

# Introduction to routing in the Internet

Internet architecture  
IPv4, ICMP, ARP  
Addressing, routing principles

(Chapters 2–3 in Huitema)

## Internet Architecture Principles End-to-end principle

- All control in end stations
  - e.g. error and flow control
- The network can not be trusted
- User must in any case check for errors
  - network control redundant
- Error checking and flow control by TCP
- No state information/connection in the network
  - packets routed independently
  - if a link fails, another route is used
- Same principle as in distributed systems

*by Dave Clark*

## Internet Architecture Principles

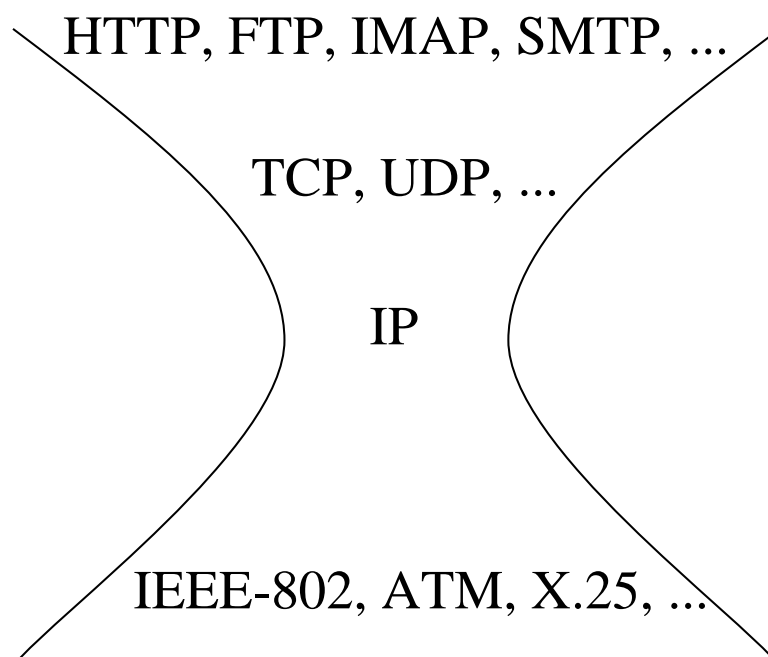
# IP over everything

by **Vinston Cerf**

- Alternative: Interconnection based on *translation*
  - Never perfect
- IP: Interconnection based on *overlay* over all kinds of networks
  - simple to adapt to new technologies
    - Define framing or encapsulation
    - Define address resolution: IP-address → network address
  - unique IP-address
- Translation still needed in many cases
  - E.g. signaling interworking, IPv4 to IPv6 mapping

## Internet Architecture Principles

# IP over everything

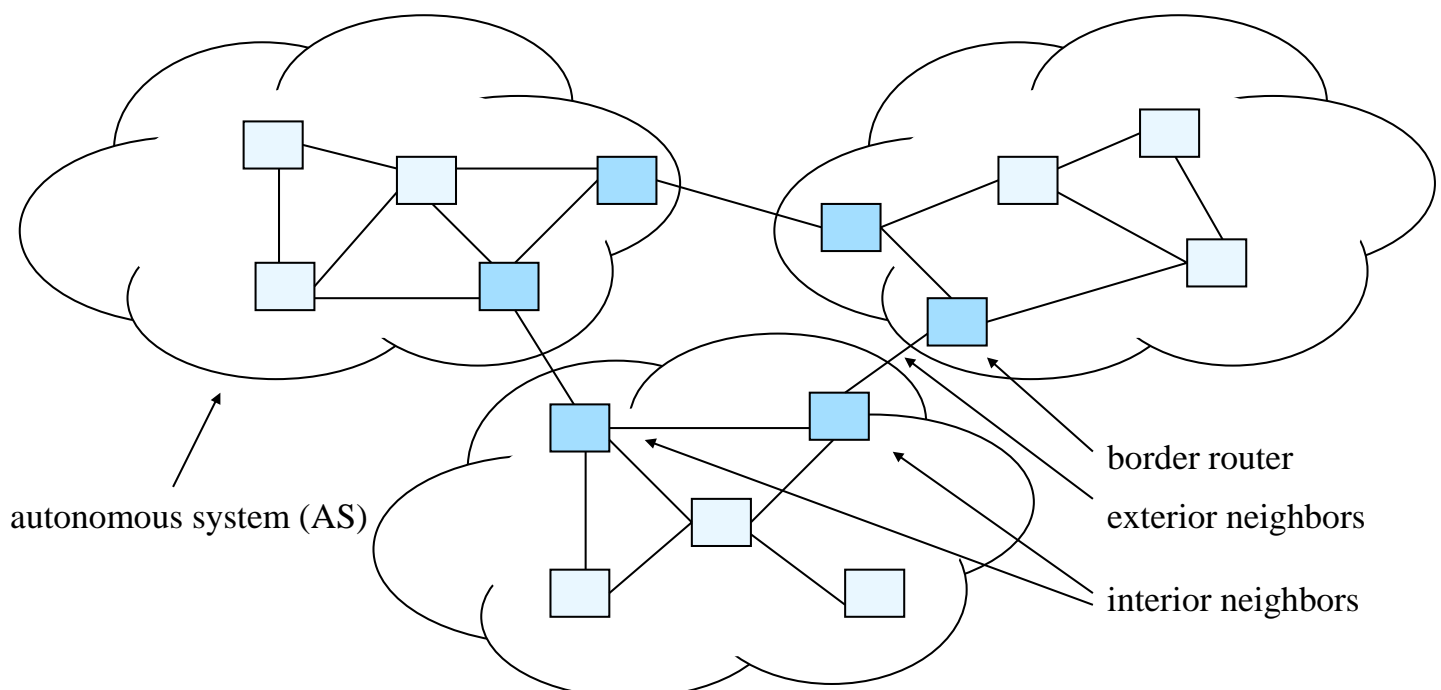


# Internet Architecture Principles

## Connectivity is its own reward

- The value of a network increases in proportion to the square of the number of nodes on the network (Robert Metcalf's law)
- Be liberal with what you receive, conservative with what you send
  - try to make your best to understand what you receive
  - maximum adherence to standard when sending
- Snowballing effect keeps all interested in connectivity thus keeps adhering to standards

## Routing is divided into interior and exterior



In this course we only deal with interior routing

# Routing is divided into interior and exterior

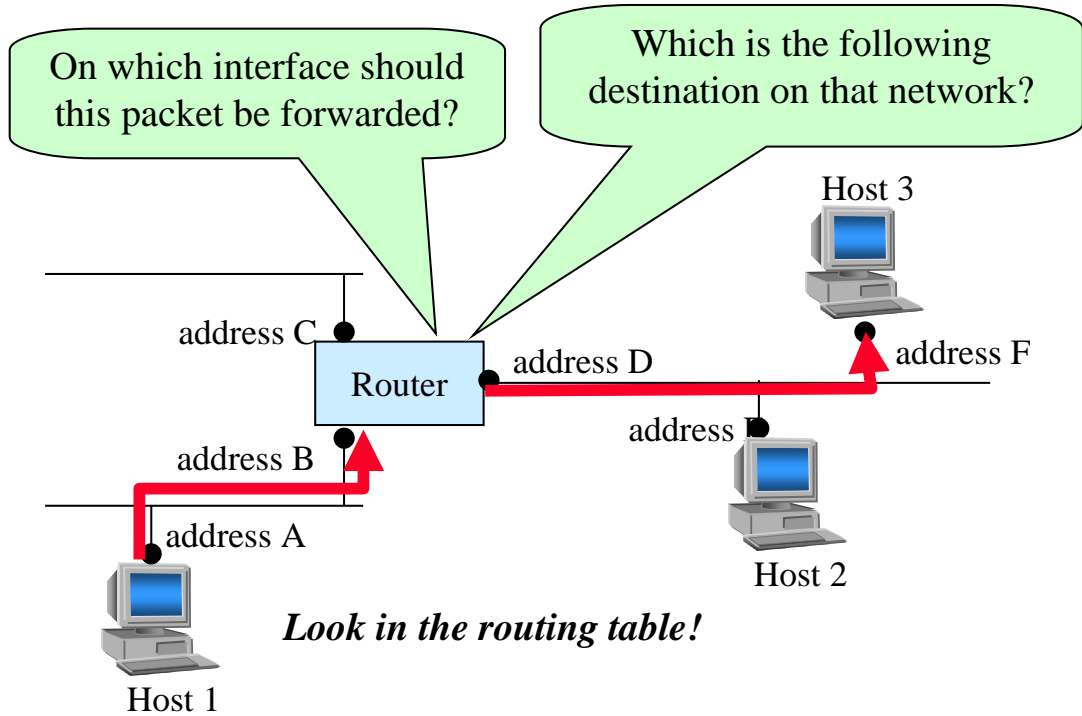
- **Autonomous system, AS**
  - Networks operated by a single organization and having a common routing strategy
- **Border router**
  - At least one neighbor belongs to another autonomous system

# Routing is divided into interior and exterior

- Interior routing protocols
  - **Routing Information Protocol (RIP), RIP-2**
  - **Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)**
  - Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (IGRP), EIGRP
  - Intermediate System-to-Intermediate System (IS-IS)
- Exterior routing protocols
  - External Gateway Protocol (EGP)
  - **Border Gateway Protocol version 4 (BGP-4)**

## Two functions of a router:

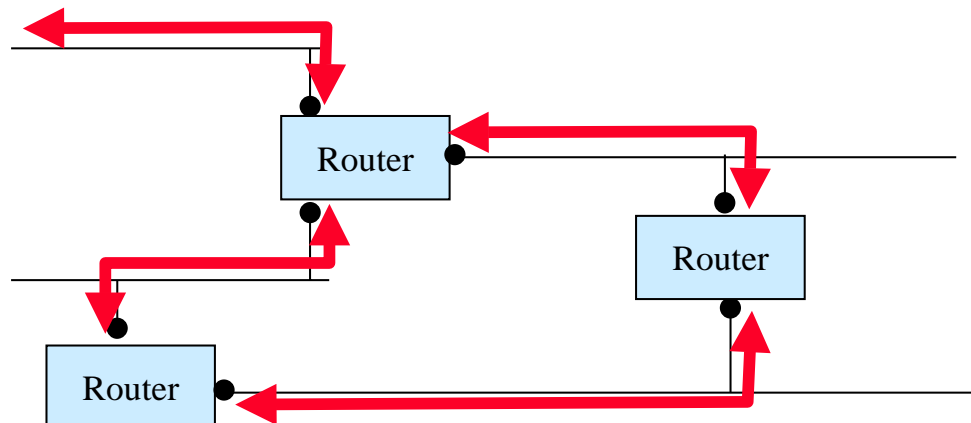
### 1. Packet forwarding



## Two functions of a router:

### 2. Construction and maintenance of the routing table

- Routers exchange routing information with routing protocols (e.g. RIP, OSPF, BGP)



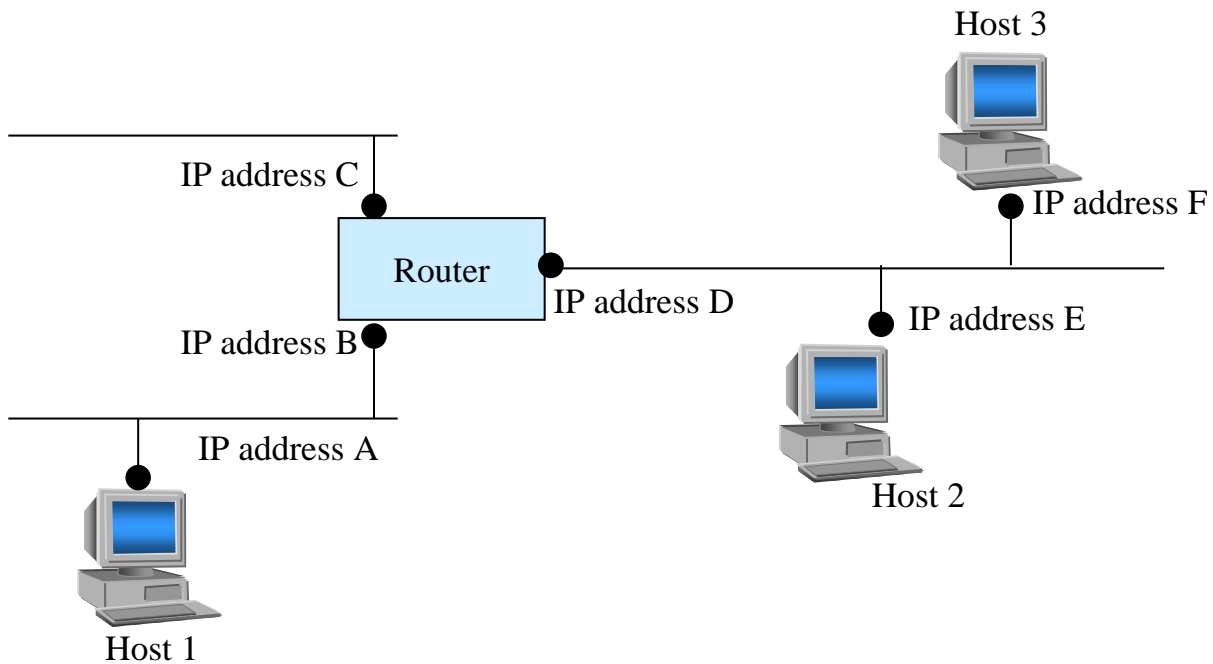
## Internet routing is based on routing protocols, which collect information

- Routing is completely automatic
- No offline route planning
- Only **dimensioning** is made offline
- The routers communicate with a **routing protocol**
- The **routing algorithm** finds the shortest (cheapest) route to every destination

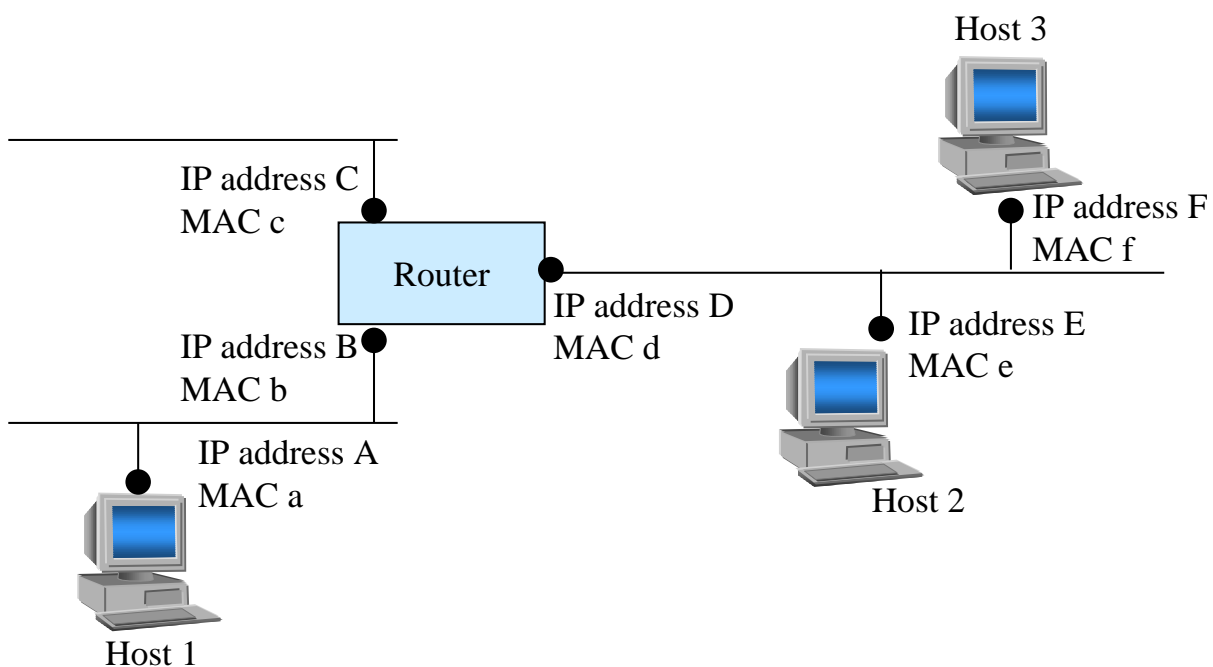
## Routing in the Internet is generally dynamic, but static routing is used in some cases

- **Dynamic routing** is based on routing protocols which create and maintain the routing tables automatically
  - examples of routing protocols are RIP, OSPF, BGP...
  - E.g. to connect an organization with multiple links to the Internet
- **Static routing** is based on manually configured routing tables.
  - Static routing is used when e.g. two peer providers do not trust each other
  - To connect an organization to a service provider with a single connection
  - Static routing is difficult to maintain

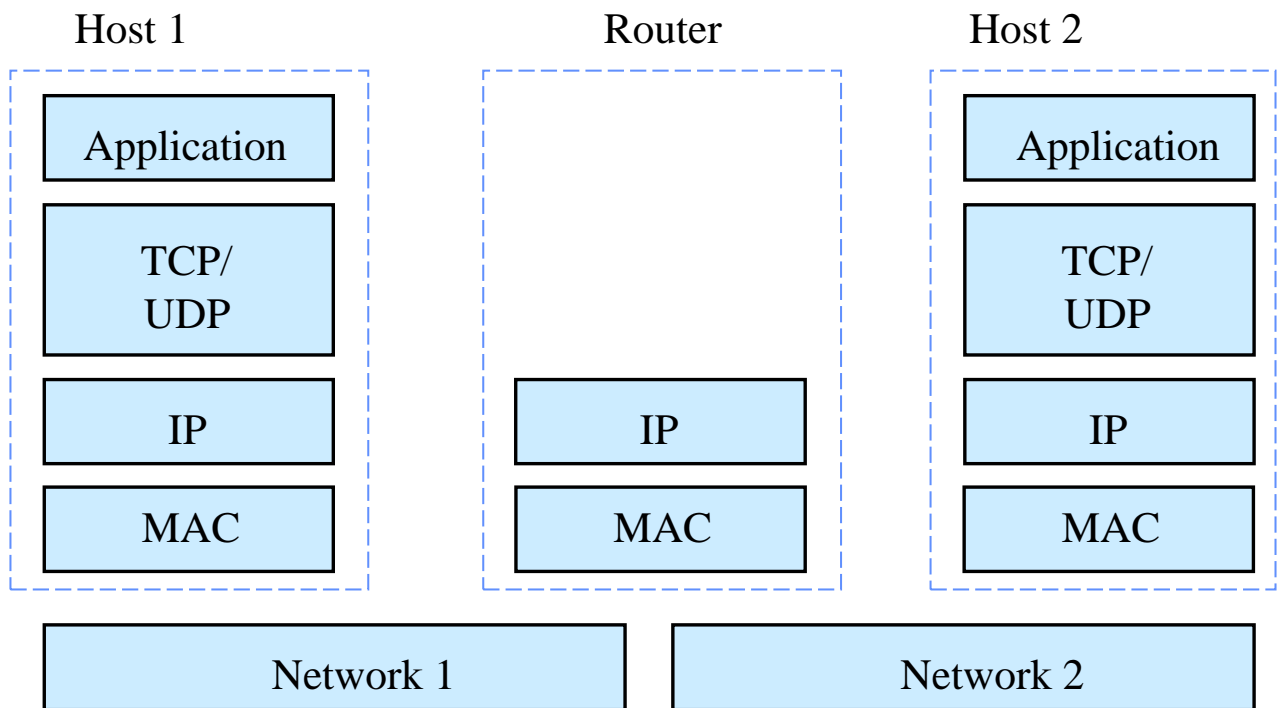
# The IP address defines the interface (not the host)



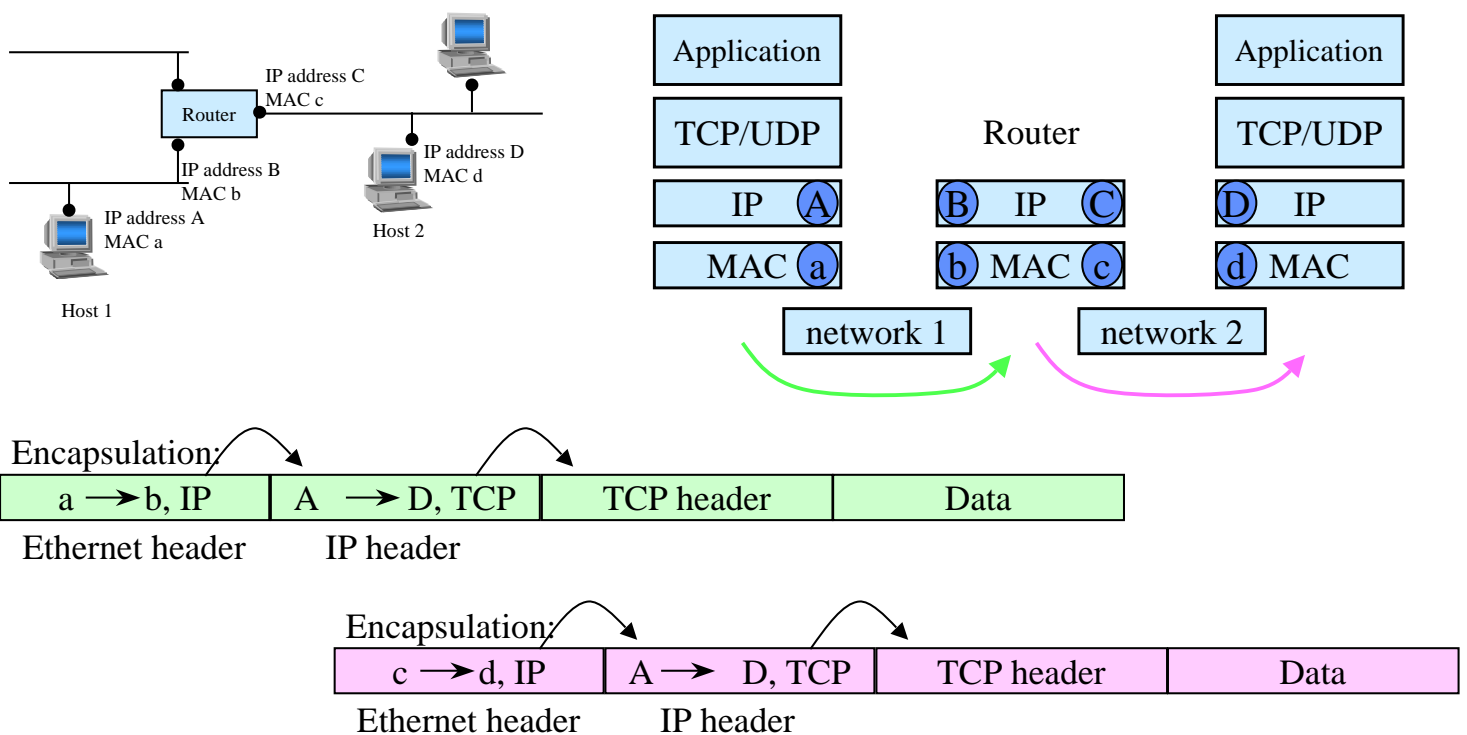
# Every interface also has a media specific MAC address



# Internet layer model – hosts and routers



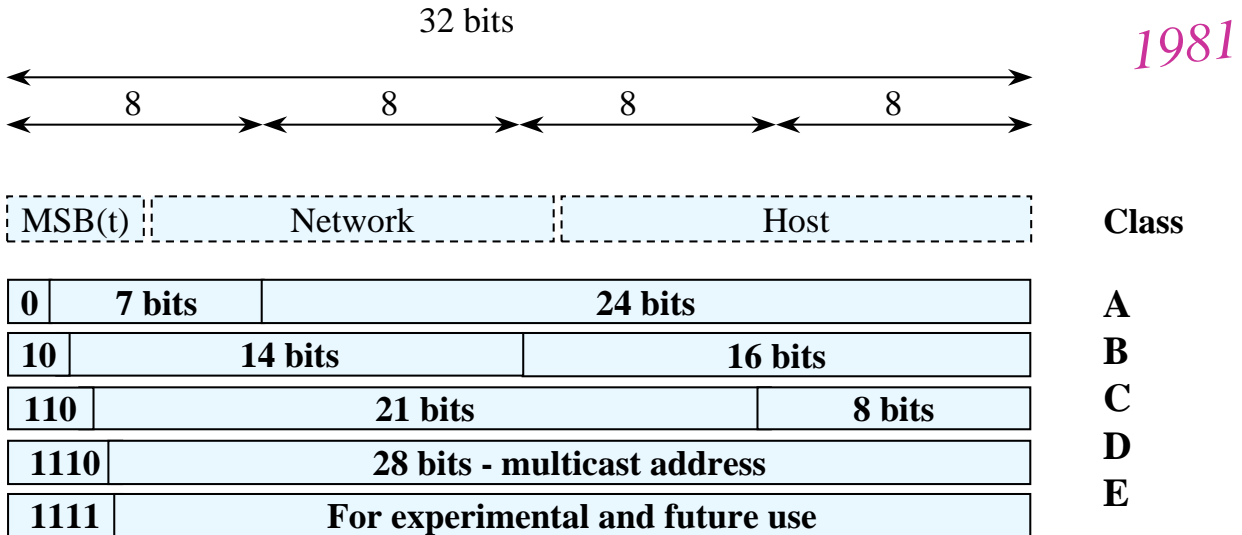
# Layers and message forwarding





# IPv4 address formats

- Originally a two-level (network, host) hierarchy



# IPv4 address formats

1984

- A new level for easier network administration



- Examples:

Mask	IP address	Network	Subnet	Host
0xFFFF0000	10.27.32.100	A: 10	27	32.100
0xFFFFFE00	136.27.33.100	B: 136.27	16 (32)	1.100
	136.27.34.141	136.27	17 (34)	0.141
0xFFFFFC0	193.27.32.197	C: 193.27.32	3 (192)	5

High order bits:

- 0 ..... 0 - 127. → A-class
- 10.... 128. - 191. → B-class
- 110...192. - 223. → C-class

Without right zeroes (and with right zeroes)

Later updated by CIDR  
(discussed later)

# IPv4 address formats

## Example:

		Network	Subnet	Host	
Address:	10.38.154.117	00001010	001001	10 10011010	01110101
Mask:	255.255.192.0	11111111	111111	00 00000000	00000000
Network:	first bit "0"	00001010			= 10
Subnet:	address* AND mask		001001		= 9 (36)
Host:	address AND NOT mask			10 10011010	01110101 = 2.154.117

*address\* = address with network part zeroed*

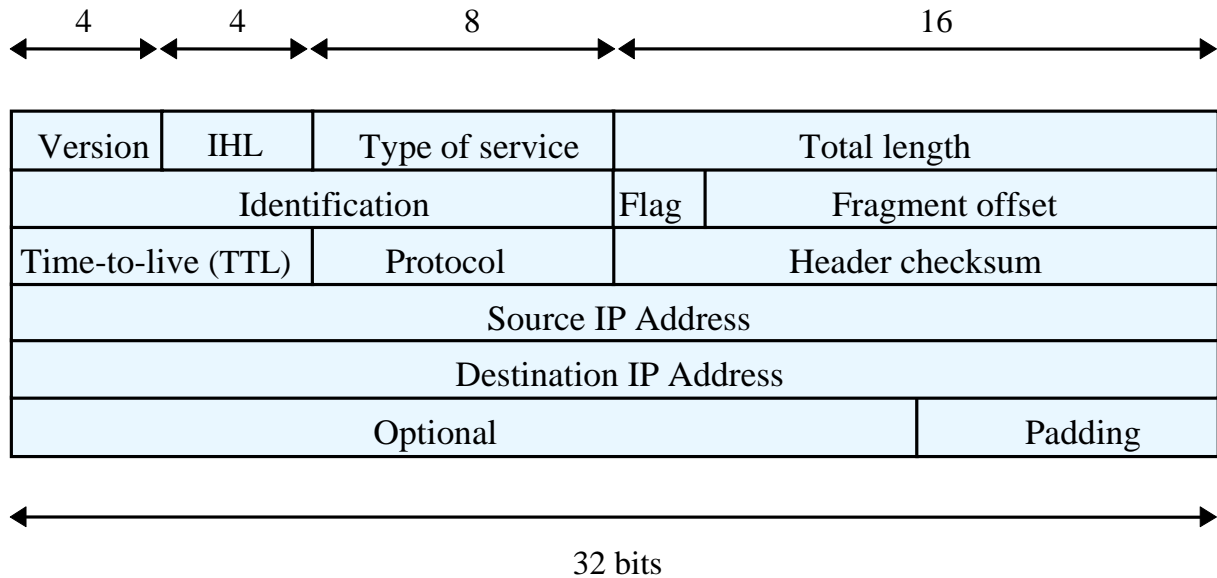
Also written as 10.38.154.117/14

# Special addresses

- An unknown network is replaced by 0
  - Only used as source address (e.g. a booting host)
  - 0.0.0.0 = "this host in this network"
  - 0.X.Y.Z = "host X.Y.Z in this network"
- Limited broadcast address 255.255.255.255
  - To all host in the local network
- Directed broadcast addresses A.255.255.255, B.B.255.255, C.C.C.255
  - To all hosts in a specified network
- Loopback-address 127.X.X.X (usually 127.0.0.1)
  - Internal in one host
- Multicast-addresses (e.g. 224.0.0.2 = all routers on this subnet)

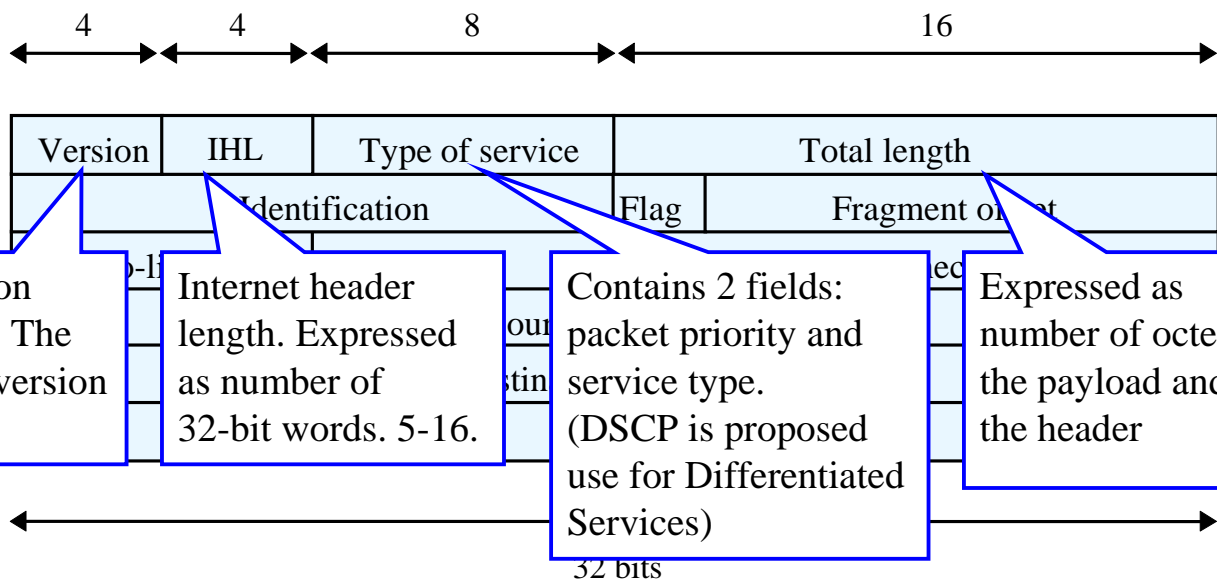
# IPv4 packet header

RFC-791

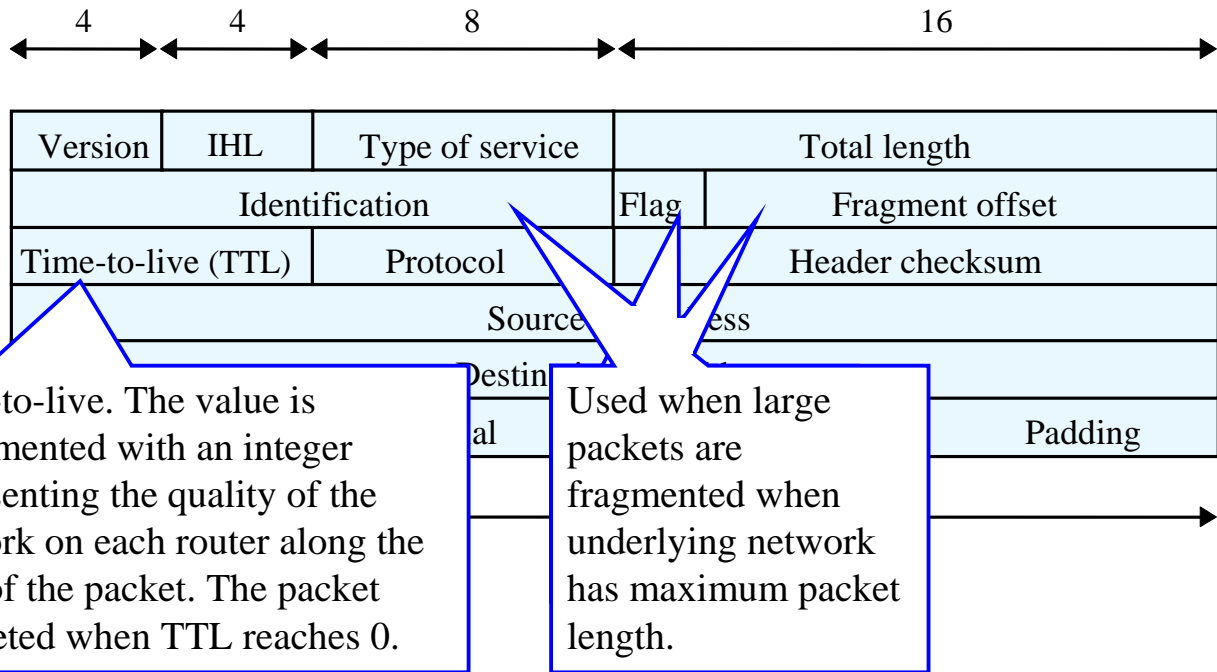


We assume that the sender knows its own IP address.  
 If not: self configuration protocols such as RARP, BOOTP,  
 DHCP (dynamic host configuration protocol) are used

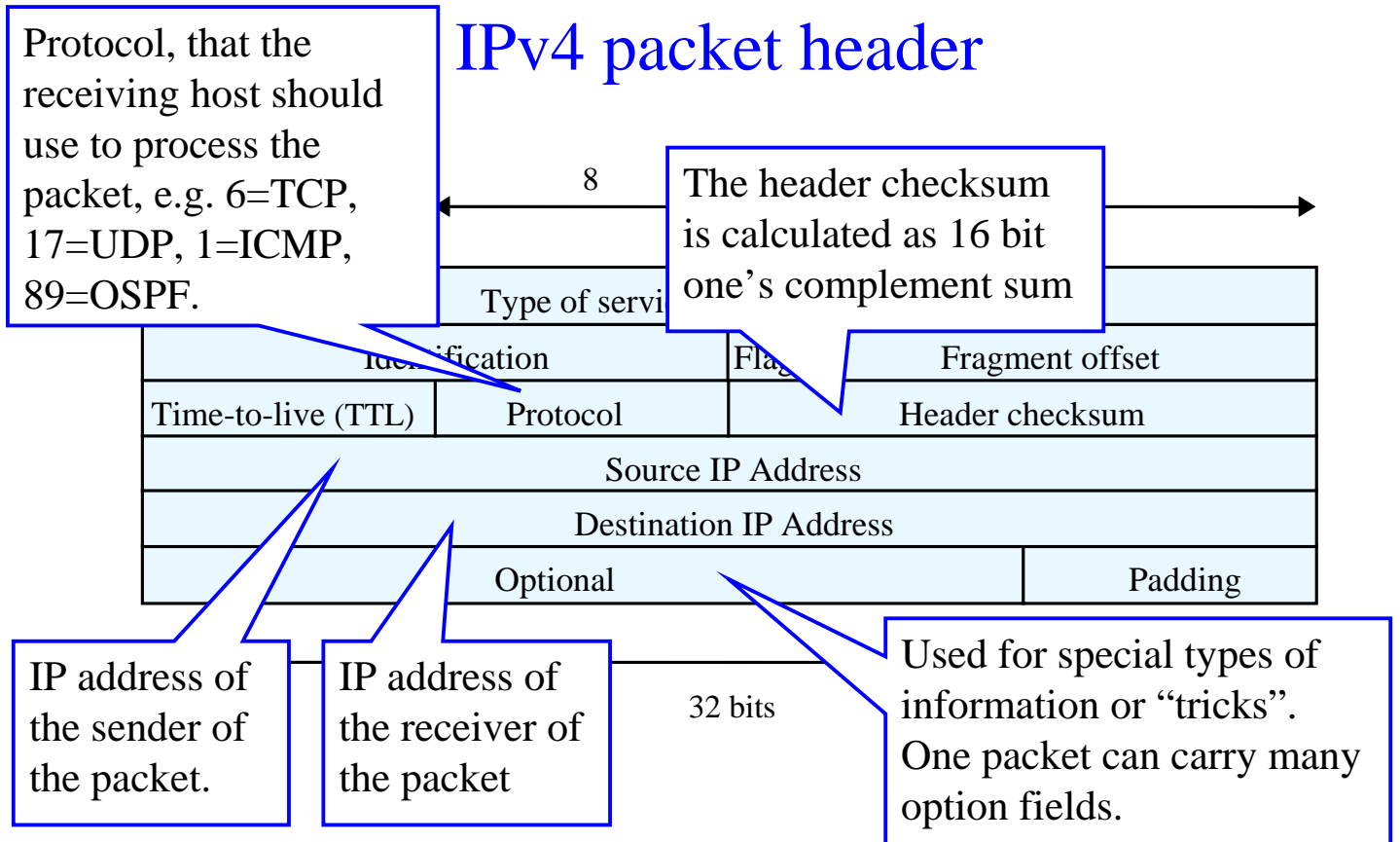
# IPv4 packet header



# IPv4 packet header



# IPv4 packet header



# The most important fields in routing are the destination address and the time-to-live

Version	IHL	Type of service	Total length	
Identification			Flag	Fragment offset
Time-to-live (TTL)	Protocol		Header checksum	
Source IP Address				
Destination IP Address				
Options				Padding

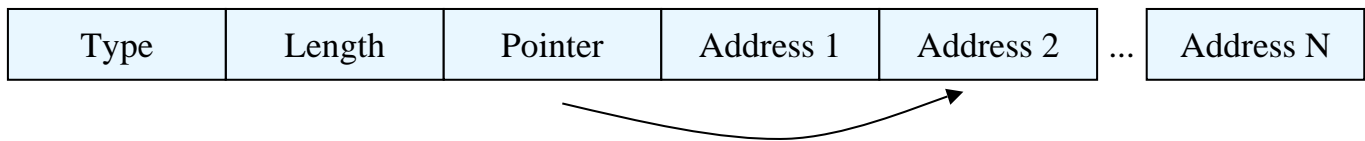
- Every router decrements the TTL → must calculate new checksum
- Options (e.g. source routing, record route, timestamp)
  - rarely/never used in practice.

## Type of service

Precedence	D	T	R	C	
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- Route selection criteria
  - D – minimization of delay
  - T – maximization of transmission capacity
  - R – maximization of reliability
  - C – minimization of cost
  - Only one can be selected.
- Precedence
  - The largest precedence packet is first taken from the queue to be routed.
- In practise, these are not used
- DiffServ uses the field in another way

# Source routing



- Implemented with the "source routing" option
  - **Loose source routing** (type 131, *10000011*)
    - The packet is sent to the next address in the list using normal routing.
  - **Strict source routing** (type 137, *10001001*)
    - The packet is sent to the next address in the list. If there is no direct link to the address, the packet is destroyed.
- Slow → Rarely used
  - Can be replaced by **encapsulation**: 

A→C, IP-IP	A→B, TCP	TCP	Data
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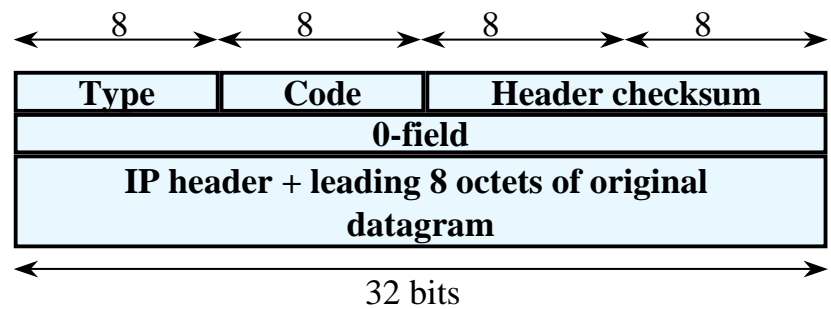
## ICMP – Internet Control Message Protocol

- Gives feedback about the network operation.
- ICMP packet is sent backwards if e.g.
  - The receiver is unreachable
  - The router deletes a packet
  - TTL = 0.
- All hosts and routers must support ICMP.
- ICMP messages are transported in IP packets
- If ICMP message is dropped, a new one is not generated
  - to avoid the "snowballing effect".

# ICMP messages

## Type

- 0 - *Echo reply* (used for “ping”)
- 3 - *Destination unreachable*
- 4 - ~~source quench~~ (=“slow down”) (dropped from recommendations)
- 5 - *Redirect*
- 8 - *Echo* (used for “ping”)
- 9 - *Router advertisement*
- 10 - *Router solicitation*
- 11 - *Time exceeded*
- 12 - Parameter problem
- 13 - Timestamp
- 14 - Timestamp reply
- 15 - Information request
- 16 - Information reply

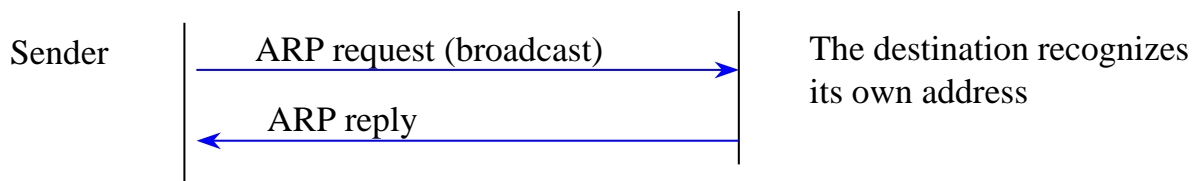


## Code

- 0 - net unreachable
- 1 - host unreachable
- 2 - protocol unreachable
- 3 - port unreachable
- 4 - fragmentation needed and DF set
- 5 - source route failed

## Packet sending – how to determine the next hop

- The sender checks if the destination address is in the same sub-network by comparing the masked values of the source and destination address.
  - If same, the destination is in the same subnet (next hop=destination).
  - Otherwise, the packet must be sent to a router (next hop=router).
- It then obtains the media address (MAC-address) of the destination (or router) using the ARP-protocol.



- The media address is stored in the cache.
  - Note: All hosts in the same subnet store the address in their cache.

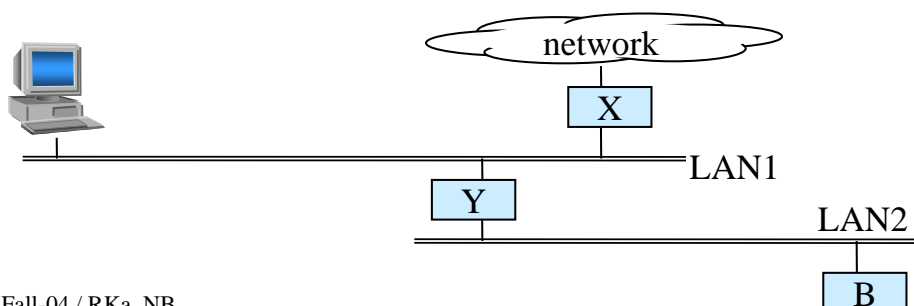
# ARP – Address Resolution Protocol

- ARP maps IP to the underlying protocol
- IP-address → MAC-address
- Each network technology requires its own ARP adaptation.
  - Easy if the network supports broadcast or multicast.
    - E.g. Ethernet, Token Ring, FDDI
  - ATM requires a special ARP-server
  - Manually defined address for point-to-point links
    - E.g. X.25, ISDN, Frame-Relay
- Works on top of Ethernet (not on top of IP)

*RFC-826*

## Router discovery

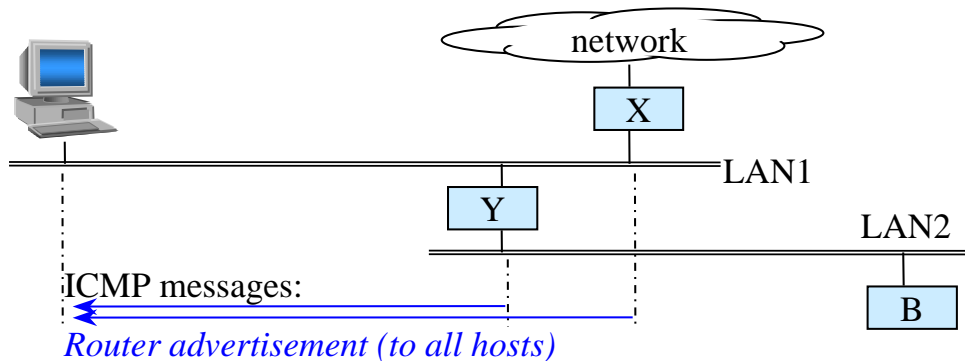
- How to know the address of the router?
  - Configure manually – ”default gateway”
  - Obtain with DHCP
    - Configured by administrator, still needs manual work
  - Listen to routing protocols
    - Uses resources of the host, too many routing protocols → not used today
  - Automatic router discovery with ICMP





## ICMP router discovery (1)

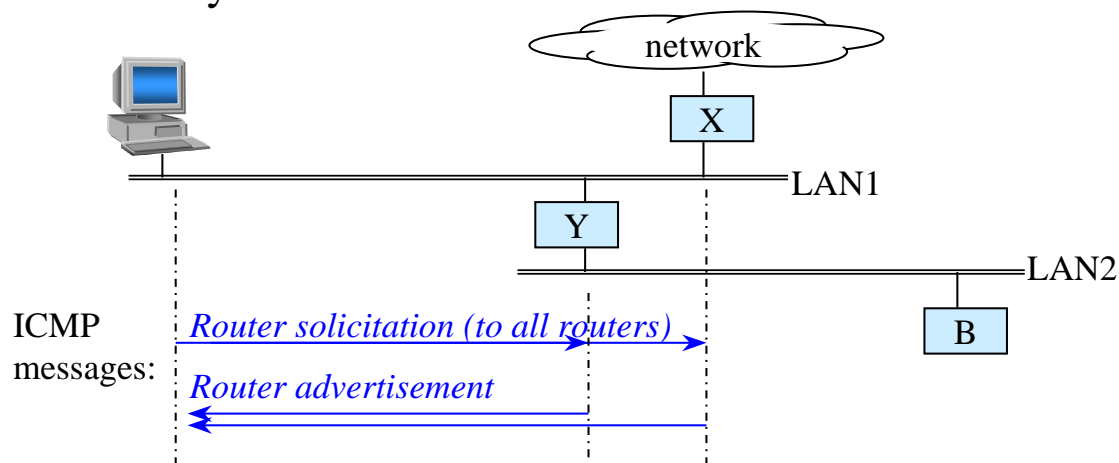
- The routers send *router advertisements* to all hosts periodically (e.g. in 7 minute intervals)



- The advertisement contains
  - a list of the router's addresses.
  - the preference of the addresses, which are used to identify the normal, reserve, etc. router or router address (the preference of the default router is highest)
  - lifetime of the information (e.g. 30 min)

## ICMP router discovery (2)

- The host would have to wait up to 7 minutes before it can send packets outside its sub-network.
- Using a *router solicitation*, the host gets the advertisement immediately

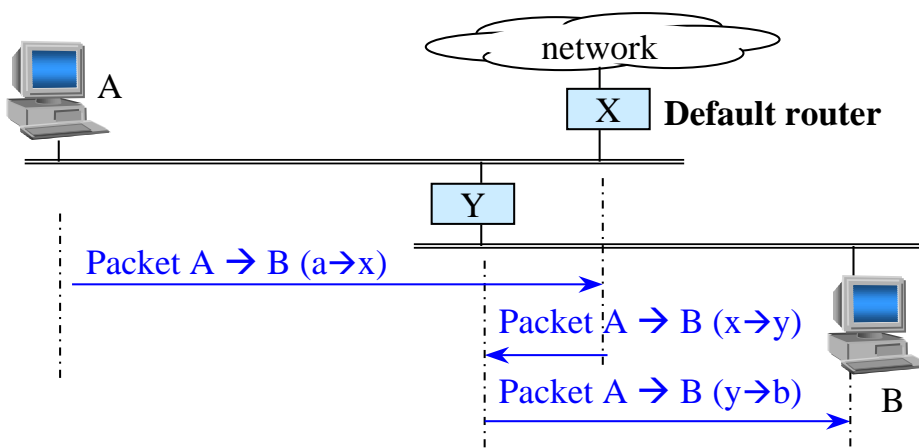


## ICMP router discovery (3)

- The host discards advertisements from routers outside its sub-network and chooses the router with the highest priority as its default router.
- All packets for destinations outside the sub-network are sent to the default router.

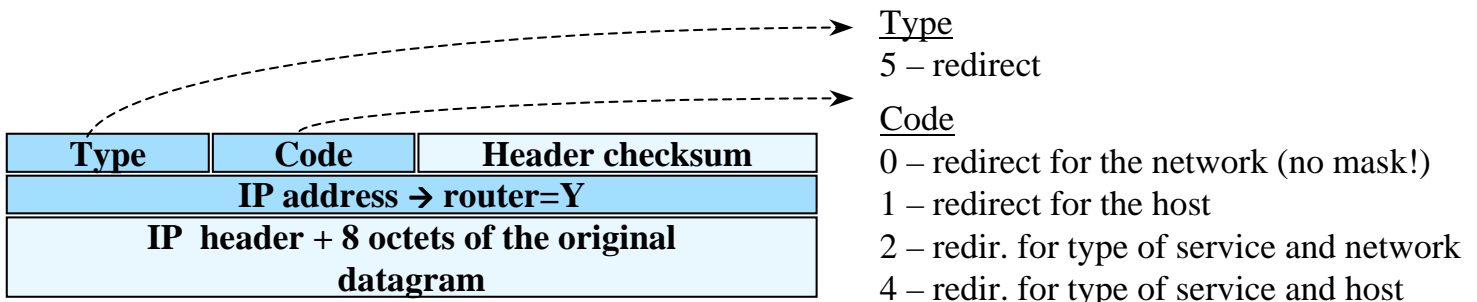
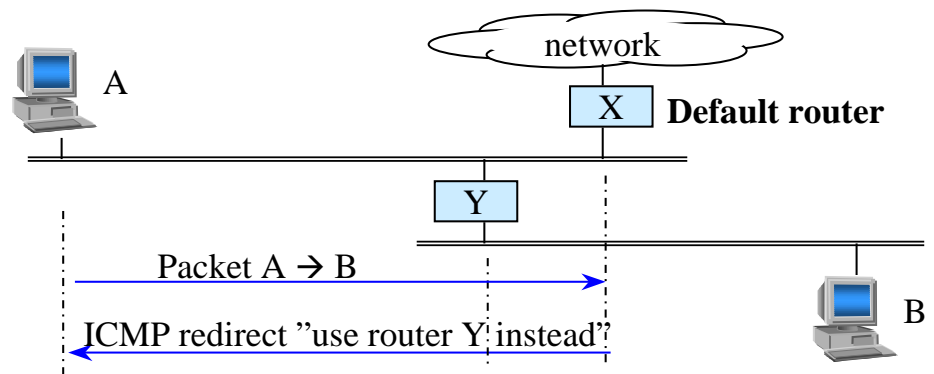
## A network may have many routers, the closest to the destination must be found

- A packet sent through the default router reaches the destination, but may waste resources



# A network may have many routers, the closest to the destination must be found

- The router can send a redirect to indicate a shorter route to the destination



# Host must have feedback from the first router to avoid sending to a “black hole”

Feedback may be

- TCP acknowledgements
- Router advertisements
- ARP-replies
- ICMP echo reply (ping)

Between routers, routing protocols provide similar feedback and help in detecting failed router neighbors.

# DNS – Domain Name Service

- Host name → IP address
- Why DNS?
  - Easier to remember names than addresses
  - Allows address changes without changing the name
  - Several addresses per host
  - Extensions: service location, ENUM
- DNS does not affect routing, routers only deal with IP addresses

## Routing algorithms

# Routing algorithms

- **Distance vector**
  - Distance vectors are sent, until the state of the network is stable
  - The routers cooperate to generate the routes
  - Example: RIP
- **Link state**
  - Topology descriptions are sent periodically and nodes generate a map over the network
  - Every router generates the routes independently of the other routers
  - Example: OSPF

## Properties of the routing algorithms

### Distance vector

- + Simple and lightweight
- Slow convergence
- Only one route per destination
- Only one metric

### Link state

- Complex and heavy
- + Fast convergence
- + Several routes per destination
- + Supports different metrics