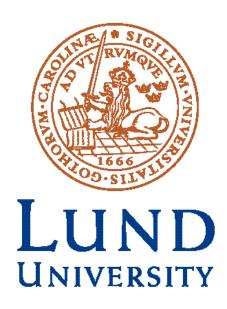
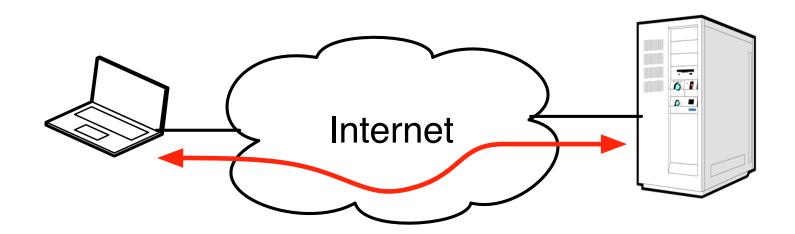
# EITF25 Internet-Techniques and Applications Stefan Höst

## L6 Networking and IP



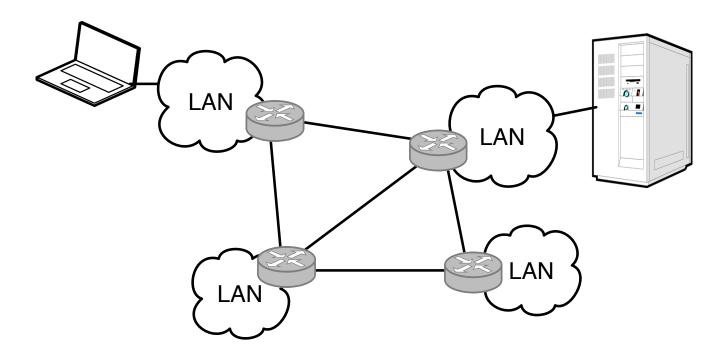
### Data communication

In reality, the source and destination hosts are very seldom on the same network, for example web surf.



## Internetworking

We need protocols and mechanisms for sending data across networks of different types.



### Collision domain

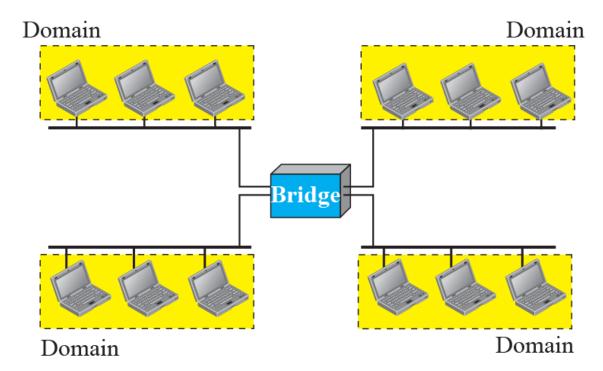
All hosts that share the same medium belong to a *collision domain*. This adds constraints on the size of the shared link.

#### Domain



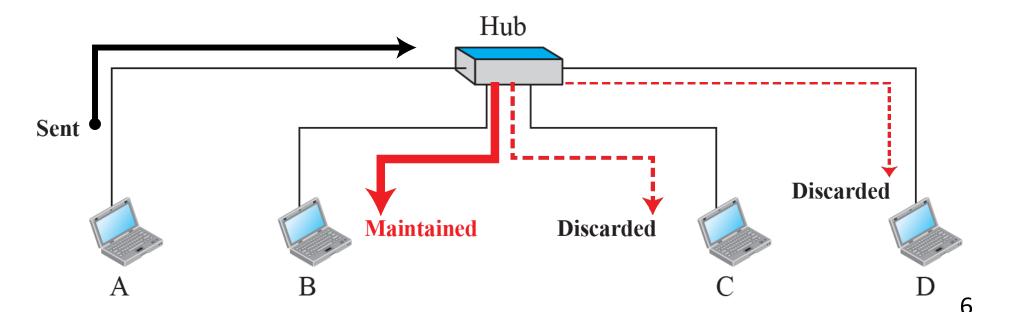
## Bridges

Bridges separate the shared links into several collision domains. The bridge acts as a host on all links and can transfer packets between links.



### Hubs

A hub transfers packets from an incoming link to all other links. It therefore works on the physical layer.



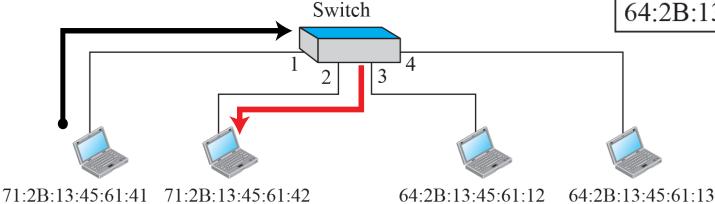
## Basic principle for a switch

The switch keeps an address table for forwarding of packets. Addressing on layer 2.

Switching

Switching table

Address	Port
71:2B:13:45:61:41	1
71:2B:13:45:61:42	2
64:2B:13:45:61:12	3
64:2B:13:45:61:13	4



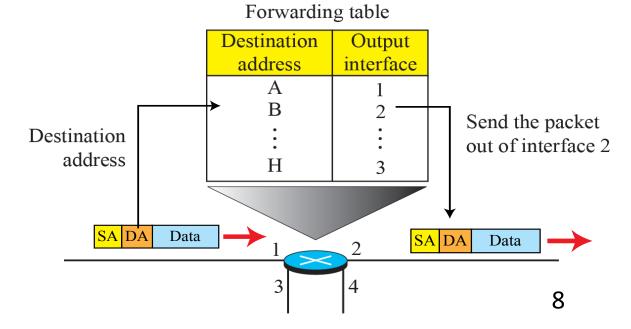
### Router

### Internetworking device

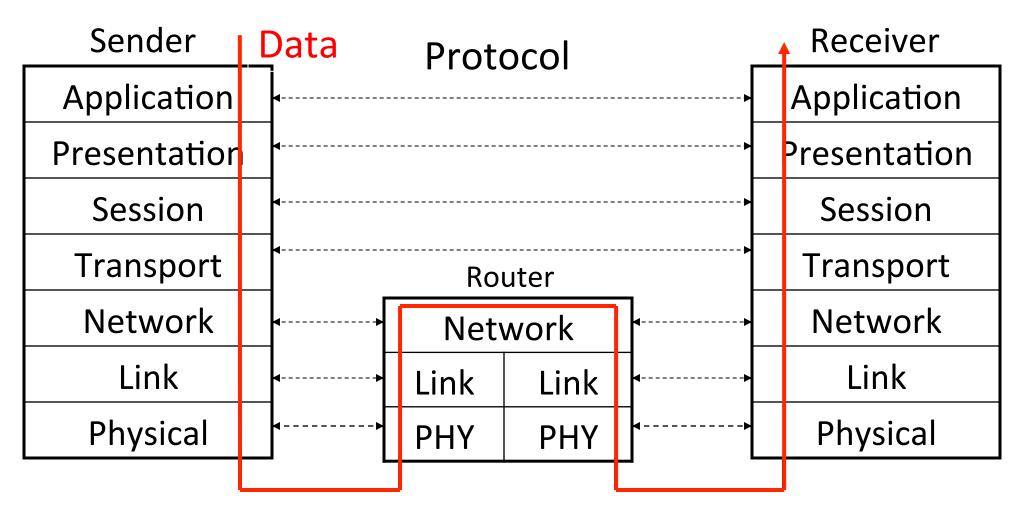
- Passes data packets between networks
- Checks Network addresses
- Uses Routing/forwarding tables

#### Two functions:

- Routing
- Forwarding



### Router, logical layers

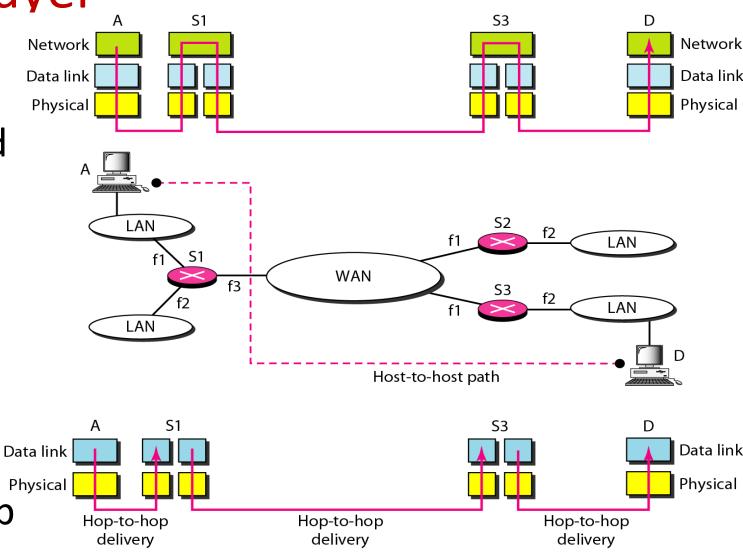


Network layer

L3

**L2** 

end-to-end

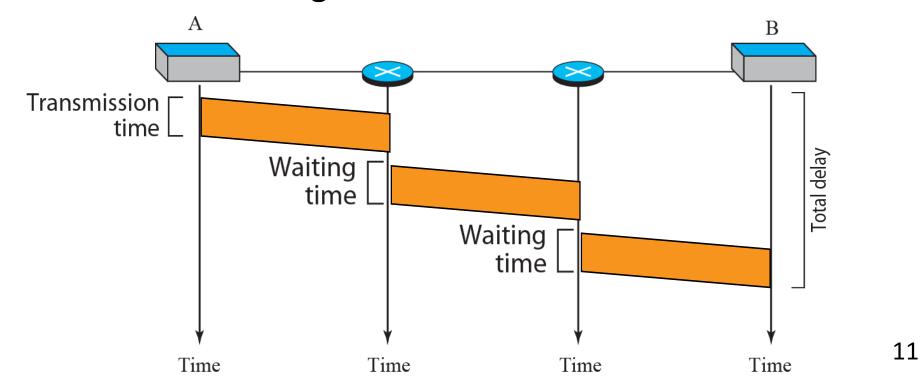


hop-by-hop

10

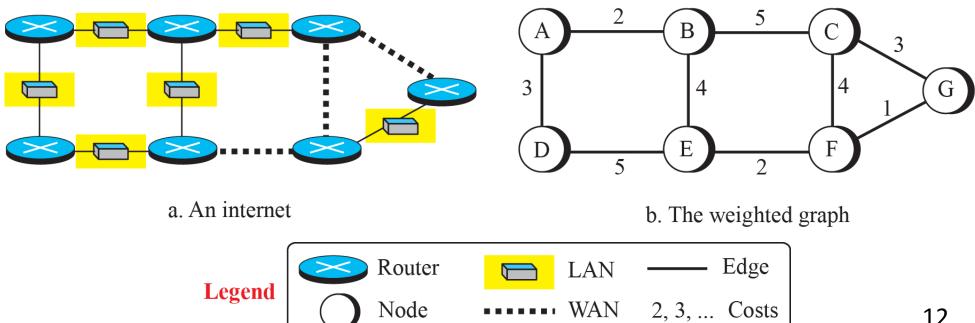
### Transmission delay

Each router has buffers so that packets can be stored when waiting for service. The end-to-end transmission delay includes both waiting time and transmission time on links.



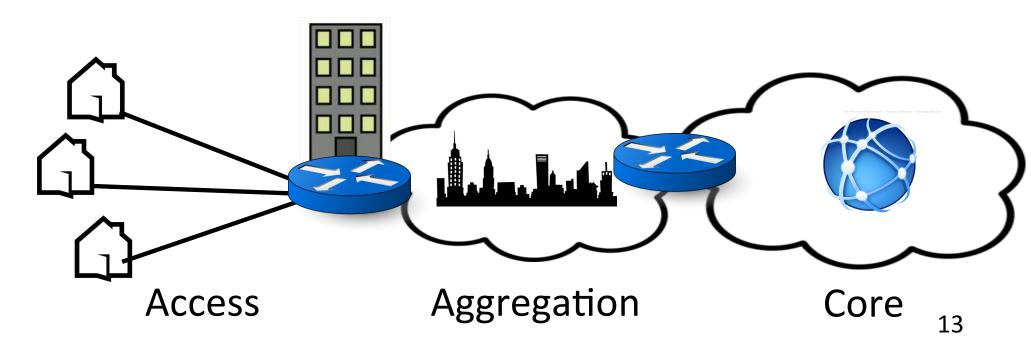
## Routing algorithm

- Find route with least cost between source and destination.
- Update routing tables

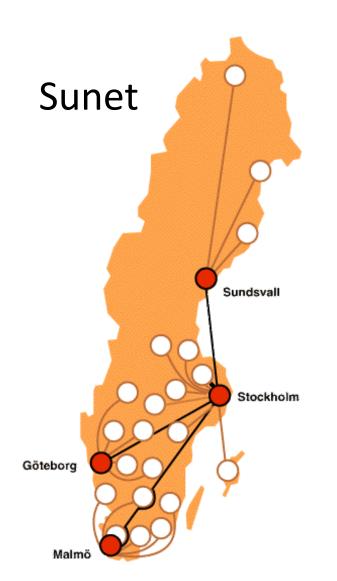


### Network architecture

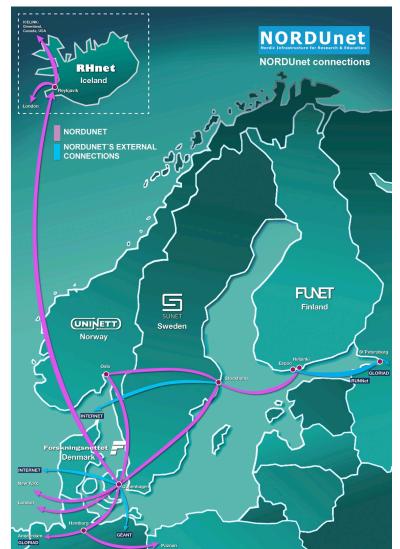
- Three stages of networks in Internet:
  - Access networks: close to the user, last mile
  - Aggregation network: aggregation of traffic from/to users
  - Backbone (core) networks: Internet highways



## Core (university) network in Sweden



Nordunet

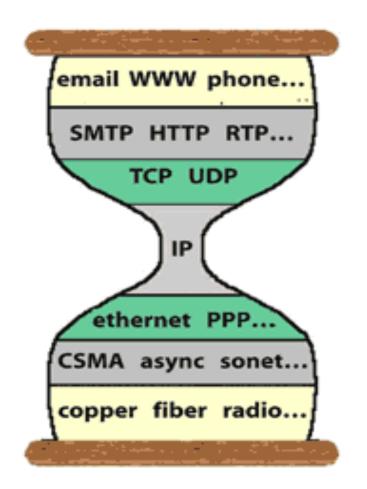


### Network layer protocols

- We need a universal address system. This is called the network address.
- We need rules for data forwarding. This is called routing.
- We need entities connecting several networks together and forwarding data between them.
   These are called *routers*.

### Internet

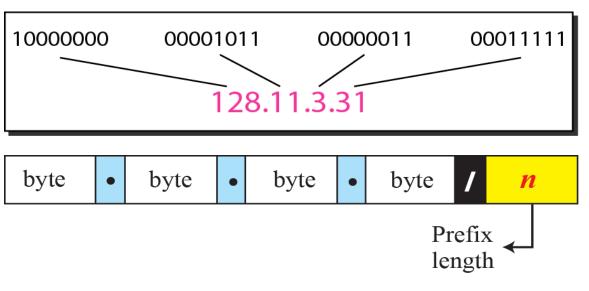
- All networks that are part of Internet have one thing in common:
- They all use the same network protocol, Internet Protocol (IP)!
- Sometimes illustrated with a hourglass.



### IPv4 addresses

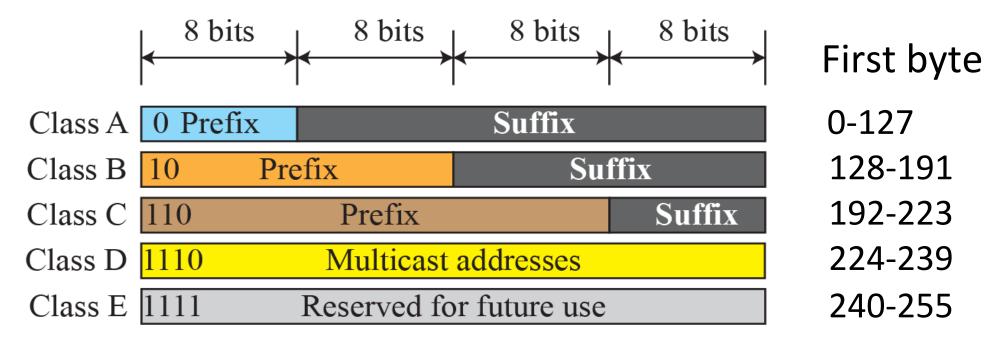
- 32 bits = 4 bytes
- $2^{32} = (2^8)^4 = 256^4 = 4294967296$
- Classful vs. classless hierarchy

- Notations
  - Dotted decimal
  - Slash (CIDR)



### Classful addressing

Five address classes defined: A, B, C, (D and E)



Organizations can only get addresses in one of the predefined blocks.

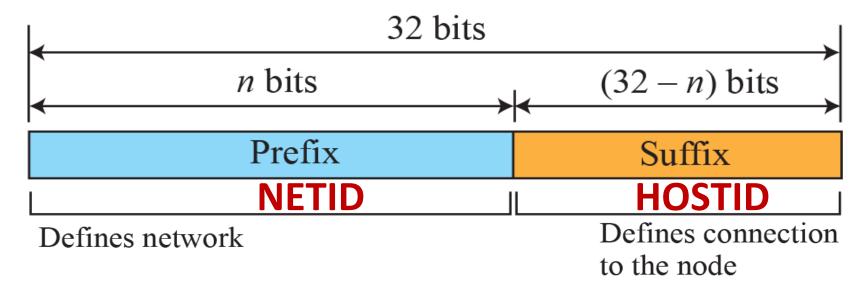
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### Address depletion

- Classful addressing defined as there were very few networks connected to the Internet.
- With the growth of Internet, the address classes did not match the reality.
- Subnetting and supernetting was introduced.
  - Class A and B address blocks divided into subnets.
  - Several Class C address blocks combined into larger blocks called supernets.

## Classless addressing

- Addresses in blocks
  - Block size power of 2
  - $N = 2^{32-n}$  host addresses in network



### Classless addressing Example

- CIDR = slash notation with mask /n
- 205.16.37.39/28

```
205 16 37 39
11001101.00010000.00100101.00100111
28 1111111.1111111.1111111.11110000
```

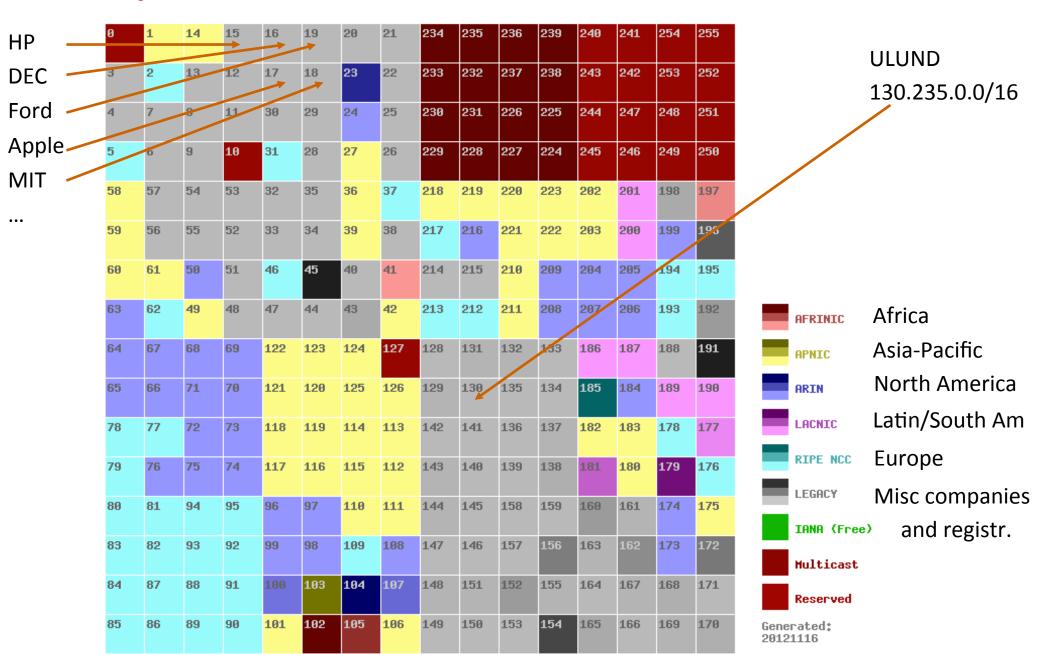
11001101.00010000.00100101.00100000

### Address space

```
11001101.00010000.00100101.001000000 : 205.16.37.32
```

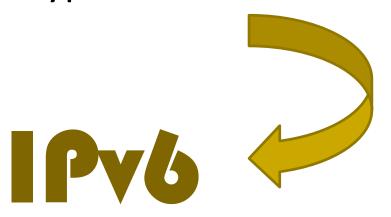
11001101.00010000.00100101.00101111: 205.16.37.47

## Map of IPv4



### Problems with IPv4

- Address space too small
- Not designed for real-time applications
- No support for encryption and authentication

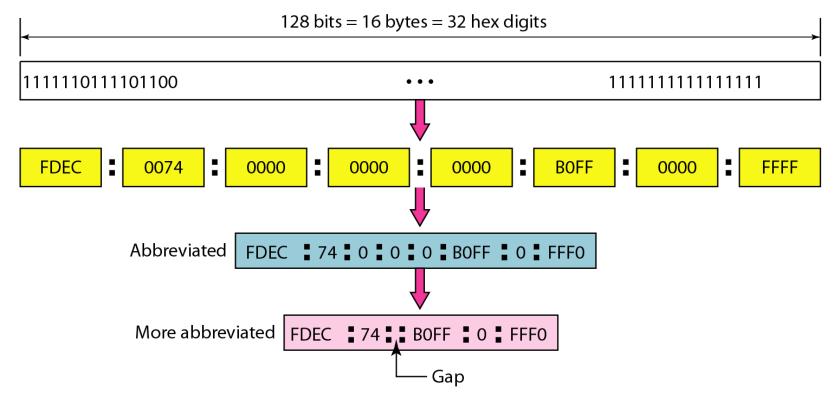


### Some advantages with IPv6

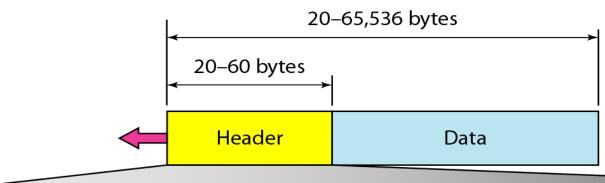
- Larger address space: 128 bit-long addresses.
- Better header format: base header has constant length (40 bytes). Options can be inserted when needed.
- Support for more security: Encryption and authentication options.
- Support for real-time applications: Special handling of datagram can be requested.

### IPv6 addresses

- 128 bits = 16 bytes
- $2^{128} = 3.4 \cdot 10^{38}$
- CIDR (/n-notation) same as IPv4



## IPv4 datagram

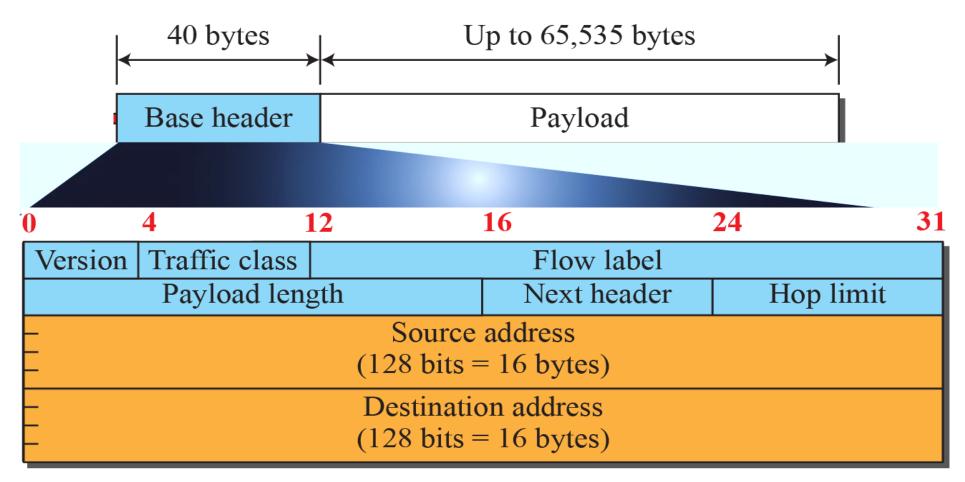


VER	HLEN	Service	Total length		1	
4 bits	4 bits	8 bits	16 bits			
	Identification		Flags	Fragmentation offset		
	16 bits		3 bits	13 bits		
	to live	Protocol	Header checksum			
	oits	8 bits	16 bits			
Source IP address  Destination IP address						

Option

Zķ

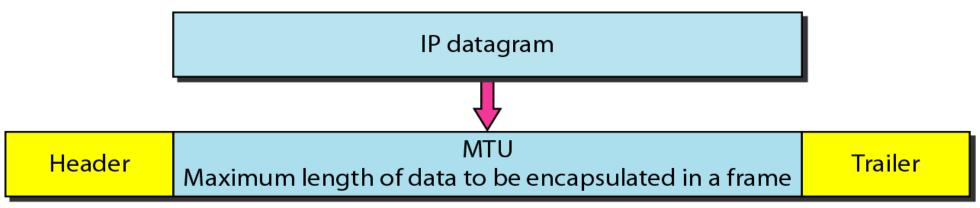
### IPv6 datagram



### Transition: IPv4 $\rightarrow$ IPv6

- Cannot happen overnight
  - Too many independent systems
  - Economic cost
  - IPv4 address space lasted longer than expected
- Coexisence needed
  - Dual stack
  - Tunneling
  - Header translation

## Maximum datagram size

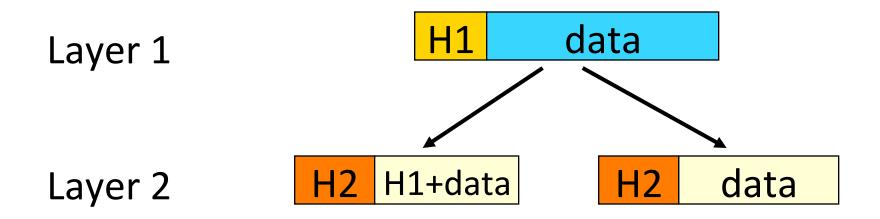


#### Frame

Protocol	MTU
Hyperchannel	65,535
Token Ring (16 Mbps)	17,914
Token Ring (4 Mbps)	4,464
FDDI	4,352
Ethernet	1,500
X.25	576
PPP	296

### Fragmentation

If data from an upper layer cannot fit in one data packet, the data is fragmented (according to some prespecified rules)

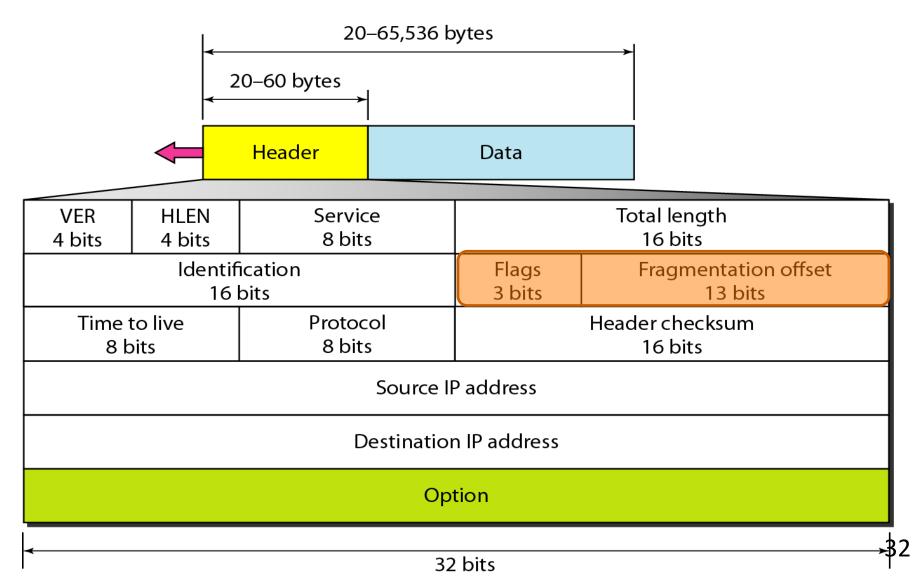


### Fragmentation

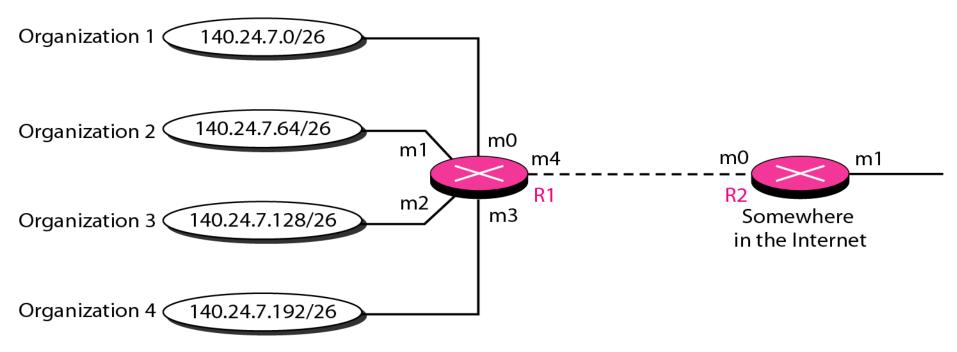
- IPv4
  - Performed by the router meeting the problem
- IPv6
  - Performed by the source router only
- Defragmentation by destination host



## Fragmentation field (IPv4)



## Forwarding: Address aggregation

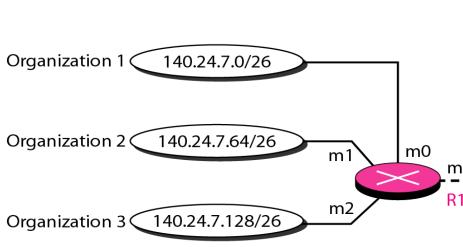


Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.0		m0
/26	140.24.7.64		m1
/26	140.24.7.128		m2
/26	140.24.7.192		m3
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m4

Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/24	140.24.7.0		m0
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m1

Routing table for R2

## Forwarding: Longest mask matching

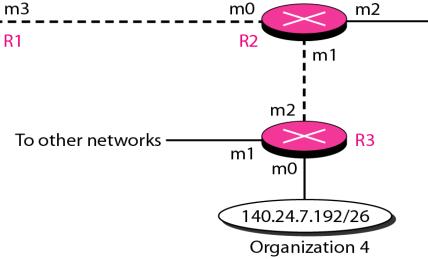


Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.0		m0
/26	140.24.7.64		m1
/26	140.24.7.128		m2
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m3

Routing table for R1

#### Routing table for R2

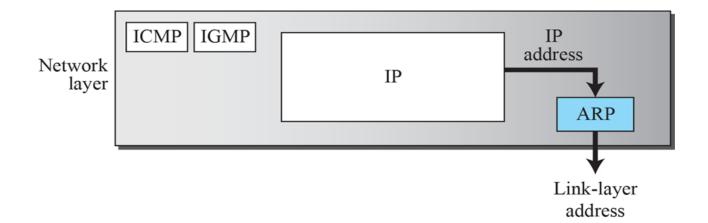
Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.192		m1
/24	140.24.7.0		m0
/??	???????	????????	m1
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m2



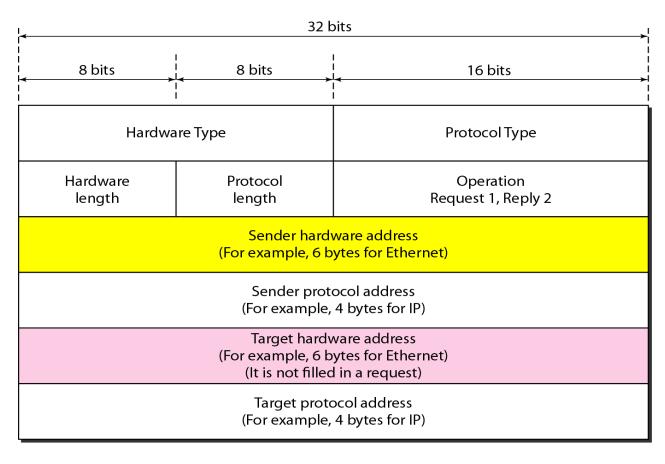
Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface	
/26	140.24.7.192		m0	
/??	???????	????????	m1	R4
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m2	

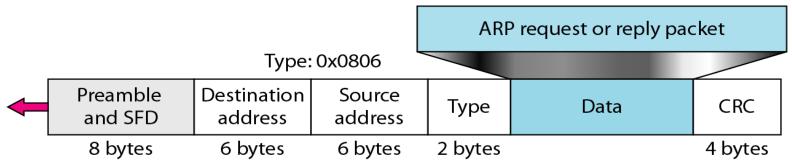
### Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)

- Mapping of IP addresses to MAC addresses
- Internet
  - Network of networks connected by routers
- Routers/hosts need information
  - Logical (IP) → physical (MAC)



## ARP packet



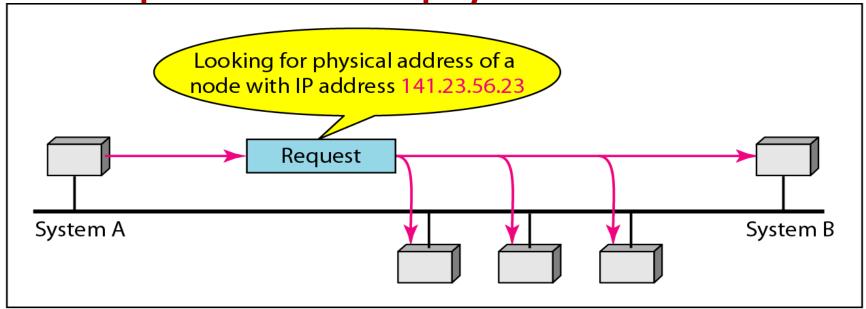


### **ARP** operation

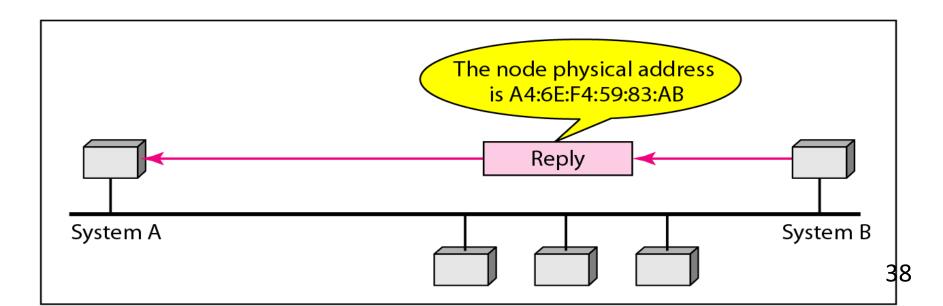
- ARP query broadcast every time a host/router needs a MAC address
- Intended host answers with an ARP response
- ARP cache (table) used to store MAC/IP pairs

- Some IP addresses known from start
  - Default gateway (router) → "rest of Internet"
  - DNS server

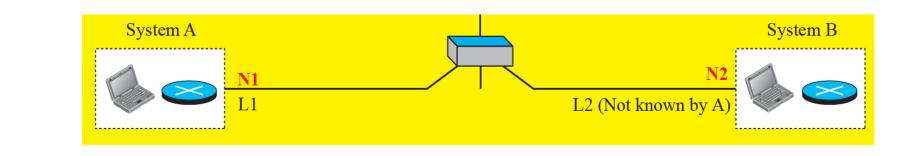
ARP request and reply

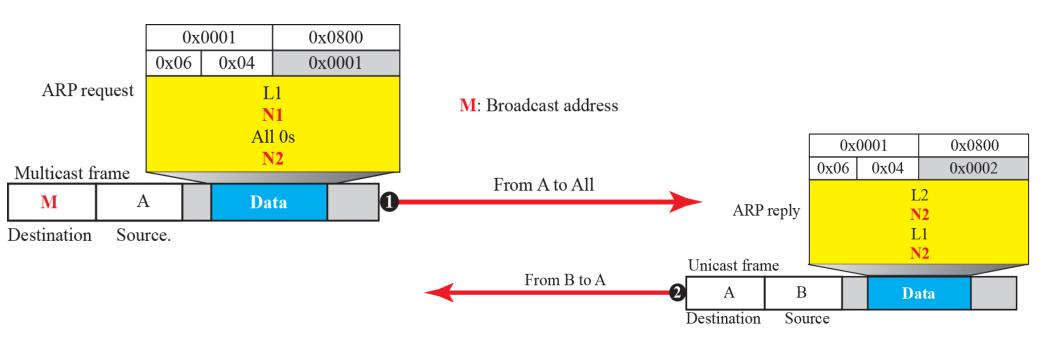


a. ARP request is broadcast

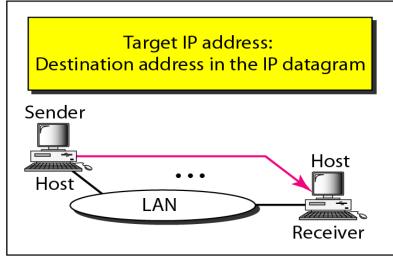


## ARP example

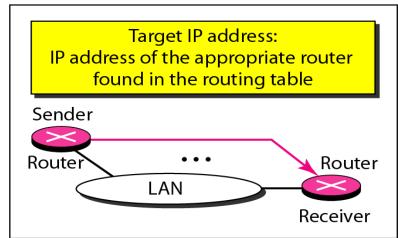




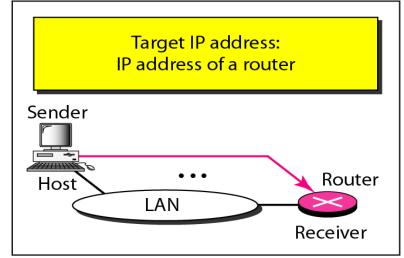
Four use cases for ARP



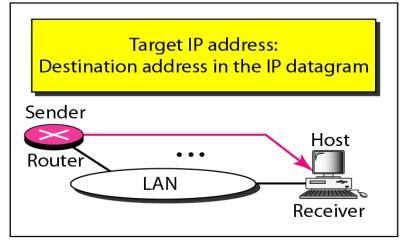
Case 1. A host has a packet to send to another host on the same network.



Case 3. A router receives a packet to be sent to a host on another network. It must first be delivered to the appropriate router.



Case 2. A host wants to send a packet to another host on another network. It must first be delivered to a router.



Case 4. A router receives a packet to be sent to a host on the same network.