Network Layer – Part I

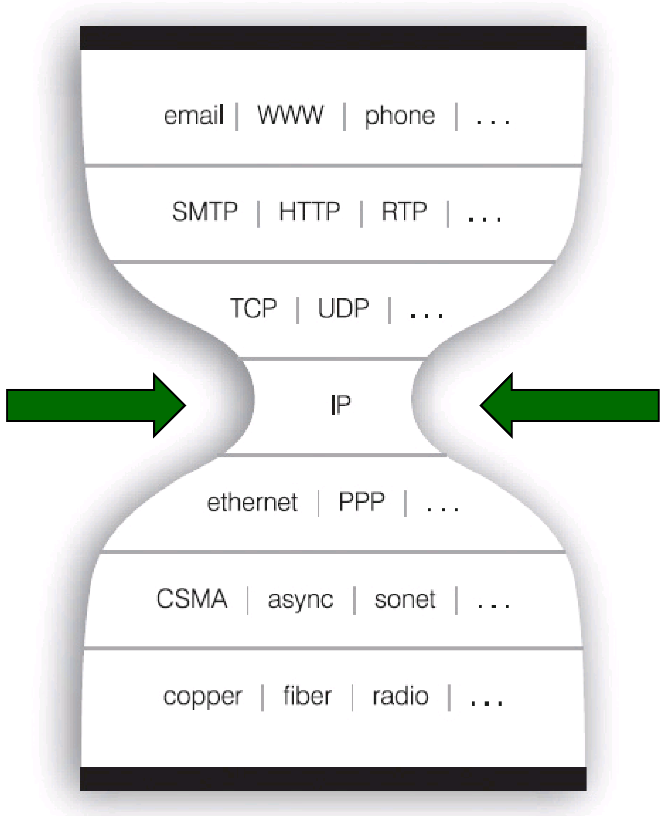
Computer Networks, Winter 2013/2014

Acknowledgements: J. Kurose & K. Ross – Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach Featuring the Internet

Network Layer

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 What's inside a router
- 4.3 IP: Internet Protocol
  - Datagram format
  - IPv4 addressing
  - ICMP
  - IPv6

“Hourglass” architecture



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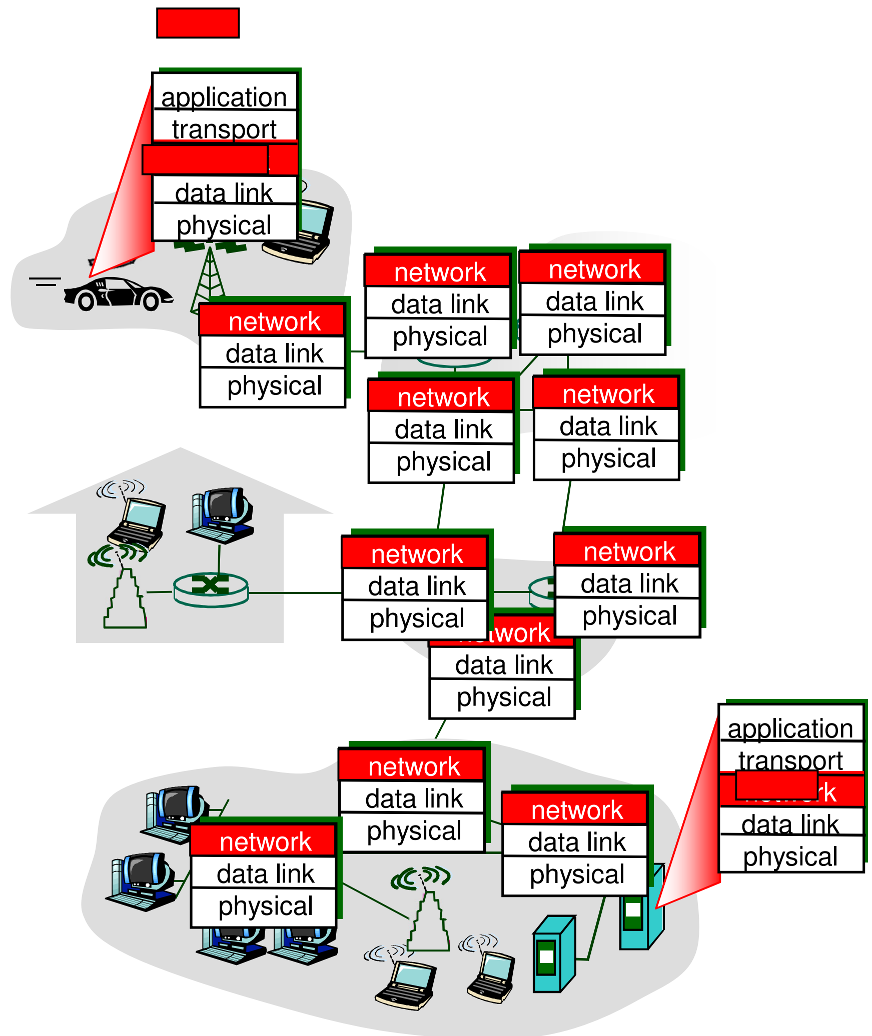
Network layer

- Transports segments from sending to receiving host
- Sending side: encapsulates segments into datagrams
- Receiving side: delivers segments to transport layer
- Network layer protocols in *every* host, router
- Router examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it

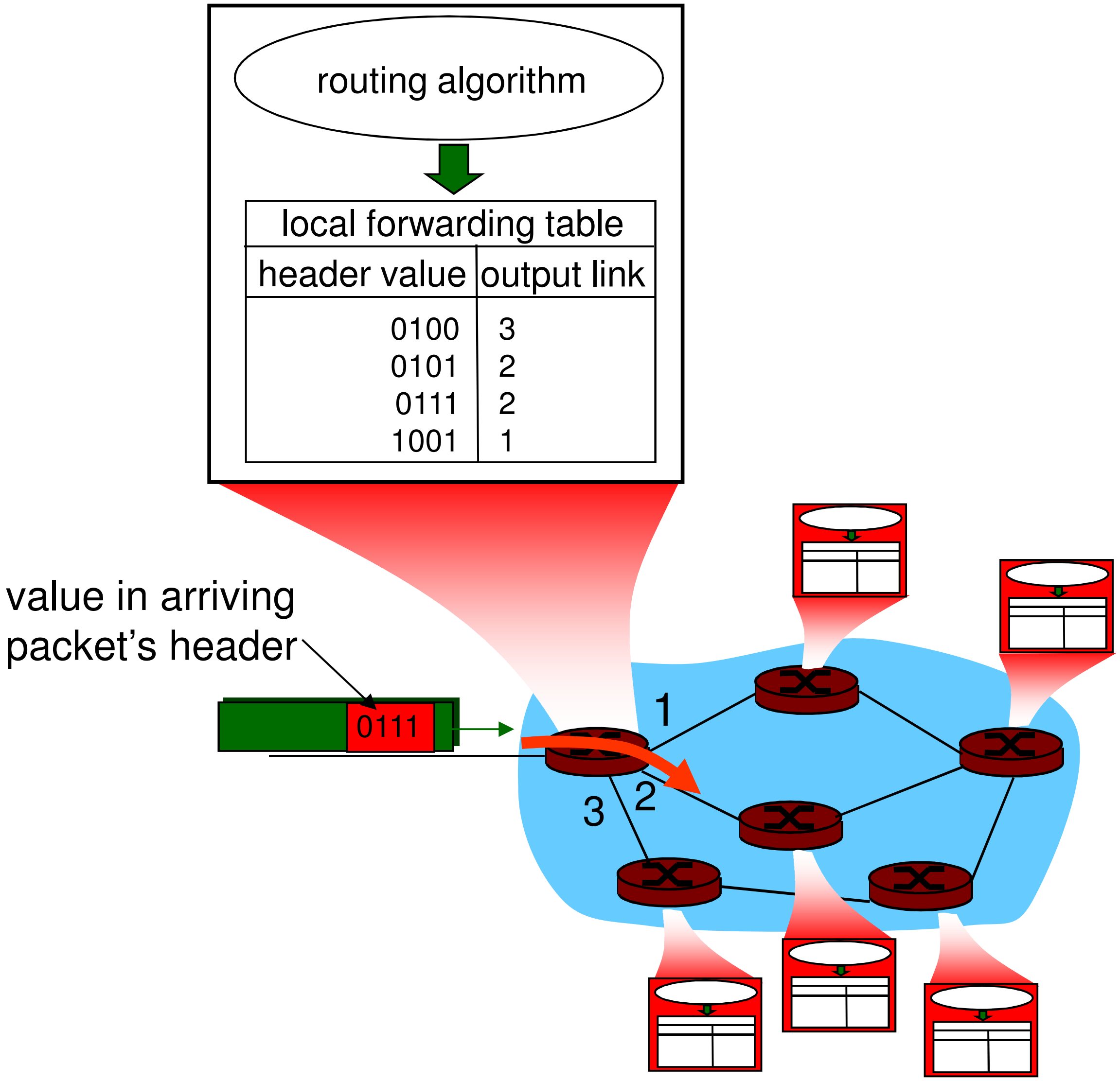


Two Key Network-Layer Functions

- Forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- Routing: determine route taken by packets from source to dest.
  - routing algorithms

- Analogy:
- Routing: process of planning trip from source to dest
- Forwarding: process of getting through single interchange

Interplay between routing and forwarding



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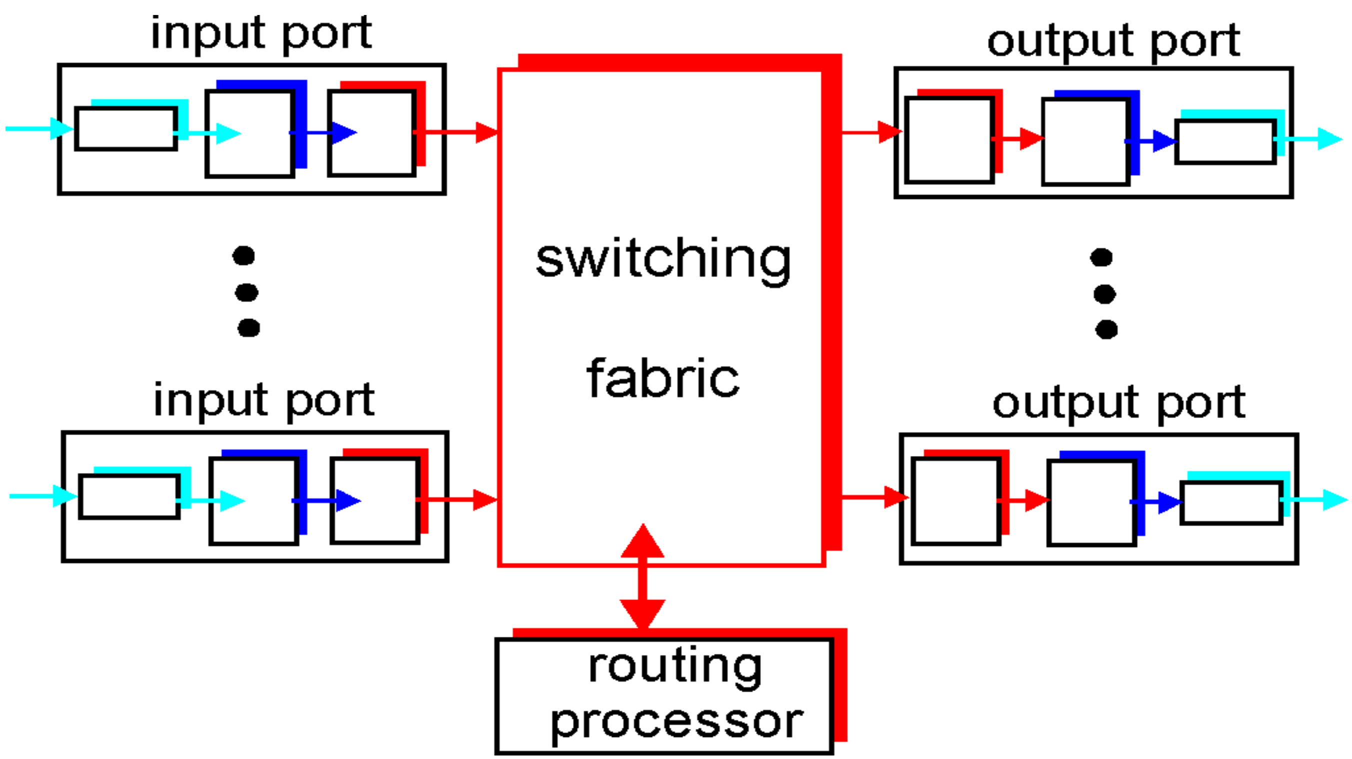
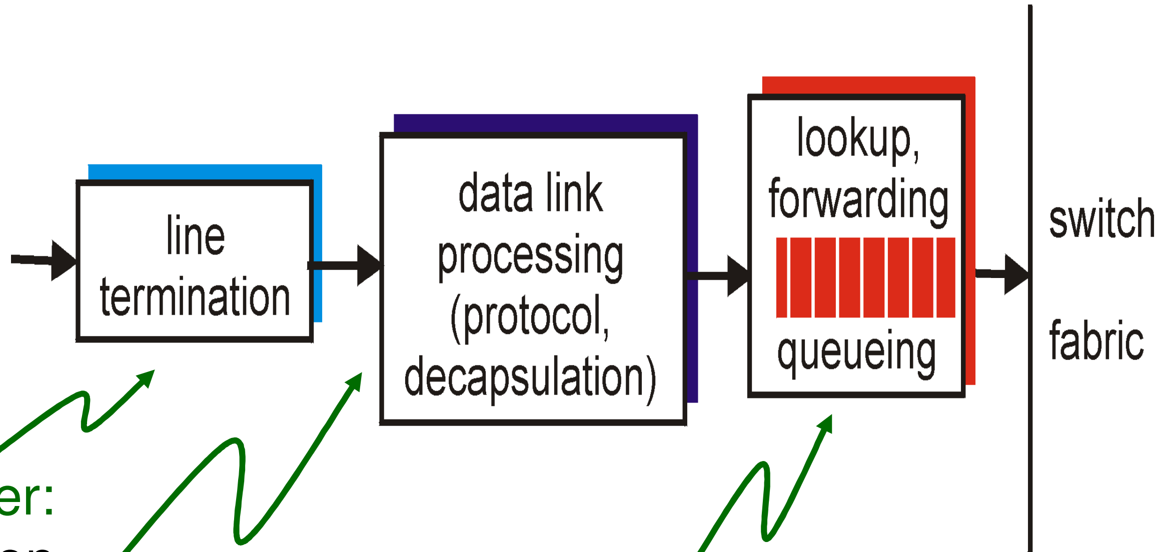
Router Architecture Overview

Two key router functions:

- run routing algorithms/protocol (RIP, OSPF, BGP)
- *forwarding* datagrams from incoming to outgoing link



Input Port Functions



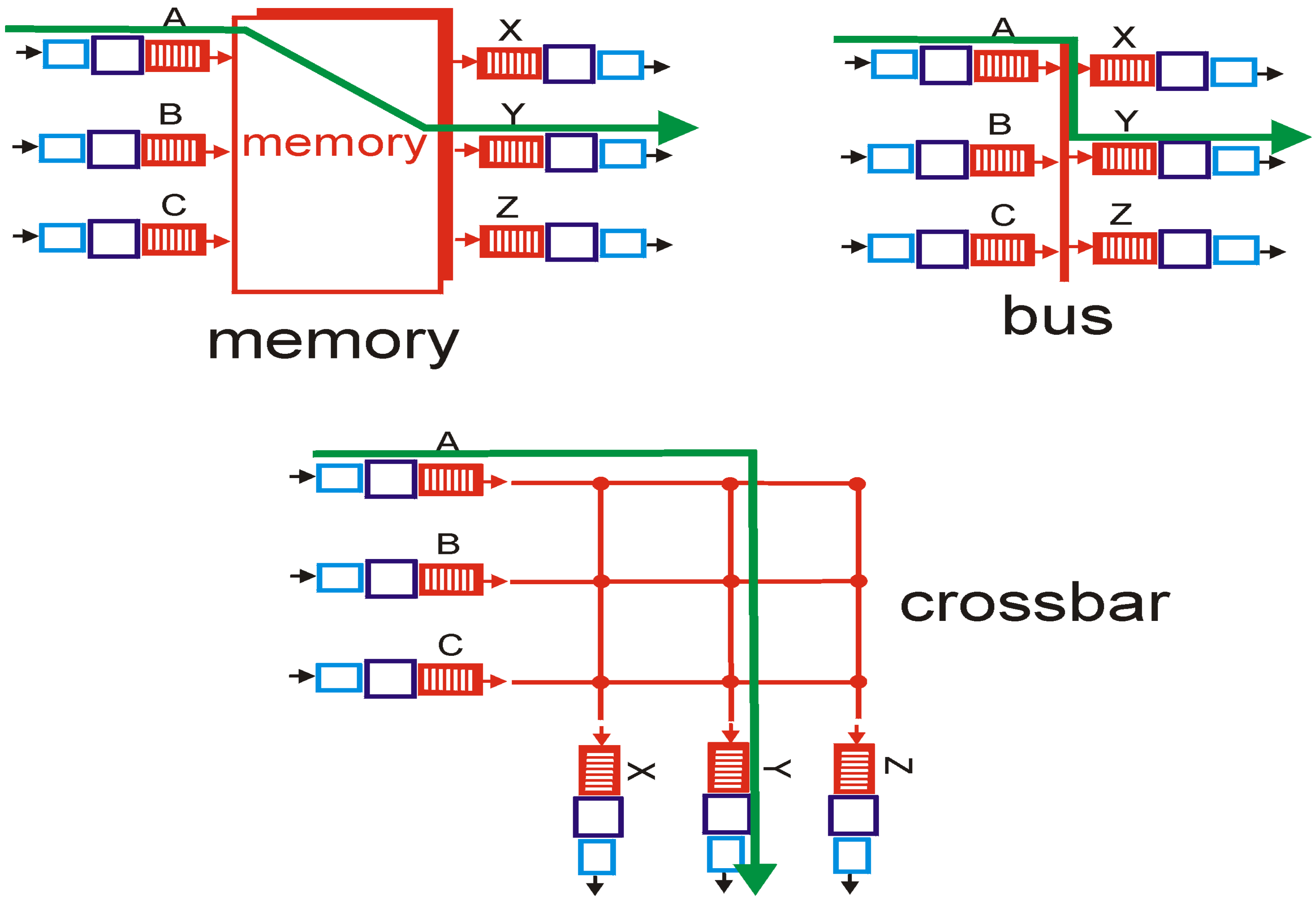
Physical layer:
bit-level reception

Data link layer:
e.g., Ethernet
see chapter 5

Decentralized switching:

- given datagram dest., lookup output port using forwarding table in input port memory
- goal: complete input port processing at 'line speed'
- queuing: if datagrams arrive faster than forwarding rate into switch fabric

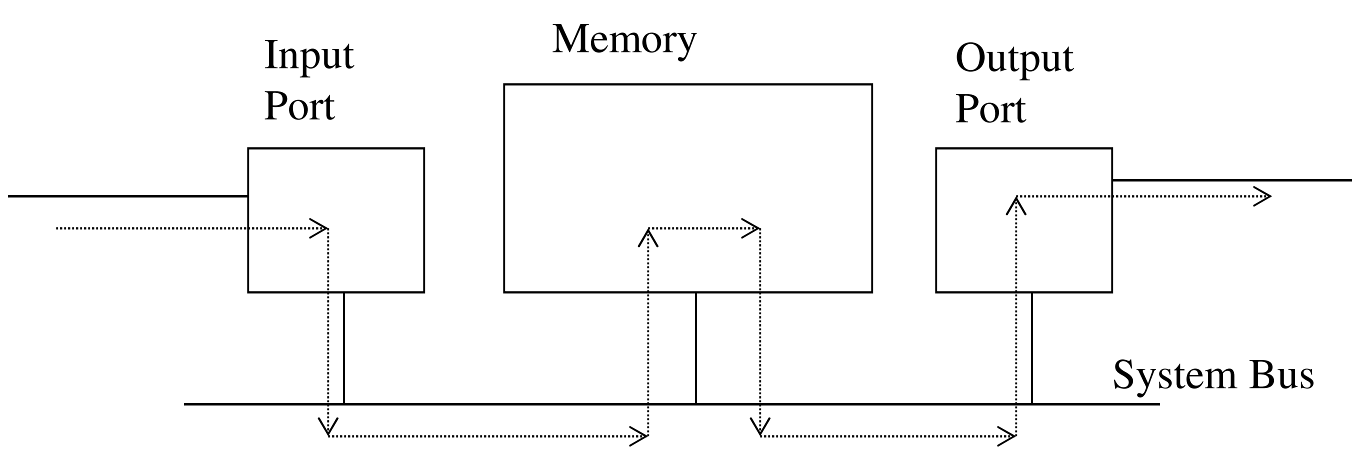
Three types of switching fabrics



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 (2 bus crossings per datagram)



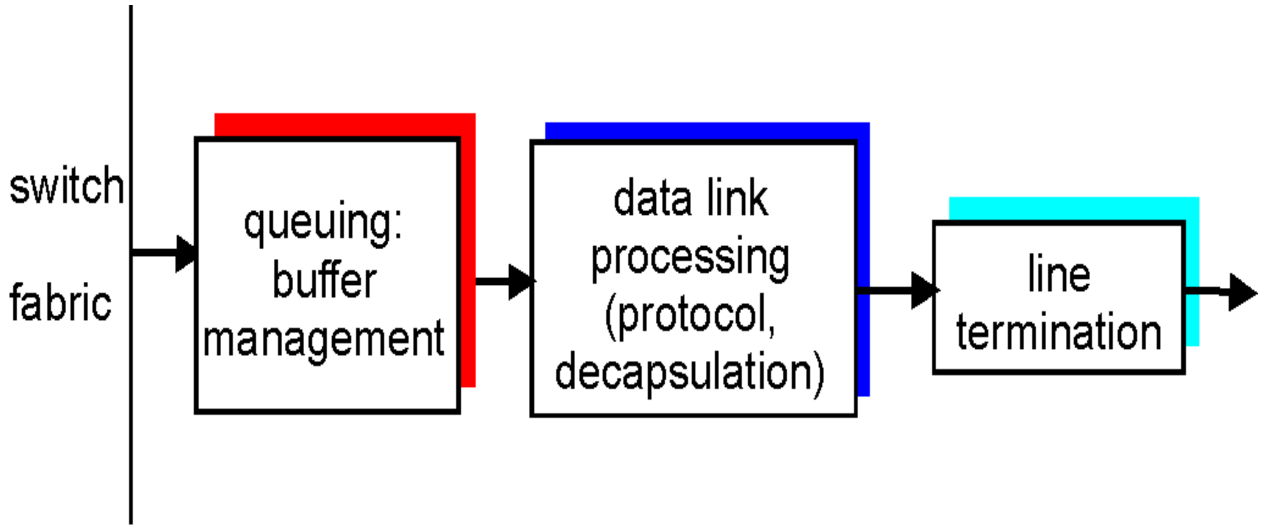
Switching Via a Bus

- 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 and enterprise routers

Switching Via An Interconnection Network

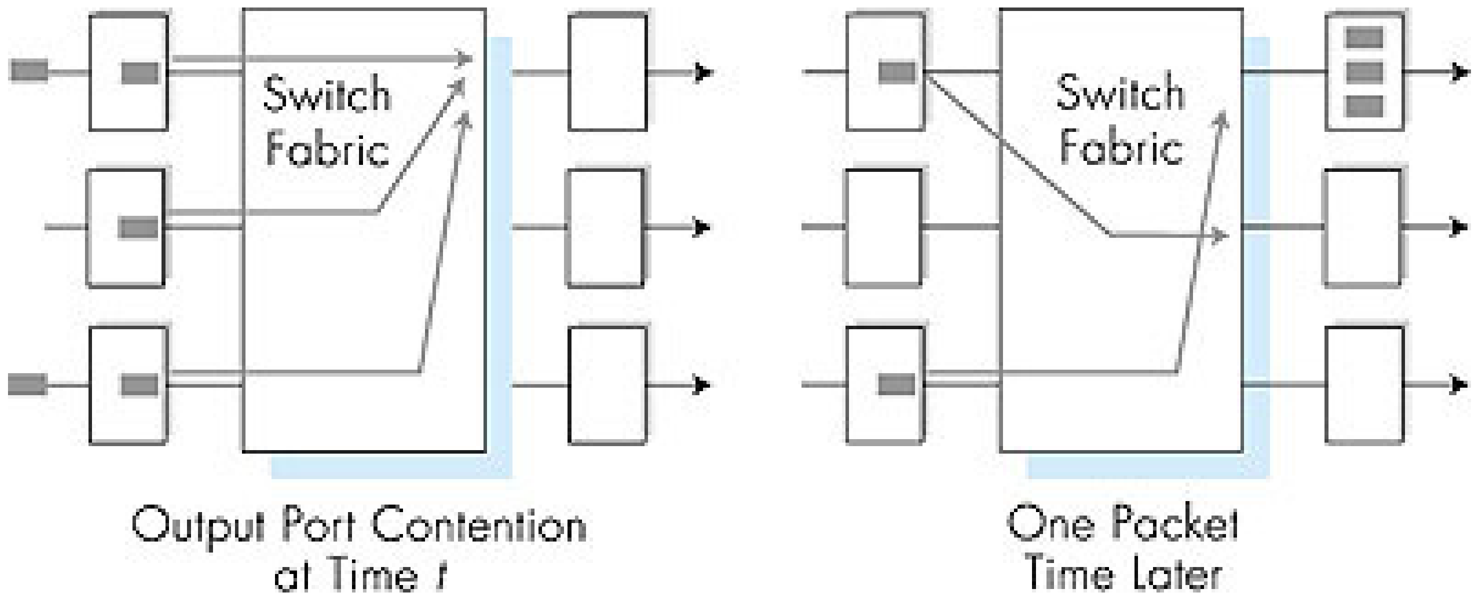
- overcome bus bandwidth limitations
- Banyan networks, other interconnection nets initially developed to connect processors in multiprocessor
- advanced design: fragmenting datagram into fixed length cells, switch cells through the fabric.
- Cisco 12000: switches 60 Gbps through the interconnection network

Output Ports



- *Buffering* required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than the transmission rate
- *Scheduling discipline* chooses among queued datagrams for transmission

Output port queueing



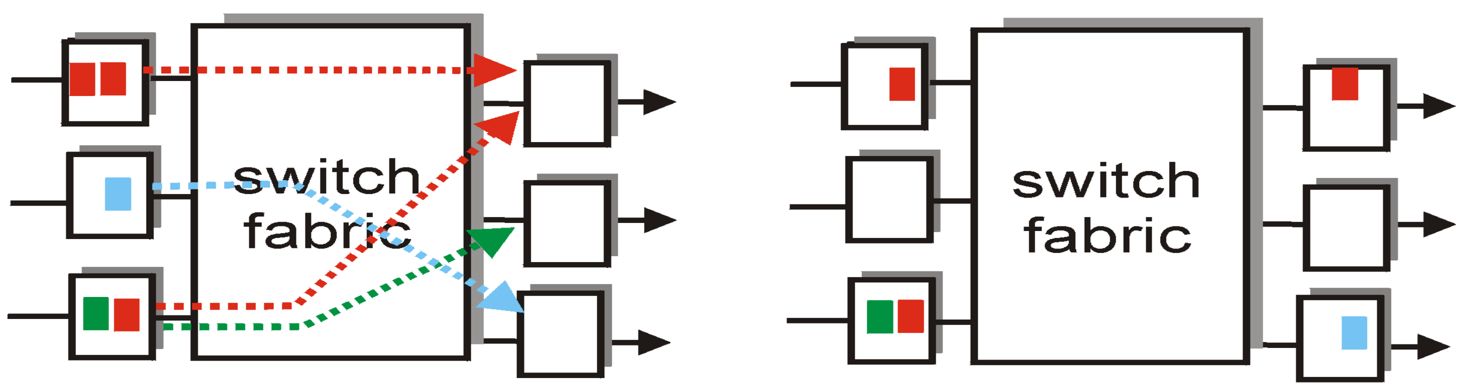
- buffering when arrival rate via switch exceeds output line speed
- *queueing (delay) and loss due to output port buffer overflow!*

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 Gps link: 2.5 Gbit buffer
- Recent recommendation: with *N* flows, buffering equal to $\frac{RTT \cdot C}{\sqrt{N}}$

Input Port Queuing

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



output port contention at time t - only one red packet can be transferred

green packet experiences HOL blocking

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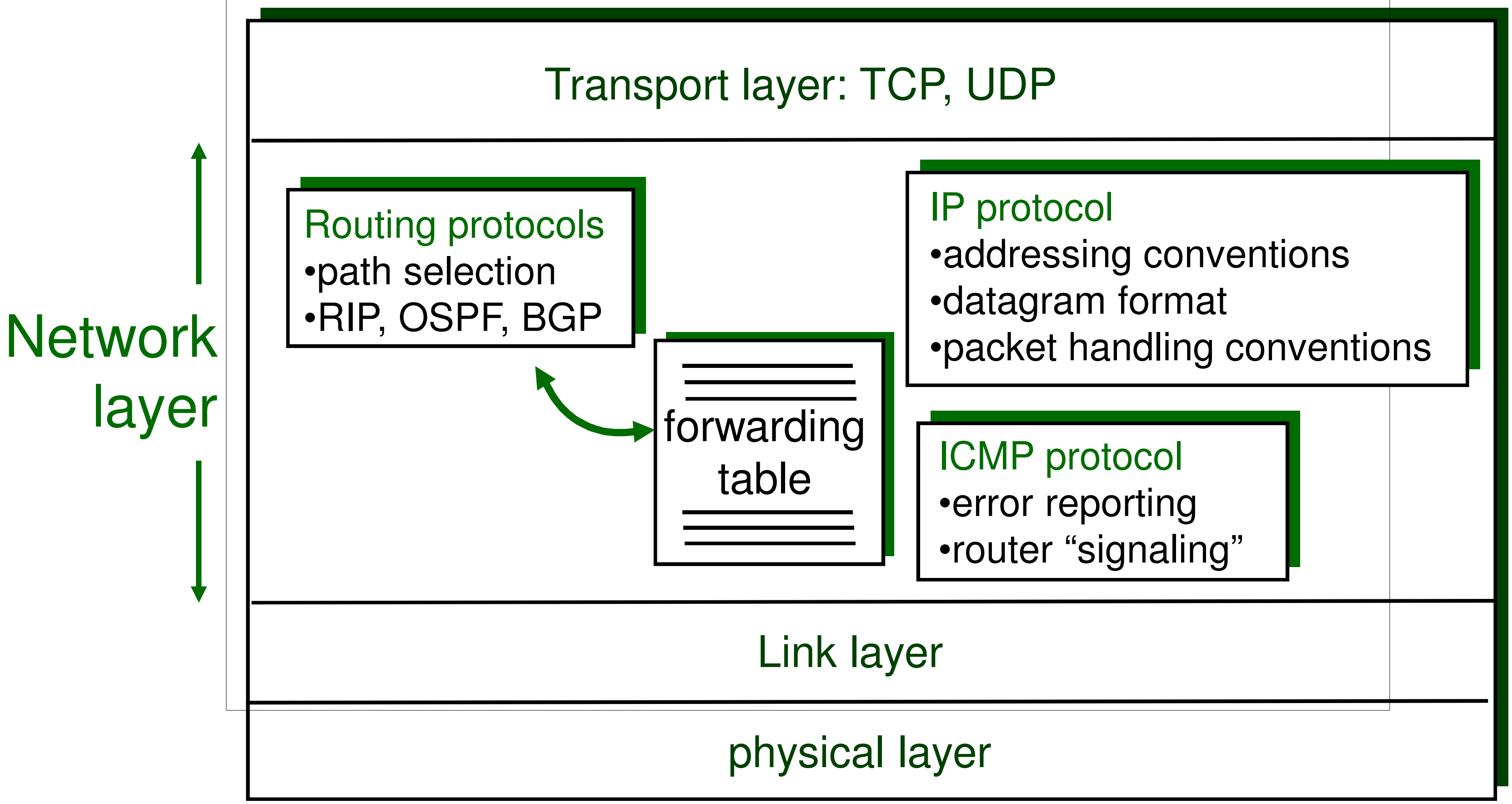
  - ICMP
  - IPv6

The Internet Network layer

Host, router network layer functions:



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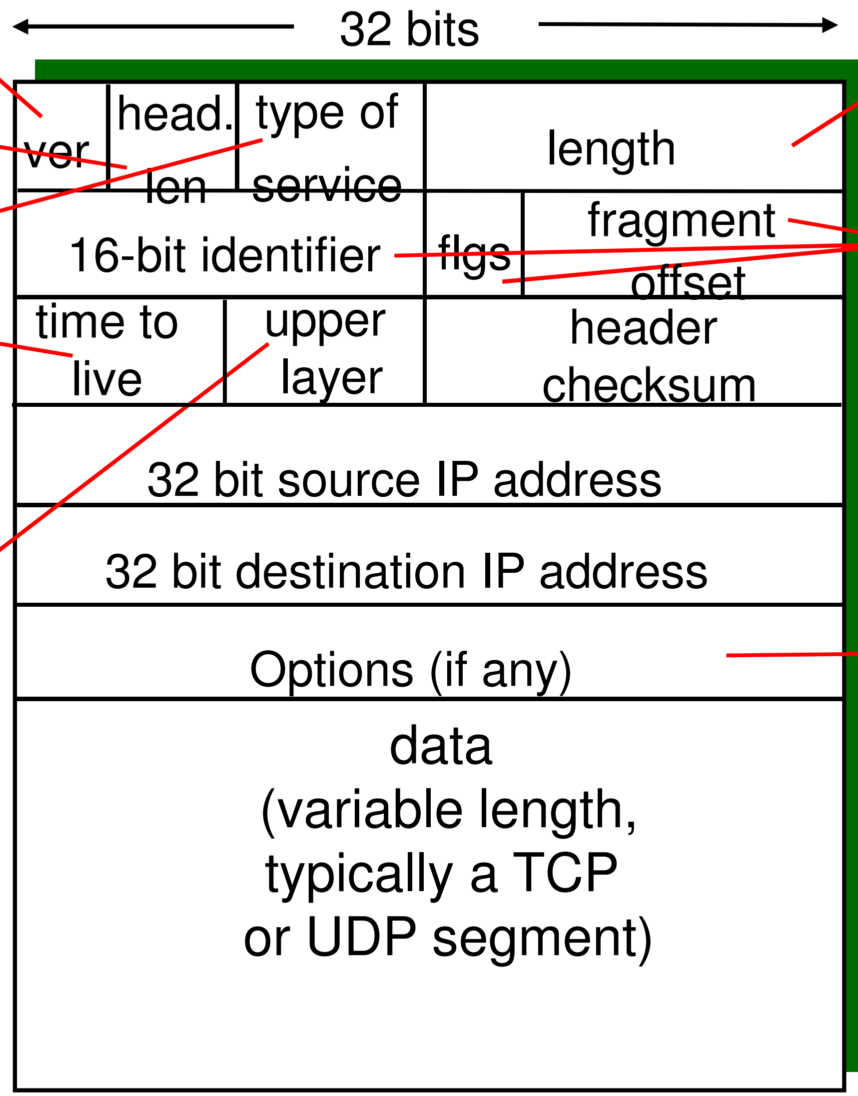
IP datagram format

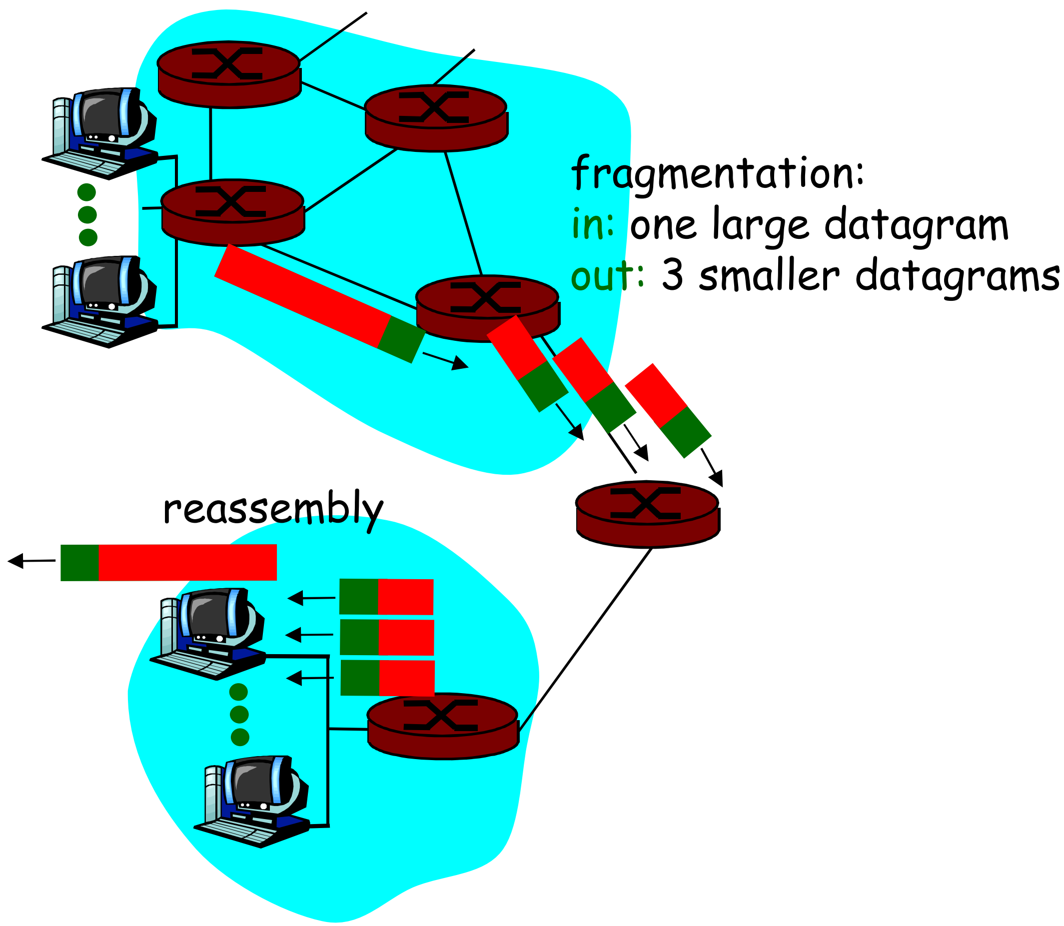


how much overhead with TCP?

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

IP Fragmentation & Reassembly

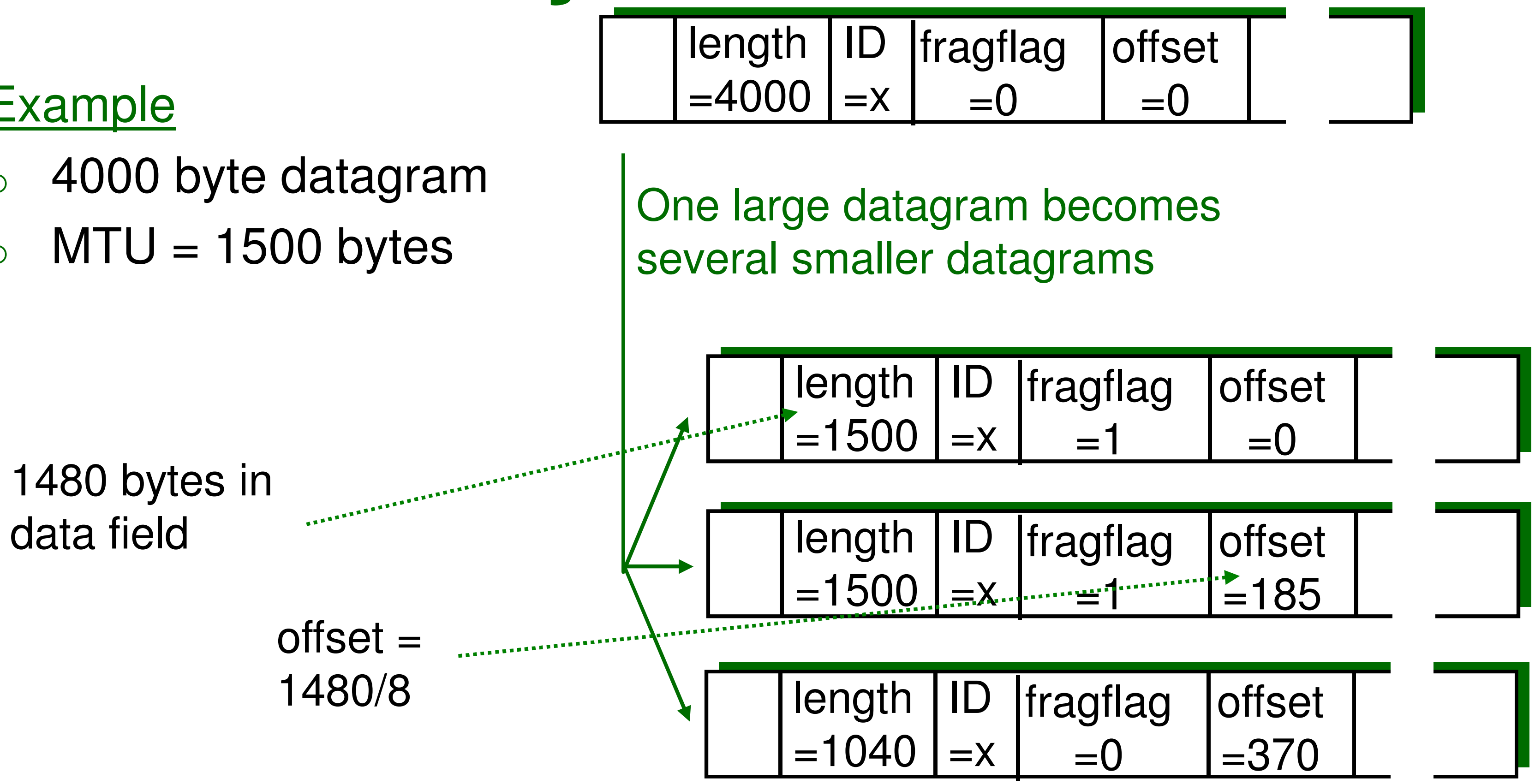
- network links have MTU (max.transfer size) - largest possible link-level frame.
  - different link types, different MTUs
- large IP datagram divided ("fragmented") within net
  - one datagram becomes several datagrams
  - "reassembled" only at final destination
  - IP header bits used to identify,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



IP Fragmentation and Reassembly

Example

- 4000 byte datagram
- MTU = 1500 bytes



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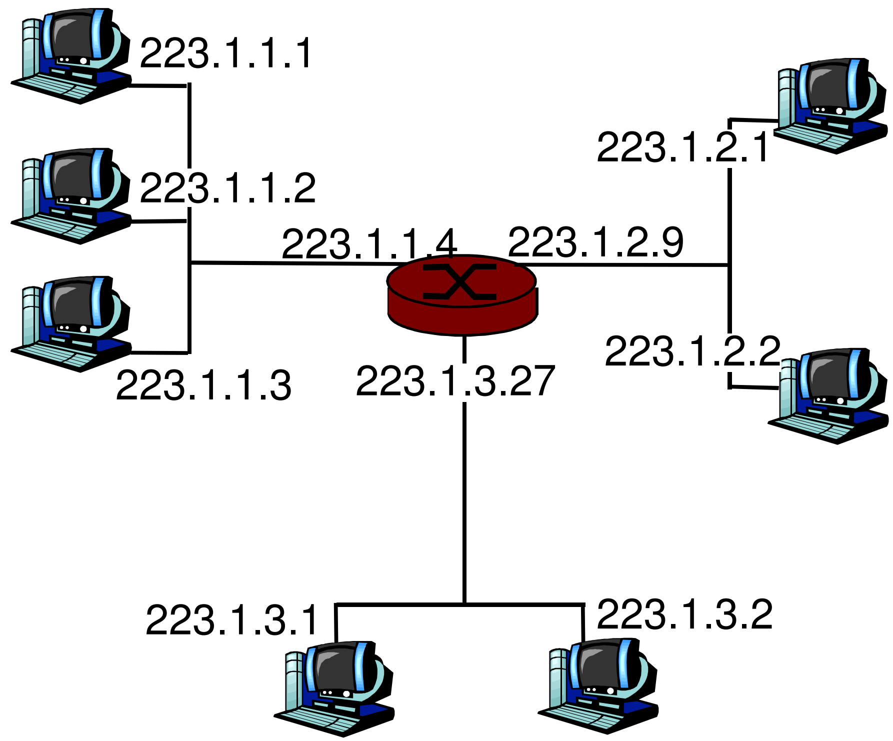
IP Addressing: introduction

- IP address: 32-bit identifier for host, router *interface*
- *interface:* connection between host/router and physical link
  - router's typically have multiple interfaces
  - host typically has one interface
  - IP addresses associated with each interface

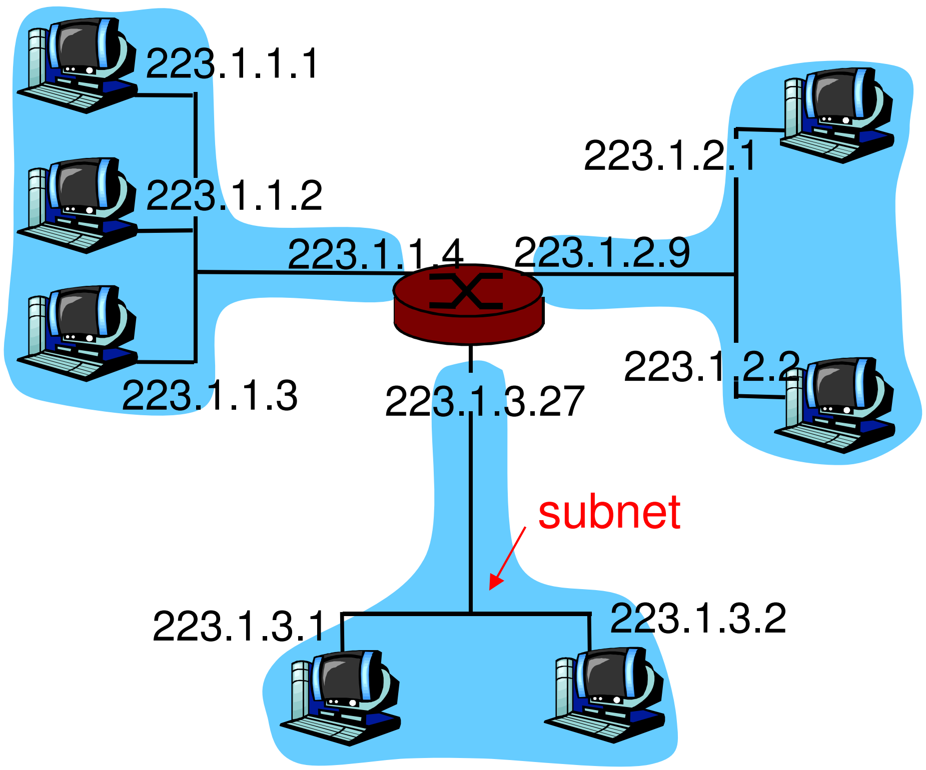


223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223 1 1 1

Subnets

- IP address:
  - subnet part (high order bits)
  - host part (low order bits)
- *What's a subnet ?*
  - device interfaces with same subnet part of IP address
  - can physically reach each other without intervening router

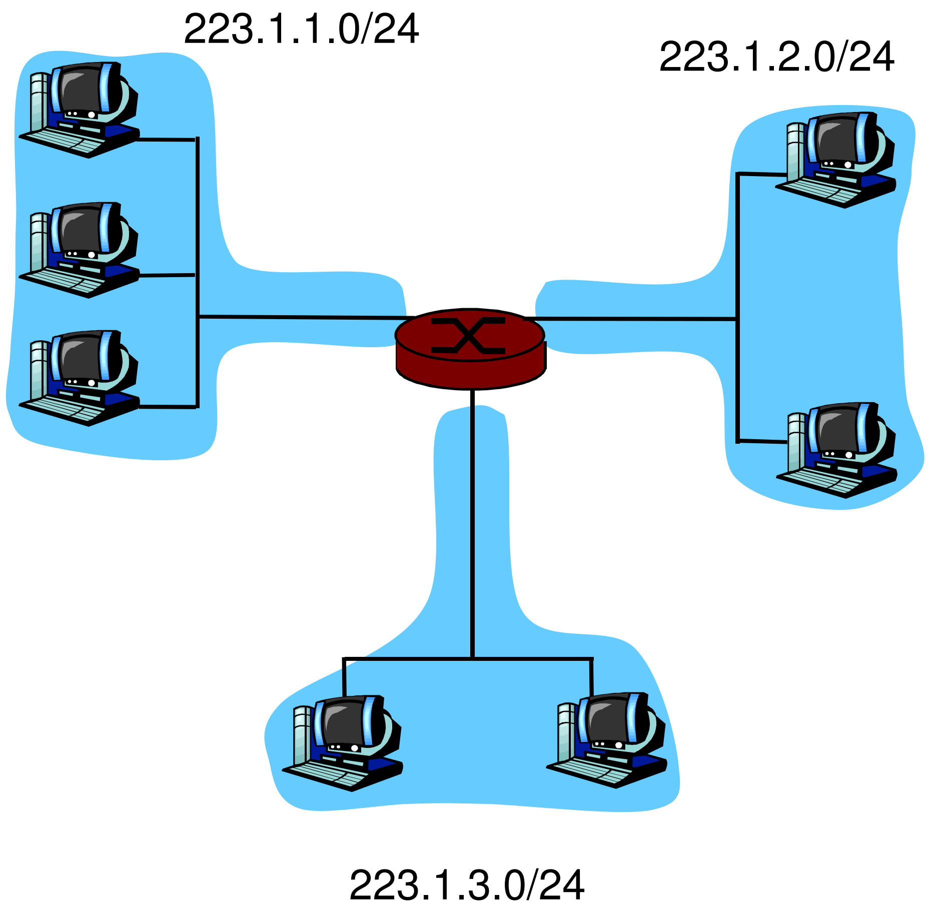


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

Recipe

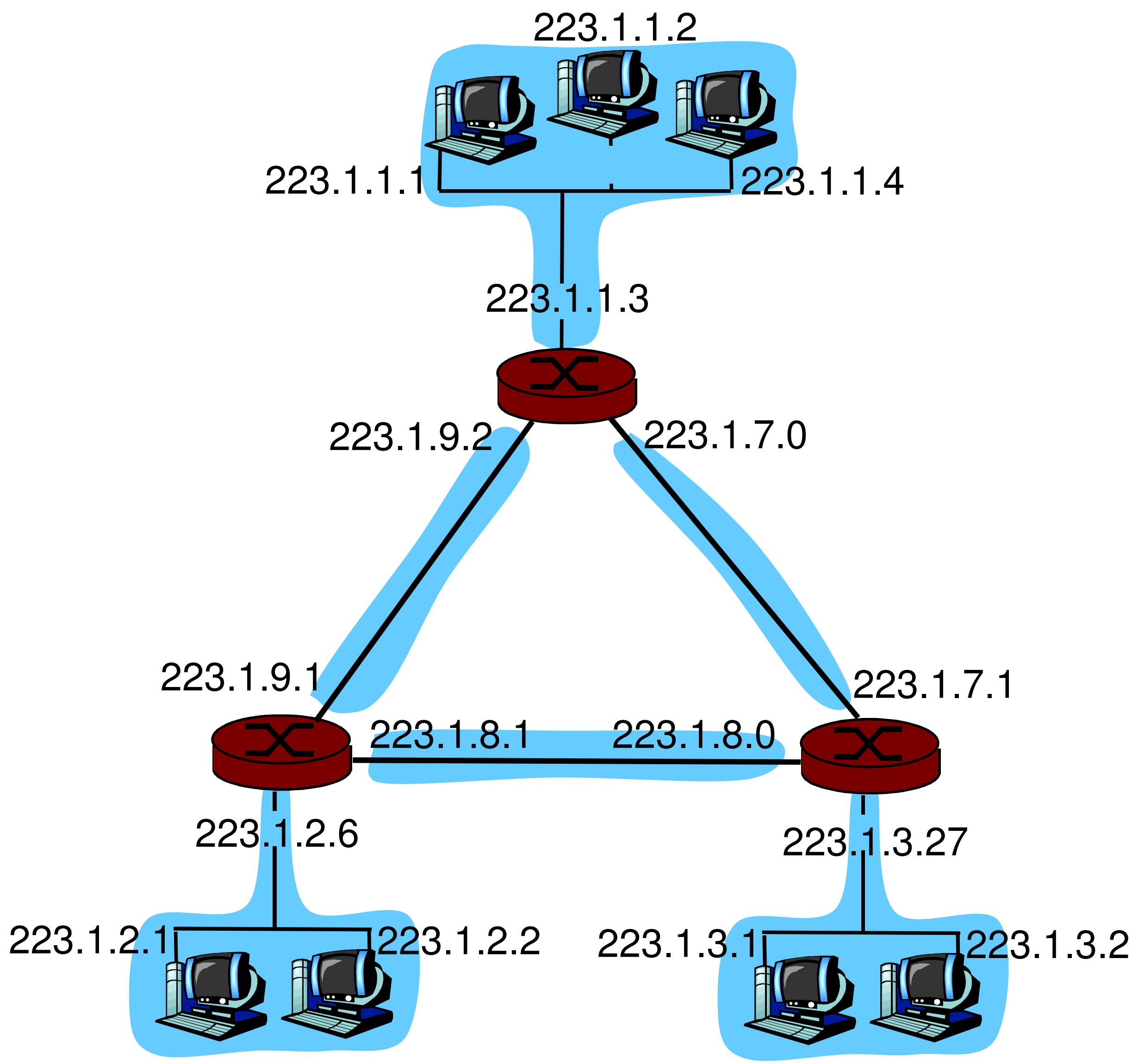
- To determine the subnets, detach each interface from its host or router, creating islands of isolated networks. Each isolated network is called a subnet.



Subnet mask: /24

Subnets

How many?



IP addressing: Classful Network

Class	Lead. Bits	Netw. Addr. Bits	No. Of Networks	No. Of Hosts	Addresses
A	0	8	128 (= 2^7)	16,777,216 (= 2^{24})	0.0.0.0 to 127.255.255.255
B	10	16	16,384 (= 2^{14})	65,536 (= 2^{16})	128.0.0.0 to 191.255.255.255
C	110	24	2,097,152 (= 2^{21})	256 (= 2^8)	192.0.0.0 to 223.255.255.255
D	1110	n/d	n/d	n/d	224.0.0.0 to 239.255.255.255
E	1111	n/d	n/d	n/d	240.0.0.0 to 255.255.255.254

IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: **C**lassless **I**nter**D**omain **R**outing

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

subnet part | host part

11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000

200.23.16.0/23

IP addresses: how to get one?

- Q: How does a host get IP address?

- A1: hard-coded by system admin in a file
- A2: DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol
  - dynamically get address from as server
  - "plug-and-play"

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

Goal: allow host to *dynamically* obtain its IP address from network server when it joins network

- Can renew its lease on address in use
- Allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected an "on")
- Support for mobile users who want to join network (more shortly)

DHCP overview:

- host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg
- DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg
- host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
- DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msg

IP addresses: how to get one?

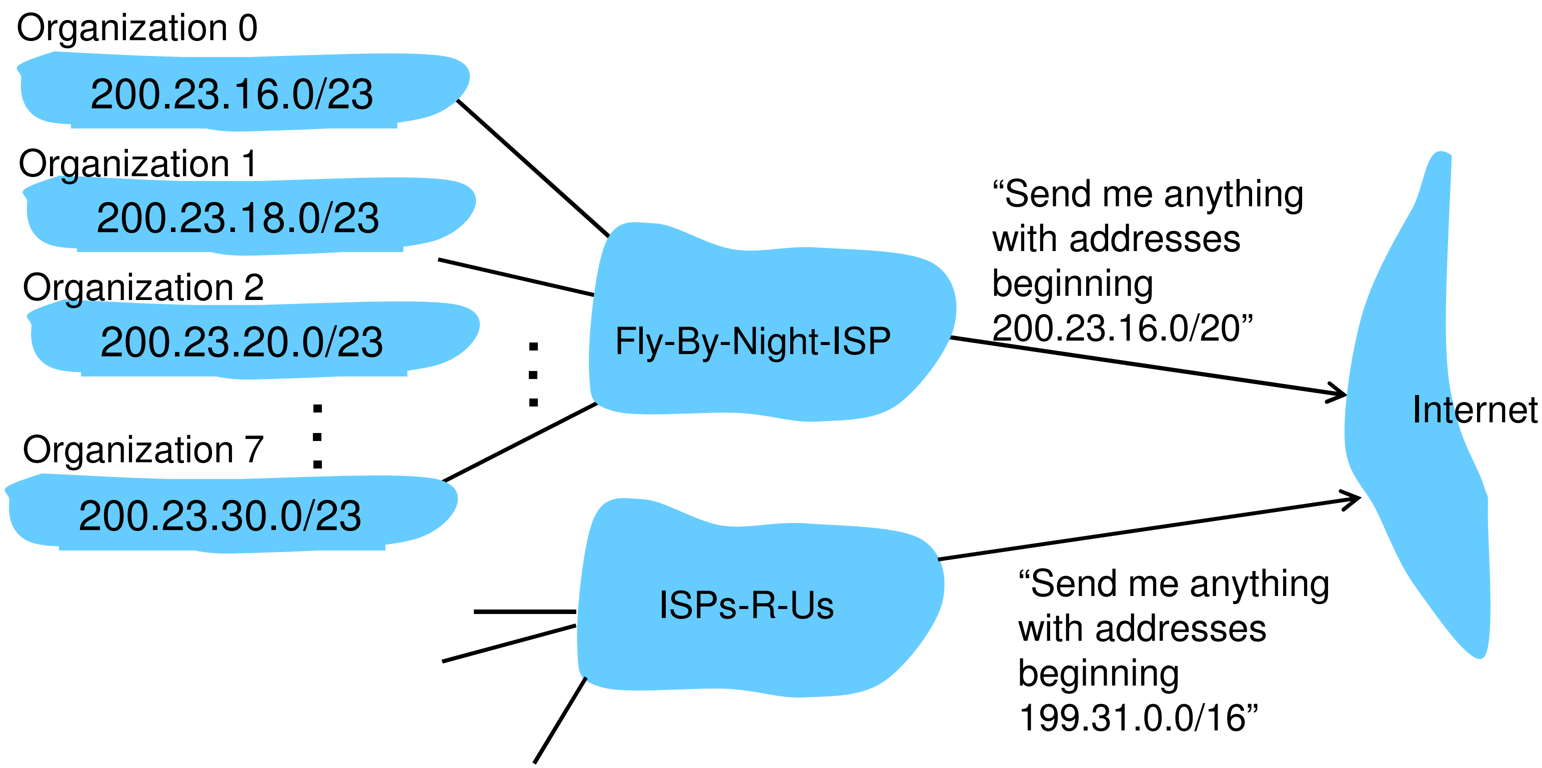
Q: How does *network* get subnet part of IP addr?

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

ISP's block	11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000	200.23.16.0/20
Organization 0	11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	11001000 00010111 00010010 00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	11001000 00010111 00010100 00000000	200.23.20.0/23
...	....	....
Organization 7	11001000 00010111 00011110 00000000	200.23.30.0/23

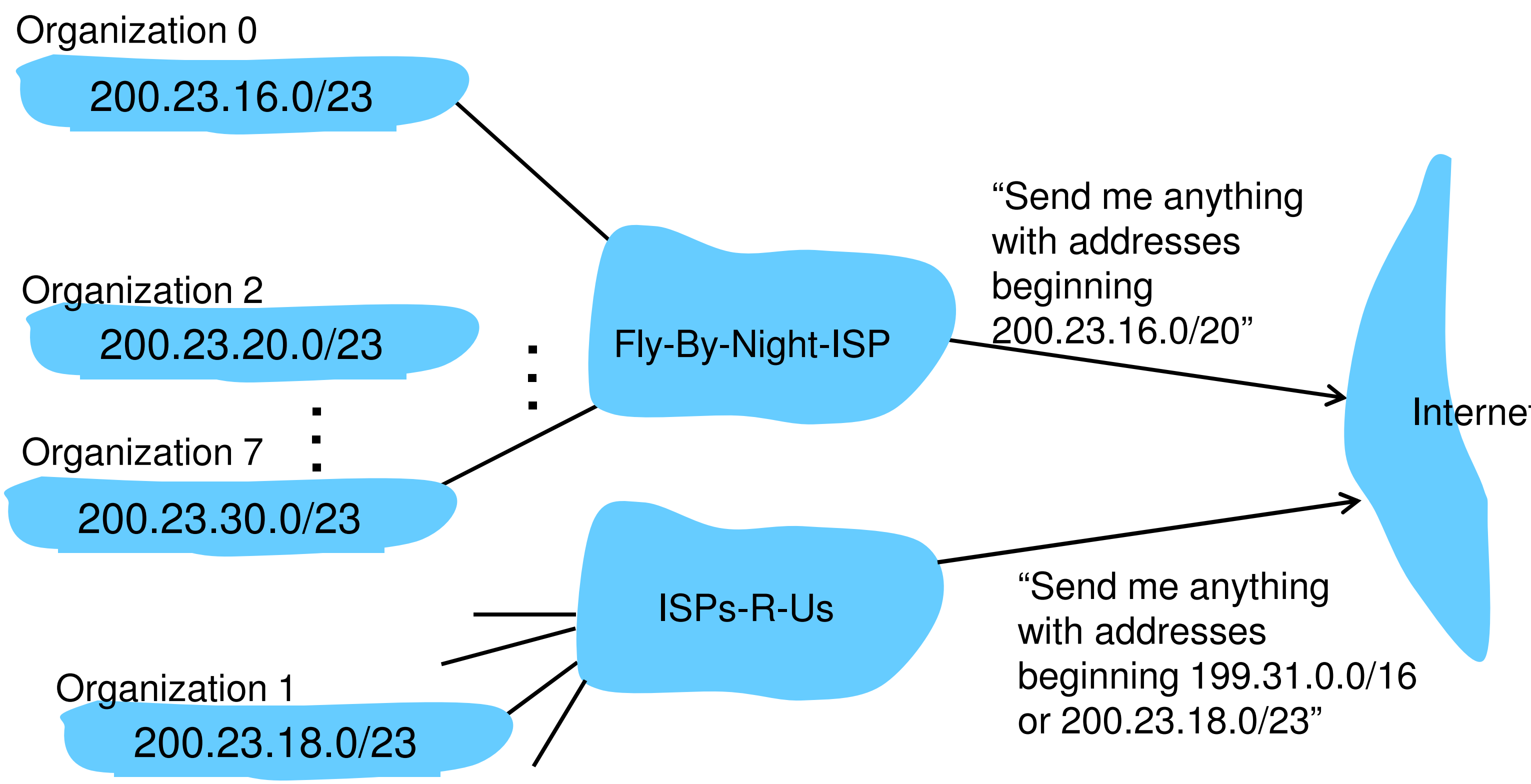
Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

Hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

ISPs-R-Us has a more specific route to Organization 1



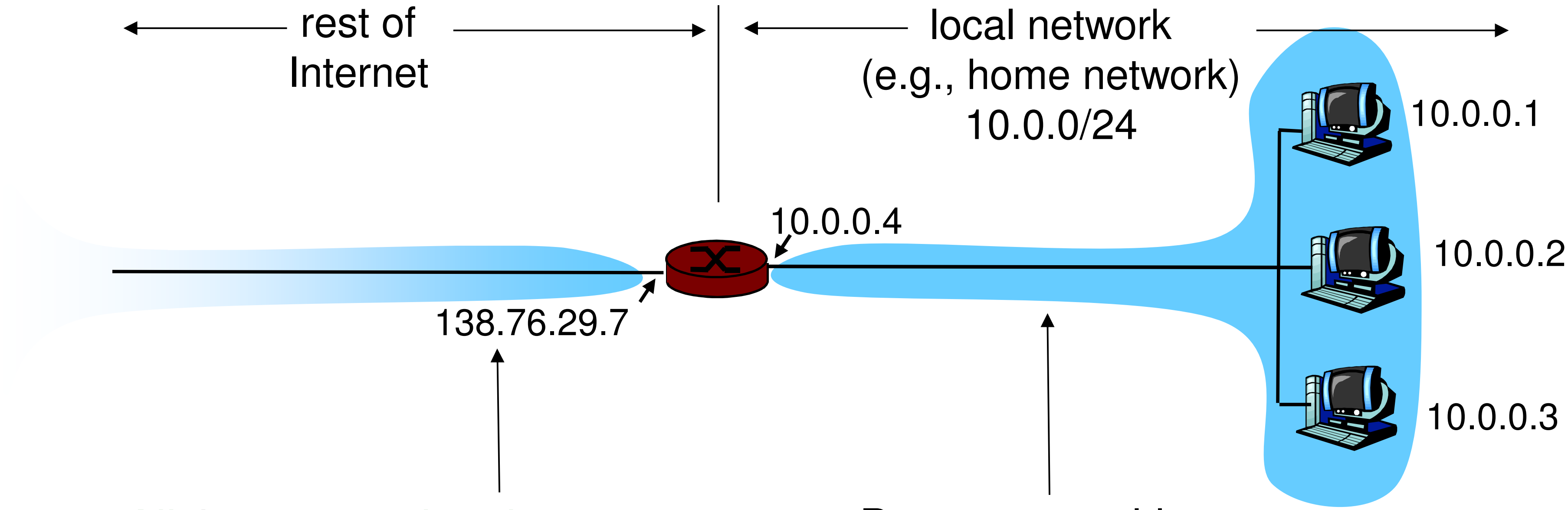
IP addressing: the last word...

- Q: How does an ISP get block of addresses?
- A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers
  - allocates addresses
  - manages DNS
  - assigns domain names, resolves disputes

NAT: Network Address Translation

- Motivation: local network uses just one IP address as far as outside world is concerned:
  - range of addresses not needed from ISP: just one IP address for all devices
  - can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
  - can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
  - devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus).

NAT: Network Address Translation



All datagrams *leaving* local network have same single source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, 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

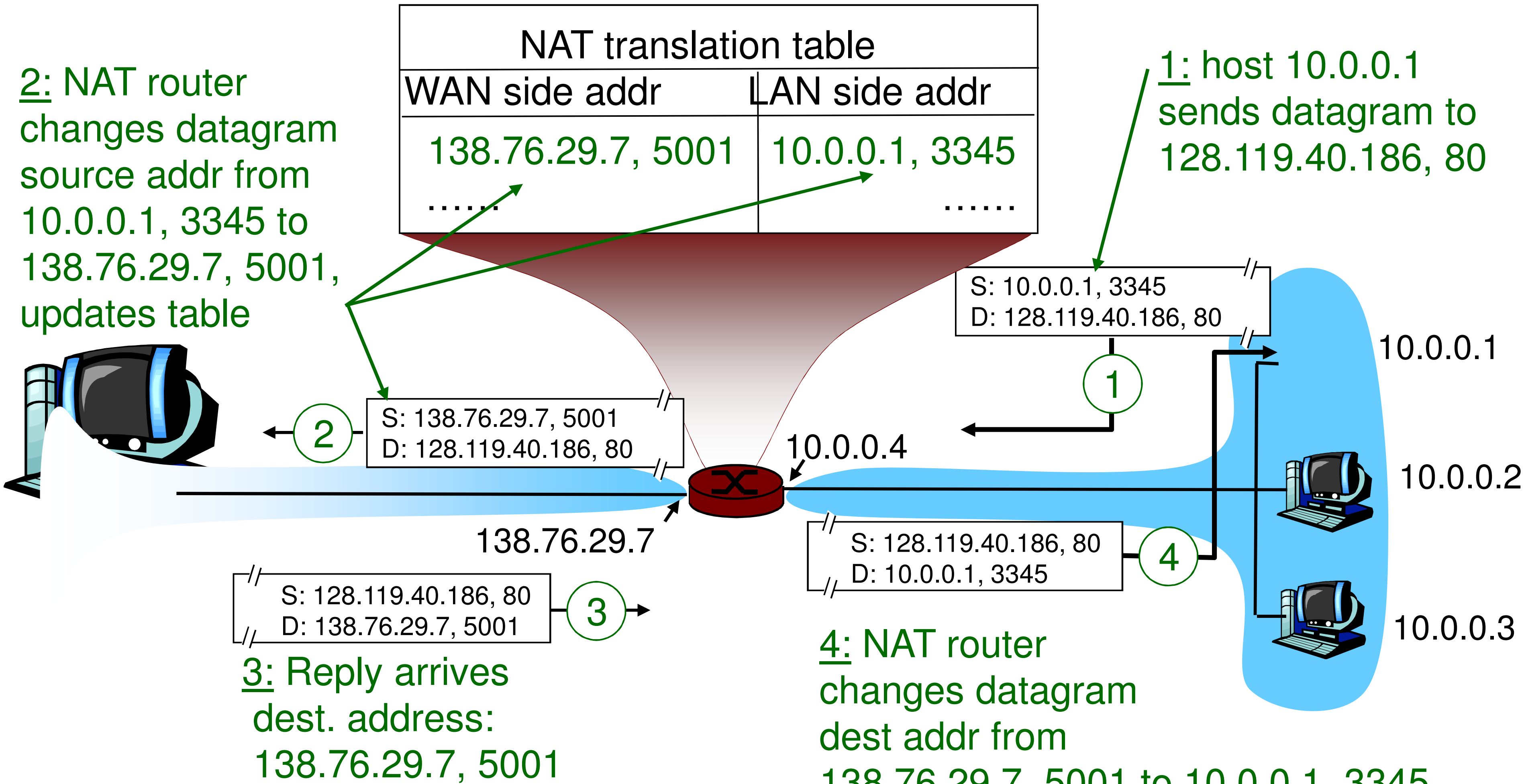
Implementation: NAT router must:

- *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 addr.

- *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 dest fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT: Network Address Translation

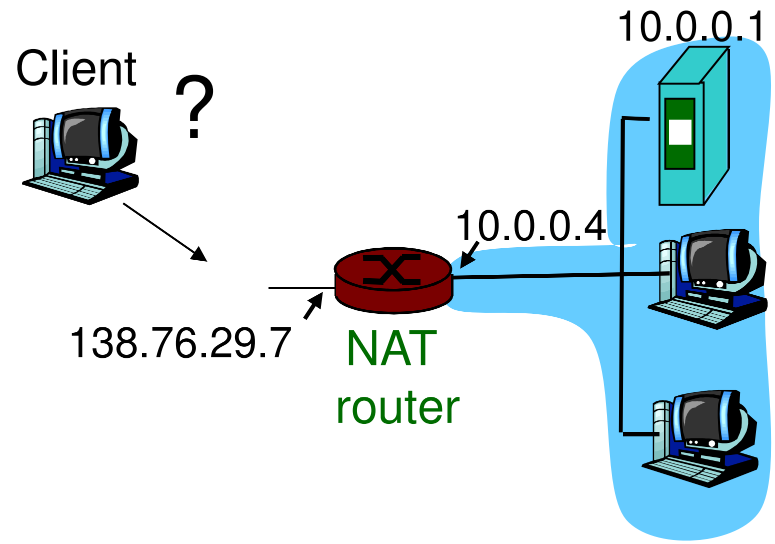


NAT: Network Address Translation

- 16-bit port-number field:
  - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
  - routers should only process up to layer 3
  - violates end-to-end argument
    - NAT possibility must be taken into account by app designers, eg, P2P applications
  - address shortage should instead be solved by IPv6

NAT traversal problem

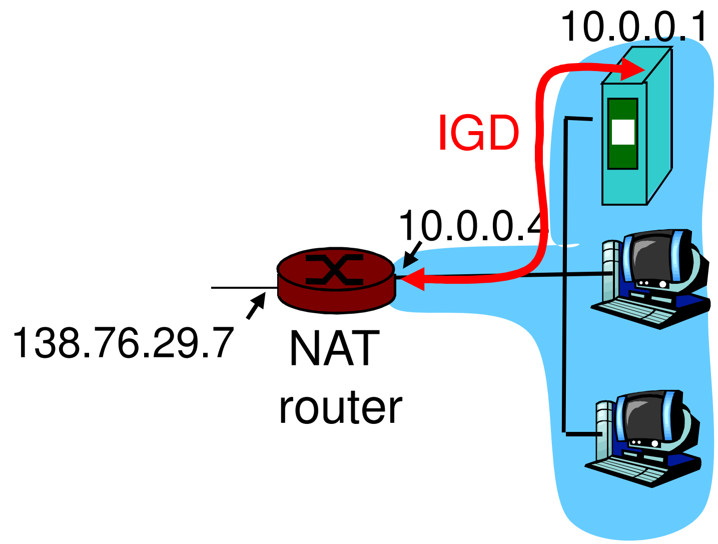
- client wants to connect to server with address 10.0.0.1
  - server address 10.0.0.1 local to LAN (client can't use it as destination addr)
  - only one externally visible NATted address: 138.76.29.7
- solution 1: statically configure NAT to forward incoming connection requests at given port to server
  - e.g., (123.76.29.7, port 2500) always forwarded to 10.0.0.1 port 25000



NAT traversal problem

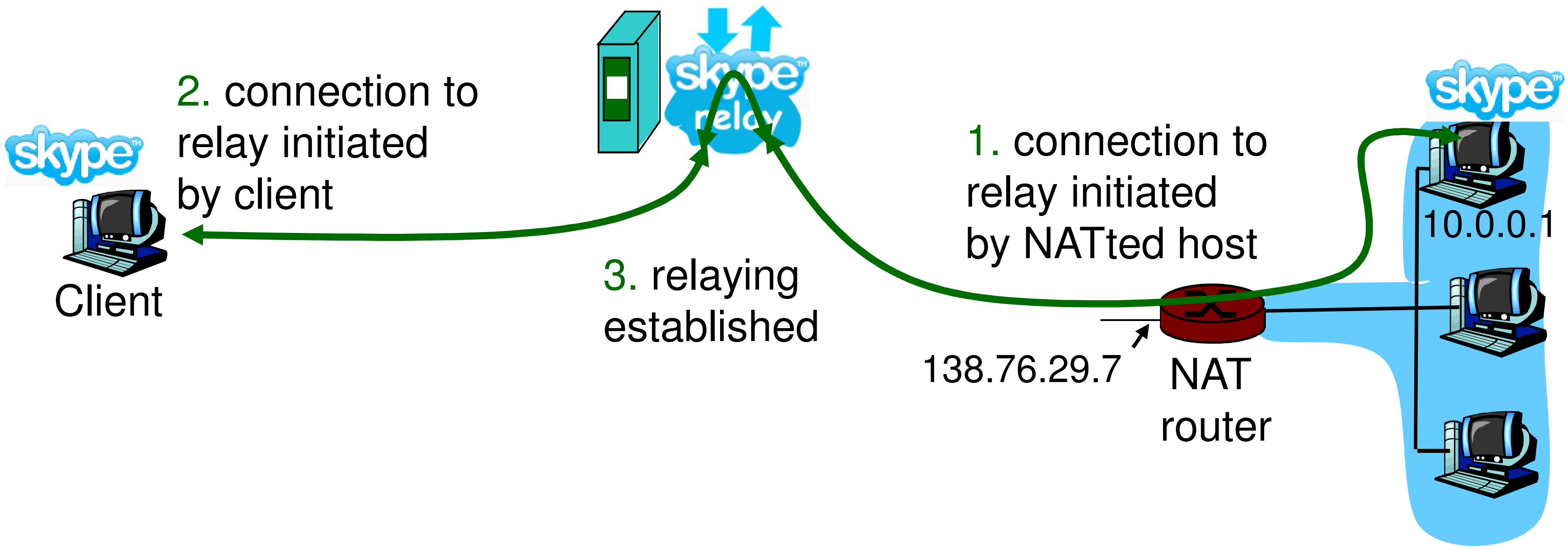
- solution 2: Universal Plug and Play (UPnP) Internet Gateway Device (IGD) Protocol. Allows NATted host to:
  - learn public IP address (138.76.29.7)
  - add/remove port mappings (with lease times)

  i.e., automate static NAT port map configuration



NAT traversal problem

- solution 3: relaying (used in Skype)
  - NATed client establishes connection to relay
  - External client connects to relay
  - relay bridges packets between to connections



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ICMP: Internet Control Message Protocol

- used by hosts & routers to communicate network-level information
  - error reporting: unreachable host, network, port, protocol
  - echo request/reply (used by ping)
- network-layer "above" IP:
  - ICMP msgs carried in IP datagrams
- ICMP message: type, code plus first 8 bytes of IP datagram causing error

Type	Code	description
0	0	echo reply (ping)
3	0	dest. network unreachable
3	1	dest host unreachable
3	2	dest protocol unreachable
3	3	dest port unreachable
3	6	dest network unknown
3	7	dest host unknown
4	0	source quench (congestion control - not used)
8	0	echo request (ping)
9	0	route advertisement
10	0	router discovery
11	0	TTL expired
12	0	bad IP header

Traceroute and ICMP

- Source sends series of UDP segments to dest
  - First has TTL =1
  - Second has TTL=2, etc.
  - Unlikely port number
- When nth datagram arrives to nth router:
  - Router discards datagram
  - And sends to source an ICMP message (type 11, code 0)
  - Message includes name of router& IP address
- When ICMP message arrives, source calculates RTT
- Traceroute does this 3 times

Stopping criterion

- UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- Destination returns ICMP “host unreachable” packet (type 3, code 3)
- When source gets this ICMP, stops.

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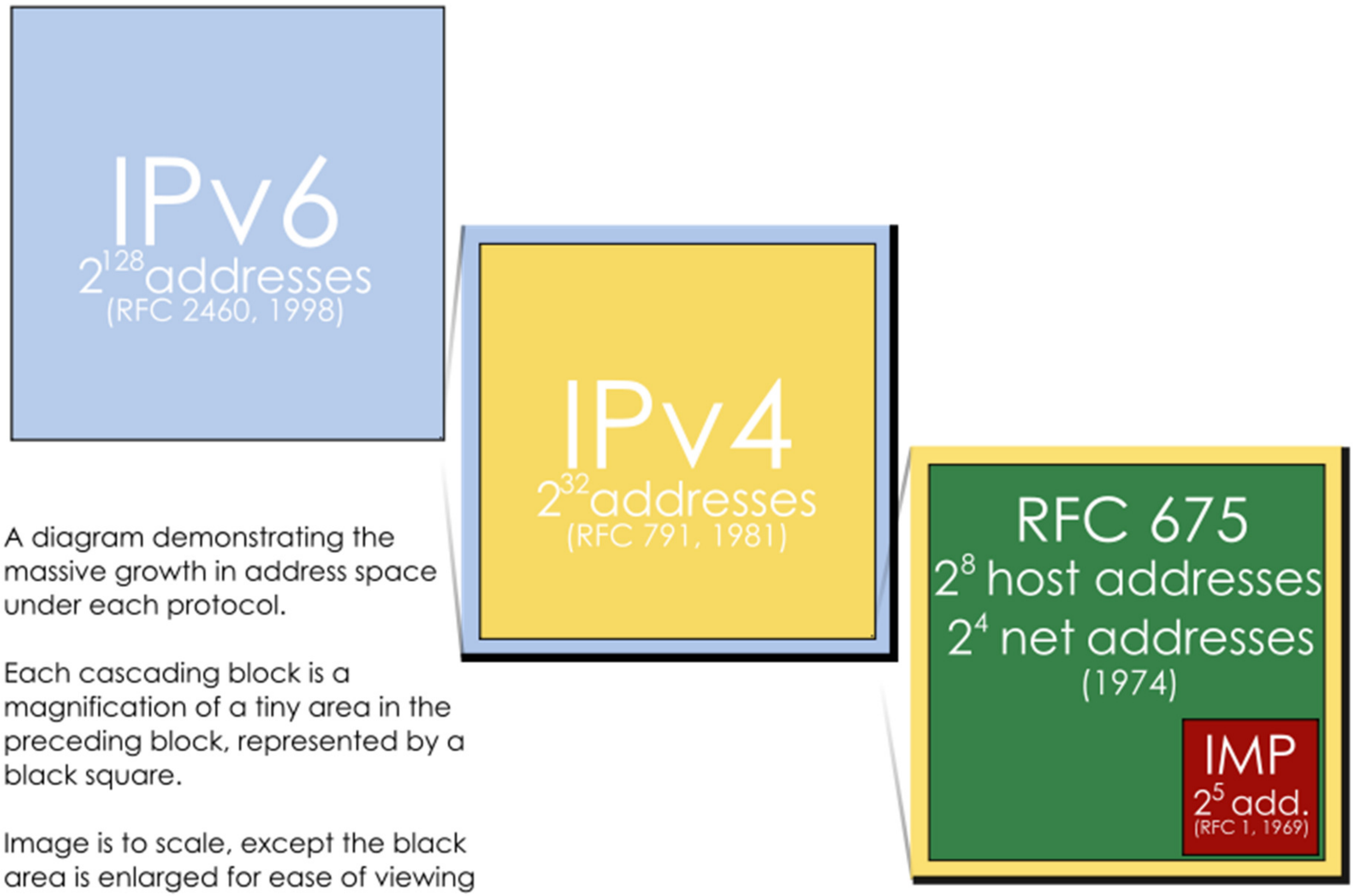
IPv6

- Initial motivation: 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- Additional motivation:
  - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
  - header changes to facilitate QoS

  IPv6 datagram format:
  - fixed-length 40 byte header
  - no fragmentation allowed

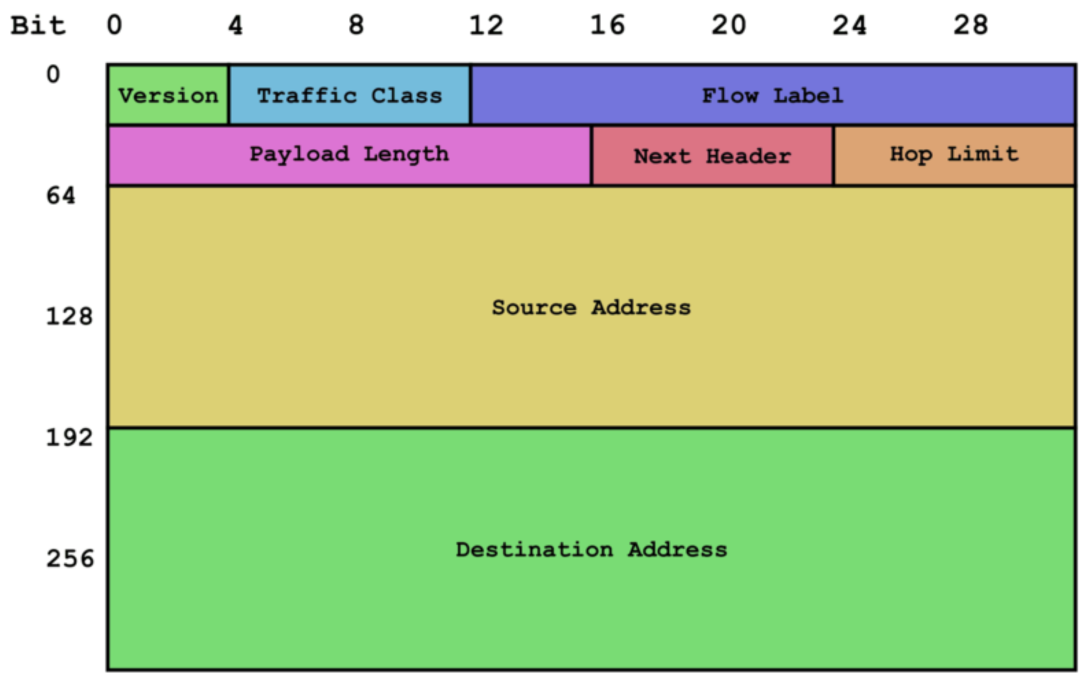
IPv4 vs IPv6



Source: http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Internet_address_spaces.svg

IPv6 Header (Cont)

Priority: identify priority among datagrams in flow
Flow Label: identify datagrams in same "flow."
(concept of "flow" not well defined).
Next header: identify upper layer protocol for data



Source: http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:IPv6_header_rv1.png

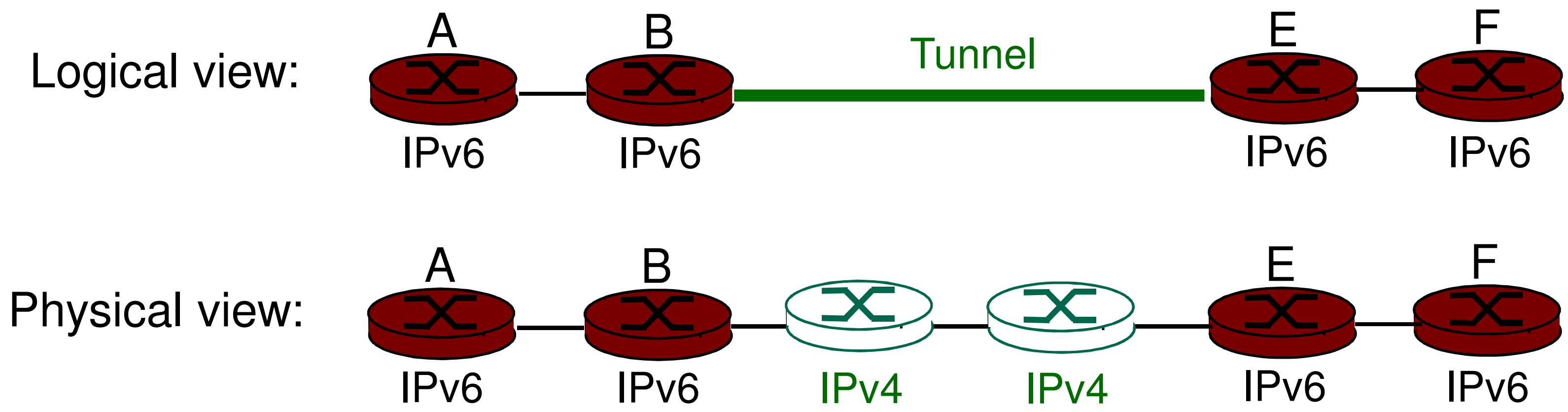
Other Changes from IPv4

- *Checksum*: removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- *Options:* allowed, but outside of header, indicated by “Next Header” field
- *ICMPv6:* new version of ICMP
  - additional message types, e.g. “Packet Too Big”
  - multicast group management functions

Transition From IPv4 To IPv6

- Not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
  - no "flag days"
  - How will the network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- Tunneling: IPv6 carried as payload in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers
- Dual stack: Network stack supports IPv4 and IPv6

Tunneling


Logical view:
A
B
Tunnel
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
Physical view:
A
B
E
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IPv6
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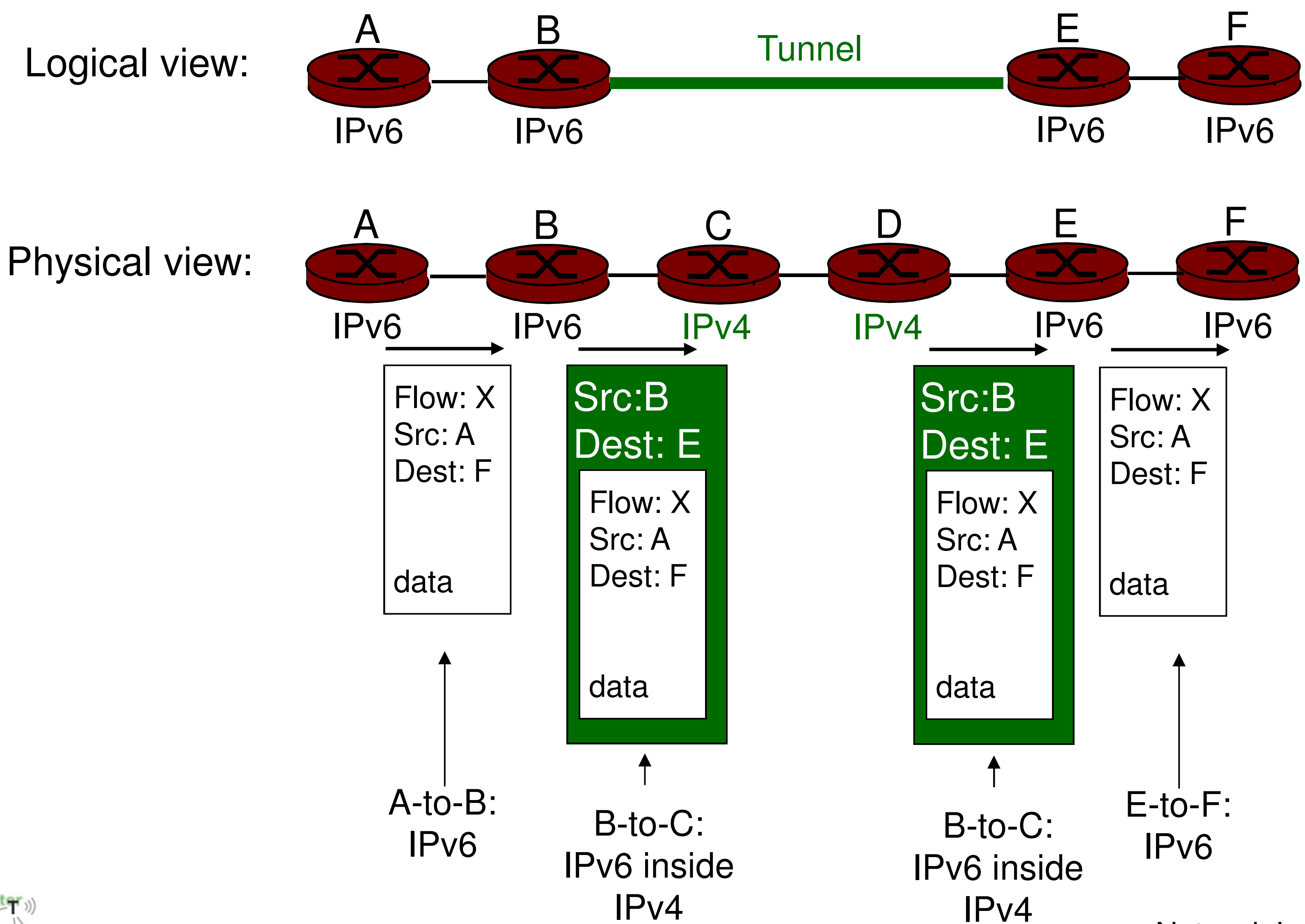
Tunneling



Logical view:
A
B
Tunnel
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
Physical view:
A
B
C
D
E
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IPv6
IPv6
IPv4
IPv4
IPv6
IPv6
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
Src:B
Dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
Src:B
Dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
A-to-B:
IPv6
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
E-to-F:
IPv6

Dual stack

- Nodes have the ability to send and receive both IPv4 and IPv6 packets
- Direct connection to IPv4 nodes using IPv4 packets
- Direct connection to IPv6 nodes using IPv6 packets
- Can be used together with tunneling

Done for Today

- Thank you for your patience
- Any questions?