Network Layer in Practice: IP and ATM

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The TCP/IP Protocol Suite

- Transmission Control Protocol / Internet Protocol
- Developed by DARPA to connect Universities and Research Labs

Four Layer model



- **TCP Transmission Control Protocol**
- **UDP User Datagram Protocol**
- **IP Internet Protocol**

- A sub-layer between the transport and network layers is required when various incompatible networks are joined together
 - This sub-layer is used at gateways between the different networks
 - In the internet this function is accomplished using the Internet Protocol (IP)



IP enables interoperability

Internetworking with TCP/IP





media

IP addresses

- 32 bit address written as four decimal numbers
 - One per byte of address (e.g., 155.34.60.112)
- Hierarchical address structure
 - Network ID/ Host ID/ Port ID
 - Complete address called a socket
 - Network and host ID carried in IP Header
 - Port ID (sending process) carried in TCP header
- IP Address classes:



Class D is for multicast traffic

Host Names

- Each machine also has a unique name
- Domain name System: A distributed database that provides a mapping between IP addresses and Host names
- E.g., 155.34.50.112 => plymouth.ll.mit.edu

Internet Standards

- Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF)
 - Development on near term internet standards
 - Open body
 - Meets 3 times a year
- Request for Comments (RFCs)
 - Official internet standards
 - Available from IETF web page: http://www.ietf.org

The Internet Protocol (IP)

- Routing of packet across the network
- Unreliable service
 - Best effort delivery
 - Recovery from lost packets must be done at higher layers
- Connectionless
 - Packets are delivered (routed) independently
 - Can be delivered out of order
 - Re-sequencing must be done at higher layers
- Current version V4
- Future V6
 - Add more addresses (40 byte header!)
 - Ability to provide QoS

Header Fields in IP

4 8 16 3				32
Header length	type of service	Total length (bytes)		
16 - bit identification		Flags	13 - bit fragment offset	
	Protocol	Header Checksum		
Source IP Address				
Destination IP Address				
Options (if any)				
Data				
	4 (Header length bit identifi	4 8 14 Header Indext Service bit identification Protocol Source IP A Destination II Options (Data	4 8 16 Header length type of service To bit identification Flags Protocol He Source IP Address Destination IP Address Options (if any)	4 8 16 Header length type of service Total length (bytes) bit identification Flags 13 - bit fragment offset Protocol Header Checksum Source IP Address Destination IP Address Options (if any)

Note that the minimum size header is 20 bytes; TCP also has 20 byte header

IP HEADER FIELDS

- Vers: Version # of IP (current version is 4)
- HL: Header Length in 32-bit words
- Service: Mostly Ignored
- Total length Length of IP datagram
- ID Unique datagram ID
- Flags: NoFrag, More
- FragOffset: Fragment offset in units of 8 Octets
- TTL: Time to Live in "seconds" or Hops
- Protocol: Higher Layer Protocol ID #
- HDR Cksum: 16 bit 1's complement checksum (on header only!)
- SA & DA: Network Addresses
- Options: Record Route, Source Route, TimeStamp

FRAGMENTATION



- A gateway fragments a datagram if length is too great for next network (fragmentation required because of unknown paths).
- Each fragment needs a unique identifier for datagram plus identifier for position within datagram
- In IP, the datagram ID is a 16 bit field counting datagram from given host

POSITION OF FRAGMENT

- Fragment offset field gives starting position of fragment within datagram in 8 byte increments (13 bit field)
- Length field in header gives the total length in bytes (16 bit field)
 - Maximum size of IP packet 64K bytes
- A flag bit denotes last fragment in datagram
- IP reassembles fragments at destination and throws them away if one or more is too late in arriving

IP Routing

- Routing table at each node contains for each destination the next hop router to which the packet should be sent
 - Not all destination addresses are in the routing table
 Look for net ID of the destination "Prefix match"
 Use default router
- Routers do not compute the complete route to the destination but only the next hop router
- IP uses distributed routing algorithms: RIP, OSPF
- In a LAN, the "host" computer sends the packet to the default router which provides a gateway to the outside world

Subnet addressing

- Class A and B addresses allocate too many hosts to a given net
- Subnet addressing allows us to divide the host ID space into smaller "sub networks"
 - Simplify routing within an organization
 - Smaller routing tables
 - Potentially allows the allocation of the same class B address to more than one organization
- 32 bit Subnet "Mask" is used to divide the host ID field into subnets
 - "1" denotes a network address field
 - "0" denotes a host ID field

	16 bit net ID	16 bit host ID	
Class B Address	140.252	Subnet ID	Host ID
Mask	111111 111 1111111	11111111	0000000

Classless inter-domain routing (CIDR)

- Class A and B addresses allocate too many hosts to an organization while class C addresses don't allocate enough
 - This leads to inefficient assignment of address space
- Classless routing allows the allocation of addresses outside of class boundaries (within the class C pool of addresses)
 - Allocate a block of contiguous addresses
 - E.g., 192.4.16.1 192.4.32.155
 - Bundles 16 class C addresses
 - The first 20 bits of the address field are the same and are essentially the network ID
 - Network numbers must now be described using their length and value (I.e., length of network prefix)
 - E.g., 192.4.16.1/20
 - Routing table lookup using longest prefix match
- Notice similarity to subnetting "supernetting"

Dynamic Host Configuration (DHCP)

- Automated method for assigning network numbers
 - IP addresses, default routers
- Computers contact DHCP server at Boot-up time
- Server assigns IP address
- Allows sharing of address space
 - More efficient use of address space
 - Adds scalability
- Addresses are "least" for some time
 - Not permanently assigned

Address Resolution Protocol

- IP addresses only make sense within IP suite
- Local area networks, such as Ethernet, have their own addressing scheme
 - To talk to a node on LAN one must have its physical address (physical interface cards don't recognize their IP addresses)
- ARP provides a mapping between IP addresses and LAN addresses
- RARP provides mapping from LAN addresses to IP addresses
- This is accomplished by sending a "broadcast" packet requesting the owner of the IP address to respond with their physical address
 - All nodes on the LAN recognize the broadcast message
 - The owner of the IP address responds with its physical address
- An ARP cache is maintained at each node with recent mappings



Routing in the Internet

- The internet is divided into sub-networks, each under the control of a single authority known as an Autonomous System (AS)
- Routing algorithms are divided into two categories:
 - Interior protocols (within an AS)
 - Exterior protocols (between AS's)
- Interior Protocols use shortest path algorithms
 - Distance vector protocols based on Bellman-ford algorithm Nodes exchange routing tables with each other E.g., Routing Information Protocol (RIP)
 - Link state protocols based on Dijkstra's algorithm Nodes monitor the state of their links (e.g., delay) Nodes broadcast this information to all of the network E.g., Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)
- Exterior protocols route packets across AS's
 - Issues: no single cost metric, policy routing, etc..
 - Hierarchical routing based on "peering" agreements
 - Example protocols: Exterior Gateway protocol (EGP) and Border Gateway protocol (BGP)

Border Gateway Protocol (BGP)

- Routing between Autonomous systems
 - Find a path (no optimality) to destination (AS)
 Path must satisfy policy criteria



BGP overview

- **BGP** speaker one per AS •
 - Establishes (TCP) session with other "speakers" to exchange reachability information
- Border "gateways" routers that interface between AS's •
- **BGP** advertises complete paths to destination AS •
 - **Avoid looping problems** —

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- Enable policy decisions (e.g., avoid certain AS's) —
- AS numbers centrally assigned 16 bit numbers _ Stub AS's don't need a number



Relationships between AS's

- ISP "tiers"
 - Tier-1 ISP's provide global reachability
 - Tier-2 ISP's regional/country
 - Tier-3 ISP's local
- Provider-customer relationship (transit)
 - Smaller AS's purchase internet access from larger ones
 - MIT purchases access from BBN (a regional provider)
 - **BBN** purchases access from AT&T a global provider
- Peering
 - ISP's of similar size are "peers" and forward each other's traffic at no charge E..g, AT&T - MCI; MCI-BT
 - Paid peering: a small ISP may "purchase" the right to peer with a larger provider (different than a provider-customer relationship)
 E.g., Israel Telecom BT
- Policy issues
 - Which routes would an ISP advertise?

E.g., to a transit customer because they pay



- Effort started in 1991 as IPng
- Motivation
 - Need to increase IP address space
 - Support for real time application "QoS"
 - Security, Mobility, Auto-configuration
- Major changes
 - Increased address space (16 bytes)
 1500 IP addresses per sq. ft. of earth!
 Address partition similar to CIDR
 - Support for QoS via Flow Label field
 - Simplified header
- Is IPv6 really needed?
 - Most of the reasons for IPv6 have been taken care of in IPv4
 - Transition is complex
- Transition to IPv6
 - Cannot be done at once; must support joint operation
 - Dual-stack: routers run both IPv4 and IPv6
 - Tunneling: IPv6 packets carried in payload of IPv4 packets

()		3-
	ver	class	Flow label
	len	gth l	nexthd Hop limit
		Source	e address
	D	<u>estinat</u>	tion address
	D	estinat	tion address

Resource Reservation (RSVP)

- Service classes (defined by IETF)
 - Best effort
 - Guaranteed service
 - Max packet delay
 - **Controlled load** emulate lightly loaded network via priority queueing mechanism (e.g., WFQ)
- Need to reserve resources at routers along the path
- **RSVP** mechanism
 - Packet classification

Associate packets with sessions (use flow field in IPv6)

- Receiver initiated reservations to support multicast
- "soft state" temporary reservation that expires after 30 seconds Simplify the management of connections Requires refresh messages
- Packet scheduling to guarantee service
 Proprietary mechanisms (e.g., Weighted fair queueing)
- Scalability Issues
 - Each router needs to keep track of large number of flows that grows with the size (capacity) of the router

Differentiated Services (Diffserv)

- Unlike RSVP Diffserv does not need to keep track of individual flows
 - Allocate resources to a small number of classes of traffic Queue packets of the same class together
 - E.g., two classes of traffic premium and regular
 Use one bit to differential between premium and regular packets
 - Issues

Who sets the premium bit? "Edge routers"; ISP's; applications?

How is premium service different from regular? "per-hop-behavior" (PHB): defines how each router treats a particular class of service

- IETF propose to use TOS field in IP header to identify traffic classes
 - Diffserv "code points" DSCP: 6-bit value that identifies a class of service
- Explicit forwarding (EF) PHB: forward with minimal delay
 - Total rate of EF traffic must be less than link rate
 - Give EF traffic strict priority over other traffic
 - Alternatively, use WFQ with high weight for EF traffic
- Assured forwarding PHB: packets are marked as being "in" or "out" of the customer's "traffic profile", and treated accordingly
 - Profile represents a service agreement with the customer
 - Rarely drop packets within "profile"

Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM)

- 1980's effort by the phone companies to develop an integrated network standard (BISDN) that can support voice, data, video, etc.
- ATM uses small (53 Bytes) fixed size packets called "cells"
 - Why cells?

Cell switching has properties of both packet and circuit switching Easier to implement high speed switches

- Why 53 bytes?
- Small cells are good for voice traffic (limit sampling delays)
 For 64Kbps voice it takes 6 ms to fill a cell with data
- ATM networks are connection oriented
 - Virtual circuits

ATM Reference Architecture

- Upper layers
 - Applications
 - TCP/IP
- ATM adaptation layer
 - Similar to transport layer
 - Provides interface between upper layers and ATM
 - Break messages into cells and reassemble
- ATM layer
 - Cell switching
 - Congestion control
- Physical layer
 - ATM designed for SONET
 - Synchronous optical network TDMA transmission scheme with 125 μs frames

Upper Layers

ATM Adaptation Layer (AAL)

ΑΤΜ

Physical

ATM Cell format

	5 Bytes	48 Bytes
ATM Cell	Header	Data

- Virtual circuit numbers (notice relatively small address space!)
 - Virtual channel ID
 - Virtual path ID
- **PTI payload type**
- CLP cell loss priority (1 bit!)
 - Mark cells that can be dropped
- HEC CRC on header

ATM Header (NNI)

1	VP		
2	VPI	VCI	
3	V	CI	
4	VCI	PTI	ЪГО
5	HE	EC	

VPI/VCI

- VPI identifies a physical path between the source and destination
- VCI identifies a logical connection (session) within that path
 - Approach allows for smaller routing tables and simplifies route computation



- Constant Bit Rate (CBR) e.g. uncompressed voice
 - Circuit emulation
- Variable Bit Rate (rt-VBR) e.g. compressed video
 - Real-time and non-real-time
- Available Bit Rate (ABR) e.g. LAN interconnect
 - For bursty traffic with limited BW guarantees and congestion control
- Unspecified Bit Rate (UBR) e.g. Internet
 - ABR without BW guarantees and congestion control

ATM cell switches



- Design issues
 - Input vs. output queueing
 - Head of line blocking
 - Fabric speed

- ATM is mostly used as a "core" network technology
- ATM Advantages
 - Ability to provide QoS
 - Ability to do traffic management
 - Fast cell switching using relatively short VC numbers
- ATM disadvantages
 - It not IP most everything was design for TCP/IP
 - It's not naturally an end-to-end protocol
 Does not work well in heterogeneous environment
 Was not design to inter-operate with other protocols
 Not a good match for certain physical media (e.g., wireless)
 - Many of the benefits of ATM can be "borrowed" by IP Cell switching core routers Label switching mechanisms

Label Switching and MPLS

- Router makers realize that in order to increase the speed and capacity they need to adopt a mechanism similar to ATM
 - Switch based on a simple tag not requiring complex routing table look-ups
 - Use virtual circuits to manage the traffic (QoS)
 - Use cell switching at the core of the router
- First attempt: IP-switching
 - Routers attempt to identify flows
 - Define a flow based on observing a number of packets between a given source and destination (e.g., 5 packets within a second)
 - Map IP source-destination pairs to ATM VC's Distributed algorithm where each router makes its own decision
- Multi-protocol label switching (MPLS)
 - Also known as Tag switching
 - Does not depend on ATM
 - Add a tag to each packet to serve as a VC number
 Tags can be assigned permanently to certain paths

Label switching can be used to create a virtual mesh with the core network

- Routers at the edge of the core network can be connected to each other using labels
- Packets arriving at an edge router can be tagged with the label to the destination edge router
 - "Tunneling"
 - Significantly simplifies routing in the core
 - Interior routers need not remember all IP prefixes of outside world
 - Allows for traffic engineering Assign capacity to labels based on demand

Core network



Label switched routes