Chapter 4

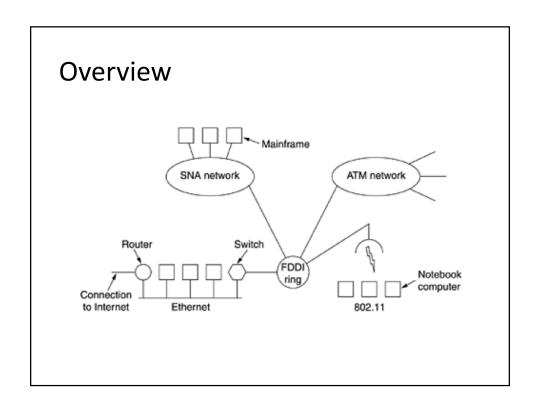
The Network Layer & Internetworking

Content

- Internetworking
- The Network Layer in the Internet
- Network Layer Design Issues
- Routing Algorithms
- Congestion Control Algorithms

Internetworking

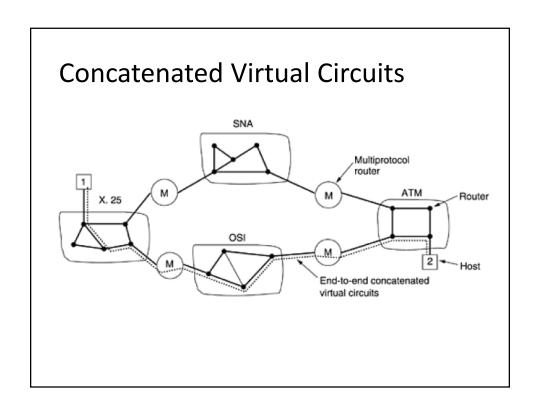
- Overview
- How Networks Differ?
- How Networks Can Be Connected?
- Concatenated Virtual Circuits
- Connectionless Internetworking
- Tunneling
- Internetwork Routing
- Fragmentation

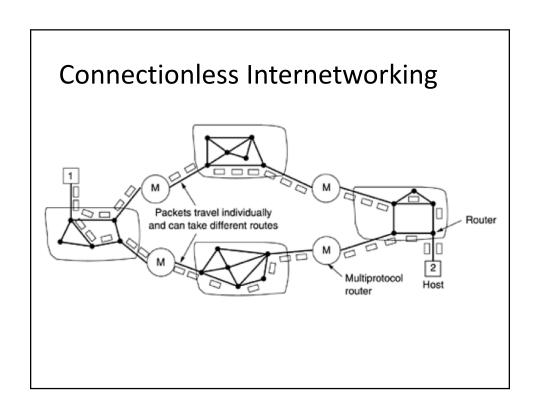


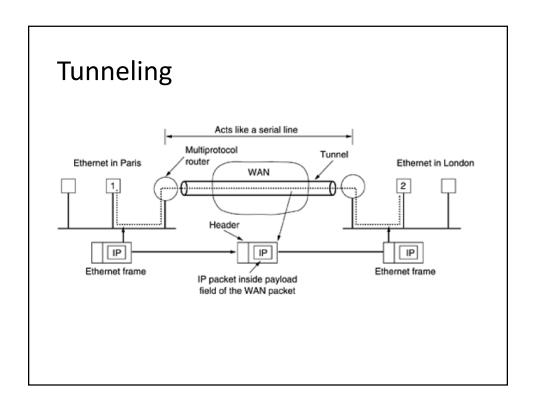
How Networks Differ?

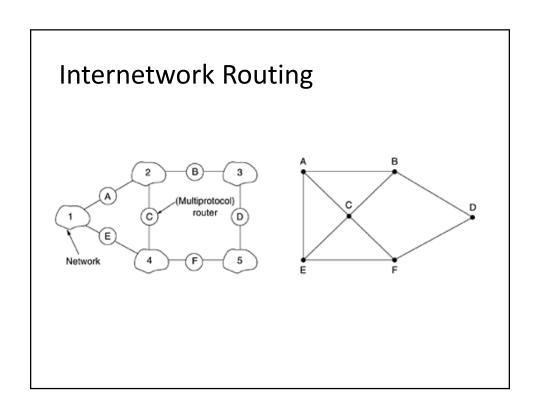
Item	Some Possibilities		
Service offered	Connection oriented versus connectionless		
Protocols	IP, IPX, SNA, ATM, MPLS, AppleTalk, etc.		
Addressing	Flat (802) versus hierarchical (IP)		
Multicasting	Present or absent (also broadcasting)		
Packet size	Every network has its own maximum		
Quality of service	Present or absent; many different kinds		
Error handling	Reliable, ordered, and unordered delivery		
Flow control	Sliding window, rate control, other, or none		
Congestion control	Leaky bucket, token bucket, RED, choke packets, etc.		
Security	Privacy rules, encryption, etc.		
Parameters	Different timeouts, flow specifications, etc.		
Accounting	By connect time, by packet, by byte, or not at all		

How Networks Can Be Connected? Legend Header Packet Trailer Switch LAN 2 Router LAN 2

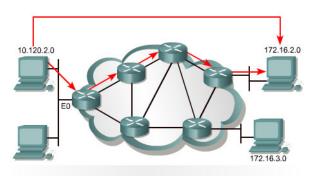








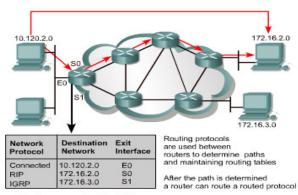
Routed versus Routing



Routed protocol transport data from one end-station to another.

- Routed protocol: used at the network layer that transfer data from one host to another across a router
- Routing protocols: allow routers to choose the best path for data from source to destination
- Examples: Internet Protocol (IP); Novell's Internetwork Packet Exchange (IPX); DECnet, AppleTalk, Banyan VINES, and Xerox Network Systems (XNS).

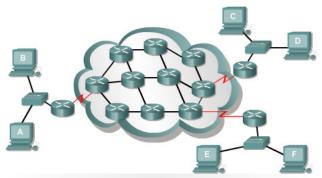
Routing protocol



Routing protocol = RIP, IGRP

- Provides processes for sharing route information
- Allows routers to communicate with other routers to update and maintain the routing tables
- Examples: Routing Information Protocol (RIP), Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (IGRP), Open Shortest Path First (OSPF), Border Gateway Protocol (BGP), and Enhanced IGRP (EIGRP)

Path Determination



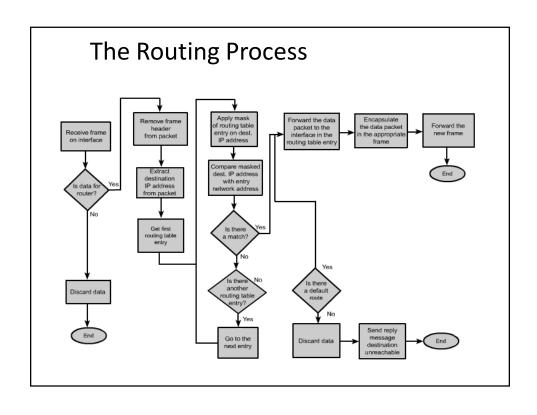
If computer A was sending data to computer F, what path would the data take? That is determined by the information in the routing table.

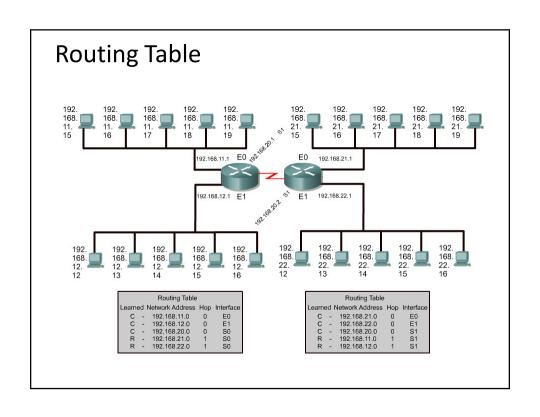
- Path determination enables a router to compare the destination address to the available routes in its routing table, and to select the best path
- · Static or Dynamic routing

Transportation Analogy



Which is the best route from the house to the university? There are many possible choices, but which is the fastest, the safest, the shortest, and the most reliable? The same questions are asked and answered when routing data.





Information in Routing Table

- Protocol type The type of routing protocol that created the routing table entry
- Destination/next-hop associations These associations tell a router that a particular destination is either directly connected to the router, or that it can be reached using another router called the "next-hop" on the way to the final destination
- Routing metric Different routing protocols use different routing metrics.
- Outbound interfaces The interface that the data must be sent out on

Routing Algorithms & Metrics

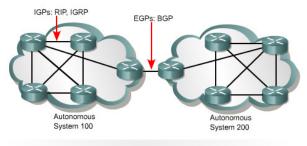
Protocol	Metric	Maximum number of routers	Origins
RIP	Hop count	15	Xerox
IGRP	Bandwidth Load Delay Reliability	255	Cisco

Routing metrics are the values used to determine the best path to the next hop.

- Design goals of Routing Protocols
 - Optimization
 - Simplicity & Low Overhead
 - Robustness & stability
 - Flexibility
 - Rapid Convegence

- Some metrics used by Routing Protocols:
 - Bandwidth
 - Delay
 - Load
 - Reliability
 - Hop count
 - Ticks, cost

IGP and **EGP**



An autonomous system is a collection of networks under a common administrative domain. IGPs operate within an autonomous system. EGPs connect different autonomous system.

- Autonomous system is a network or set of networks under common administrative control.
 An autonomous system consists of routers that present a consistent view of routing to the external world.
- Interior Gateway Protocols (IGP): route data within an autonomous system. Eg: RIP and RIPv2; IGRP; EIGRP; OSPF; IS-IS;
- Exterior Gateway Protocols (EGP): route data between autonomous systems. Eg: BGP

Link state and Distance Vector

- The distance-vector routing approach determines the distance and direction, vector, to any link in the internetwork. Routers using distance-vector algorithms send all or part of their routing table entries to adjacent routers on a periodic basis. This happens even if there are no changes in the network. Eg: RIP, IGRP, EIRP
- Link state routing protocols send periodic update at longer time interval (30'), Flood update only when there is a change in topology. Link state use their database to creat routing table. Eg: OSPF, IS-IS

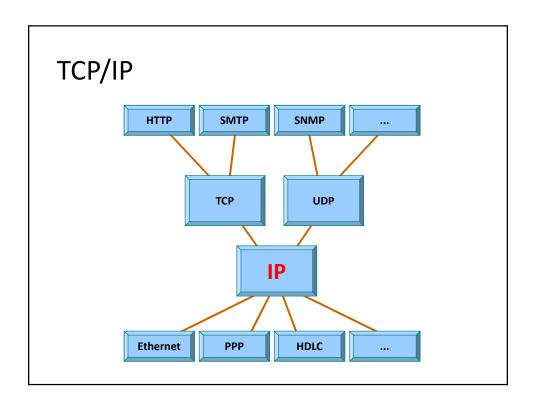
Routing Protocols

- RIP:distance vector; uses hop count as its metric; RIP cannot route a packet beyond 15 hops. RIPv1 requires all devices in the network use the same subnet mask. RIPv2 supports VLSM.
- IGRP:distance-vector; routing protocol developed by Cisco.
 IGRP can select the fastest path based on delay,
 bandwidth, load, and reliability. It also has a much higher maximum hop count limit than RIP.
- OSPF
- IS-IS
- EIGRP
- BGP

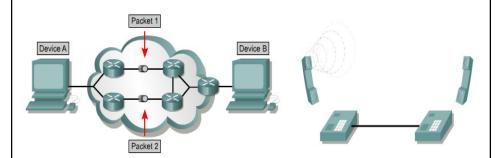
Fragmentation Network 1 Network 2 Packet G_2 G₂ reassembles G₄ reassembles G₁ fragments a large packet G₃ fragments the fragments again again G, BB G_2 The fragments are not reassembled G₁ fragments a large packet until the final destination (a host) is reached Transparent and Non-Transparent Fragmentation

The Network Layer in the Internet

- TCP/IP model
- Internet Protocol (IP)
- Addressing
- IP Address
- Internet Control Protocols
 - o Internet Control Message Protocol
 - o ARP Address Resolution Protocol
 - o RARP, BOOTP, and DHCP
- OSPF Interior Gateway Routing Protocol
- BGP Exterior Gateway Routing Protocol
- · Internet Multicasting
- Mobile IP
- IPv6

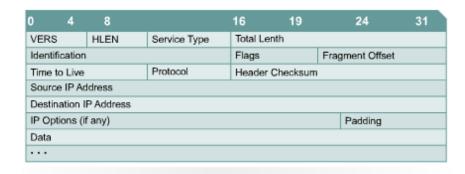


Internet Protocol (IP)

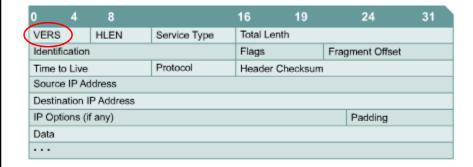


- Connectionless: Different packets may take different paths to get through the network; reassembled at the destination, the destination is not contacted before a packet is sent.
- o **Connection-oriented**: A connection is established between the sender and the recipient before any *data is* transferred.

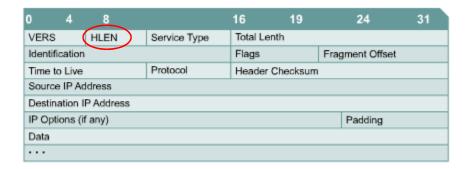
The IPv4 header



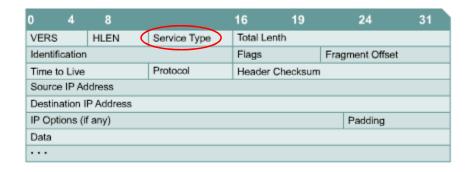
These are the header fields in an IP packet header. All field lengths are fixed except for IP options and the padding fields



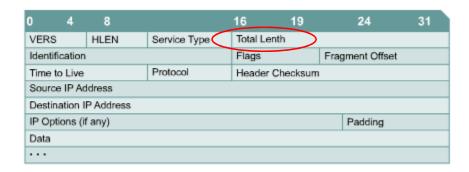
- 4 bits
- · Indicates version of IP used
- IPv4: 0100; IPv6: 0110



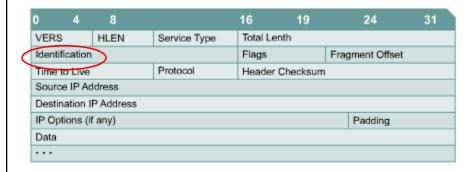
- 4 bits
- Indicates datagram header length in 32 bit words



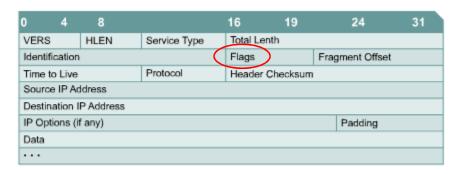
- 8 bits
- Specifies the level of importance that has been assigned by upper-layer protocol



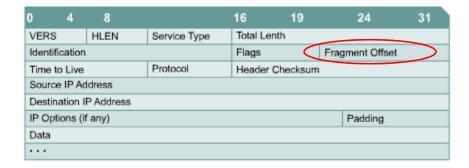
- 16 bits
- Specifies the length of the entire packet in bytes, including data and header



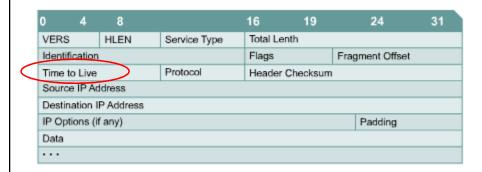
- 16 bits
- Identifies the current datagram



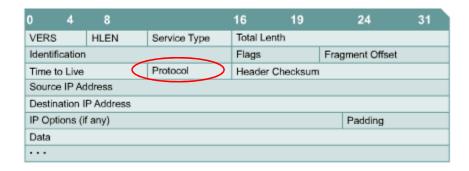
- 3 bits
- The second bit specifies if the packet can be fragmented; the last bit specifying whether the packet is the last fragment in a series of fragmented packets.



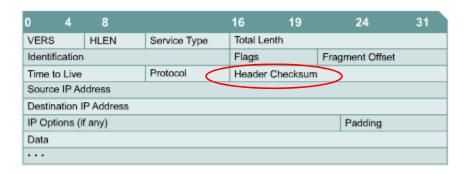
- 13 bits
- Used to help piece together datagram fragments



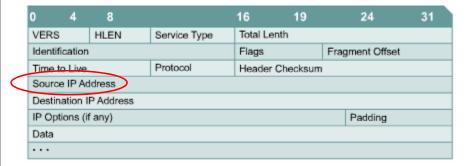
- 8 bits
- Specifies the number of hops a packet may travel. This number is decreased by one as the packet travels through a router



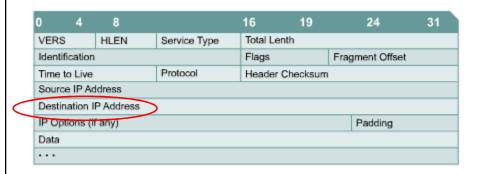
- 8 bits
- Indicates which upper-layer protocol, such as TCP(6) or UDP(17), receives incoming packets after IP processing has been completed



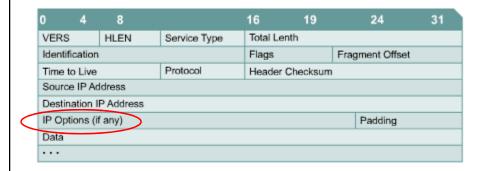
- 16 bits
- Helps ensure IP header integrity
- Not caculated for the encapsulation data



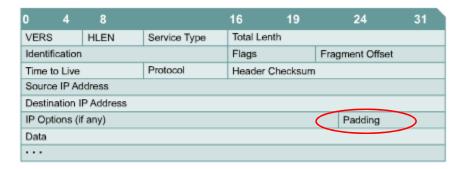
- 32 bits
- Specifies the sending node IP address



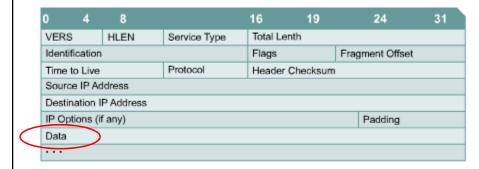
- 32 bits
- Specifies the receiving node IP address



- · Variable length
- · Allows IP to support various options, such as security

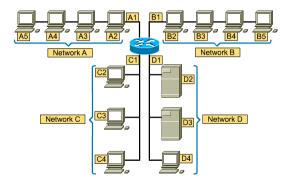


- Variable length
- Extra zeros are added to this field to ensure that the IP header is always a multiple of 32 bits.



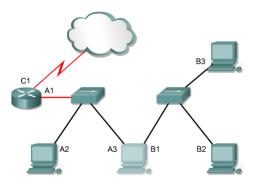
- Variable length up to 64 Kb
- Contains upper-layer information

Addressing



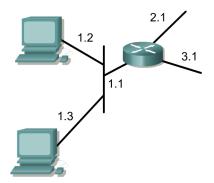
- For any two systems to communicate, they must be able to identify and locate each other. We call it "addressing".
- The **hosts** are "grouped" into **networks**. In the illustration, we use the A or B to identify the network and the number sequence to identify the individual host.
- The combination of letter (**network address**) and the number (**host address**) create a **unique address** for each device on the network.

Addressing

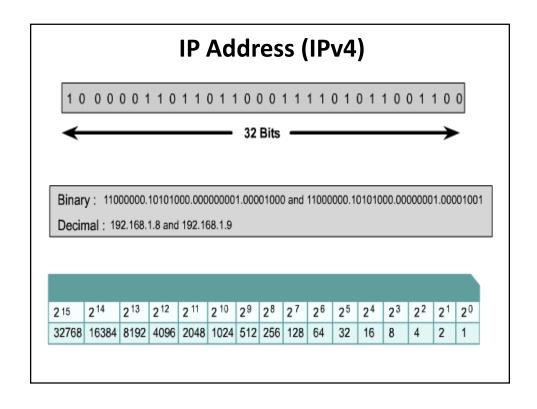


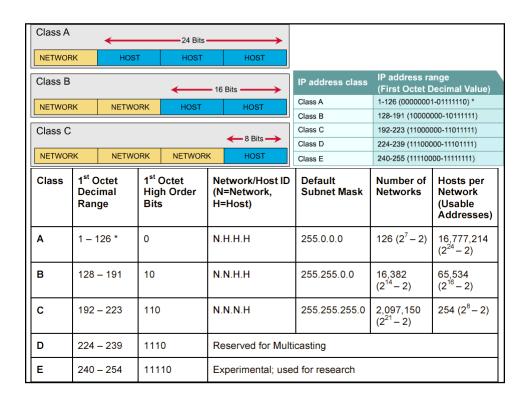
- An address generally represents the connection to the network. A device that have two connection points may need two addresses beloging to two networks.
- Each connection points (espcially in LAN technologies) also has its ID
 (example: MAC address) which is called physical address. There is also the
 need to map between physical addresses (layer 2) and logical addresses (layer
 3).

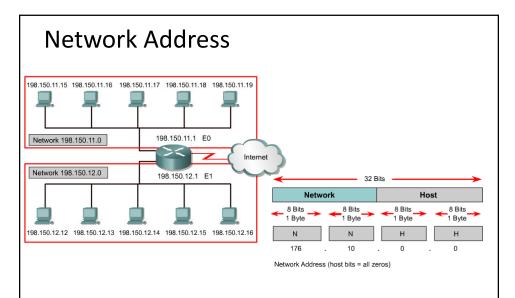
Addressing Rule



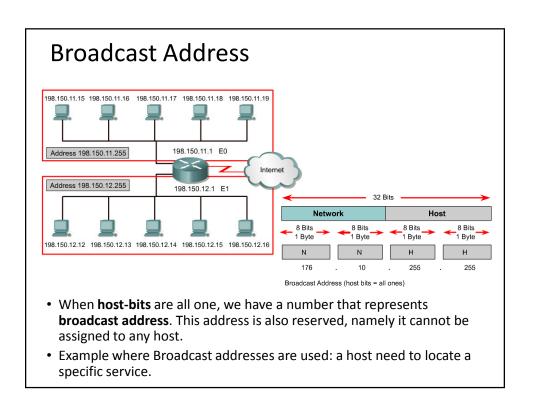
- Every IP address has two parts. One part identifies the network where the system is connected, and a second part identifies that particular system on the network.
- Two different networks must have different network address (**net-id**), and two different hosts in the same network must have different host address (**host-id**). Of cause, hosts in the same network have the same network address.



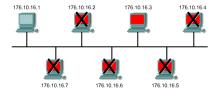




When all **host-bits** are zeros, we have a number that represents **network address**. This address is reserved, namely it cannot be assigned to any host.



Unicast and Broadcast Transmission



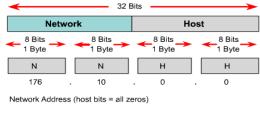


Unicast transmission

Broadcast transmission

The concept of unicast and broadcast transmission exist in both layer 2 and layer 3 protocols. There are refelections in the addressing scheme

Reserved IP Address

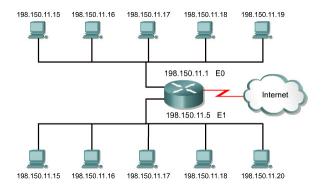


176 . 10 . 255 . 255
Broadcast Address (host bits = all ones)

Certain host addresses are reserved and cannot be assigned to devices on a network. These reserved host addresses include the following:

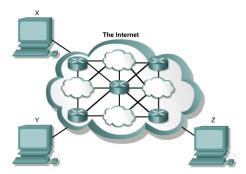
- Host-bits = all zeros (network address);
- Host-bits = all ones (broadcast address);
- Network-bits = all ones;
- Network-bits = all zeros;
- -127.x.x.x (loopback address = 127.0.0.1).

Required Unique Address



- The stability of the Internet depends directly on the uniqueness of publicly used network addresses.
- In the figure, there is an "IP conflict" issue.
- A procedure was needed to make sure that addresses were in fact unique. Originally, an
 organization known as the Internet Network Information Center (InterNIC) handled this
 procedure. InterNIC no longer exists and has been succeeded by the Internet Assigned
 Numbers Authority (IANA).

Public IP Addresses



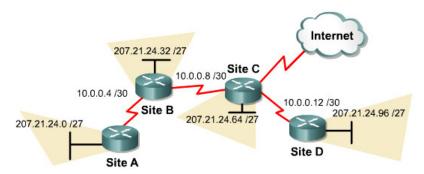
- **Public IP addresses** are unique. No two machines that connect to a public network can have the same IP address.
- Public IP addresses must be obtained from an Internet service provider (ISP) or a registry at some expense.
- With the rapid growth of the Internet, public IP addresses were beginning to run out (IP address depletion).
- New addressing schemes, such as classless interdomain routing (CIDR) and IPv6 were
 developed to help solve the problem. Private IP addresses are another solution.

Private IP Addresses

Class	RFC 1918 internal address range
Α	10.0.0.0 to 10.255.255.255
В	172.16.0.0 to 172.31.255.255
С	192.168.0.0 to 192.168.255.255

- RFC 1918 sets aside three blocks of IP addresses for **private**, internal use. These three blocks consist of one Class A, a range of Class B addresses, and a range of Class C addresses.
- Addresses that fall within these ranges are **not** routed on the Internet backbone. Internet routers immediately discard private addresses.

Using Private Addresses



- When addressing a nonpublic intranet, a test lab, or a home network, we normally use private addresses instead of globally unique addresses.
- Private addresses can be used to address point-to-point serial links without wasting real IP addresses.
- Connecting a network using private addresses to the Internet requires translation of the private addresses to public addresses. This translation process is referred to as Network Address Translation (NAT).

Introduction to Subnetting

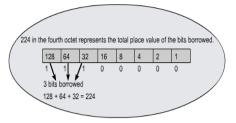
Reason for Subnetting

Decimal notation for first Host octet	Number of Subnets	Number of Class A Hosts per Subnet	Number of Class B Hosts per Subnet	Number of Class C Hosts per Subnet
.192	2	4,194,302	16,382	62
.224	6	2,097,150	8,190	30
.240	14	1,048,574	4,094	14
.248	30	524,286	2,046	6
.252	62	262,142	1,022	2
.254	126	131,070	510	-
.255	254	65,534	254	-

- Subnetting is another method of managing IP addresses. This method of dividing full network address classes into smaller pieces has prevented complete IP address exhaustion.
- The network is no longer limited to the **default Class A, B, or C** network masks and there is more flexibility in the network design.
- · Analogy: telephone.
- Subnet addresses include the network portion, plus a subnet field and a host field
- To create a subnet address, a network administrator borrows bits from the host field and designates them as the subnet field.

Establishing SM address

Slash format	/25	/26	/27	/28	/29	/30	N/A	N/A
Mask	128	192	224	240	248	252	254	255
Bits borrowed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Value	128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1
Total Subnets		4	8	16	32	64		
Usable Subnets		2	6	14	30	62		
Total Hosts		64	32	16	8	4		
Usable Hosts		62	30	14	6	2		



The number of bits in the subnet will depend on the maximum number of hosts required per subnet.

The subnet mask: using binary ones in the host octet(s)

(2 power of borrowed bits) – 2 = usable subnets (2 power of remaining host bits) –2= usable hosts

Applying the Subnet Mask

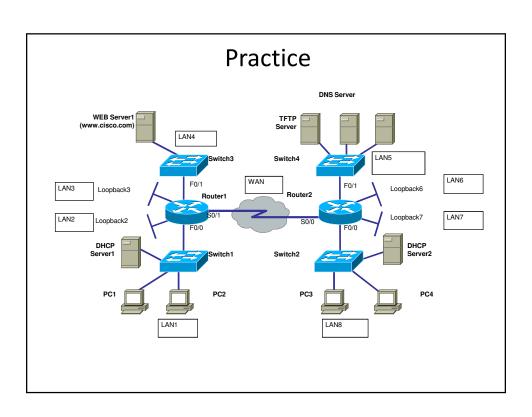
Subnetwork #	Subnetwork ID	Host Range	Broadcast ID
0	192.168.10.0	.130	192.168.10.31
1	192.168.10.32	.3362	192.168.10.63
2	192.168.10.64	.6594	192.168.10.95
3	192.168.10.96	.97126	192.168.10.127
4	192.168.10.128	.129158	192.168.10.159
5	192.168.10.160	.161190	192.168.10.191
6	192.168.10.192	.193222	192.168.10.223
7	192.168.10.224	.225254	192.168.10.255

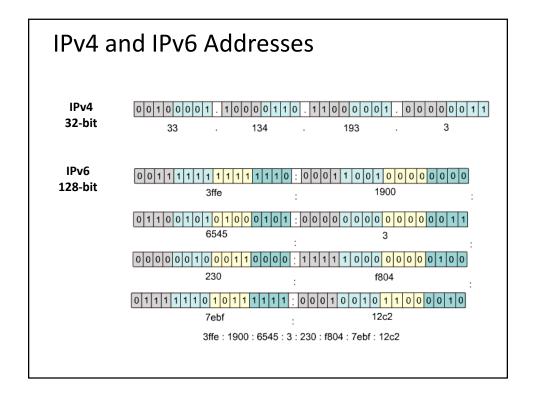
The Logical ANDing process

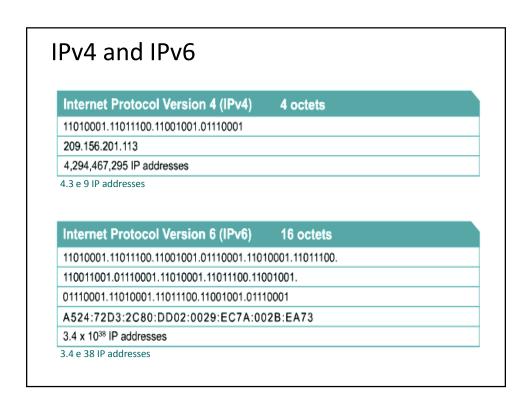
0	AND	0	=	0
0	AND	1	=	0
1	AND	0	=	0
1	AND	1	=	1

Packet address	201.10.11.65	11001001.00001010.00001011.01000001
AND		
Mask	255.255.255.224	11111111.11111111.11111111.11100000
Subnetwork ID	201.10.11.64	11001001.00001010.00001011.01000000

- ANDing is a binary process by which the router calculates the subnetwork ID for an incoming packet
- ANDding process is handled at the binary level
- (IP address) AND (subnetmask address) = subnetwork ID (router uses that information to forward the packet across the correct interface)







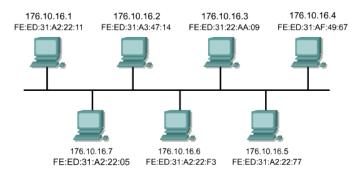
Internet Control Protocols

- ICMP Internet Control Message Protocol
- ARP Address Resolution Protocol
- RARP, BOOTP, and DHCP

ICMP - Internet Control Message Protocol

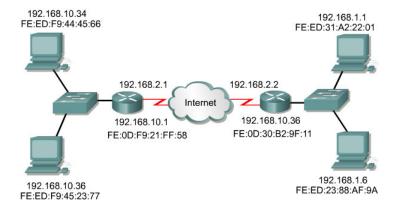
Message type	Description
Destination unreachable	Packet could not be delivered
Time exceeded	Time to live field hit 0
Parameter problem	Invalid header field
Source quench	Choke packet
Redirect	Teach a router about geography
Echo	Ask a machine if it is alive
Echo reply	Yes, I am alive
Timestamp request	Same as Echo request, but with timestamp
Timestamp reply	Same as Echo reply, but with timestamp

ARP



The issue of address mapping between level-2 and level-3 addresses are quite relevent. In TCP/IP communication, a host needs to know both IP address and MAC address of the destination host in order to send packet to it. So there comes Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) which helps hosts in the same LAN segments to find each other MAC addresses.

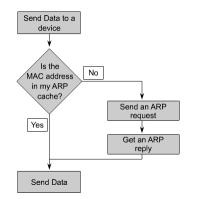
Proxy ARP



Communications among LAN segments have an additional task. TCP/IP has a variation on ARP called Proxy ARP that will provide the MAC address of an intermediate device (example *router*) for transmission outside the LAN to another network segment.

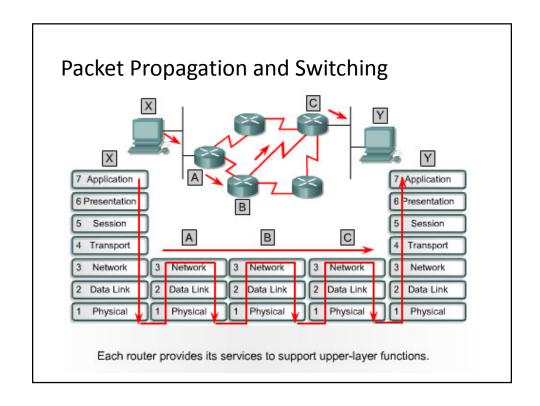
ARP

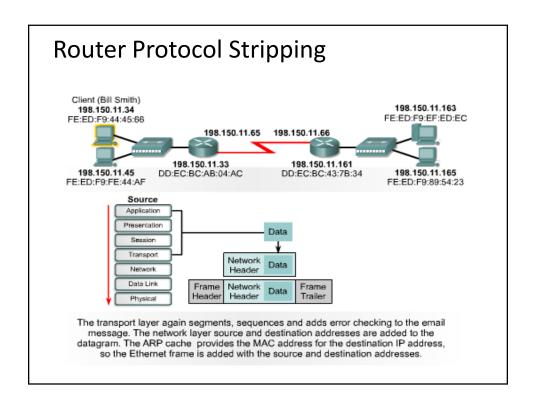
- Some devices keep the IP-MAC mapping in a so-called ARP table which is stored in RAM
- Example: arp -a, arp -d *.
- When a devices needs to send data to a host --whose IP is known but MAC is unknown-- it send an ARP request as a broadcast frame. Then the destination reply with ARP reply.
- Another way to build ARP table is to monitor the traffic.
- Router generally do not forward such the broadcast. If this feature is turned on, a router performs a Proxy ARP.
- However, in reality, we apply the default gateway feature. When the destination host is of the different network, then the IP packet is sent to the default gateway (MAC) while IP address is set to the final destination.
- If there is neither default gateway nor Proxy ARP, no traffic can leave the local network.

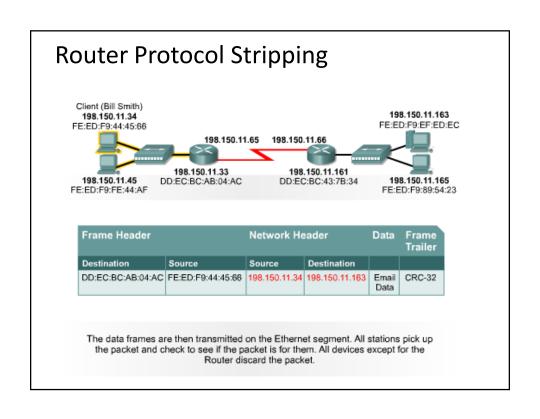


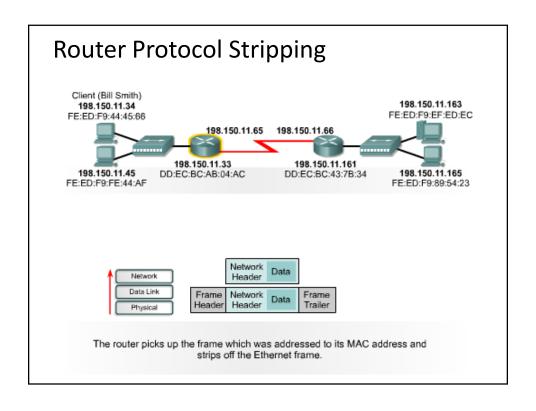
Please remember that both ARP and RARP use the same message structure.

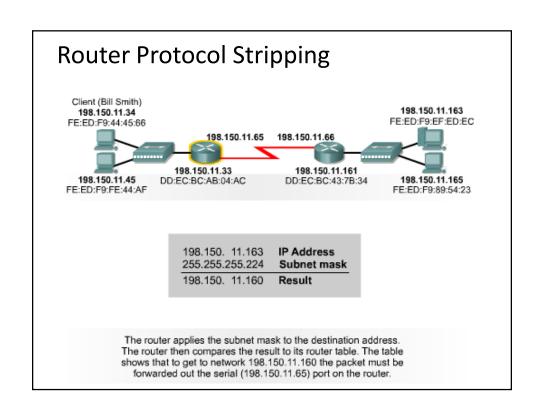
Arp Table 198.150.11.36	
MAC	IP
FE:ED:F9:44:45:66	198.150.11.34
DD:EC:BC:00:04:AC	198.150.11.33
DD:EC:BC:00:94:D4	198.150.11.35
FE:ED:F9:23:44:EF	198.150.11.36

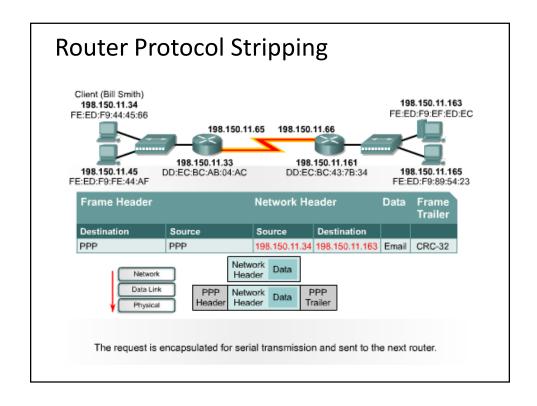


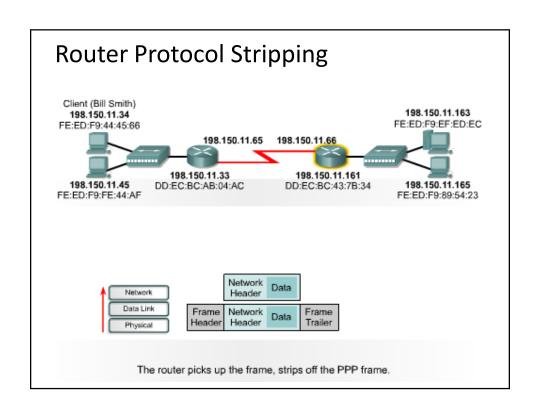


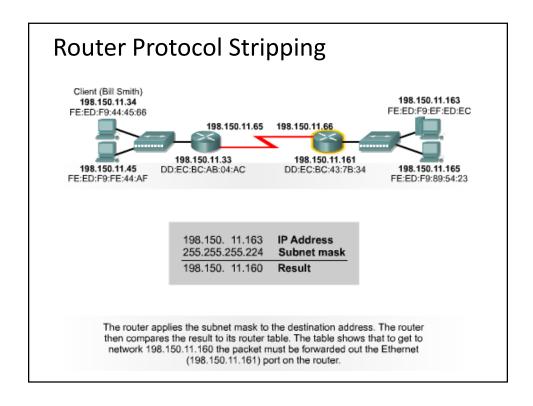


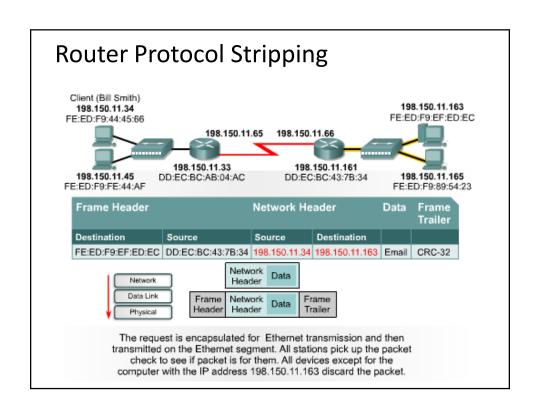


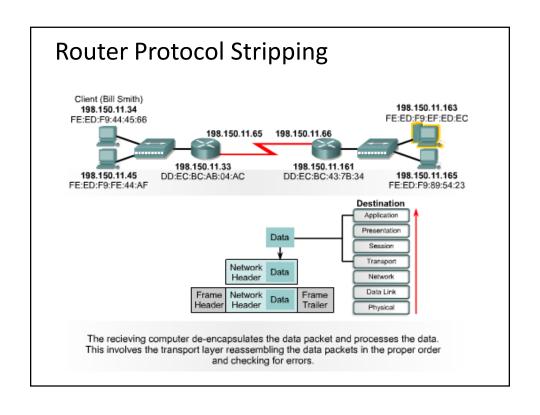


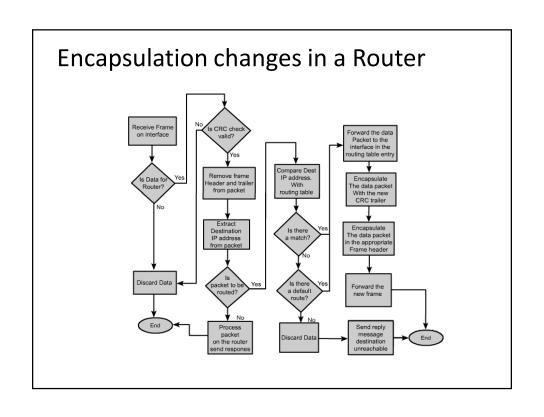


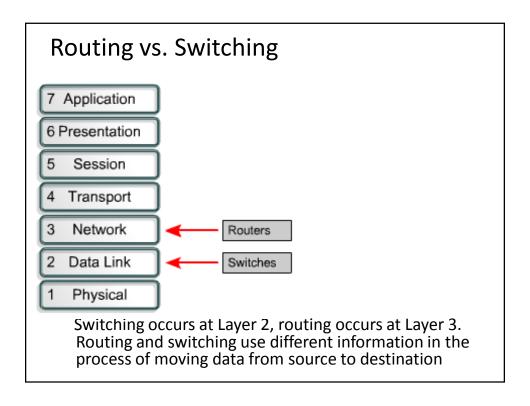


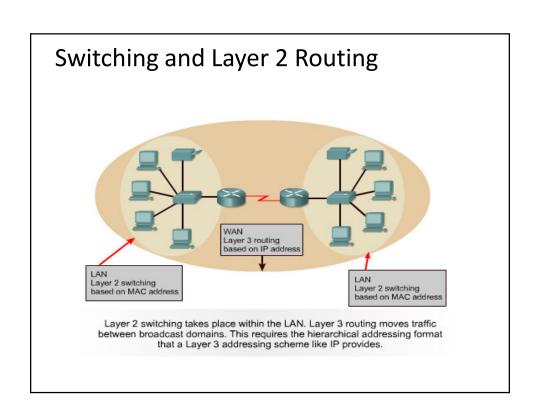


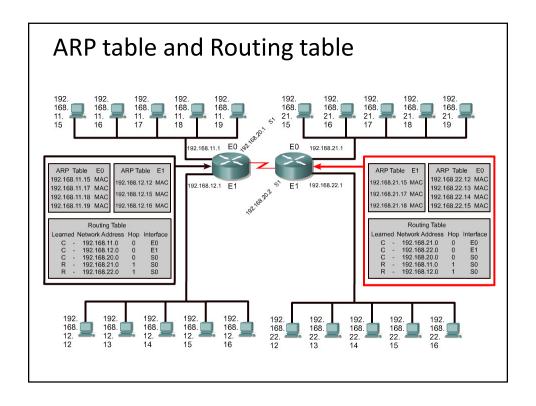










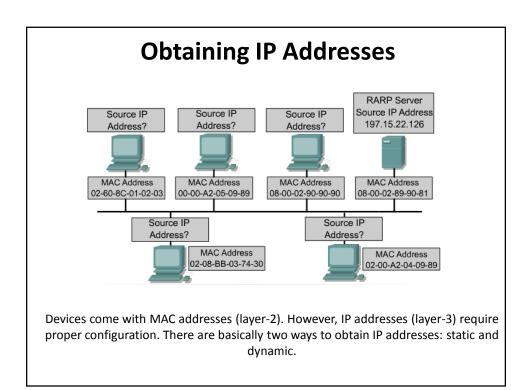


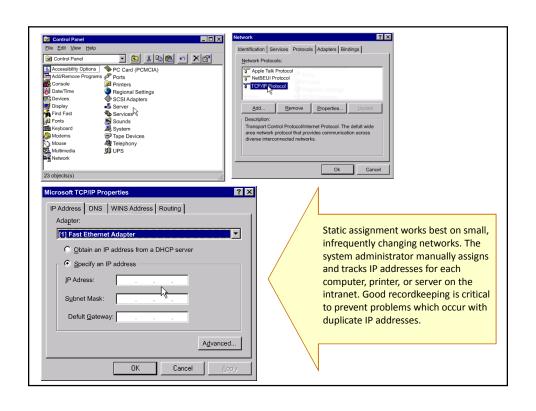
Router and Switch

Features	Router	Switch
Speed	Slower	Faster
OSI Layer	Layer 3	Layer 2
Addressing used	IP	MAC
Broadcasts	Blocks	Forwards
Security	Higher	Lower

The speed and security are relative comparisons, and depend on the configurations of the device.

- Each computer and router interface maintains an ARP table for Layer 2 communication. The ARP table is only effective for the broadcast domain (or LAN) that it is connected to
- MAC addresses are not logically organized, but IP addresses are organized in a hierarchical manner



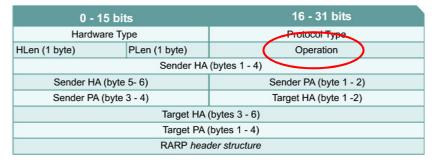


RARP

0 - 15 bits		16 - 31 bits		
Hardware Type		Protocol Type		
HLen (1 byte)	PLen (1 byte)	Operation		
Sender HA (bytes 1 - 4)				
Sender HA (byte 5- 6)		Sender PA (byte 1 - 2)		
Sender PA (byte 3 - 4)		Target HA (byte 1 -2)		
Target HA (bytes 3 - 6)				
Target PA (bytes 1 - 4)				
RARP header structure				

Reverse Address Resolution Protocol (RARP) associates a known MAC addresses with an IP addresses. This association allows network devices to encapsulate data before sending the data out on the network. A network device, such as a diskless workstation, might know its MAC address but not its IP address. RARP allows the device to make a request to learn its IP address.

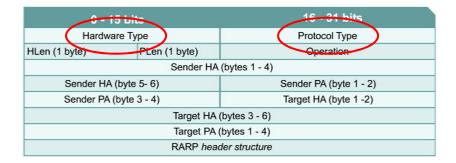




ARP and RARP share the same packet format, which is encapsulated on layer-2 frames. They differentiate themselves by the "operation" field.

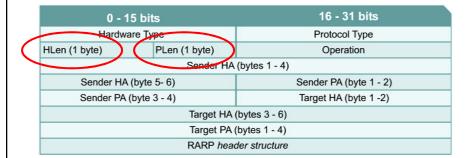
Operation: 5: Dynamic RARP request
1: ARP request 6: Dynamic RARP response
2: ARP response 7: Dynamic RARP error
3: RARP request 8: InARP request
4: RARP response 9: InARP response

RARP



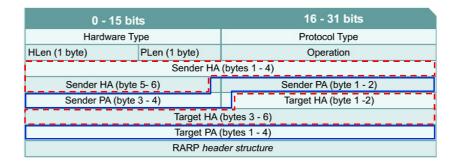
- Hardware Type specifies a hardware interface type for which the sender requires a response (ie. ~layer 2).
- Protocol Type specifies the type of high level protocol address the sender has supplied (ie. ~layer 3).

RARP

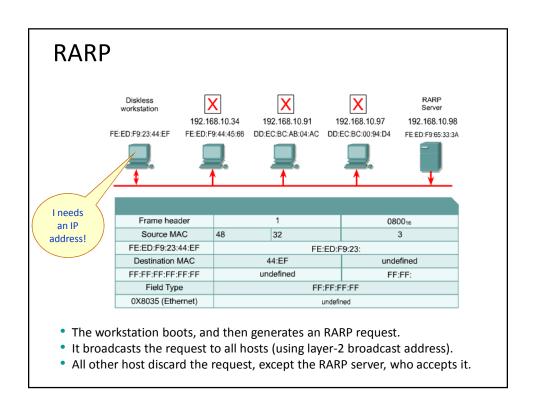


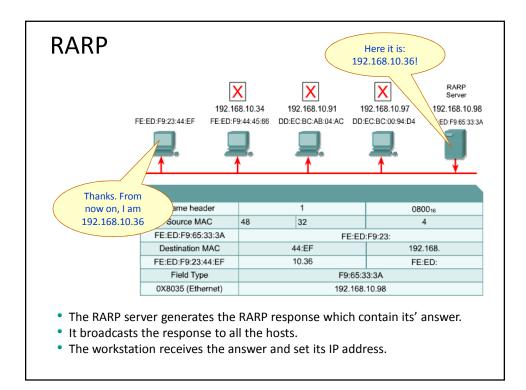
- HLen: Hardware address length.
- PLen: Protocol address length.

RARP



- Sender Hardware Address: Hardware address of the sender.
- Sender Protocol Address: Protocol address of the sender.
- Target Hardware Address: Hardware address of the targer.
- Target Protocol Address: Protocol address of the target.



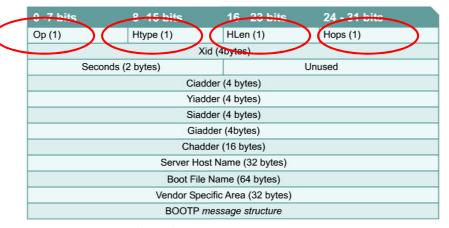


BOOTP

0 -7 bits	8 -15 bits	16 - 23 bits	24 - 31 bits	
Op (1)	Htype (1)	HLen (1)	Hops (1)	
Xid (4bytes)				
Seconds (2 bytes)		Unused		
Ciadder (4 bytes)				
Yiadder (4 bytes)				
Siadder (4 bytes)				
Giadder (4bytes)				
Chadder (16 bytes)				
Server Host Name (32 bytes)				
Boot File Name (64 bytes)				
Vendor Specific Area (32 bytes)				
BOOTP message structure				

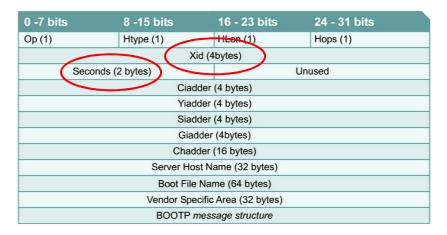
The bootstrap protocol (BOOTP) operates in a client-server environment and only requires a single packet exchange to obtain IP information. However, unlike RARP, BOOTP packets can include the IP address, as well as the address of a router, the address of a server, and vendor-specific information, etc. BOOTP is encapsulated on UDP datagram.

BOOTP



- Op: Message operation code; can be BOOTREQUEST or BOOTREPLY.
- Htype: Hardware address type.
- HLen: Hardware address length.
- Hops: Clients place zero, this field is used by BOOTP server to send request to another network.

BOOTP



- Xid: Transaction ID
- Seconds: Seconds elapsed since the client began the address acquisition or renewal process.

BOOTP

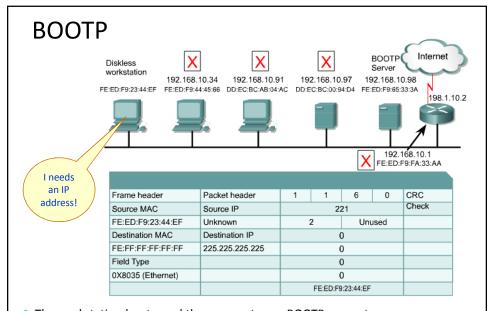
0 -7 bits	8 -15 bits	16 - 23 bits	24 - 31 bits		
Op (1)	Htype (1)	HLen (1)	Hops (1)		
	Xid (4bytes)				
Seconds (2 bytes)	Unused			
Ciadder (4 bytes)					
Yiadder (4 bytes)					
Siadder (4 bytes)					
Giadder (4bytes)					
Chadder (16 bytes)					
Server Host Name (32 bytes)					
Boot File Name (64 bytes)					
Vendor Specific Area (32 bytes)					
BOOTP message structure					

- Ciadder: Client IP address.
- Yiadder: "Your" (client) IP address.
- Siadder: IP address of the next server to use in bootstrap.
- Giadder: Relay agent IP address used in booting via a relay agent.
- Chadder: Client hardware address.

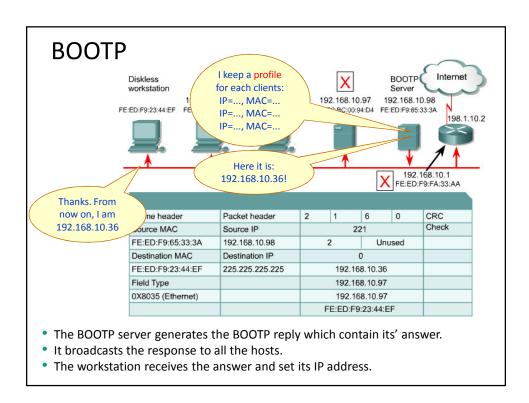
BOOTP

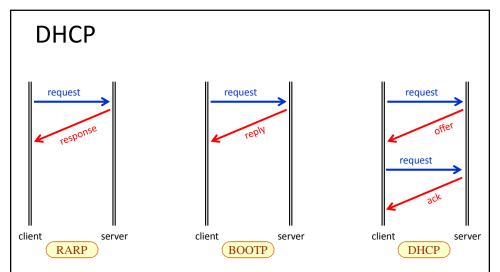
0 -7 bits	8 -15 bits	16 - 23 bits	24 - 31 bits		
Op (1)	Htype (1)	HLen (1)	Hops (1)		
	Xid (4bytes)				
Seconds	(2 bytes)	Unused			
Ciadder (4 bytes)					
	Yiadder (4 bytes)				
Siadder (4 bytes)					
Giadder (4bytes)					
Chadder (16 bytes)					
Server Host Name (32 bytes)					
Boot File Name (64 bytes)					
Vendor Specific Area (32 bytes)					
ROOTP message structure					

- Server Host Name: Specifies particular server to get BOOTP information from.
- Boot File Name: Alow multiple boot files (example: for different OSes).
- Vendor Specific Area: Optional vendor information that can be passed to the host.



- The workstation boots, and then generates an BOOTP request.
- It broadcasts the request to all hosts (IP source address = unknown).
- All other host discard the request, except the BOOTP server, who accepts it.





Dynamic host configuration protocol (DHCP) is the successor to BOOTP. Unlike BOOTP, DHCP allows a host to obtain an IP address dynamically without individual profile that the network administrator having to set up for each device. All that is required when using DHCP is a defined range of IP addresses on a DHCP server. The major advantage that DHCP has over BOOTP is that it allows users to be mobile. DHCP offers a one to many ratio of IP addresses and that an address is available to anyone who connects to the network.

DHCP 0 -7 bits 8 -15 bits 16 - 23 bits 24 - 31 bits Op (1) Htype (1) HLen (1) Hops (1) Xid (4bytes) Seconds (2 bytes) Flags(2 bytes) Ciaddr (4 bytes) Yiaddr (4 bytes) Siaddr (4 bytes) Giaddr (4bytes) Chaddr (16 bytes) Server Host Name (32 bytes) Boot File Name (64 bytes) Vendor Specific Area (variable) DHCP message structure

DHCP uses the same message structure of BOOTP, with some extentions (subnet masks, etc.) The idea is that the entire network configuration of a computer can be obtained in one message.

