# Chapter 4 Network Layer: Data Plane A note on the use of these PowerPoint slides:

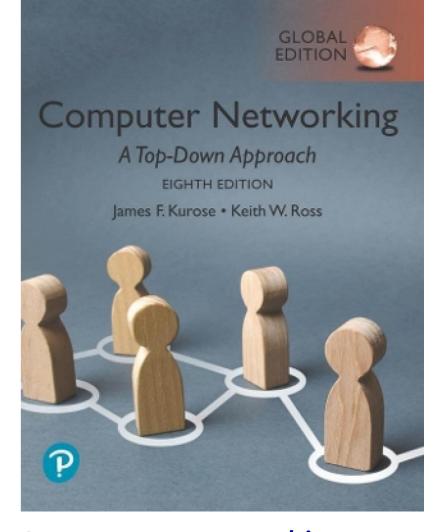
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#### Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8<sup>th</sup> edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020

### Network layer: our goals

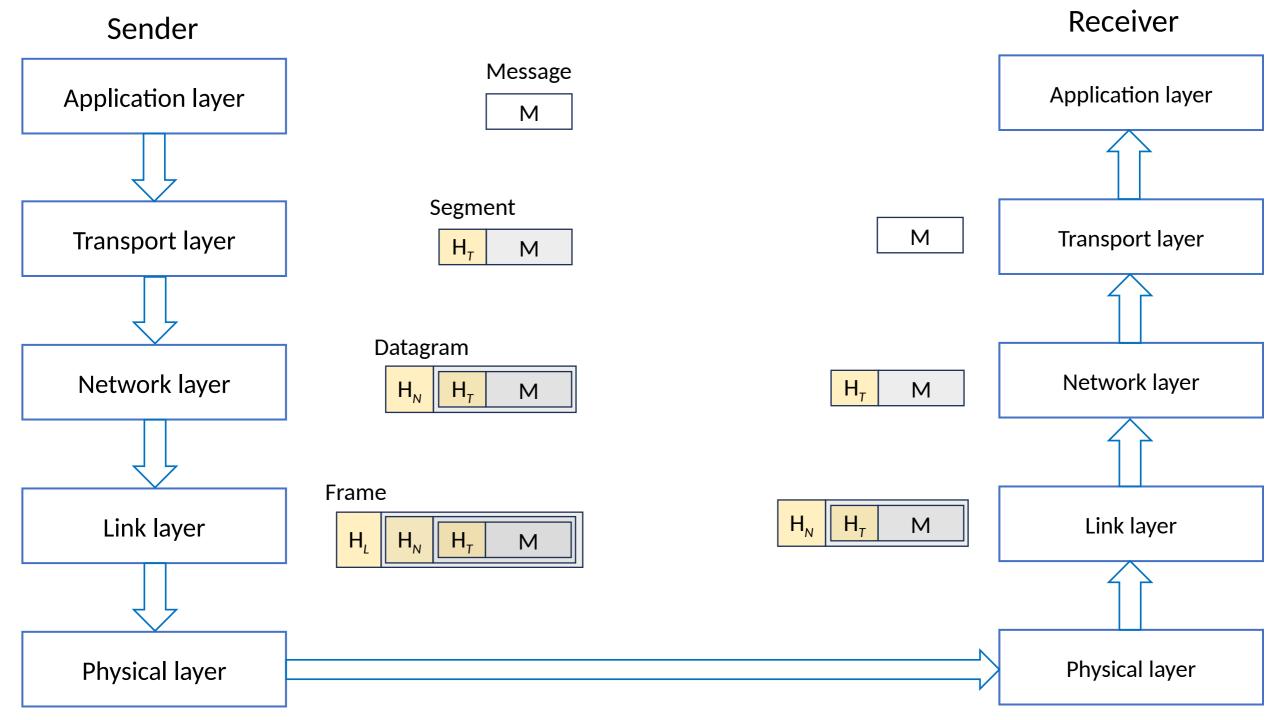
- •understand principles behind network layer services, focusing on data plane:
  - network layer service models
  - forwarding versus routing
  - how a router works
  - addressing
  - generalized forwarding

- IP protocol
- Network address translation (NAT)

### Network layer: "data plane" roadmap

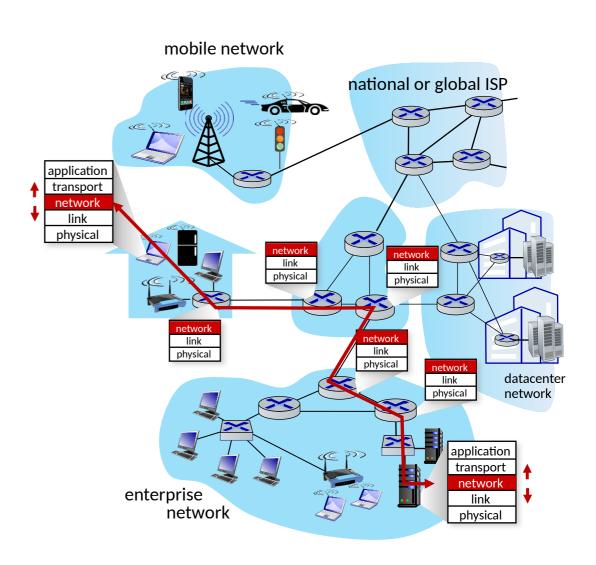
- 4.1 Network layer: overview
  - forwarding plane (data plane)
  - routing (control plane)
- 4.2 What's inside a router
  - input ports, forwarding,
  - switching, output ports, scheduling
- 4.3 IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format
  - addressing
  - network address translation
  - IPv6

- 4.4 Generalized Forwarding, SDN
  - match + action
  - OpenFlow: match + action in action



### **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:

- routing: determine route taken by packets from source to destination
  - routing algorithms
- forwarding: move packets from a router's input link to appropriate router output link

#### analogy: taking a trip

routing: process of planning trip from source to destination

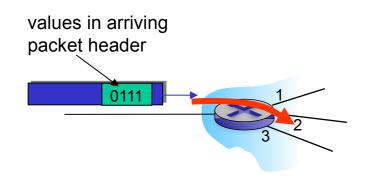


• forwarding: process of getting through single interchange

#### Network layer: forwarding plane, control plane

#### Forwarding ("data plane"):

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

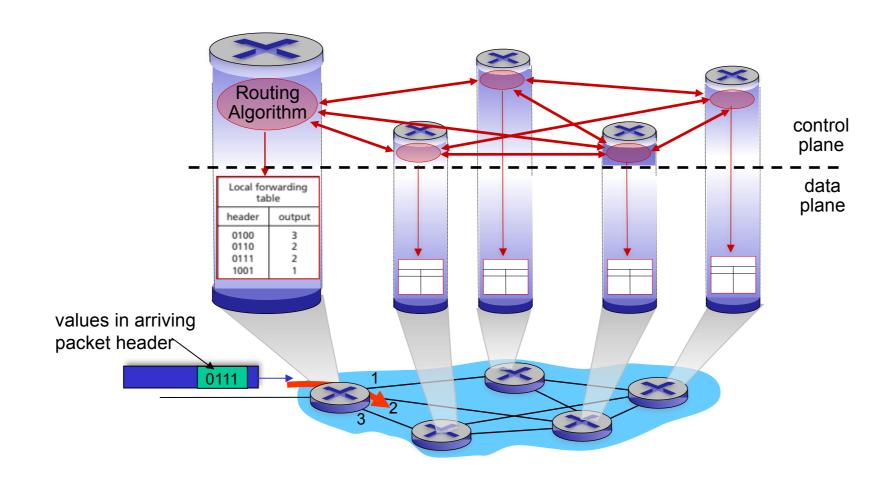


#### Routing ("control plane"):

- network-wide logic
- determines how datagram is routed among routers along endend path from source host to destination host
- two control-plane approaches:
  - Distributed routing: implemented in routers
  - Centralized routing (aka. softwaredefined networking): implemented in remote servers

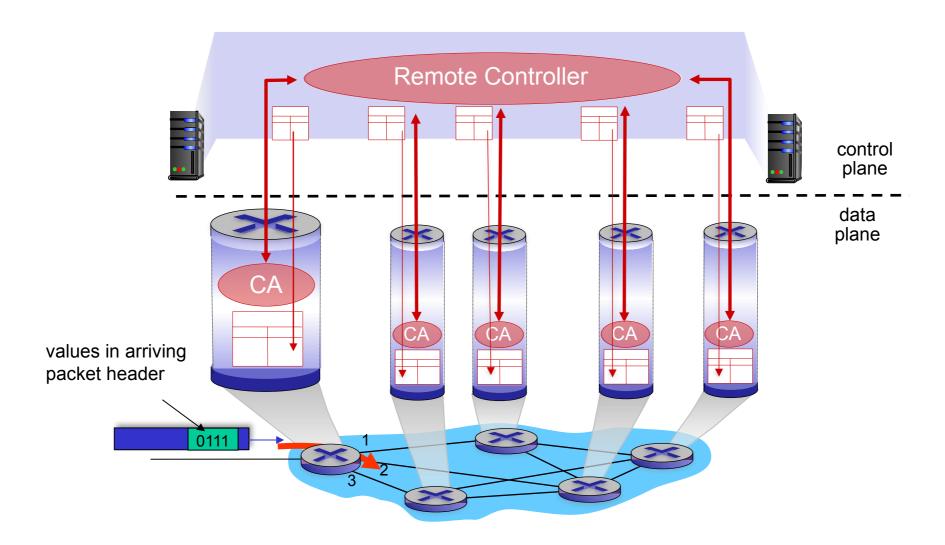
### Distributed routing

Individual routing algorithms in each and every router



# **Centralized routing:** Software-Defined Networking (SDN)

Remote controller computes forwarding tables in routers



### IP network-layer service model

Network Architecture		Service	Quality of Service (QoS) Guarantees ?				
		Model	Bandwidth	Loss	Order	Timing	
	Internet	best effort	none	no	no	no	

Internet "best effort" service model

No guarantees on:

- i. successful datagram delivery (r.d.t.)
- ii. order of delivery (r.d.t.)
- iii. bandwidth available to end-end flow

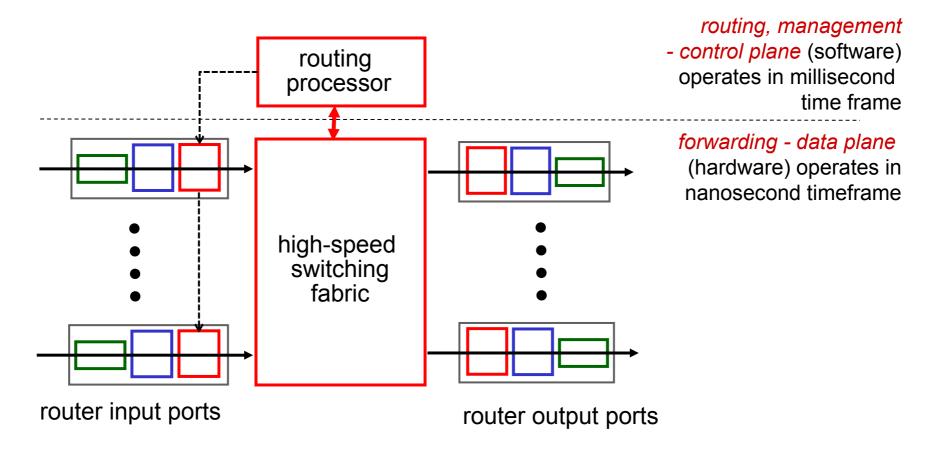
### Network layer: "forwarding plane" roadmap

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### Router architecture overview

high-level view of generic router architecture:



# **Destination-based forwarding**

forwarding table	
Destination Address Range	Link Interface
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>10000 00000000</mark>	Λ
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>10000 00000</mark> 100 through	3
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>10000 00000</mark> 111	J
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>11000 11111111</mark>	
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>11001 00000000</mark> through	2
11001000 00010111 000 <mark>11111 11111111</mark>	
otherwise	3

Q: but what happens if ranges don't divide up so nicely?

#### longest prefix match

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

Destination A	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 match

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

Destination A	Link interface			
11001000	00010111	00010***	*****	0
11001000	000.0111	00011000	*****	1
11001000	match! 1	00011***	*****	2
otherwise				3

examples:

11001000 00010111 00010 110 10100001 which interface?
11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 which interface?

#### longest prefix match

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

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

examples:



#### longest prefix match

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

Destination A	Link interface			
11001000	00010111	00010***	*****	0
11001000	00010111	00011000	*****	1
11001000	000 0111	00011***	*****	2
otherwise	match! —			3

examples:

11001000 000 0111 00010110 10100001 which interface?
11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 which interface?

#### longest prefix match

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

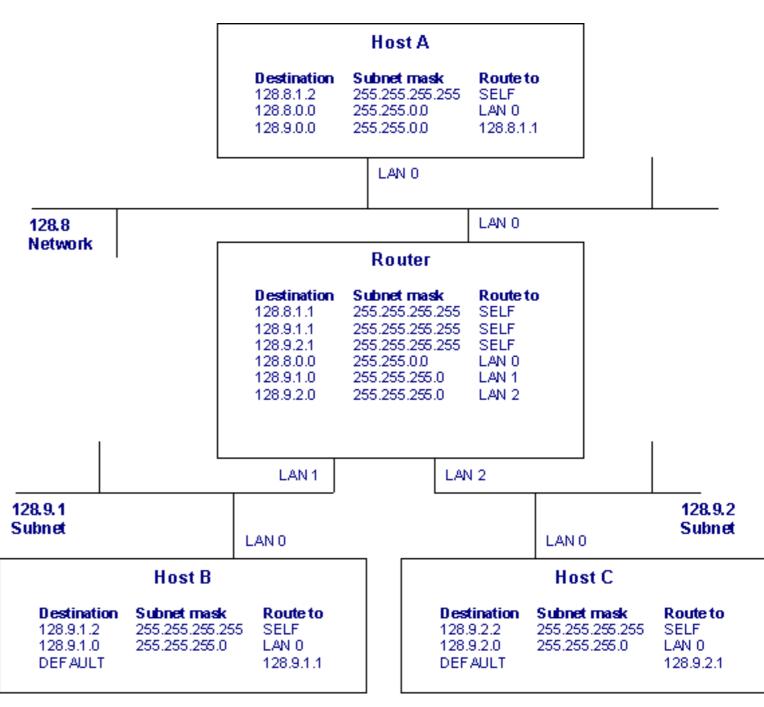
Destination A	Link interface			
11001000	00010111	00010***	*****	0
11001000	00010111	00011000	*****	1
11001000	00010111	00011***	*****	2
11001000	00010111	00010000	000001**	3
otherwise	3			

new entry

# **Destination-based forwarding example**

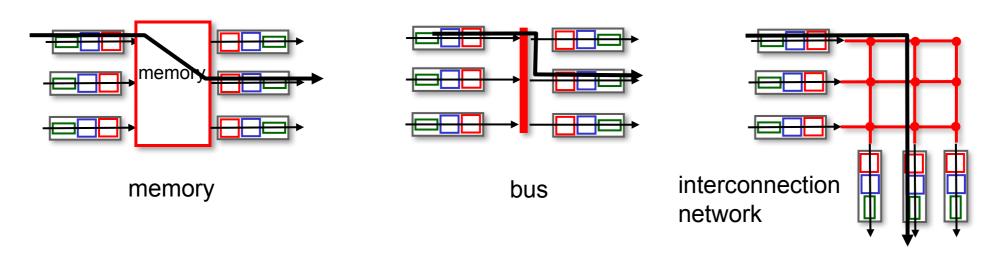
Host A sends a packet to 128.9.2.2 (Host C)

- The router has three addresses
  - one IP address per interface



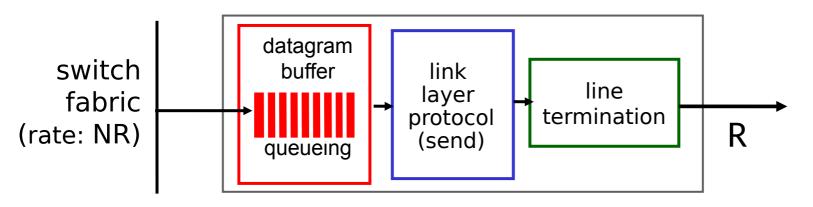
## **Switching fabrics**

- 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
- three major types of switching fabrics:



### **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

Scheduling discipline chooses among queued datagrams for transmission



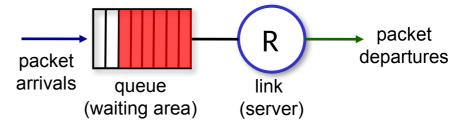
Priority scheduling – who gets best performance, network neutrality

### Packet scheduling

packet scheduling: deciding which packet to send next on link:

- First come, first served
   (FCFS)
- 2. Priority
- 3. Round robin
- 4. Weighted fair queueing

#### Abstraction: queue

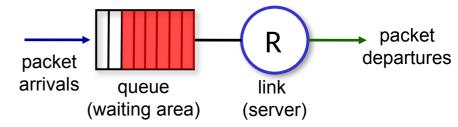


#### Packet Scheduling: First-come-first-served (FCFS)

#### FCFS:

- packets transmitted in the same order they arrive the queue
  - also known as: First-in-first-out (FIFO)
  - real world examples?

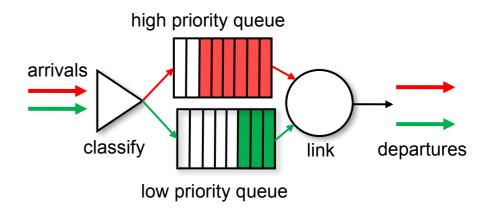
#### Abstraction: queue

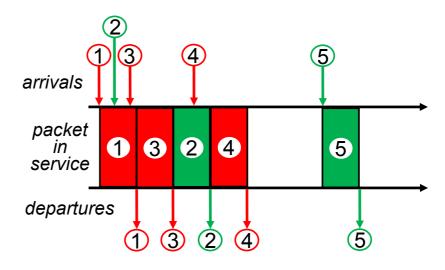


# Scheduling policies: Priority scheduling

#### **Priority scheduling:**

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

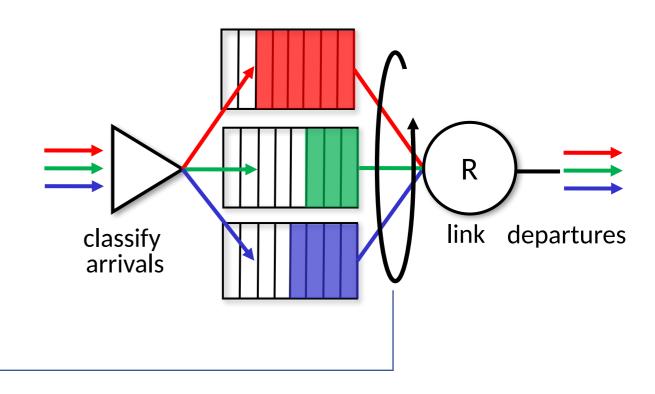




# Scheduling policies: Round-robin scheduling

#### 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



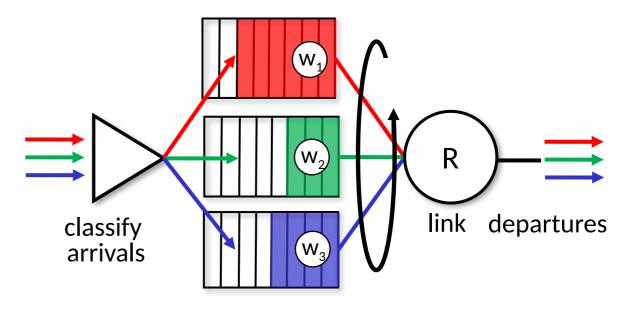
# Scheduling policies: weighted fair queueing

#### Weighted Fair Queuing (WFQ):

- generalized Round Robin
- each class, *i*, has weight, w<sub>i</sub>, and gets weighted amount of service in each cycle:

$$\frac{W_i}{\sum_j W_i}$$

minimum bandwidth guarantee (per-traffic-class)



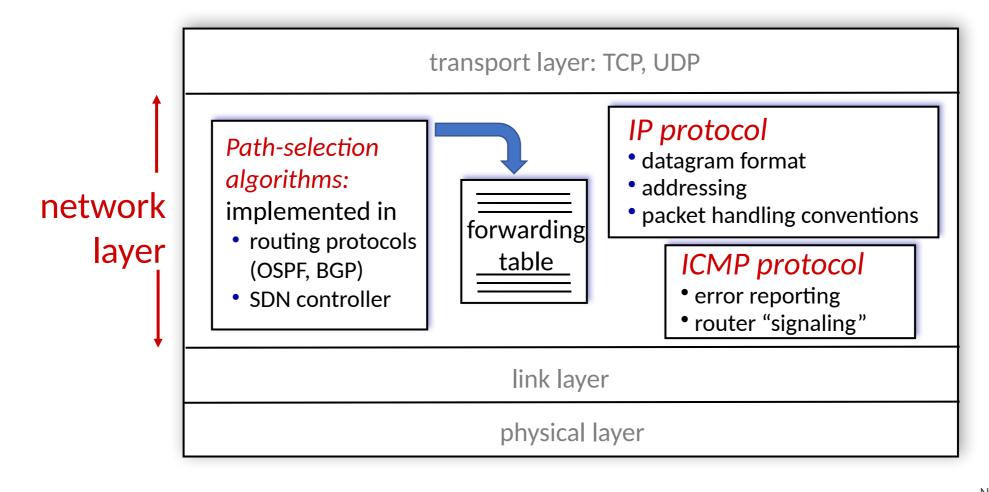
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  - match + action
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### **Network Layer: Internet**

host, router network layer functions:



### **IPv4 Datagram format**

IP protocol version number header length(bytes)

"type" of service:

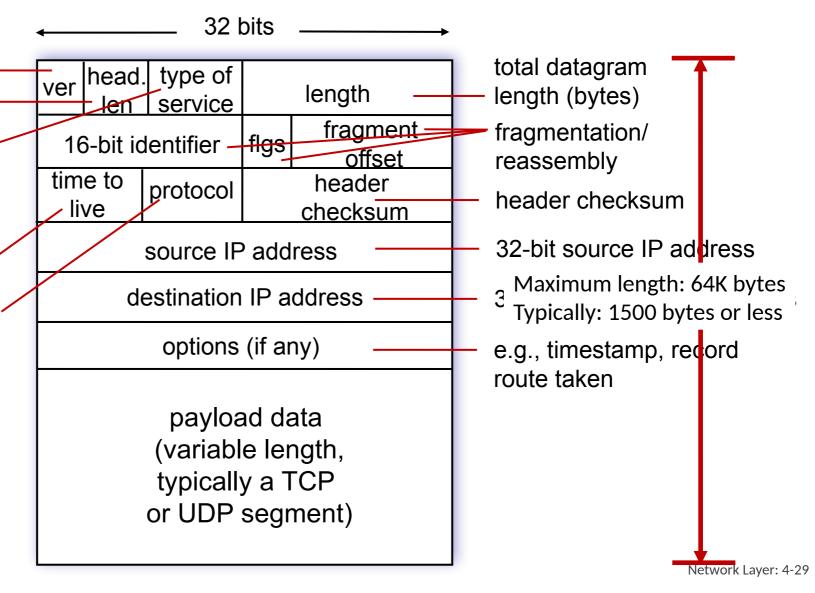
- diffserv (0:5)
- ECN (6:7)

TTL: remaining max hops (decremented at each router)

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

#### overhead

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



### Maximum payload size: MTU vs. MSS

#### Maximum payload size:

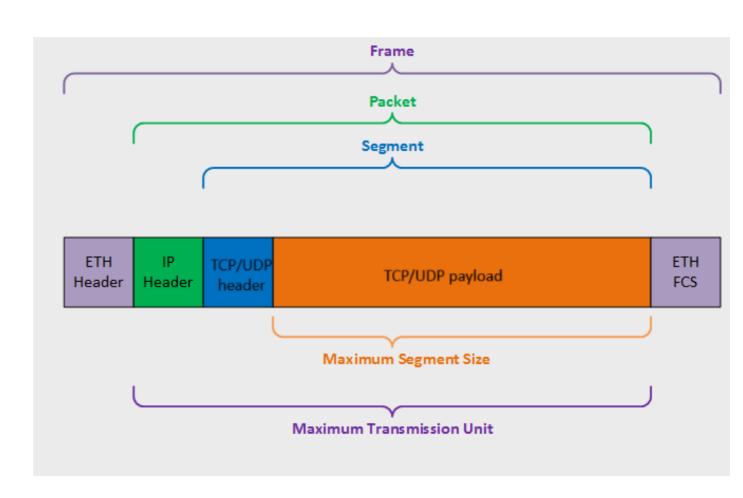
Frames:

Maximum transfer unit (MTU)

- e.g. Ethernet: 1500 bytes
- Segments:

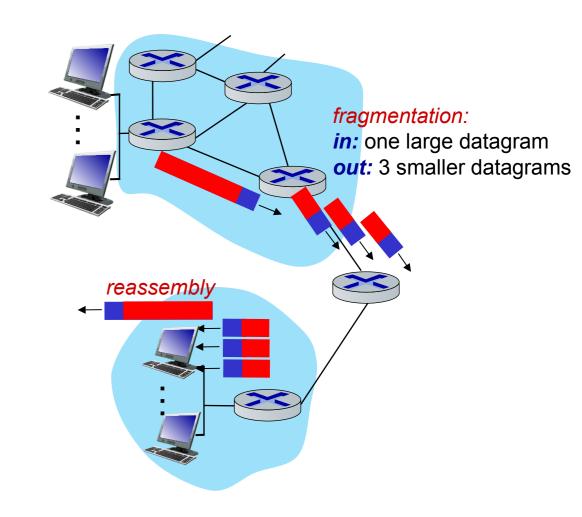
Maximum segment size (MSS)

- MSS = MTU 40 = 1500 - 40 = 1460
- 40 = IP header size + TCP header size

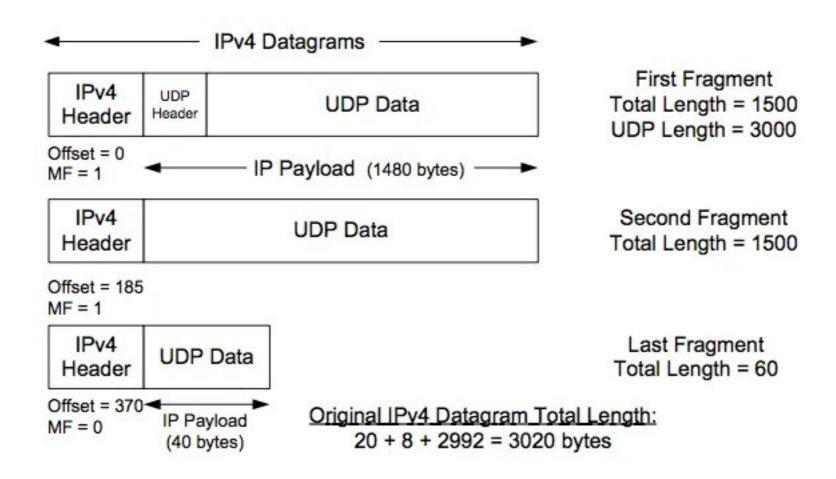


### IP fragmentation

- network links have MTU (maximum transfer unit) - 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



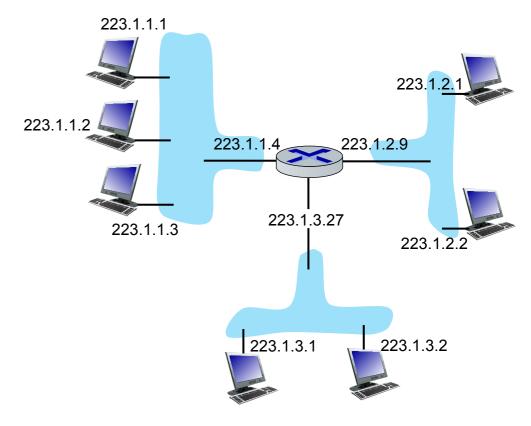
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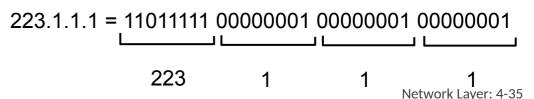
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### IP addressing: introduction

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



#### dotted-decimal IP address notation:



### IP addressing: introduction

Q: how are interfaces actually connected?

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

223.1.2. 223.1.1.2 223.1.2.9 223.1.1.4 A: wired Ethernet interfaces 223.1.3.27 connected by 223.1.1.3 Ethernet switches 223.1.3.1 223.1.3.2

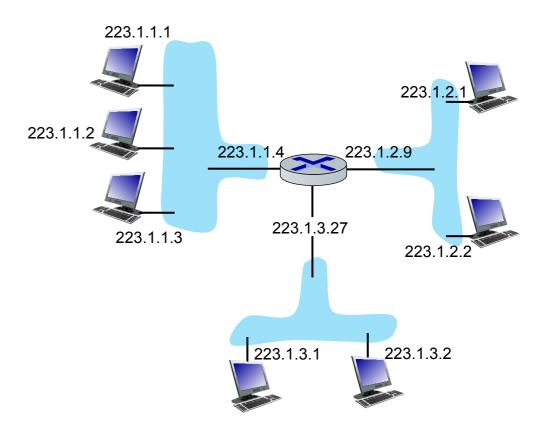
223.1.1.1

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

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



network consisting of 3 subnets

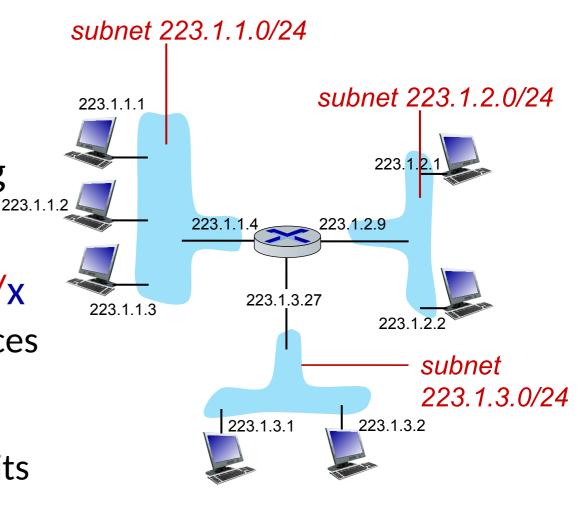
#### **Subnets**

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

- IP addresses have structure: a.b.c.d/x
  - prefix: subnet part/network part: devices in subnet have same x most significant bits (msb.)
  - host part: remaining least significant bits



**11001000 00010111 0001000**0 00000000



network consisting of 3 subnets

200.23.16.0/23

#### Subnet mask vs. prefix a.b.c.d/x

A subnet mask is a bitmask when applied by a bitwise AND operation to any IP address in the network, yields the routing prefix / subnet address

prefix = IP address && bitmask

198.51.100.20/24 has the subnet mask 255.255.255.0 (24 msb. are 1's)

bitwise AND

**11000110 00110011 01100100** 00010100

198.51.100.20 (IP address

11111111 11111111 11111111 00000000

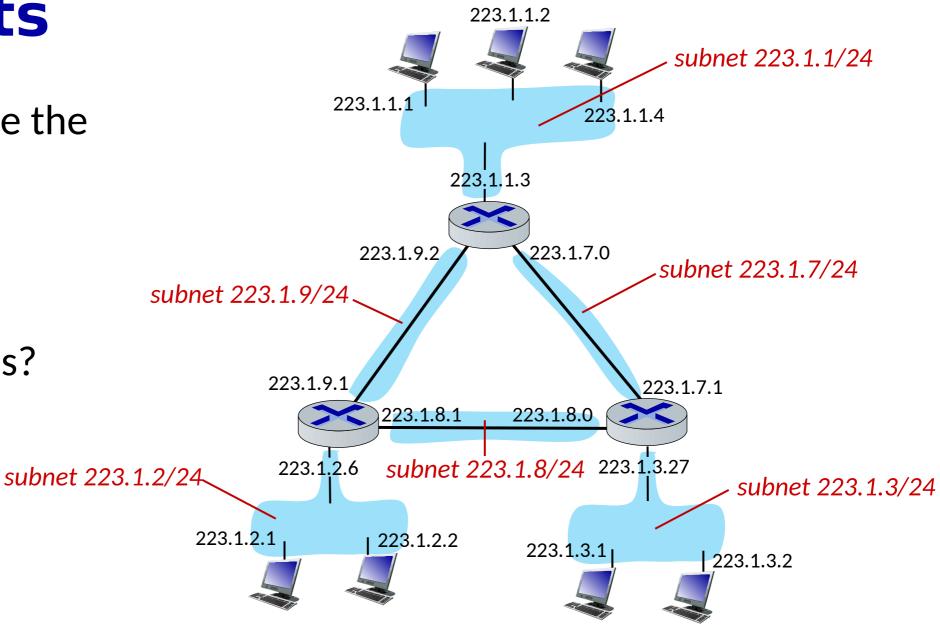
255.255.255.0 (subnet ma

**11000110 00110011 01100100** 00000000

198.51.100.20 (subnet add

## **Subnets**

- where are the subnets?
- what are the /24 subnet addresses?



## How to get IP addresses?

#### That's two questions:

- 1. How does an *organization* get IP addresses for itself (network part of address)
- 2. How does a *host* get an IP address within its network (host part of address)?

#### 1. How gets an organization IP addresses?

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

ISP's block <u>11001000 00010111 0001</u>0000 00000000 200.23.16.0/20

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

```
        Organization 0
        11001000 00010111 0001000
        00000000
        200.23.16.0/23

        Organization 1
        11001000 00010111 00010010
        00000000
        200.23.18.0/23

        Organization 2
        11001000 00010111 0001010
        00000000
        200.23.20.0/23

        ...
        ...
        ...
        ...

        Organization 7
        11001000 00010111 0001111
        00010111
        00000000
        200.23.30.0/23
```

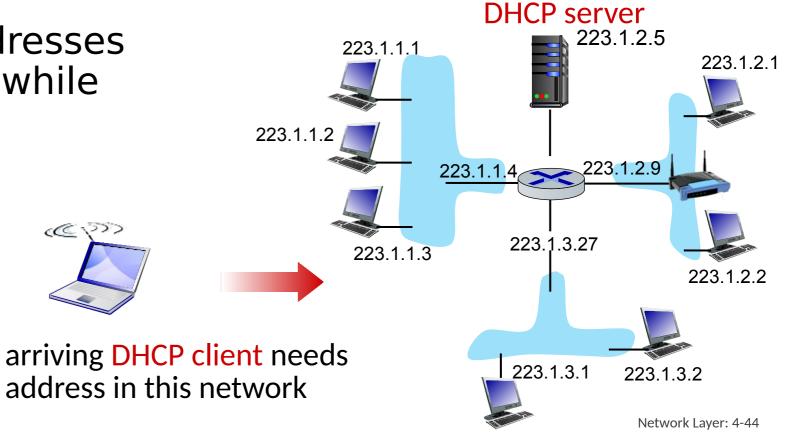
### 2. How gets a host an IP address?

- 1. Manually by system admin in config file (e.g., /etc/rc.config in UNIX)
- 2. Dynamically from a server: DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol
  - "plug-and-play"

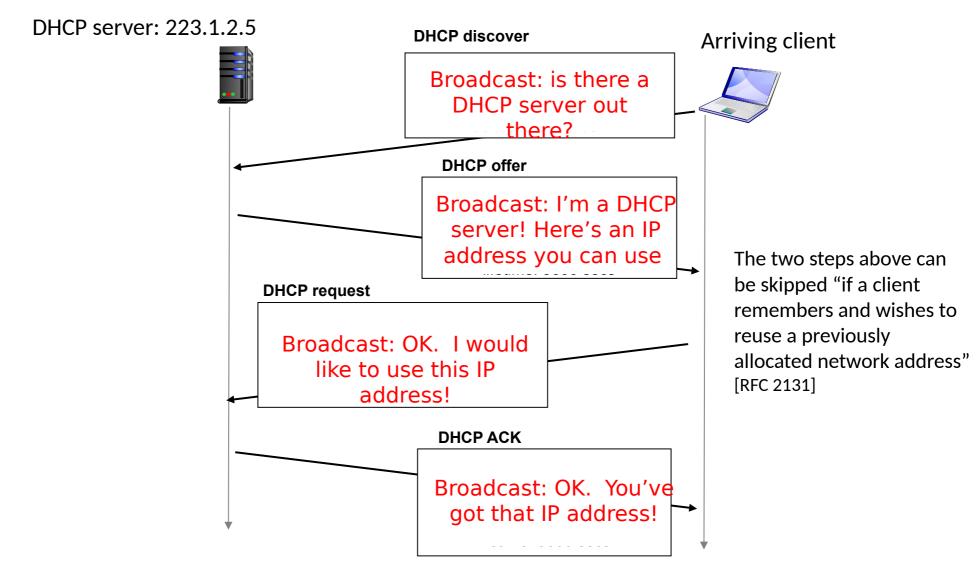
## **DHCP** client-server scenario

goal: host dynamically obtains IP address from network server when it "joins" network

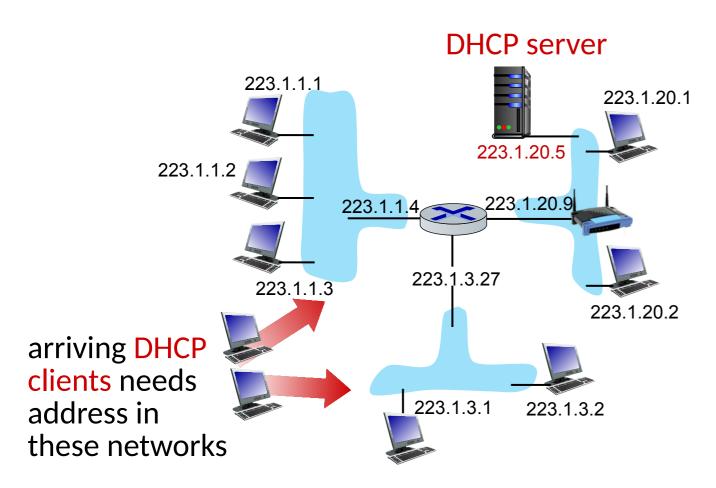
 allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected/on) Typically, DHCP server will be colocated in router, serving all subnets to which router is attached



## **DHCP** client-server scenario



# DHCP router relay agent



DHCP server located outside router serving all subnets to which router is attached:

- Router configured as a DHCP relay agent (ip helper-address 223.1.20.5)
- Router forward DHCP requests and replies between client and DHCP server
- Router sets the gateway IP address (223.1.1.4) in giaddr field of the DHCP packet
- This allows DHCP server to identify which subnet the request originated

#### **DHCP:** more than IP addresses

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

- address of gateway router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- subnet mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)
- IP address lease time

# 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

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

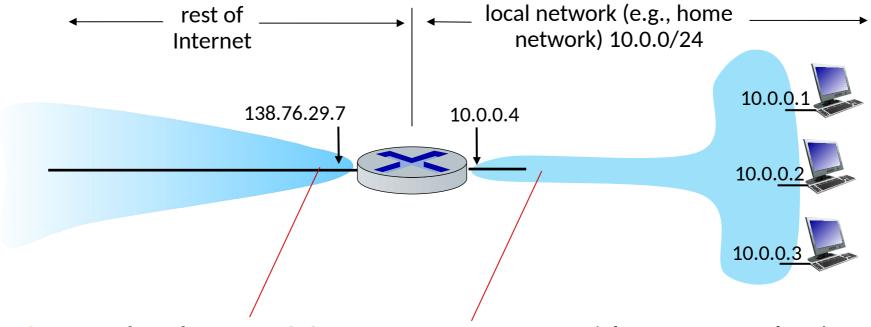
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#### **NAT:** network address translation

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

## Clients in a local network (LAN)

# Private network side Public network side Source | Source | Target IP | NAT Port 10.0.0.1 | 837 | 3.3.3.3 | 267

NAT

Network address translation (NAT)

#### Remote server

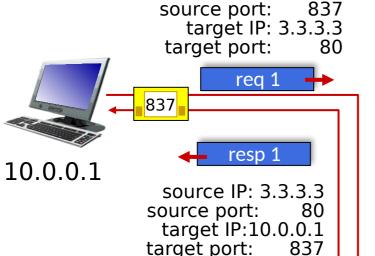
#### **NAT** router

target IP: 4.2.1.5

267

target port:

- 1. changes packet's source address from 10.0.0.1:837 to 4.2.1.5:267
- 2. updates table



source IP:10.0.0.1

source IP: 4.2.1.5 267 source port: Public target IP: 3.3.3.3 Default gateway 80 IP address: IP address: target port: 10.0.0.9 4.2.1.5 reg 1 80 resp 1 Gateway-router source IP: 3.3.3.3 with 3.3.3.3 source port:



10.0.0.2

Clients in a local network (LAN)

Private ne	twork sic	ePublic network side				
Source IP	Source Port	Target IP	NAT Port			
10.0.0.1	837	3.3.3.3	267			
10.0.0.2	932	3.3.3.3	413			

Network address translation (NAT)

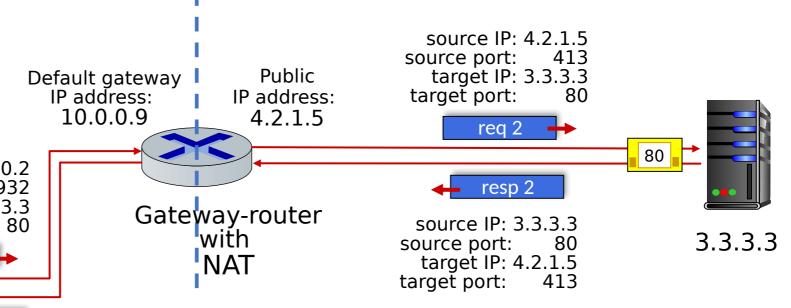
#### Remote server

#### **NAT** router

- 1. changes packet's source address from 10.0.0.2:932 to 4.2.1.5:413
- 2. updates table



10.0.0.1



source IP:10.0.0.2 source port: 932 target IP: 3.3.3.3 target port: 80

932

10.0.0.2

source IP: 3.3.3.3 source port: 80 target IP:10.0.0.2 target port: 932

resp 2

#### **NAT:** network address translation

- all devices in local network have 32-bit addresses in a "private" IP address space (10.0.0.0/8, 172.16.0.0/12, 192.168.0.0/16 prefixes) that can only be used in local network
- 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

### Network layer: "data plane" roadmap

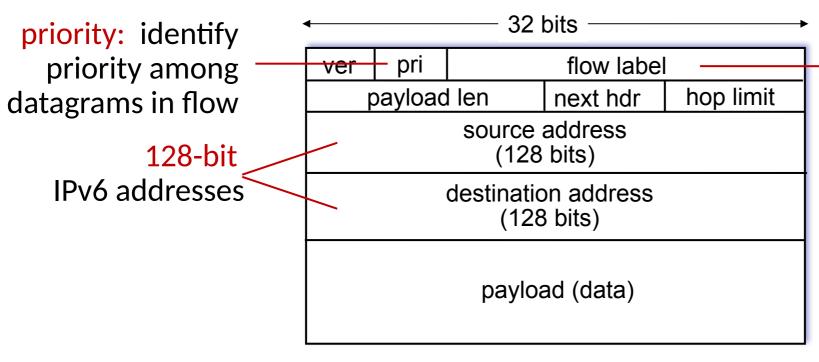
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## **IPv6: motivation**

- 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

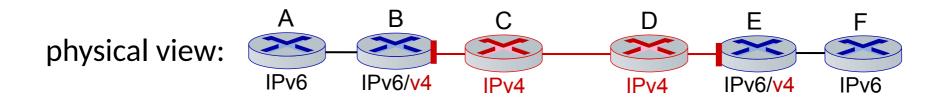


flow label: identify datagrams in same "flow." (concept of "flow" not well defined).

What's missing (compared with IPv4):

- no checksum (to speed processing at routers)
- no fragmentation/reassembly
- no options (available as upper-layer, next-header protocol at router)

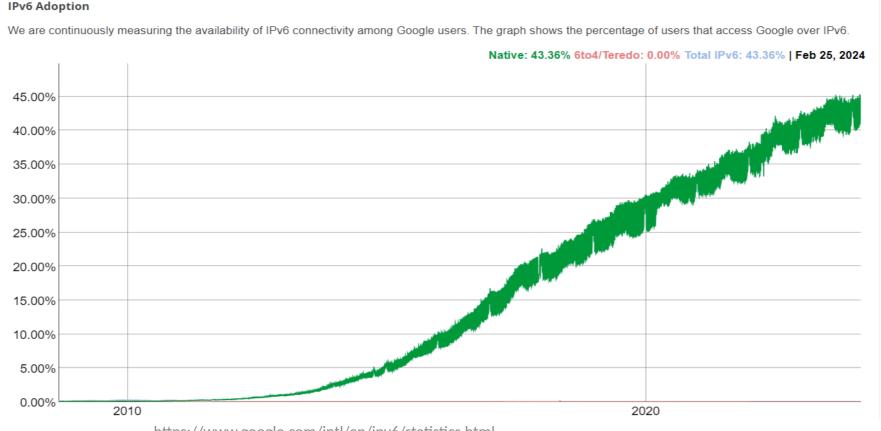
# **Tunneling**





# **IPv6: adoption**

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



## Network layer: "data plane" roadmap

- 4.1 Network layer: overview
  - data plane
  - control plane
- 4.2 What's inside a router
  - input ports, forwarding,
  - switching, output ports, scheduling
- 4.3 IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format
  - addressing
  - network address translation
  - IPv6

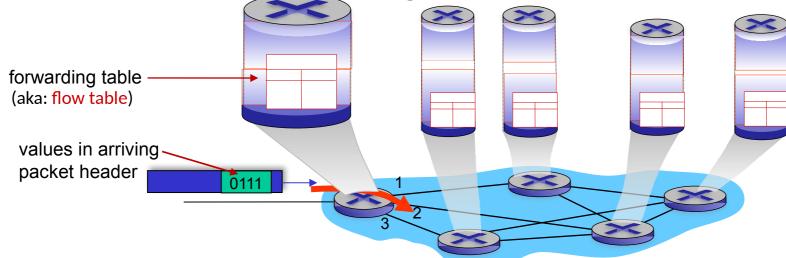


- 4.4 Generalized Forwarding, SDN
  - match + action
  - OpenFlow: match + action in action

# Generalized forwarding: match plus action

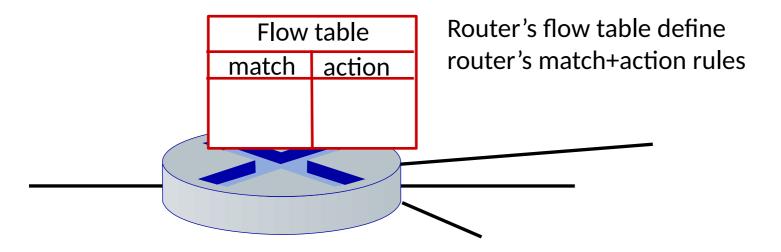
Review: each router contains a forwarding table (aka: flow table)

- "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

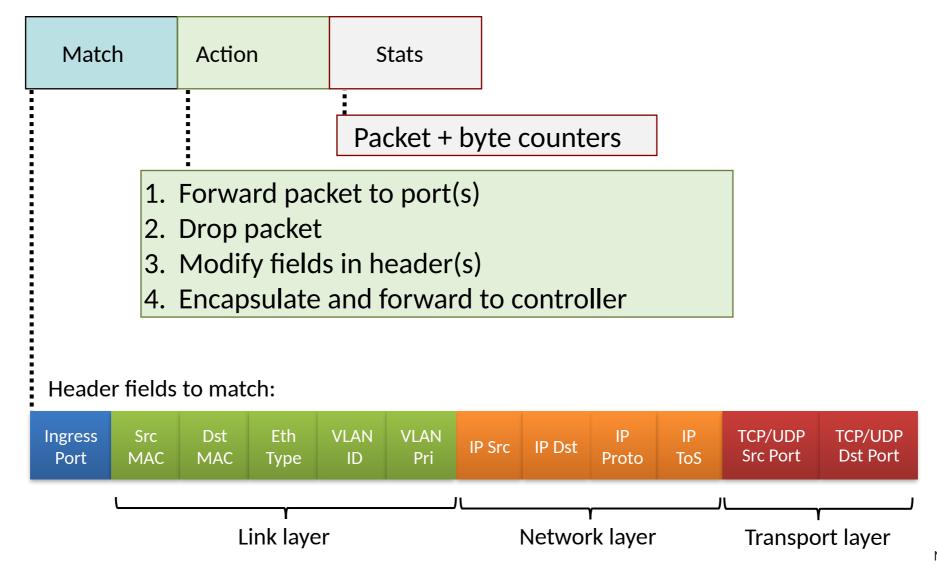


## Flow table abstraction

- 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

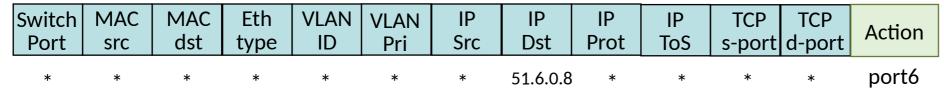


# OpenFlow: flow table entries



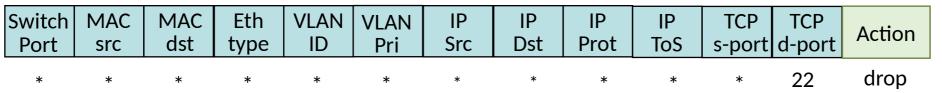
# OpenFlow: examples

#### Destination-based forwarding:

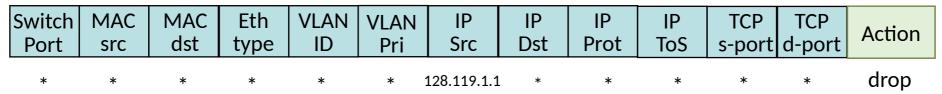


IP datagrams destined to IP address 51.6.0.8 should be forwarded to router output port 6

#### Firewall:



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



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

# OpenFlow: examples

#### Layer 2 destination-based forwarding:

Switch	MAC	MAC	Eth	VLAN	VLAN	IP	IP	IP	IP	TCP	TCP	Action
Port	src	dst	type	ID	Pri	Src	Dst	Prot	ToS	s-port	d-port	
*	*	22:A7:23: 11:F1:02	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	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

# Chapter 4: done!

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



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

Answer: by the control plane (next chapter)