

# CS 356: Computer Network Architectures

## Lecture 9: The Internet Protocol (IP) Ch 3.2

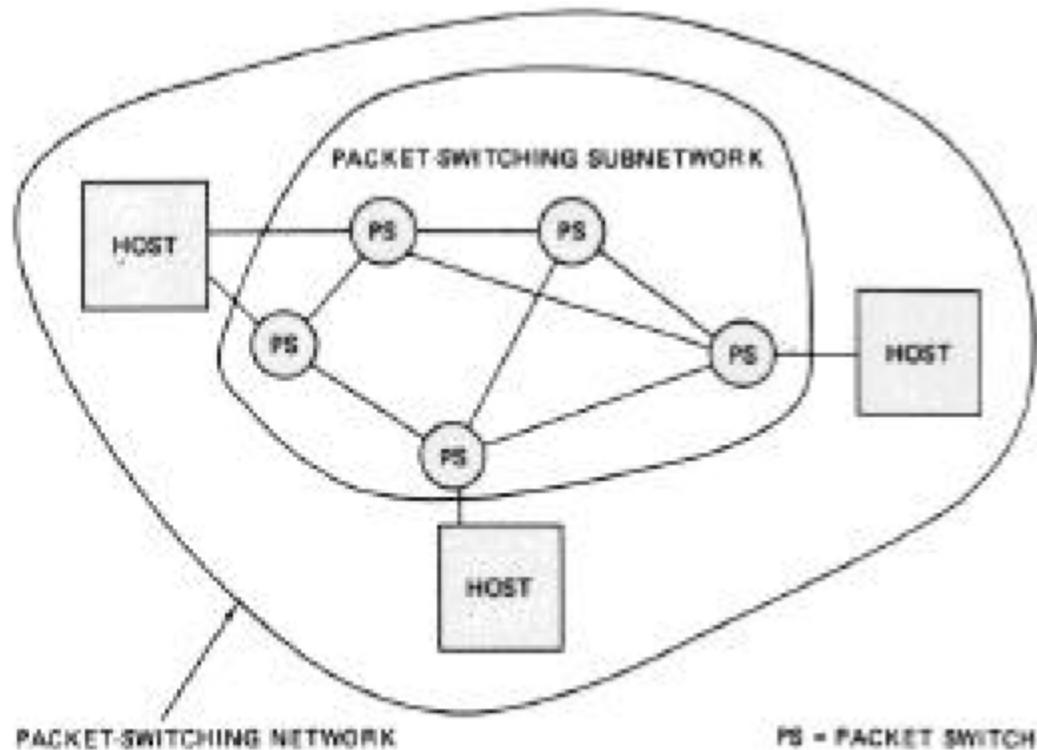
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# Overview

- History of IP
- IP header format
- IP addressing
- IP forwarding
  - Forwarding algorithm
  - Fragmentation

# History of the Internet

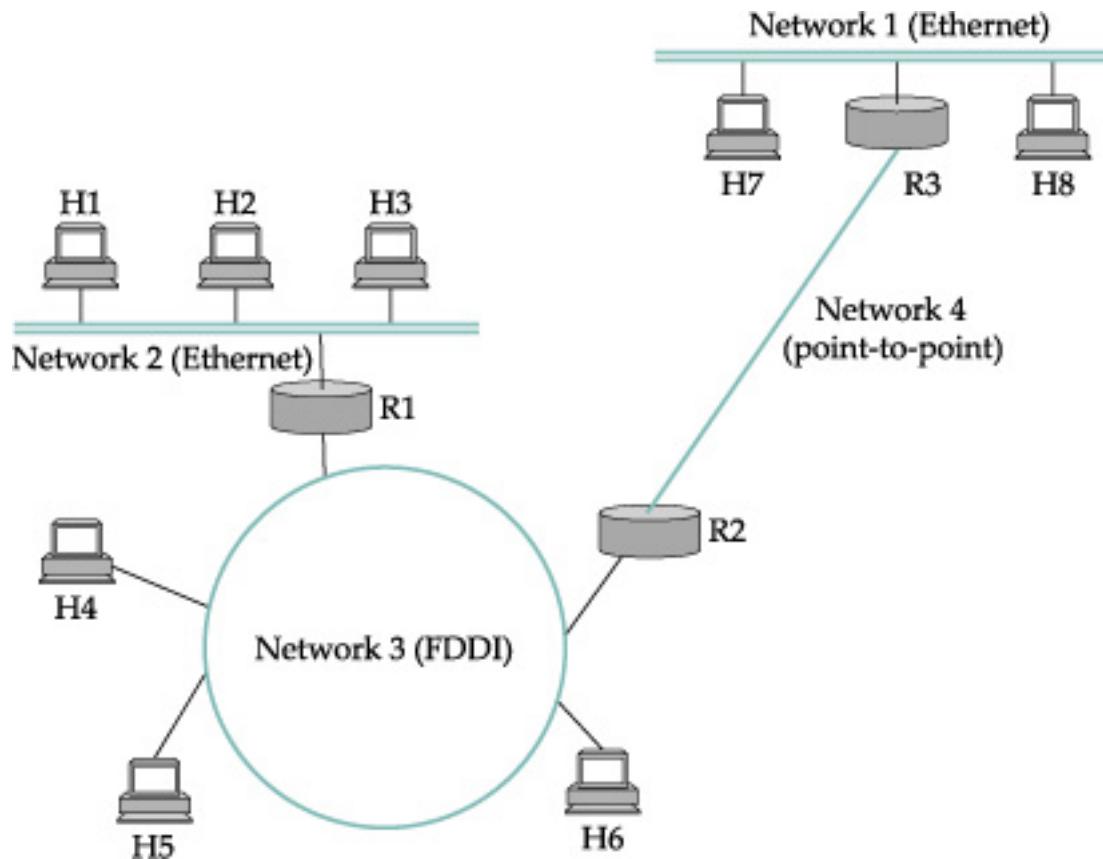
- Original design goal:  
Interconnecting different networks
- Many different types of packet switch networks
  - ARPANET, packet satellite networks, ground-based packet radio networks, and other networks.
- Each has
  - Hosts, packet switches, processes
  - A protocol for communication
- Q: what would you do differently given such a design task?



# Challenges

1. Different addressing schemes and host communication protocols
  - Ethernet, FDDI, ATM
2. Different Maximum Transmission Units (MTUs)
3. Different success or failure indicators
4. End-to-end reliability: failures may occur at each network
5. Different control protocols
  - Status information, routing, fault detection/isolation

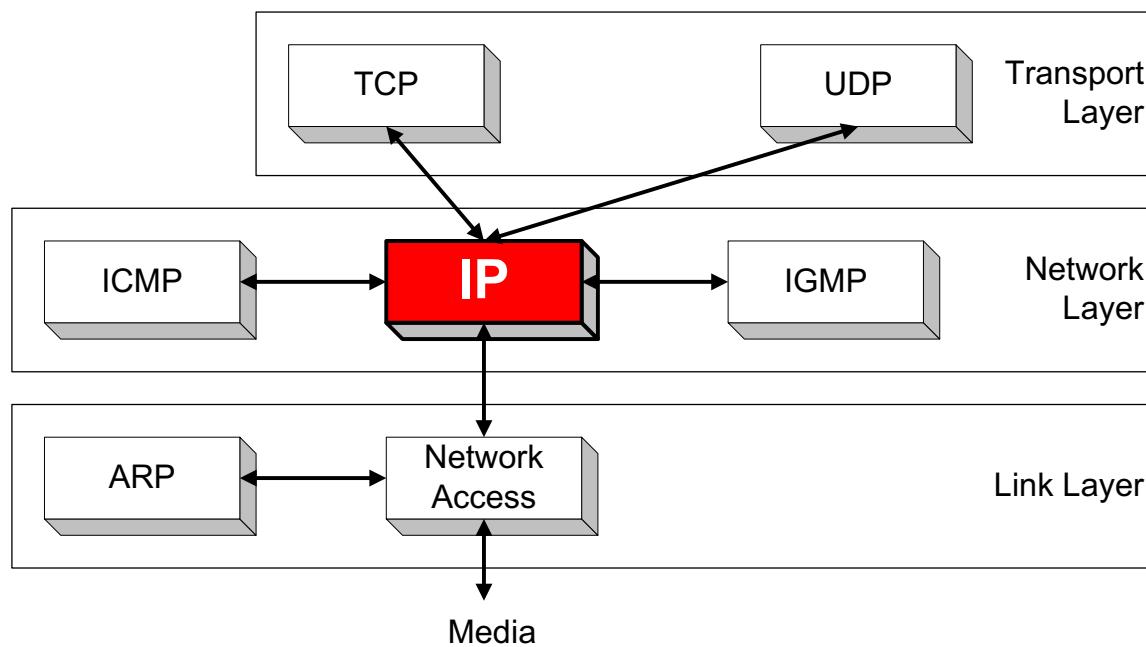
# Inter-networking



- One level of indirection
  - Routers interface different networks
- Uniform addressing (IP)
- Routers send packets to their destination IP addresses

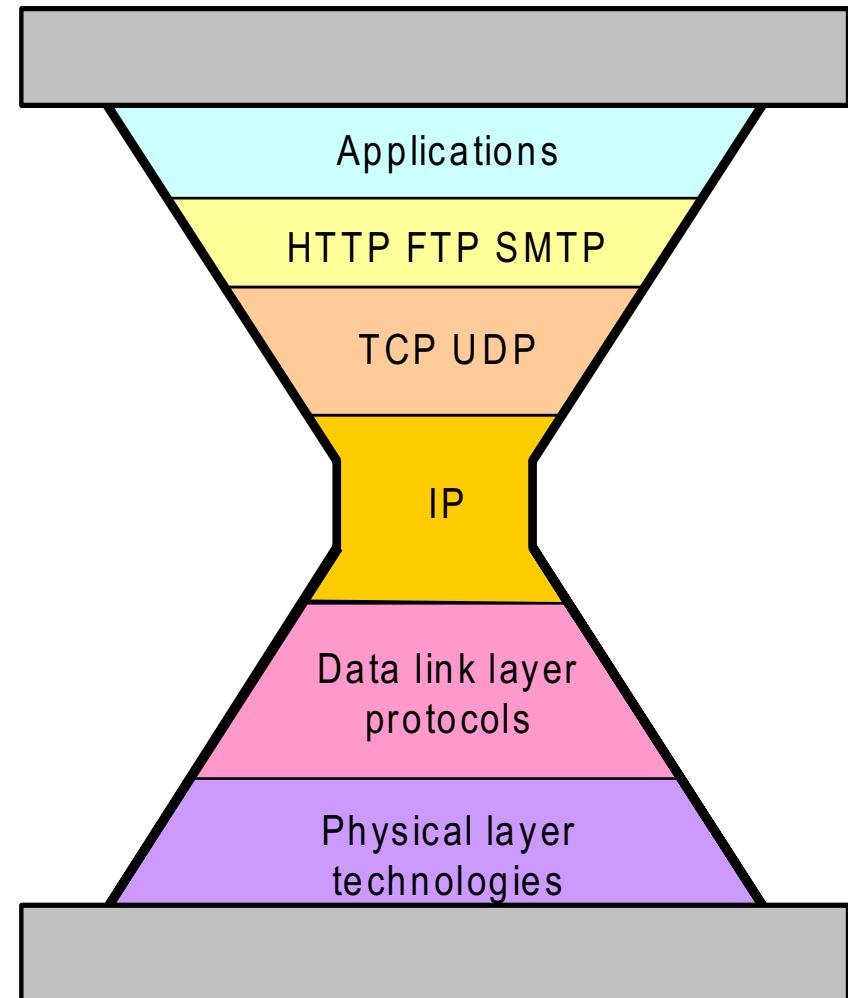
# Internet Protocol

- IP (Internet Protocol) is a Network Layer Protocol
- IP's current version is Version 4 (IPv4). It is specified in RFC 791.
- IPv6 is also deployed



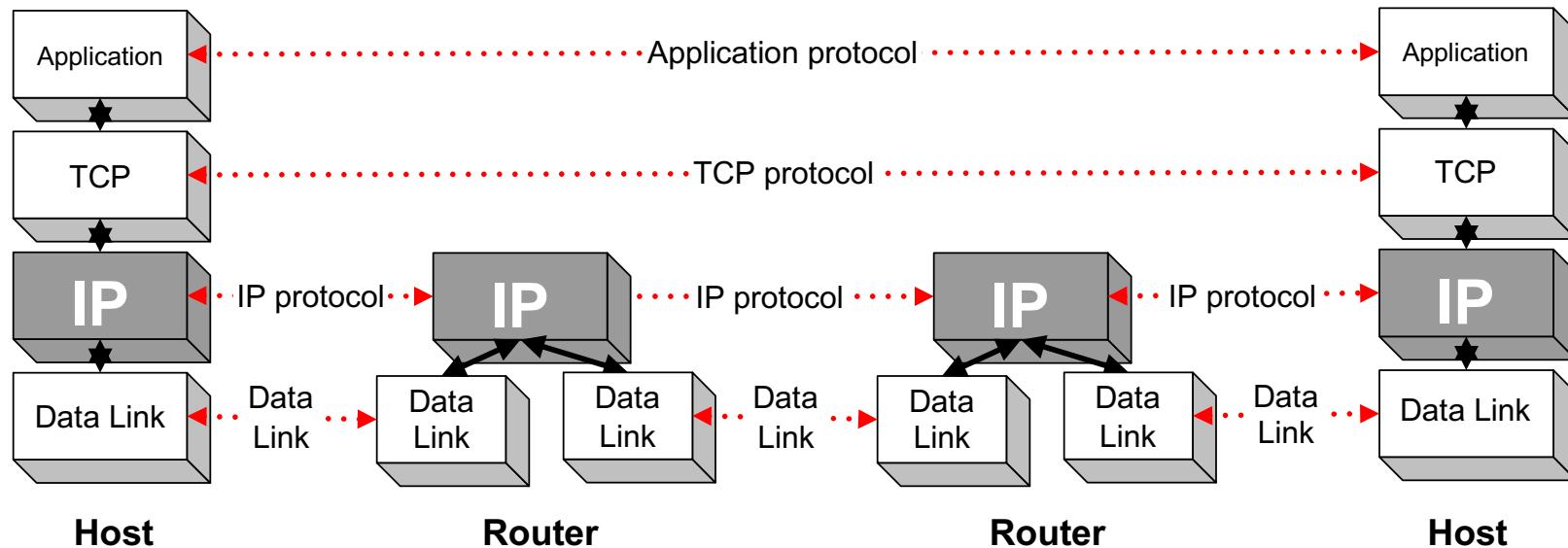
# IP: the thin waist of the hourglass

- **IP is the waist of the hourglass of the Internet protocol architecture**
- Multiple higher-layer protocols
- Multiple lower-layer protocols
- Only one protocol at the network layer.
- What is the advantage of this architecture?
  - To avoid the  $N * M$  problem

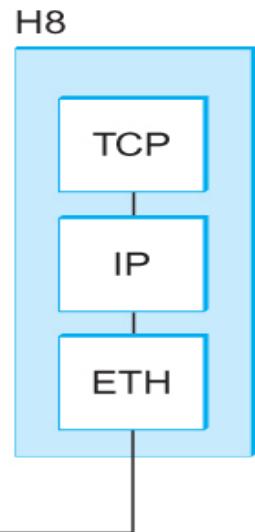
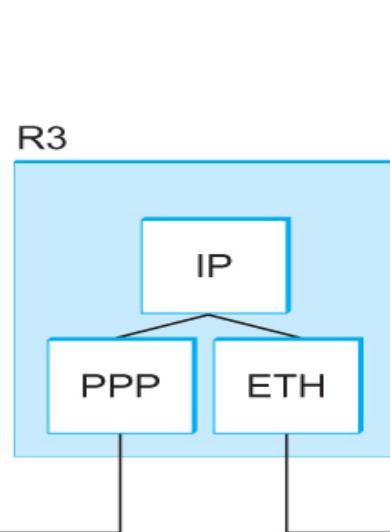
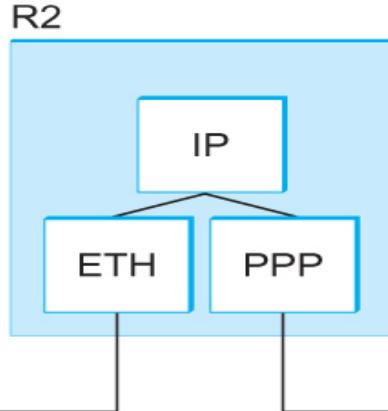
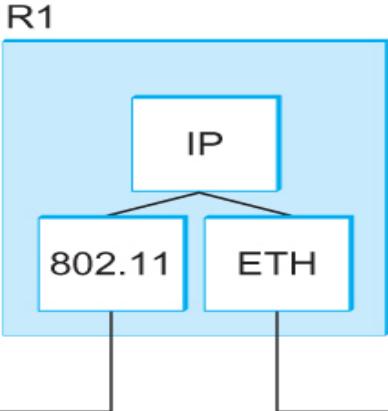
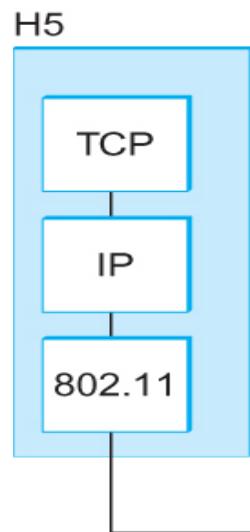
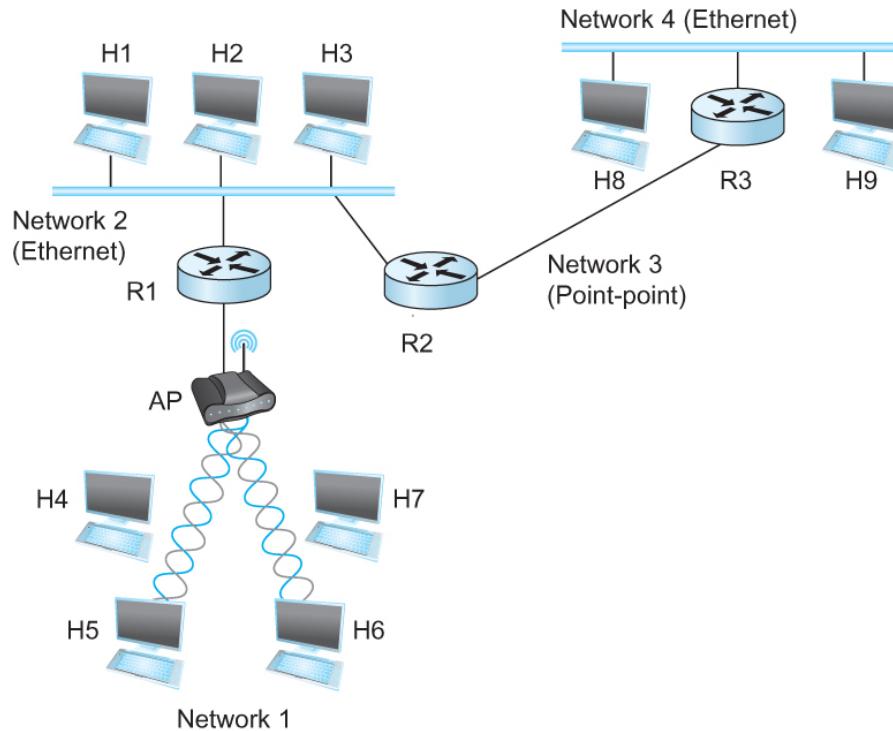


# Application protocol

- Routers look at a packet's IP header and link layer header



# A simple network



# IP Service Model

- Delivery service of IP is minimal
- IP provides an **unreliable connectionless** best effort service (also called: “datagram service”).
  - **Unreliable**
  - **Connectionless**
  - **Best effort**
- Consequences
  - Loss, out of order, and duplicate must be handled at the upper layer

# Basic IP router functions

- Things you need to understand to do lab2
  - Internet protocol
    - IP header
    - IP addressing
    - IP forwarding
  - Address resolution protocol
  - Error reporting and control
    - Internet Control Message Protocol

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format																																	
Offsets	Octet	0				1				2				3																			
Octet	Bit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
0	0	Version	IHL	DSCP				ECN				Total Length																					
4	32	Identification						Flags				Fragment Offset																					
8	64	Time To Live				Protocol				Header Checksum																							
12	96	Source IP Address																															
16	128	Destination IP Address																															
20	160																																
24	192					Options (if IHL > 5)																											
28	224																																
32	256																																

- 20 bytes fixed length header + variable length options
- **Internet Header Length (IHL 4 bits):** the length of header in 32-bit words
  - Maximum header length?

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format																																																	
Offsets	Octet	0				1				2								3																															
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- **DSCP (Differentiated Services Code Point 6 bits):** old Type of Service
  - Real-time, VoIP
- **Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN)**
  - Early Congestion notice

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format																																																																				
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- **Total length (16 bits):** packet length in bytes, including the header
  - 65535 bytes
  - Fragmentation and reassembly

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format																																	
Offsets	Octet	0				1				2				3																			
Octet	Bit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
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32	256																																

- **Identification (16 bits):** Unique datagram identifier from a host
  - Incremented whenever a datagram is transmitted (in some OS)
  - Used by many researchers for various purposes

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format																																																															
Offsets	Octet	0							1							2							3																																								
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- **Flags (3 bits):**
  - First bit always set to 0
  - DF bit (Do not fragment)
  - MF bit (More fragments)
- **Fragment offset (13 bits)**
- **Identification, Flags, Fragment offset**
  - fragmentation and assembly

# IP header format

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- **Time To Live (TTL) (1byte):**
  - Specifies the longest path before a datagram is dropped
  - Role of TTL field: Ensure that a packet is eventually dropped when a routing loop occurs

Used as follows:

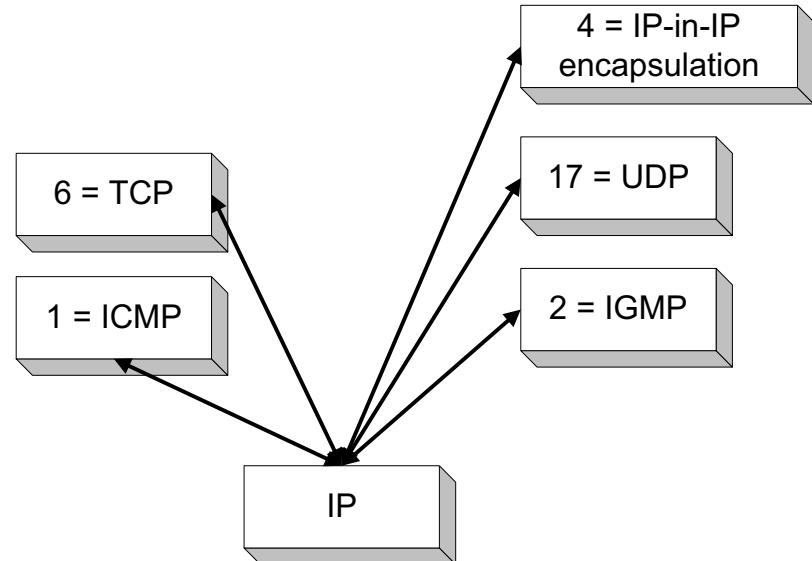
- Sender sets the value (e.g., 64)
- Each router decrements the value by 1
- When the value reaches 0, the datagram is dropped

# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format

Offsets	Octet	0								1								2								3																													
Octet	Bit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31																						
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- **Protocol (1 byte):**
  - Specifies the higher-layer protocol.
  - De-multiplexing to higher layers.



# IP header format

IPv4 Header Format

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- **Header checksum (16 bits):** header checksum
  - Header only
  - Must be computed at every hop!

# Fields of the IP Header

- **Options:**
  - Record Route: each router that processes the packet adds its IP address to the header.
  - Timestamp: each router that processes the packet adds its IP address and time to the header.
  - (loose) Source Routing: specifies a list of routers that must be traversed.
  - (strict) Source Routing: specifies a list of the only routers that can be traversed.
  - IP options increase routers processing overhead
- **Padding:** Padding bytes are added to ensure that header ends on a 4-byte boundary

# Global IP addresses

# What is an IP Address?

- An IP address is a unique global identifier for a network interface
  - An IP address uniquely identifies a network location
- Routers forwards a packet based on the destination address of the packet
- Uniqueness ensures global reachability

# IP versions

- IPv4 (32-bit)
  - Classful IP addresses (obsolete)
  - Classless inter-domain routing (CIDR) (RFC 854, current standard)
- IP Version 6 addresses (128-bit)

# Dotted Decimal Notation

- Each byte is identified by a decimal number in the range [0...255]:

10000000	10001111	10001001	10010000
----------	----------	----------	----------

1<sup>st</sup> Byte

= 128

2<sup>nd</sup> Byte

= 143

3<sup>rd</sup> Byte

= 137

4<sup>th</sup> Byte

= 144

128.143.137.144

# Structure of an IP address

0

31

**network prefix**

**host number**

- An IP address has a structure
  - Network prefix identifies a network
  - Host number identifies a specific host interface
- Improves the scalability of routing
  - Scales better than flat addresses

# How long is a network prefix?

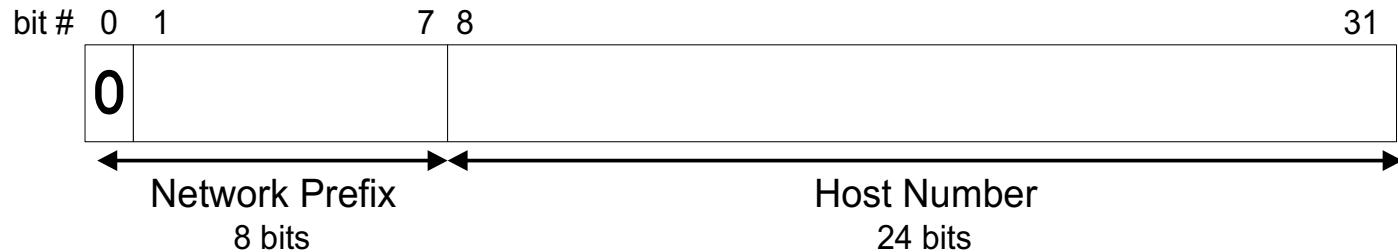
- **Before 1993:** The network prefix is implicitly defined (**class-based addressing**)
- **After 1993:** The network prefix is indicated by a **netmask**

# Before 1993: Class-based addressing

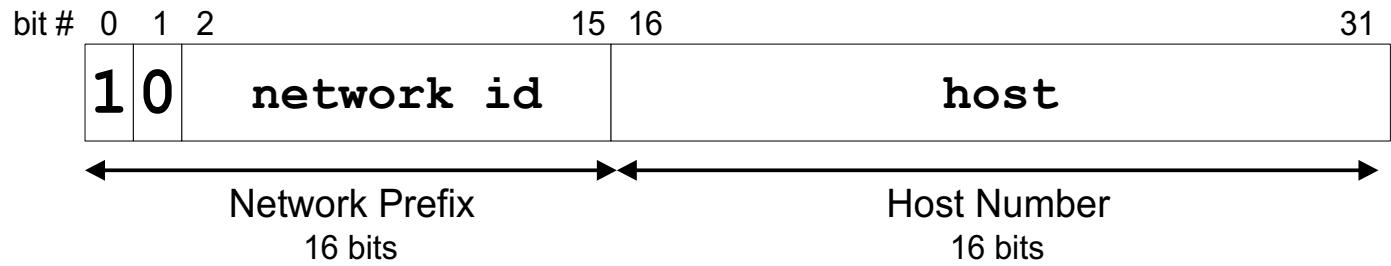
- The Internet address space was divided up into classes:
  - **Class A:** Network prefix is 8 bits long
  - **Class B:** Network prefix is 16 bits long
  - **Class C:** Network prefix is 24 bits long
  - Class D is multicast address
  - Class E is reserved

# Classful IP Addresses (before 1993)

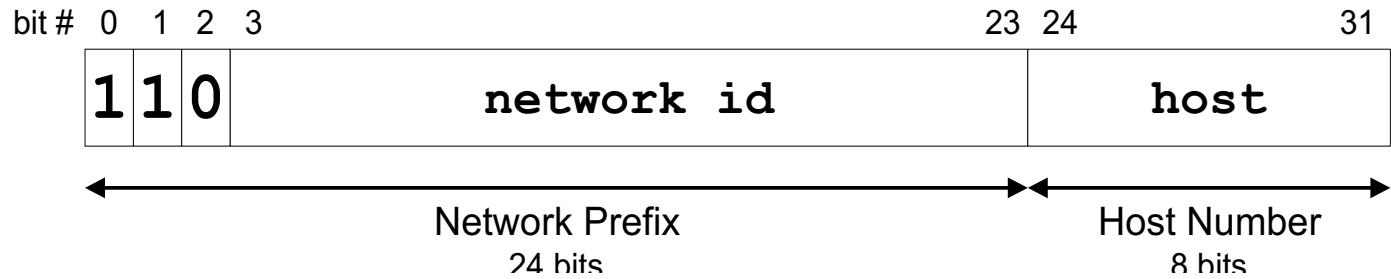
Class A



Class B



Class C

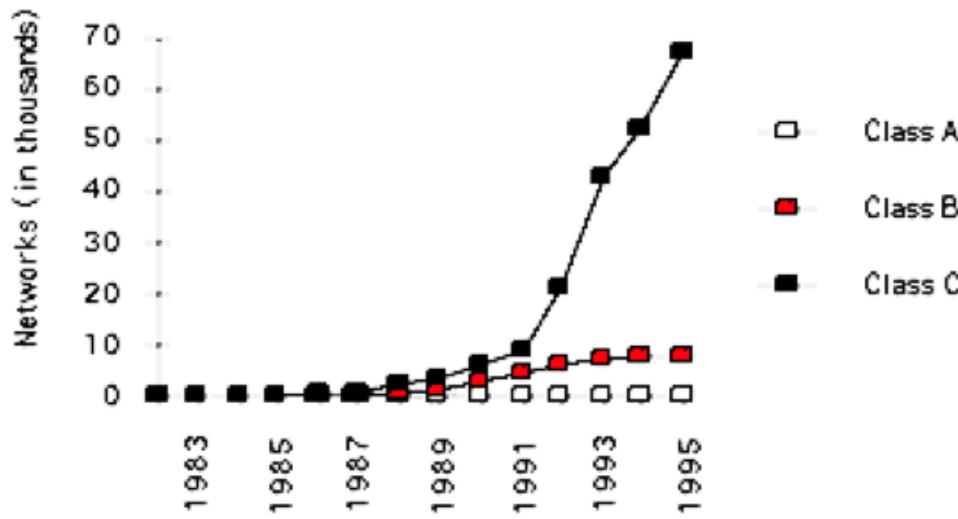


# Classful IP Addresses (before 1993)

Class D	bit # 0 1 2 3 4					31
	1	1	1	0	multicast group id	

Class E	bit # 0 1 2 3 4 5						31
	1	1	1	1	0	(reserved for future use)	

# Problems with Classful IP Addresses

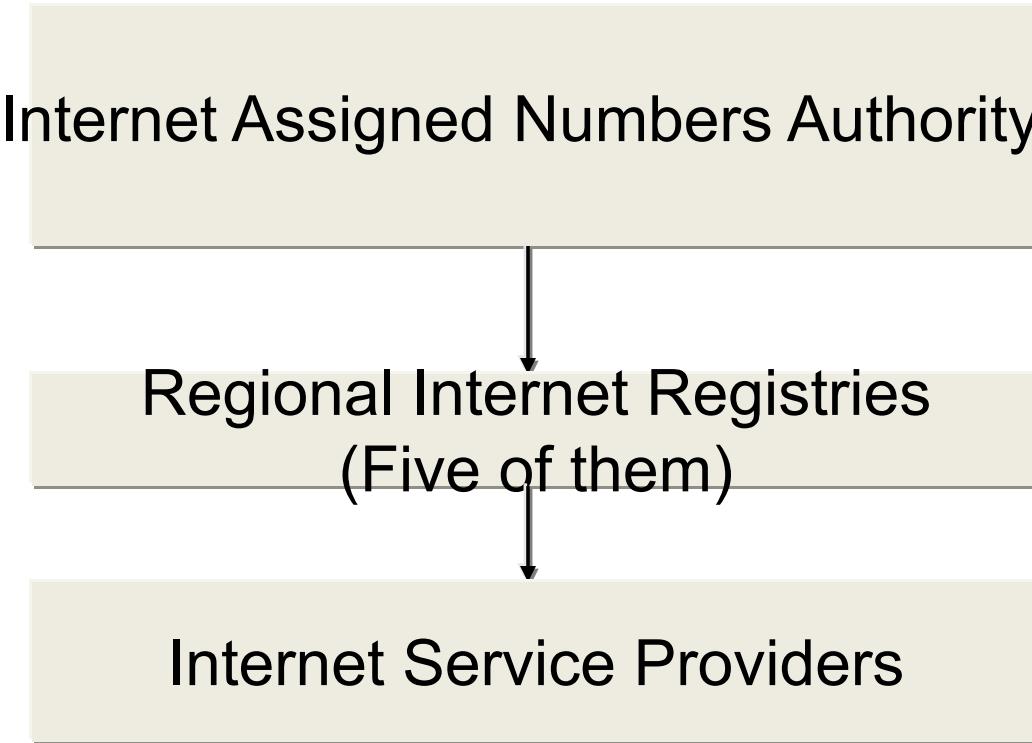


- Fast growing routing table size
  - Each router must have an entry for every network prefix
  - $\sim 2^{21} = 2,097,152$  class C networks
  - In 1993, the size of routing tables started to outgrow the capacity of routers
- Local admins must request another network number before installing a new network at their site

# Solution: Classless Inter-domain routing (CIDR)

- Network prefix is of variable length
  - No rigid class boundary
- Addresses are allocated hierarchically
- Routers can aggregate multiple address prefixes into one routing entry
- Hierarchy is the key

# Hierarchical IP Address Allocation



- American Registry for Internet Numbers (ARIN)
- RIPE, APNIC, LACNIC, AfriNIC

# CIDR network prefix has variable length

	128	143	137	144
Addr	10000000	10001111	10001001	10010000
Mask	255	255	255	0

	11111111	11111111	11111111	00000000
	11111111	11111111	11111111	00000000

- A network mask specifies the number of bits used to identify a network in an IP address.

# CIDR notation

- CIDR notation of an IP address:
  - 128.143.137.144/24
  - /24 is the prefix length. It states that the first 24 bits are the network prefix of the address (and the remaining 8 bits are available for specific host addresses)
- CIDR notation can nicely express blocks of addresses
  - An address block
    - [128.195.0.0, 128.195.255.255] can be represented by an address prefix 128.195.0.0/16
    - How many IP addresses are there in a /x address block?
      - $2^{(32-x)}$

# Output of ifconfig

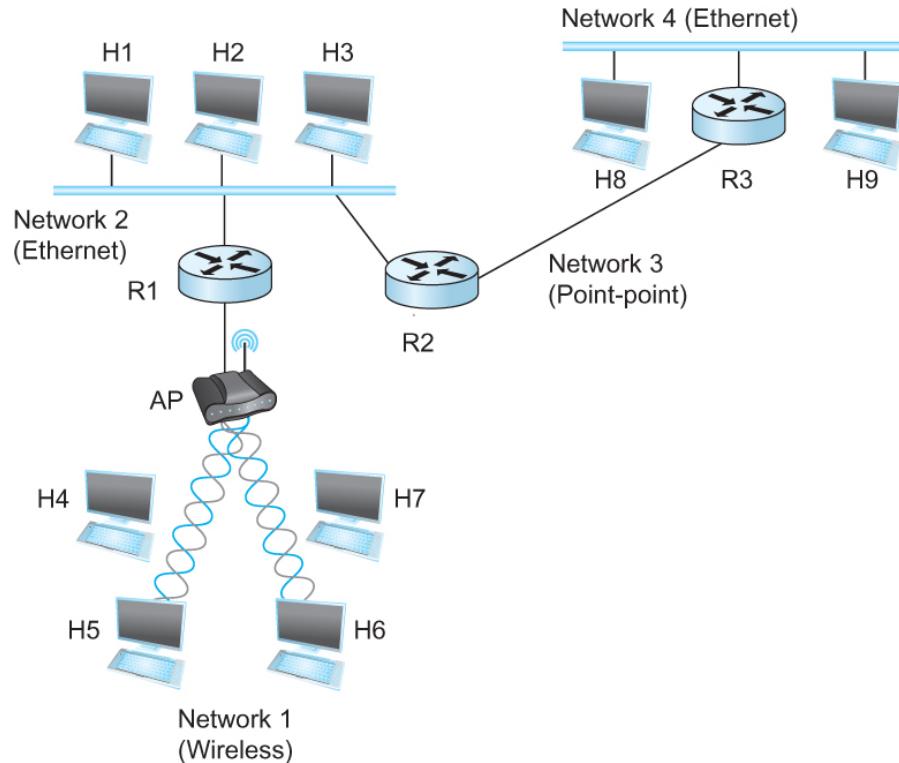
```
en0: flags=8863<UP,BROADCAST,SMART,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST> mtu 1500
      ether a8:66:7f:16:02:08
      inet6 fe80::10cf:731b:1d54:e775%en0 prefixlen 64 secured scopeid 0x5
      inet 10.194.131.251 netmask 0xffffe000 broadcast 10.194.159.255
        nd6 options=201<PERFORMNUD,DAD>
      media: autoselect
      status: active
```

# IP Forwarding

# Forwarding of IP datagrams

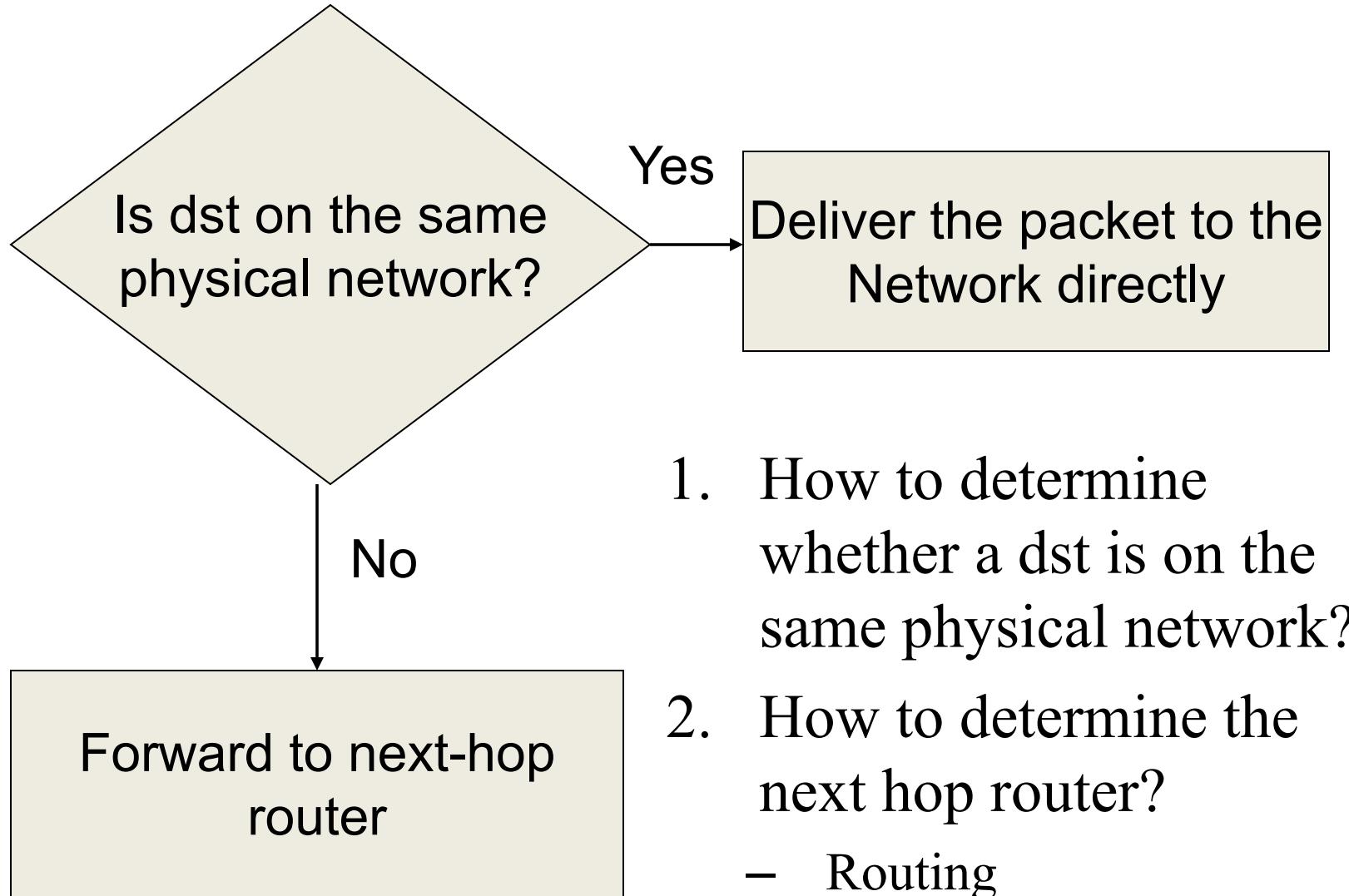
- There are two distinct processes to delivering IP datagrams:
  1. **Forwarding (data plane):** How to pass a packet from an input interface to the output interface?
  2. **Routing (control plane):** How to find and setup the forwarding tables?

# Forwarding basics



- Routers forward according to network prefixes
- All interfaces on the same network have the same network prefixes

# Forwarding algorithm



# Detailed forwarding algorithm

- If (networkNum == networkNum of one of my interfaces) then
  - Deliver packet over the interface
- Else
  - if (NetworkNum is in my forwarding table) then
    - Deliver to the NextHop router
  - Else
    - Deliver packet to the default router

# How does a host/router determine the network number of a destination address?

- Destination address & network mask = NetworkNumOfDestination
- If (NetworkNumOfDestination == my network Number) then
  - Send through my direct interfaces

# Forwarding table lookup

- **Forwarding table lookup:** Use the IP destination address as a key to search the routing table
- Result of the lookup is the IP address of a next hop router, and/or the name of a network interface

Destination address	Next hop/ interface
network prefix <i>or</i> host IP address	IP address of next hop router
<i>or</i> loopback address	<i>or</i>
default route	Name of a network interface

# Type of forwarding table entries

- **Network route**
  - Destination addresses is a network address (e.g., 10.0.2.0/24)
  - Most entries are network routes
- **Host route**
  - Destination address is an interface address (e.g., 10.0.1.2/32)
  - Used to specify a separate route for certain hosts
- **Default route**
  - Used when no network or host route matches
- **Loopback address**
  - Routing table for the loopback address (127.0.0.1)
  - The next hop lists the loopback (lo0) interface as outgoing interface

# Unified forwarding algorithm

- Observation:
  - A directly physical network can be an entry in the forwarding table
  - A default route can be an entry

1. Look up destination address in the forwarding table using longest prefix match
2. Forward the packet to the next hop indicated by the matched entry

# The longest prefix matching algorithm

1. Search for a match on all 32 bits
2. Search for a match for 31 bits

.....

32. Search for a match on 0 bits

Host route, loopback entry

→ 32-bit prefix match

Default route is represented as 0.0.0.0/0  
→ 0-bit prefix match

# Why longest prefix match?

- Longest → smallest network
- Network prefixes may be aggregated

# Example

**128.143.71.21**



Destination address	Next hop
10.0.0.0/8	eth0
128.143.0.0/16	R2
128.143.64.0/20	R3
128.143.192.0/20	R3
<b>128.143.71.0/24</b>	<b>R4</b>
128.143.71.55/32	R3
0.0.0.0/0 (default)	R5



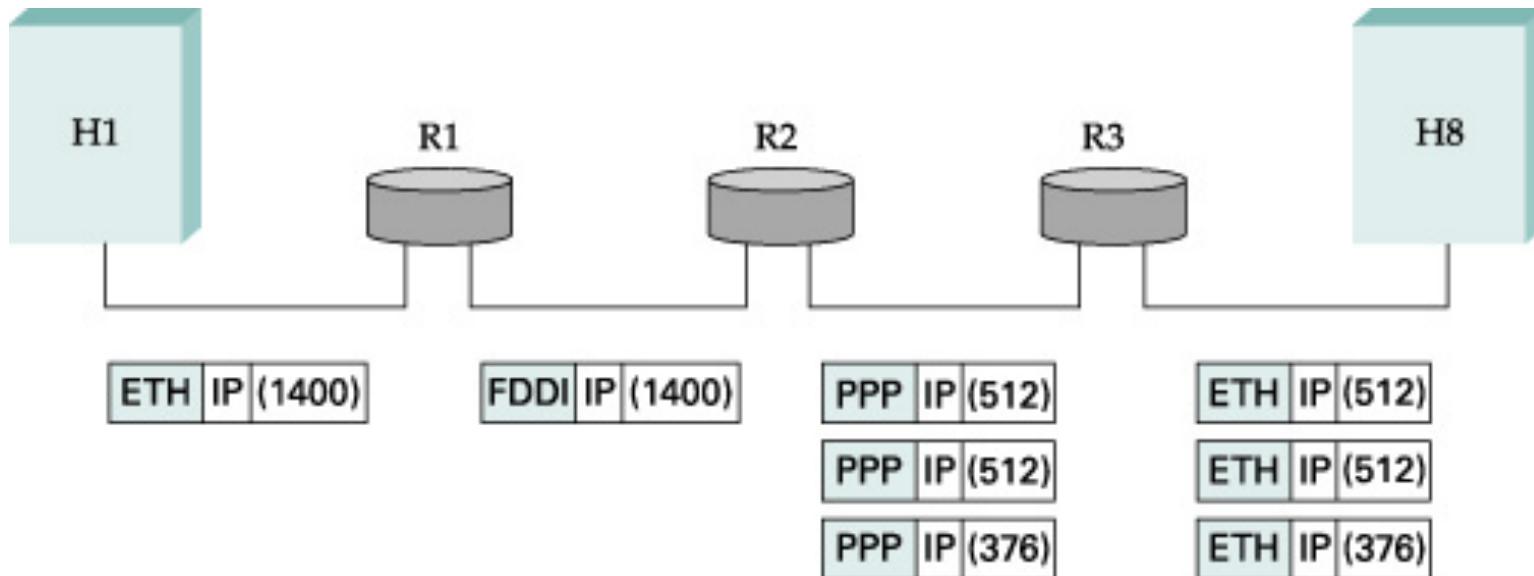
**The longest prefix match for  
128.143.71.21 is for 24 bits  
with entry 128.143.71.0/24**

**Datagram will be sent to R4**

# Fragmentation and Reassembly

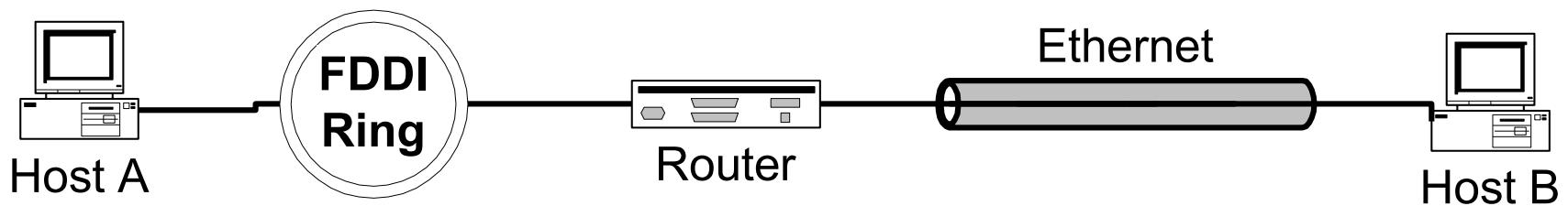
(not required for Lab 2)

# Different networks have different Maximum Transmission Units (MTUs)



# IP Fragmentation and Reassembly

- What if the size of an IP datagram exceeds the MTU?  
IP datagram is fragmented into smaller units.
- What if the route contains networks with different MTUs?



MTUs: FDDI: 4352

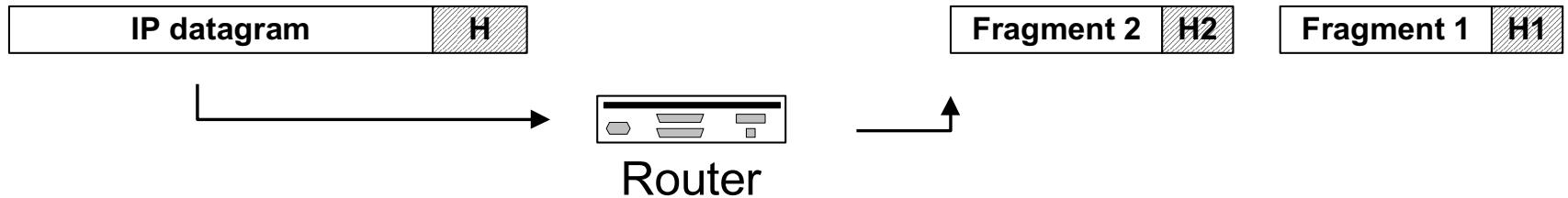
Ethernet: 1500

- **Fragmentation:**

- IP router splits the datagram into several datagrams

# Design question: Where is Fragmentation/reassembly done?

- Fragmentation can be done at the sender or at intermediate routers
- The same datagram can be fragmented several times.
- Reassembly of original datagram is only done at destination hosts !! (why?)



# What's involved in Fragmentation?

- The following fields in the IP header are involved:

version	header length	DS	ECN	total length (in bytes)			
Identification				0	D	M	F
time-to-live (TTL)		protocol		header checksum			

- Identification
  - When a datagram is fragmented, the identification is the same in all fragments
  - Used to reassemble the original packet
- Flags
  - DF bit is set: datagram cannot be fragmented and must be discarded if MTU is too small
    - ICMP sent
  - MF bit:
    - 1: this is not the last fragment
    - 0: last fragment

# What's involved in Fragmentation?

- The following fields in the IP header are involved:

version	header length	DS	ECN	total length (in bytes)			
Identification				0	D	M	F
time-to-live (TTL)		protocol		header checksum			

- Fragment offset*

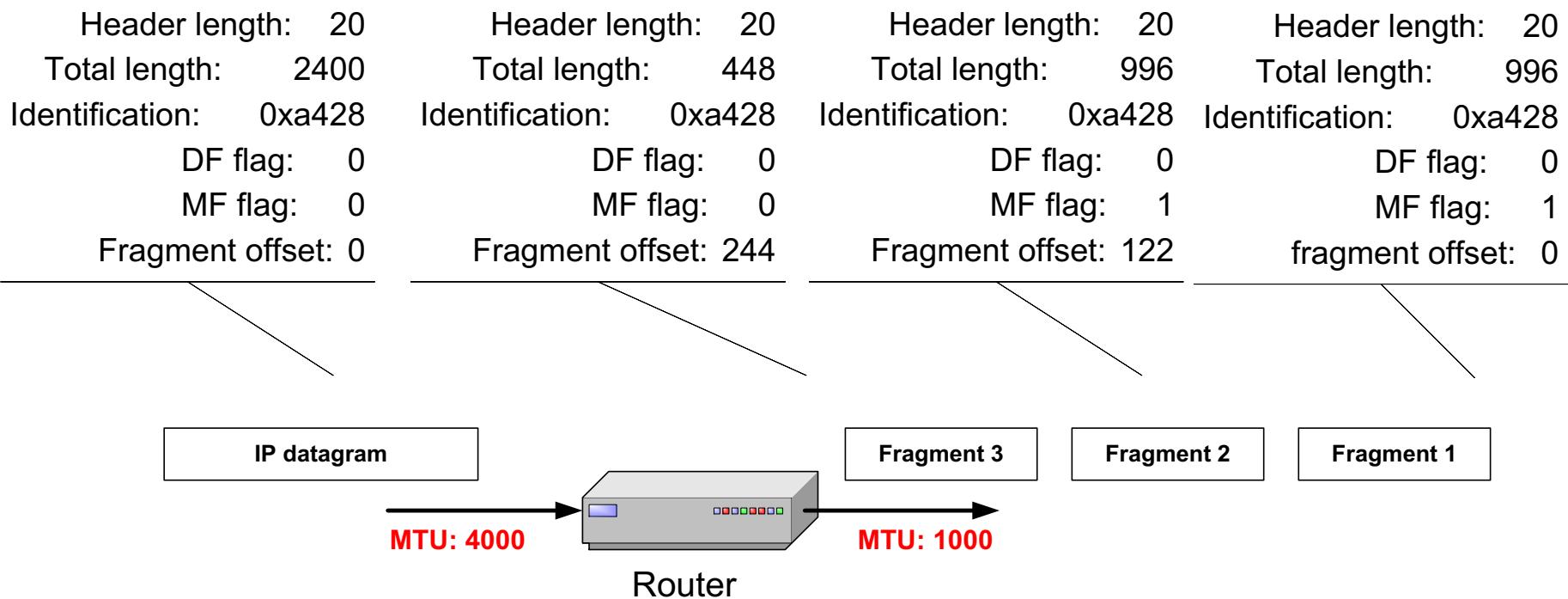
- Offset of the payload of the current fragment in the original datagram in units of **8 bytes**
  - Why?
  - Because the field is only 13 bits long, while the total length is 16 bits.

- Total length*

- Total length of the current fragment

# Example of Fragmentation

- A datagram with size 2400 bytes must be fragmented according to an MTU limit of 1000 bytes



# Determining the length of fragments

- Maximum payload length =  $1000 - 20 = 980$  bytes
- Offset specifies the bytes in multiple of 8 bytes. So the payload must be a multiple of 8 bytes.
- $980 - 980 \% 8 = 976$  (the largest number that is less than 980 and divisible by 8)
- The payload for the first fragment is 976 and has bytes  $0 \sim 975$  of the original IP datagram. The offset is 0.
- The payload for the second fragment is 976 and has bytes  $976 \sim 1951$  of the original IP datagram. The offset is  $976 / 8 = 122$ .
- The payload of the last fragment is  $2400 - 976 * 2 = 428$  bytes and has bytes  $1952 \sim 2400$  of the original IP datagram. The offset is 244.
- Total length of three fragments:  $996 + 996 + 448 = 2440 > 2400$ 
  - Why?
  - Two additional IP headers.

# Path MTU discovery

- Fragmentation slows down the router
- → should be done by end hosts
- How does a sender know the MTU of a path?
  - A host only knows the MTU of its links
- Solution
  - send large packets with DF set
  - If receive ICMP Fragmentation needed messages, reduce maximum segment size

# Summary

- History of IP
- IP header format
- IP addressing
- IP forwarding
  - Forwarding algorithm
  - Fragmentation