

# Chapter 4: outline

## 4.1 introduction

## 4.2 virtual circuit and datagram networks

## 4.3 what's inside a router

## 4.4 IP: Internet Protocol

- datagram format
- IPv4 addressing
- ICMP
- IPv6

## 4.5 routing algorithms

- link state
- distance vector
- hierarchical routing

## 4.6 routing in the Internet

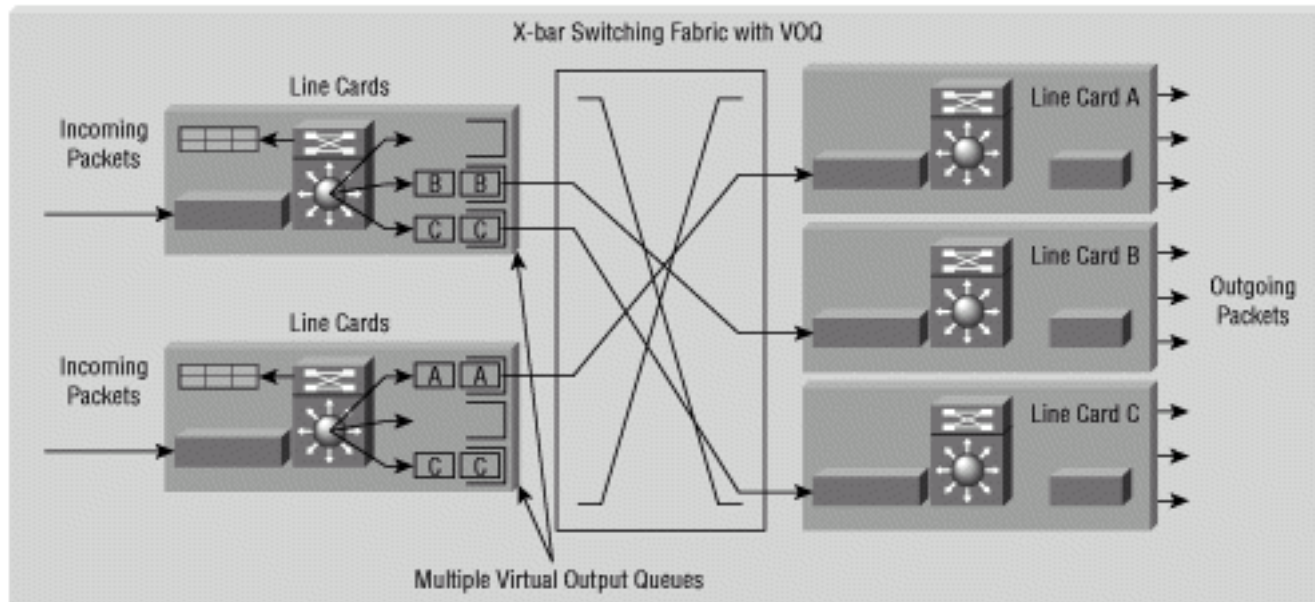
- RIP
- OSPF
- BGP

## 4.7 broadcast and multicast routing

# Router

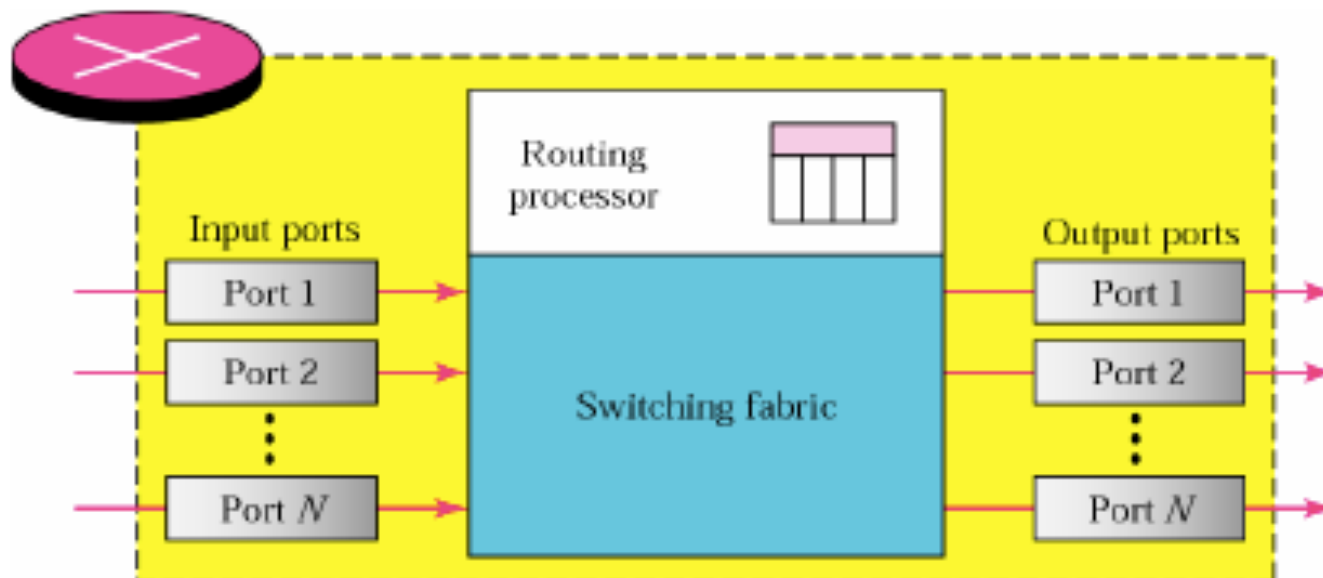
two key router functions:

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

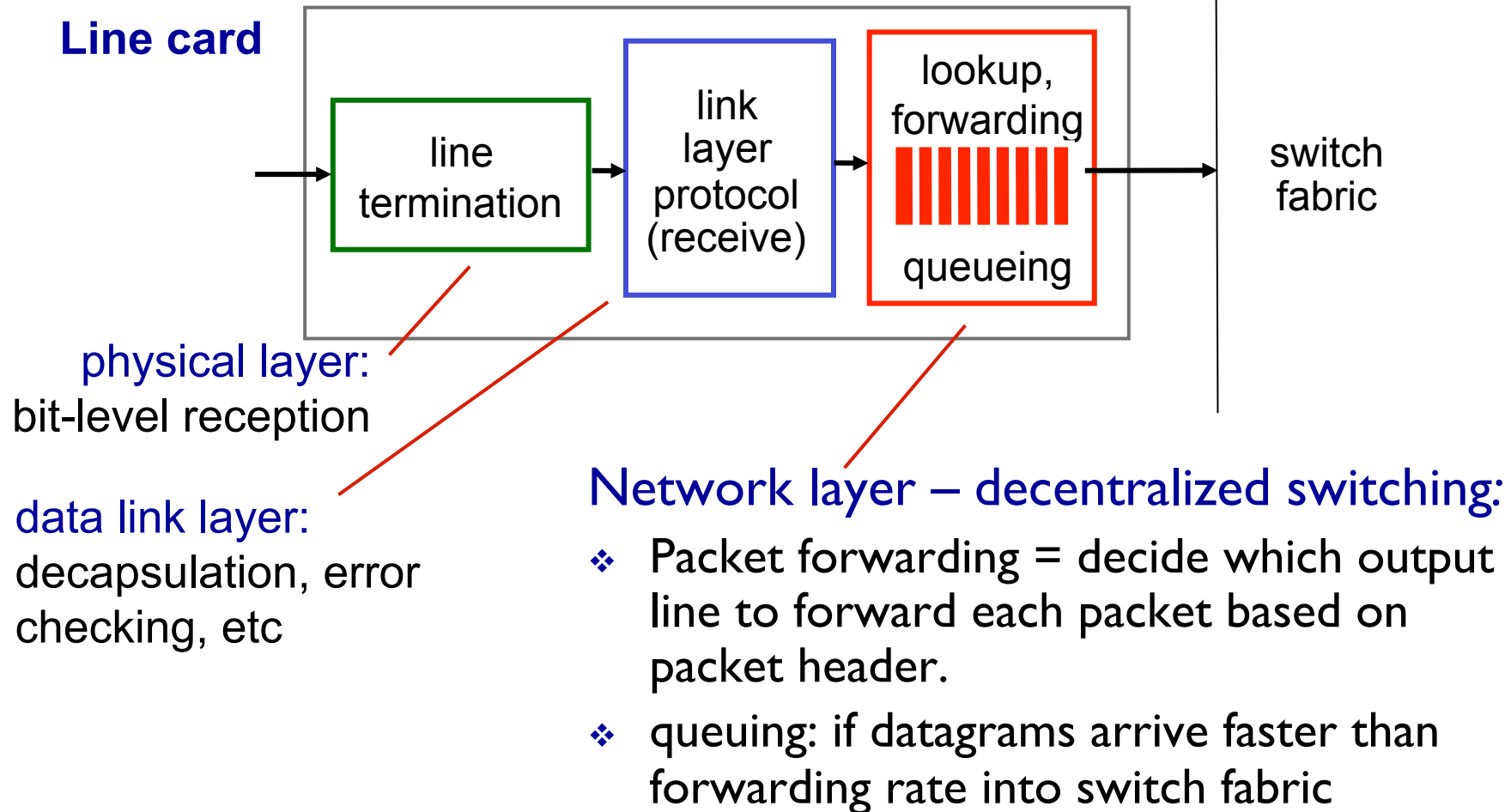


# Router architecture overview

- ❖ Main components:
  - Input ports/Interfaces
  - Switching fabric
  - Output ports/Interfaces
  - Routing processor: (1)executing routing protocol,  
(2)maintaining routing information, forwarding tables, etc.

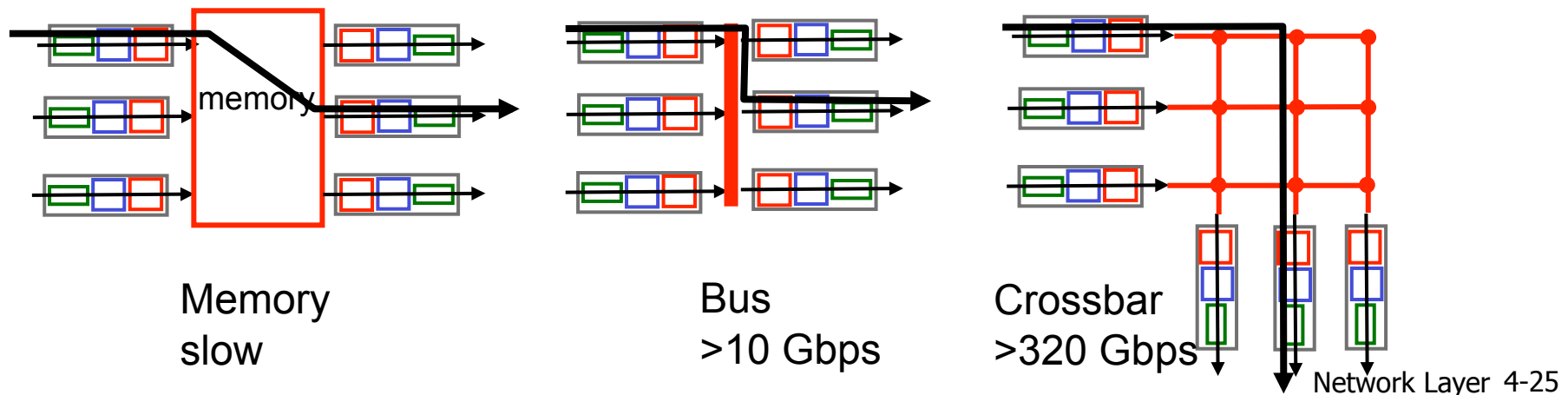


# Input port functions

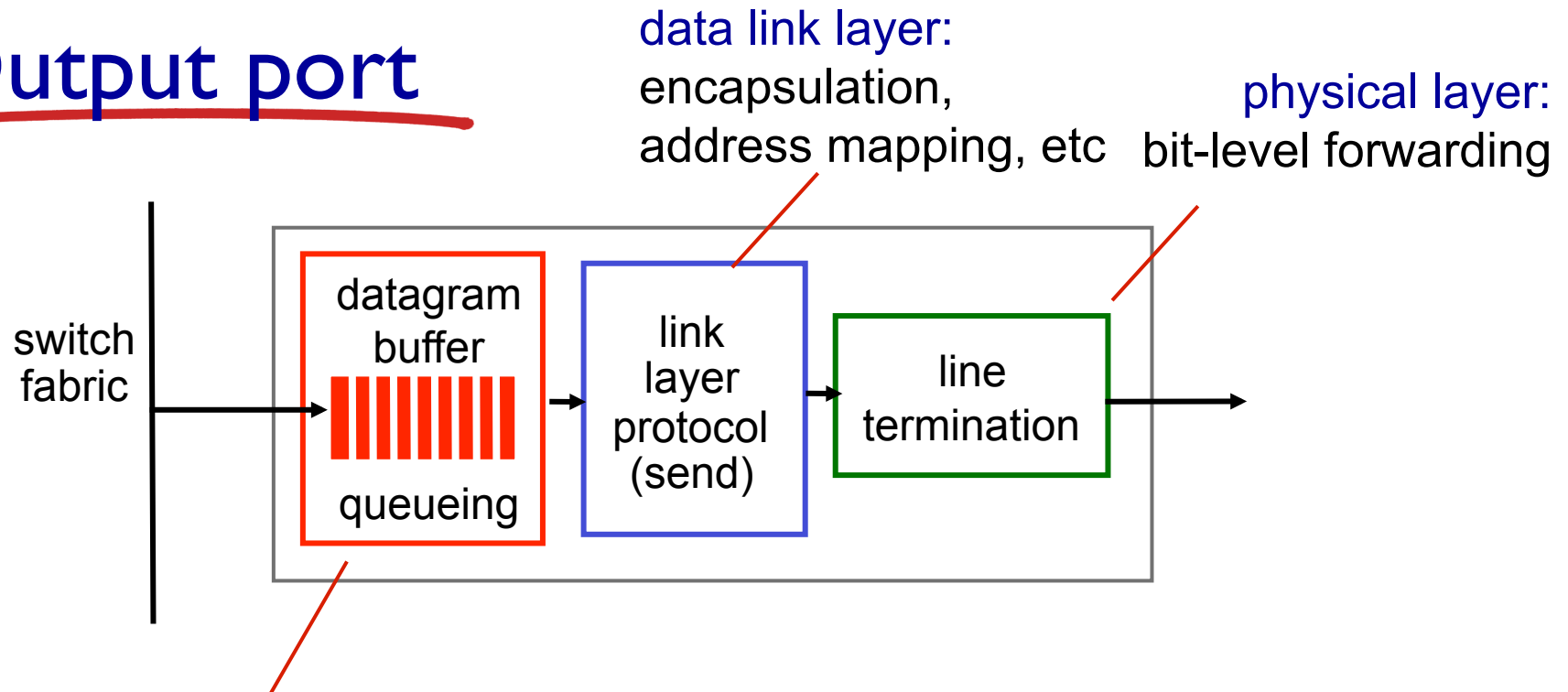


# Switching fabrics

- ❖ Switching fabric function – transfer packets between input and output line cards
- ❖ Types of switching fabric
  - Via memory: datagram is received through input port, stored in memory, then send to output port – slow.
  - Via a bus: datagram is sent directly from input to output via a shared bus – does not scale well
  - Via a crossbar: interconnection network consisting of  $2N$  busses that interconnect  $N$  input and  $N$  output



# Output port



- ❖ **buffering** required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than the transmission rate
- ❖ **Buffer management** decide when and which packets to drop if there is not enough memory to store all income packets
- ❖ **scheduling discipline** decide which packet, of those queued to send out next

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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
  - **Best-effort delivery service**
    1. Does its best to deliver packet to its destination, but with no guarantees
    2. Limited 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 Versions

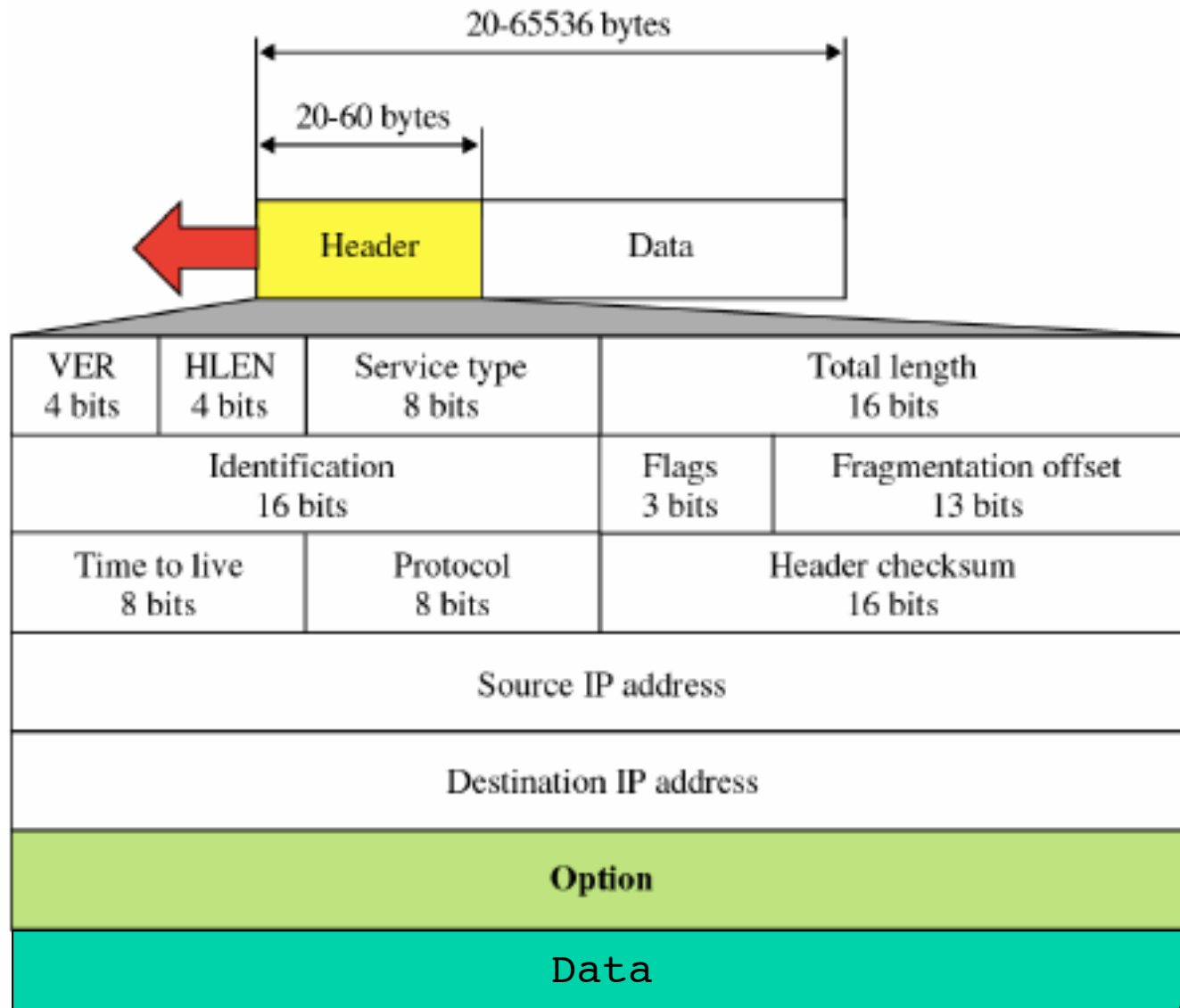
## ❖ IPv4, IPv6, Mobile IP

- IPv4 – version currently in wide use (formalized in 1981)
- IPv6 – new version created to correct some of significant problems of IPv4 such as exhaustion of address space (formalized in 1996)
- Mobile IP – enhanced version of IPv4 which supports IP in mobile environments (formalized in 1996)

# IP datagram format

- ❖ Datagram – IP packet = variable length packet consisting of *header* and *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)

# IP datagram format



# IP Datagram Fields

- ❖ **Version number** – 4-bit field, specifies IP protocol version of the datagram (IPv4 or IPv6)
  - Different versions of IP use different datagram formats
  - By looking at version number router can determine how to interpret remainder of datagram
- ❖ **Header length** – 4-bit field, defines total length of datagram header in 4-byte words
  - When there are no options header length is 20 → HLEN = 5
- ❖ **Service type** – 8-bit field, allows different types of datagram to be distinguished from each other based on their associated/requested QoS.

# IP Datagram Fields (cont.)

- ❖ **Time-To-Live (TTL)** – 8-bit field, controls maximum 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 higher-level protocol that uses the services of IP layer (IP datagram can encapsulate data from a number of higher-layer protocols)
  - Used only at final destination to facilitate demultiplexing
  - Protocol number is glue that binds network and transport layer (similar to port number that binds transport and appl. layers)
  - **Values:** 1 – ICMP, 2 – IGMP, 6 – TCP, 17 – UDP, 89 - OSPF

# IP Datagram Fields (cont.)

- ❖ **Header checksum** – 16-bit field, aids in detecting errors in header only!
  - Checksum must be recomputed and stored again at each router as TTL and some options fields may change.
  - Router discard datagrams for which an error is detected.
  - Checksum calculation:

- 1) Divide header into 16-bit sections – checksum field itself is set to 0
- 2) Sum all sections using 1s complement arithmetic

4	5	0	28
1		0	0
4	17	0	
10.12.14.5			
12.6.7.9			

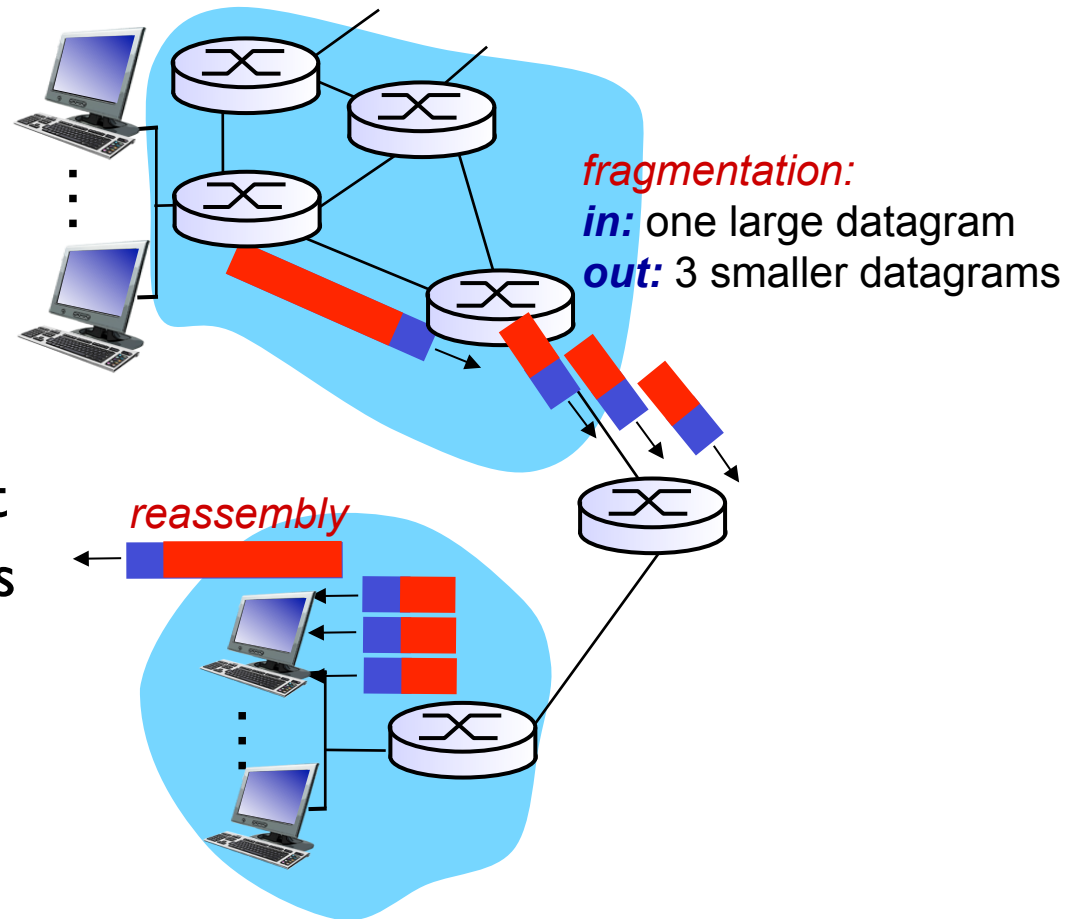
4, 5, and 0	→	0100010100000000
28	→	0000000000011100
1	→	0000000000000001
0 and 0	→	0000000000000000
4 and 17	→	000010000010001
0	→	0000000000000000
10.12	→	0000101000001100
14.5	→	0000111000000101
12.6	→	0000110000000110
7.9	→	0000011100001001
Sum		→ 0111010001001110
Checksum		→ 1000101110110001

# IP Datagram Fields (cont.)

- ❖ **Source and destination IP address** – 32-bit field, must remain unchanged until IP datagram reaches its final destination
- ❖ **Options** – 32-bit fields, not required for every datagram, allows expansion of IP header for special purposes
  - Seldom used
  - Options were dropped in IPv6 header
- ❖ **Data (payload)** – it usually contains the transport layer segment (TCP or UDP) to be delivered to the destination. It can carry other types of data, such as ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol) messages.

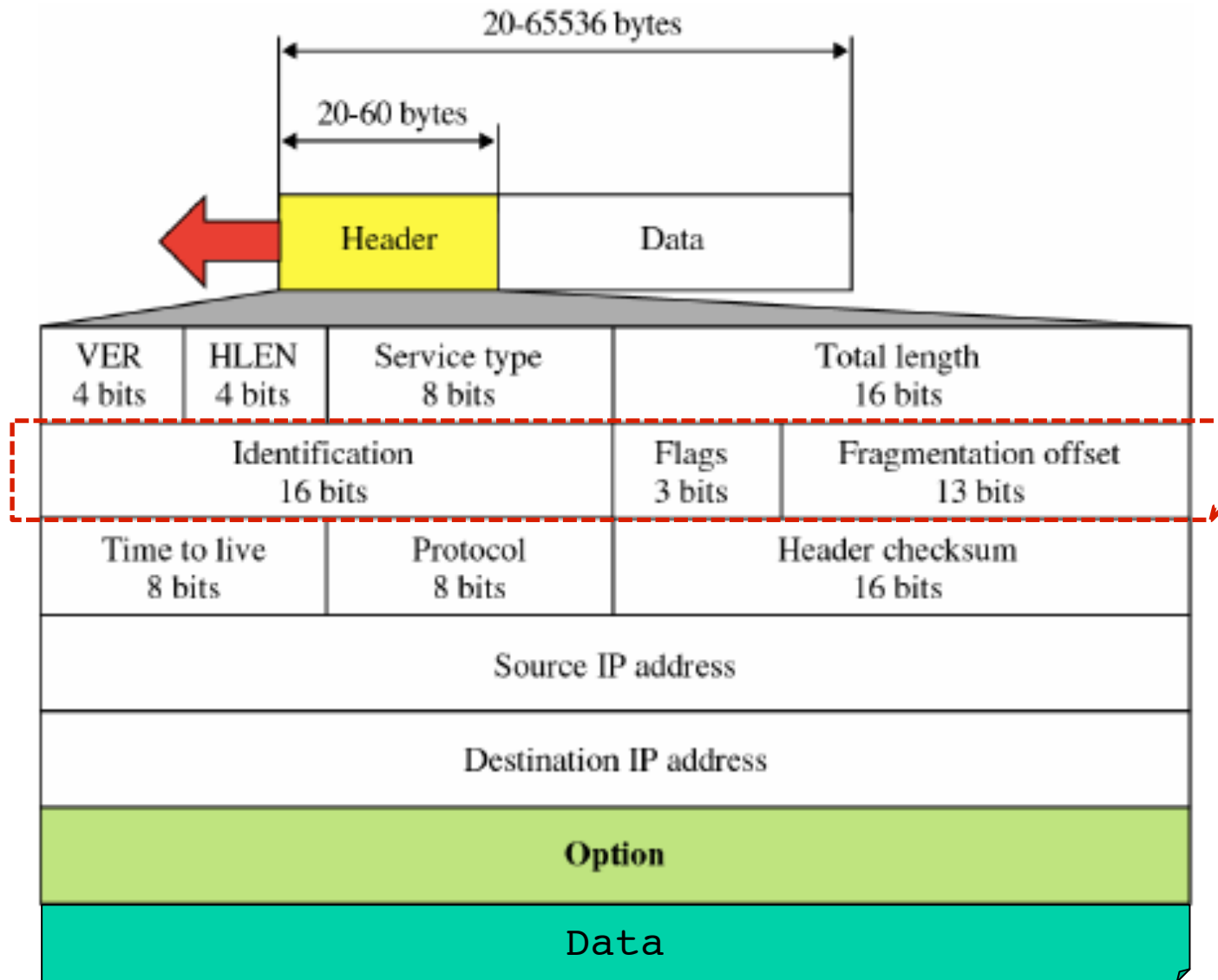
# IP fragmentation, reassembly

- ❖ 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, reassembly (cont.)



# IP fragmentation, reassembly (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 increases counter by one
- When datagram is fragmented, identification field is copied into all fragments
- Identification number helps destination in reassembling datagram

❖ **Flags** – 3-bit field

- 1<sup>st</sup> bit is reserved
- 2<sup>nd</sup> bit: “do not fragment” bit, 1 = no fragment
- 3<sup>rd</sup> bit: “more fragment” bit, 1 = not last fragment, 0 = last one

D: Do not fragment

M: More fragments



# IP fragmentation, reassembly (cont.)

- ❖ **Fragmentation offset** – 13-bit field, shows relative position of fragment data with respect to whole datagram
  - The offset is measured in units of 8 bytes

*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 =  
 $1480/8$

offset =  
 $2960/8$

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

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

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

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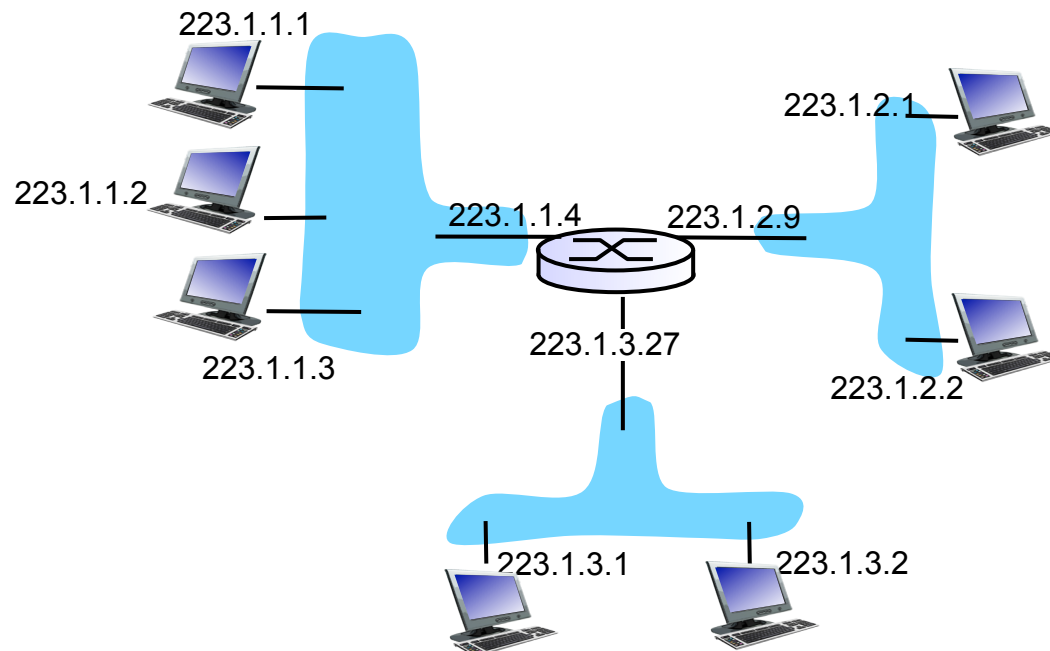
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# IP addressing

- ❖ **IP address:** uniquely and universally identifies each device connect to the network
  - IP Address: 3-bit (4-byte) binary address that identifies a host/router interface to the Internet
  - Two devices on the Internet can never have the same address at the same time; But, a single device can have two IP addresses if it is connected to the Internet via two networks
  - Routers typically have multiple interfaces, e.g. multiple IP addresses



# IP addressing (cont.)

- ❖ **IP address: Binary Notation** 32-bit/4-byte representation with a space inserted between each octet (byte). There are about 4 billions possible IP addresses.
- ❖ **IP address: Decimal Notation:** 4-number decimal representation with a decimal dot separating the numbers
  - Each decimal number, [0,255], corresponding to a byte

10000000 00001011 00000011 00011111  
128.11.3.31

How many bits  
go to network and  
how many to host part!?

**IP address = network part + host part**

assigned by global authority  
(ICANN) to organization

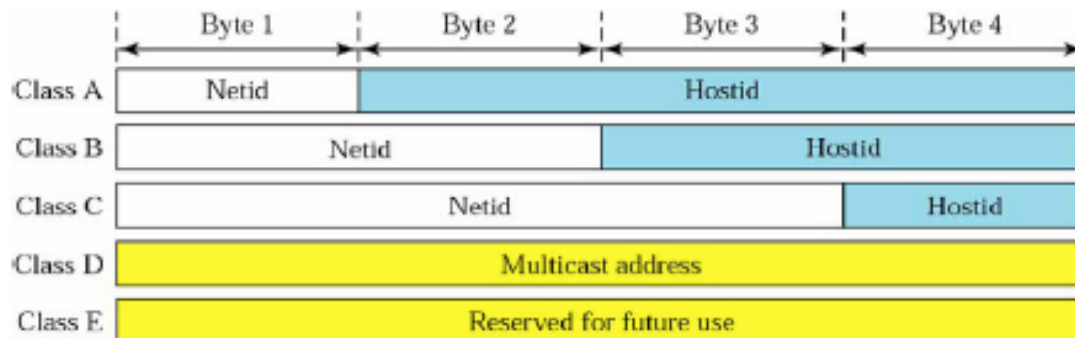
assigned by local authority  
to particular machine

# Classful and Classless IP addressing

- ❖ Originally, IP addressing used the concept of classes. This architecture is called classful addressing.
- ❖ In the mid 1990s, a new architecture – classless addressing, was introduced.
- ❖ Classless Addressing known as CIDR “Classless InterDomain Routing” addressing – removes class privileges to compensate for address depletion
- ❖ CIDR is used for Internet address assignment

# Classful IP addressing

- ❖ Supports addressing of different size networks by dividing address space into 5 classes: A, B, C, D, E
  - An IP address in classes A, B, and C is divided into Netid and Hostid



**While many class A and B addresses are wasted, the number of addresses in class C is smaller than the needs of most organizations.**

How do we know if an IP address is a class-A / B or C?



# Classful IP addressing (cont.)

## ❖ Recognizing classes

- Binary Notation – first few bits of an IP address in binary notation immediately identify the class of the given address
- Decimal Notation – each class has a specific range of numbers in decimal notation – it is enough to look at the first number to determine the class

	Octet 1	Octet 2	Octet 3	Octet 4
Class A	0.....			
Class B	10.....			
Class C	110.....			
Class D	1110....			
Class E	1111....			

Binary notation

	Byte 1	Byte 2	Byte 3	Byte 4
Class A	0–127			
Class B	128–191			
Class C	192–223			
Class D	224–299			
Class E	240–255			

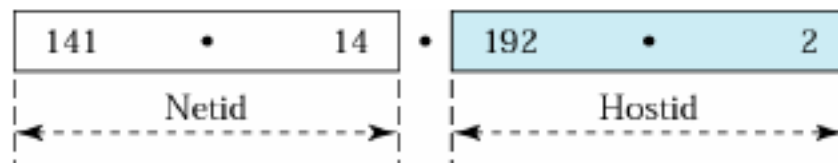
Dotted-decimal notation

# Classful IP addressing (cont.)

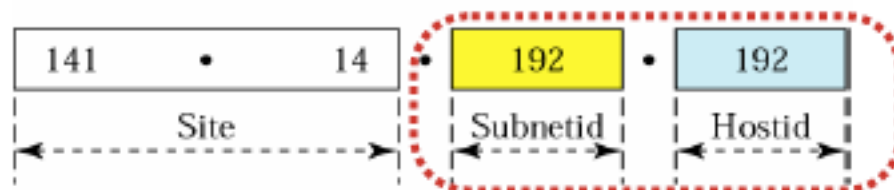
- ❖ Disadvantages of classful network addressing
  - Lack of a class to support medium-sized organizations
    - Class C which supports 254 hosts - too small
    - Class B which supports 65534 hosts - too large
  - A premature depletion of class B addresses has already occurred
    - In the early days of the Internet, addresses were freely assigned to those who asked for them without concerns about the eventual depletion of the IP address space
- ❖ Two existing mechanisms for overcoming the limitations of classful addressing:
  - Subnetting - if an organization gets assigned a “big” block of IP addresses how to distribute them among multiple LAN
  - Supernetting – how an organization can combine several class C blocks to create a larger range of address

# Subnets

- ❖ Network divided into several smaller subnetworks each having its own subnetwork address
  - Internally, each subnetwork is recognized by its subnetwork address; to the rest of the Internet all subnetworks still appear as a single network
- ❖ Organization of address space in a subnetted network
  - A number of HostID bits are borrowed for subnet identification
  - With  $m$  borrowed bits,  $2^m$  subnets can be created
  - Number of hosts in each subnet:  $2^{\text{Hostid}-m}$



a. Without subnetting



b. With subnetting

hostid is divided into 2 parts:  
1) subnet number  
2) host number on that subnet

# Classless addressing: CIDR

## CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

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

