Network Layer: Network Layer and IP Protocol

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Required reading: Garcia 7.3.3, 8.1, 8.2.1

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1. Introduction

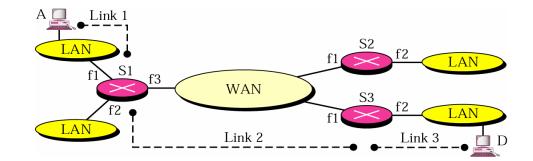
- 2. Router Architecture
- 3. Network Layer Protocols in the Internet
- 4. IPv4
- 5. IP Addressing and Subnetting

Network Layer – supervises host-to-host packet delivery – hosts could be separated by several physical networks

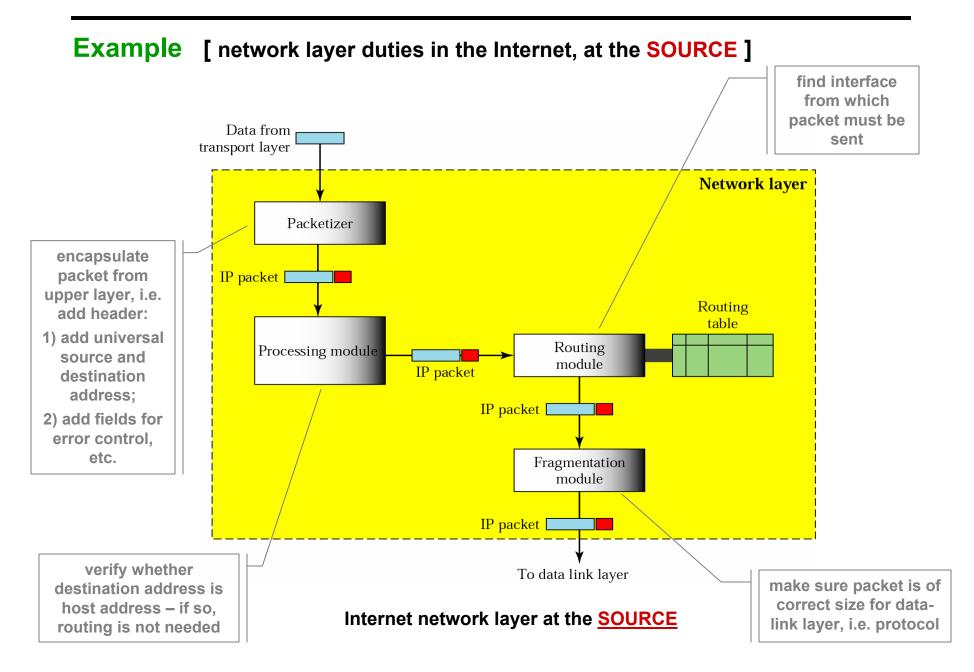
 data-link layer provides node-to-node delivery, transport layer provides process-to-process delivery

Major (Basic) Network Layer Duties

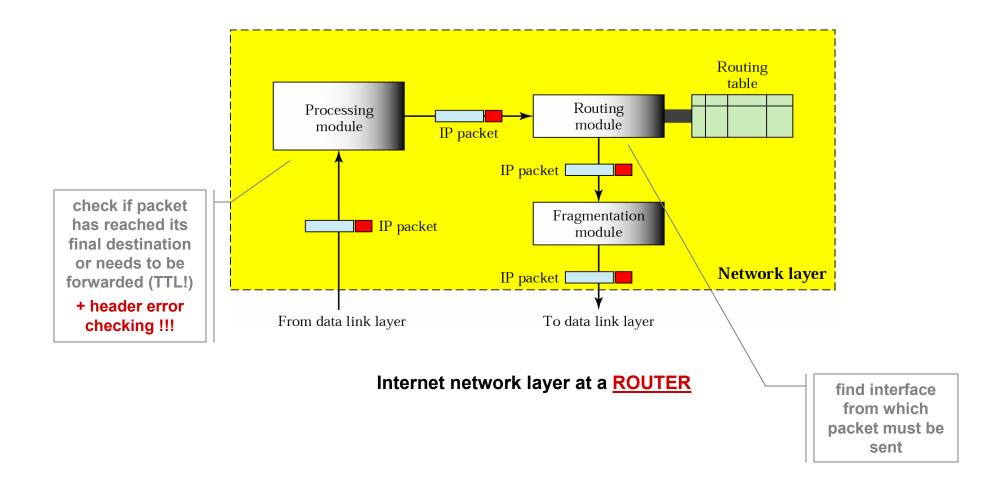
- addressing: identify each device uniquely to allow global communication
- routing: determine optimal route for sending a packet from one host to another
- packetizing: encapsulate packets received from upper-layer protocols
- fragmenting: decapsulate packets from one and encapsulate them for another network



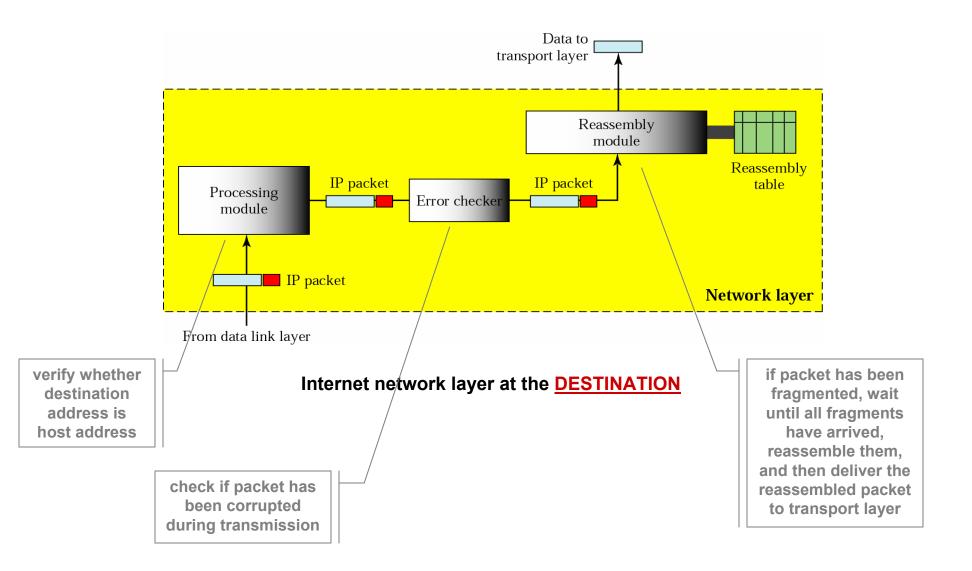
Introduction (cont.)



Example cont. [network layer duties in the Internet, at a ROUTER]



Example cont. [network layer duties in the Internet, at the **DESTINATION**]



1. Introduction

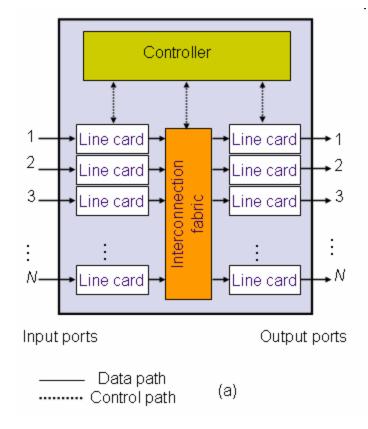
2. Router Architecture

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Router – 3-layer (physical, data-link, network) device, with 3 key functions:

- run routing algorithms/protocols (RIP, OSPF, BGP)
- forward/switch IP packets from incoming to proper outgoing links
- manage congestion

Router Architecture



- input ports / interfaces (see pp. 10)
- interconnection (switching) fabric (see pp. 11)
- output ports / interfaces (see pp. 12)
- routing processor (switch controller) general-purpose processor in charge of
 - 1) executing routing protocol
 - 2) maintaining routing information and <u>forwarding</u> <u>tables</u>, etc.

Example [forwarding / routing table]

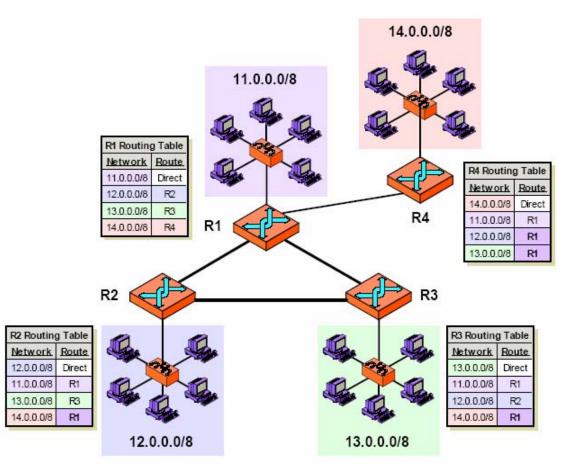


Figure 93: IP Routing and Routing Tables

This diagram shows a small, simple internetwork consisting of four LANs each served by a router. The routing table for each lists the router to which datagrams for each destination network should be sent, and is color coded to match the colors of the networks. Notice that due to the "triangle", each of R1, R2 and R3 can send to each other. However, R2 and R3 must send through R1 to deliver to R4, and R4 must use R1 to reach either of the others.

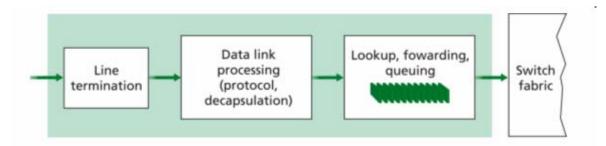
- Input Port has an associated line card (NIC) which implements physical and data-link layer functions, as well as certain network layer functions
 - physical layer: bit-level reception

Input

Functions

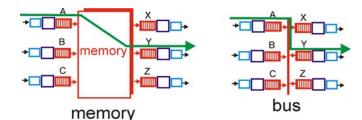
Line Card • data-link layer: decapsulation, error checking, etc.

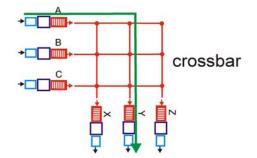
- network layer: decentralized switching / packet forwarding
 - decide to which output line to forward
 each packet based on packet header
 - looks up output port using forwarding table in input line card memory (table is created and updated by routing processor)



Decentralized switching prevents creating a processing bottleneck at a single point within the router. Switching Fabric Function

Types of Switching Fabric





- (physically) transfer packets between input and output line cards
 - via memory: datagram is received through input port, stored in memory, then send to appropriate output port – slow ⁽³⁾
 - via a bus: datagram is sent directly from input port to output port via a shared bus
 ⇒ does not scale well ⊗

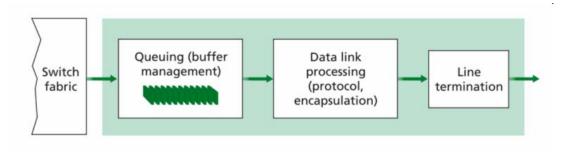
(packets are send serially so buss speed needs to be N-times input line speed)

- today's bus bandwidths ≥ 1 Gbps ⇒ switching via bus is sufficient for routers in LANs
- via a crossbar: interconnection network consisting of 2N busses that interconnect N input and N output
 - packet travels along horizontal bus until it intersects with vertical bus leading to desired output port – if vertical bus is busy, queueing at input port is needed
 - Cisco 12000 Family 60 Gbps routers

Internet Router Architecture (cont.)

Output Line Card Functions

- network layer: 1) buffering required when datagrams arrive from fabric at rate faster than output line transmission rate
 - buffer management decide when and which packets to drop if there is not enough memory to store all incoming packets
 - 3) scheduling / packet classification
 - decide which packet, of those queued, to send out next
 - packet scheduling plays crucial role in in providing quality-of-service (QoS)
- data-link layer: encapsulation, address mapping, etc.
- physical layer: bit-level forwarding

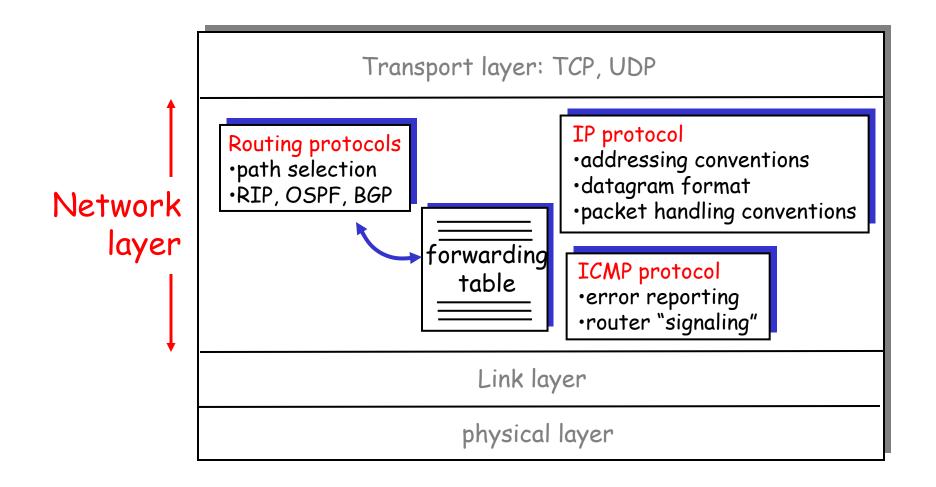


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Network Layer Protocols in the Internet

- IP main protocol, responsible for 'best effort' host-to-host delivery
- ARP maps IP address of next hop to its MAC/physical address (used when passing packets to lower data-link layer)
- RARP maps MAC/physical address to IP address (used at diskless machines for IP address recovery)
- ICMP used by hosts and routers to handle unusual situations such as IP packet-header errors, unreachable hosts and networks, etc.
- IGMP used by host and routers to achieve efficient network-layer multicasting
- Routing Protocols responsible for routing table maintenance

IGMP ICMP	IP		
Network layer		ARP	RARP

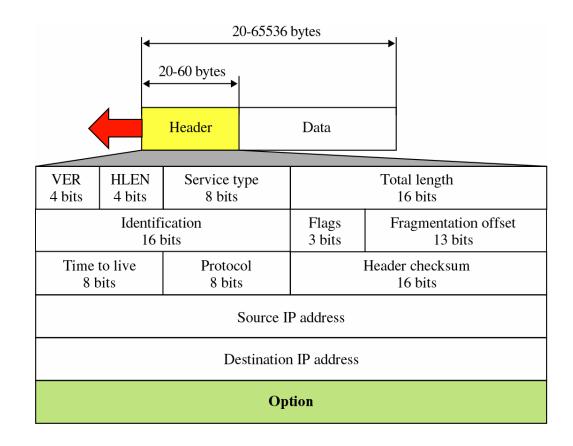


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Internet Protocol (IP) -	 host-to-host network-layer delivery protocol for the Internet with following properties 	
	 connectionless service – each packet is handled independently (possibly along different path) 	
	 best-effort delivery service 	
	 does its best to deliver packet to its destination, but with no guarantees 	
	 Iimited error control – only error detection, corrupted packets are discarded 	
	3) no flow control	
	 must be paired with a reliable transport- (TCP) and/or application- layer protocol to ensure reliability 	
IP Protocol Versions	IPv4 – version currently in wide use (1981)	
٠	IPv6 – new version of IP protocol created to correct some of significant problems of IPv4 such as exhaustion of address space (1996)	

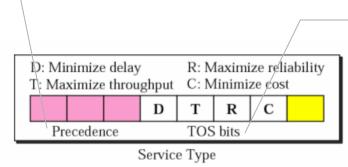
 Mobile IP – enhanced version of IPv4 – supports IP in mobile environments (1996) **Datagram** – IP packet = <u>variable length</u> packet consisting of header & data

- header 20 to 60 bytes in length, contains information essential to routing and delivery
- data length determined by Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU) of link layer protocol (theoretically between 20 to 65536 bytes)



data • d • b	t field – specifies IP protocol version of the agram (IPv4 or IPv6) ifferent version of IP use different datagram formats y looking at version number router can determine how o interpret remainder of datagram
<u>in 4-b</u>	field – defines total <u>length of datagram header</u> <u>yte words</u> n there are no options header length is 20 \Rightarrow HLEN = 5
Differentiated Service (formerly Service Type)	 8-bit field – allows different types of data- grams to be distinguished from each other based on their associated / requested QoS

 e.g. datagrams particularly requiring low delay, high throughput, or reliability



Precedence <u>defines the priority</u> of datagram in case of

congestion. If a router is

congested and needs to discard

some datagrams, those

datagrams with lowest

precedence are discarded first.

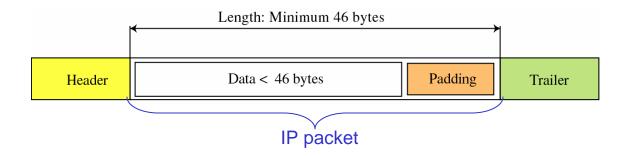
Network management datagrams

have the highest precedence!

Although each TOS bit has a special meaning, only one bit can be set to 1 in each datagram. 0000 – normal type of service 0001 – minimize cost 0010 – maximize reliability 0100 – maximize throughput 1000 – minimize delay

Total Length – 16-bit field – defines total datagram <u>length in bytes</u>, including header

- 16 bits ⇒ maximum size = 65,535 bytes
- some physical networks are not able to encapsulate a datagram of 65,535 bytes, so datagram must be fragmented to be able to pass through those networks
- some physical networks have restriction on minimum size of data that can be encapsulated in a frame, so datagram must be padded (e.g. Ethernet min size of data – 46 bytes)



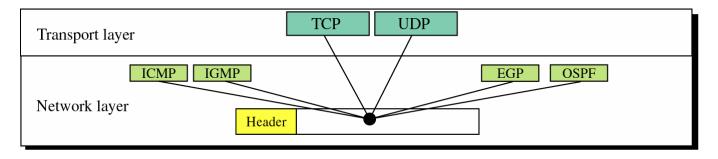
Identifier, Flags, Fragmentation Offset

- 3 fields used in fragmentation
 - IPv6 does not allow fragmentation at routers since it is time consuming operation – if an IPv6 packet is too big, it is simply dropped and an ICMP message is sent back to the source

- **Time-To-Live (TTL)** 8-bit field controls max number of hops visited by datagram and/or time spend in the network
 - field is decremented by one each time datagram is processed by a router – when TTL reaches 0, datagram must be dropped
 - ensures that
 - 1) datagram does not circulate/loop forever, or
 - 2) to limit its journey (e.g. LAN only: TTL = 1)

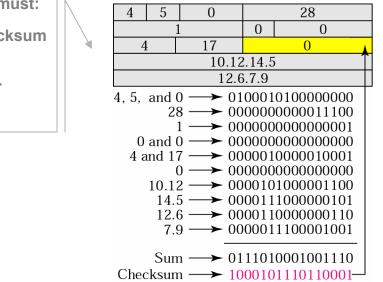
Protocol – 8-bit field – indicates specific transport-layer protocol to which data portion of this IP datagram should be passed

- used only at final destination to facilitate demultiplexing process
- protocol number is glue that binds network & transport layer, while port number is glue that binds transport & application layer
- values: 1 ICMP, 2 IGMP, 6 TCP, 17 UDP, 89 OSPF



Header Checksum – 16-bit field – aids in <u>detecting errors in header</u> only!

- checksum must be recomputed & stored again at each router as TTL and some options fields may change
- routers discard datagrams for which an error is detected
- checksum calculation:
 - 1) divide header into 16-bit (2-byte) sections checksum field itself is set to 0
 - 2) sum all sections using <u>1s complement arithmetic</u>



Error detection / correction is not the responsibility of network-layer. Why is, then, IP willing to perform error detection on IP headers?!

Each intermediate router must:

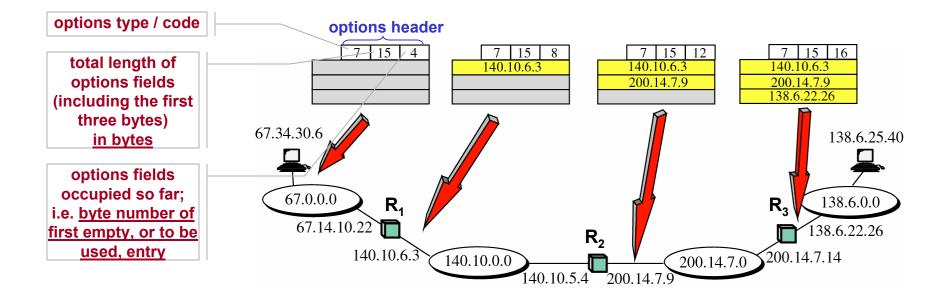
1) verify / recompute checksum on every incoming packet

2) compute checksum for every outgoing packet

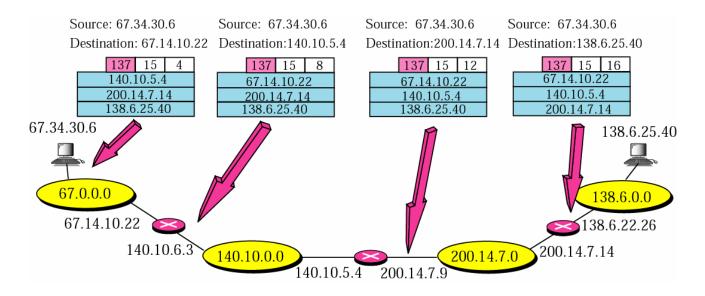
Source and Destination32-bit fields – must remain unchanged untilIP AddressesIP datagram reaches its final destination

Options – 32-bit field(s) – not required for every datagram! – allows expansion of IP header for special purposes

- (a) **Record Route option** used to trace route that datagram takes
 - source creates empty fields for IP addresses up to 9 (40 bytes options – 4 bytes option header) / 4 bytes for IP address
 - each router that processes datagram inserts its <u>outgoing</u> IP address



- **Options (cont.)** (b) **Timestamp option** similar to (a), plus records datagram end-processing time by each router, in milliseconds
 - (c) Strict Source Route option used by source to predetermine route for datagram
 - source provides a list of IP addresses (sequence of routers) that datagram must (is allowed) to visit on its way to destination



(d) Loose Source Route option – similar to (c), but it is more relaxed – each router in the list must be visited, though datagram can visit other routers as well

Example [IP Datagram fields]

An IP packet has arrived with the first 8 bits as shown: 01000010 The receiver discards the packet. Why?

Solution:

There is an error in this packet. The 4 left-most bits (0100) show the version, which is correct. The next 4 bits (0010) show the header length, which means ($2 \times 4 = 8$), which is wrong. The minimum number of bytes in the header must be 20. The packet has been corrupted in transmission.

Example [IP Datagram fields]

In an IP packet, the value of **HLEN** is 1000 in binary. How many bytes of options are being carried by this packet?

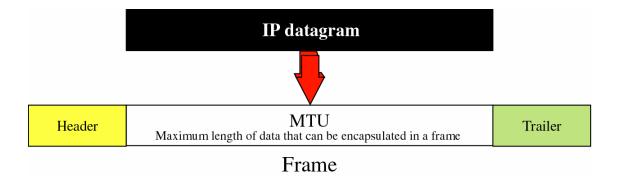
Solution:

The HLEN value is 8, which means the total number of bytes in the header is 8x4 or 32 bytes. The first 20 bytes are the main header, the next 12 bytes are the options.

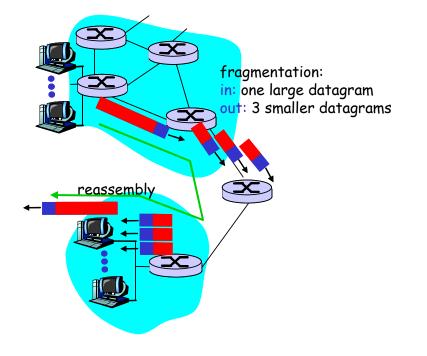
IP Datagram Fragmentation

Maximum Transfer Unit – maximum amount of data that link-layer (MTU) frame can carry = hard limit on IP datagram length

- MTU differs from one data-link layer protocol to another
 - (a) Token Ring (4 Mbps): MTU = 4,464 bytes
 - (b) Ethernet: MTU = 1,500 bytes
 - (c) PPP: MTU = 296 bytes

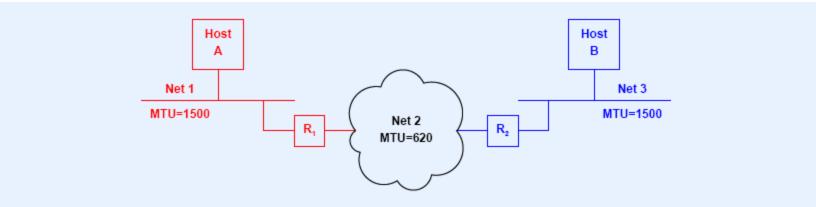


Hard limit on IP datagram size is not a problem. What is a problem is that each of the links along the route between sender and receiver can use different link-layer protocols, and each of these protocols can have different MTUs.



- **IP Datagram Fragmentation** process of dividing datagram into smaller fragments that meet MTU requirements of underlying data-link layer protocol
 - datagram can be fragmented by sourcehost or any other router in the path; however reassembly of datagram is done only by destination host! - parts of a fragmented datagram may take different routes !!!
 - once fragmented datagram may be further fragmented if it encounters network with even smaller MTU
 - when a datagram is fragmented, each fragment gets its own header with most fields repeated, but some changed
 - host or router that fragments datagram must change values of three fields: *flags*, fragmentation offset and total length

Example [Example, from the book by D. E. Comer]



- Hosts A and B send datagrams of up to 1500 octets
- Router R₁ fragments large datagrams from Host A before sending over Net 2
- Router R₂ fragments large datagrams from Host B before sending over Net 2

IP Datagram Fragmentation (cont.)

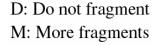
Identification – 16-bit field – uniquely identifies datagram originating from source host

- to guarantee uniqueness, IP uses counter to label each datagram
- when IP sends a datagram, it copies current counter value to identification field, and increments counter by one
- when datagram is fragmented, identification field is <u>copied</u> into all fragments
- identification number helps destination in reassembling datagram

 all fragments with same identification value should be
 assembled into one datagram

Flags – 3-bit field

- 1st bit is reserved
- 2nd bit is called "do not fragment" bit
 - if its value is 1, machine must NOT fragment datagram
 - if fragment cannot pass through physical network router discards packet and sends ICMP error message back to source host
- 3rd bit is called "more fragment" bit
 - if its value is 1, datagram is not last fragment there are more fragments after this one
 - if its value is 0, this is last or only fragment



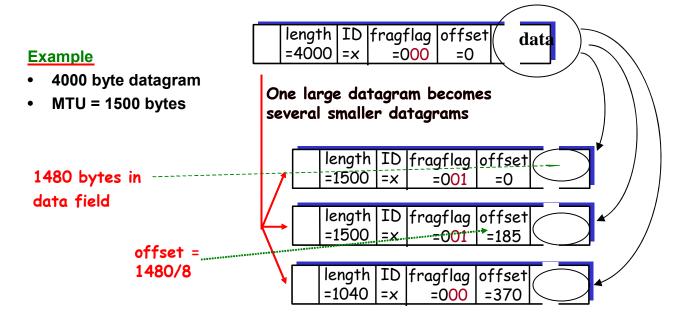


IP Datagram Fragmentation (cont.)

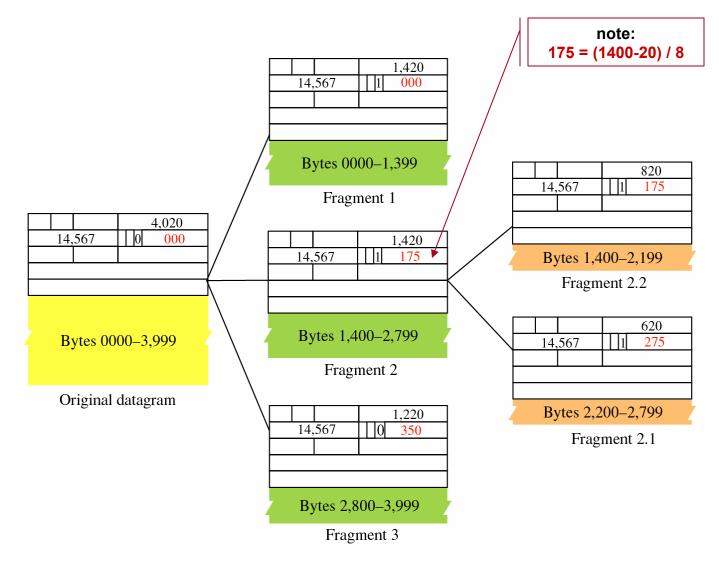
Fragmentation Offset – 13-bit field – shows relative position of <u>fragment's data</u> with respect to whole datagram

- the offset is measured in units of 8 bytes this is done because offset field is only 13 bits long and otherwise could not represent sequences greater than 8191
- this forces hosts and routers to choose fragment sizes divisible by 8

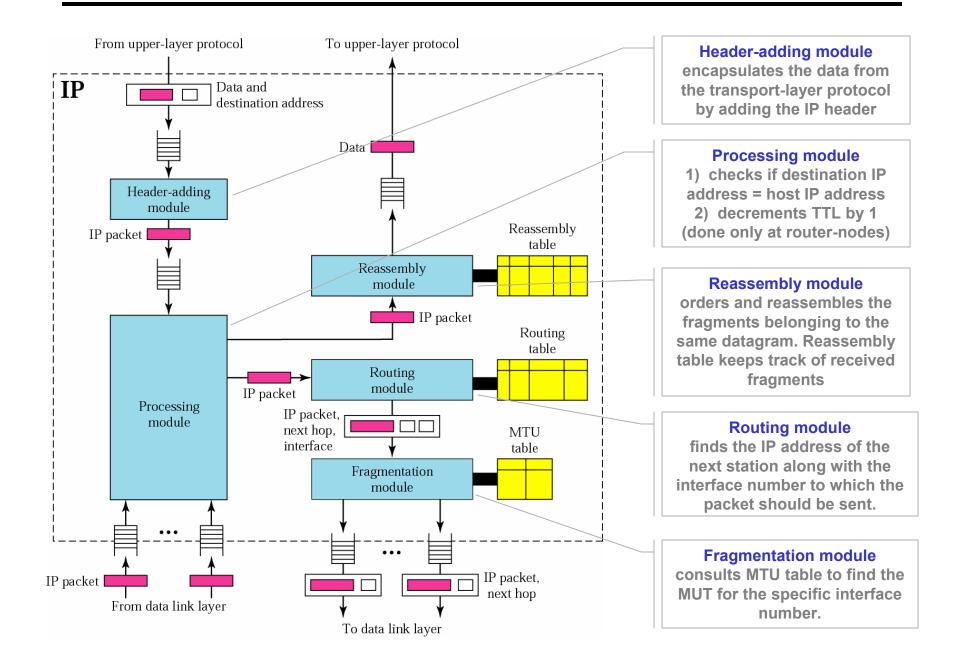
Example [fragmentation]



Example [fragmentation of a fragment]



IP Datagram Processing



- 1. A packet has arrived with Flag's M bit value of 0. Is this the first fragment, the last fragment, or a middle fragment? Do we know if the packet was fragmented?
- 2. A packet has arrived with an *M* bit value of 1. Is this the first fragment, the last fragment, or a middle fragment? Do we know if the packet was fragmented?
- 3. A packet has arrived with an *M* bit value of 1 and a fragmentation offset value of zero. Is this the first fragment, the last fragment, or a middle fragment?
- 4. A packet has arrived in which the offset value is 100. What is the number of the first byte? Do we know the number of the last byte?
- 5. A packet has arrived in which the offset value is 100, the value of HLEN is 5 and the value of the total length field is 100. What is the number of the first byte and the last byte?