Network Layer II

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Chapter 4: Roadmap

4.1 Introduction
4.2 Virtual circuit and datagram networks
4.3 What’s inside a router
4.4 IP: Internet Protocol
4.5 Routing algorithms
4.6 Routing in the Internet
4.7 Broadcast and multicast routing
Router Architecture Overview

Two key router functions:
• Run routing algorithms/protocol (RIP, OSPF, BGP)
• Forward datagrams from incoming to outgoing link
  – Terminology: port = interface capable of sending/receiving
Decentralized switching:
- Given datagram destination, look up 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
Switching Via Memory

First generation routers (1960s-mid 1980s):

- Traditional computers with switching under direct control of CPU
- Packet copied to system memory
- Speed limited by CPU, memory latency/bandwidth, and bus bandwidth (two bus crossings per datagram)
- Honeywell 316 (1969) →
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
- 1 Gbps bus in Cisco 1900: sufficient speed for access and small enterprise networks (not ISPs)
Switching Via An Interconnection Network

- Overcomes bus bandwidth limitations
  - Crossbar: packets transmitted in parallel as long as they do not occupy the same horizontal or vertical bus
- Cisco 12000 (1996): uses an interconnection network
  - CRS-X (2013): 1600 lbs, 84” rack, 7.6 KWatt, 800 Gbps/slot
  - 16 slots/rack = 12.8 Tbps
  - Up to 72 racks (922 Tbps)
Output Ports

- **Buffering/queuing** required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than the transmission rate
- **Scheduling discipline** chooses among queued datagrams for transmission
  - Customer traffic: single FIFO drop-tail queue
  - ISP traffic: multiple queues with WRR or priority queuing
Output Port Queuing

- Buffering when arrival rate via switch fabric exceeds output line speed
  - Queuing delay and loss due to output buffer overflow
- Switch fabric often faster than individual ports
  - Produces large bursts of arrivals into output queues
Input Port Queuing

- Reasons for input-port queuing:
  - Head-of-Line (HOL) blocking: queued datagram at front of queue prevents others in queue from moving forward
  - Queuing delay and loss due to input buffer overflow!
    - How likely is this compared to output port queuing/loss?

![Diagram](image)
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The Internet Network Layer

Host and router network layer functions:

- **Routing protocols**
  - Path selection
  - RIP, OSPF, BGP

- **IP protocol**
  - Datagram format
  - Addressing conventions

- **IGMP protocol**
  - Multicast

- **ICMP protocol**
  - Error reporting
  - Ping, traceroute

Transport layer: TCP, UDP

Network layer

Link layer

Physical layer
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   - Datagram format
   - IPv4 addressing
   - ICMP
   - IPv6
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**IPv4 Datagram Format**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IP protocol version number</td>
<td>32 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Header length (in 4-byte words)</td>
<td>16-bit identifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QoS requested</td>
<td>Max number remaining hops (decremented at each router)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper layer protocol to deliver payload to</td>
<td>Options (if any)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much overhead with TCP?</td>
<td>E.g. timestamp, record route taken, specify list of routers to visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total datagram length (bytes)</td>
<td>For fragmentation/reassembly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **32 bit source IP address**
- **32 bit destination IP address**
- **type of service**
- **length**
- **time to live**
- **upper layer**
- **Internet checksum**
- **flags**
- **fragment offset**
- **data** (variable length, typically a TCP or UDP segment)

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**For TCP**:
- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes
IP Fragmentation & Reassembly

- Network links have varying MTUs (maximum transmission units) – largest possible link-level frames
  - Different link types, different MTUs (most common 1500)
- Large IP datagram divided (“fragmented”) within network
  - 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 (including IP header)
- MTU = 1500 bytes

One large datagram becomes several smaller datagrams

- 1480 bytes in payload
- offset is in 8-byte words: $\frac{185}{8} = 1480/8$
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IP Addressing: Introduction

- **IP address**: 32-bit identifier for host or router *interface*
- **Interface**: connection between host/router and physical link
  - Also called a *port*
  - Routers have many interfaces
- Can hosts have multiple interfaces?
  - Yes, it’s called *multi-homing*
Subnets

- **IP address:**
  - Subnet prefix: $k$ bits
  - Host suffix: $32-k$ remaining bits
- **What’s a subnet (LAN)?**
  - Network composed of devices with the same subnet prefix of IP address
  - Can physically reach each other without intervening router
Subnets

Recipe

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

Subnet mask:
- 255.255.255.0
- or /24
Subnets

How many?
IP Addressing: CIDR

- In the early Internet, only subnets with 8, 16, or 24 bit prefixes were allowed ("class A, B, C" networks)
- This was inflexible and wasteful as well

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing
- Subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- Address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in the subnet portion of address

```
11001000  00010111  00010000  00000000
200.23.16.0/23
```
**IP Addresses: How to Get One?**

Q: How does a *host* get an IP address?

- Either hard-coded by system admin in a file
  - Windows: Control-panel → network → configuration → tcp/ip → properties
  - Linux: /etc/rc.config
- Or dynamically assigned by **DHCP** (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol)
  - “Plug-and-play” (more in Chapter 5)
### IP Addresses: How to Get One?

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

#### A: Gets allocated portion of its provider ISP’s address space

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISP's block</th>
<th>11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000</th>
<th>200.23.16.0/20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization 0</td>
<td>11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000</td>
<td>200.23.16.0/23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization 1</td>
<td>11001000 00010111 00010010 00000000</td>
<td>200.23.18.0/23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization 2</td>
<td>11001000 00010111 00010100 00000000</td>
<td>200.23.20.0/23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...  

| Organization 7 | 11001000 00010111 00011110 00000000 | 200.23.30.0/23 |

- **Task:** split this ISP into one /21, three /23, and eight /26
Hierarchical Addressing: Route Aggregation

Hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:

ISP-A
- Organization 0: 200.23.16.0/23
- Organization 1: 200.23.18.0/23
- Organization 2: 200.23.20.0/23
- Organization 7: 200.23.30.0/23

ISP-B

“Send me anything with addresses beginning with 200.23.16.0/20”

“Send me anything with addresses beginning with 199.31.0.0/16”

Internet
Hierarchical Addressing: More Specific Routes

ISP-B has a more specific route to Organization 1

```
ISP-B
200.23.16.0/23
200.23.18.0/23
200.23.30.0/23
```

```
ISP-A
200.23.20.0/23
```

```
Organization 0
200.23.16.0/23

Organization 2
200.23.20.0/23

Organization 7
200.23.30.0/23

Organization 1
200.23.18.0/23
```

```
Internet
“Send me anything in 200.23.16.0/20”
```

```
“Send me anything in 199.31.0.0/16 or 200.23.18.0/23”
```
How does an ISP get a block of addresses?

ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers assigns IPs to regional registries.
- These are ARIN (North/South America), RIPE (Europe), APNIC (Asia-Pacific), and AfriNIC (Africa)

These registries process ISP and user requests for subnet space:
- Also manage DNS and resolve disputes

Quiz #3 covers:
- Chapter 3: P7-9, 22-24, 26-28, 31-37, 40-41, 43-49
- Chapter 4: P1-17 (including today’s lecture)