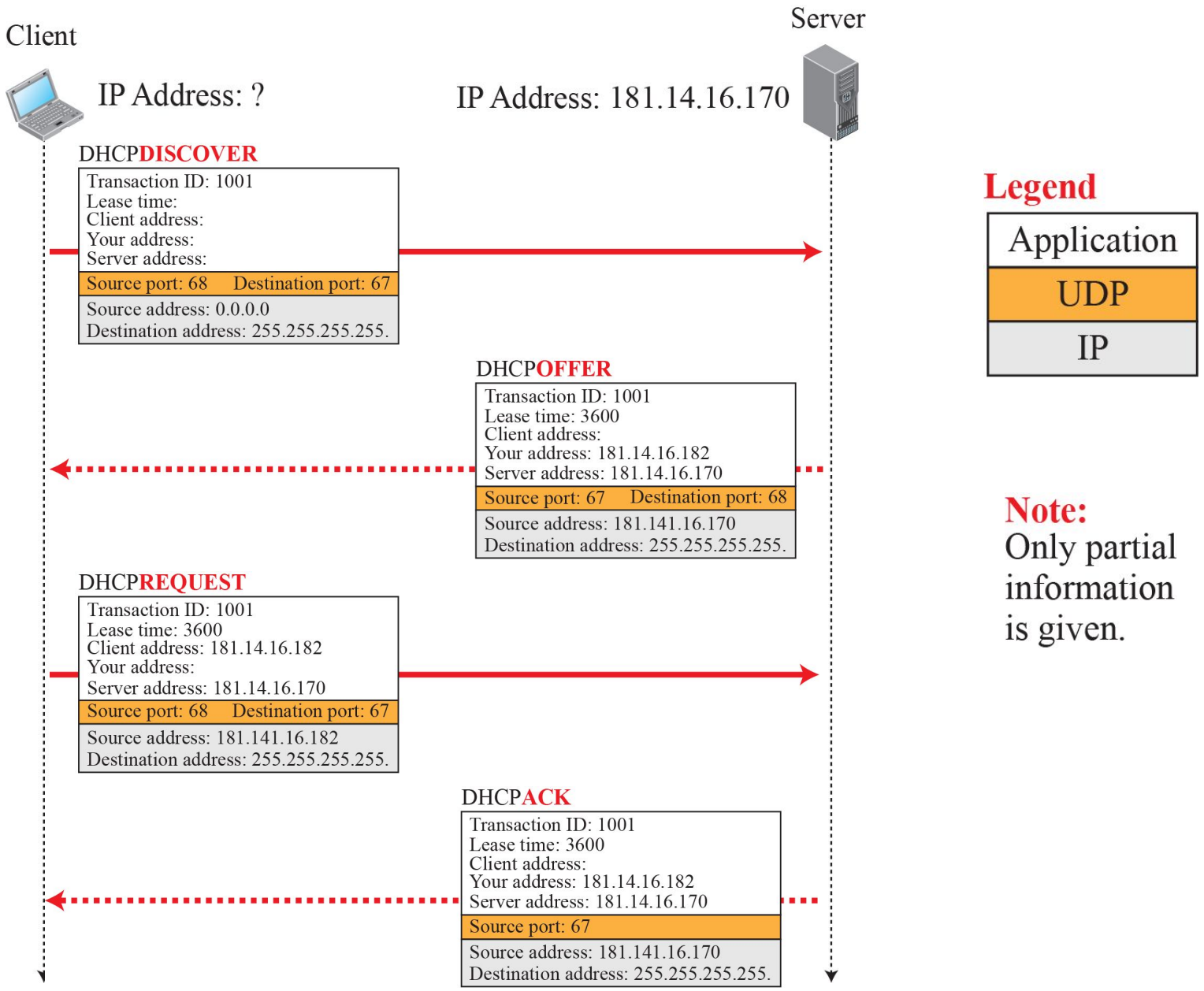
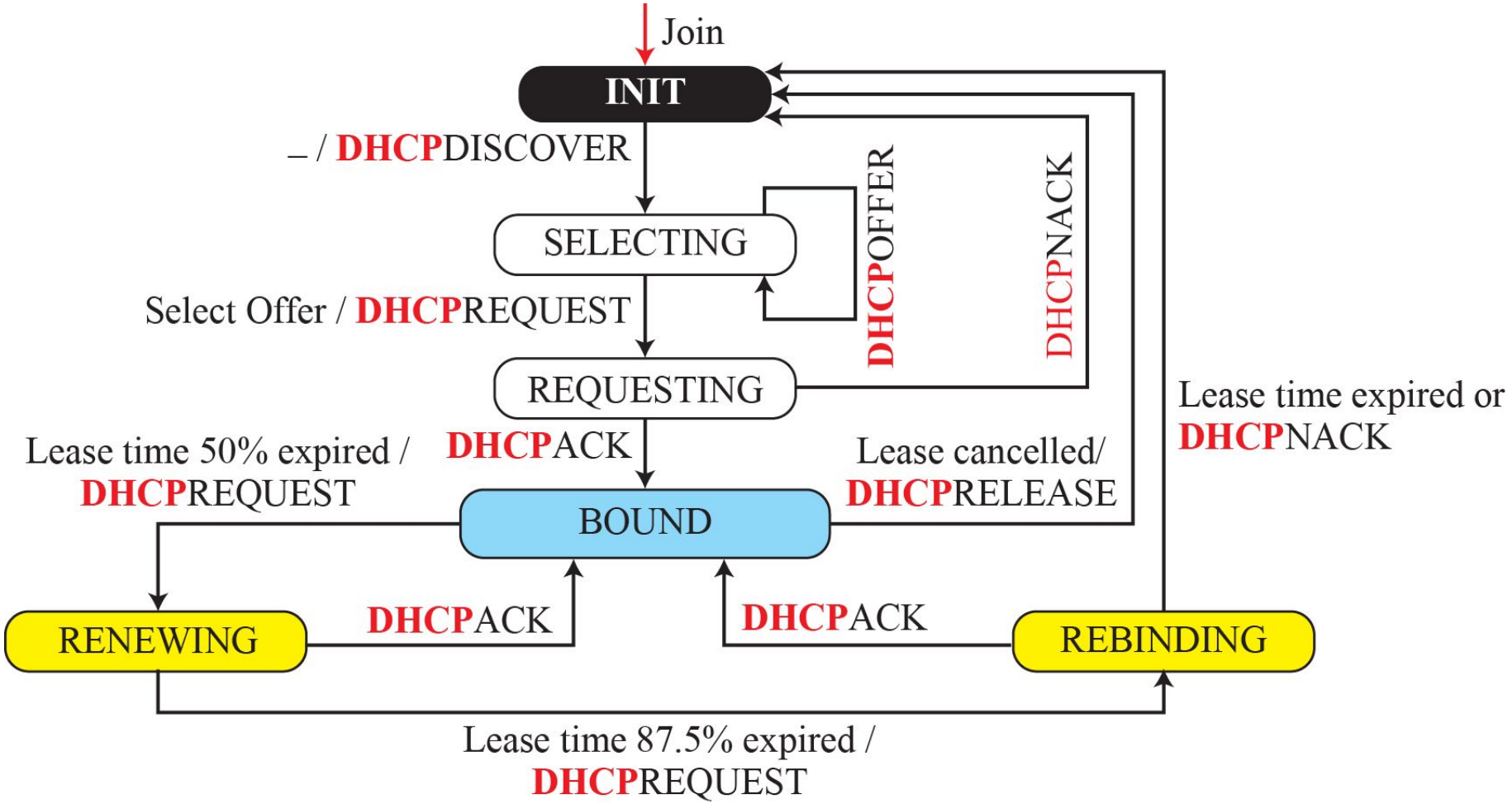


Figure 18.28: FSM for the DHCP client



18.4.5 NAT

In most situations, only a portion of computers in a small network need access to the Internet simultaneously. A technology that can provide the mapping between the private and universal addresses, and at the same time support virtual private networks, which we discuss in Chapter 32, is Network Address Translation (NAT). The technology allows a site to use a set of private addresses for internal communication and a set of global Internet addresses (at least one) for communication with the rest of the world.

Figure 18.29: NAT

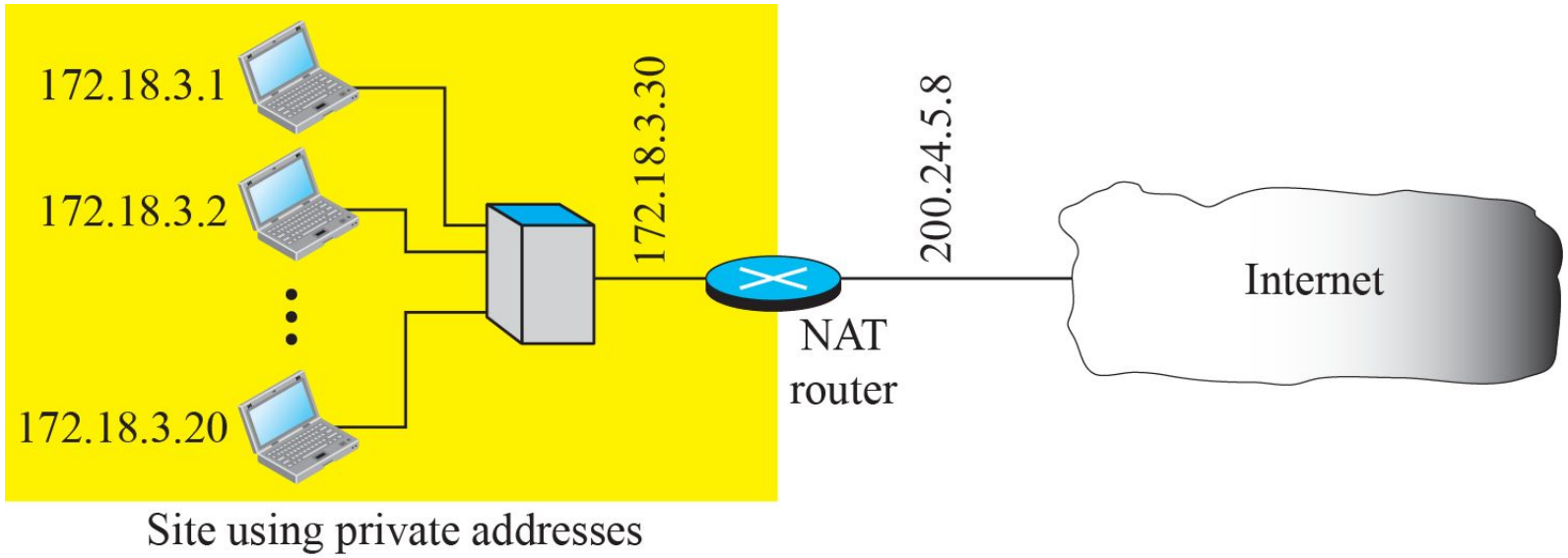


Figure 18.30: Address translation

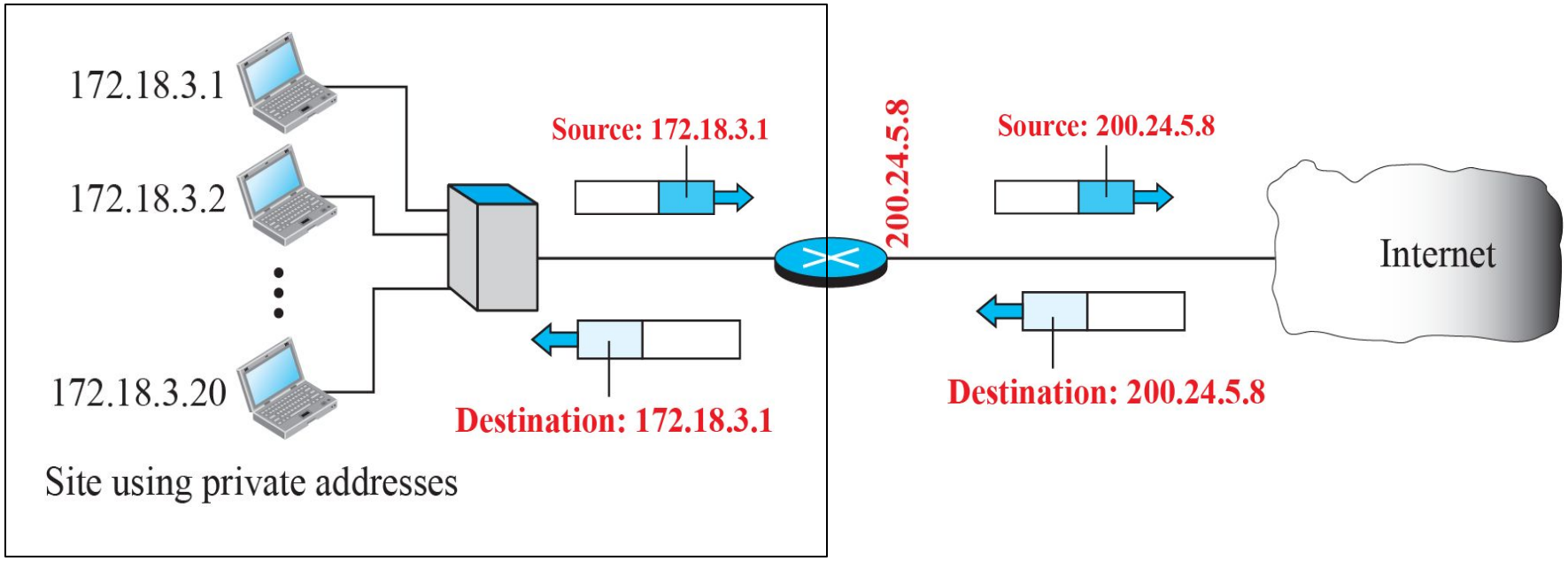


Figure 18.31: Translation

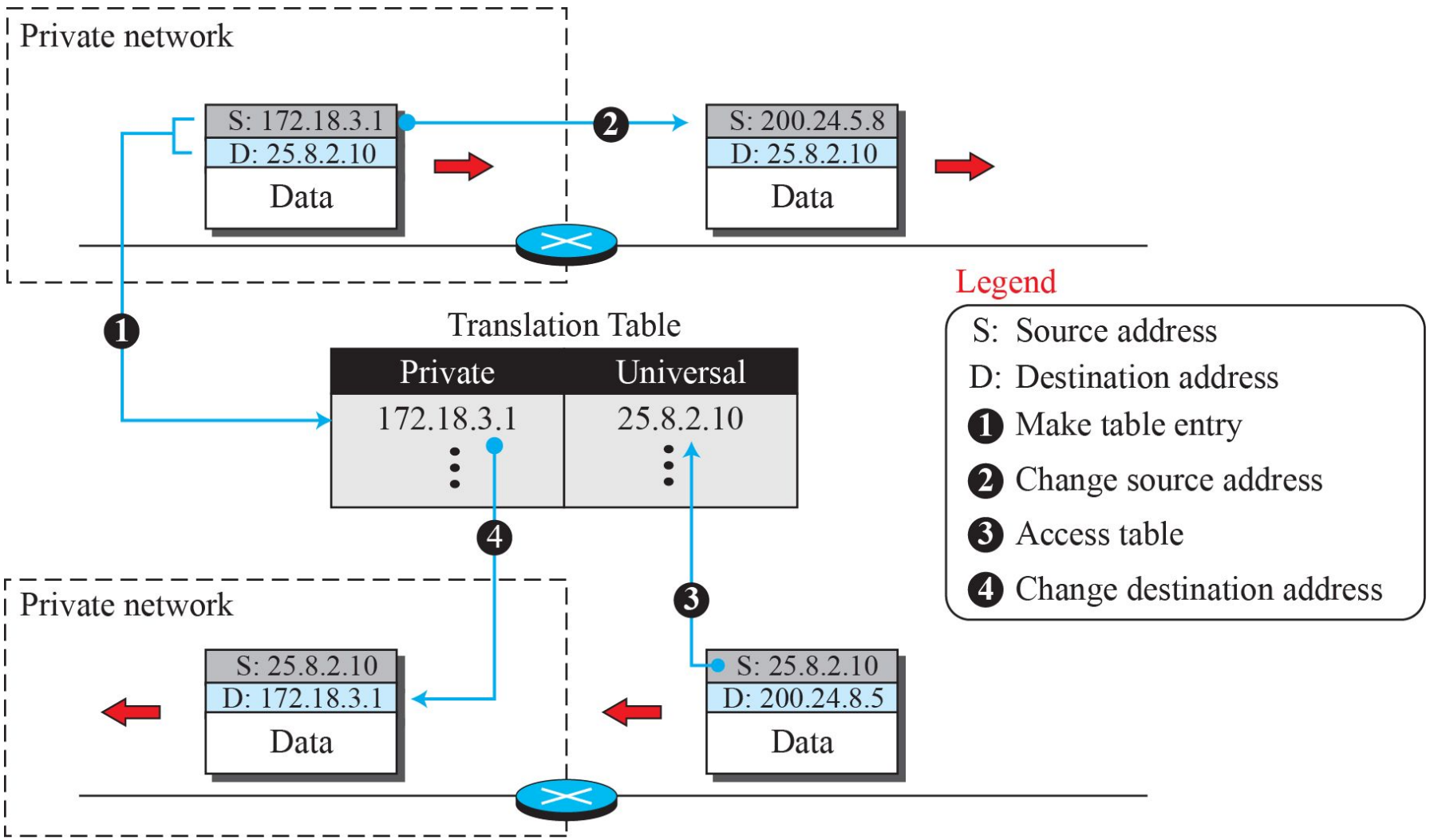


Table 18.1: Five-column translation table

Private address	*Private port*	*External address*	*External port*	*Transport protocol*
172.18.3.1	1400	25.8.3.2	80	TCP
172.18.3.2	1401	25.8.3.2	80	TCP
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

18-5 FORWARDING OF IP PACKETS

We discussed the concept of forwarding at the network layer earlier in this chapter. In this section, we extend the concept to include the role of IP addresses in forwarding. As we discussed before, forwarding means to place the packet in its route to its destination.

18.5.1 Destination Address Forwarding

We first discuss forwarding based on the destination address. This is a traditional approach, which is prevalent today. In this case, forwarding requires a host or a router to have a forwarding table. When a host has a packet to send or when a router has received a packet to be forwarded, it looks at this table to find the next hop to deliver the packet to.

FORWARDING

Forwarding means to place the packet in its route to its destination. Forwarding requires a host or a router to have a routing table. When a host has a packet to send or when a router has received a packet to be forwarded, it looks at this table to find the route to the final destination.

Figure 22.2 *Route method versus next-hop method*

a. Routing tables based on route

Routing table for host A

Destination	Route
Host B	R1, R2, host B

Routing table for R1

Destination	Route
Host B	R2, host B

Routing table for R2

Destination	Route
Host B	Host B

b. Routing tables based on next hop

Routing table for host A

Destination	Next hop
Host B	R1

Routing table for R1

Destination	Next hop
Host B	R2

Routing table for R2

Destination	Next hop
Host B	---

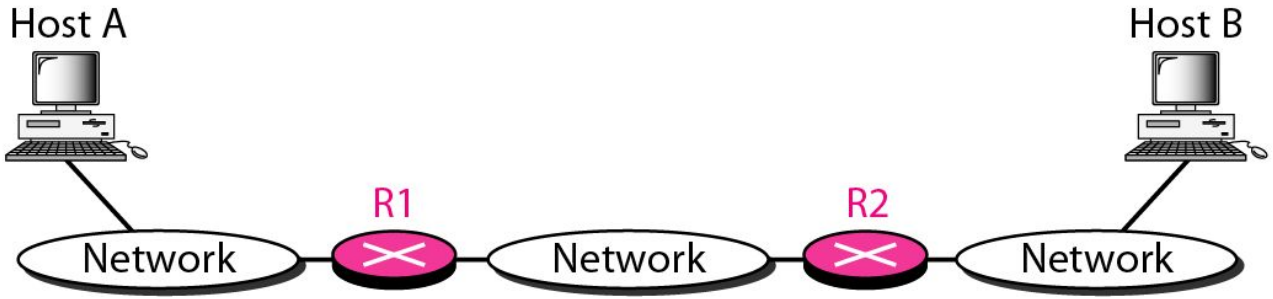


Figure 22.3 *Host-specific versus network-specific method*

Routing table for host S based on host-specific method

Destination	Next hop
A	R1
B	R1
C	R1
D	R1

Routing table for host S based on network-specific method

Destination	Next hop
N2	R1

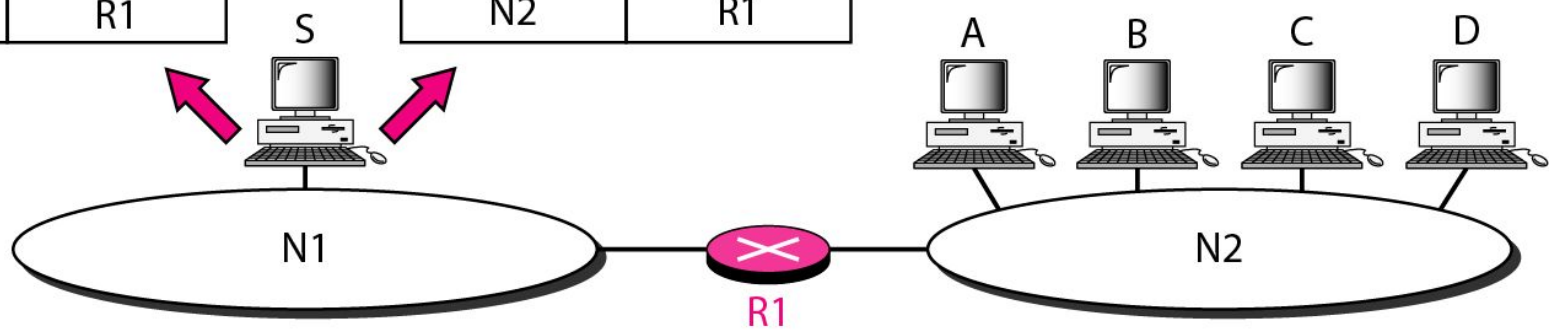


Figure 22.4 *Default method*

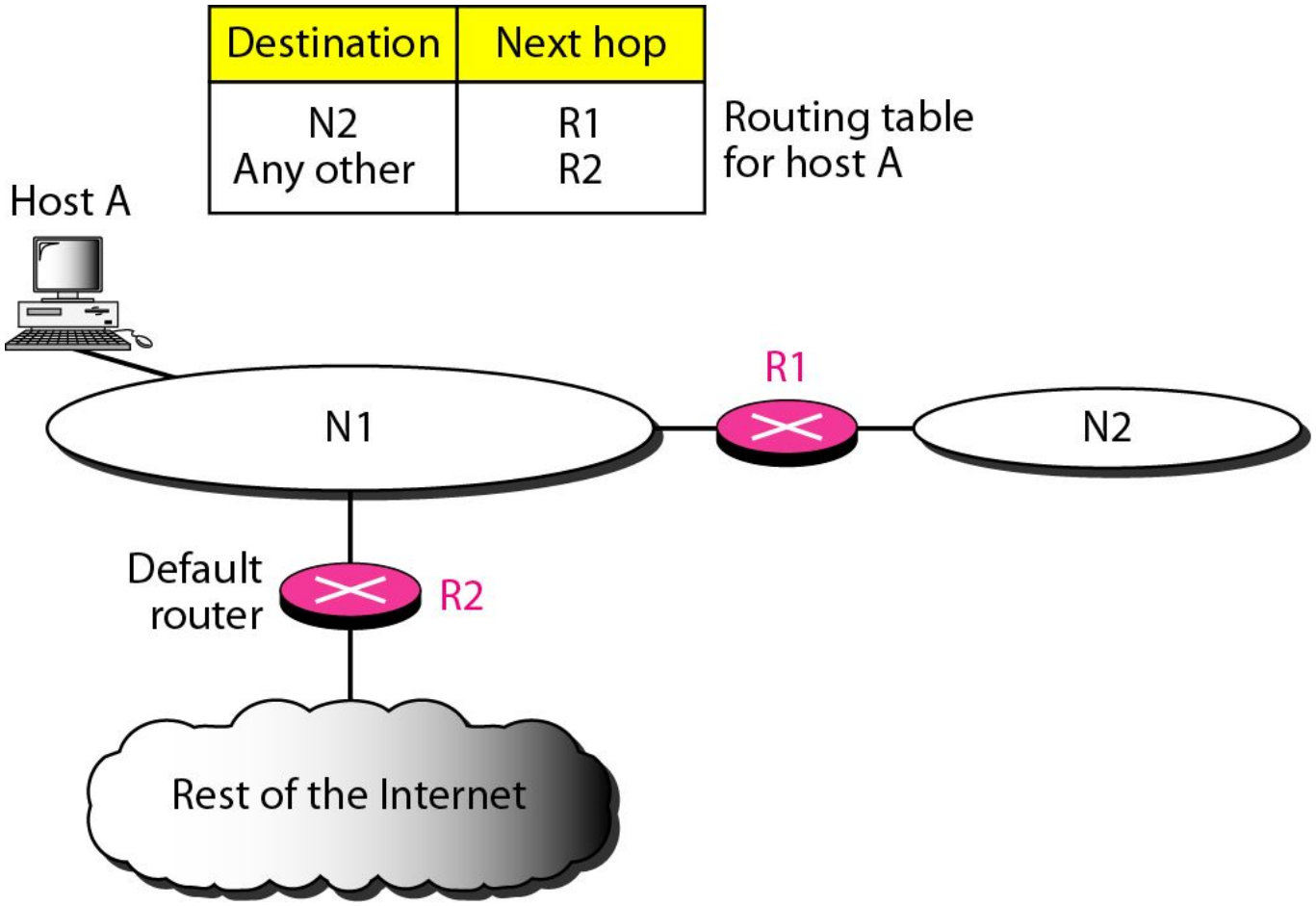
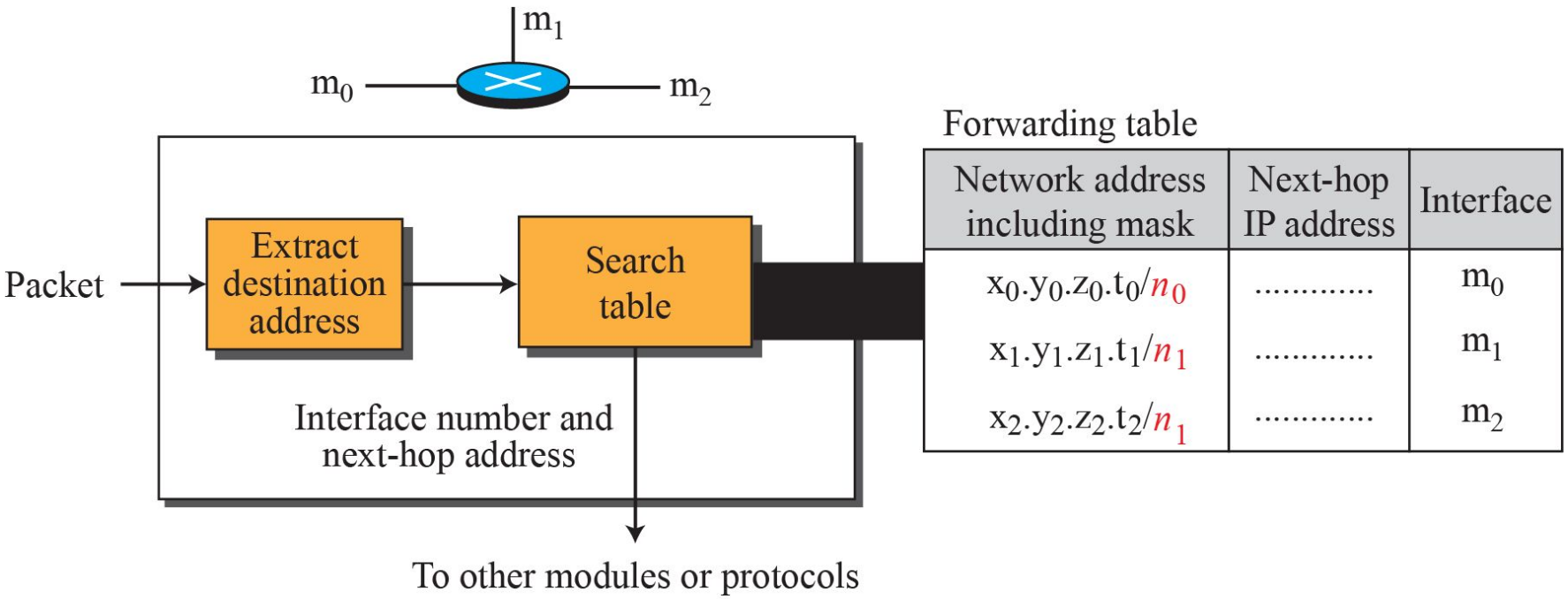


Figure 18.32: Simplified forwarding module in classless address



Example 18.7

Make a forwarding table for router R1 using the configuration in Figure 18.33.

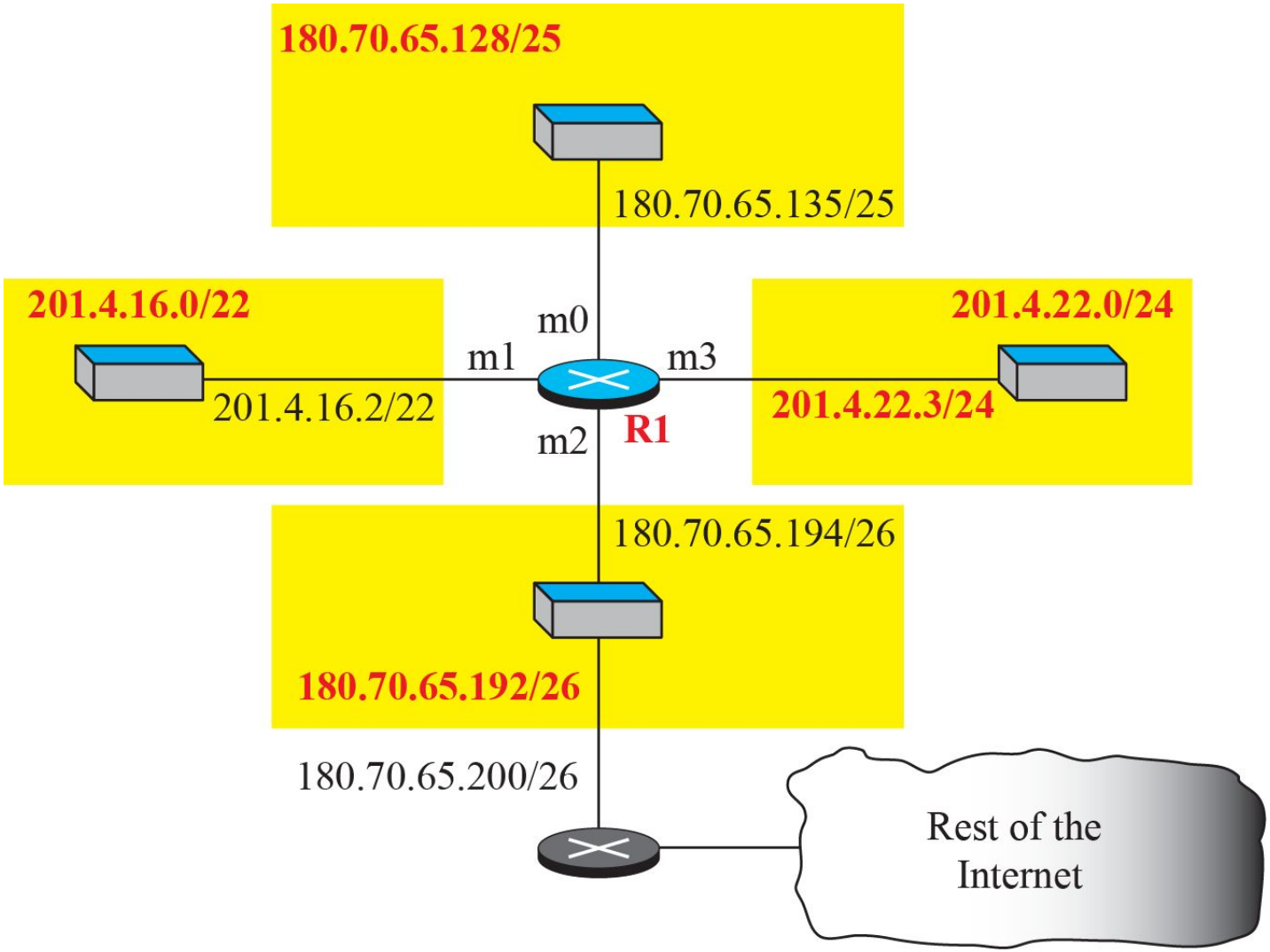
Solution

Table 18.2 shows the corresponding table.

Table 18.2: Forwarding table for router R1 in Figure 4.46

Network address/mask	*Next hop*	*Interface*
180.70.65.192/**26**	—	m2
180.70.65.128/**25**	—	m0
201.4.22.0/**24**	—	m3
201.4.16.0/**22**	—	m1
Default	180.70.65.200	m2

Figure 18.33: Configuration for Example 4.7



Example 18.8

Instead of Table 18.2, we can use Table 18.3, in which the network address/mask is given in bits.

Table 18.3: Forwarding table for router R1 using prefix bits

Leftmost bits in the destination address	*Next hop*	*Interface*
10110100 01000110 01000001 11	—	m2
10110100 01000110 01000001 1	—	m0
11001001 00000100 00011100	—	m3
11001001 00000100 000100	—	m1
Default	180.70.65.200	m2

When a packet arrives whose leftmost 26 bits in the destination address match the bits in the first row, the packet is sent out from interface m2. And so on.

Example 18.9

Show the forwarding process if a packet arrives at R1 in Figure 18.33 with the destination address 180.70.65.140.

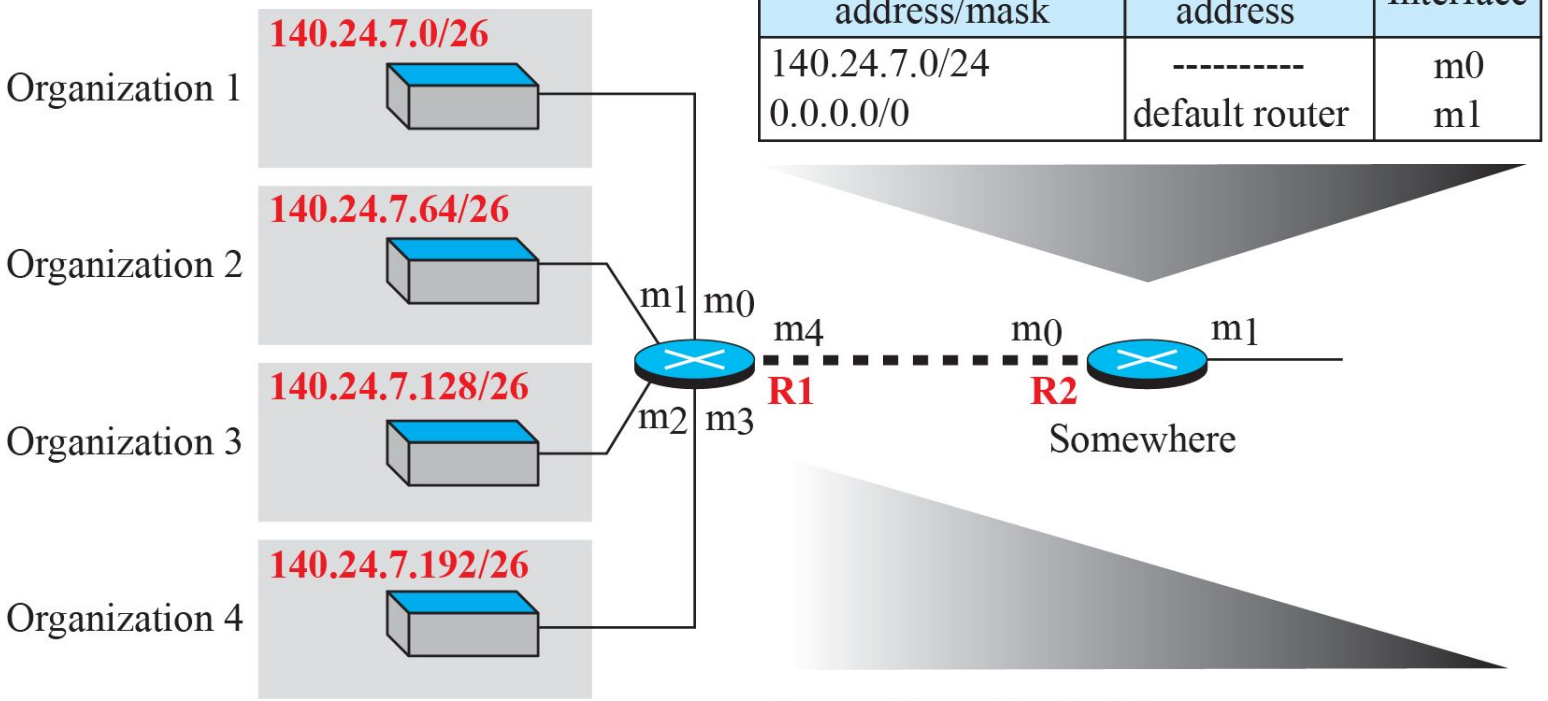
Solution

The router performs the following steps:

18. The first mask (**/26**) is applied to the destination address. The result is 180.70.65.128, which does not match the corresponding network address.

2. The second mask (**/25**) is applied to the destination address. The result is 180.70.65.128, which matches the corresponding network address. The next-hop address and the interface number m0 are extracted for forwarding the packet (see Chapter 5).

Figure 18.34: Address aggregation



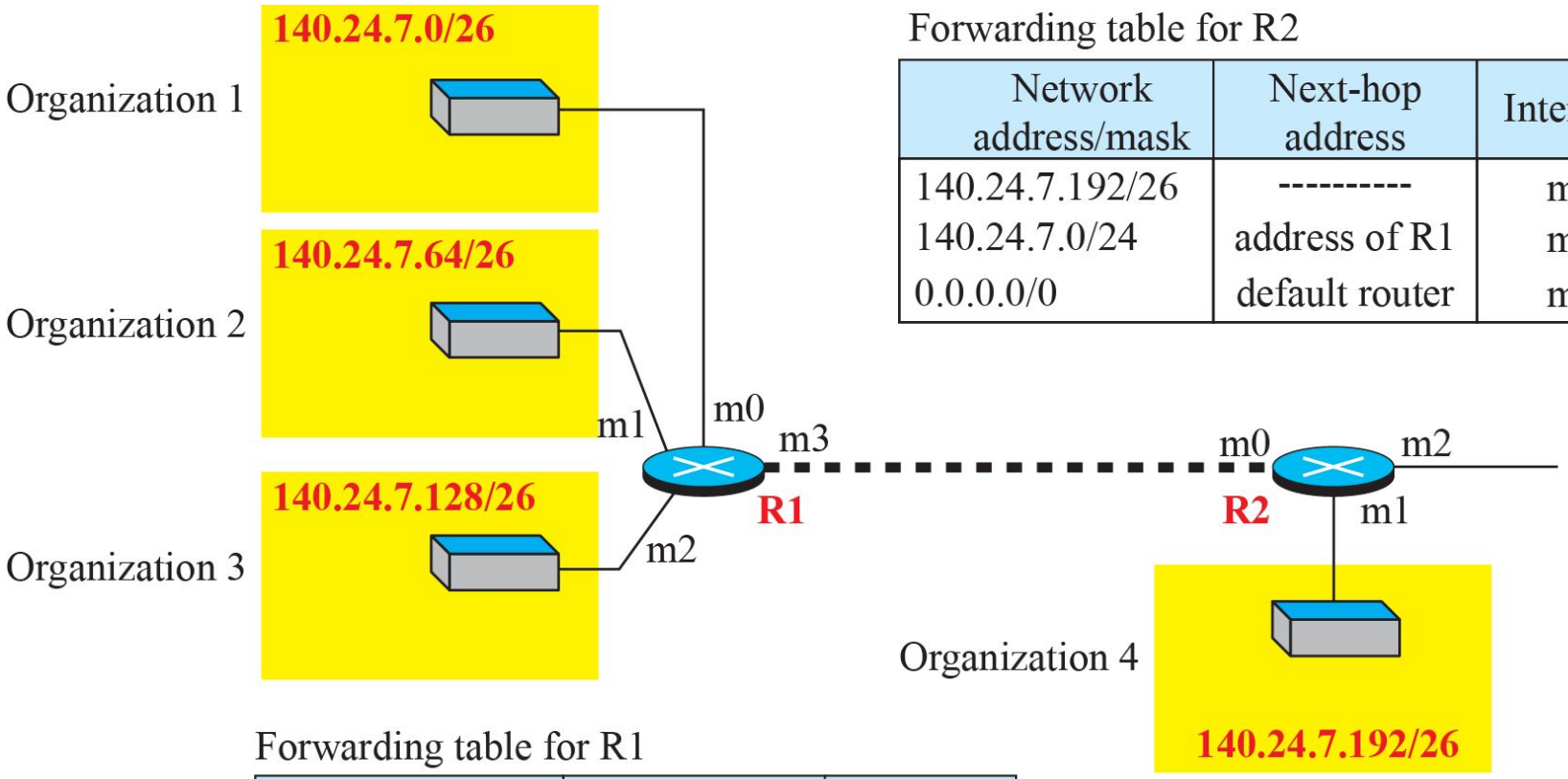
Forwarding table for R2

Network address/mask	Next-hop address	Interface
140.24.7.0/24	----------	m0
0.0.0.0/0	default router	m1

Forwarding table for R1

Network address/mask	Next-hop address	Interface
140.24.7.0/26	----------	m0
140.24.7.64/26	----------	m1
140.24.7.128/26	----------	m2
140.24.7.192/26	----------	m3
0.0.0.0/0	address of R2	m4

Figure 18.35: Longest mask matching



Forwarding table for R2

Network address/mask	Next-hop address	Interface
140.24.7.192/26	----------	m1
140.24.7.0/24	address of R1	m0
0.0.0.0/0	default router	m2

Forwarding table for R1

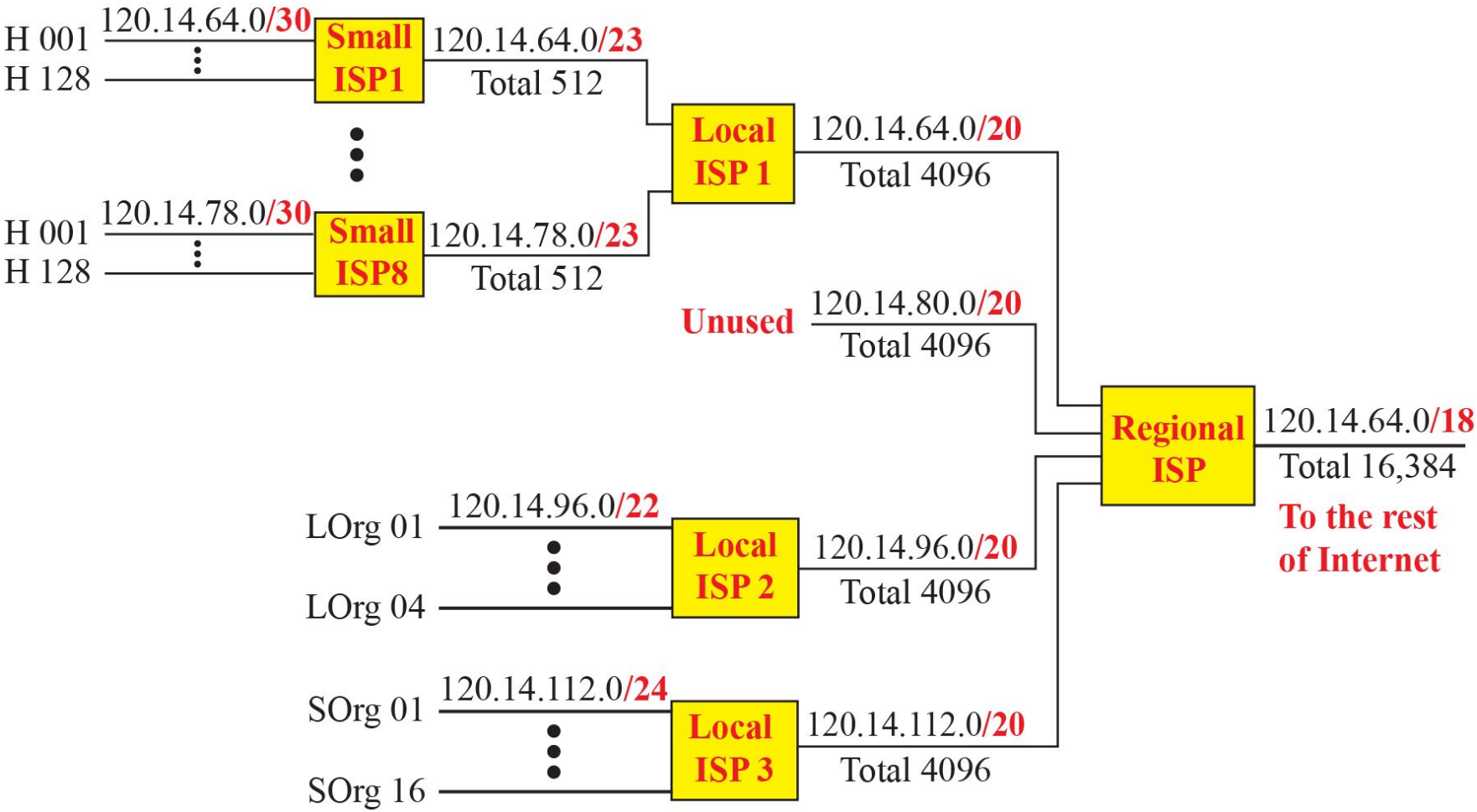
Network address/mask	Next-hop address	Interface
140.24.7.0/26	----------	m0
140.24.7.64/26	----------	m1
140.24.7.128/26	----------	m2
0.0.0.0/0	default router	m3

Example 18.10

As an example of hierarchical routing, let us consider Figure 18.36. A regional ISP is granted 16,384 addresses starting from 120.14.64.0. The regional ISP has decided to divide this block into 4 subblocks, each with 4096 addresses. Three of these subblocks are assigned to three local ISPs, the second subblock is reserved for future use. Note that the mask for each block is **/20** because the original block with mask /18 is divided into 4 blocks.

The figure also shows how local and small ISPs have assigned addresses.

Figure 18.35: Hierarchical routing with ISPs



UNICAST ROUTING PROTOCOLS

A routing table can be either static or dynamic. A static table is one with manual entries. A dynamic table is one that is updated automatically when there is a change somewhere in the Internet. A routing protocol is a combination of rules and procedures that lets routers in the Internet inform each other of changes.

Topics discussed in this section:

Optimization
Intra- and Interdomain Routing
Distance Vector Routing and RIP
Link State Routing and OSPF
Path Vector Routing and BGP

Figure 22.12 *Autonomous systems*

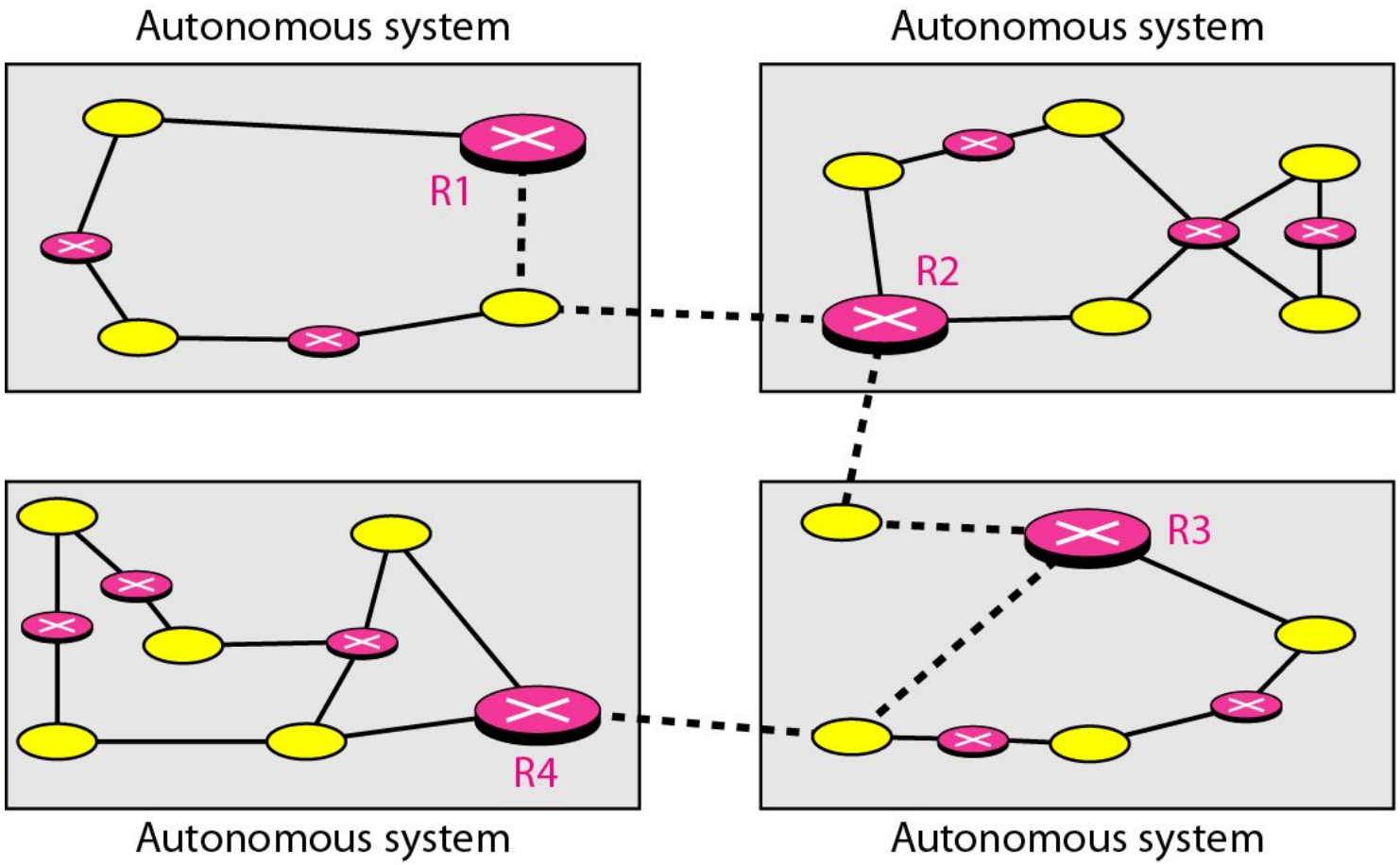


Figure 22.13 *Popular routing protocols*

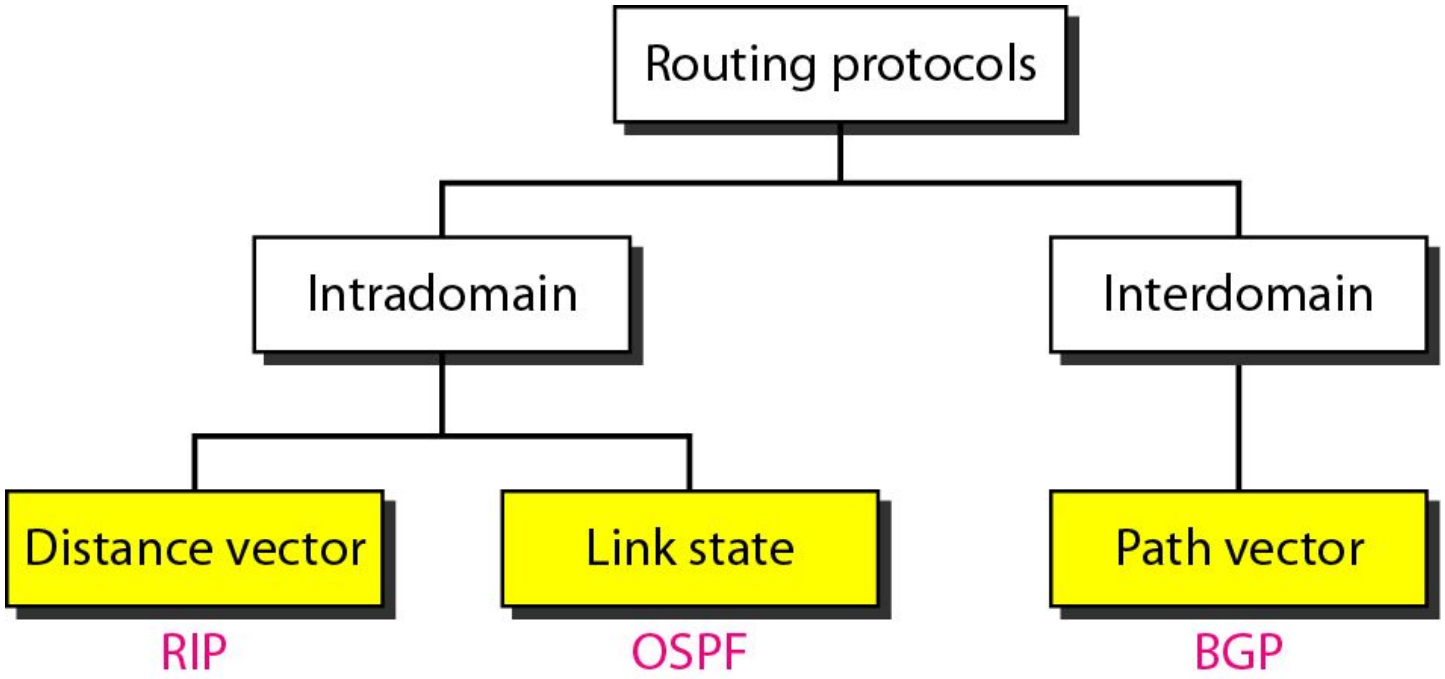


Figure 22.14 *Distance vector routing tables*

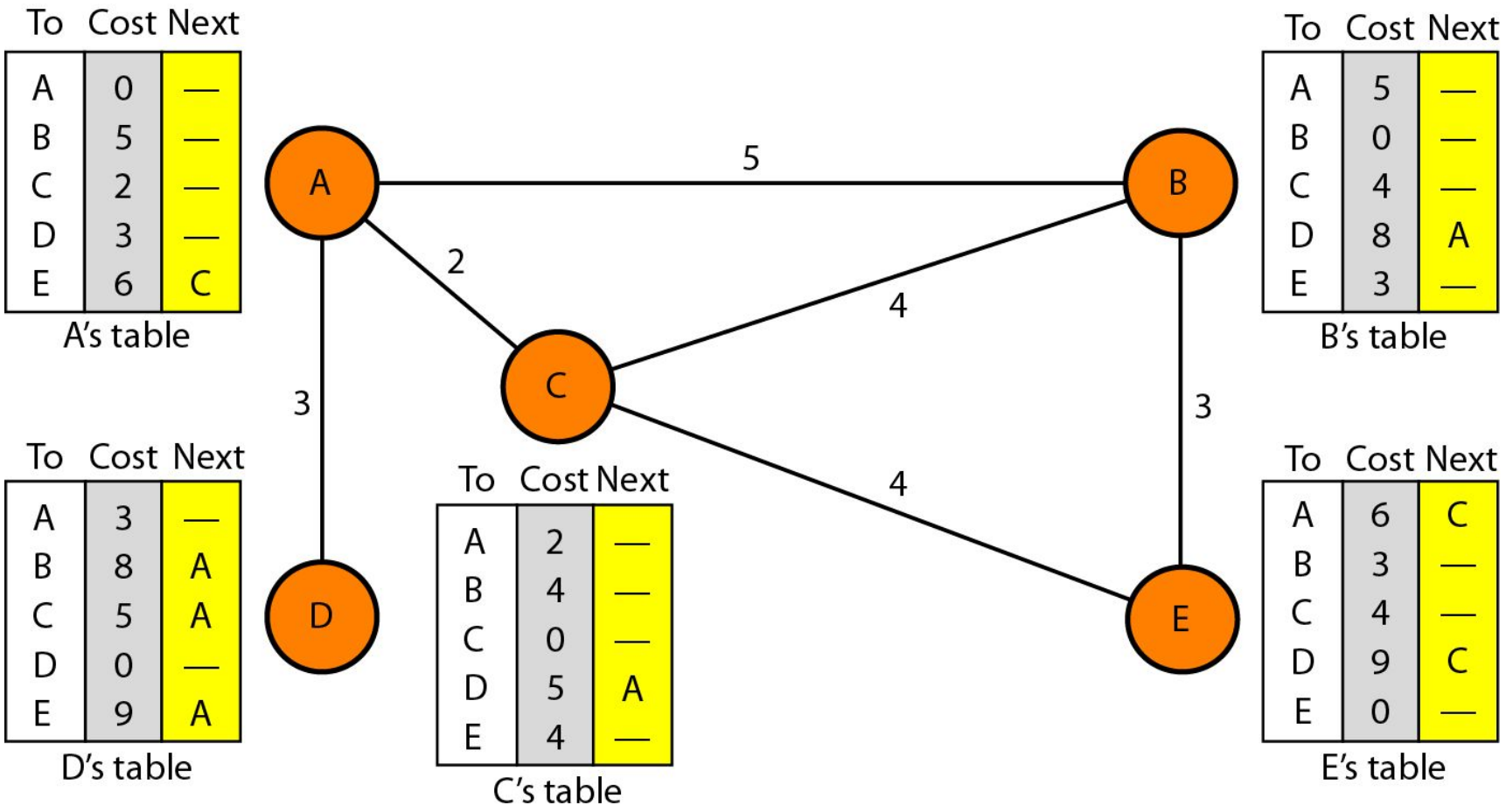
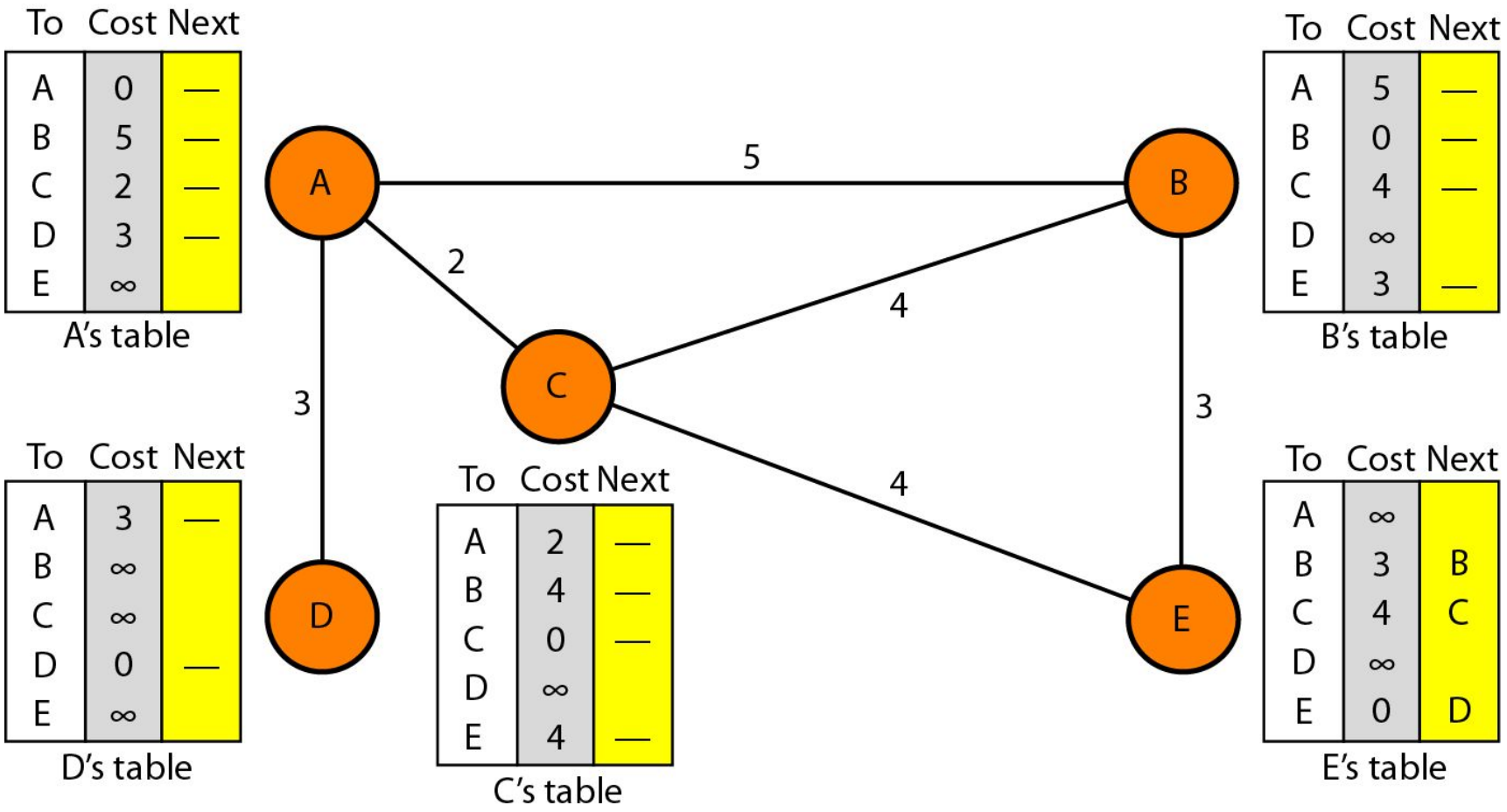


Figure 22.15 *Initialization of tables in distance vector routing*



Note

In distance vector routing, each node shares its routing table with its immediate neighbors periodically and when there is a change.

Figure 22.16 *Updating in distance vector routing*

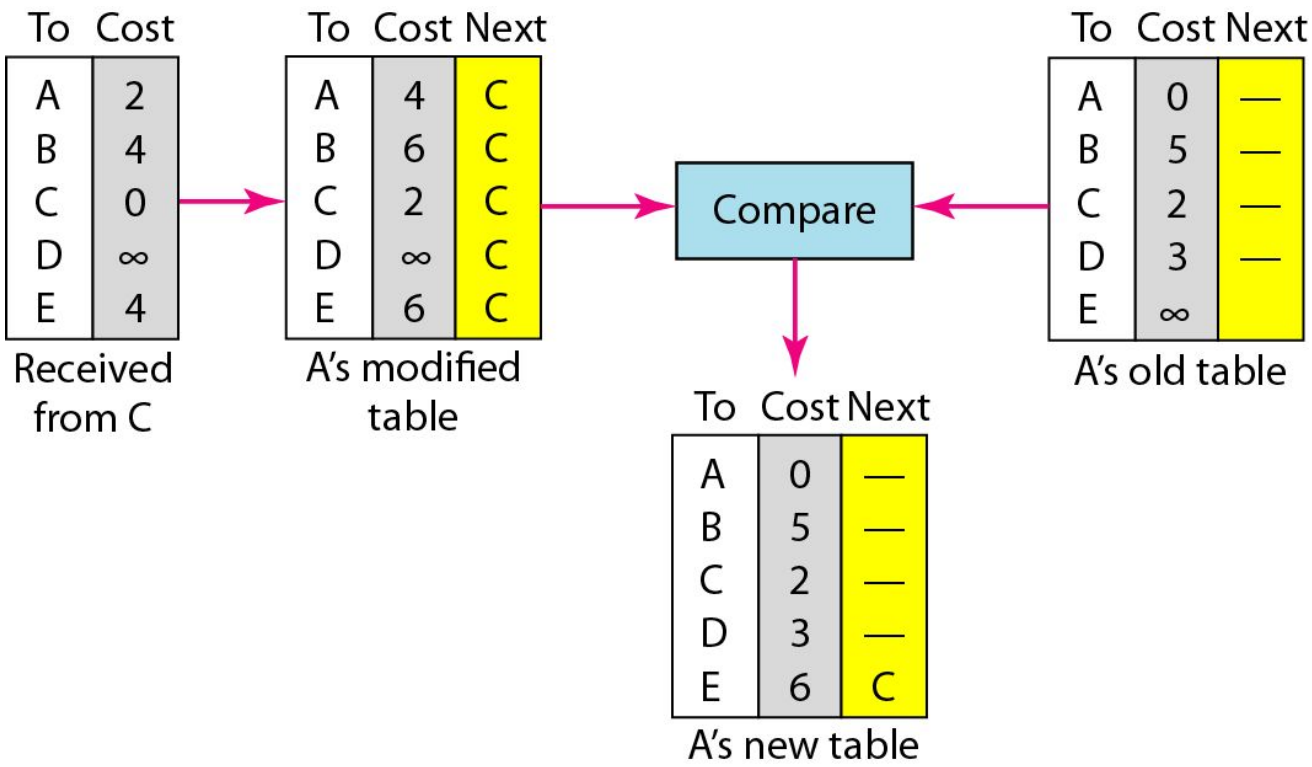


Figure 22.17 *Two-node instability*

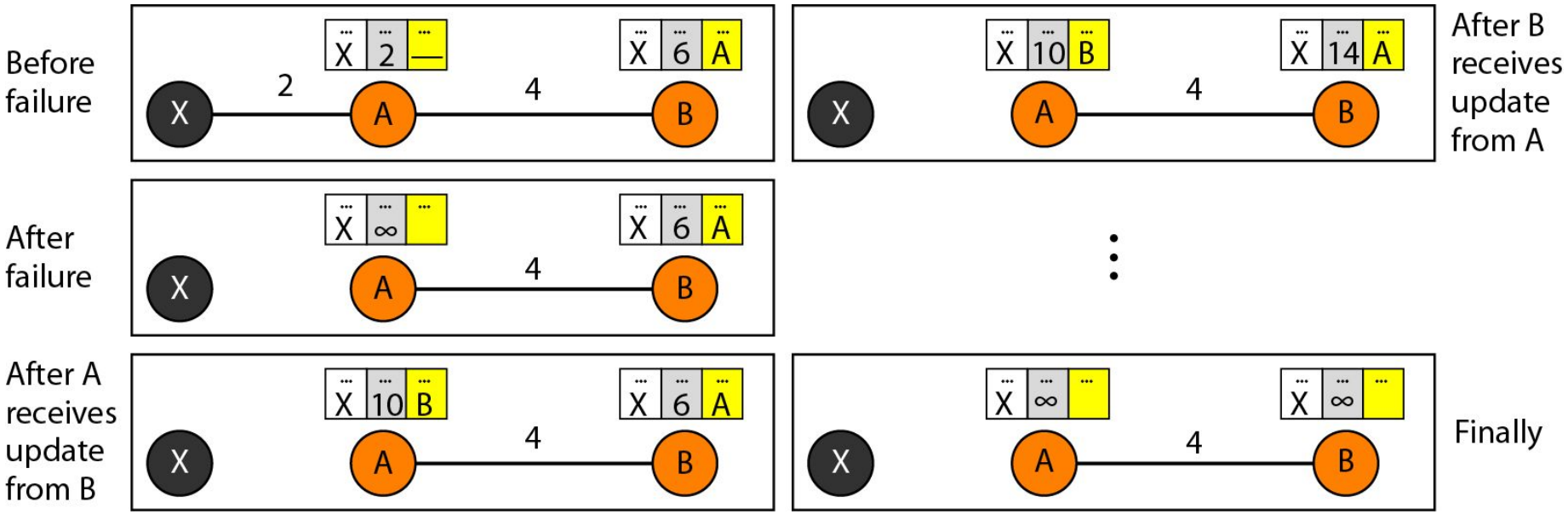


Figure 22.18 *Three-node instability*

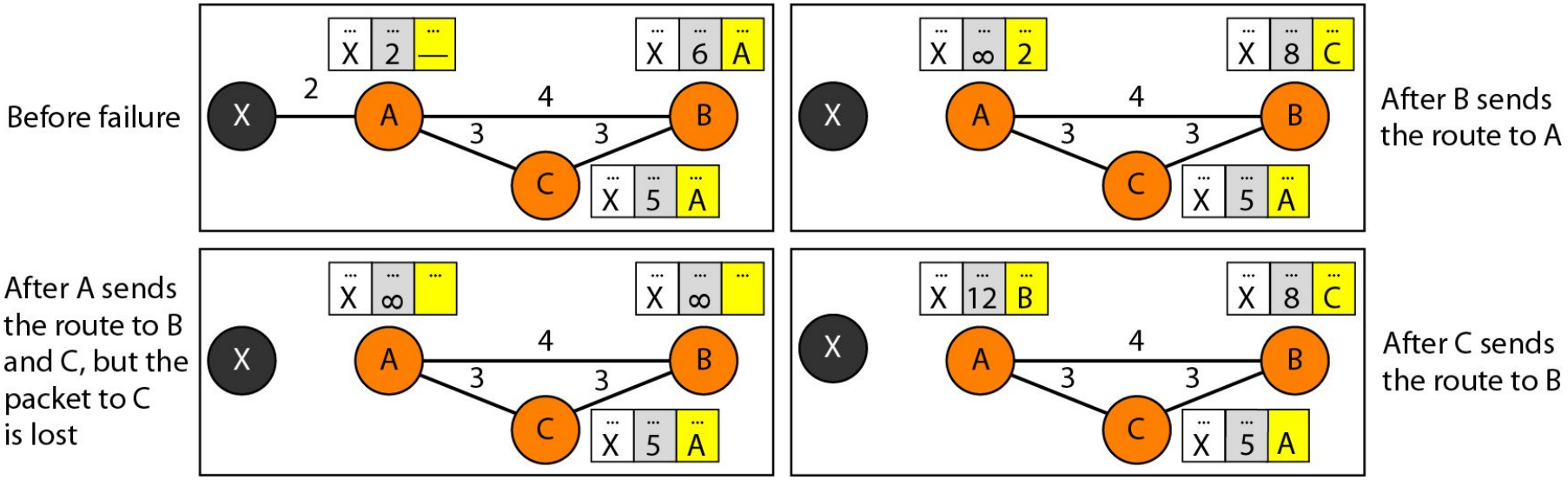


Figure 22.19 *Example of a domain using RIP*

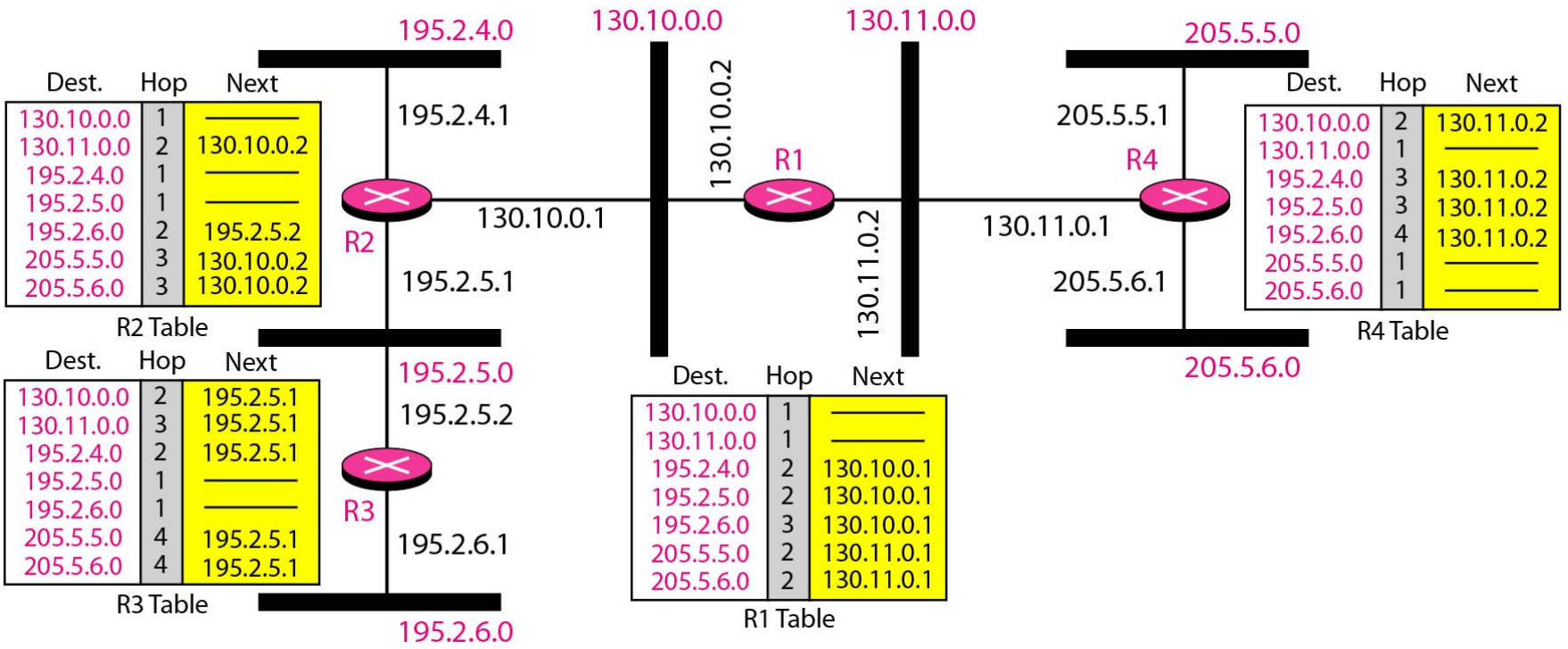


Figure 22.20 *Concept of link state routing*

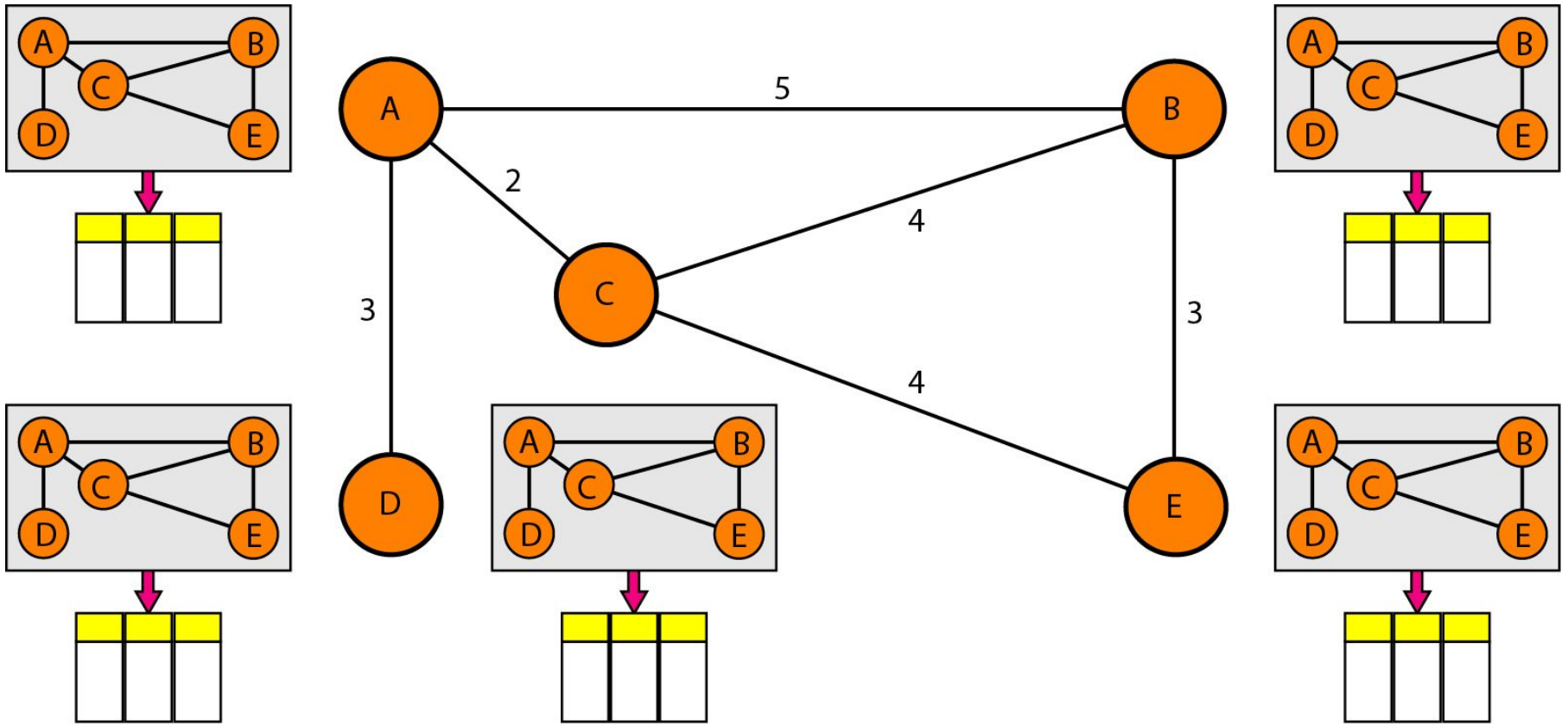


Figure 22.21 *Link state knowledge*

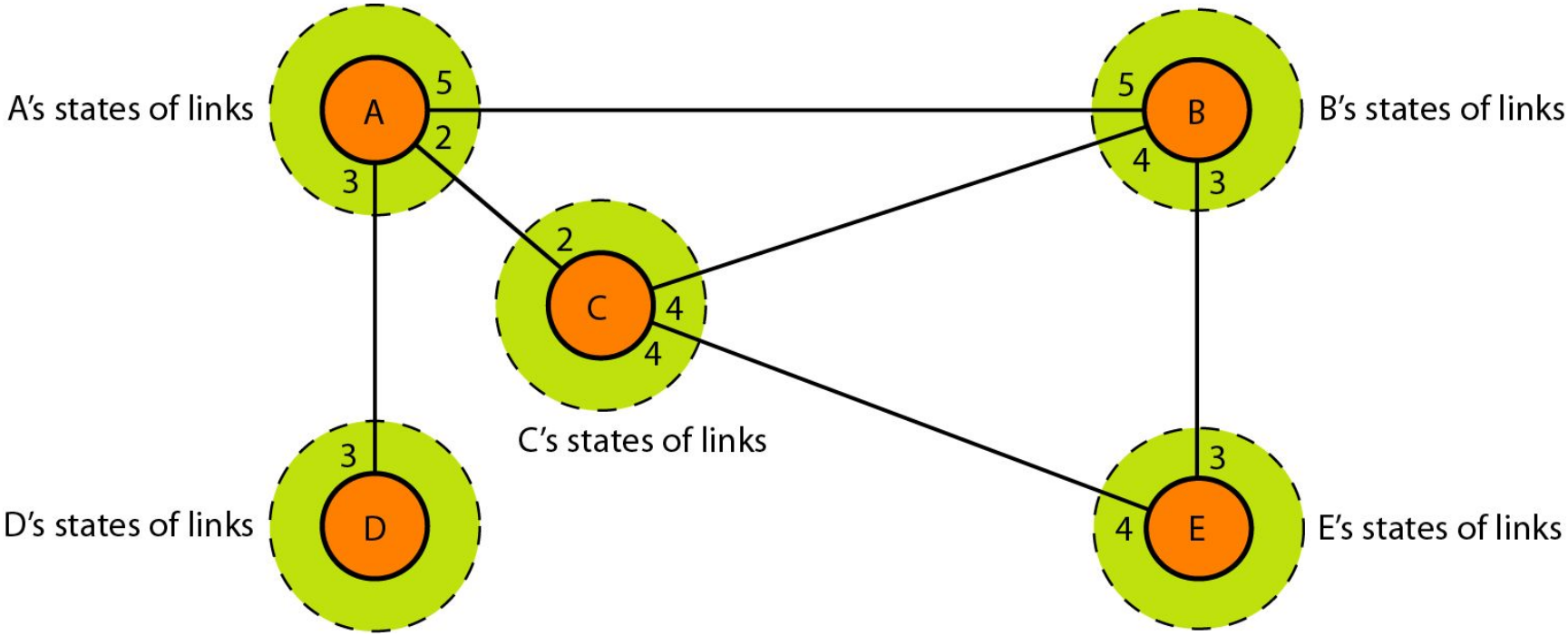


Figure 22.22 *Dijkstra algorithm*

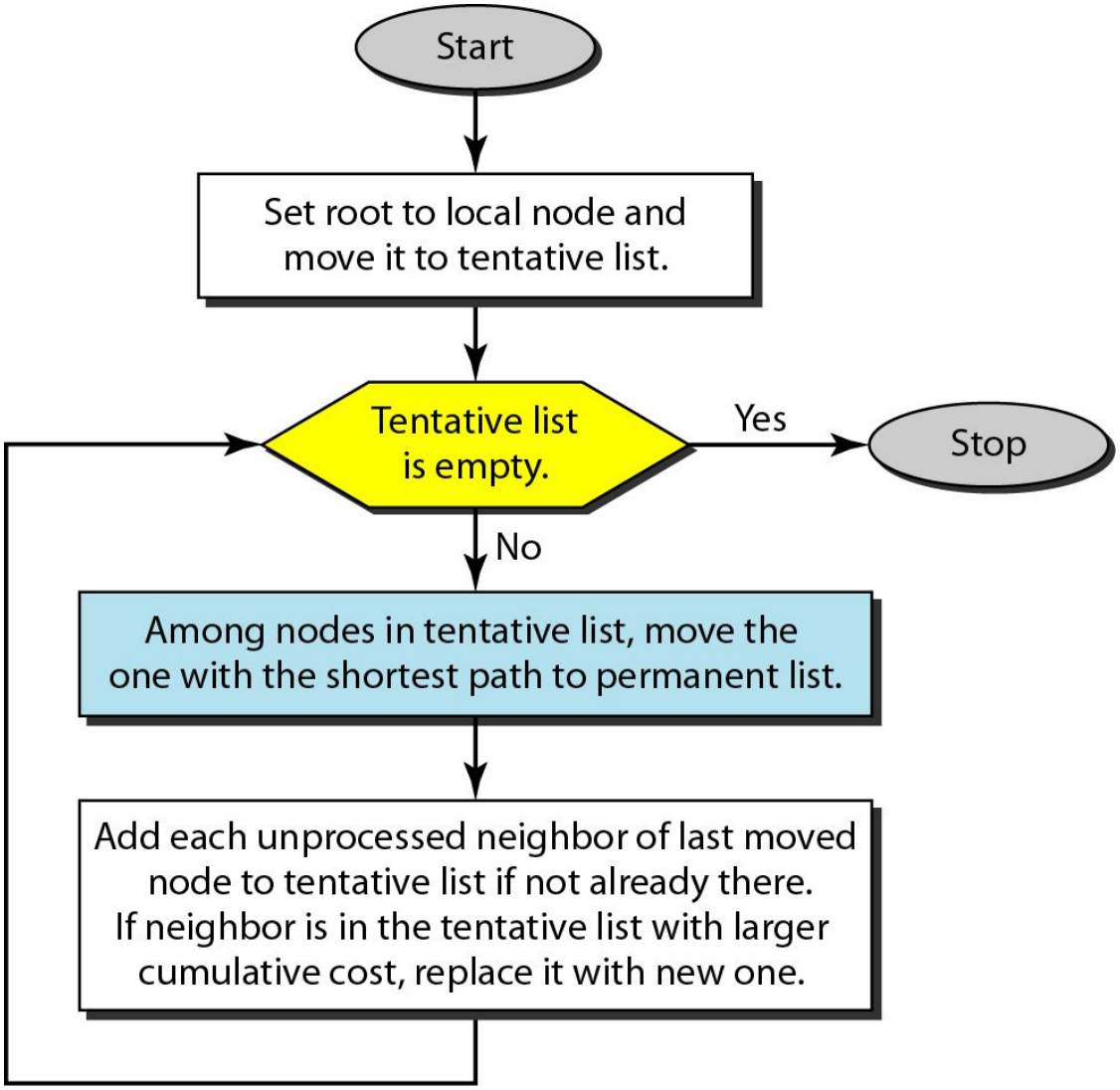


Figure 22.23 *Example of formation of shortest path tree*

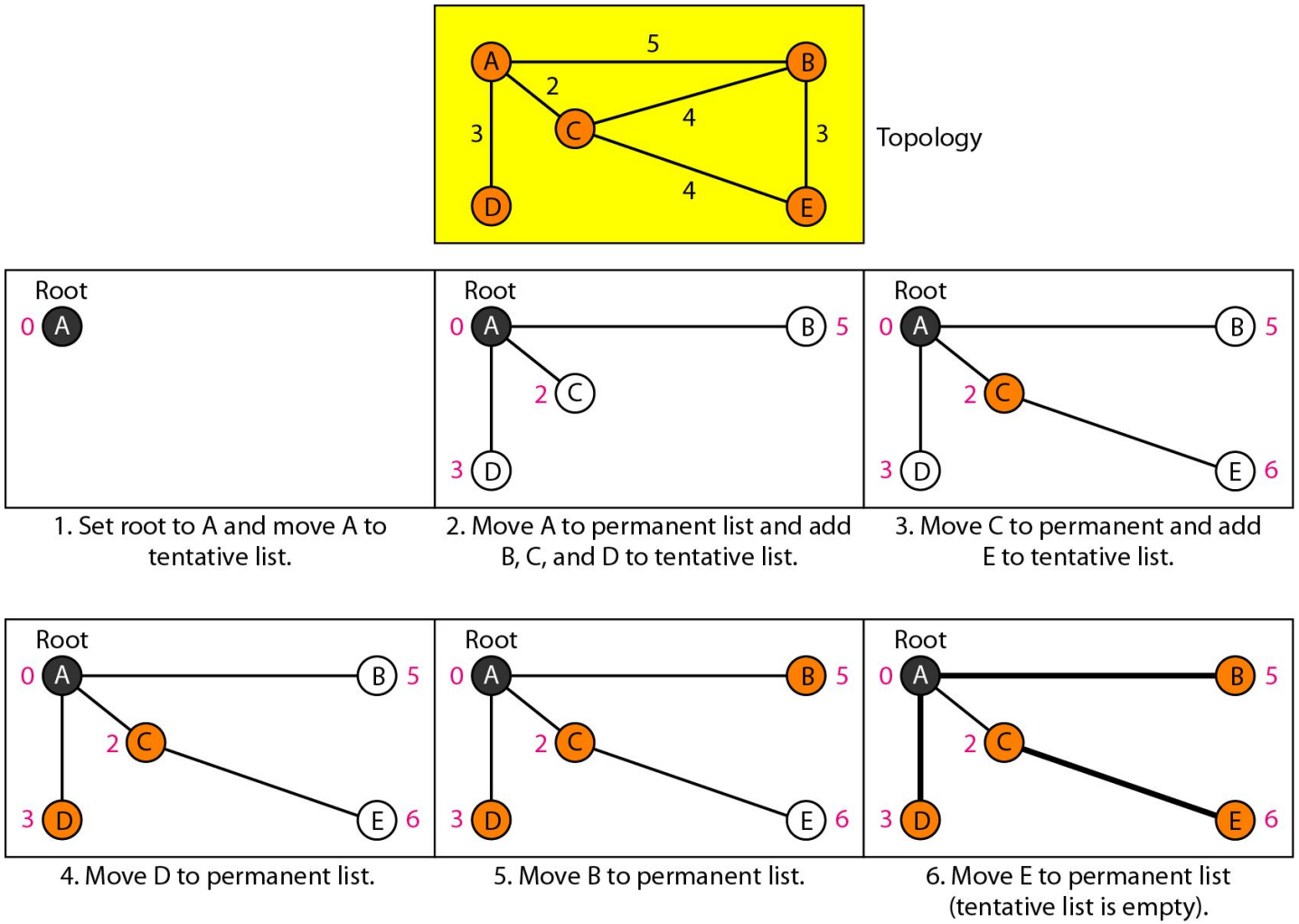


Table 22.2 *Routing table for node A*

Node	*Cost*	*Next Router*
A	0	—
B	5	—
C	2	—
D	3	—
E	6	C

Figure 22.24 *Areas in an autonomous system*

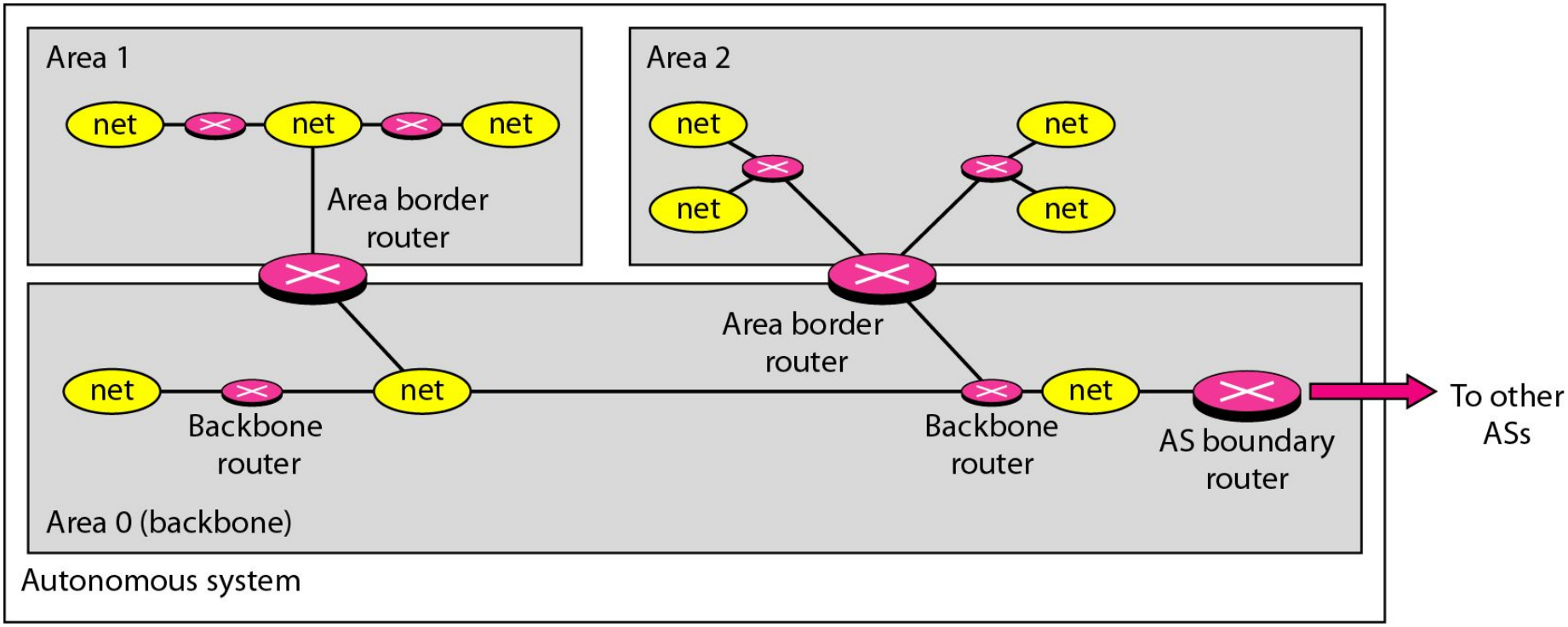


Figure 22.25 *Types of links*