

Chapter 4

Network Layer: Data Plane

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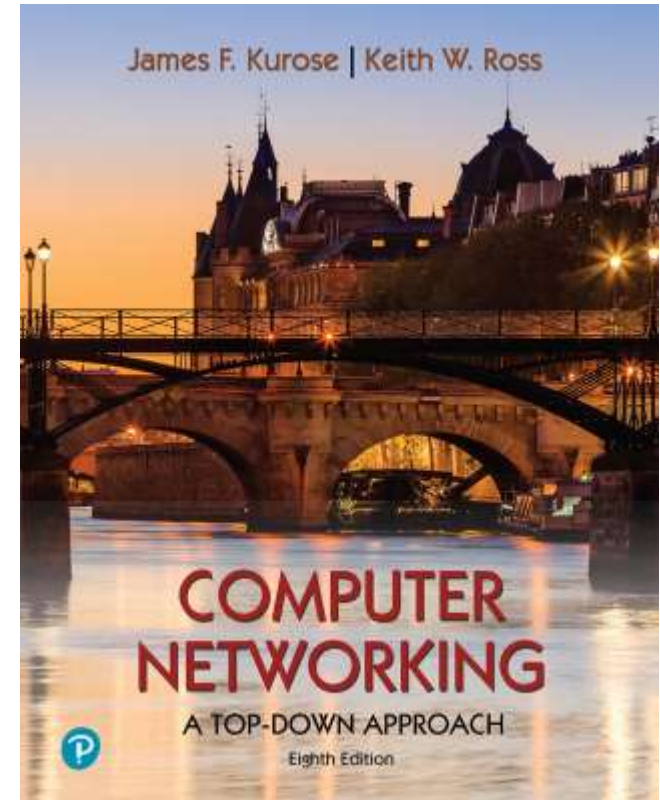
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Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition

Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Network layer: our goals

- understand principles behind network layer services, focusing on data plane:
 - network layer service models
 - forwarding versus routing
 - how a router works
 - addressing
 - generalized forwarding
 - Internet architecture
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet
 - IP protocol
 - NAT, middleboxes

Network layer: “data plane” roadmap

- Network layer: overview

- data plane
- control plane

- What’s inside a router

- input ports, switching, output ports
- buffer management, scheduling

- IP: the Internet Protocol

- datagram format
- addressing
- network address translation
- IPv6



- Generalized Forwarding, SDN

- Match+action
- OpenFlow: match+action in action

- Middleboxes

Data Plane and Control Plane

Data Plane

The primary data-plane role of each router is to forward datagrams from its input links to its output links

Control Plane

The primary role of network control plane is to coordinate these local, per-router forwarding actions so that datagrams are ultimately transferred end-to-end, along paths of routers between source and destination hosts.

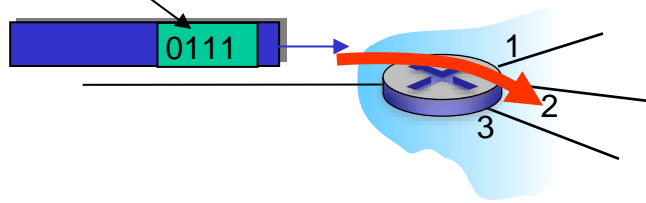
Routers do NOT run application and transport-layer protocols!

Network layer: data plane, control plane

Data plane:

- *local*, per-router function
- determines how datagram arriving on router input port is forwarded to router output port

values in arriving
packet header

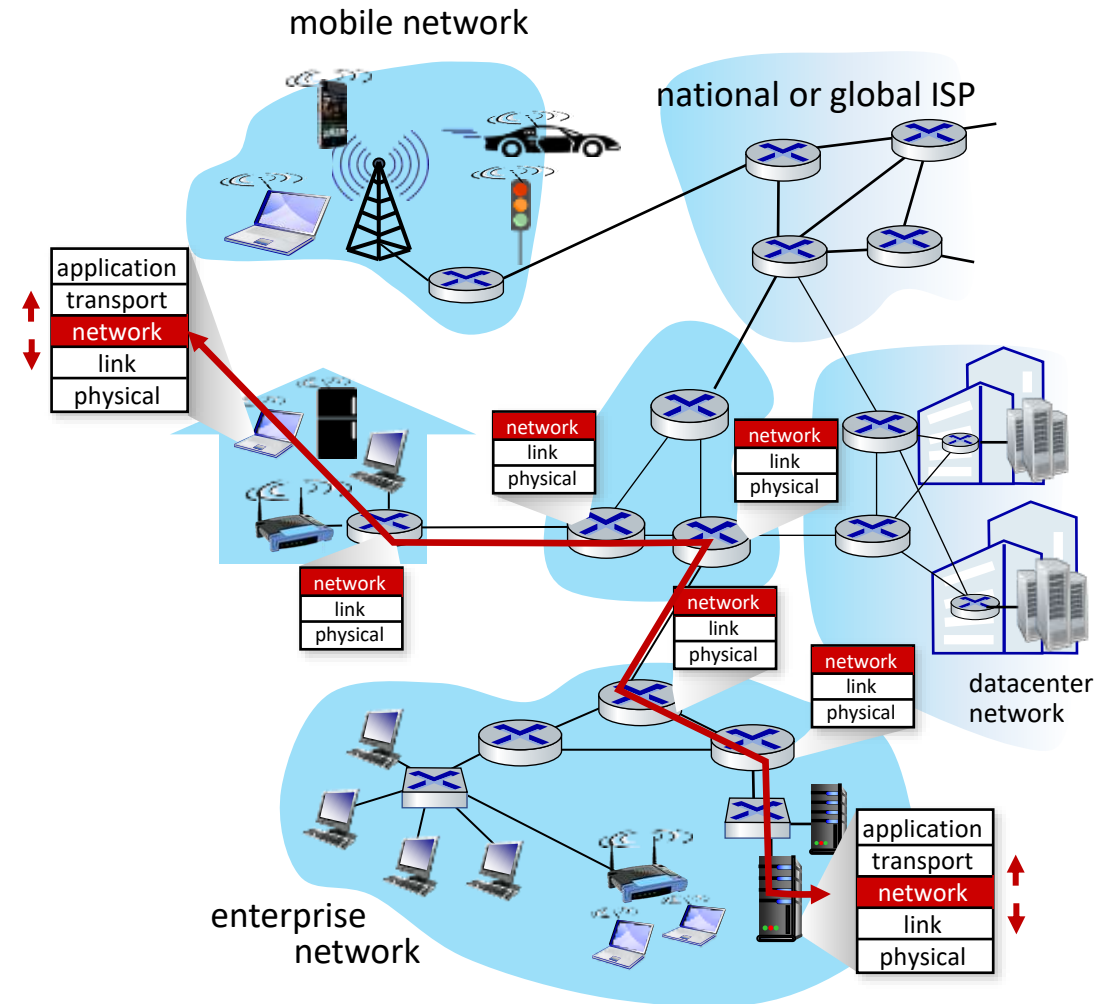


Control plane

- *network-wide* logic
- determines how datagram is routed among routers along end-end path from source host to destination host
- two control-plane approaches:
 - *traditional routing algorithms*: implemented in routers
 - *software-defined networking (SDN)*: implemented in (remote) servers

Network-layer services and protocols

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
 - **sender:** encapsulates segments into datagrams, passes to link layer
 - **receiver:** delivers segments to transport layer protocol
- network layer protocols in *every Internet device*: hosts, routers
- **routers:**
 - examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it
 - moves datagrams from input ports to output ports to transfer datagrams along end-end path



Two key network-layer functions

network-layer functions:

- *forwarding*: move packets from a router's input link to appropriate router output link. **Implemented in hardware**
- *routing*: determine route taken by packets from source to destination. **Implemented in Software**
 - *routing algorithms*

analogy: taking a trip

- *forwarding*: process of getting through single interchange
- *routing*: process of planning trip from source to destination



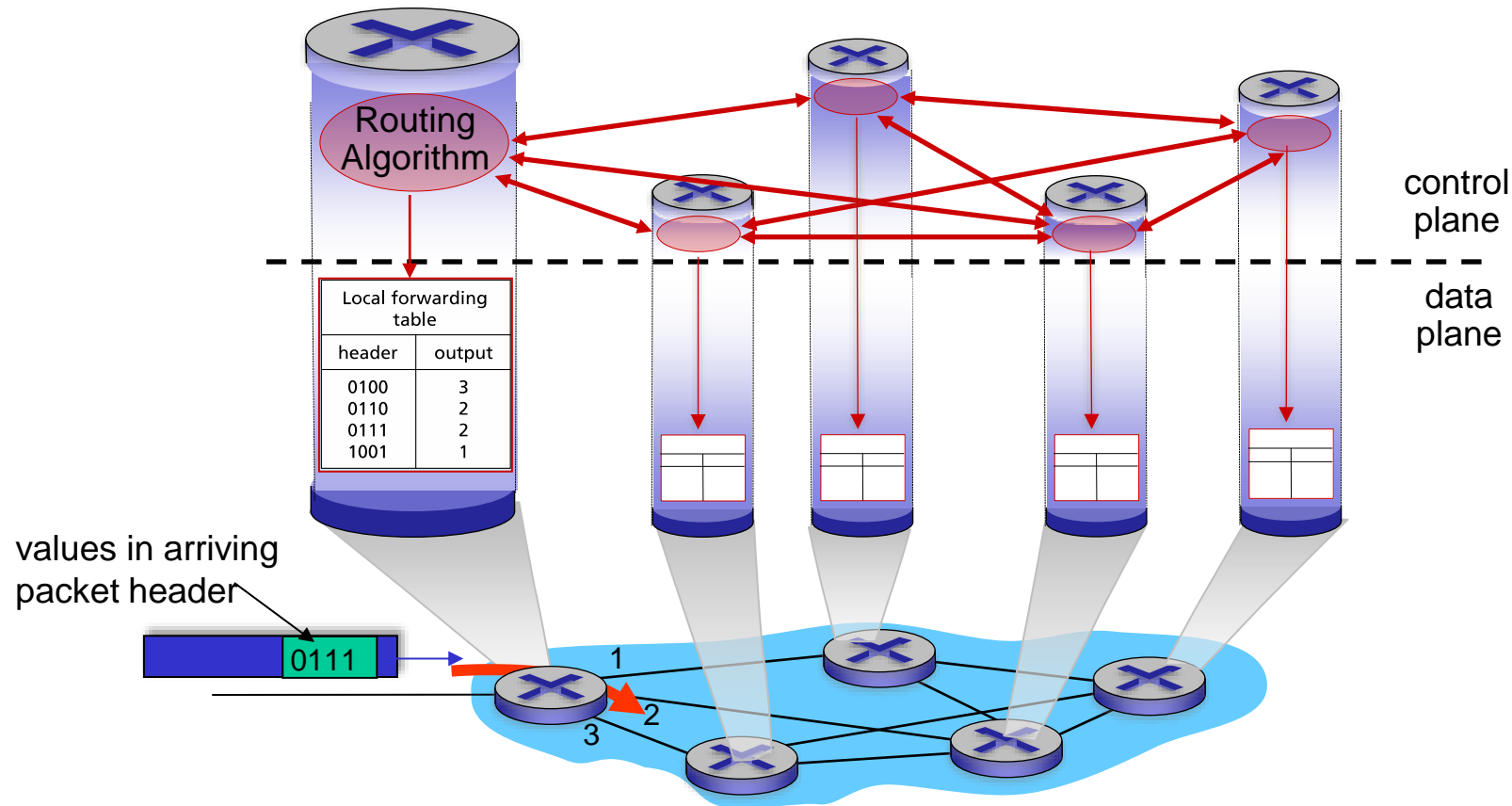
forwarding



routing

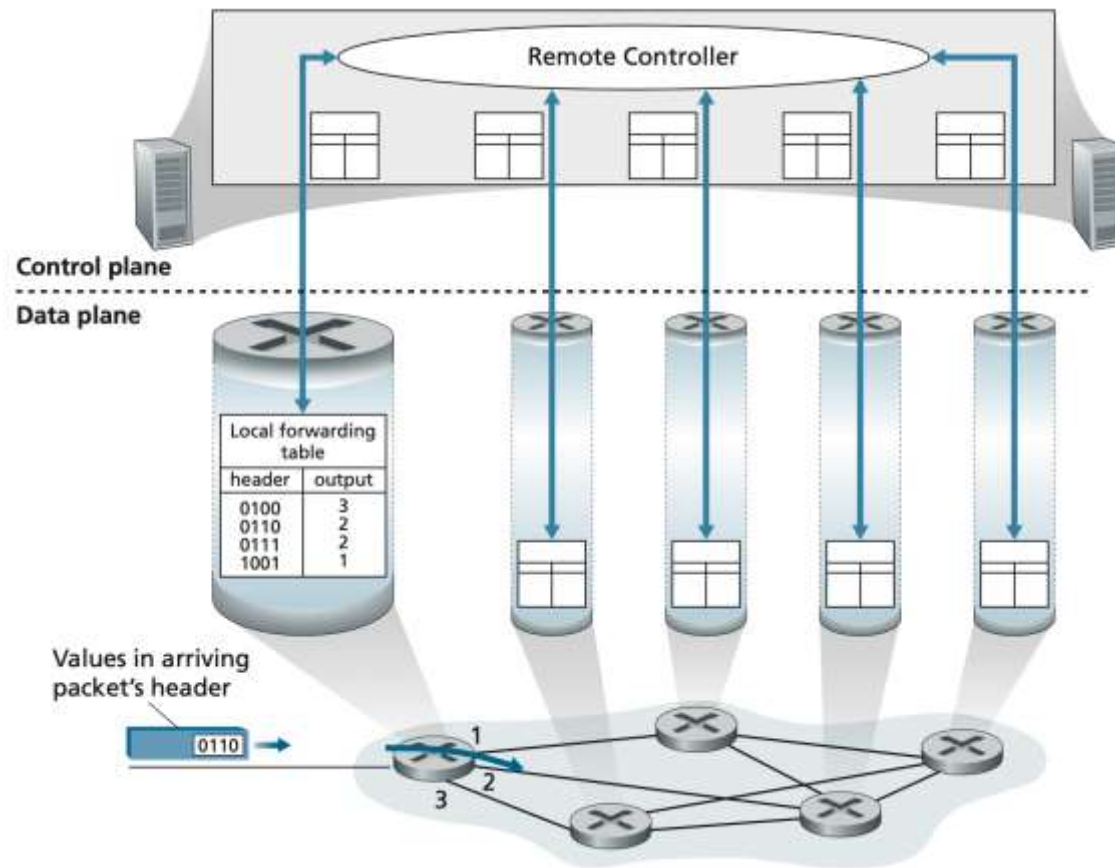
Per-router control plane

Individual routing algorithm components *in each and every router* interact in the control plane



Software-Defined Networking (SDN) control plane

- Control-plane routing functionality is separated from the physical router – router performs forwarding only
- Remote controller computes and distributes forwarding tables
- Controller that computes forwarding tables and interacts with routers is implemented in **software**



Network service model

Can the transport layer rely on the network layer to deliver the packet to the destination?

Will network provide any feedback about congestion in the network?

Will the sent packets arrive to the destination in the order they were meant to be sent?

Will the duplicate packages successfully arrive to the destination?

example services for *individual datagrams*:

- guaranteed delivery
- guaranteed delivery with less than 40 msec delay

example services for a *flow* of datagrams:

- in-order datagram delivery
- guaranteed minimum bandwidth to flow
- restrictions on changes in inter-packet spacing

Network-layer service model

What the network layer **COULD** provide as a service:

- Guaranteed Delivery: service guarantees that a packet sent by a source host will arrive to the destination host
- Guaranteed delivery with bounded delay – this service not only guarantees delivery of the packet, but delivery within a specified host-to-host delay bound (i.e., within 100 msec).
- In-order packet delivery – service guarantees that packets arrive at the destination in the order they were sent.
- Security – the network layer could encrypt all datagrams at the source and decrypt them at the destination, thereby providing confidentiality to all transport-layer segments.

Network-layer service model

Internet “best effort” service model

No guarantees on:

- i. successful datagram delivery to destination
- ii. timing or order of delivery
- iii. bandwidth available to end-end flow

Network-layer service model

Network Architecture	Service Model	Quality of Service (QoS) Guarantees ?			
		Bandwidth	Loss	Order	Timing
Internet	best effort	none	no	no	no
ATM	Constant Bit Rate	Constant rate	yes	yes	yes
ATM	Available Bit Rate	Guaranteed min	no	yes	no
Internet	Intserv Guaranteed (RFC 1633)	yes	yes	yes	yes
Internet	Diffserv (RFC 2475)	possible	possibly	possibly	no

Reflections on best-effort service:

- **simplicity of mechanism** has allowed Internet to be widely deployed adopted
- sufficient **provisioning of bandwidth** allows performance of real-time applications (e.g., interactive voice, video) to be “good enough” for “most of the time”
- **replicated, application-layer distributed services** (datacenters, content distribution networks) connecting close to clients’ networks, allow services to be provided from multiple locations
- congestion control of “elastic” services helps

It's hard to argue with success of best-effort service model

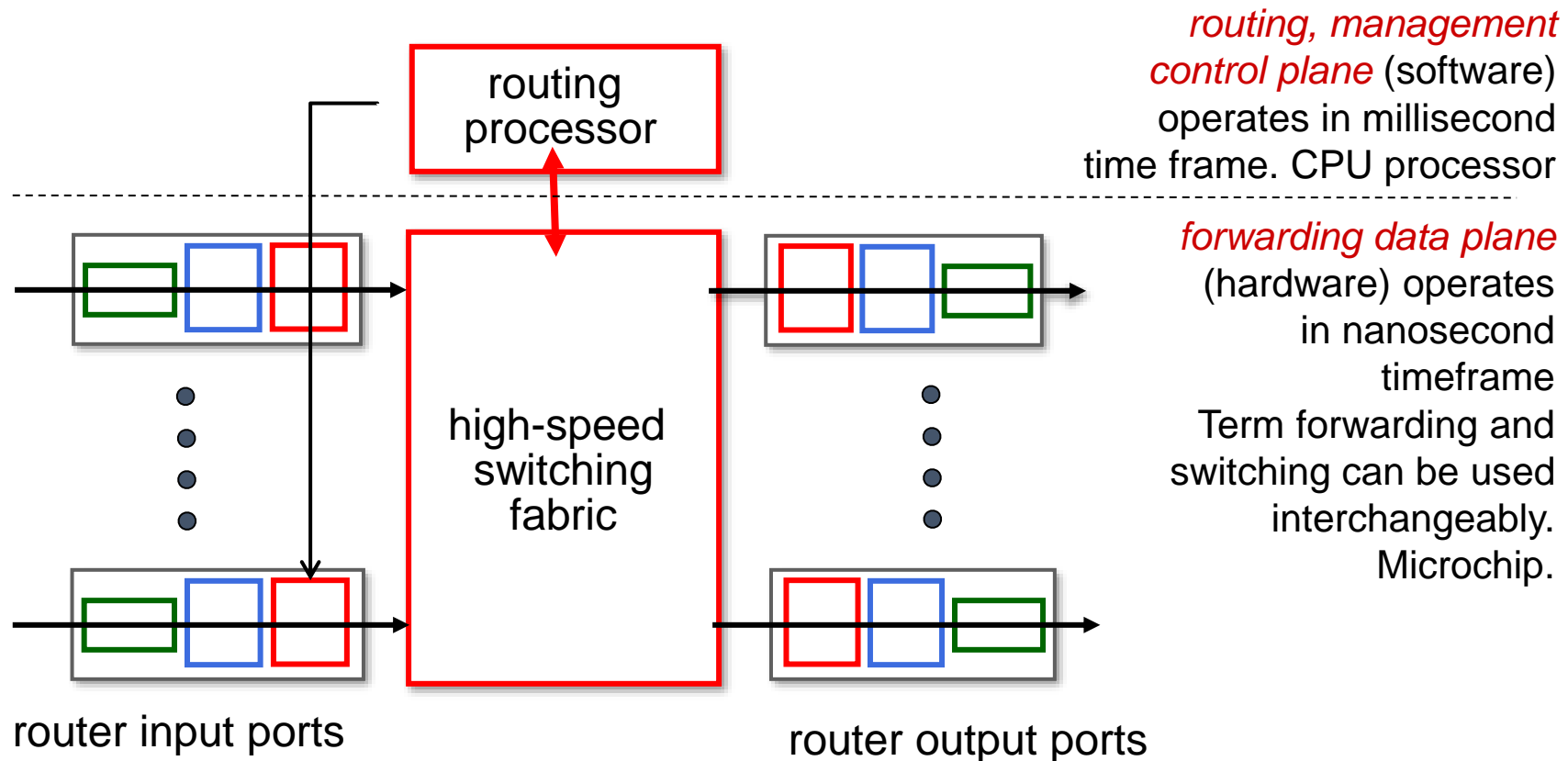
Network layer: “data plane” roadmap

- Network layer: overview
 - data plane
 - control plane
- What’s inside a router
 - input ports, switching, output ports
 - buffer management, scheduling
- IP: the Internet Protocol
 - datagram format
 - addressing
 - network address translation
 - IPv6
- Generalized Forwarding, SDN
 - Match+action
 - OpenFlow: match+action in action
- Middleboxes



Router architecture overview

high-level view of generic router architecture:



Router architecture overview

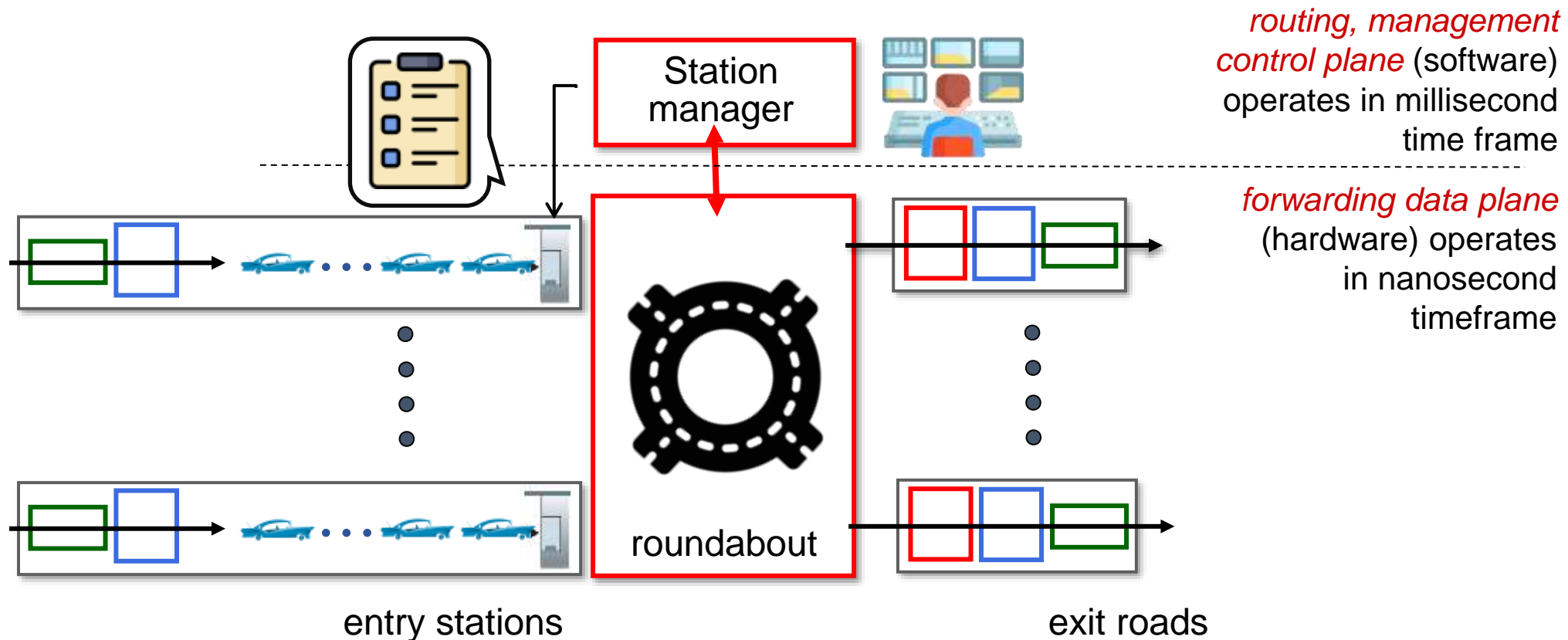
- Input Ports – performs several key functions.
 - Physical layer function of terminating an incoming physical link at a router
 - Also performs link-layer functions needed to interoperate with the link layer at the other side of the incoming link
 - Lookup function at the input port
 - Forwarding table is invoked and consulted to determine the router output port to which an arriving packet will be forwarded to via switching fabric.
 - **Switching Fabric** - connects the router's input ports to its output ports; it is completely contained within the router - network inside of a network router.
- Output ports – store packets received from the switching fabric and transmits them on the outgoing link

Router architecture overview

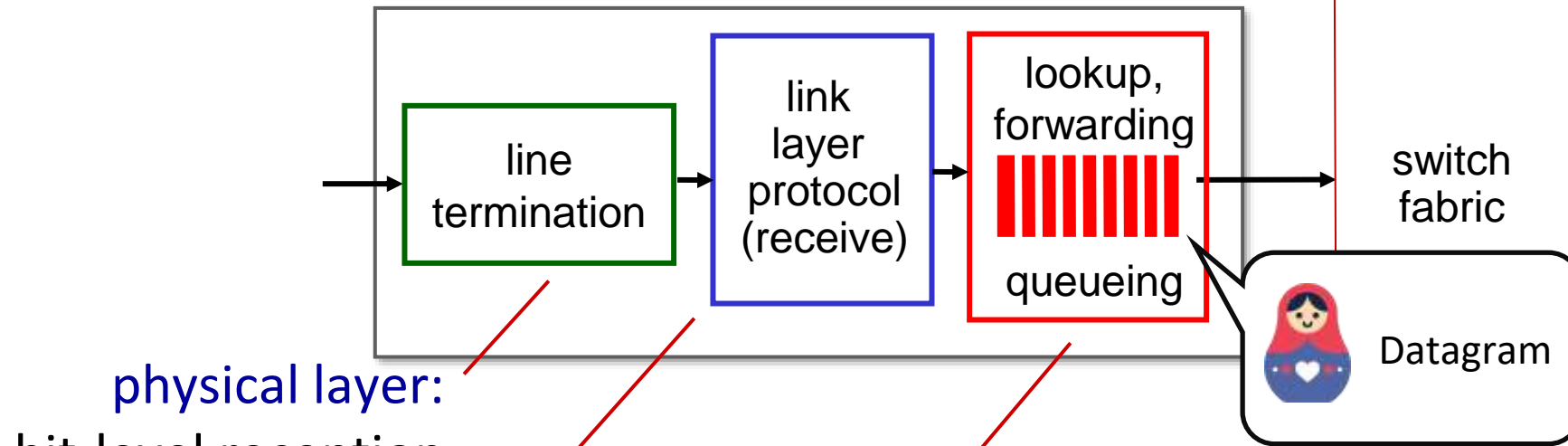
- Routing processor:
 - Performs control-plane functions
 - It executes the routing protocols
 - Maintains forwarding tables and attached link state information
 - Computes forwarding table for the router
 - In Software Defined Network (SDN), routing processor communicates with the remote controller to receive forwarding table entries, and then installs them on the router's input ports.
- Input, output and switching fabric are implemented via hardware

Router architecture overview

analogy view of generic router architecture:



Input port functions



physical layer:
bit-level reception

link layer:
e.g., Ethernet
(chapter 6)

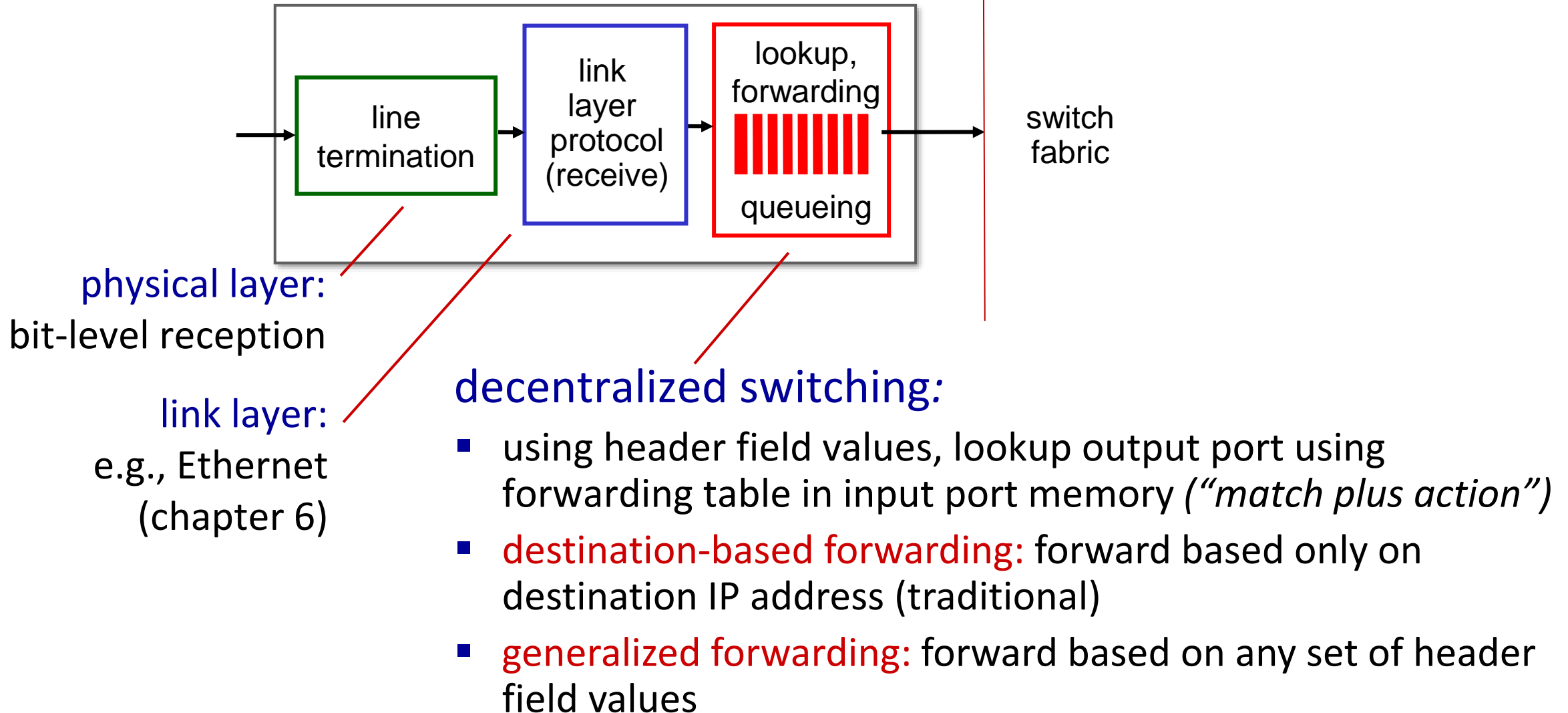


Frame

decentralized switching:

- using header field values, lookup output port using forwarding table in input port memory (*“match plus action”*)
- goal: complete input port processing at ‘line speed’
- **input port queueing**: if datagrams arrive faster than forwarding rate into switch fabric

Input port functions



Destination-based forwarding

forwarding table

Destination Address Range	Link Interface
11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000 through 11001000 00010111 00010111 11111111	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 00000000 through 11001000 00010111 00011000 11111111	1
11001000 00010111 00011001 00000000 through 11001000 00010111 00011111 11111111	2
otherwise	3

Longest prefix matching

longest prefix match

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *****	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *****	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *****	2
otherwise	3

examples:

11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001 which interface?

11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 which interface?

Longest prefix matching

longest prefix match

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *****	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *****	1
11001000 match! 1 00011*** *****	2
otherwise	3

examples:

11001000	00010111	00010110	10100001	which interface?
11001000	00010111	00011000	10101010	which interface?

Longest prefix matching

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Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *****	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *****	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *****	2
otherwise	3

match!

examples:

11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001	which interface?
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longest prefix match

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otherwise	3

match!

examples:

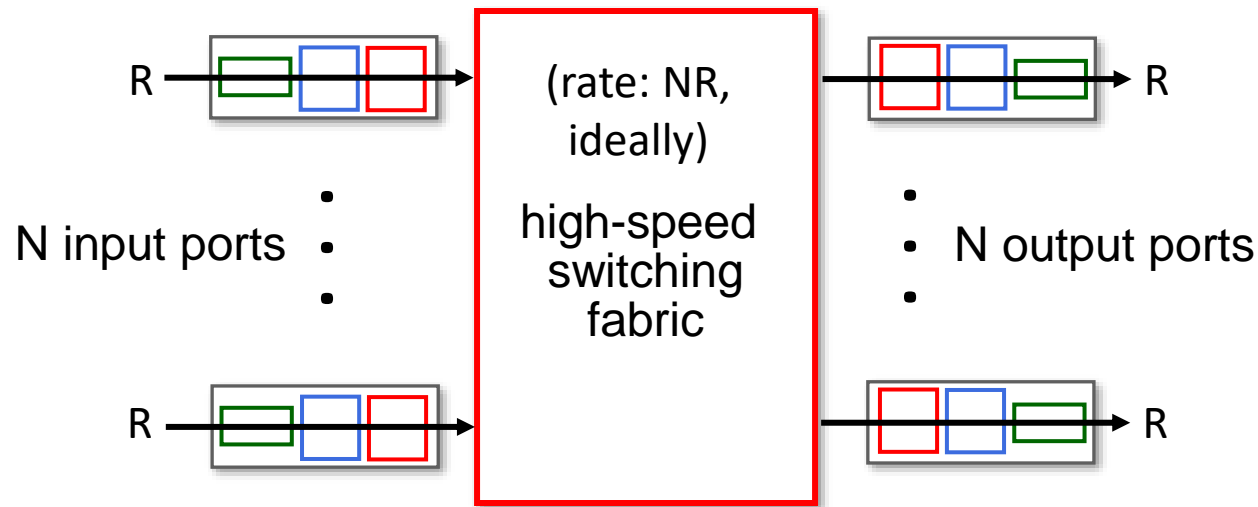
11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001	which interface?
11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010	which interface?

Longest prefix matching

- we'll see *why* longest prefix matching is used shortly, when we study addressing
- longest prefix matching: often performed using Ternary Content Addressable Memories (TCAMs)

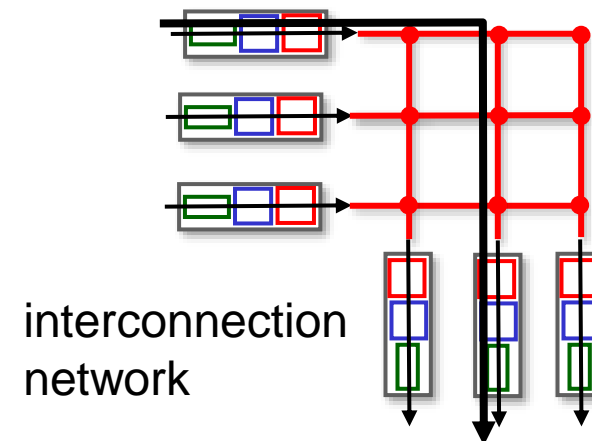
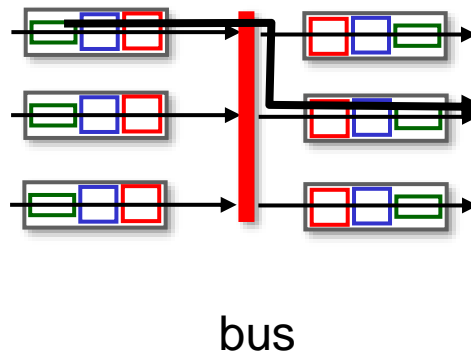
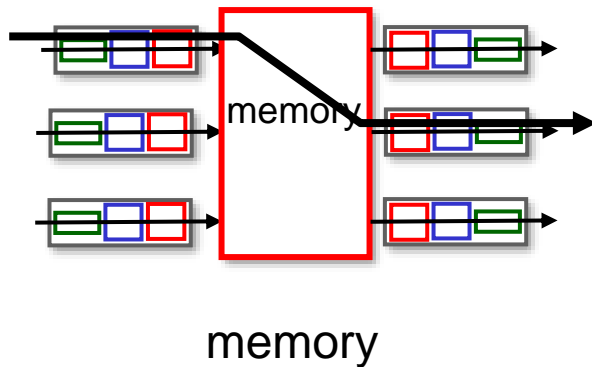
Switching fabrics

- transfer packet from input link to appropriate output link
- **switching rate**: rate at which packets can be transfer from inputs to outputs
 - often measured as multiple of input/output line rate
 - N inputs: switching rate N times line rate desirable



Switching fabrics

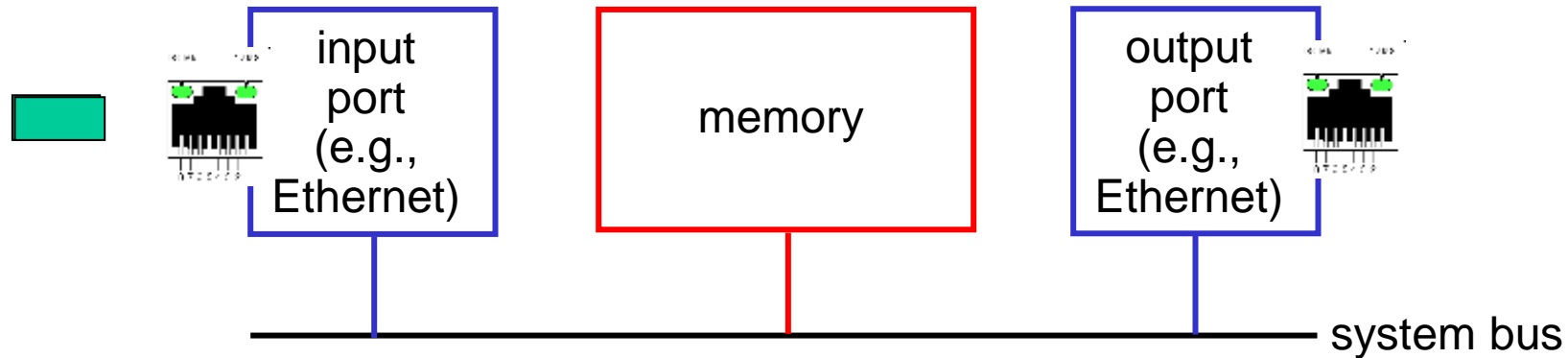
- transfer packet from input link to appropriate output link
- **switching rate**: rate at which packets can be transfer from inputs to outputs
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- three major types of switching fabrics:



Switching via memory

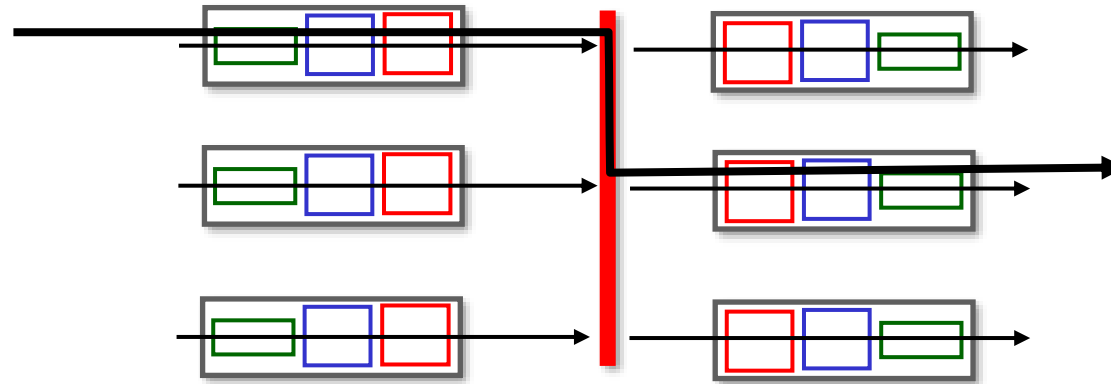
first generation routers:

- traditional computers with switching under direct control of CPU
- packet copied to system's memory
- speed limited by memory bandwidth



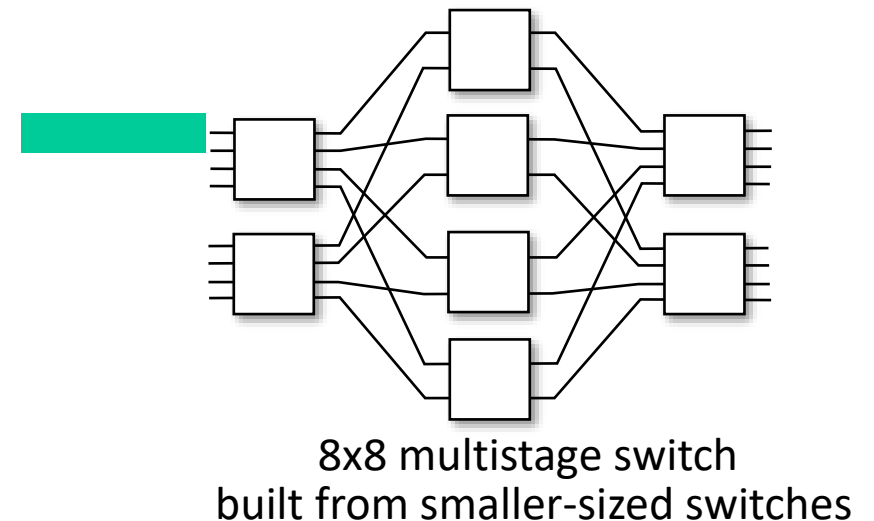
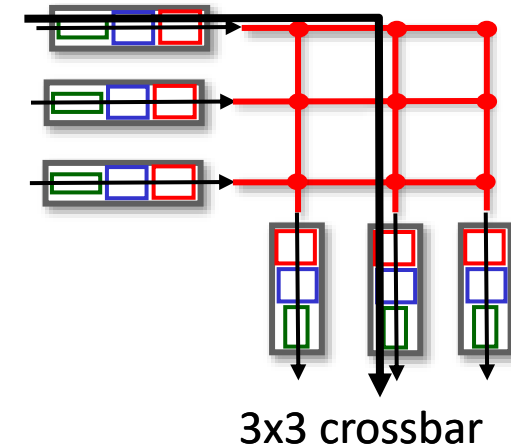
Switching via a bus

- datagram from input port memory to output port memory via a shared bus
- *bus contention*: switching speed limited by bus bandwidth
- 32 Gbps bus, Cisco 5600: sufficient speed for access routers



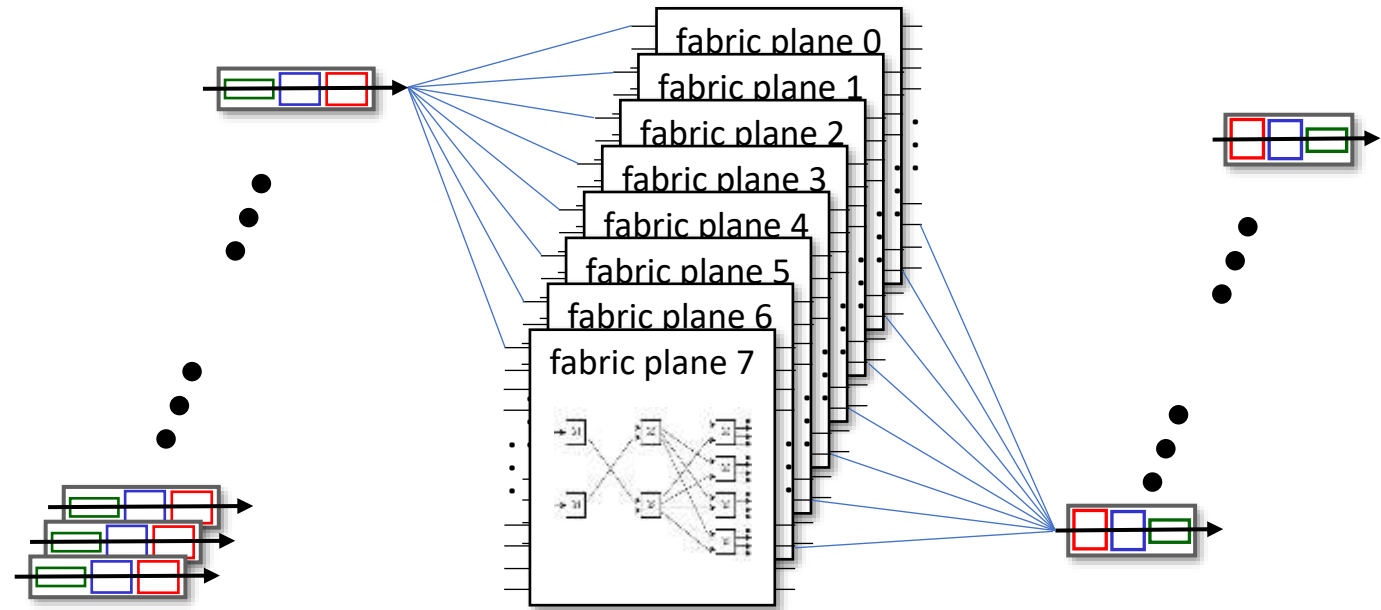
Switching via interconnection network

- Crossbar, Close networks, other interconnection nets initially developed to connect processors in multiprocessor
- **multistage switch**: $n \times n$ switch from multiple stages of smaller switches
- **exploiting parallelism**:
 - fragment datagram into fixed length cells on entry
 - switch cells through the fabric, reassemble datagram at exit

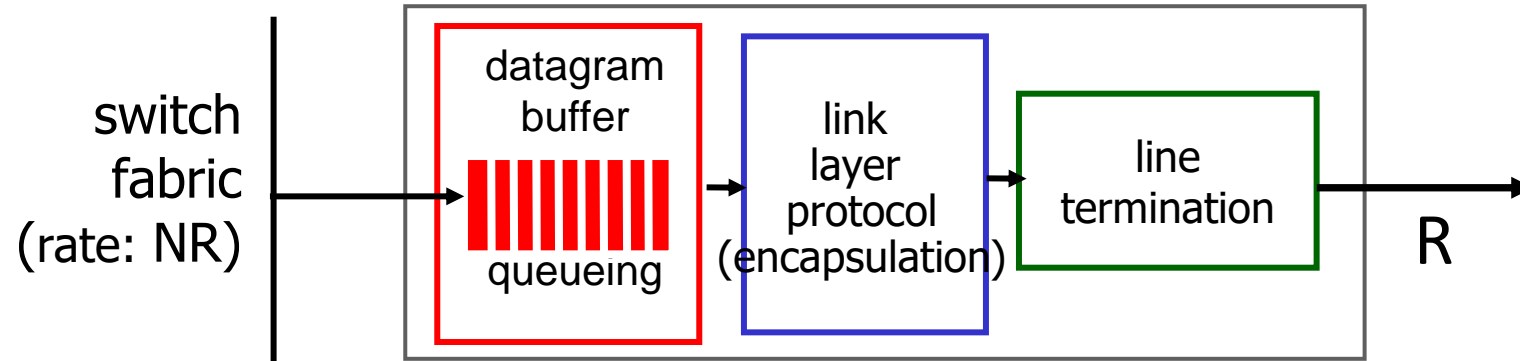


Switching via interconnection network

- scaling, using multiple switching “planes” in parallel:
 - speedup, scaleup via parallelism
- Cisco CRS router:
 - basic unit: 8 switching planes
 - each plane: 3-stage interconnection network
 - up to 100's Tbps switching capacity



Output port queuing



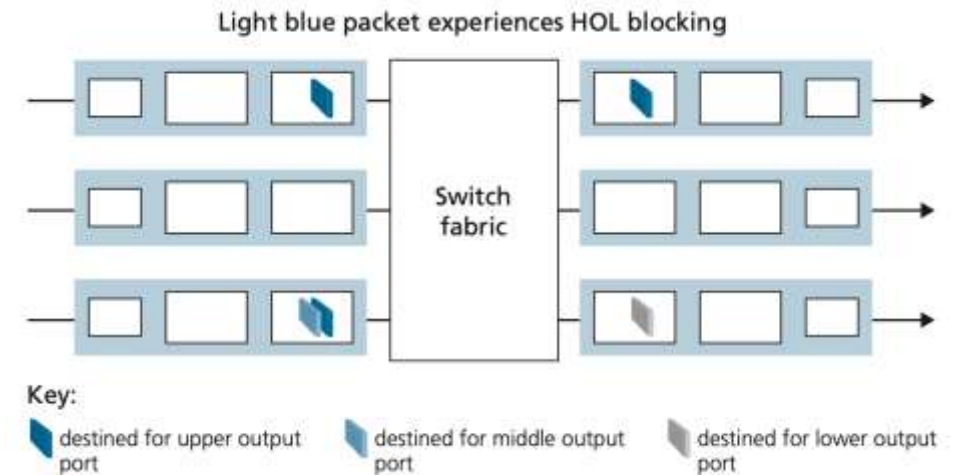
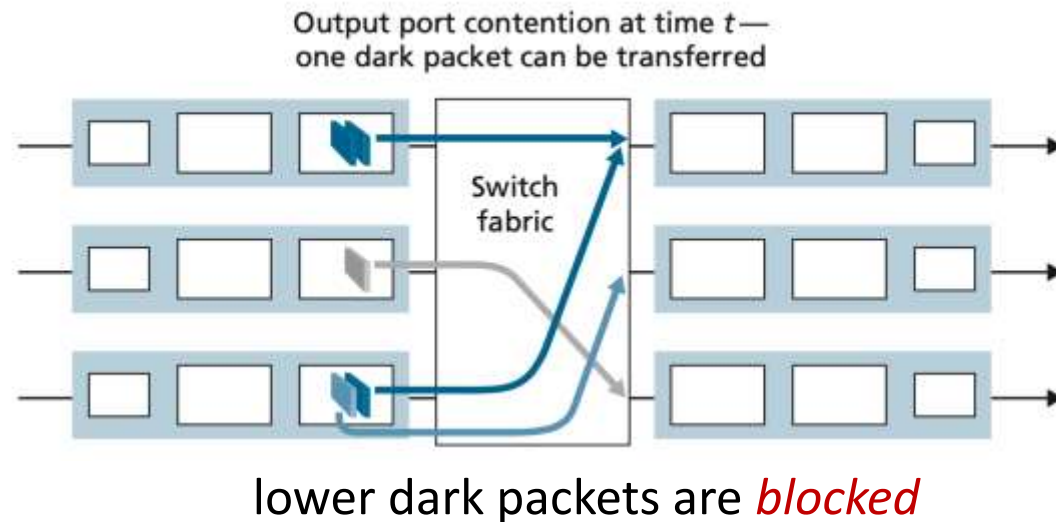
- **Buffering** required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than link transmission rate. **Drop policy:** which datagrams to drop if no free buffers?



Datagrams can be lost due to congestion, lack of buffers

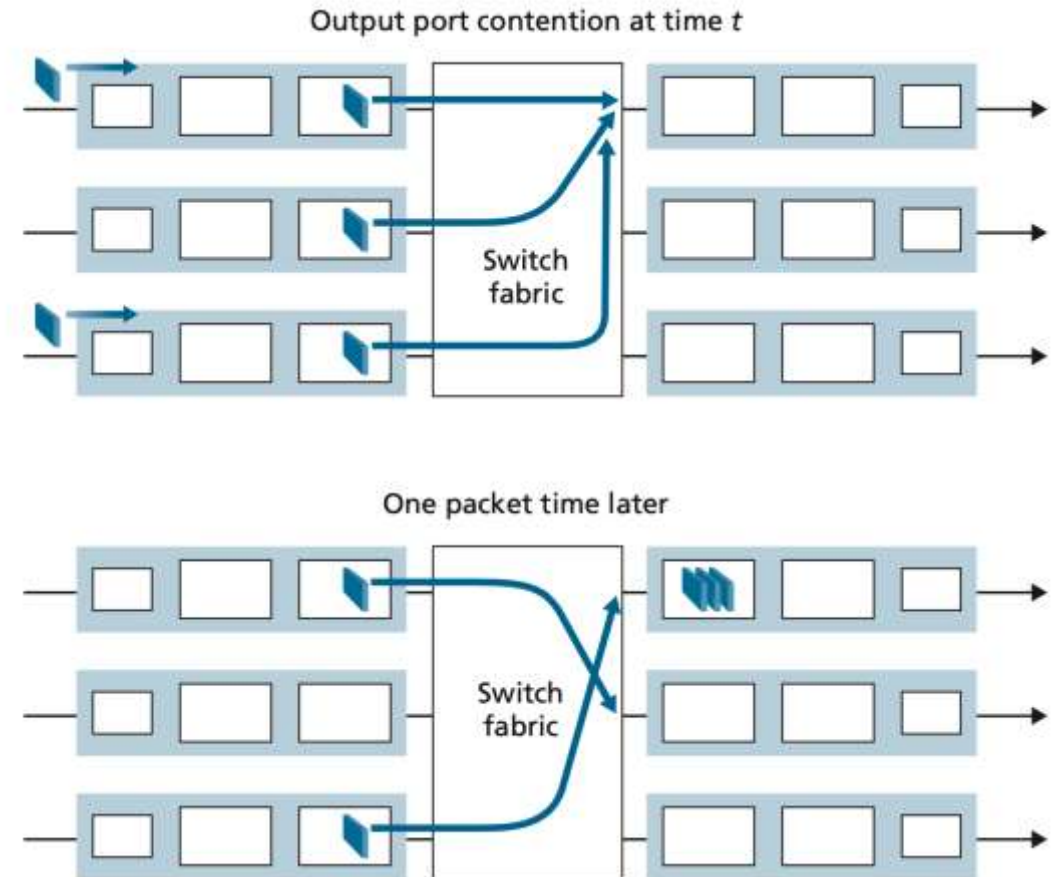
Input port queuing

- If switch fabric slower than input ports combined -> queueing may occur at input queues
 - queueing delay and loss due to input buffer overflow!
- **Head-of-the-Line (HOL) blocking:** queued datagram at front of queue prevents others in queue from moving forward

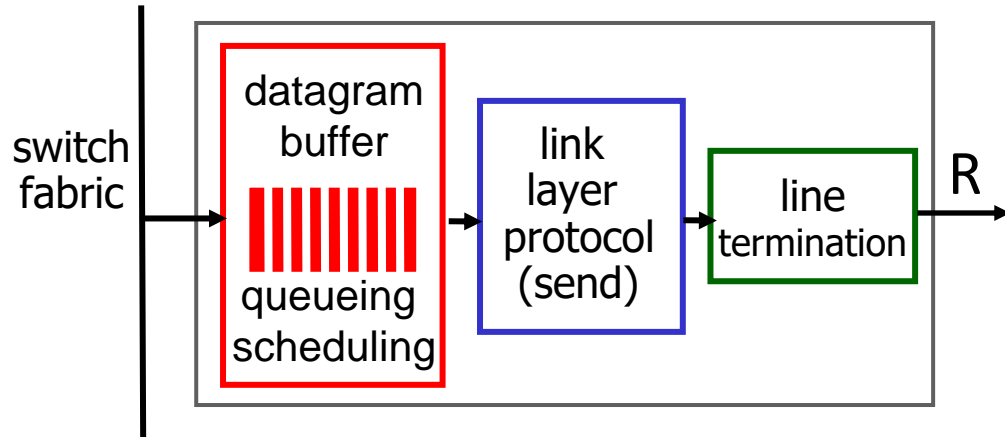


Output port queuing

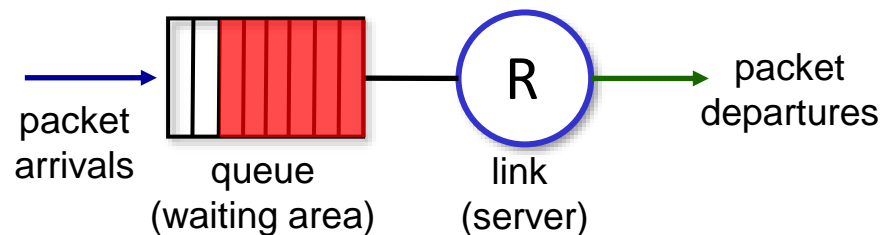
- buffering when arrival rate via switch exceeds output line speed
- *queueing (delay) and loss due to output port buffer overflow!*
- *Packet Scheduler.*



Buffer Management



Abstraction: queue



buffer management:

- **drop:** which packet to drop when buffers are full
 - **Drop-tail:** remove one of more already-queued packets to make room for the newly arrived packet, to make room for newly arriving packets
- **Active Queue Management (AQM):** number of proactive packet-dropping and marking policies became known as AQM.
- **Random Early Detection (RED):** most popular algorithm, RFC 8033

How much buffering?

- RFC 3439 rule of thumb: average buffering equal to “typical” RTT (say 250 msec) times link capacity C
 - e.g., $C = 10$ Gbps link: 2.5 Gbit buffer

- more recent recommendation: with N flows, buffering equal to

$$\frac{RTT \cdot C}{\sqrt{N}}$$

- but *too* much buffering can increase delays (particularly in home routers)
 - long RTTs: poor performance for real-time apps, sluggish TCP response
 - recall delay-based congestion control: “keep bottleneck link just full enough (busy) but no fuller”

Packet Scheduling: FIFO or FCFS

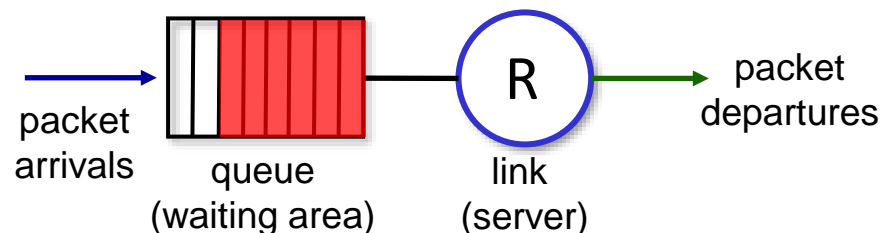
packet scheduling: deciding which packet to send next on link

- first come, first served
- priority
- round robin
- weighted fair queueing

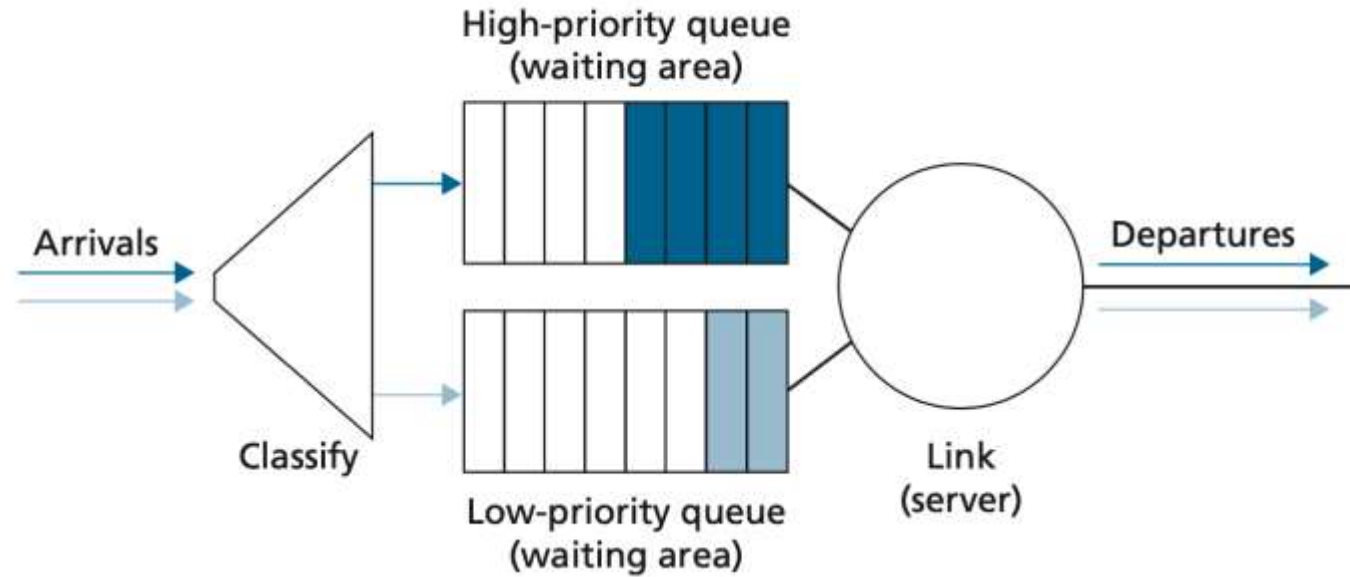
FCFS: packets transmitted in order of arrival to output port

- also known as: First-in-first-out (FIFO)
- real world examples?

Abstraction: queue



Scheduling policies: priority



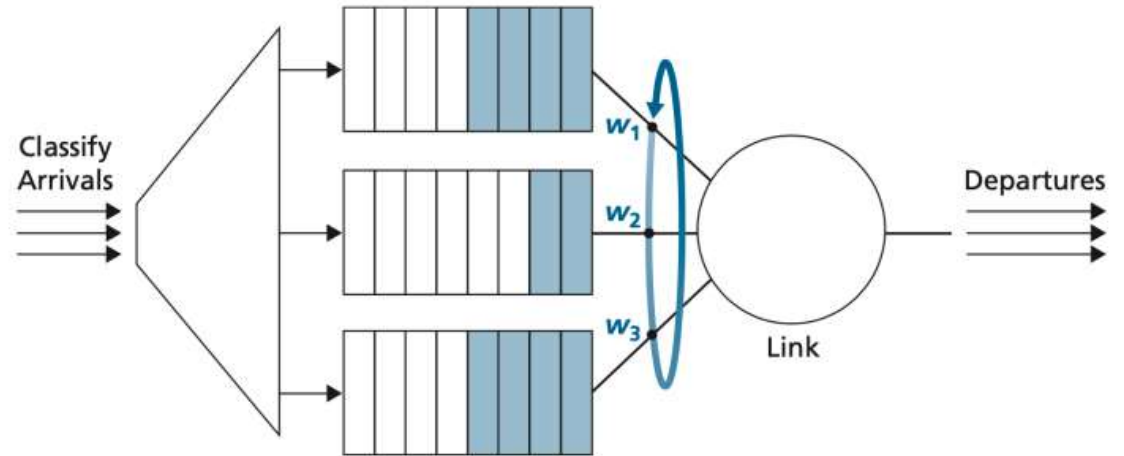
Priority scheduling:

- arriving traffic classified, queued by class
 - any header fields can be used for classification
- VOIP packets might receive priority
Over e-mail packets
- send packet from highest priority queue that has buffered packets
 - FCFS within priority class

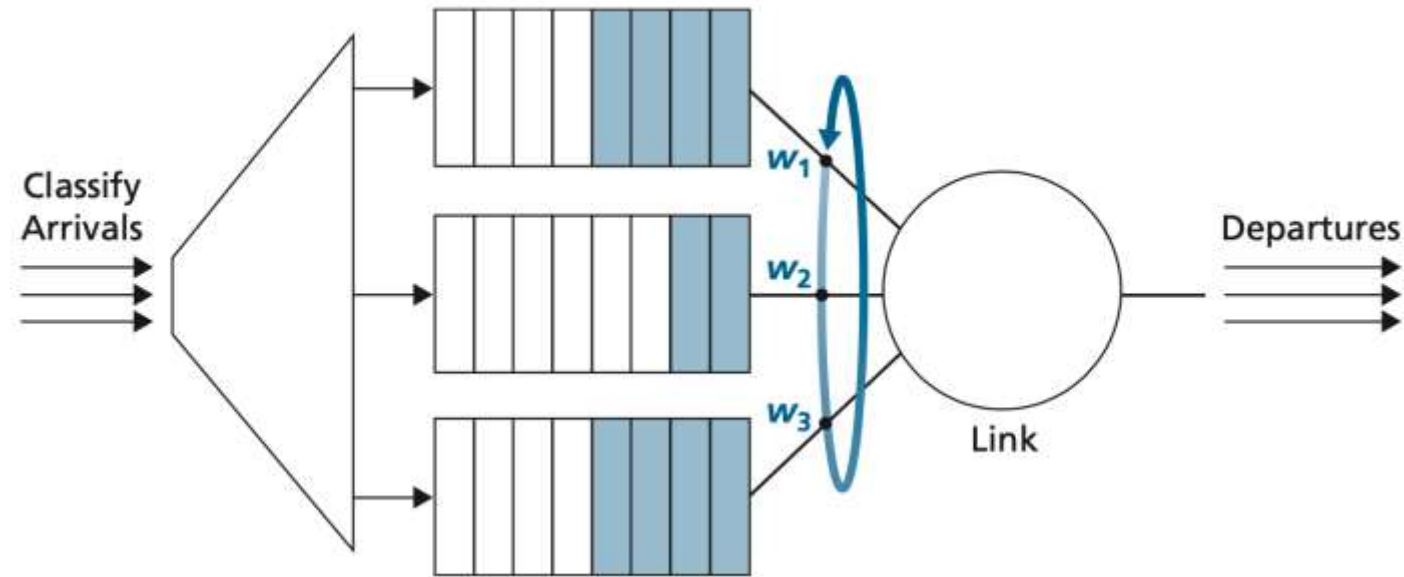
Scheduling policies: Round Robin

Round Robin (RR) scheduling:

- arriving traffic classified, queued by class
 - any header fields can be used for classification
- server cyclically, repeatedly scans class queues, sending one complete packet from each class (if available) in turn
- Link is never idle



Scheduling policies: weighted fair queueing



Weighted Fair Queueing (WFQ):

- generalized Round Robin
- each class, i , has weight, w_i , and gets weighted amount of service in each cycle:

$$\frac{w_i}{\sum_j w_j}$$

- minimum bandwidth guarantee (per-traffic-class)

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IP Datagram format

IP protocol version number. Different versions of IP use different datagram formats

header length(bytes)

“type” of service:

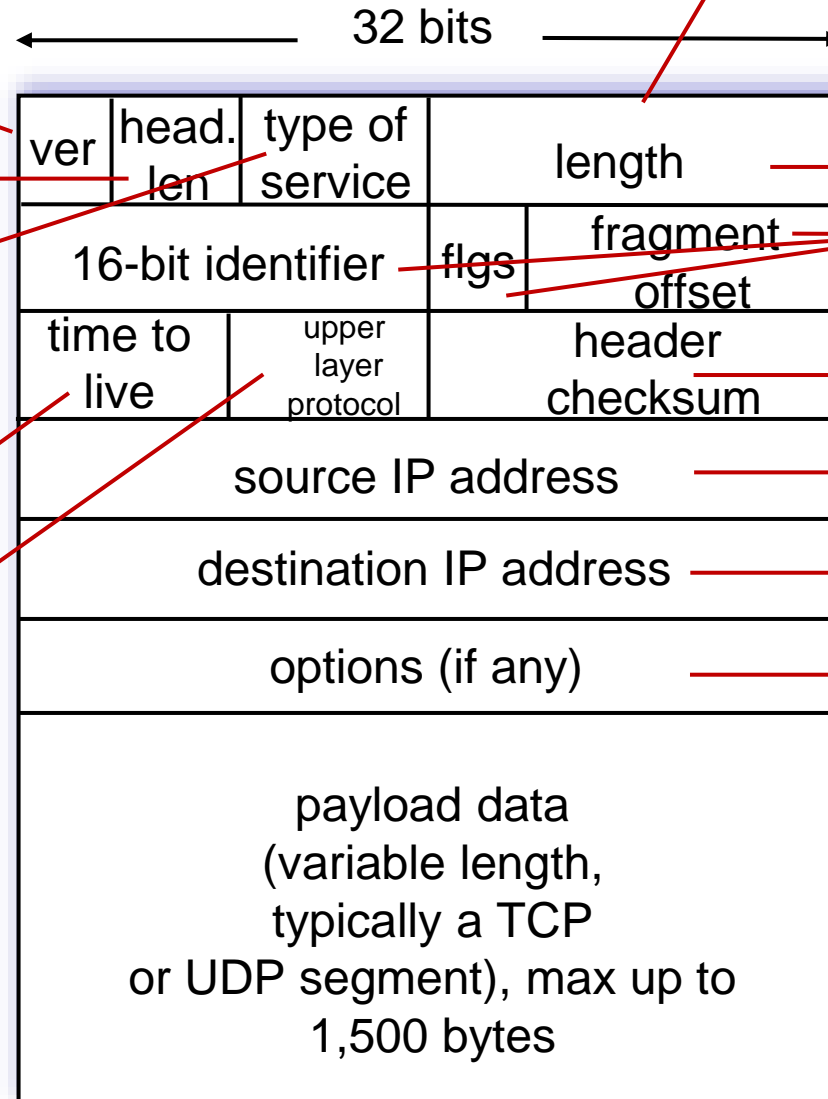
- Real time traffic - VOIP
- Non-real time traffic - FTP

TTL: remaining max hops (decremented at each router)

upper layer protocol (e.g., TCP value 6 or UDP value 17)

overhead

- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes + app layer overhead for TCP+IP



Maximum length:
16 bits long, max
size 65,535 bytes

total datagram
length (bytes)

fragmentation/
Reassembly, **only for IP v4**

header checksum

32-bit source IP address

32-bit destination IP address

e.g., timestamp, record
route taken

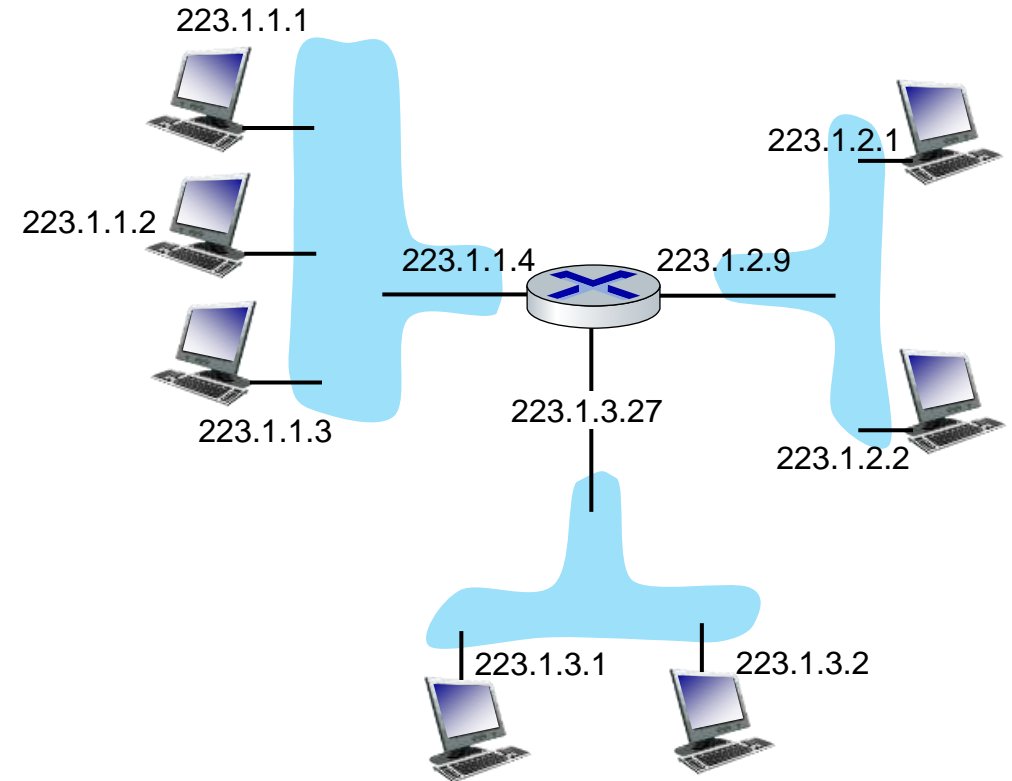
IP Datagram

- The protocol number is the glue that binds the network and transport layers together, whereas the port number is the glue that binds the transport and application layers together
- **Header checksum**: helps the router in detecting bit errors in a received IP datagram, aka Internet checksum. Router computes the header checksum for each IP datagram, router will discard the IP datagram with errors detected.

IP addressing: introduction

- **IP address:** 32-bit identifier associated with each host or router *interface*
- **interface:** connection between host/router and physical link
 - router's typically have multiple interfaces
 - host typically has one or two interfaces (e.g., wired Ethernet, wireless 802.11)

Thus, an IP address is technically associated with an interface, rather than with the host or router containing that interface.



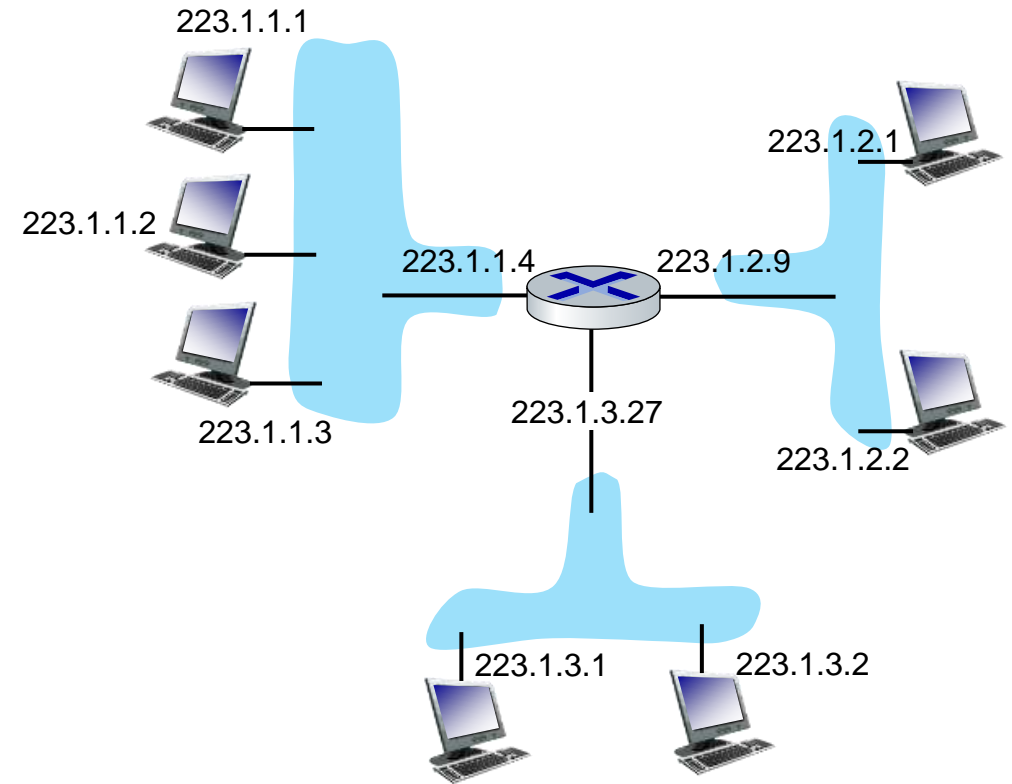
dotted-decimal IP address notation:

223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223 1 1 1

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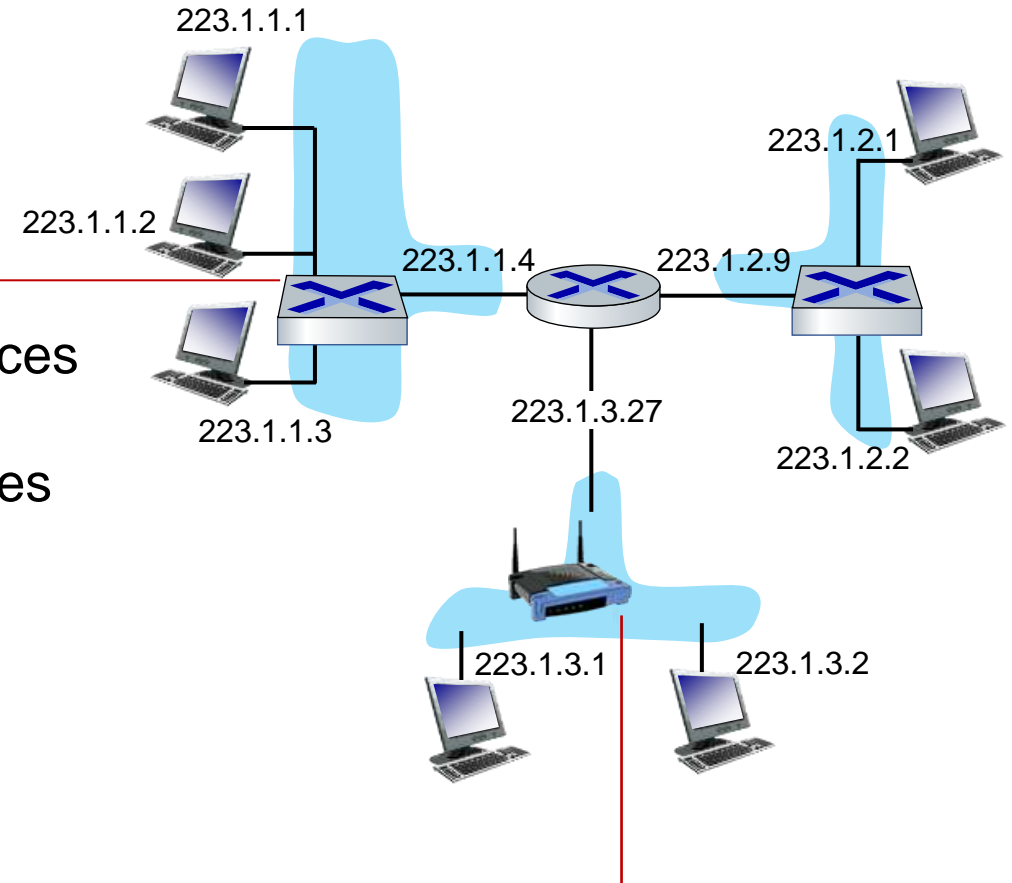
IP addressing: introduction

Q: how are interfaces actually connected?

A: we'll learn about that in chapters 6, 7

For now: don't need to worry about how one interface is connected to another (with no intervening router)

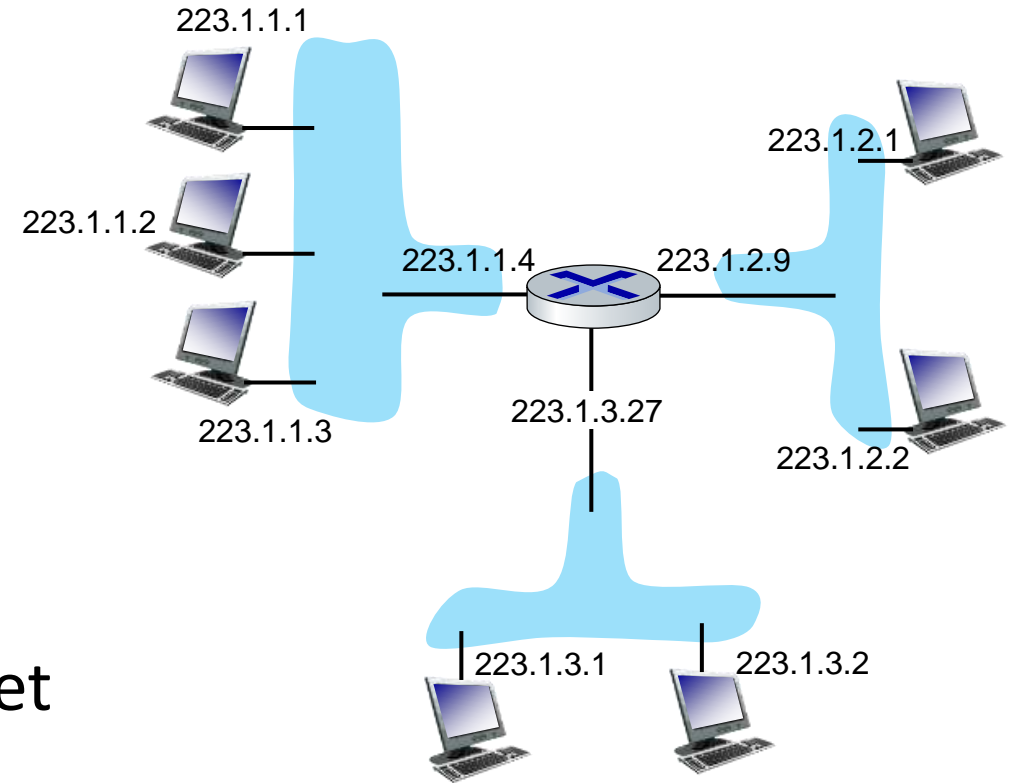
A: wired Ethernet interfaces connected by Ethernet switches



A: wireless WiFi interfaces connected by WiFi base station

Subnets

- *What's a subnet ?*
 - device interfaces that can physically reach each other **without passing through an intervening router**
- IP addresses have structure:
 - **subnet part:** devices in same subnet have common high order bits
 - **host part: remaining** low order bits

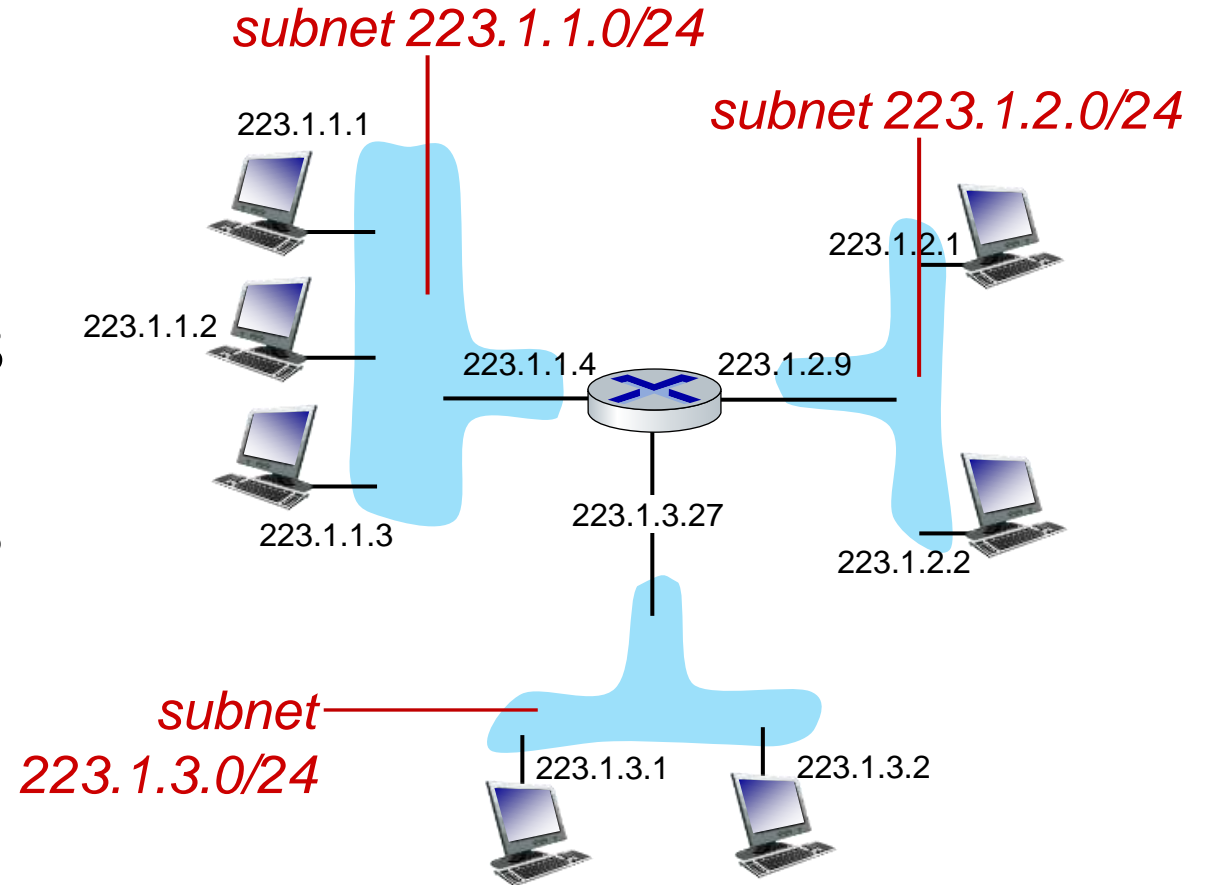


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

Recipe for defining subnets:

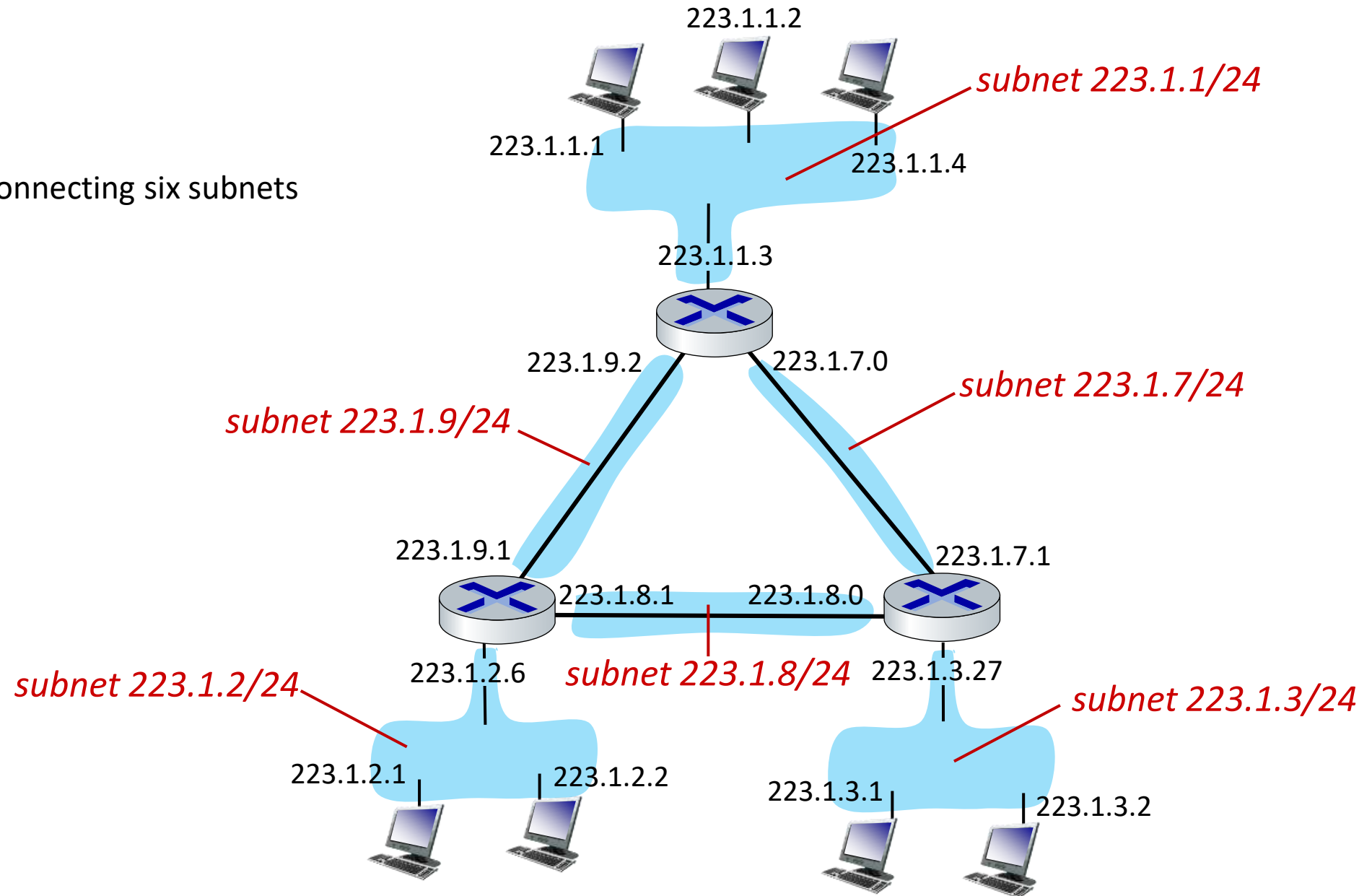
- detach each interface from its host or router, creating “islands” of isolated networks
- each isolated network is called a *subnet*



subnet mask: /24
(high-order 24 bits: subnet part of IP address)

Subnets

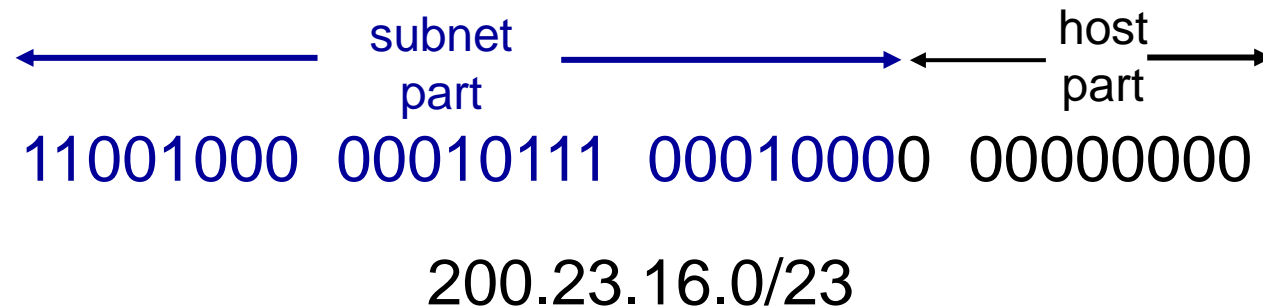
Three routers interconnecting six subnets



IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing (pronounced “cider”)

- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: **a.b.c.d/x**, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address



IP addresses: how to get one?

That's actually **two** questions:

1. Q: How does a *host* get IP address within its network (host part of address)?
2. Q: How does a *network* get IP address for itself (network part of address)

Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN)

- Also manages **DNS root services**
- Resolves disputes

How does *host* get IP address?

- hard-coded by sysadmin in config file (e.g., /etc/rc.config in UNIX)
- **DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol**: dynamically get address from as server

IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: how does *network* get subnet part of IP address?

A: gets allocated portion of its provider ISP's address space

ISP's block 11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000 200.23.16.0/20

ISP can then allocate out its address space in 8 blocks:

Organization 0	<u>11001000 00010111 00010000</u>	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	<u>11001000 00010111 00010010</u>	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	<u>11001000 00010111 00010100</u>	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
...
Organization 7	<u>11001000 00010111 00011110</u>	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

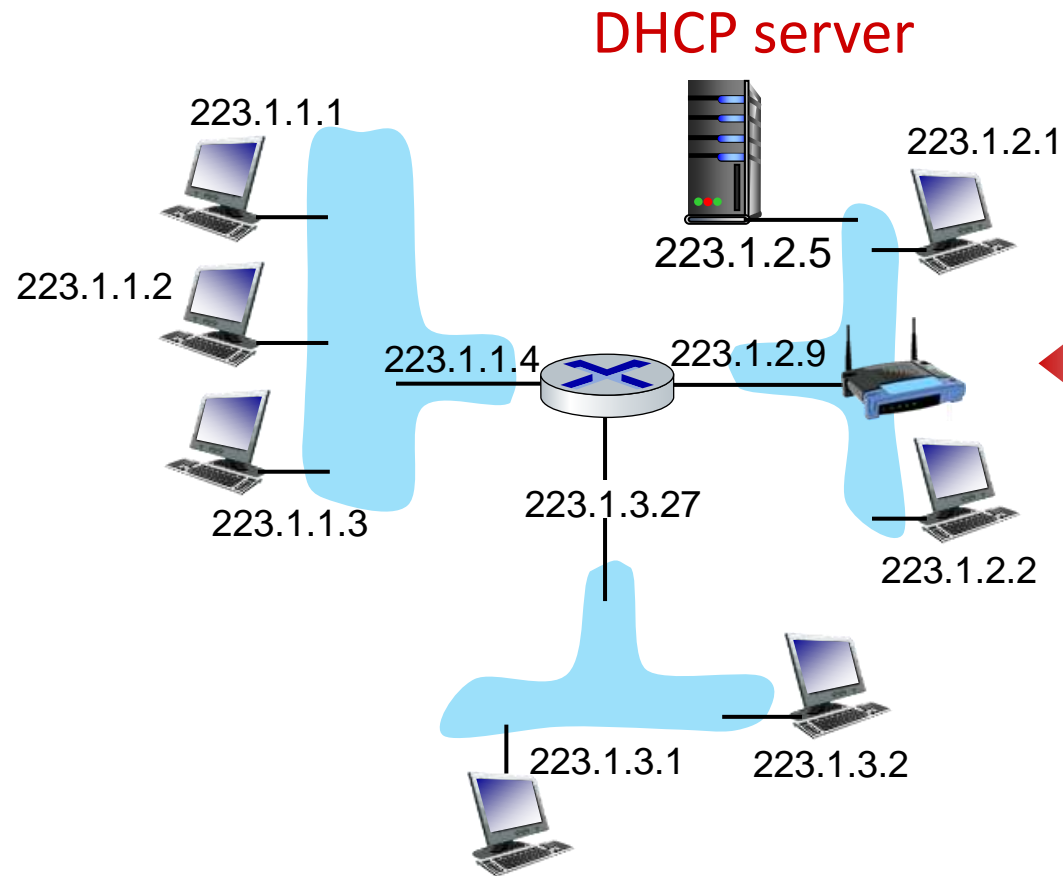
goal: host automatically obtains IP address from network server when it “joins” network

- Given host would have the same IP address or assigned a temporary IP address, which is different each time host connects to the network
- DHCP allows a host to learn additional information such as its subnet mask, the address of the first-hop router (default gateway), and local DNS server

DHCP:

- Automates the network related aspects of connecting a host into a network – referred as **plug-and-play** , or **zeroconf**
- Eliminates the need for a human to manually assign IP addresses to newly connected hosts
- **Client-Server protocol**

DHCP client-server scenario



Typically, DHCP server will be co-located in router, serving all subnets to which router is attached

arriving **DHCP client** needs address in this network

DHCP client-server scenario – 4 step (High level)

DHCP server: 223.1.2.5



DHCP discover

Broadcast: is there a
DHCP server out there?

Arriving client



DHCP offer

Broadcast: I'm a DHCP
server! Here's an IP
address you can use

DHCP request

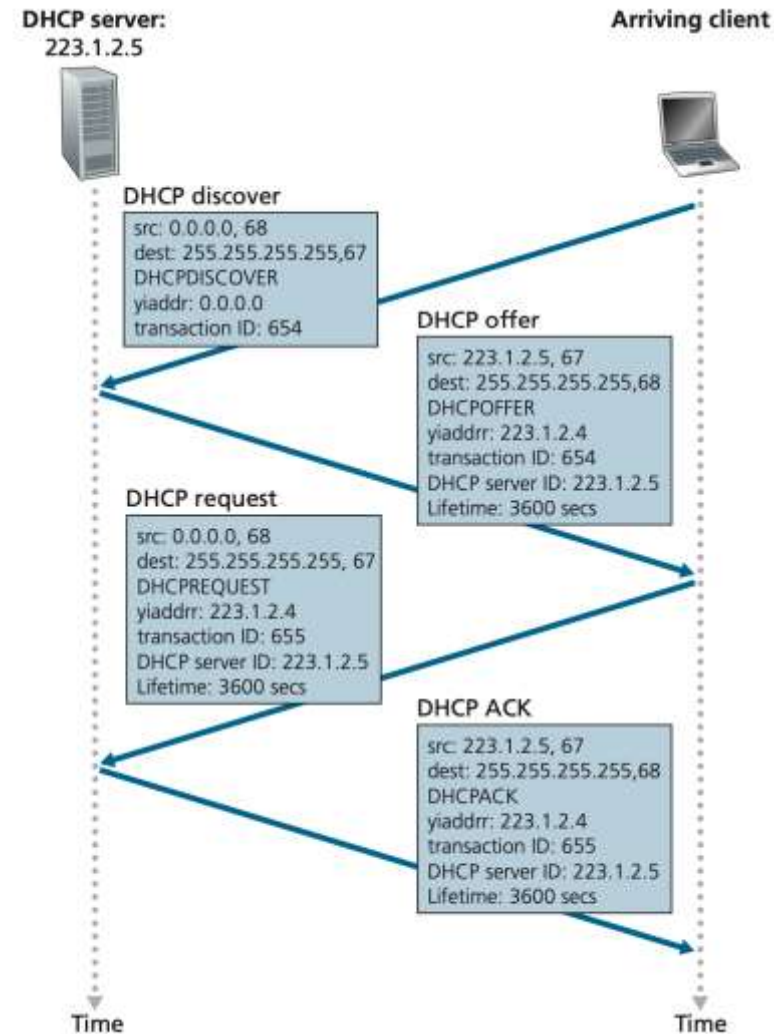
Broadcast: OK. I would
like to use this IP address!

DHCP ACK

Broadcast: OK. You've
got that IP address!

The two steps above can
be skipped "if a client
remembers and wishes to
reuse a previously
allocated network address"
[RFC 2131]

DHCP client-server scenario – 4 Step (technical)



DHCP client-server scenario – Step -1

- Step 1 – Discovery, find DHCP server. DHCP Discover Datagram using UDP packet port 67. Destination IP address in this datagram is 255.255.255.255, with source IP address 0.0.0.0
 - Why Datagram?
 - Why UDP and not TCP?
 - Why destination address 255.255.255.255
 - Why source address 0.0.0.0

DHCP client-server scenario – Step 2

- Step 2 – DHCP server – once receives discover datagram responds to the client with DHCP offer “message” which is broadcasted to all the nodes on the subnet using 255.255.255.255
- Why 255.255.255.255 again?
- Contents of the offer include: transaction ID, proposed IP address for the client, network mask, IP address lease time (amount of time for which the IP address will be valid several hours/days).

DHCP client-server scenario – Step 3 & 4

- Step 3 : DHCP Request – the new client will choose among the server offers and respond with **DHCP request “message”** (UDP datagram) with response with **echo** of the same parameters
- Step 4: DHCP ACK – server responds with DHCP **ACK “message”** with the confirmation to the client.

Once the client receives DHCP ACK from the new host, the interaction is complete, and can use DHCP-allocated IP address for the lease duration.

How does mobile phone retain the permanent IP addresses?

DHCP: more than IP addresses

DHCP can return more than just allocated IP address on subnet:

- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

IP addressing: last words ...

Q: how does an ISP get block of addresses?

A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers
<http://www.icann.org/>

- allocates IP addresses, through 5 regional registries (RRs) (who may then allocate to local registries)
- manages DNS root zone, including delegation of individual TLD (.com, .edu , ...) management

Q: are there enough 32-bit IP addresses?

- ICANN allocated last chunk of IPv4 addresses to RRs in 2011
- NAT (next) helps IPv4 address space exhaustion
- IPv6 has 128-bit address space

"Who the hell knew how much address space we needed?" Vint Cerf (reflecting on decision to make IPv4 address 32 bits long)

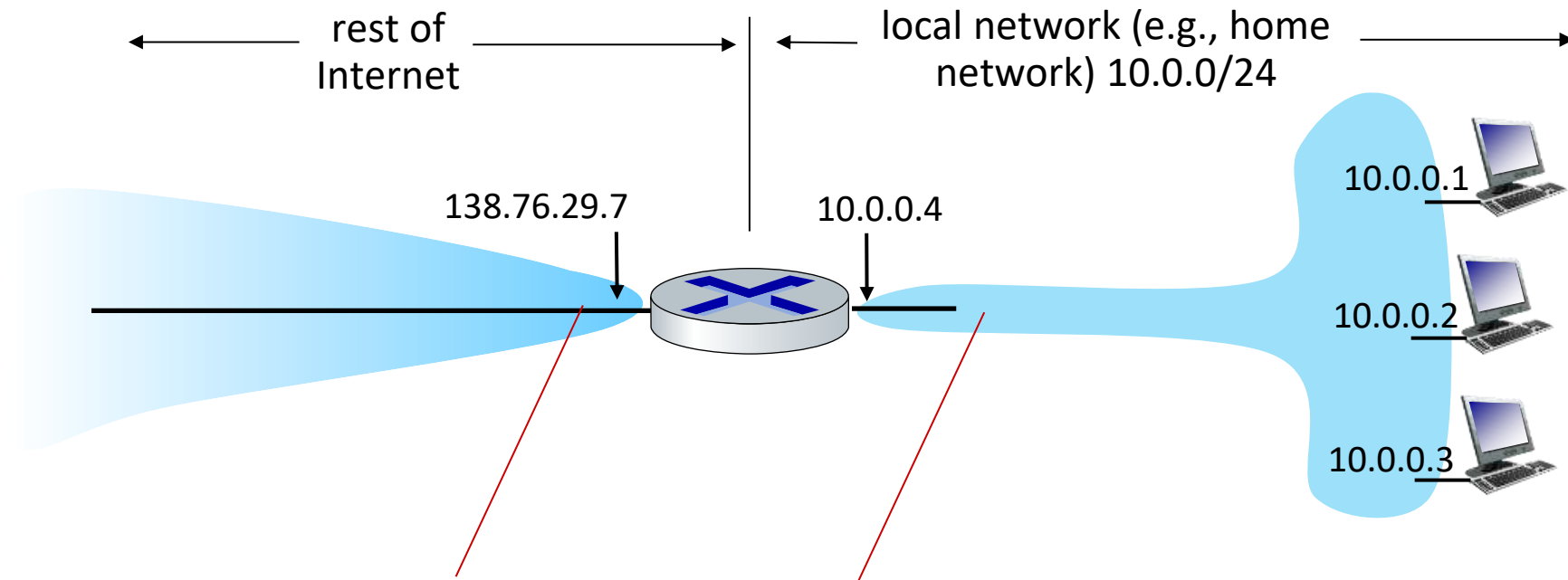
Network layer: “data plane” roadmap

- Network layer: overview
 - data plane
 - control plane
- What’s inside a router
 - input ports, switching, output ports
 - buffer management, scheduling
- IP: the Internet Protocol
 - datagram format
 - addressing
 - network address translation
 - IPv6
- Generalized Forwarding, SDN
 - match+action
 - OpenFlow: match+action in action
- Middleboxes



NAT: network address translation

NAT: all devices in local network share just **one** IPv4 address as far as outside world is concerned



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, but *different* source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

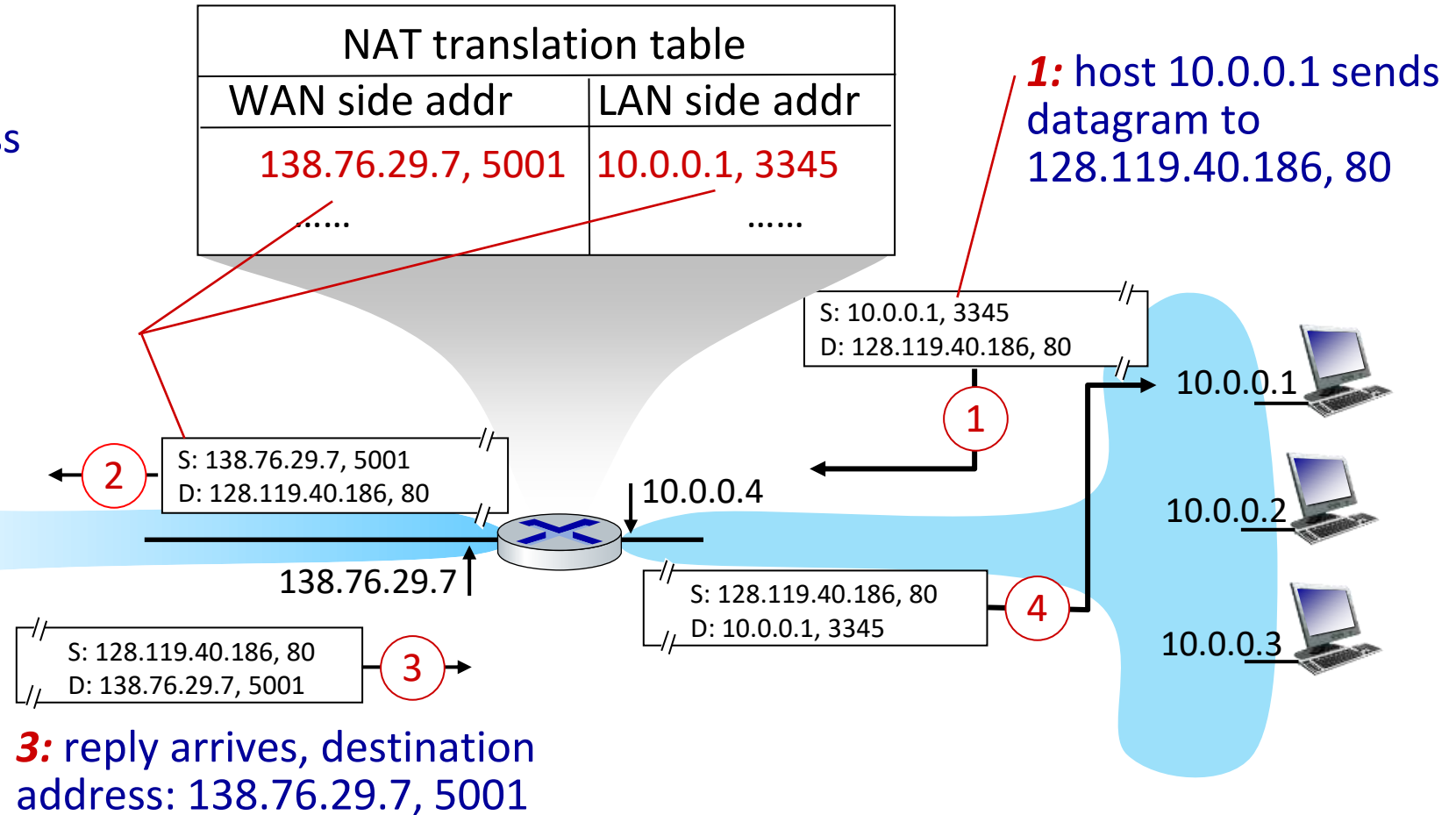
NAT: network address translation

implementation: NAT router must (transparently):

- **outgoing datagrams: replace** (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)
 - remote clients/servers will respond using (NAT IP address, new port #) as destination address
- **remember (in NAT translation table)** every (source IP address, port #) to (NAT IP address, new port #) translation pair
- **incoming datagrams: replace** (NAT IP address, new port #) in destination fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT Router: network address translation

2: NAT router changes datagram source address from 10.0.0.1, 3345 to 138.76.29.7, 5001, updates table



NAT: network address translation

- advantages:
 - just **one** IP address needed from provider ISP for *all* devices
 - can change addresses of host in local network without notifying outside world
 - can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
 - security: devices inside local net not directly addressable, visible by outside world

NAT: network address translation

- NAT has been controversial:
 - routers “should” only process up to layer 3
 - address “shortage” should be solved by IPv6
 - violates end-to-end argument (port # manipulation by network-layer device)
 - NAT traversal: what if client wants to connect to server behind NAT?
- but NAT is here to stay:
 - extensively used in home and institutional nets, 4G/5G cellular nets

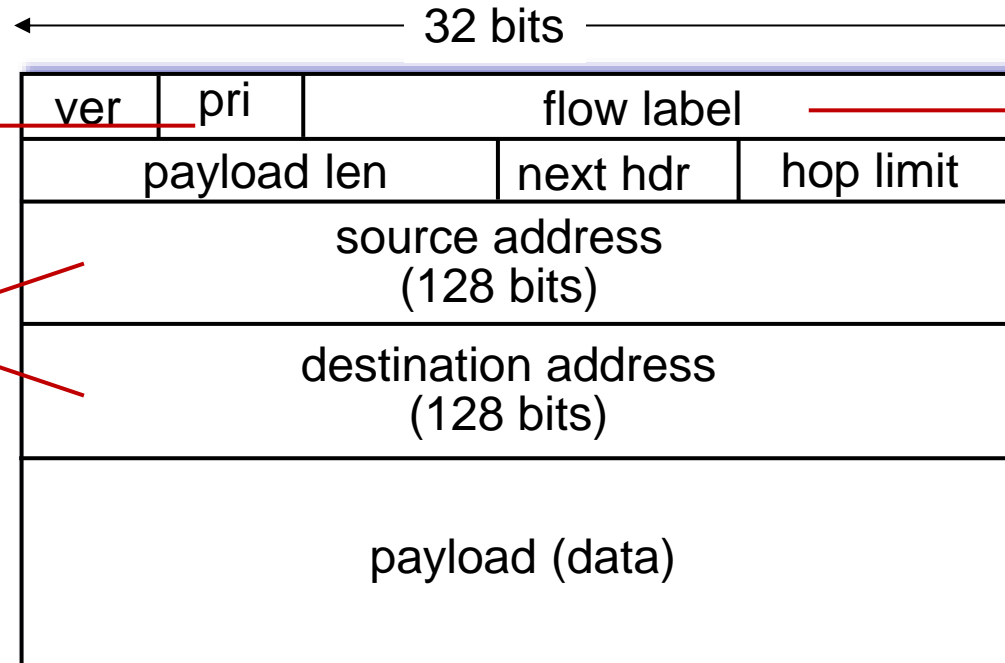
IPv6: motivation

- **initial motivation:** 32-bit IPv4 address space would be completely allocated
- additional motivation:
 - speed processing/forwarding: 40-byte fixed length header
 - enable different network-layer treatment of “flows”

IPv6 datagram format

Traffic class or priority:
identify priority among
datagrams in flow

128-bit
IPv6 addresses



flow label: identify
datagrams in same
"flow." (concept of
"flow" not well defined).

What's missing (compared with IPv4):

- no checksum (to speed processing at routers), also, the need is reduced due to no fragmentation
- no fragmentation/reassembly at the intermediate routers (only at source and destination)
- no options (available as upper-layer, next-header protocol at router)

IPv6 datagram format

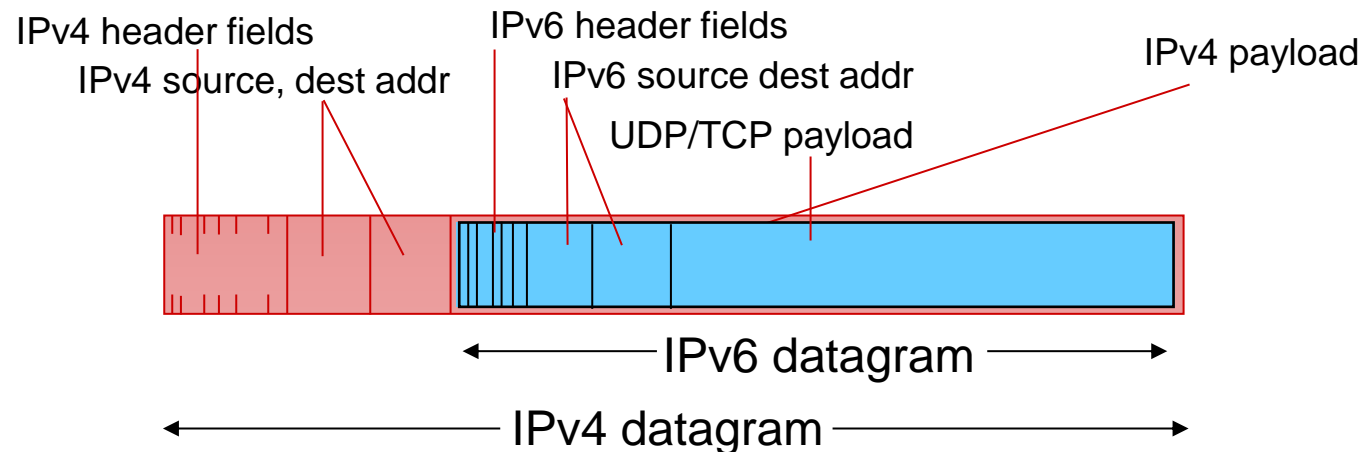
- IPv6 datagram is more streamlined in comparison with IPv4 datagram
- Version. This 4-bit field identifies the IP version number. Not surprisingly, IPv6 carries a value of 6 in this field.
- Traffic class. The 8-bit traffic class field, like the TOS field in IPv4, can be used to give priority to certain datagrams within a flow, or it can be used to give priority to datagrams from certain applications (for example, voice-over-IP) over datagrams from other applications (for example, SMTP e-mail).
- Flow label. As discussed above, this 20-bit field is used to identify a flow of datagrams.
- Payload length. This 16-bit value is treated as an unsigned integer giving the number of bytes in the IPv6 datagram following the fixed-length, 40-byte data-gram header.

IPv6 datagram format

- Next header. This field identifies the protocol to which the contents (data field) of this datagram will be delivered (for example, to TCP or UDP). The field uses the same values as the protocol field in the IPv4 header.
- Hop limit. The contents of this field are decremented by one by each router that forwards the datagram. If the hop limit count reaches zero, a router must discard that datagram.
- Source and destination addresses. The various formats of the IPv6 128-bit address are described in RFC 4291.
- Data. This is the payload portion of the IPv6 datagram. When the datagram reaches its destination, the payload will be removed from the IP datagram and passed on to the protocol specified in the next header field.

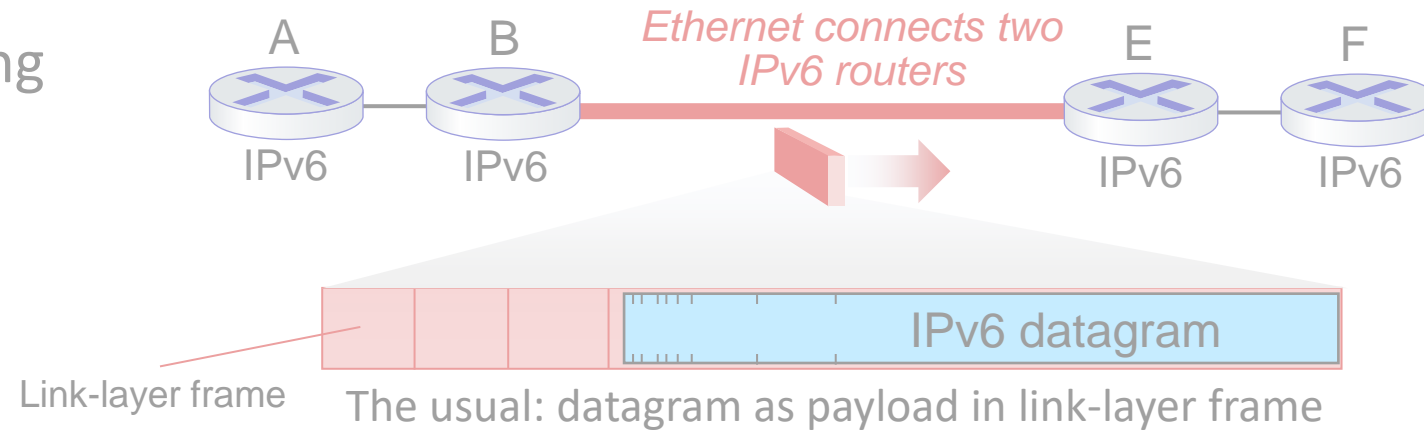
Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
 - no “flag days”
 - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- **tunneling**: IPv6 datagram carried as *payload* in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers (“packet within a packet”)
 - tunneling used extensively in other contexts (4G/5G)

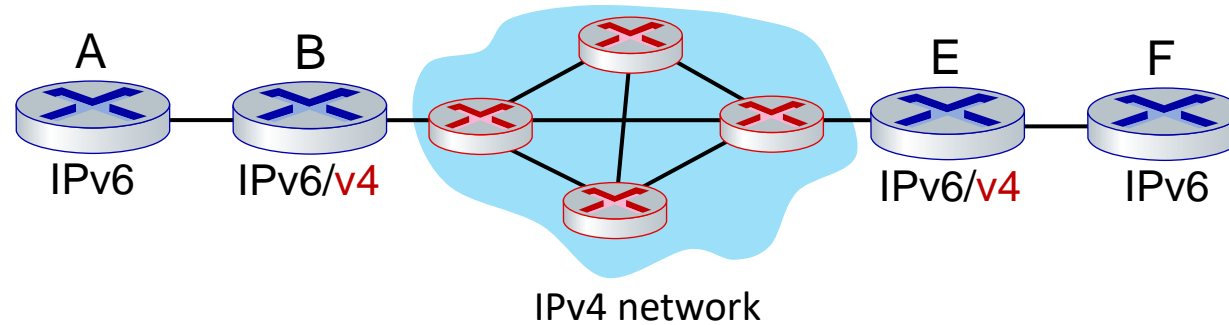


Tunneling and encapsulation

Ethernet connecting two IPv6 routers:

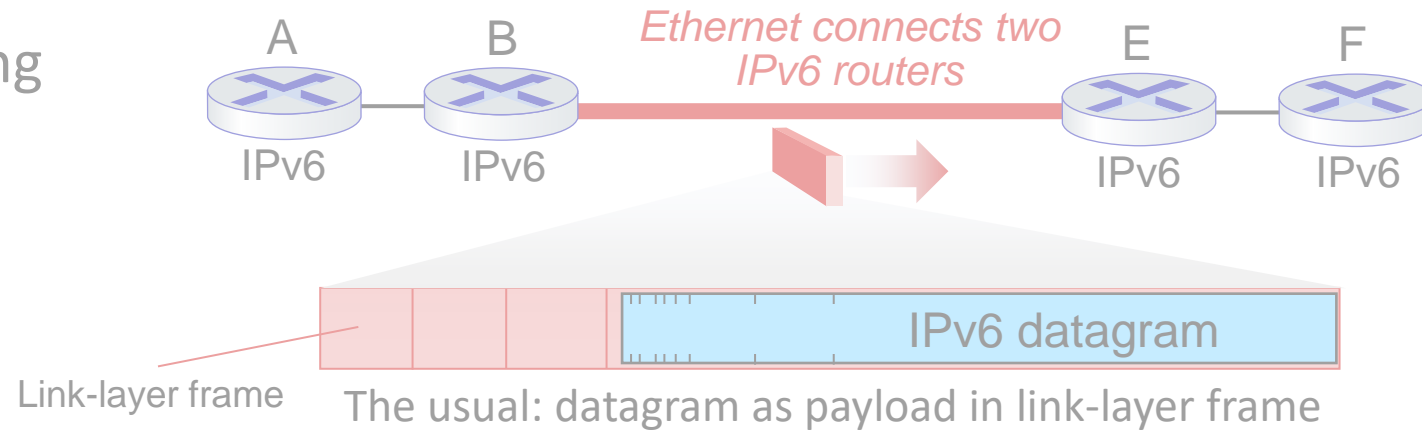


IPv4 network connecting two IPv6 routers

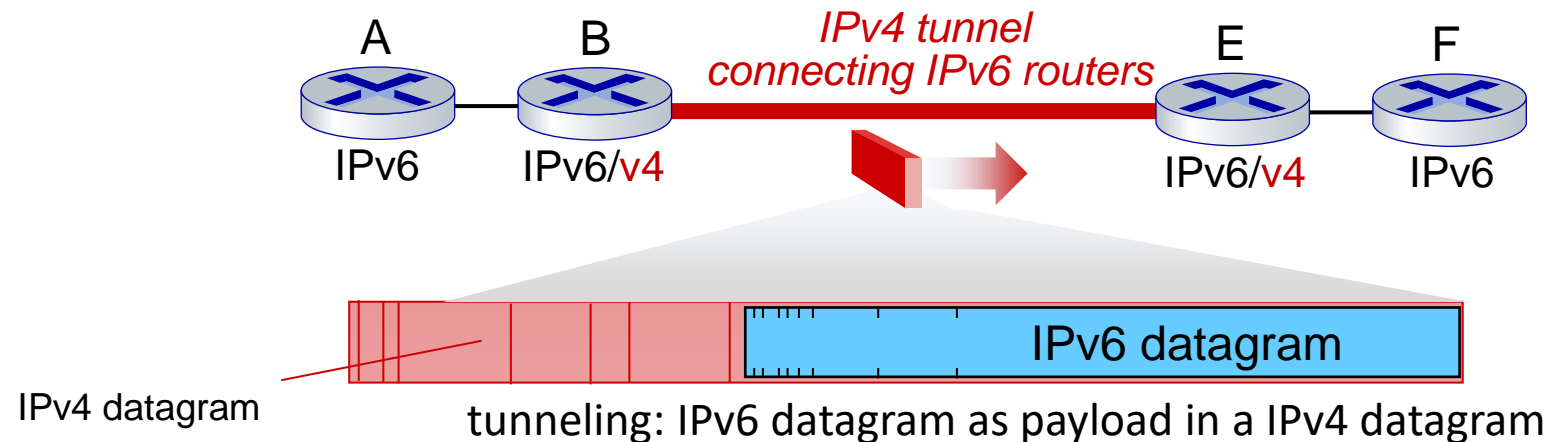


Tunneling and encapsulation

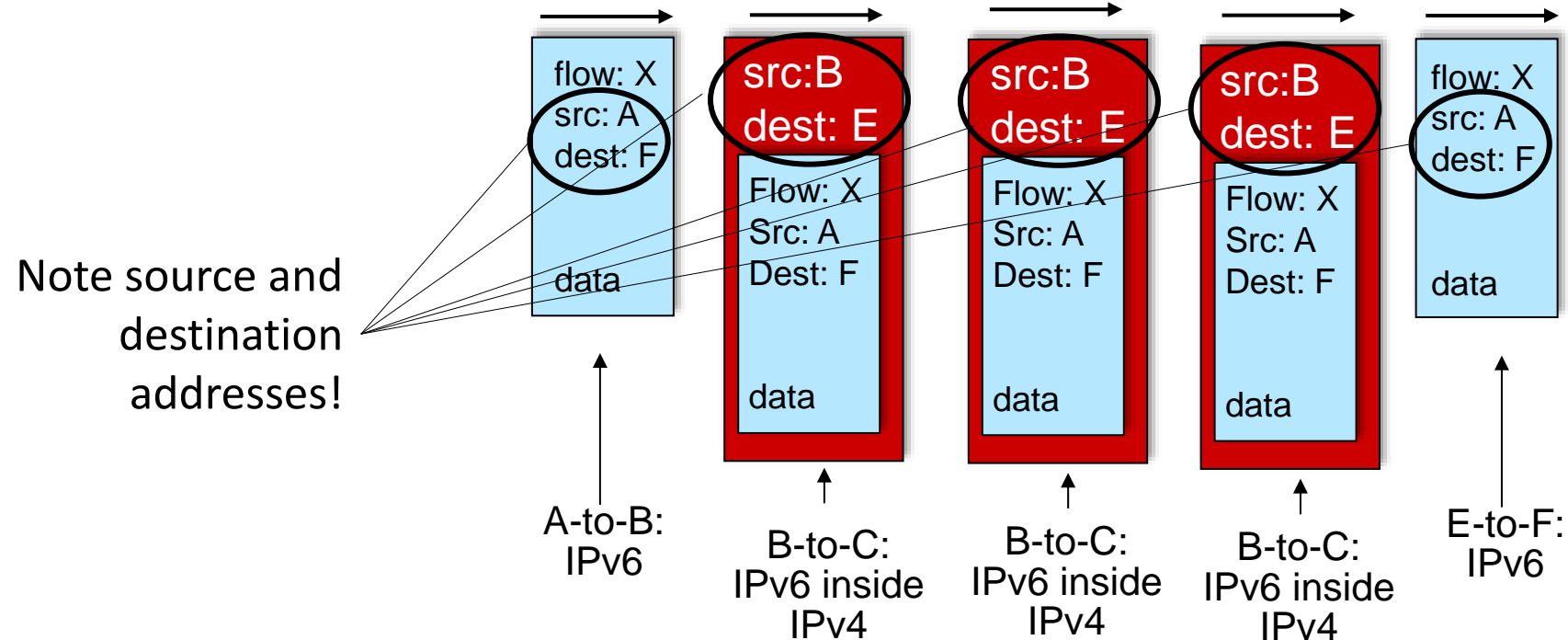
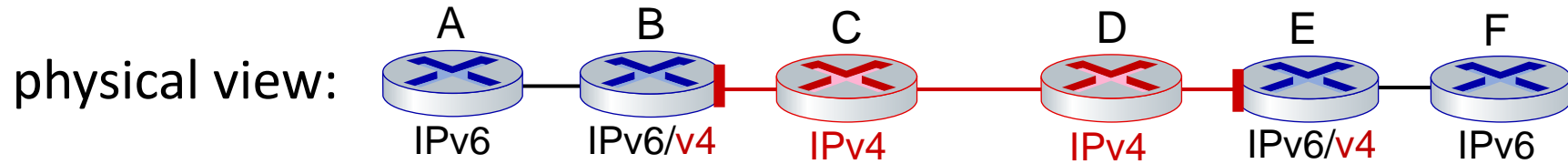
Ethernet connecting two IPv6 routers:



IPv4 tunnel connecting two IPv6 routers



Tunneling



IPv6: adoption

- Google¹: ~ 40% of clients access services via IPv6 (2023)
- NIST: 1/3 of all US government domains are IPv6 capable



~36% as of October 2023

Network layer: “data plane” roadmap

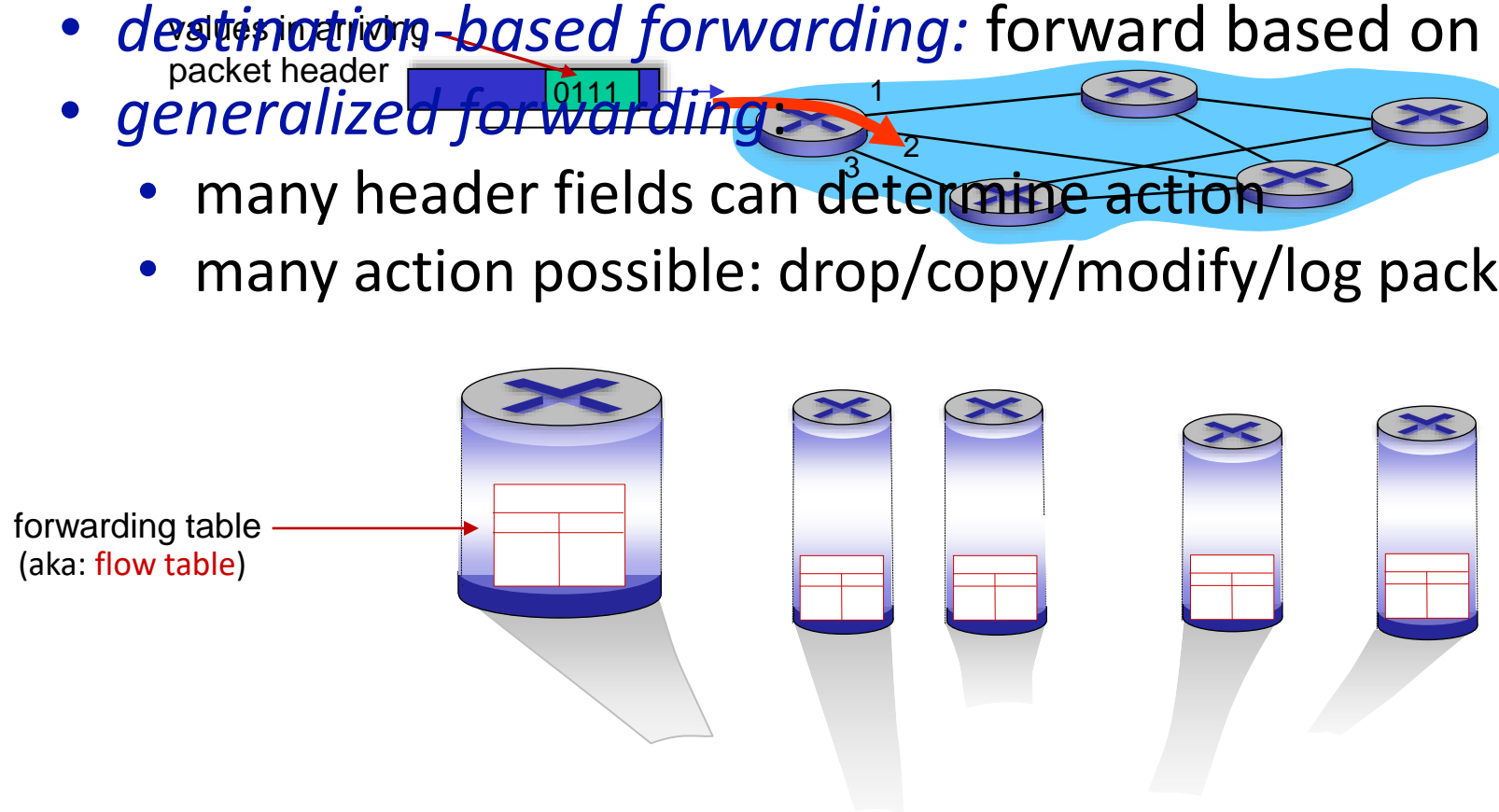
- Network layer: overview
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 - control plane
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 - Match+action
 - OpenFlow: match+action in action
- Middleboxes



Generalized forwarding: match plus action

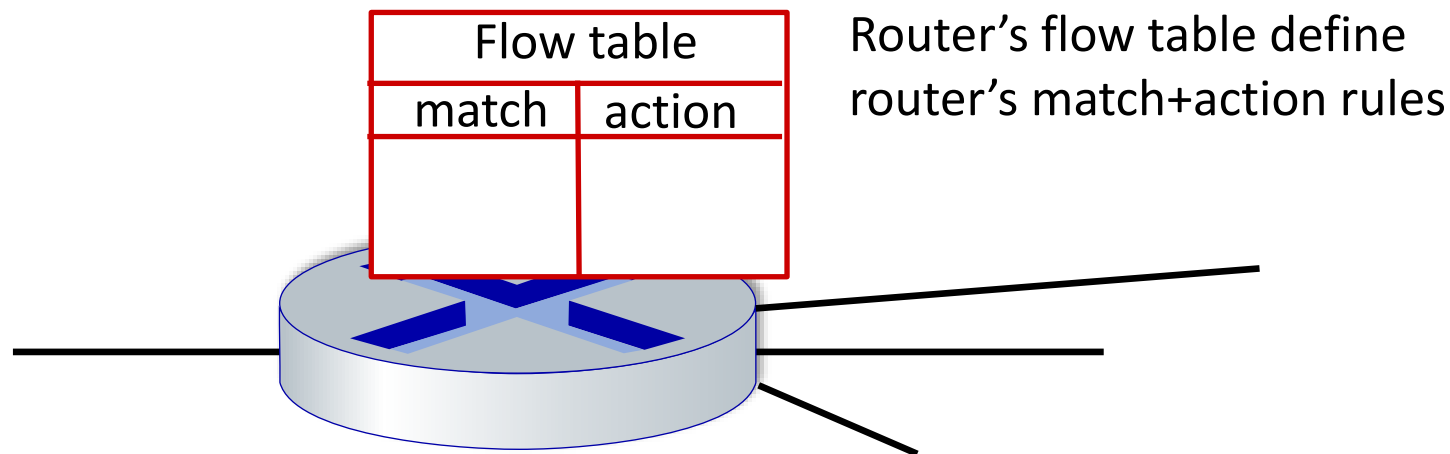
Review: each router contains a **forwarding table** (aka: **flow table**)

- “**match plus action**” abstraction: match bits in arriving packet, take action
 - *destination-based forwarding*: forward based on dest. IP address
 - *generalized forwarding*:
 - many header fields can determine action
 - many action possible: drop/copy/modify/log packet



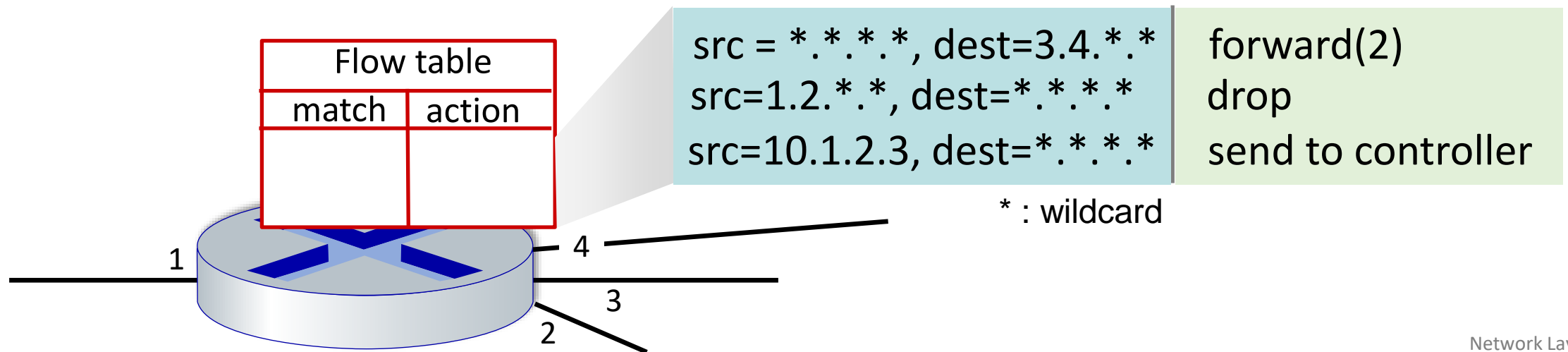
Flow table abstraction

- **flow**: defined by header field values (in link-, network-, transport-layer fields)
- **generalized forwarding**: simple packet-handling rules
 - **match**: pattern values in packet header fields
 - **actions**: for matched packet: drop, forward, modify, matched packet or send matched packet to controller
 - **priority**: disambiguate overlapping patterns
 - **counters**: #bytes and #packets

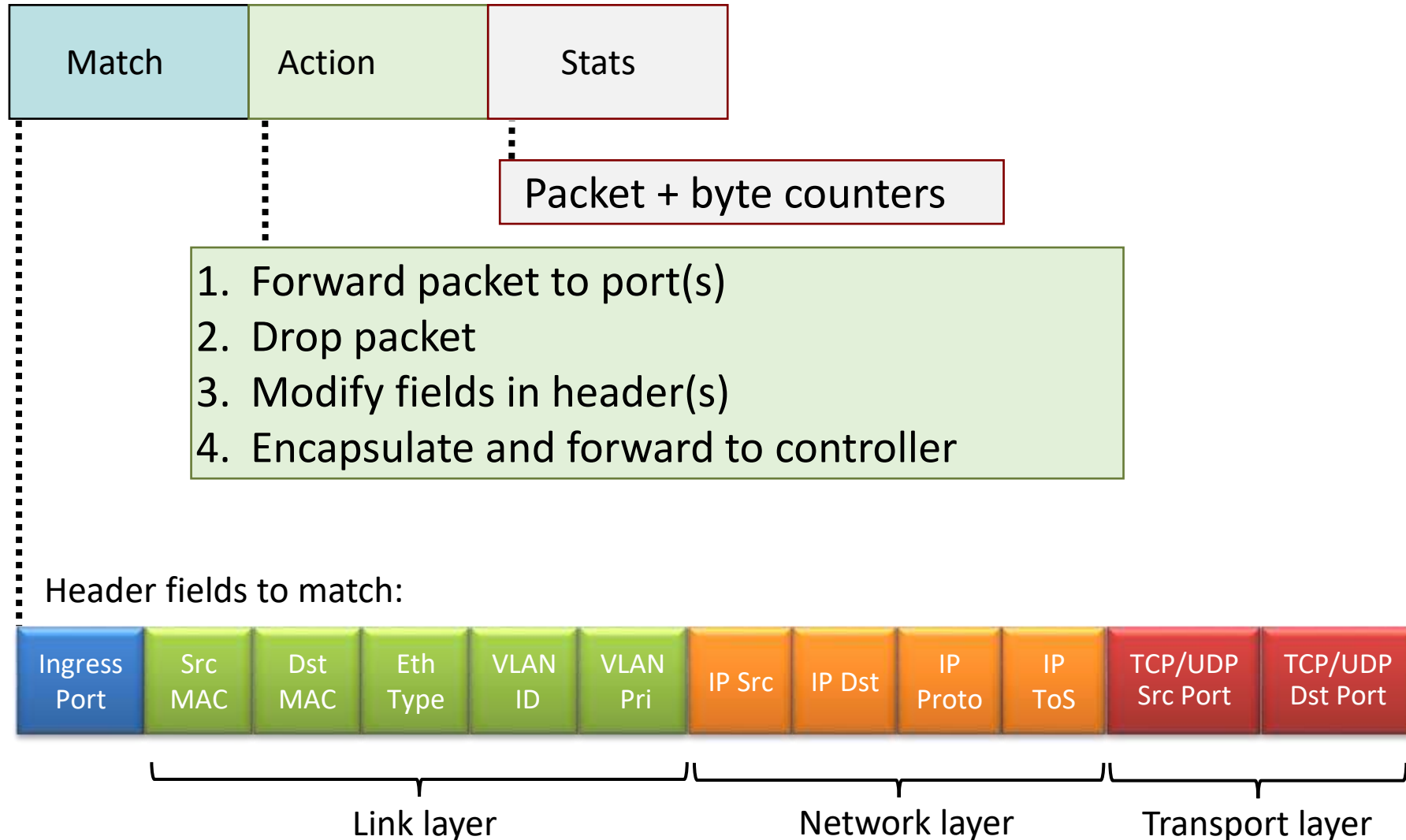


Flow table abstraction

- **flow**: defined by header fields
- **generalized forwarding: simple** packet-handling rules
 - **match**: pattern values in packet header fields
 - **actions**: for matched packet: drop, forward, modify, matched packet or send matched packet to controller
 - **priority**: disambiguate overlapping patterns
 - **counters**: #bytes and #packets



OpenFlow: flow table entries



OpenFlow: examples

Destination-based forwarding:

Switch Port	MAC src	MAC dst	Eth type	VLAN ID	VLAN Pri	IP Src	IP Dst	IP Prot	IP ToS	TCP s-port	TCP d-port	Action
*	*	*	*	*	*	*	51.6.0.8	*	*	*	*	port6

IP datagrams destined to IP address 51.6.0.8 should be forwarded to router output port 6

Firewall:

Switch Port	MAC src	MAC dst	Eth type	VLAN ID	VLAN Pri	IP Src	IP Dst	IP Prot	IP ToS	TCP s-port	TCP d-port	Action
*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	22	drop

Block (do not forward) all datagrams destined to TCP port 22 (ssh port #)

Switch Port	MAC src	MAC dst	Eth type	VLAN ID	VLAN Pri	IP Src	IP Dst	IP Prot	IP ToS	TCP s-port	TCP d-port	Action
*	*	*	*	*	*	128.119.1.1	*	*	*	*	*	drop

Block (do not forward) all datagrams sent by host 128.119.1.1

OpenFlow: examples

Layer 2 destination-based forwarding:

Switch Port	MAC src	MAC dst	Eth type	VLAN ID	VLAN Pri	IP Src	IP Dst	IP Prot	IP ToS	TCP s-port	TCP d-port	Action
*	*	22:A7:23: 11:E1:02	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	port3

layer 2 frames with destination MAC address 22:A7:23:11:E1:02 should be forwarded to output port 3

OpenFlow abstraction

- **match+action**: abstraction unifies different kinds of devices

Router

- *match*: longest destination IP prefix
- *action*: forward out a link

Switch

- *match*: destination MAC address
- *action*: forward or flood

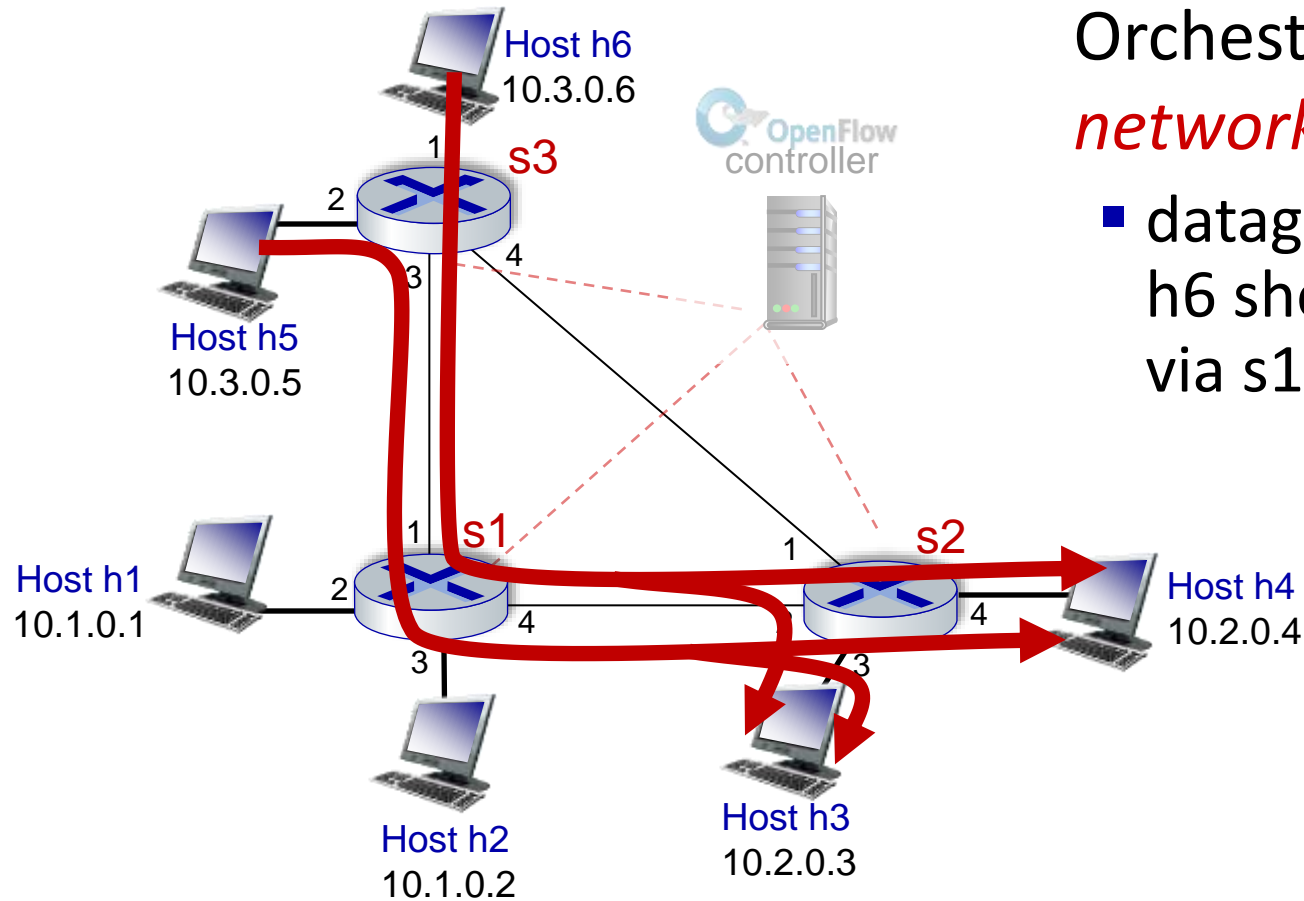
Firewall

- *match*: IP addresses and TCP/UDP port numbers
- *action*: permit or deny

NAT

- *match*: IP address and port
- *action*: rewrite address and port

OpenFlow example

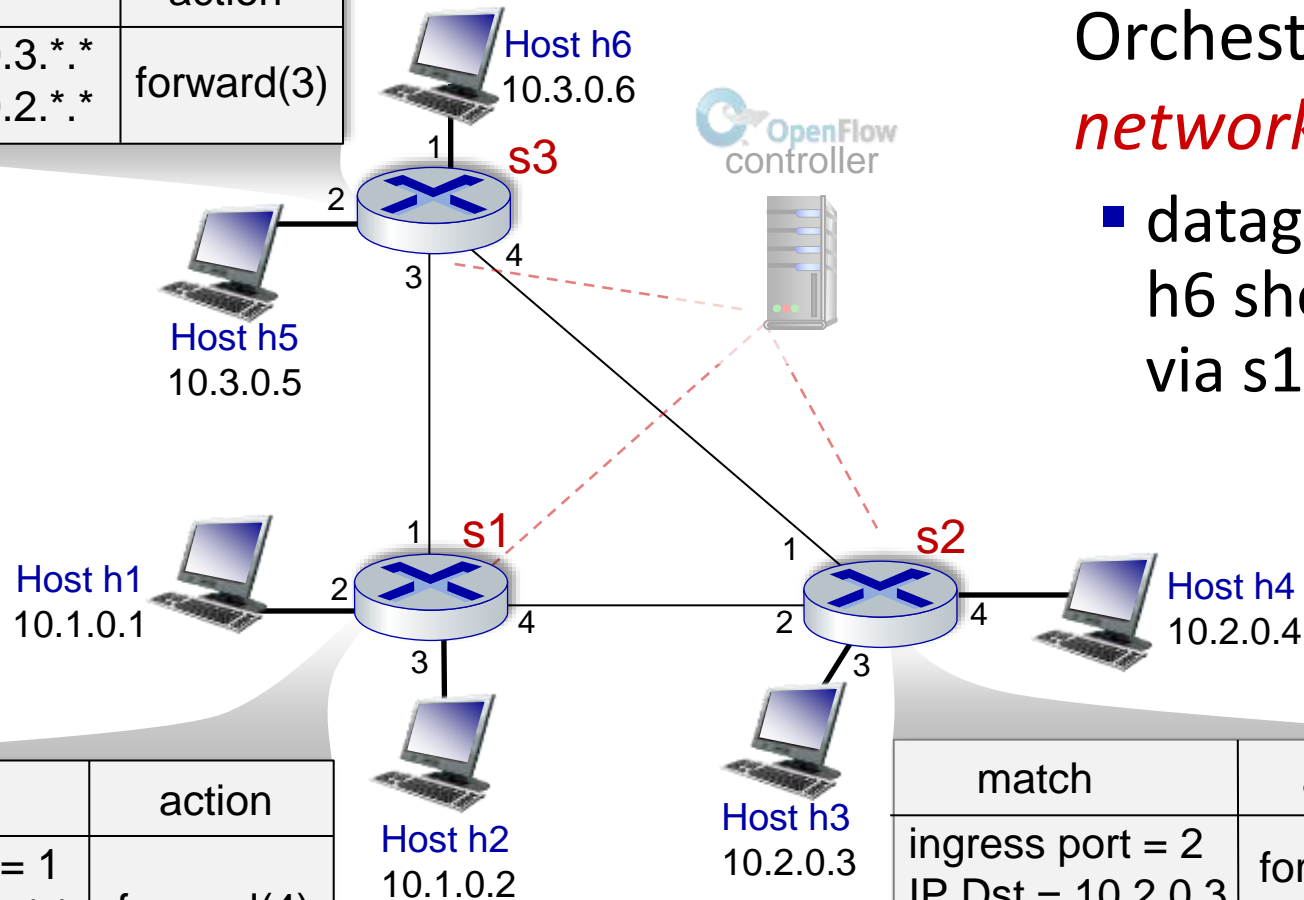


Orchestrated tables can create *network-wide* behavior, e.g.,:

- datagrams from hosts h5 and h6 should be sent to h3 or h4, via s1 and from there to s2

OpenFlow example

match	action
IP Src = 10.3.*.* IP Dst = 10.2.*.*	forward(3)



match	action
ingress port = 1 IP Src = 10.3.*.* IP Dst = 10.2.*.*	forward(4)

match	action
ingress port = 2 IP Dst = 10.2.0.3	forward(3)
ingress port = 2 IP Dst = 10.2.0.4	forward(4)

Orchestrated tables can create *network-wide* behavior, e.g.,:

- datagrams from hosts h5 and h6 should be sent to h3 or h4, via s1 and from there to s2

Generalized forwarding: summary

- “match plus action” abstraction: match bits in arriving packet header(s) in any layers, take action
 - matching over many fields (link-, network-, transport-layer)
 - local actions: drop, forward, modify, or send matched packet to controller
 - “program” *network-wide* behaviors
- simple form of “network programmability”
 - programmable, per-packet “processing”
 - *historical roots*: active networking
 - *today*: more generalized programming: P4 (see p4.org).

Network layer: “data plane” roadmap

- Network layer: overview
- What’s inside a router
- IP: the Internet Protocol
- Generalized Forwarding
- **Middleboxes**
 - middlebox functions
 - evolution, architectural principles of the Internet



Middleboxes

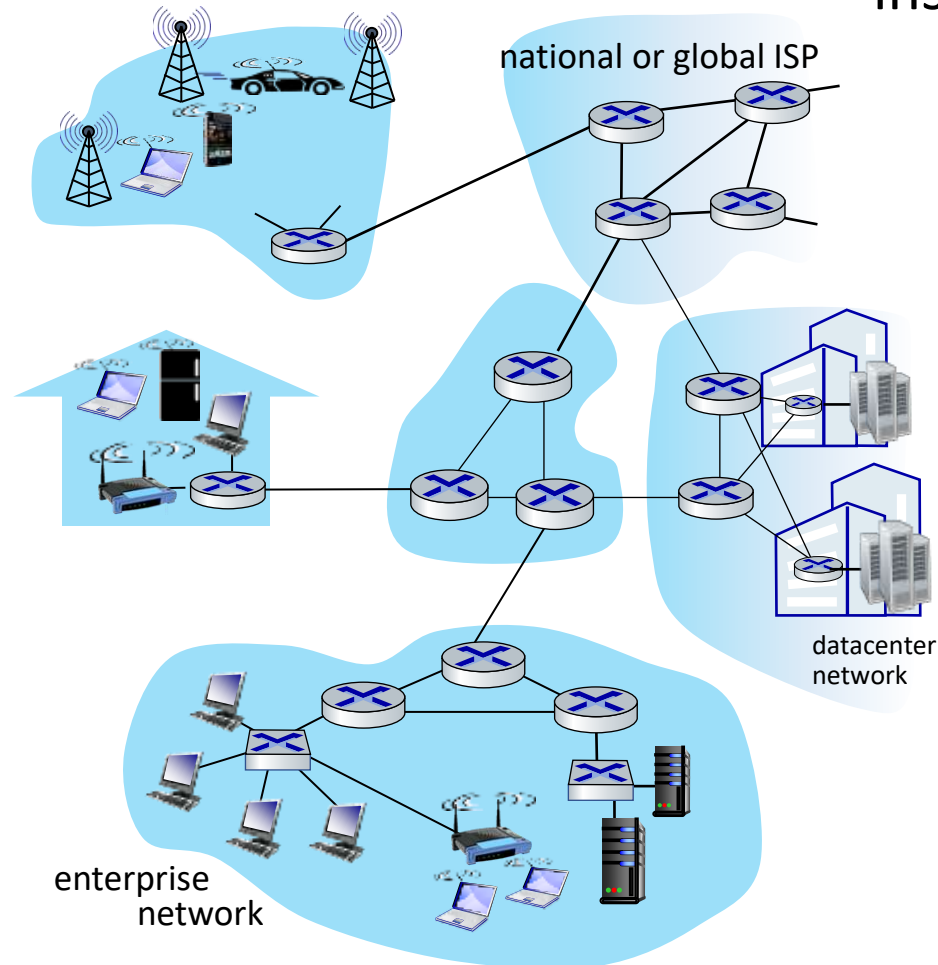
Middlebox (RFC 3234)

“any intermediary box performing functions apart from normal, standard functions of an IP router on the data path between a source host and destination host”

Middleboxes everywhere!

NAT: home,
cellular,
institutional

Application-specific: service
providers,
institutional,
CDN



Firewalls, IDS: corporate,
institutional, service providers,
ISPs

Load balancers:
corporate, service
provider, data center,
mobile nets

Caches: service
provider, mobile, CDNs

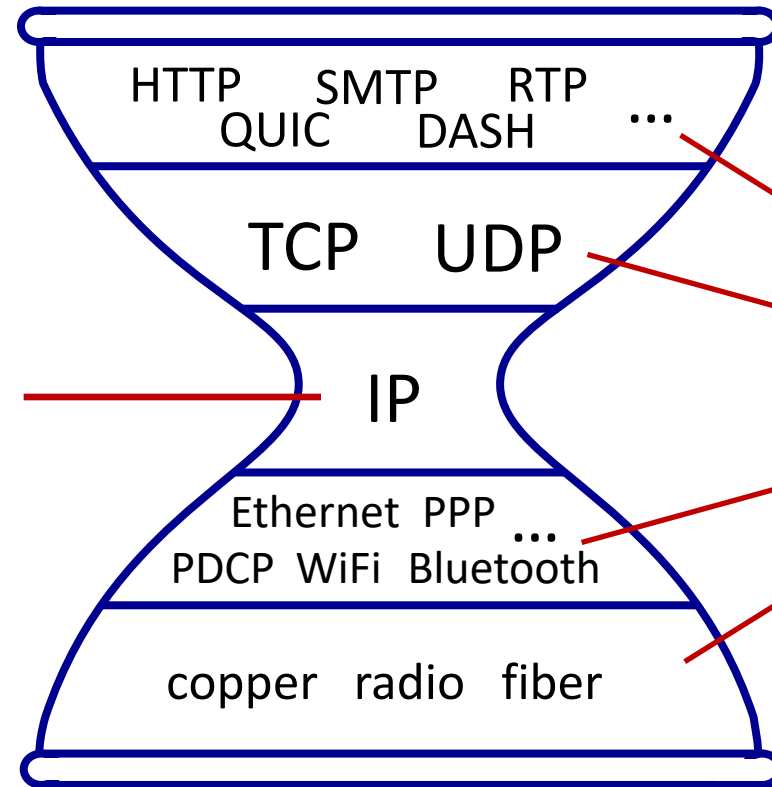
Middleboxes

- initially: proprietary (closed) hardware solutions
- move towards “whitebox” hardware implementing open API
 - move away from proprietary hardware solutions
 - programmable local actions via match+action
 - move towards innovation/differentiation in software
- SDN: (logically) centralized control and configuration management often in private/public cloud
- network functions virtualization (NFV): programmable services over white box networking, computation, storage

The IP hourglass

Internet's "thin waist":

- *one* network layer protocol: IP
- *must* be implemented by every (billions) of Internet-connected devices

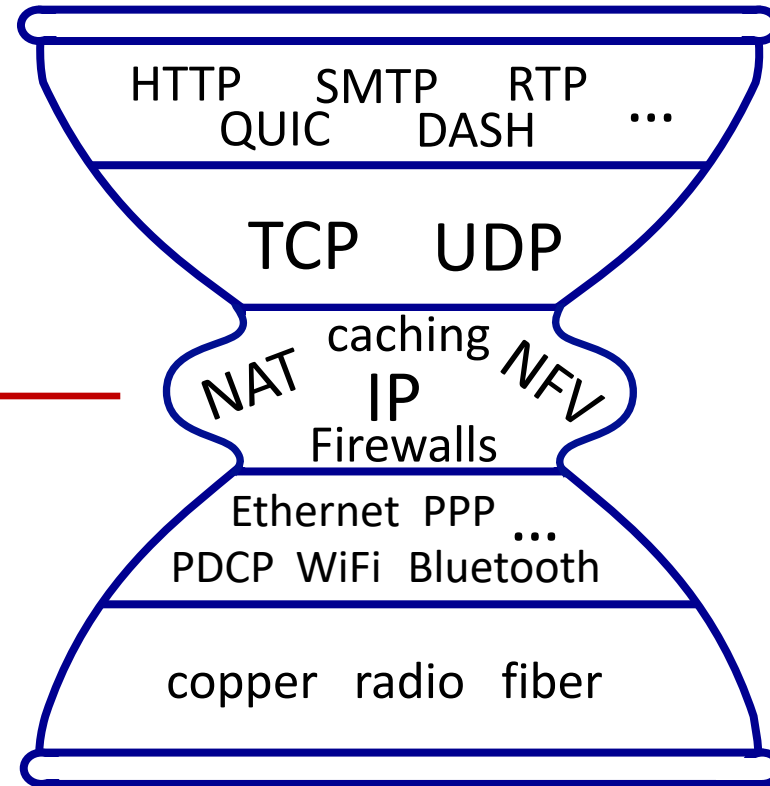


many protocols in physical, link, transport, and application layers

The IP hourglass, at middle age

Internet's middle age
"love handles"?

- middleboxes, — operating inside the network



Architectural Principles of the Internet

RFC 1958

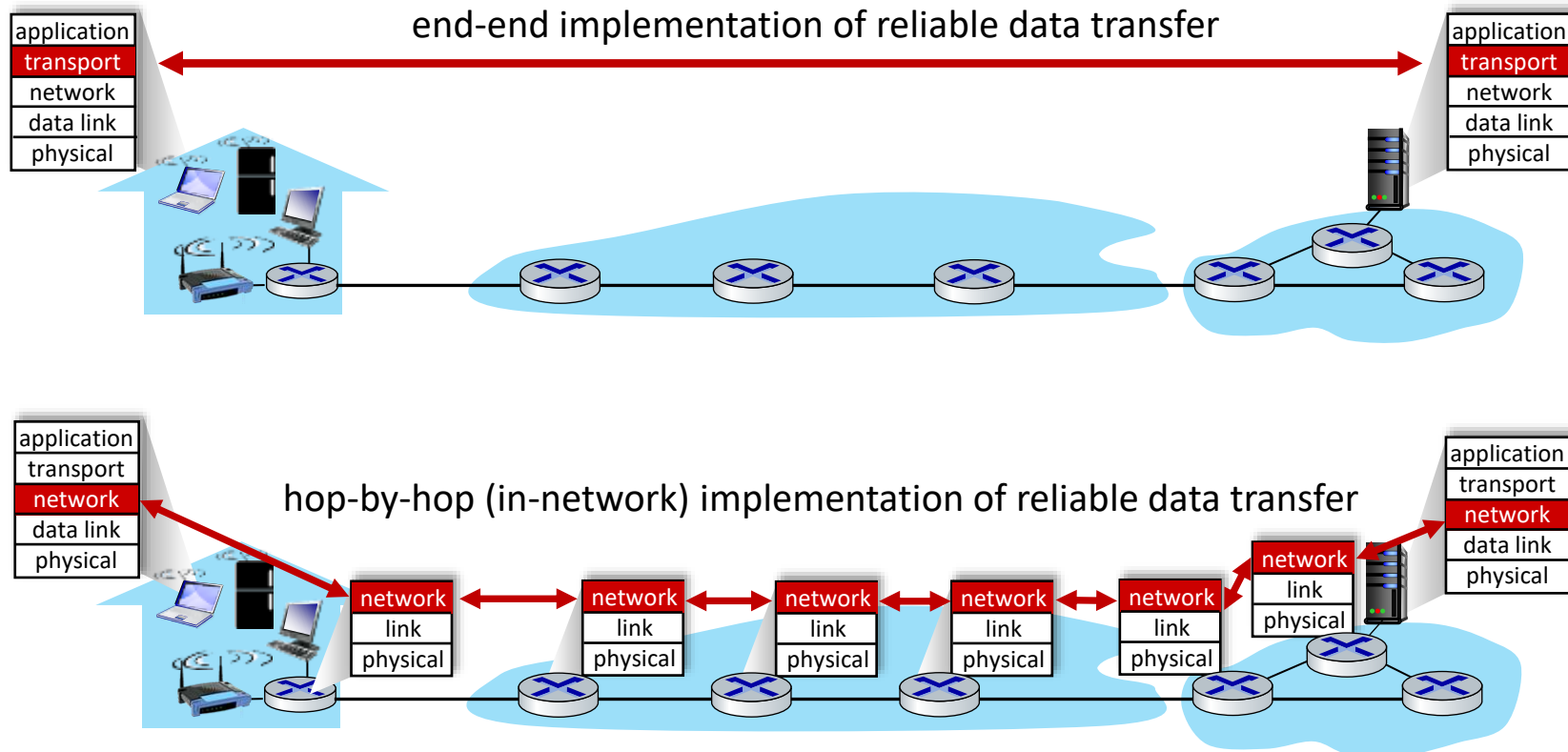
“Many members of the Internet community would argue that there is no architecture, but only a tradition, which was not written down for the first 25 years (or at least not by the IAB). However, in very general terms, the community believes that **the goal is connectivity, the tool is the Internet Protocol, and the intelligence is end to end rather than hidden in the network.**”

Three cornerstone beliefs:

- simple connectivity
- IP protocol: that narrow waist
- intelligence, complexity at network edge

The end-end argument

- some network functionality (e.g., reliable data transfer, congestion) can be implemented **in network**, or at **network edge**



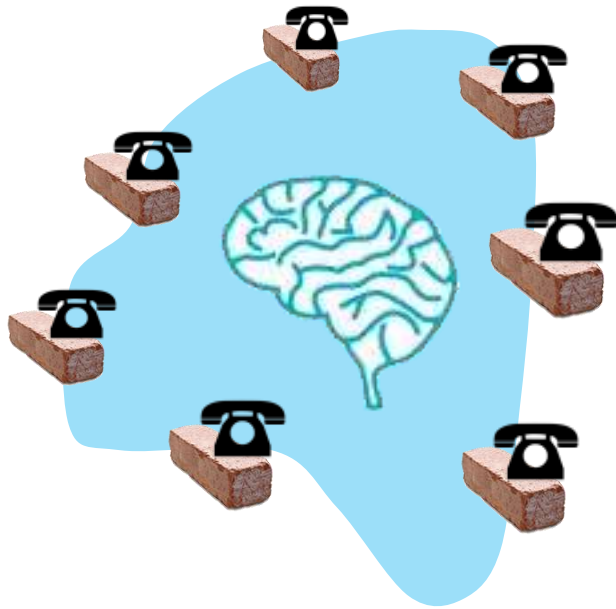
The end-end argument

- some network functionality (e.g., reliable data transfer, congestion) can be implemented **in network**, or at **network edge**

“The function in question can completely and correctly be implemented only with the knowledge and help of the application standing at the end points of the communication system. Therefore, providing that questioned function as a feature of the communication system itself is not possible. (Sometimes an incomplete version of the function provided by the communication system may be useful as a performance enhancement.)

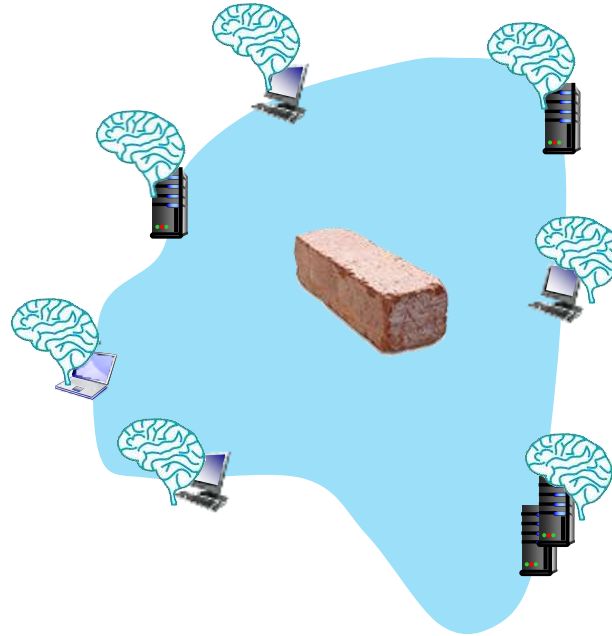
We call this line of reasoning against low-level function implementation the “end-to-end argument.”

Where's the intelligence?



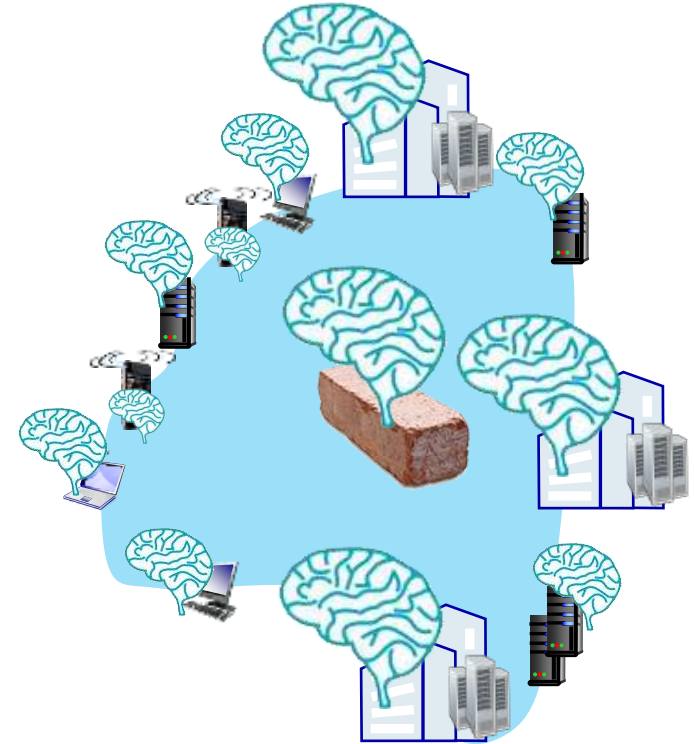
20th century phone net:

- intelligence/computing at network switches



Internet (pre-2005)

- intelligence, computing at edge



Internet (post-2005)

- programmable network devices
- intelligence, computing, massive application-level infrastructure at edge

Chapter 4: done!

- Network layer: overview
- What's inside a router
- IP: the Internet Protocol
- Generalized Forwarding, SDN
- Middleboxes



Question: how are forwarding tables (destination-based forwarding) or flow tables (generalized forwarding) computed?

Answer: by the control plane (next chapter)

Additional Chapter 4 slides

Sidebar: Network Neutrality

What is network neutrality?

- *technical*: how an ISP should share/allocation its resources
 - packet scheduling, buffer management are the *mechanisms*
- *social, economic* principles
 - protecting free speech
 - encouraging innovation, competition
- enforced *legal* rules and policies

Different countries have different “takes” on network neutrality

Sidebar: Network Neutrality

2015 US FCC *Order on Protecting and Promoting an Open Internet*: three “clear, bright line” rules:

- **no blocking** ... “shall not block lawful content, applications, services, or non-harmful devices, subject to reasonable network management.”
- **no throttling** ... “shall not impair or degrade lawful Internet traffic on the basis of Internet content, application, or service, or use of a non-harmful device, subject to reasonable network management.”
- **no paid prioritization.** ... “shall not engage in paid prioritization”

ISP: telecommunications or information service?

Is an ISP a “telecommunications service” or an “information service” provider?

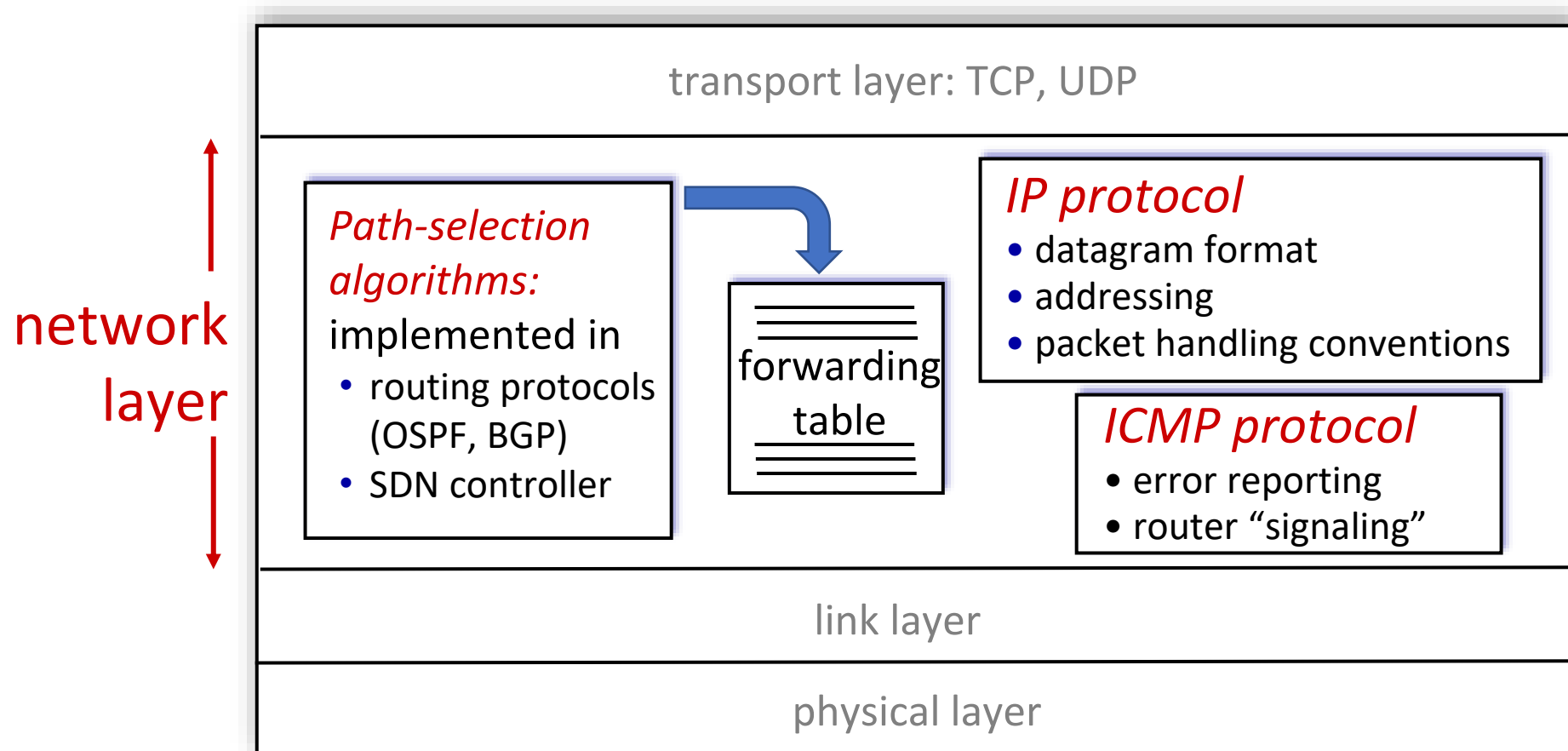
- the answer *really* matters from a regulatory standpoint!

US Telecommunication Act of 1934 and 1996:

- *Title II*: imposes “common carrier duties” on *telecommunications services*: reasonable rates, non-discrimination and *requires regulation*
- *Title I*: applies to *information services*:
 - no common carrier duties (*not regulated*)
 - but grants FCC authority “... as may be necessary in the execution of its functions”⁴

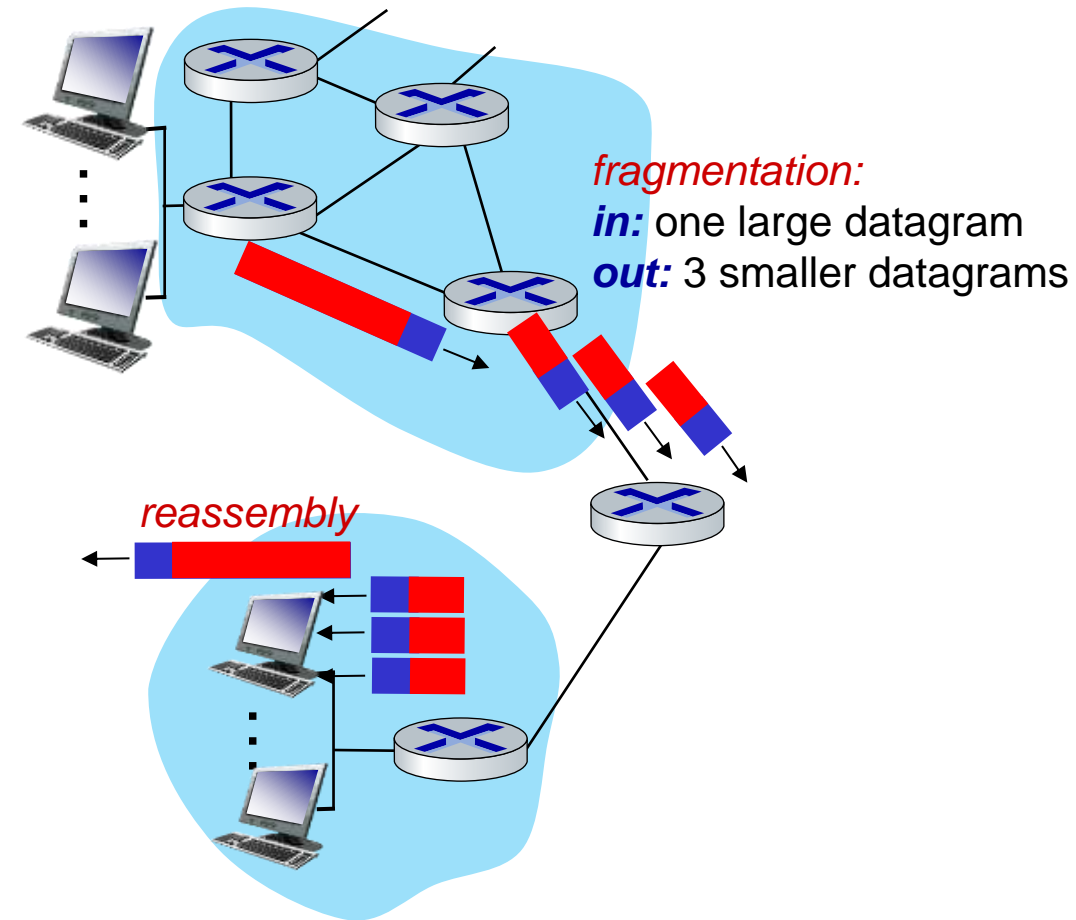
Network Layer: Internet

host, router network layer functions:



IP fragmentation/reassembly

- network links have MTU (max. transfer size) - largest possible link-level frame
 - different link types, different MTUs
- large IP datagram divided (“fragmented”) within net
 - one datagram becomes several datagrams
 - “reassembled” only at *destination*
 - IP header bits used to identify, order related fragments



IP fragmentation/reassembly

example:

- 4000 byte datagram
- MTU = 1500 bytes

	length	ID	fragflag	offset	
	=4000	=x	=0	=0	

*one large datagram becomes
several smaller datagrams*

1480 bytes in
data field

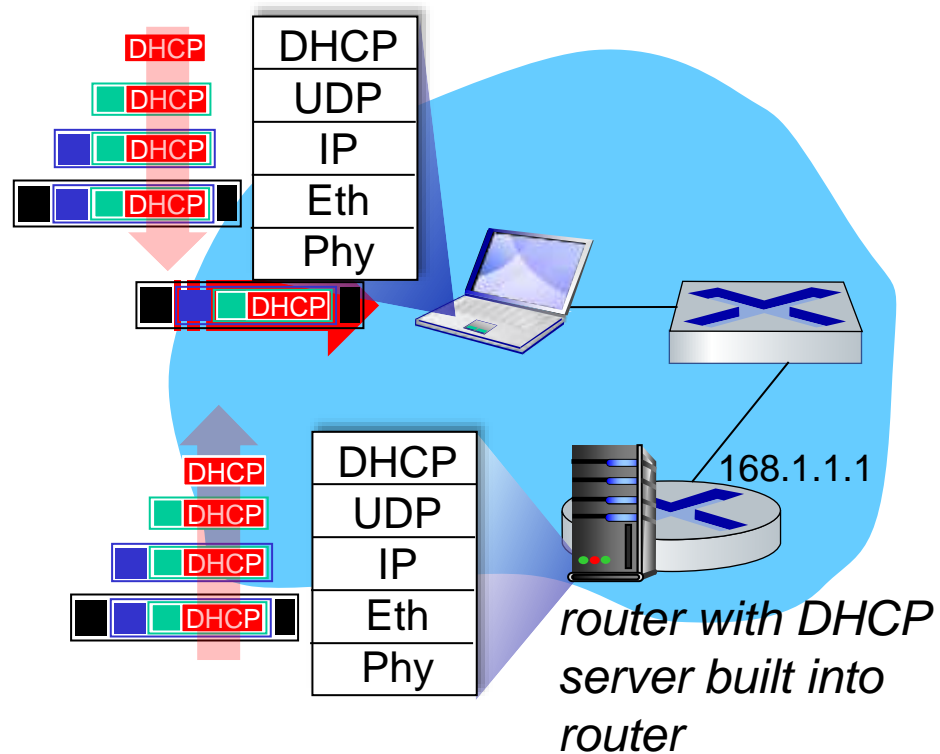
offset =
 $1480/8$

	length	ID	fragflag	offset	
	=1500	=x	=1	=0	

	length	ID	fragflag	offset	
	=1500	=x	=1	=185	

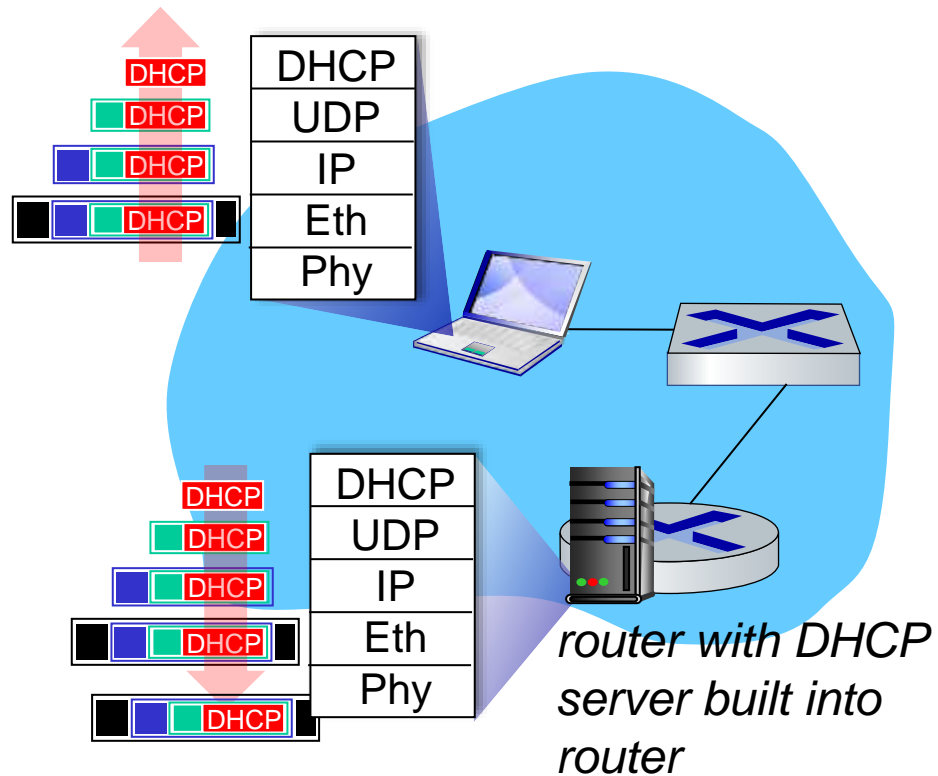
	length	ID	fragflag	offset	
	=1040	=x	=0	=370	

DHCP: example



- Connecting laptop will use DHCP to get IP address, address of first-hop router, address of DNS server.
- DHCP REQUEST message encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet de-mux'ed to IP de-mux'ed, UDP de-mux'ed to DHCP

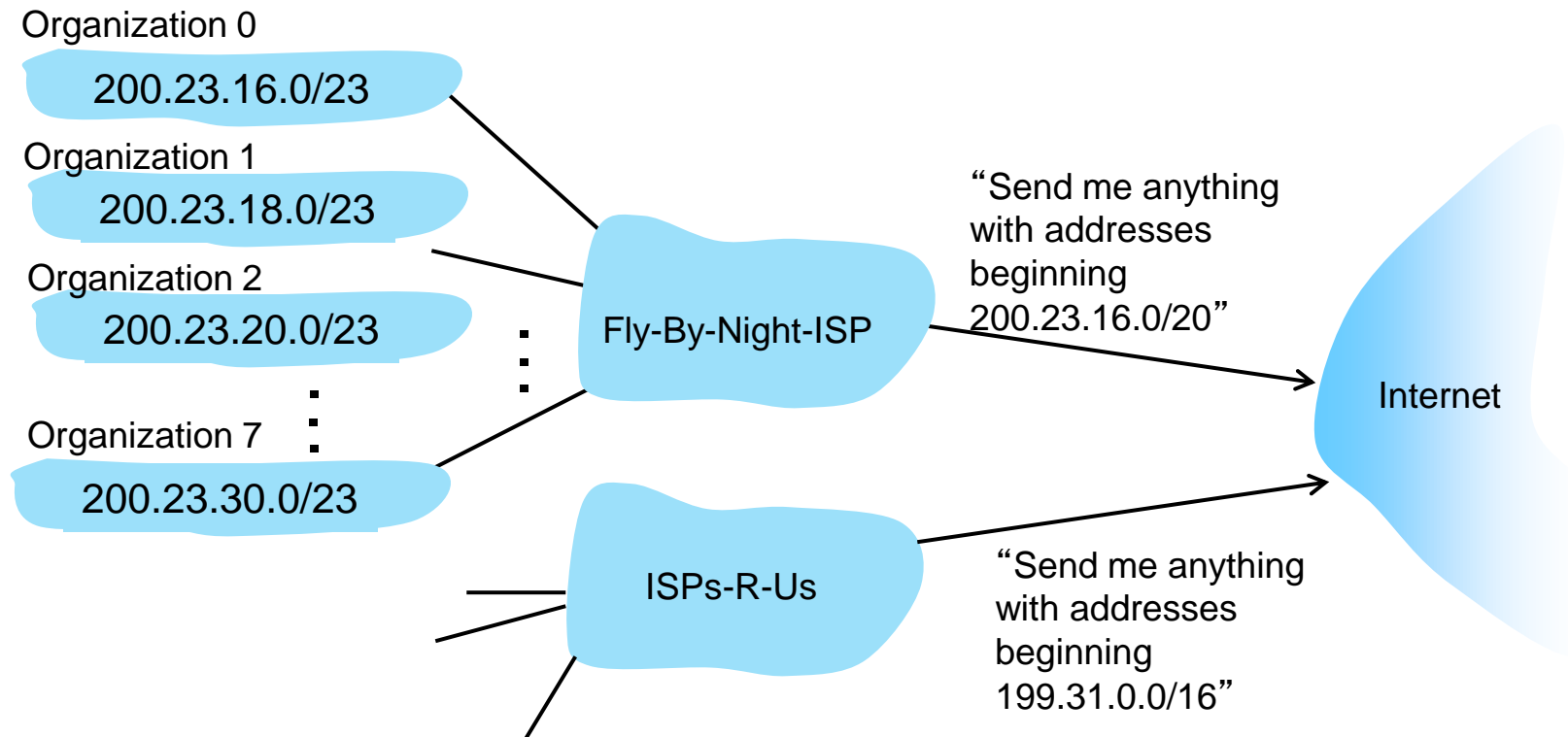
DHCP: example



- DCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulated DHCP server reply forwarded to client, de-muxing up to DHCP at client
- client now knows its IP address, name and IP address of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

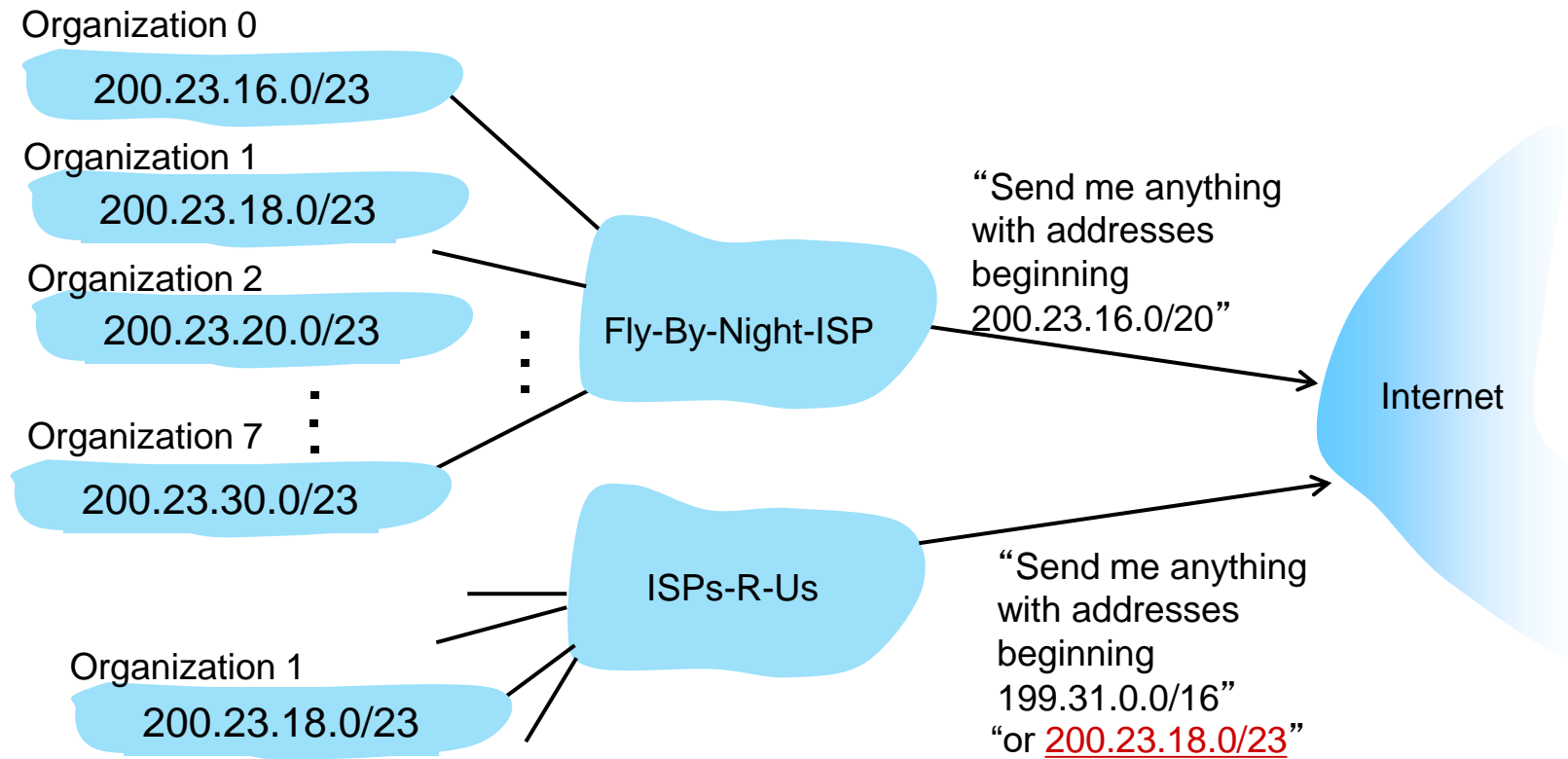
Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



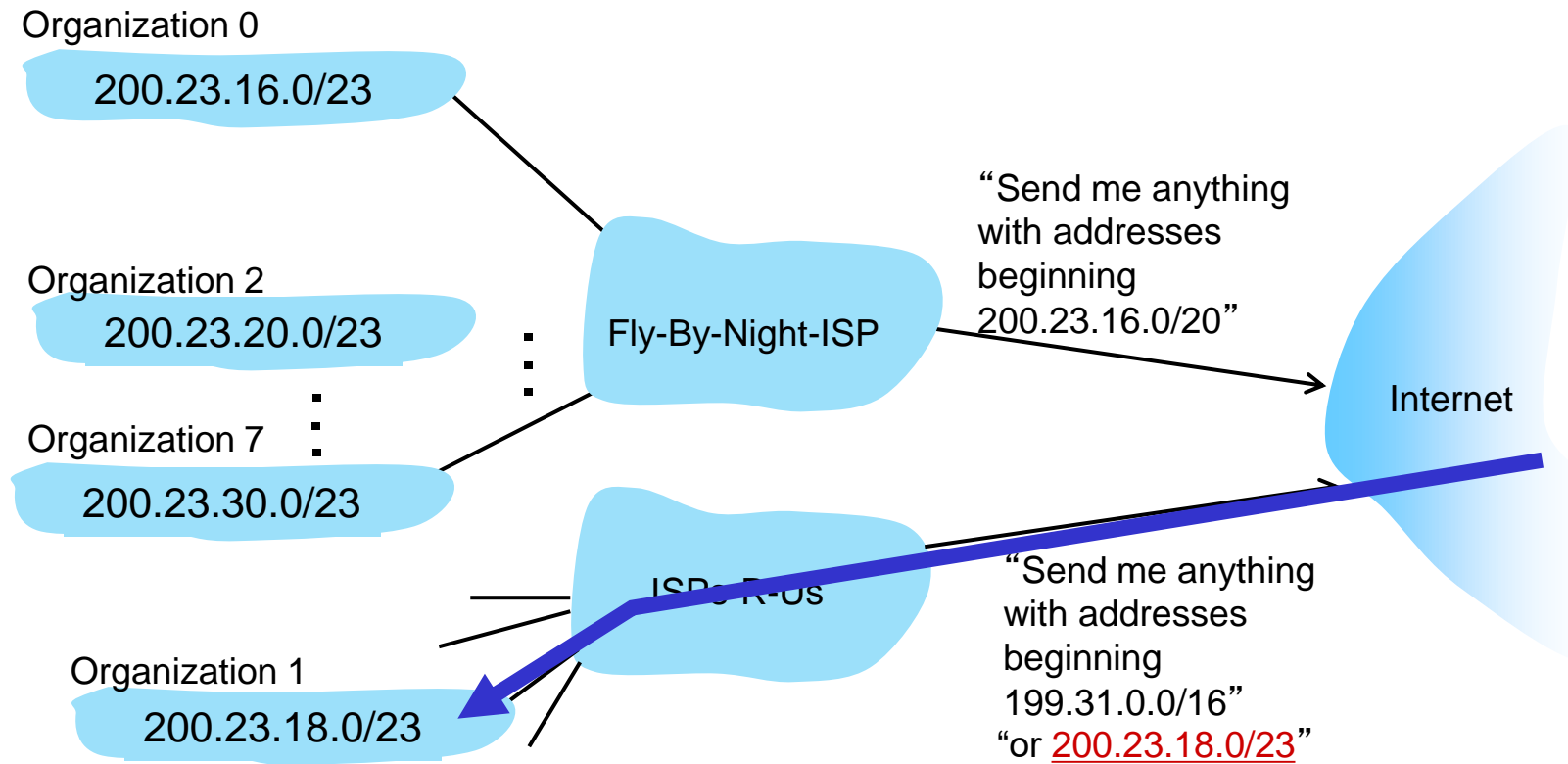
Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

- Organization 1 moves from Fly-By-Night-ISP to ISPs-R-Us
- ISPs-R-Us now advertises a more specific route to Organization 1

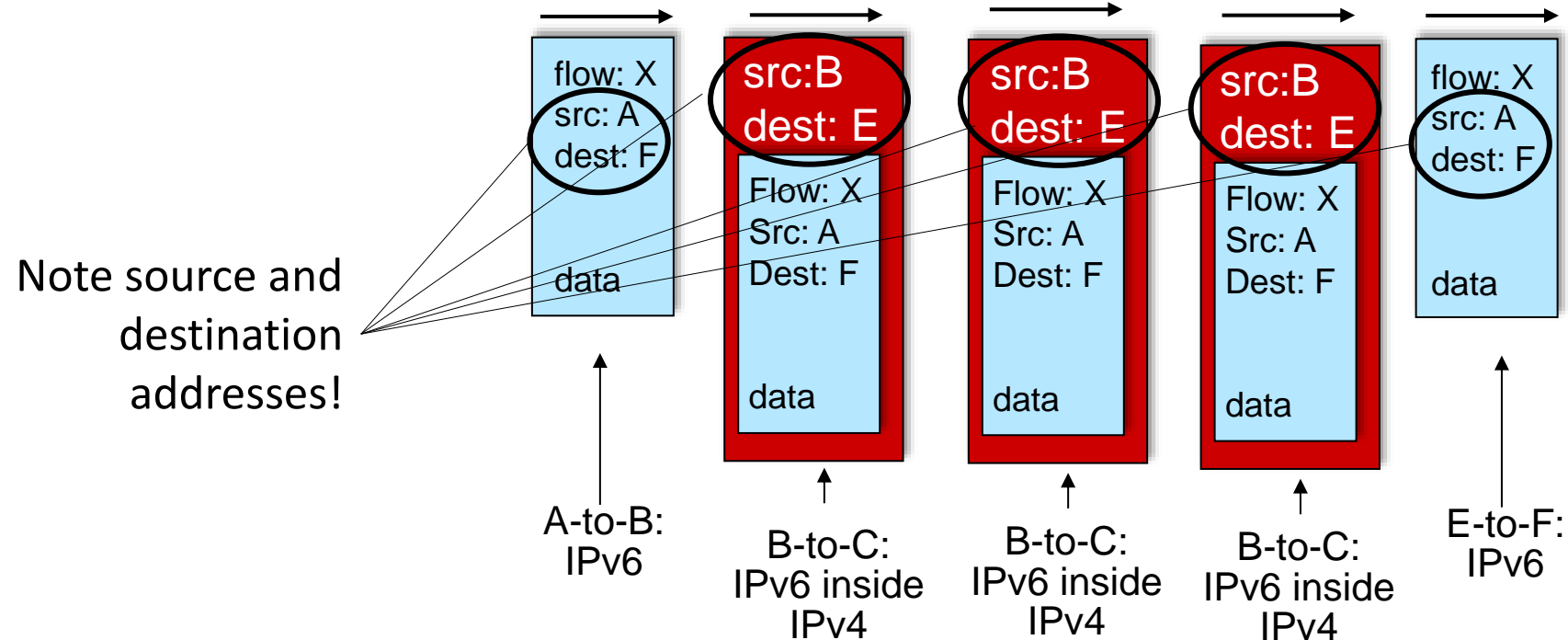
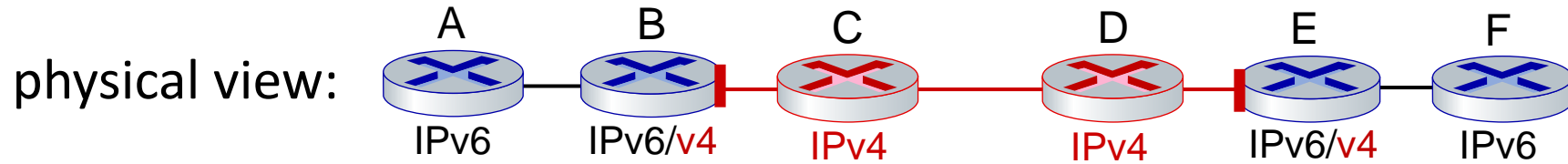


Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

- Organization 1 moves from Fly-By-Night-ISP to ISPs-R-Us
- ISPs-R-Us now advertises a more specific route to Organization 1



Tunneling



DHCP: Wireshark output (home LAN)

Message type: **Boot Request (1)**

Hardware type: Ethernet

Hardware address length: 6

Hops: 0

request

Transaction ID: 0x6b3a11b7

Seconds elapsed: 0

Bootp flags: 0x0000 (Unicast)

Client IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Your (client) IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Next server IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Relay agent IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68:8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)

Server host name not given

Boot file name not given

Magic cookie: (OK)

Option: (t=53,l=1) **DHCP Message Type = DHCP Request**

Option: (61) Client identifier

Length: 7; Value: 010016D323688A;

Hardware type: Ethernet

Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68:8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)

Option: (t=50,l=4) Requested IP Address = 192.168.1.101

Option: (t=12,l=5) Host Name = "nomad"

Option: (55) Parameter Request List

Length: 11; Value: 010F03062C2E2F1F21F92B

1 = Subnet Mask; 15 = Domain Name

3 = Router; 6 = Domain Name Server

44 = NetBIOS over TCP/IP Name Server

.....

Message type: **Boot Reply (2)**

Hardware type: Ethernet

Hardware address length: 6

Hops: 0

reply

Transaction ID: 0x6b3a11b7

Seconds elapsed: 0

Bootp flags: 0x0000 (Unicast)

Client IP address: 192.168.1.101 (192.168.1.101)

Your (client) IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Next server IP address: 192.168.1.1 (192.168.1.1)

Relay agent IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)

Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68:8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)

Server host name not given

Boot file name not given

Magic cookie: (OK)

Option: (t=53,l=1) DHCP Message Type = DHCP ACK

Option: (t=54,l=4) Server Identifier = 192.168.1.1

Option: (t=1,l=4) Subnet Mask = 255.255.255.0

Option: (t=3,l=4) Router = 192.168.1.1

Option: (6) Domain Name Server

Length: 12; Value: 445747E2445749F244574092;

IP Address: 68.87.71.226;

IP Address: 68.87.73.242;

IP Address: 68.87.64.146

Option: (t=15,l=20) Domain Name = "hsd1.ma.comcast.net."