Computer Networks

Lecture 7: Network Layer – Part II

Network Layer

Application Presentation Session Transport Network Data Link **Physical**

Function:

- Route packets end-to-end on a network, through multiple hops
- Key challenge:
 - How to represent addresses
 - How to route packets
 - Scalability
 - Convergence

Outline

- Addressing
 - Class-based
 - CIDR
- IPv4 Protocol Details
 - Packed Header
 - Fragmentation
- □ IPv6

IP Datagrams

- IP Datagrams are like a letter
 - Totally self-contained

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- Include all necessary addressing information
- No advanced setup of connections or circuits

<u>U</u>	4	8 12	16 1	9 24	
Versi	on HLer	DSCP/ECN		atagram L	ength
Identifier		Flags	Off	set	
	TTL	Protocol		Checksu	ım
Source IP Address					
Destination IP Address					
	Options (if any, usually not)				
	Data				

IP Header Fields: Word 1

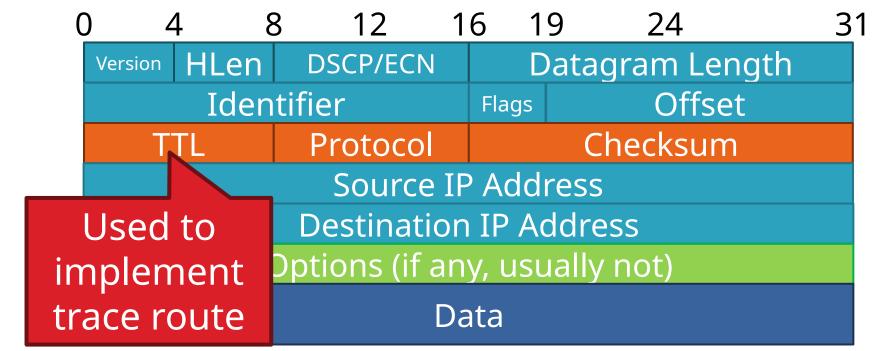
- Version: 4 for IPv4
- Header Length: Number of 32-bit words (usually 5)
- Type of Service: Priority information (unused)
- Datagram Length: Length of header + data in bytes

```
16
                             Datagram Length
Version
     HLen
              DSCP/ECN
                                        ffset
       Identifier
                          Flags
              Protocol
                               Limits
                Source IP
                            packets to
              Destination
                           65,535 bytes
           Options (if an
                       Data
```

IP Header Fields: Word 3

6

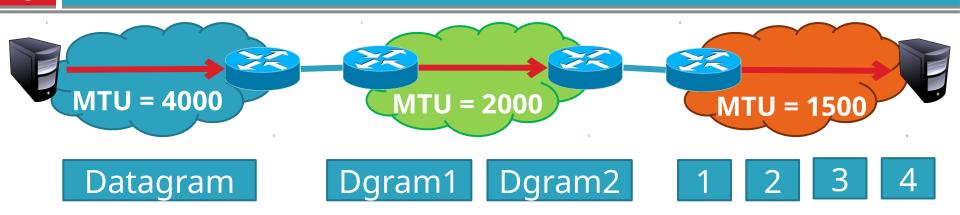
- Time to Live: decremented by each router
 - Used to kill looping packets
- Protocol: ID of encapsulated protocol
 - 6 = TCP, 17 = UDP
- Checksum



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- Source and destination address
 - In theory, must be globally unique
 - In practice, this is often violated

) 4 8	3 12	<u> 16 1</u>	9 24	<u> 3</u> 1
Version HLen	DSCP/ECN		atagram Length	
Identifier		Flags	Offset	
TTL	Protocol		Checksum	
Source IP Address				
Destination IP Address				
Options (if any, usually not)				
Data				



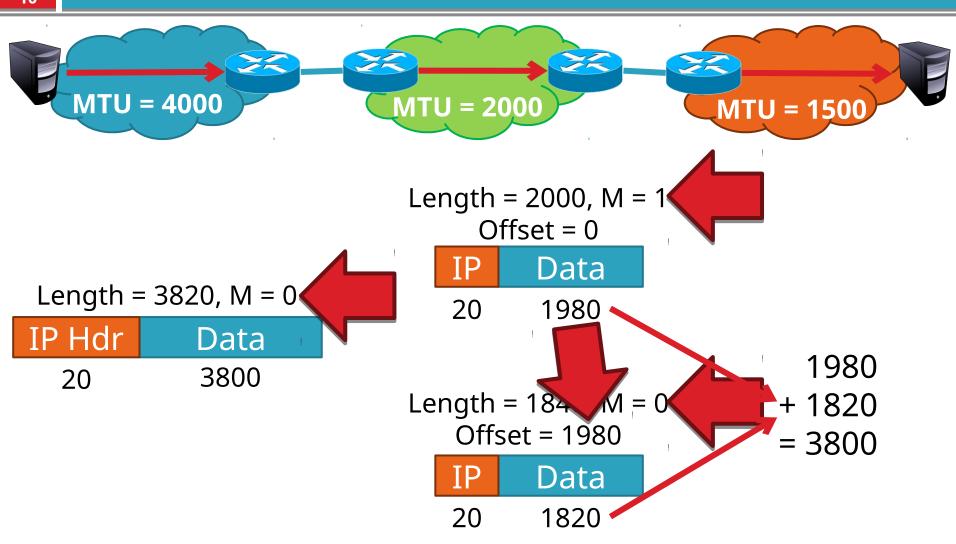
- Problem: each network has its own MTU
 - DARPA principles: networks allowed to be heterogeneous
 - Minimum MTU may not be known for a given path
- IP Solution: fragmentation
 - Split datagrams into pieces when MTU is reduced
 - Reassemble original datagram at the receiver

IP Header Fields: Word 2

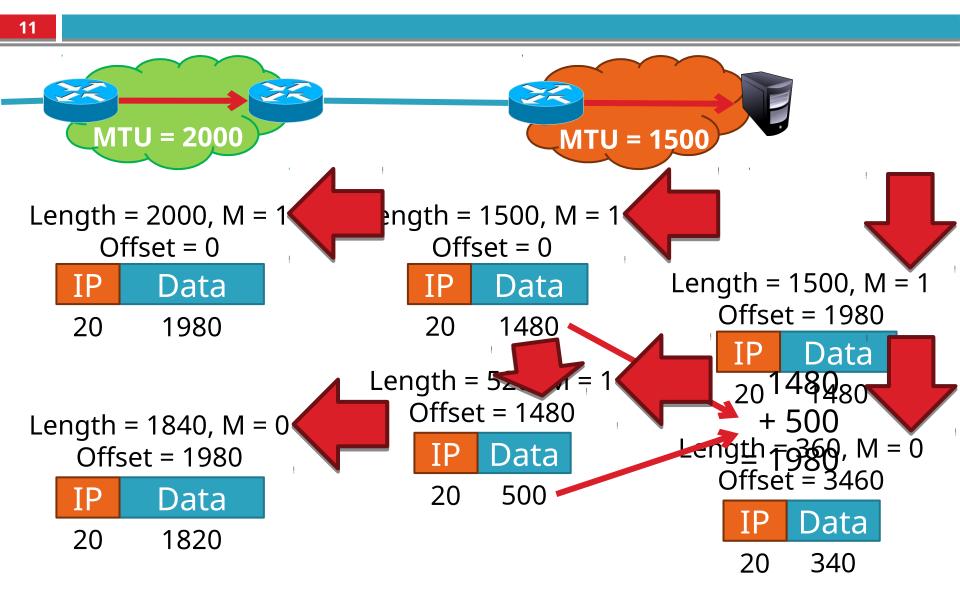
- Identifier: a unique number for the original datagram
- Flags: M flag, i.e. this is the last fragment
- Offset: byte position of the first byte in the fragment
 - Divided by 8

0	4	8 12	16 1	9 24	<u> </u>
Vers	sion HLen	TOS		atagram Lengt	th
	Identifier		Flags	Offset	
	TTL	Protocol		Checksum	
Source IP Address					
Destination IP Address					
	Options (if any, usually not)				
	Data				





Fragmentation Example



IP Fragment Reassembly

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Length = 1500, M = 1, Offset = 0

IP Data

20 1480

Length = 520, M = 1, Offset = 1480

IP Data

20 500

Length = 1500, M = 1, Offset = 1980

- IP Data
- 20 1480

Length = 360, M = 0, Offset = 3460

- IP Data
- 20 340

- Performed at destination
- M = 0 fragment gives us total data size
 - \bullet 360 20 + 3460 = 3800
- Challenges:
 - Out-of-order fragments
 - Duplicate fragments
 - Missing fragments
- Basically, memory management

Fragmentation Concepts

- Highlights many key Internet characteristics
 - Decentralized and heterogeneous
 - Each network may choose its own MTU
 - Connectionless datagram protocol
 - Each fragment contains full routing information
 - Fragments can travel independently, on different paths
 - Best effort network
 - Routers/receiver may silently drop fragments
 - No requirement to alert the sender
 - Most work is done at the endpoints
 - i.e. reassembly

Fragmentation in Reality

- Fragmentation is expensive
 - Memory and CPU overhead for datagram reconstruction
 - Want to avoid fragmentation if possible
- MTU discovery protocol
 - Send a packet with "don't fragment" bit set
 - Keep decreasing message length until one arrives
 - May get "can't fragment" error from a router, which will explicitly state the supported MTU
- Router handling of fragments
 - Fast, specialized hardware handles the common case
 - Dedicated, general purpose CPU just for handling fragments

Outline

- Addressing
 - Class-based
 - CIDR
- IPv4 Protocol Details
 - Packed Header
 - Fragmentation
- IPv6

The IPv4 Address Space Crisis

- Problem: the IPv4 address space is too small
 - $2^{32} = 4,294,967,296$ possible addresses
 - Less than one IP per person
- Parts of the world have already run out of addresses
 - IANA assigned the last /8 block of addresses in 2011

Region	Regional Internet Registry (RIR)	Exhaustion Date
Asia/Pacific	APNIC	April 19, 2011
Europe/Middle East	RIPE	September 14, 2012
North America	ARIN	13 Jan 2015 (Projected)
South America	LACNIC	13 Jan 2015 (Projected)
Africa	AFRINIC	17 Jan 2022(Projected)

- IPv6, first introduced in 1998(!)
 - 128-bit addresses
 - 4.8 * 10²⁸ addresses per person
- Address format
 - 8 groups of 16-bit values, separated by ':'
 - Leading zeroes in each group may be omitted
 - Groups of zeroes can be omitted using '::'

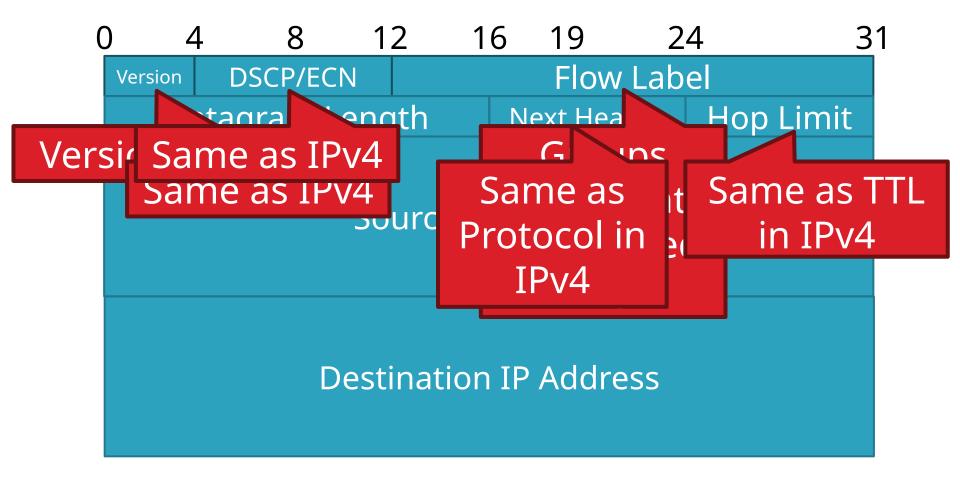
2001:0db8:0000:0000:0000:ff00:0042:8329

2001:0db8:0:0:0:ff00:42:8329

2001:0db8::ff00:42:8329

- Who knows the IP for localhost?
 - 127.0.0.1
- What is localhost in IPv6?
 - ::1

Double the size of IPv4 (320 bits vs. 160 bits)



Differences from IPv4 Header

- Several header fields are missing in IPv6
 - Header length rolled into Next Header field
 - Checksum was useless, so why keep it
 - Identifier, Flags, Offset
 - IPv6 routers do not support fragmentation
 - Hosts are expected to use path MTU discovery
- Reflects changing Internet priorities
 - Today's networks are more homogeneous
 - Instead, routing cost and complexity dominate

Performance Improvements

- No checksums to verify
- No need for routers to handle fragmentation
- Simplified routing table design
 - Address space is huge
 - No need for CIDR (but need for aggregation)
 - Standard subnet size is 2⁶⁴ addresses
- Simplified auto-configuration
 - Neighbor Discovery Protocol
 - Used by hosts to determine network ID
 - Host ID can be random!

Additional IPv6 Features

- Source Routing
 - Host specifies the route to wants packet to take
- Mobile IP
 - Hosts can take their IP with them to other networks
 - Use source routing to direct packets
- Privacy Extensions
 - Randomly generate host identifiers
 - Make it difficult to associate one IP to a host
- Jumbograms
 - Support for 4Gb datagrams

Deployment Challenges

HTTP, FTP, SMTP, RTP, IMAP, ...

TCP, UDP, ICMP

IPv4

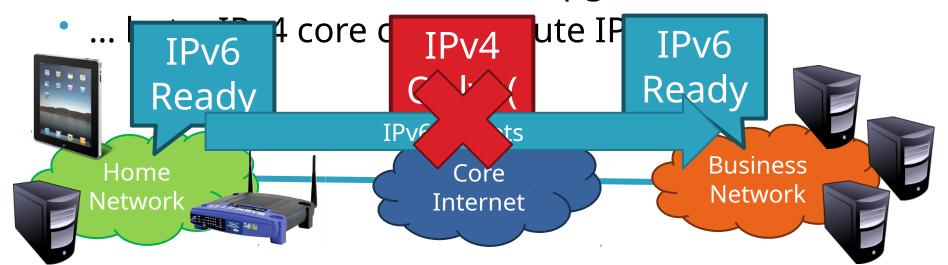
Ethernet, 802.11x, DOCSIS, ...

Fiber, Coax, Twisted Pair, Radio, ...

- Switching to IPv6 is a whole-Internet upgrade
 - All routers, all hosts
 - ICMPv6, DHCPv6, DNSv6
- 2013: 0.94% of Google traffic was IPv6, 2.5% today

Transitioning to IPv6

- How do we ease the transition from IPv4 to IPv6?
 - Today, most network edges are IPv6 ready
 - Windows/OSX/iOS/Android all support IPv6
 - Your wireless access point probably supports IPv6
 - The Internet core is hard to upgrade



Transition Technologies

- How do you route IPv6 packets over an IPv4 Internet?
- Transition Technologies
 - Use tunnels to encapsulate and route IPv6 packets over the IPv4 Internet
 - Several different implementations
 - **6**to4
 - IPv6 Rapid Deployment (6rd)
 - Teredo
 - ... etc.

Network Layer, Control Plane

Data Plane

Application

Presentation

Session

Transport

Network

Data Link

Physical

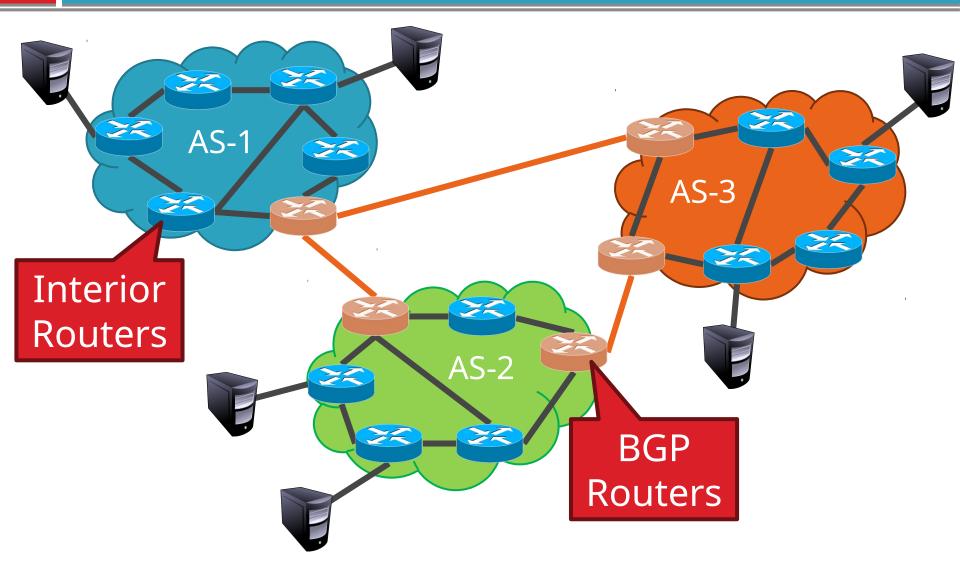
Function:

- Set up routes within a single network
- Key challenges:
 - Distributing and updating routes
 - Convergence time
 - Avoiding loops

RIP OSPF BGP Control Plane

Internet Routing

- Internet organized as a two level hierarchy
- First level autonomous systems (AS's)
 - AS region of network under a single administrative domain
 - Examples: Comcast, AT&T, Verizon, Sprint, etc.
- AS's use intra-domain routing protocols internally
 - Distance Vector, e.g., Routing Information Protocol (RIP)
 - Link State, e.g., Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)
- Connections between AS's use inter-domain routing protocols
 - Border Gateway Routing (BGP)
 - De facto standard today, BGP-4



Why Do We Need ASs?

- Routing algorithms are not efficient enough to execute on the entire Internet topology
- Diff rou

Allo

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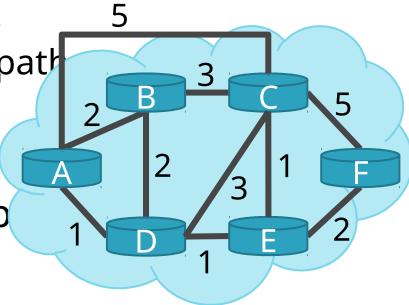
- Easier to compute routes
- Greater flexibility
- More autonomy/independence
- Allows organizations to enouse now to rod across each other (BGP)

Routing on a Graph

- Goal: determine a "good" path through the network from source to destination
- What is a good path?
 - Usually means the shortest path
 - Load balanced
 - Lowest \$\$\$ cost
- Network modeled as a grap

 - Link

 edges
 - Edge cost: delay, congestion level, etc.



Shortest Path Routing

- Bellman-Ford Algorithm [Distance Vector]
- Dijkstra's Algorithm [Link State]

What does it mean to be the shortest (or optimal) route?

- Minimize mean packet delay
- b. Maximize the network throughput
- c. Mininize the number of hops along the path

Networks: Routing

Dijkstra's Shortest Path Algorithm

Initially mark all nodes (except source) with infinite distance. working node = source node

Sink node = destination node

While the working node is not equal to the sink

- 1. Mark the working node as permanent.
- 2. Examine all adjacent nodes in turn

If the sum of label on working node plus distance from working node to adjacent node is less than current labeled distance on the adjacent node, this implies a shorter path. Relabel the distance on the adjacent node and label it with the node from which the probe was made.

3. Examine all tentative nodes (not just adjacent nodes) and mark the node with the smallest labeled value as permanent. This node becomes the new working node.

Reconstruct the path backwards from sink to source.

Networks: Routing

Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra(**graph** (G,w), **vertex** s) InitializeSingleSource(G, s)

$$S \leftarrow \varnothing$$

$$Q \leftarrow V[G]$$

while $Q \neq 0$ do

$$u \leftarrow ExtractMin(Q)$$

$$S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}$$

for
$$u \in Adj[u]$$
 do $Relax(u,v,w)$

executed $\Theta(V)$ times $\Theta(E)$ times in total

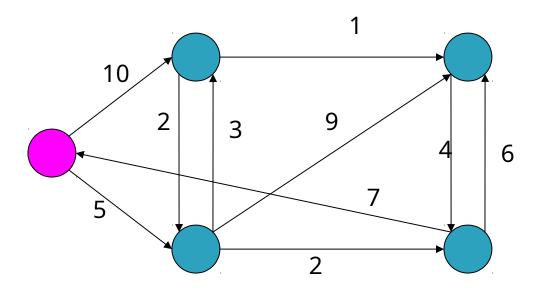
 $\Theta(V)$

InitializeSingleSource(graph G, vertex s)

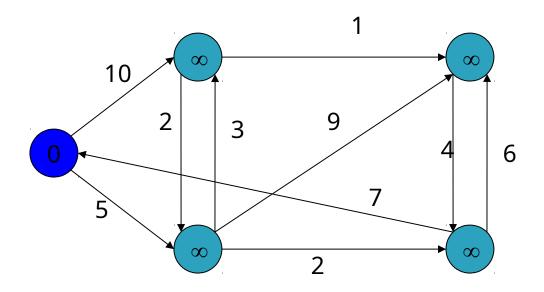
for $v \in V[G]$ do $d[v] \leftarrow \infty$ $p[v] \leftarrow 0$ $d[s] \leftarrow 0$

 $Relax(\textbf{vertex} \ u, \, \textbf{vertex} \, v, \, \textbf{weight} \, w)$ $\bullet (1) ? \qquad \qquad \bullet (v) \leftarrow d[u] + w(u,v) \quad b$ $\bullet (v) \leftarrow d[u] + w(u,v)$ $\bullet (v) \leftarrow u$

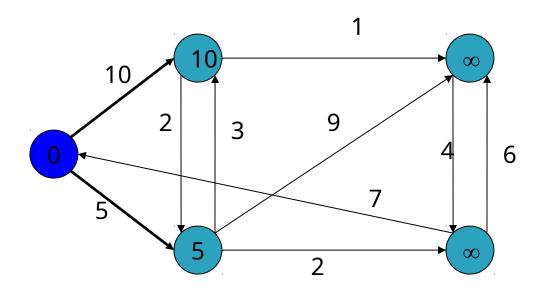
Dijkstra's Algorithm - Example

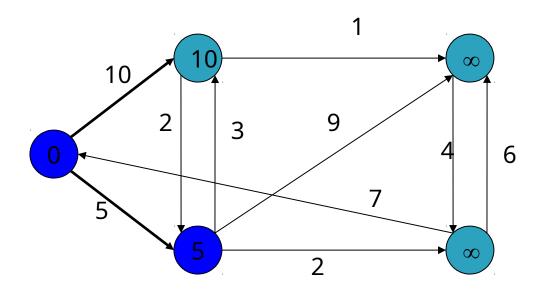


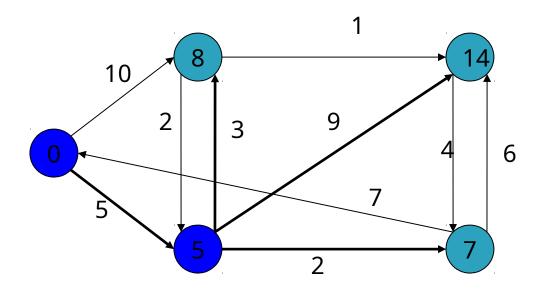
Dijkstra's Algorithm - Example

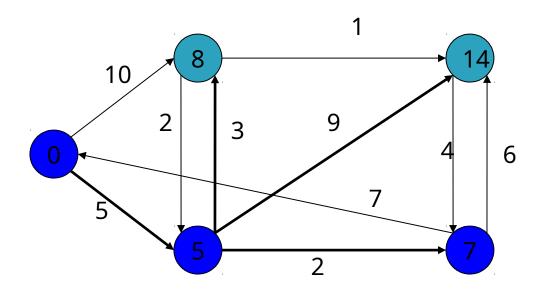


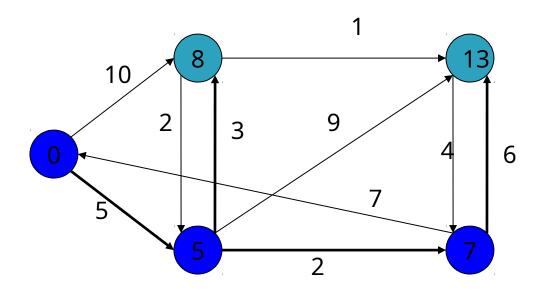
Dijkstra's Algorithm - Example

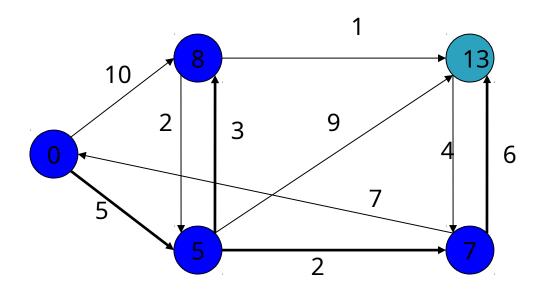


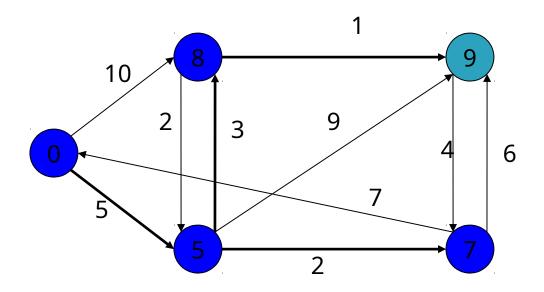


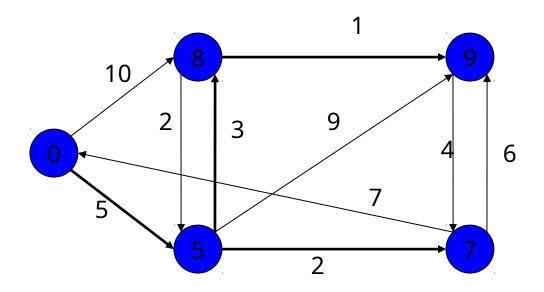






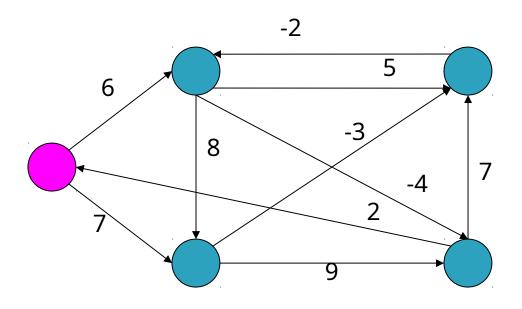


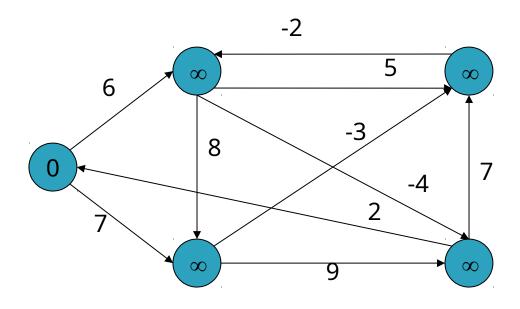


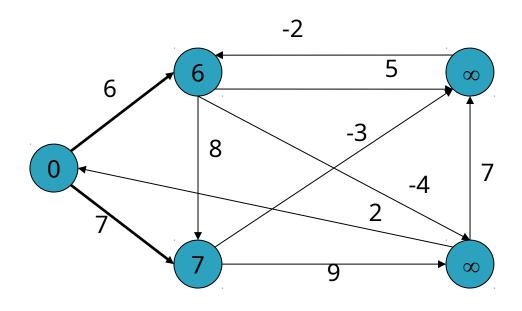


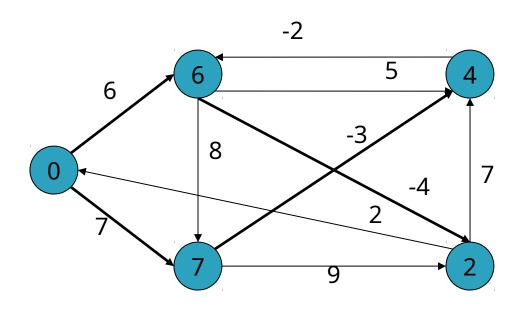
Bellman-Ford Algorithm

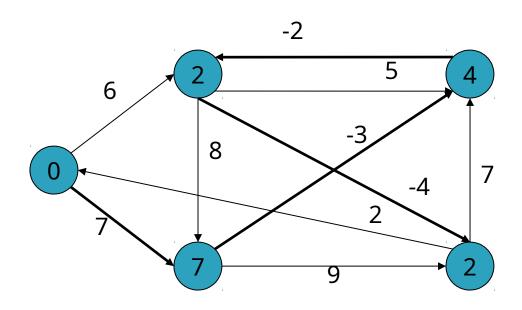
```
BellmanFord(graph (G,w), vertex s)
InitializeSingleSource(G, s)
for i \leftarrow 1 to |V[G] - 1| do
for (u,v) \in E[G] do
Relax(u,v,w)
for (u,v) \in E[G] do
if d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v) then
return false
return true
```

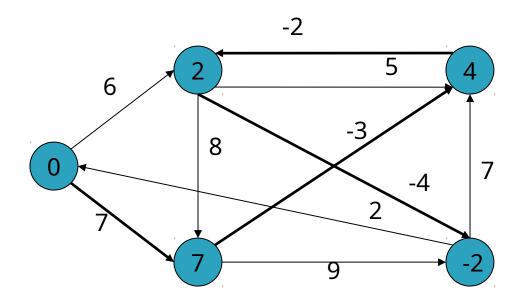




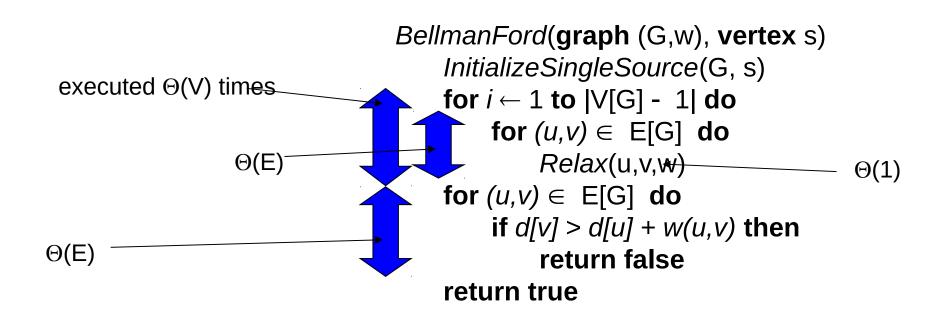




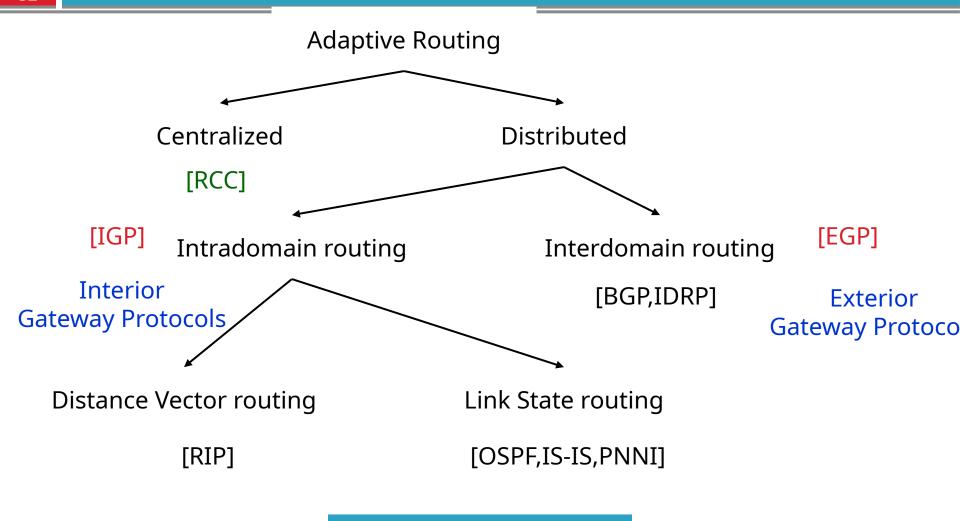




Bellman-Ford Algorithm - Complexity



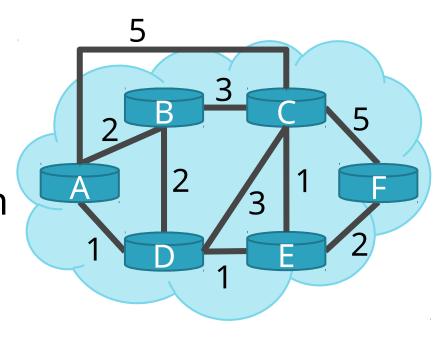
Internetwork Routing [Halsall]



Networks: Routing

Routing Problems

- Assume
 - A network with N nodes
 - Each node only knows
 - Its immediate neighbors
 - The cost to reach each neighbor
- How does each node learn the shortest path to every other node?



- Distance vector
 - Routing Information Protocol (RIP), based on Bellman-Ford
 - Routers periodically exchange reachability information with neighbors
- Link state
 - Open Shortest Path First (OSPF), based on Dijkstra
 - Each network periodically floods immediate reachability information to all other routers
 - Per router local computation to determine full routes

Outline

- Distance Vector Routing
 - RIP
- Link State Routing
 - OSPF
 - □ IS-IS

Distance Vector Routing

- What is a distance vector?
 - Current best known cost to reach a destination
- Idea: exchange vectors among neighbors to learn about lowest cost paths

DV Table at Node C

Destinatio	Cost		
n			
Α	7		
В	1		
D	2		
Е	5		
F	1		

- No entry for C
- Initially, only has info for immediate neighbors
 - Other destinations cost =∞
- □ Routing Information Protoent(BIR), vector is

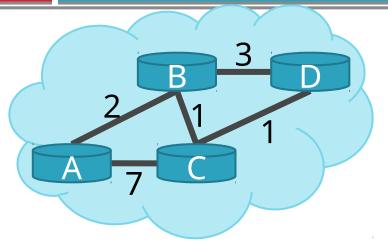
Distance Vector Routing Algorithm

- Wait for change in local link cost or message from neighbor
- 2. Recompute distance table

If least cost path to any destination has changed, notify neighbors

Distance Vector Initialization

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Node A

Dest.	Cost	Next
В	2	В
С	7	C
D	œ	

Node B

Dest.	Cost	Next
Α	2	Α
C	1	C
D	3	D

Initialization:

for all neighbors *V* **do**

3. if V adjacent to A

D(A, V) = c(A, V);

5. else

 $D(A, V) = \infty$; 6.

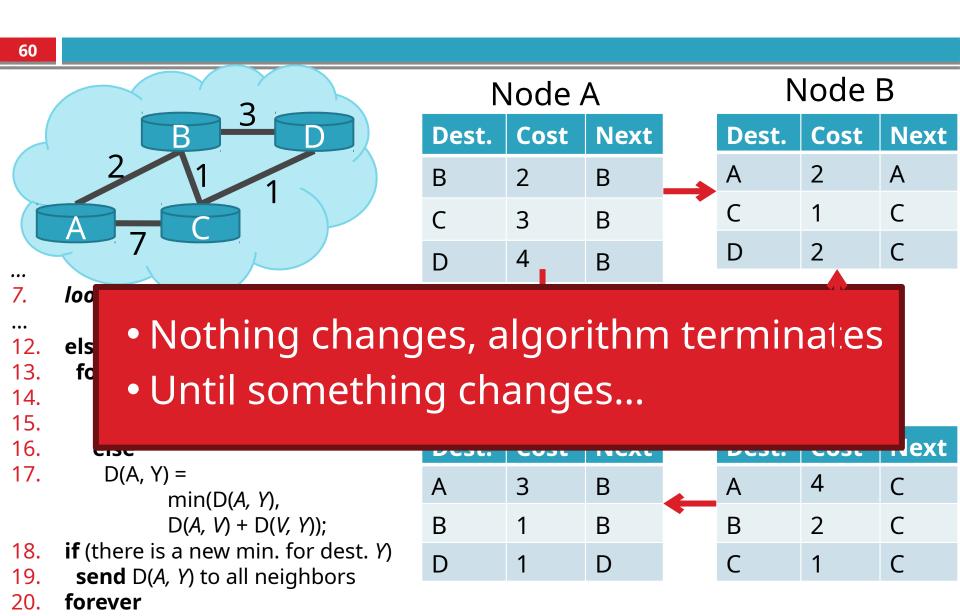
Node C

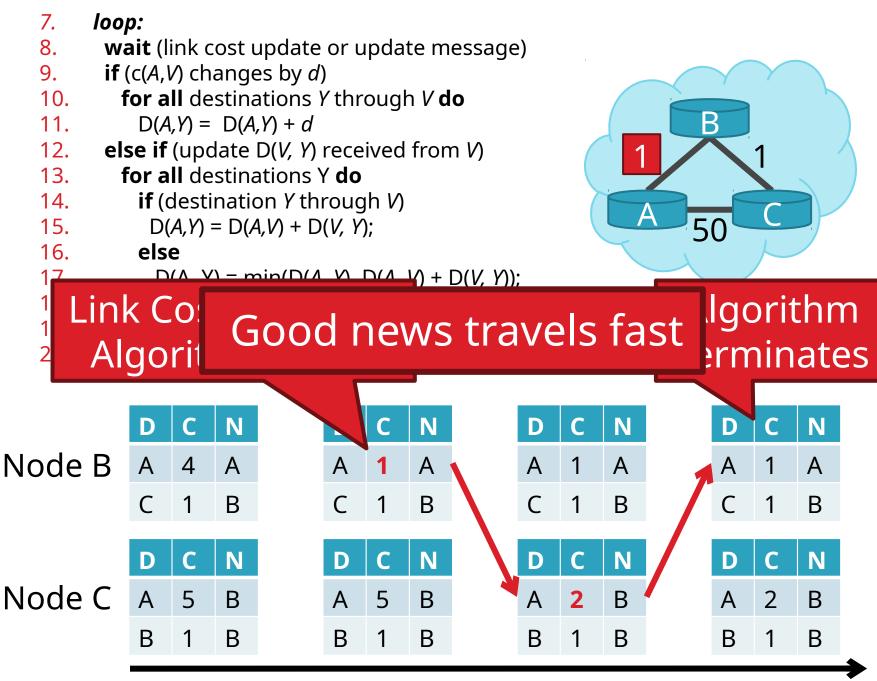
Dest.	Cost	Next
Α	7	Α
В	1	В
D	1	D

Node D

Dest.	Cost	Next
Α	œ	
В	3	В
С	1	С

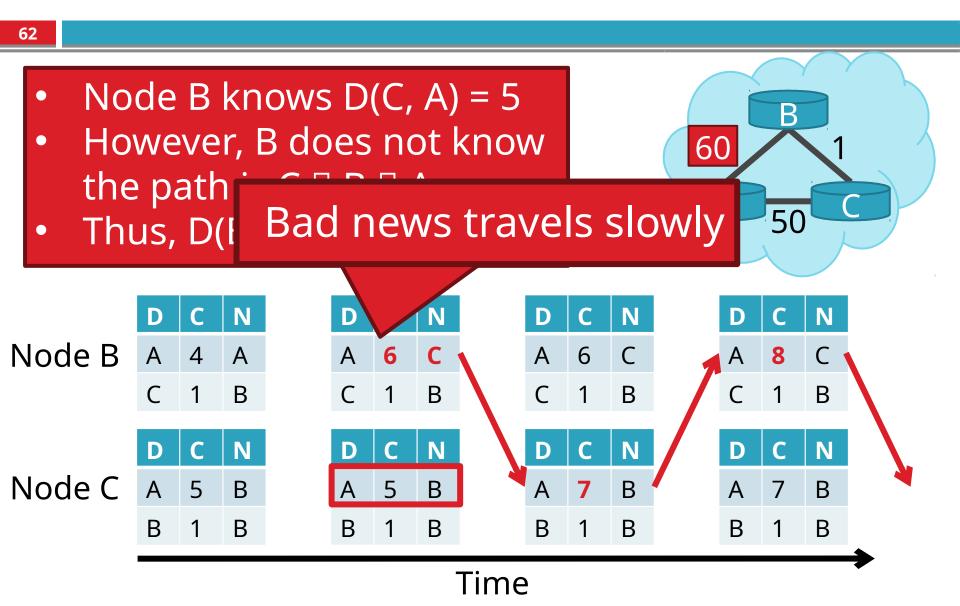
Distance Vector: End of 3rd Iteration



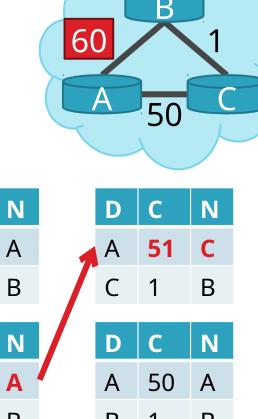


Time

Count to Infinity Problem



- If C routes through B to get to A
 - C tells B that D(C, A) = ∞
 - Thus, B won't route to A via C



Node B В N Node C B

C 1 В N 5 B 1

A 60

N

Α

N **50**

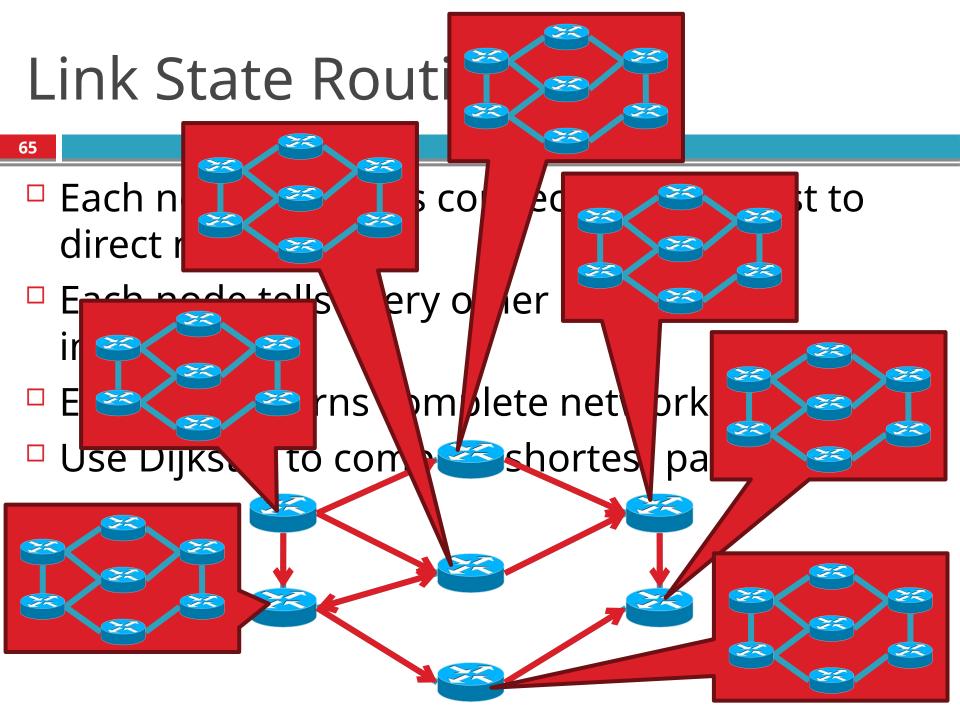
60

1

Time

Outline

- Distance Vector Routing
 - RIP
- Link State Routing
 - OSPF
 - □ IS-IS



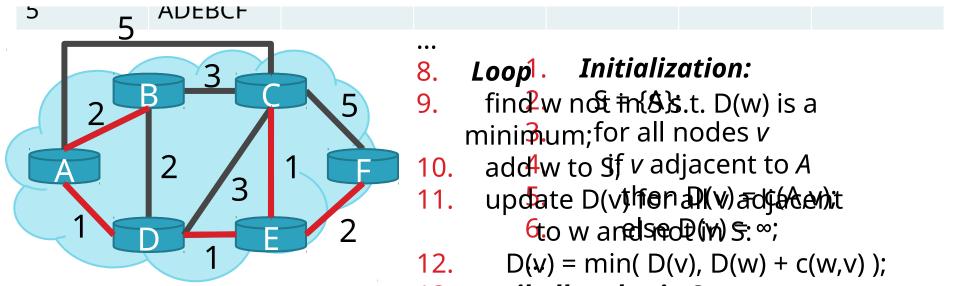
Flooding Details

- Each node periodically generates Link State Packet
 - ID of node generating the LSP
 - List of direct neighbors and costs
 - Sequence number (64-bit, assumed to never wrap)
 - Time to live
- Flood is reliable (ack + retransmission)
- Sequence number "versions" each LSP
- Receivers flood LSPs to their own neighbors
 - Except whoever originated the LSP
- I SPs also generated when link states change

Dijkstra's Algorithm

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Step	Start S	□В	□С	□D	□E	DF
0	A	2, A	5, A	1, A	∞	∞



Two different implementations of link-state routing

OSPF

- Favored by companies, datacenters
- More optional features

- Built on top of IPv4
 - LSAs are sent via IPv4
 - OSPFv3 needed for IPv6

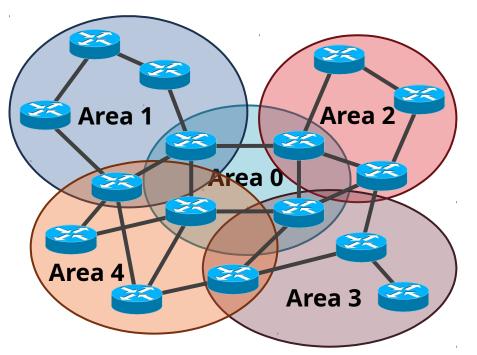
IS-IS

- Favored by ISPs
- Less "chatty"
 - Less network overhead
 - Supports more devices
- Not tied to IP
 - Works with IPv4 or IPv6

Different Organizational Structure

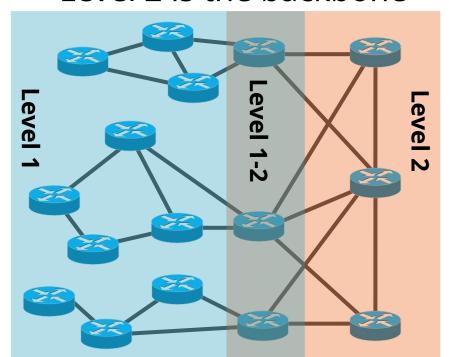
OSPF

- Organized around overlapping areas
- Area 0 is the core network



IS-IS

- Organized as a 2-level hierarchy
- Level 2 is the backbone



Link State vs. Distance Vector

	Link State	Distance Vector
Message Complexity	O(n²*e)	O(d*n*k)
Time Complexity	O(n*log n)	O(n)
Convergence Time	O(1)	O(k)
Robustness	 Nodes may advertise incorrect link costs Each node computes 	 Nodes may advertise incorrect path cost Errors propagate due to

- Which is best?
- In practice, it depends.
- In general, link state is more popular.