Network Layer and IP

CSC 343-643



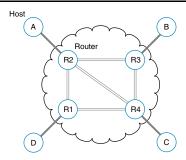
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Network Layer

- Concerned with getting packets from the source to the destination
- In contrast, the data-link layer
 - Moves frames from one end of the wire to another
 - Assume everyone is **locally** connected
- Network layer deals with end-to-end transmission
 - Routing packets (or datagrams) from one machine to another until destination is reached

Token passing required forwarding a frame from one machine to another, is this routing?

Network Layer Issues



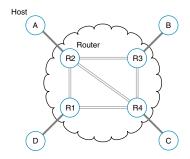
- Routing
 - Given different paths, which should be taken?
 - Should every packet take the same route?
- Congestion control
 - Prevent a link (router) from becoming overwhelmed
- Internetworking
 - Interconnect different networks at the network level

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Network Layer Designs

- 1. Connectionless (Internet community argument)
 - Network viewed as unreliable
 - Hosts perform error control, flow control, and packet ordering
 - Each packet sent independently
 - Routes taken may change over time

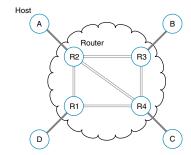
Why would a route change? Implications of multiple routes?



2. **Connection-oriented** (*Telephone company argument*)

- Network should be reasonably reliable
- Path established before packets sent
 - Negotiate resources (QoS) at each hop

Any advantages to establishing a path?

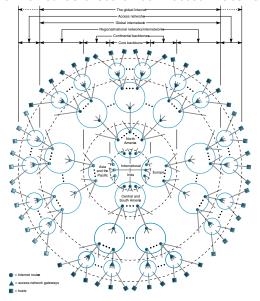


Any disadvantages to establishing a path?

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Network Layer in the Internet

• Internet can be viewed as a set of connected Autonomous Systems

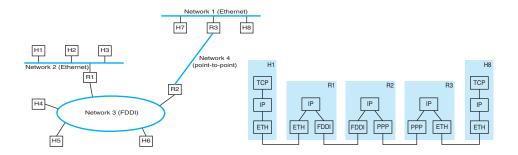


- The network layer is what allows the pieces to interconnect
- The Internet Protocol (IP) provides
 - 1. Best Effort (BE) transport of datagrams
 - Unreliable service
 - Packets may arrive out of order, if at all...
 - No Quality of Service (QoS) guarantees provided
 - 2. Routing from source to destination
 - Can route to different AS
 - Routes can change based on network conditions

Is IP connectionless or connection-oriented?

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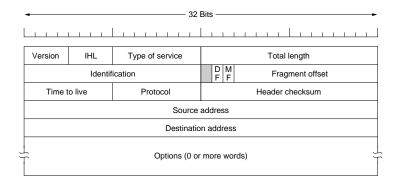
Internet Operation Overview



- Network layer takes data streams and breaks into datagrams
 - Datagram can be up to 64KB each, average is 1500 bytes
- Each datagram is transmitted through the Internet
 - Possibly fragmented
- Pieces arrive at destination, reassembled into original datagram
- Datagram is passed to the transport layer

IP Protocol Datagrams

- Datagram (packet) consists of a header part and data part
- Header consists of: 20 byte fixed part and an optional part



- ullet Big endian order (left o right) also called **network byte order**
 - SPARC is big endian, while Pentium is little endian

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IP Header: Version and IHL Fields

- Version field (4 bits)
 - Identifies the version of IP (e.g. IPv4 or IPv6)
- Internet Header Length (IHL, 4 bits)
 - Total length of the IP header, in measured 32-bit words
 - Minimum value is 5 (no options are present)
 - Maximum value is 15, which is a _____ byte header
 - This will limit the usefulness of some options

IP Header: ToS Field

Type of Service (ToS) is 8 bits

- Indicates the type of service expected, has sub-fields
 - 1. First three bits are the precedence (priority) sub-field
 - Range from 0 (normal) to 7 (control packet)
 - "which is ignored today" Stevens
 - 2. Next four bits request different types of service

Application	Min Delay	Max Throughput	Max Reliability	Min Cost	Hex Value
Telnet	1	0	0	0	0x10
FTP data	0	1	0	0	80x0
SNMP	0	0	1	0	0x04

- 3. One unused bit
- ToS feature is not supported by most IP implementations

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IP Header: Total Length and Fragmentation Fields

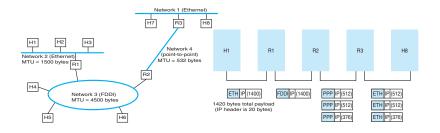
- Total length field (16 bits)
 - Datagram length (header and data), measured in bytes

What is the maximum size of an IP datagram?

- Identification field (16 bits)
 - Identifies which datagram the fragment belongs to
 - One number for all the fragments of a packet
- DF (Don't Fragment) 1 bit, if set then don't fragment
- MF (More Fragments) 1 bit, set if not last fragment
- Fragment offset (13 bits)
 - Where in the current datagram this fragment belongs
 - Fragments must be a multiple of 8 bytes (except for last one)

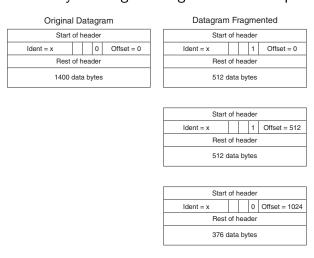
IP Fragmentation and Reassembly

- Different network technologies have different packet sizes
 - Every network has a **Maximum Transmission Unit** (MTU)
 - If the datagram is larger than the MTU, then it is fragmented
- "Every internet module must be able to forward a datagram of 68 octets without further fragmentation... Every internet destination must be able to receive a datagram of 576 octets either in one piece or in fragments to be reassembled." [RFC791]



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- Assume R2 has a MTU (data) of 532 bytes (allows a 20 byte header and 512 bytes of data)
- The original 1420 byte datagram fragmented into 3 pieces at R2



• RFC 1191 gives some example MTU sizes, based on the link layer

IP Header: TTL and Protocol Fields

- Time To Live (TTL, 8 bits)
 - Counter to limit packet lifetime
 - Maximum lifetime of packet (in seconds)
 What is the maximum maximum lifetime?
 - Time spent at every router is subtracted
 - Actually decremented once per hop
 - Once zero is reached, a control packet is sent back What problem does TTL attempt to prevent?
- Protocol field (8 bits)
 - Which transport process the packet belongs to (e.g. TCP or UDP)
 numbers are global defined in [RFC 1700]

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IP Header: Checksum and Address Fields

- Header checksum (16 bits)
 - Verifies only the header
 - Add all 16 bit words (one's complement) then take the one's complement of the sum

A new checksum is computed and stored in the header at every hop, why?

What happens if an error is detected?

How is the data verified? Do we care at this layer?

- Source and destination addresses
 - 32 bits each, more later...

IP Header: Options Field

- Allow subsequent versions of IP to include new features
- Option begins with a one byte idenfication code, 5 are defined
 - 1. Security Security and handling restrictions [RFC1108]

 If set, helps a sniffer identify the more interesting datagrams
 - 2. Strict source routing Gives path to follow (security issue?)
 - 3. Loose source routing List routers not to be missed
 - 4. Record route Make every router append IP address Why is this no longer useful?
 - 5. Timestamp Make every router append address and time
- Options field padded out to end on 32 bit boundary
- "these options are rarely used and not all hosts and routers support all the options" Stevens

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IPv4 Addresses

Every host or router (actually interface) has a unique IP address

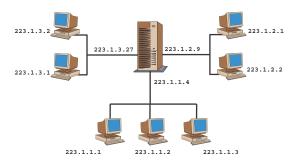
- IP addresses are 32 bits long (IP version 4) and are used in the source and destination fields of the IP datagram
- Dotted-decimal notation is used to represent each address, each byte is represented via a decimal number
 - $-193.32.216.9 \Rightarrow [11000001 00100000 11011000 00001001]$

The data link layer also has an address, what is the difference? Why is a network address needed?

 Addresses are hierarchical and encode two numbers, network and host

IP Network Example

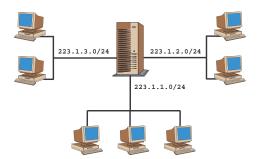
Consider one router and seven hosts (one address per interface)



- ullet Three hosts at bottom have similar addresses, 223.1.1.x
 - The leftmost 24 bits they share is the **network** portion
 - Remaining 8 bits is the **host** portion
 How many hosts can connect to the 223.1.1.x network?

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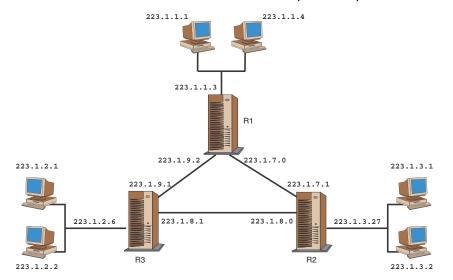
- Hosts of 223.1.1.x form a network, interconnected via a LAN
 - The network address is 223.1.1.0/24
 - The /24 is also called the **network mask** or **network prefix** * Indicates the 24 leftmost bits define the network address
 - Any additional host that would attach to this network must have a unique address of the form 223.1.1.x
- The remaining networks have a similar structure



Multiple IP Networks

IP definition of a *network* is not restricted to Ethernet segments

• Consider three routers interconnected via point-to-point links



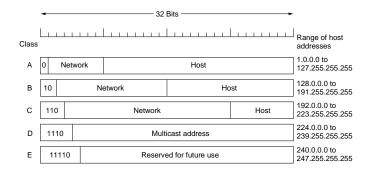
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- Each router has three interfaces
 - One for each point-to-point link
 - One for the broadcast link to the hosts
- What are the *networks* in the diagram
 - Three networks interconnecting hosts, 223.1.1.0/24, 223.1.2.0/24, and 223.1.3.0/24
 - Three additional networks that interconnect routers
 - * 223.1.7.0/24 connects R1 \Leftrightarrow R2
 - * 223.1.8.0/24 connects R2 ⇔ R3
 - * 223.1.9.0/24 connects R3 ⇔ R1
- How do we determine what is a network
 - Detach each interface from host or router
 - Resulting islands are the networks

IPv4 Address Classes

The original Internet architecture defined 5 different IP address classes

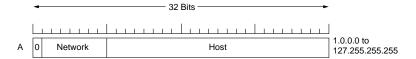
- This is also know as classful addressing
- Classes differ on how bits are divided (network versus host)



• This creates 3 different classes of networks (A, B, and C)

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• For example, consider class A addresses

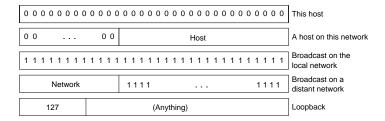


- First bit is zero, identifies class A
- Next 7 bits identify the network
- Last 24 bits identify the host (interface) in the class A network
- In comparison, class B has



What class is 223.1.1.0/24? As a company, would you prefer an A, B, or C address?

IP Addresses with Special Meanings



- 0.0.0.0 only used by a host when booting
- All zeroes for the network number, refers to the local network
 - If 223.1.1.0/24 is the network and I am 223.1.1.52, locally I can be reached using 0.0.0.52
- Address of all ones is the broadcast address for the local network
 What is the dotted-decimal address?

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- Address with the proper network number, and all ones for the host number allows host to broadcast to a different network
 - If 223.1.1.0/24 is a distant network, then 223.1.1.255 broadcasts to all hosts at the network

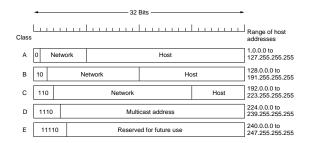
This and ping can can be used as a network attack, how?

- 127.x.y.z is reserved for loop-back testing
 - Packet is never placed on the network, processed locally

Given a class A address, how many hosts can be connected to the network?

IP Addresses and Routing

- We have introduced IP addresses and the concept of a network
 - IP addresses are 32 bits long, and can be divided into classes
 - Each class divides address into network and host portion



 All hosts in one network have the same network portion, different host portion; therefore, the addresses are hierarchical

Why is it important to identify the class of an address?

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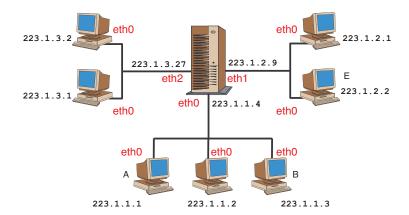
Routing Tables

How does a source host send a datagram to a destination host?

- The IP layer maintains a routing table in memory
 - Remember, routing tables are next hop oriented
 - Multiple hop paths are not recorded
- Each entry in the routing table has the following information^a
 - 1. Destination address, either host or network address
 - 2. IP address of the next-hop router
 - 3. Flags specifying if next hop is host or network
 - 4. Identification of the interface the datagram should be passed to (e.g. multiple Ethernet cards attached)

^aAbbreviated list of items, more later.

Example Routing Tables



- In the diagram, each interface (Ethernet card) is labeled (in red)
- For example, the router has 3 interfaces (eth0, eth1, and eth2)
 - Each interface must be uniquely identified, since it attaches a unique network

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• An abbreviated routing table for host A would be

Routing Table for A				
Destination	Next Hop	Interface		
223.1.1.0/24		eth0		
223.1.2.0/24	223.1.1.4	eth0		
223.1.3.0/24	223.1.1.4	eth0		

- First entry indicates 223.1.1.0/24 is the local network
- The second and third entries indicate datagrams for destinations on network 223.1.2.0/24 or 223.1.3.0/24 must be sent to 223.1.1.4
- eth0 is the Ethernet interface (only one card on A)

Each network is represented with one entry, how many would be required if each host had a separate entry?

• An abbreviated routing table for the router would be

Routing Table for Router				
Destination	Next Hop	Interface		
223.1.1.0/24		eth0		
223.1.2.0/24		eth1		
223.1.3.0/24		eth2		

- First entry indicates 223.1.1.0/24 is local on eth0
- Second entry indicates 223.1.2.0/24 is local on eth1
- Third entry indicates 223.1.3.0/24 is local on eth2

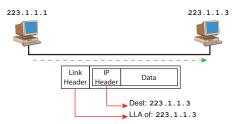
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IP Routing Steps

- IP routing performs the following actions
 - 1. Search routing table for complete destination address, if found send packet to the next-hop entry
 - 2. Search routing table for an entry that matches the destination network number, if found send packet to the next-hop entry
 - Must take into account possible subnet mask
 - 3. Search for default entry, if found send to next-hop router
- ullet IP search order is, host address o host network o default
- If all the steps fail, then the datagram is not deliverable

Routing Example: $A \rightarrow B$

Assume A (223.1.1.1) sends datagram to B (223.1.1.3)



- There is no host entry for 223.1.1.3
- There is a network entry for 223.1.1.0/24
- A link layer frame (containing the datagram) is created and addressed to the link layer address of 223.1.1.3

We are at layer 3, how do we get a layer 2 address?

• Ethernet frame is sent and received by host B

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Routing Example: $A \rightarrow E$

Assume A (223.1.1.1) sends datagram to E (223.1.2.2)

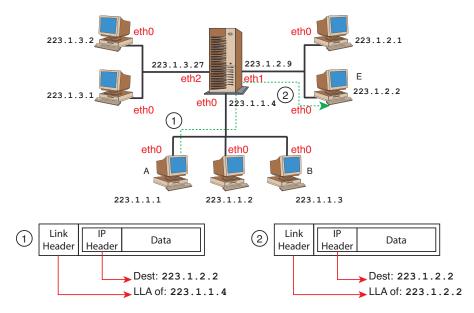
Routing Table for A				
Destination	Next Hop	Interface		
223.1.1.0/24		eth0		
223.1.2.0/24	223.1.1.4	eth0		
223.1.3.0/24	223.1.1.4	eth0		

Routing Table for Router				
Destination	Next Hop	Interface		
223.1.1.0/24		eth0		
223.1.2.0/24		eth1		
223.1.3.0/24		eth2		

- Host A finds entry for 223.1.2.0/24 network
 - Requires sending packet to 223.1.1.4
- Host A creates and sends link-layer frame (containing datagram) addressed to the link-layer address of 223.1.1.4
 - Therefore, the next-hop entry is used for the link-layer address
 - IP destination address remains unchanged

- Router 223.1.1.4 receives frame and removes datagram
 - Destination address is 223.1.2.2
 - Router is allowed to forward datagrams
- Router finds entry for 223.1.2.0/24 network
 - This is directly connected via eth1
 - Datagram will be forwarded
- Router creates and sends link-layer frame (containing datagram) addressed to the link-layer address of 223.1.2.2 on eth1
- Frame received by host E, datagram removed and processed
- N.B. operation of host and router are equivalent, except routers are allowed to forward datagrams

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Another Routing Example

Assume 140.1.1.1 sends a datagram to 152.24.25.5

