

4. Network Layer

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Network Layer

- i) Network Layer is responsible for the source to destination delivery of packet across multiple networks, it ensures that each packet gets from its point of origin to its final destination.
- ii) It selects & manages the best logical path for data transfer between nodes.
- iii) The routing information contained within a packet includes source of the sending host & eventual destⁿ of remote host.
- iv) This information is contained within the network layer header that encapsulate network frames at the data link layer.
- v) Primary function of the network layer is to permit different nw to be interconnected.

IP address

- i) An internet protocol address is a logical numeric address that is assigned to every single computer, printer, switch, router or any other device that is part of TCP/IP based network.
- ii) The IP address is the core components on which networking architecture is built, no network exists without it.
- iii) An IP address is a logical address that is used to uniquely identify every node in the network because IP addresses are logical address that is used to uniquely identify every node in the network they can change.
- iv) They are similar to addresses in town/city because the IP address gives the nw node an address so that it can communicate with other nodes/nw.

IPX4

- i) The identifier used in the IP layer of the TCP/IP protocol suite to identify each device connected to the internet address or IP address.

- ii) An IPv4 address is a 32-bit address that uniquely & universally defines the connection of host or router to the internet.
- iii) IPv4 addresses are unique, they are unique in the sense that each address defines one & only one, connection to the internet.
- iv) Two devices on the Internet can never have the same address at the same time, if a device has two connection to the Internet via two networks, it has two IPv4 addresses.
- v) IPv4 addresses are unique & universal.

Address space

- i) Address space is total no. of addresses used by the protocol.
- ii) If a protocol uses b bits to define an address, the address space is 2^b because each bit can have two different values (0 & 1).
- iii) IPv4 uses 32-bit addresses, which means that the address space is $2^{32} / 4,294,967,296$.

Notation

There are 3 common notations to show an IPv4 address, binary notation (base 2), dotted decimal notation (base 256) & hexadecimal notation (base 16).

1) Binary Notation (Base 2)

- i) In binary notation an IPv4 address is displayed as 32 bits.
- ii) IPv4 address referred to as a 32-bit address, 4 octet address or 4 byte address.

e.g →

01110101 10010101 00011101 11101010

2) Dotted - Decimal Notation (Base 256)

- i) In that each byte (octet) is only 8 bits, each number in the dotted decimal notation is between 0 & 255.

Binary 10000000 00001011 00000011 00011111
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
 128 · 11 · 8 · 8 Dotted decimal

Operations

3 operations

i) NOT

ii) AND

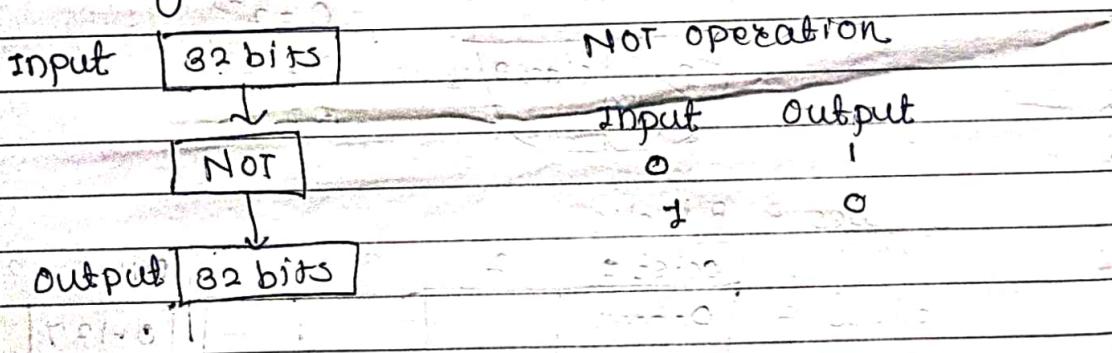
iii) OR

i) Bitwise Not operation

i) It is a unary operation

ii) It takes one input

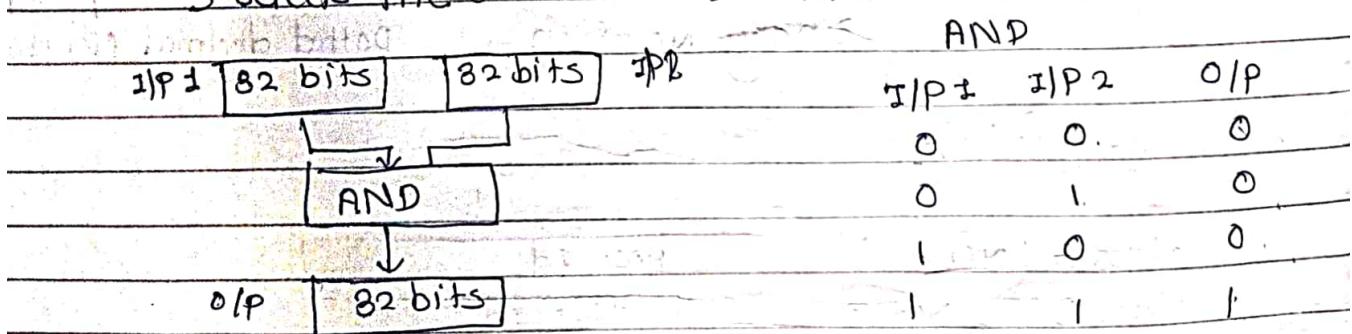
iii) In Not operation every 0 bit is changed to a 1 bit, every 1 bit is changed to 0 bit.



x) Bitwise AND operation

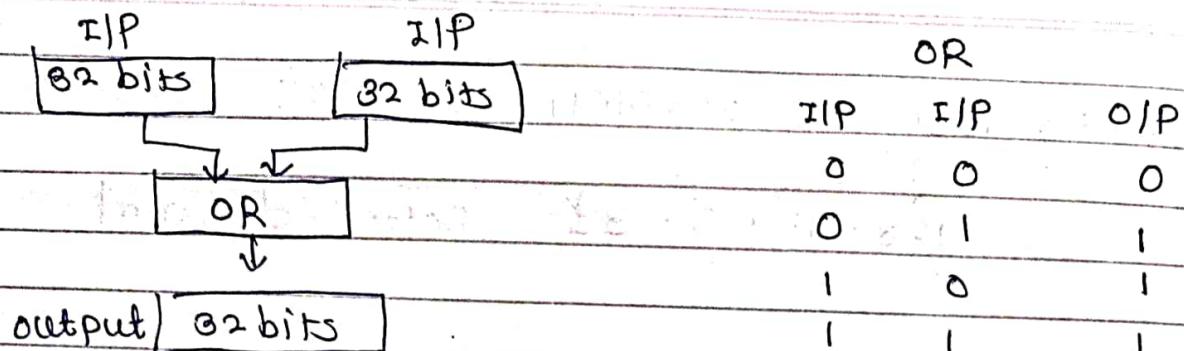
i) It is a binary operation, it takes two input.

ii) It compares two corresponding bits in two inputs & selects the smaller bit from the two.



3) Bitwise OR operation

i) It is a binary operations, it takes two no. & select larger bit from two

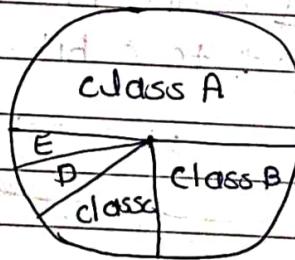


* Classful Addressing

Classful Addressing contains 5 classes such as A, B, C, D, E

classes

In classful addressing, the IP address space is divided into 5 classes. A, B, C, D & E



$$\text{class A} = 2^8$$

$$B = 2^{8^0}$$

$$C = 2^{2^9}$$

$$D = 2^{2^8}$$

$$E = 2^{2^8}$$

classes & Blocks

octet	Byte			
	1	2	3	4
class A	0-----			
B	10-----			
C	110-----			
D	1110----			
E	1111			

Binary Notation Dotted decimal Notation

Netid & hostid

class A [Net id]	;	Host id
class B [Net id]	;	Host id
C [Net id]	;	Host id
D [Multicast address]	;	
E [Reserved for future use]	;	

- i) In classful addressing, an IP address is divided into netid & hostid.
- ii) Fig. shows netid & hostid bytes, classes D & E are not divided into netid & hostid.
- iii) In class A 1 byte defines the netid & 3 bytes define hostid, in class B 2 bytes define netid & 2 bytes define the hostid, in class C 3 bytes define the netid & 1 byte defines the hostid.

② Class A

- i) The 1st octet denotes the network address & last three octets are the host portion.
- ii) Any IP address whose 1st octet is between 1 & 126 is a class A address.
- iii) 0 is reserved as part of the default address & 127 is reserved for internal loopback testing.
- iv) Class A is divided into $2^7 = 128$ blocks that can be assigned to 128 organizations.

Blocks in class A

Netid 0	Netid 1	Netid 127
0.0.0.0	1.0.0.0	127.0.0.0
0.255.255.255	1.255.255.255	127.255.255.255

128 blocks

class A

2) Class B

- i) 2 bytes in class B the define class & two leftmost bits should be 10 (fixed), next 14 bits can be changed to find the no. of blocks in this class.
- ii) Class B is divided into $2^{14} = 16,384$ blocks.

Blocks in class B

Netid 128.0	Netid 128.1	Netid 191.255
128.0.0.0	128.1.0.0	191.255.0.0
128.0.255.255	128.1.255.255	191.255.255.255

16,384 blocks

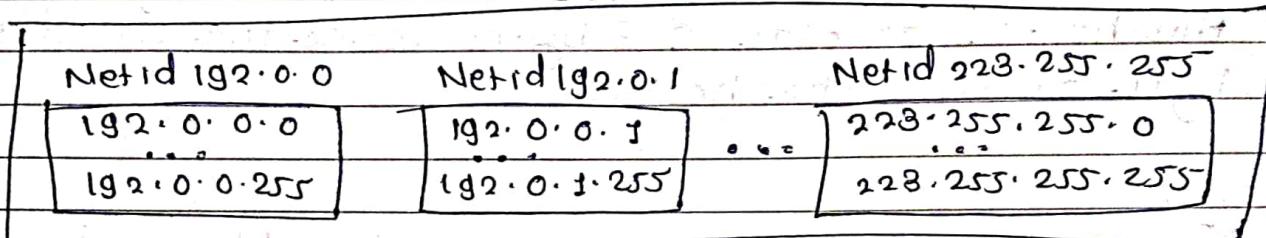
class B

class C

Netid 1

- i) 3 bytes in class C define the ~~class~~ & 3 leftmost bit should be 110(fixed), the next 21 bits can be changed to find the no. of blocks in this class.
- ii) Class C is divided into $2^{21} = 2,097,152$ blocks.

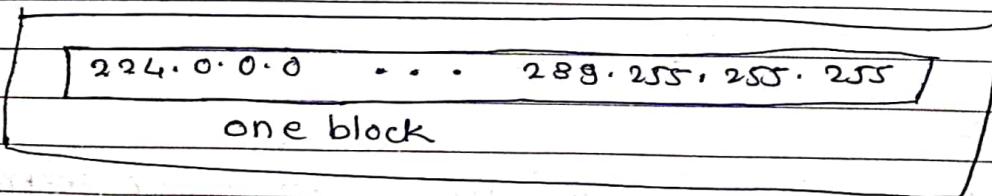
class C



class D

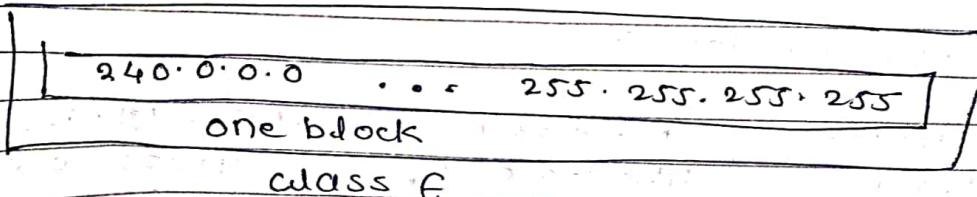
- i) Used for Multicast
- ii) Multicast IP addresses have their 1st octet in range 224 to 239.
- iii) There is one block of class D addresses.
- iv) Each address in this class is used to define one group of hosts on Internet, when group is assigned an address in this class, every host i.e. member of this group will have multicast address in addition to its normal address.

single block in class D



class E

- i) There is just one block of class E addresses.
- ii) It was designed for use as reserved addresses.



Two Level Addressing

- i) The range of addresses allocated to an organization in classful addressing was a block of addresses in class A, B or C.
- ii) Each address in classful addressing contains two parts netid & hostid, the netid defines networks, hostid defines hosts.

Netid	Hostid
$k - n$ bits	$k - 82 - n$ bits

$k - 82$ bits

Class A : $n = 8$

B : $n = 16$

C : $n = 24$

Example :)

An address block is given as 180.8.17.9 find the no. of addresses in the block, the 1st address & last address.

→ 180 is between 128 - 191

so class B

value of n for class B is 16

so i) No. of addresses in this block is $N = 2^{32-n}$

$$\begin{aligned} N &= 2^{32-n} \\ &= 2^{32-16} \\ &= 2^{16} \end{aligned}$$

$$N = 65,536$$

ii) To find 1st address, we keep leftmost 16 bits & set rightmost 16 bits all to 0s.
The 1st address is 180.8.0.0/16

iii) To find last address we kept leftmost 16 & set rightmost 16 bits all to 1s.
The last address is 180.8.255.255

(2) 200.11.8.45

(3) 73.22.17.25

Network Mask

- i) The routers in the internet normally use an algo. to extract the network address from the dest. address of a packet, to do this we need network Mask.
- ii) The network mask or default mask in (classical) addressing is a 32 bit no. with leftmost bits all set to 1s & rightmost bits all set to 0s

Mask for class A

→ 8 bits → 24 bits →

11111111	00000000	00000000	00000000
255	0	0	0

Mask for class B

11111111	11111111	00000000	00000000
255	255	0	0

Mask for class C

→ 24 bits → 8 bits →

11111111	11111111	11111111	00000000
255	255	255	0

Subnetting & Super netting

Subnetting

In subnetting, network is divided into several smaller subnetworks (subnets) with each subnetwork having its own subnet address.

141.14.0.1 141.14.0.2 141.14.100.27 141.14.255.255 141.14.255.256



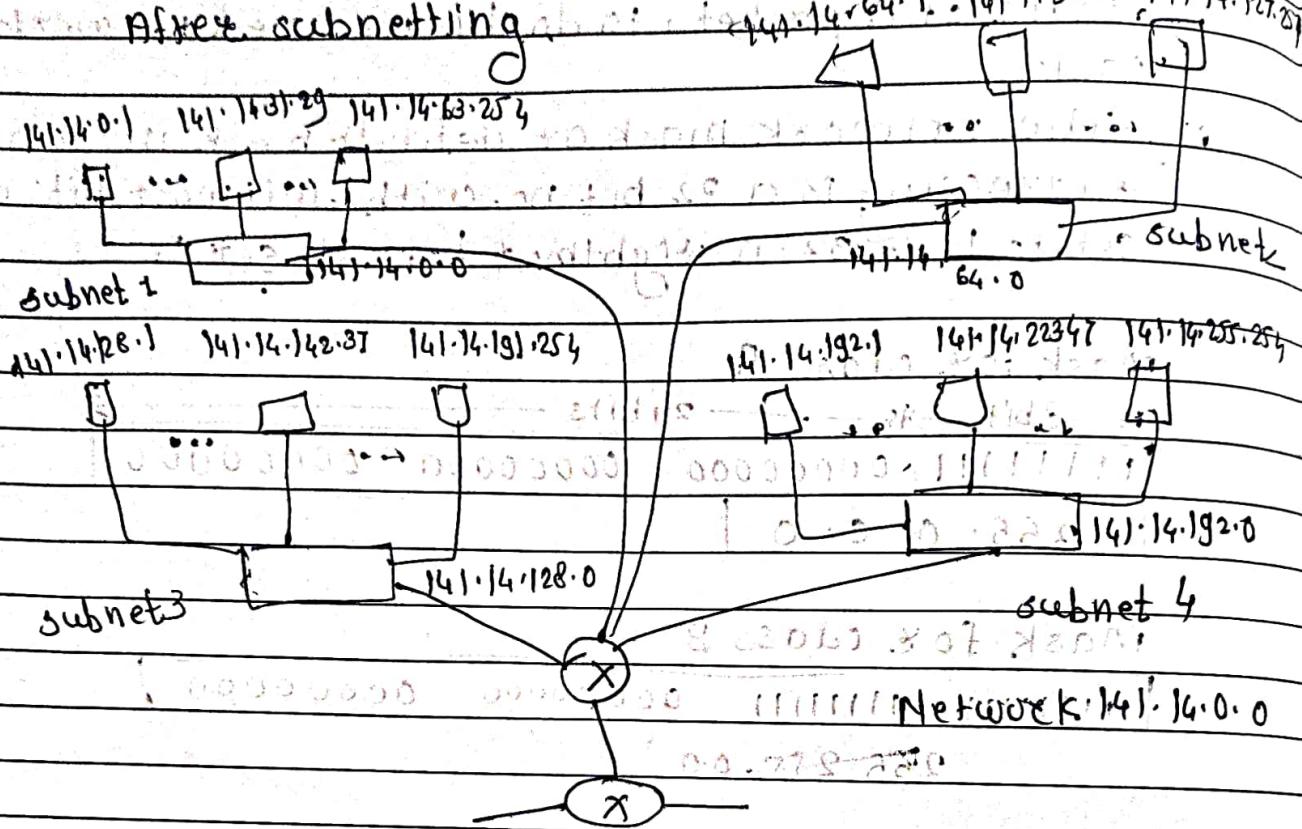
To other

netw

To other netw

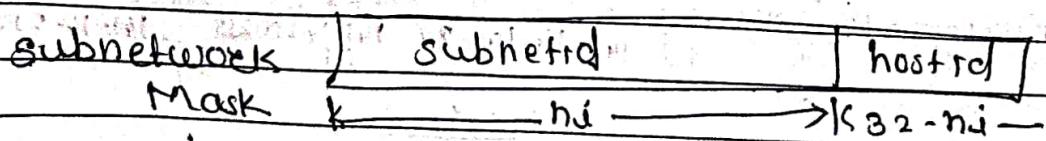
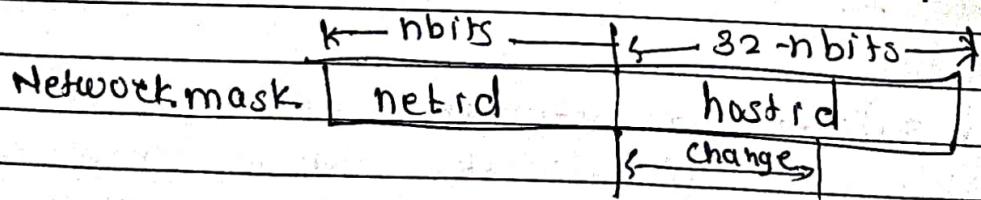
rest of Internet

In last fig network using class B before subnetting
 The whole net is connected through one single connection to one of the routers in Internet.
 After subnetting



Subnet Mask

- i) Network mask is used when network is not subnetted. When we divide network to several subnetworks we need to create subnet mask for each subnetwork.



Subnet Address

When a network is subnetted, the 1st address in the subnet is the identifier of the subnet & is used by routers to route packet destined for the network.

Supernetting

- i) In supernetting an organization can combine several networks to create supernet.

Supernet mask is the reverse of subnet mask.

A supernet mask is the reverse of subnet mask.

A subnet mask for class C has more bits.

Comparison of subnet, default & supernet mask

For class C:

Subnet mask: 11111111 11111111 11111111 11100000

Mask: 27 bits of 32 bits. Now, $32 - 27 = 5$

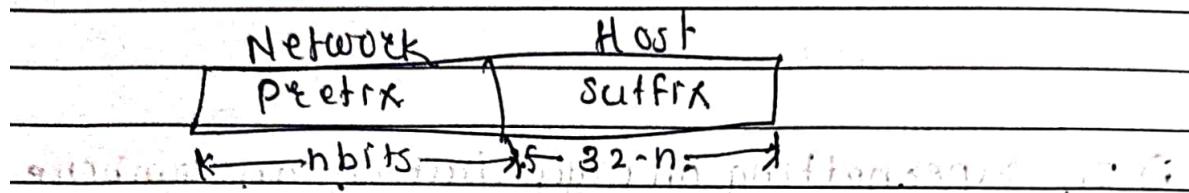
Default mask: 11111111 11111111 11111111 00000000 $n=24$

Supernet mask: 11111111 11111111 11111111 00000000

Mask: 24 bits of 32 bits. Now, $32 - 24 = 8$

Classless Addressing

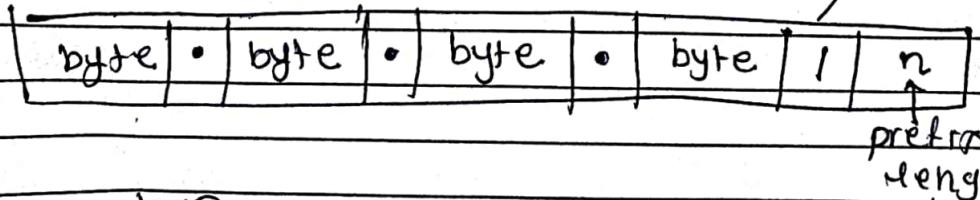
- i) In classless, the whole address space is divided into variable length block.
- ii) In classless addressing the prefix defines the network & suffix defines the host.



- iii) In classful addressing length of network depends on the class of address it can be only 8, 16, 24.
- iv) In classless addressing the length of suffix of the prefix n depends on the size of block, it can be 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., 32.
- v) In classless addressing, the value of n is referred to as prefix length, the value of 32-n referred to as suffix length.
- vi) The prefix length in classless addressing can be 11010111.11111111.11111111.11111111.

slash notation.

In classless addressing, we need to include prefix length to each address if we want to find the block of the address. In this case, prefix length n is added to the address separated by slash.



Example (1) 167.199.170.82/27 find no. of addresses in 1st address & last address.

- (2) 17.68.110.114/24
- (3) 110.23.120.14

Delivery & Forwarding of IP packets

→) Delivery

The delivery of packet to its destination is accomplished using two different methods of delivery

P3

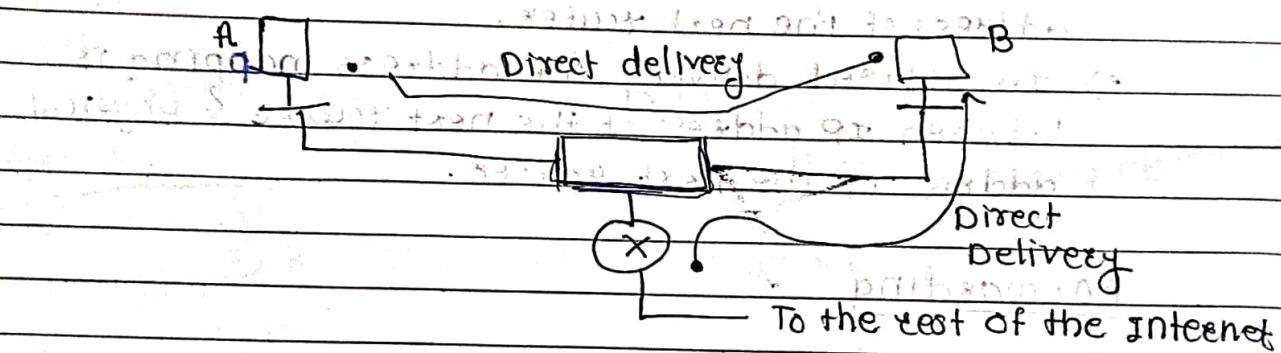
i) direct

ii) Indirect

i) Direct Delivery

- In direct delivery, final destination of the packet is host connected to the same physical network as the deliverer.

- Direct delivery occurs when source & destination of the packet are located on the same physical network or if delivery is between last router & the destination host.



i) Direct delivery

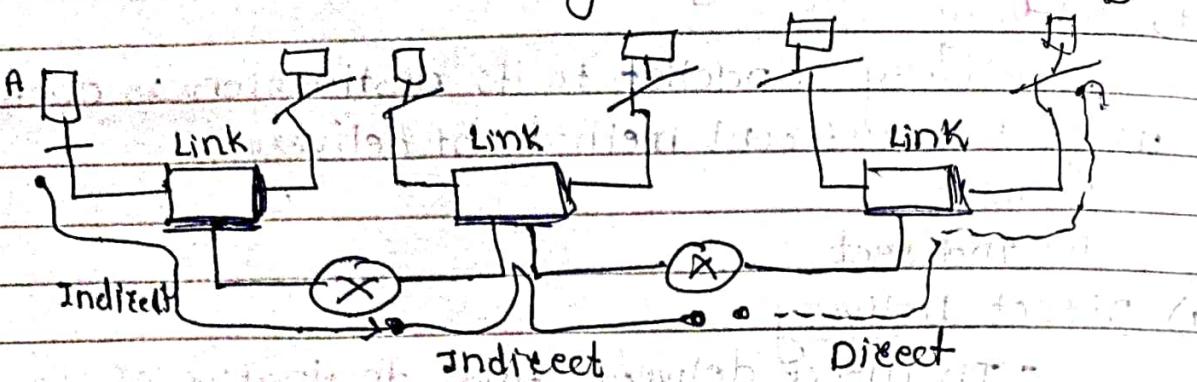
- The sender can easily determine if the delivery is direct, it can extract network address of the destination and compare this address with address of the networks to which it is connected, if match is found the delivery is direct.

ii) Indirect delivery

- In direct method, sender uses the destination IP address to find the destination physical address.

- a) If the destination host is not on the same network as a deliverer, the packet is delivered indirectly.
- b) In Indirect delivery, the packet goes from router to router until it reaches one connected to the same physical network as its final destination.

Indirect delivery



- c) In an indirect delivery, the sender uses the destination IP address & routing table to find the IP address of the next router to which the packet should be delivered.
- d) The sender then uses ARP to find the physical address of the next router.
- e) In indirect delivery, the address mapping is between IP address of the next router & physical address of the next router.

Forwarding

- i) Forwarding means to place packet in its route to its destination.
- ii) When IP used a connectionless protocol, forwarding is based on the destination address of IP datagram when the IP used connection oriented protocol, forwarding is based on the label attached to an IP datagram.
- iii) Forwarding requires host & router to have routing table, when 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.

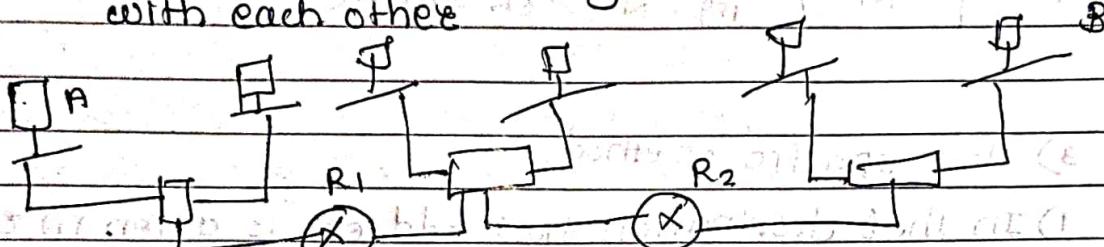
Forwarding Techniques

1) Next hop method

i) To reduce the contents of the routing table is called the next hop method.

ii) In this routing table holds only address of the next hop instead of information about complete route.

iii) The entries of routing table must be consistent with each other.



Destination	Route	Dest.	Route	Dest.	Route
Host B	R, R ₂ , B	Host B	R ₂ , Host B	Host B	B

a) Routing table based on route

What is routing? An set of rules which decide if what we get

Destination	Next Hop	Dest.	Next Hop	Dest.	Next hop
Host B	R ₁	B	R ₂	B	--

b.) Routing table based on next hop

2) Network specific Method

i) To reduce the routing table & simplify the searching process is called network specific method.

ii) Here instead of having entry for every destination host connected to the same physical network, we have only one entry that defines the address of dest. network itself.

iii) We treat all hosts connected to the same physical network as one single entity

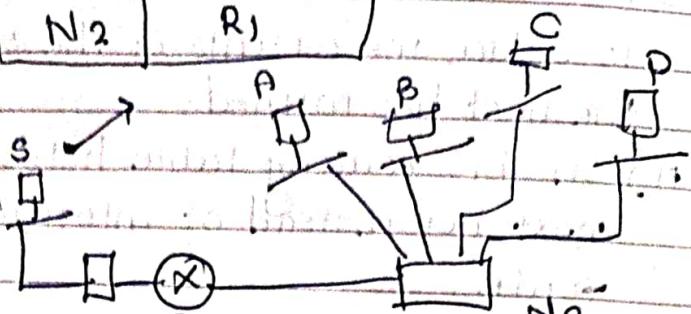
Network specific routing table for host S

Host specific
routing table
for host S

Dest.	Next hop
N ₂	R ₁

Dest.	Next hop
A	R ₁
B	R ₁
C	R ₁
P	R ₁

fig - Network specific



3) Host specific Method.

- i) In that destination host address is given in routing table.
- ii) It is inverse of network specific method.
- iii) It is not efficient to put the host address in the routing table, there are occasions in which administrator wants to have more control over routing.
- iv) In fig. if the admin wants to all packets arriving for host B delivered to router R₃ instead of R₁, one single entry in the routing table of host R can explicitly define route.

Routing table for host R.

Dest - Next hop

B	R ₃
N ₂	R ₁
N ₃	R ₃

Host R

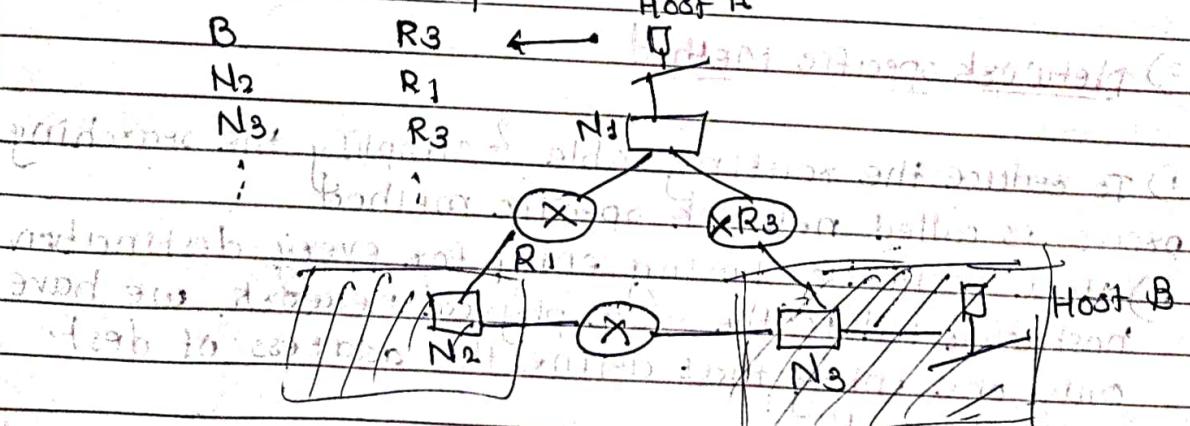


fig - Host specific routing

4) Default Routing.

Routing Table for host A

Dest. Next hop

N₂

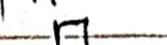
R₁

:

R₂

Default

Host A



N₁

R₁

Default

Router

R₂

(Rest of Internet)

N₂

N₁

N₂

i) In above fig. host A is connected to a network with two routers. Router R₁ routes the packets to hosts connected to a network N₂.

- For the rest of internet, router R₂ is used.
- So instead of listing all networks in the entire internet, host A can just have one entry called the default router.

Congestion control

It refers to techniques & mechanisms that can either prevent congestion before it happens or remove congestion after it has happened.

It is divided into two categories

a) Open loop (before)

b) Closed loop (after)

Congestion control

Open loop

Retransmission policy

window policy

Acknowledgment policy

Discarding policy

Admission policy

Closed loop

Back pressure
choke packet

Implicit signaling

Explicit signaling

Open loop congestion control

- i) In open loop congestion control, policies are applied to prevent congestion before it happens.
- ii) It is handled by either source or destination.

Retransmission policy

i) Retransmission is sometimes unavoidable.

ii) If the sender feels that sent packet is lost or corrupted, the packet needs to be retransmitted.

iii) Retransmission increases congestion in the network so, good retransmission policy can prevent congestion.

iv) Retransmission policy & retransmission timers must be designed to optimize efficiency & at the same time prevent congestion.

v) Used in TCP

2) Window policy

i) The type of window at the sender may also affect congestion.

ii) The selective repeat window is better than the Go-back-N window for congestion control.

(i) Go-back-N window, when the timer for packet times out, several packets may be resent, although some may have arrived safe & sound at receiver.

(ii) This duplication may make congestion worse.

(iii) Selective repeat window, on other hand, tries to send specific missing less than packets that have been lost or corrupted.

all around there are windows of retransmission times.

3) Window Acknowledgment policy.

i) It imposed by the receiver may also affect congestion.

ii) If the receiver does not ACK every packet it receives, it may slow down the sender & help prevent congestion.

iii) Several approaches are used in this case.
 receiver may send an ACK only if it has a packet to be sent or special timer expires.

4) Discarding policy, with which the router

i) A good discarding policy by the routers may help prevent congestion & at the same time may not harm integrity of the transmission.

5) Admission Policy, which is quality of service

i) An admission policy, which is quality of service mechanism, can also prevent congestion in virtual circuit network.

ii) switches in flow first check resource requirement of a flow before admitting to the network.

iii) A router can deny establishing virtual circuit connection if there is congestion in the network.

Closed loop congestion control

- congestion after it happens.

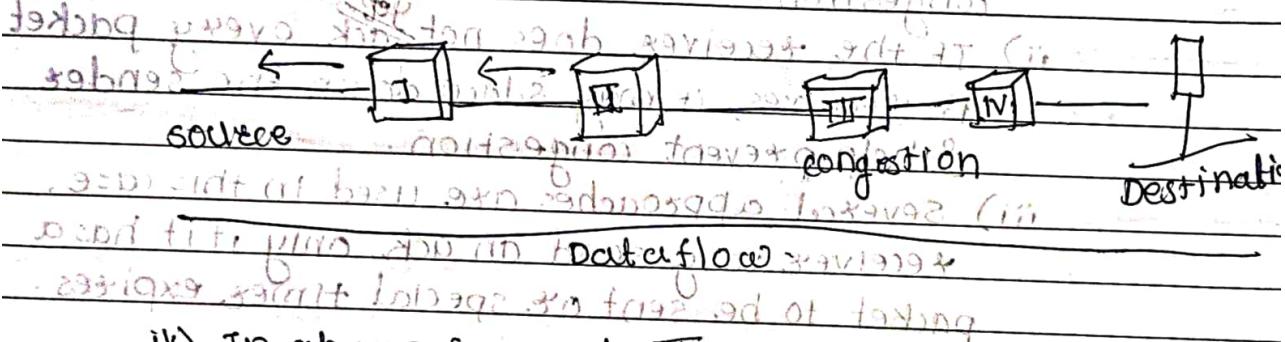
i) Backpressure

i) The technique of backpressure refers to a congestion control mechanism in which congested node stops receiving data from the immediate upstream node or nodes.

ii) Backpressure is node-to-node congestion control that starts with a node & propagates in the opposite direction of data flow, to the source, of

iii) This techniques can be applied only to virtual circuit networks, in which each node knows the upstream node from which a flow of data is

transferring varying amount of bandwidth.



iv) In above fig node III in the fig. has more input data than it can handle. It drops some packets in its input buffer & informs node II to slow down. Node II in turn may be congested because it is slowing down the output flow of data. If node II is congested, it informs node I to slow down, which in turn may create congestion if so, node I informs the source of data to slow down.

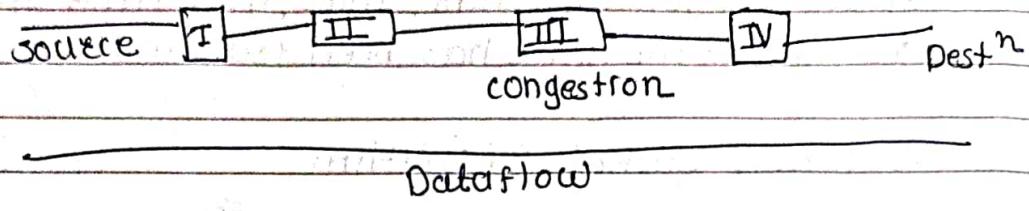
2) choke packet: to tell at each node (it)

A choke packet is packet sent by node to the last source to inform it of congestion.

In backpressure, the warning is from one node to its upstream node, although the warning may eventually reach source dest.

- ii) In the choke packet method, warning is from the router, which has encountered congestion, to the source station directly.

choke packet



* Congestion control Algo.

② Leaky Bucket Algorithm

- i) It is traffic shaping mechanism that controls the amount & rate of the traffic sent to network.
- ii) A leaky bucket algorithm shapes bursty traffic into fixed rate traffic by averaging the data rate.
- iii) Imagine a bucket with small hole at the bottom.
- iv) The rate at which the water is poured into the bucket is not fixed & can vary but it leaks from the bucket at a constant rate.
- v) Thus the rate at which water leaks does not depend on the rate at which water is input to the bucket.
- vi) When bucket is full, any additional water that enters into the bucket spills over sides & is lost.

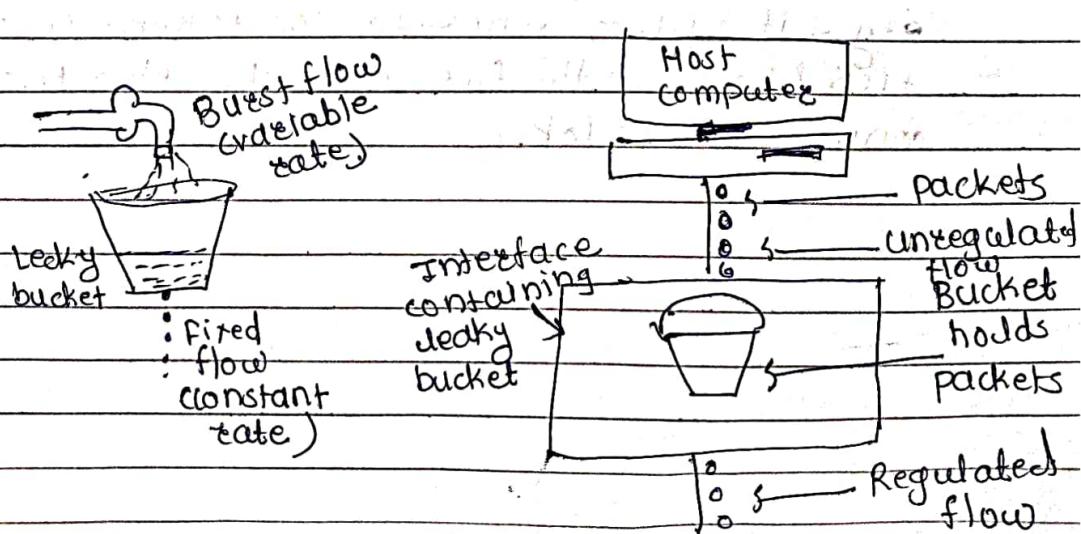


fig : Leaky bucket Algorithm

The same concept can be applied to packets in the network. Consider that data is coming from the source at variable speeds. Suppose that source sends data at 12 mbps for 4 seconds, then there is no data for 3 seconds. The source again transmits data at a rate of 10mbps for 2 seconds. Thus, in a time span of 9 seconds, 68 mb data has been transmitted.

2) Token bucket Algorithm

i) The leaky bucket algo. does not consider the idle time of the host.

e.g. - if the host was idle for 10 seconds & now it willing to send data at a very high speed for another 10 seconds, total data transmission will be divided into 20 seconds & average data rate will be maintained.

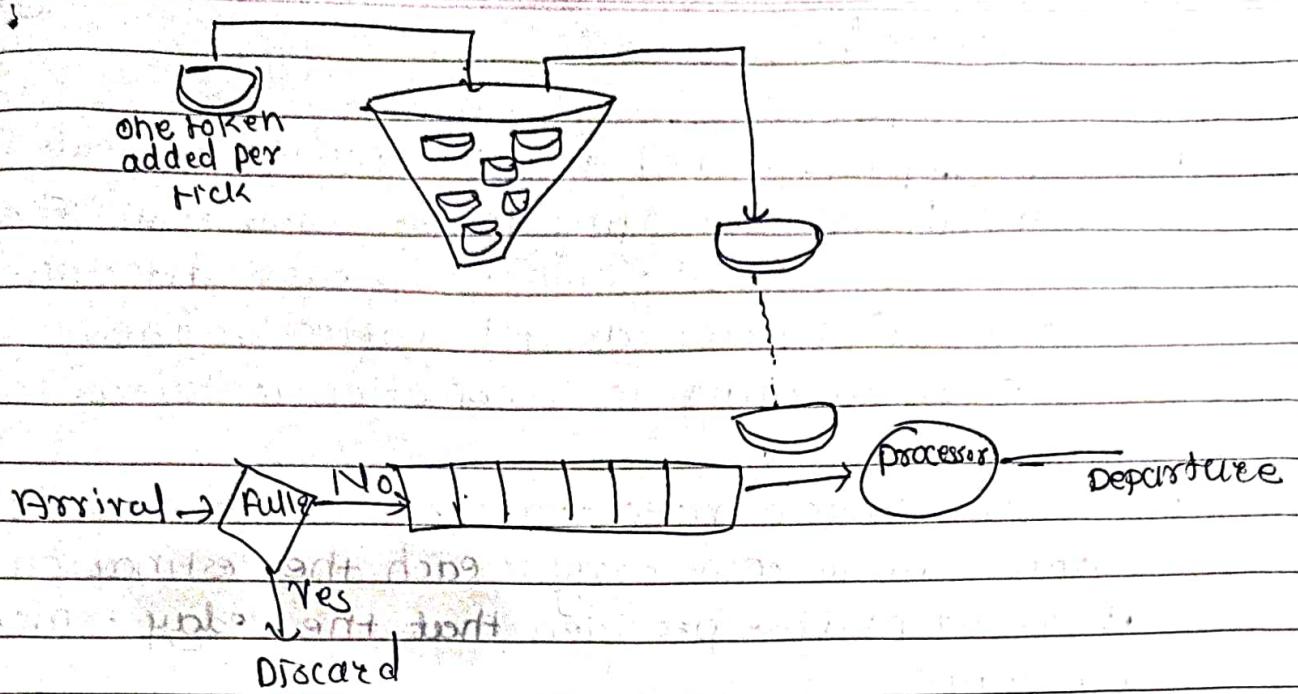
- To overcome this problem, a token bucket B algorithm is used. A token bucket algo. allows bursty data transfers.

- A token bucket algorithm is modification of leaky bucket in which leaky bucket contains tokens.

- In this algo. tokens are generated at every clock tick, for packet to be transmitted. System must remove tokens from the bucket.

- Thus token bucket algo. allows idle host to accumulate credit in form of tokens.

e.g. → if system generates 100 tokens in one clock tick & host is idle for 100 ticks, the bucket will contain 10,000 tokens.



Exg. Token bucket

Load shedding

- i) Load shedding will use dropping the old packet than new to avoid congestion.
- ii) Dropping packets that are part of the difference is preferable because future packet depends on full frame
- iii) The policy for dropping packets depends on the type of packet, for file transfer, old packet is more important than new packet.
In contrast, for multimedia new packet is more important than old one so the policy for file transfer called wine ($\text{old} > \text{new}$) & that for multimedia is called milk. ($\text{new} > \text{old}$)

Jitter control

- i) Jitter may be defined as the variation in delay for the packet belonging to the same flow. The real time audio & video cannot tolerate jitter on the other hand jitter doesn't matter, if the packets are carrying an information contained in file.
- ii) For the audio & video transmission, if packets take 20 ms to 30ms delay to each the destination it doesn't matter provided that the delay remains constant.
- iii) When packet arrives at a router, the router will check to see whether packet is behind or ahead & by what time.
- iv) This info. is stored in the packet & updated at every hop. If packet is ahead of the schedule then router will hold it for slight longer time & if the packet is behind schedule, then the router will try to send it out as quickly as possible.