

Introduction to routing in the Internet

Internet architecture

IPv4, ICMP, ARP

Addressing, routing principles

(Chapters 2–3 in Huitema)

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-1

Internet Architecture Principles

End-to-end principle *by Dave Clark*

- Hop-by-hop control vs. End-to-end control
 - In X.25
 - Error and flow control on each hop
- In IP
- Error and flow control in end station
- The network can not be trusted
- The user must in any case check for errors
 - Network control is redundant
- Error checking and flow control by TCP in the end stations
- No state information in the network
 - The network is not aware of any connections
 - Packets routed independently
 - If a link fails, another route is used
- Same principle as in distributed systems

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-3

Internet Architecture Principles IP over everything

by *Vinston Cerf*

- Internet connects different types of networks
 - Each with different framing, addressing, ...

Interconnection based on *translation*

- Mapping through a gateway
- Never perfect

Interconnection based on *overlay*

- Approach used by IP
- Single protocol over all underlying networks
- Simple to adapt to new technologies
 - Define framing or encapsulation
 - Define address resolution: IP-address → network address
- Unique IP-address

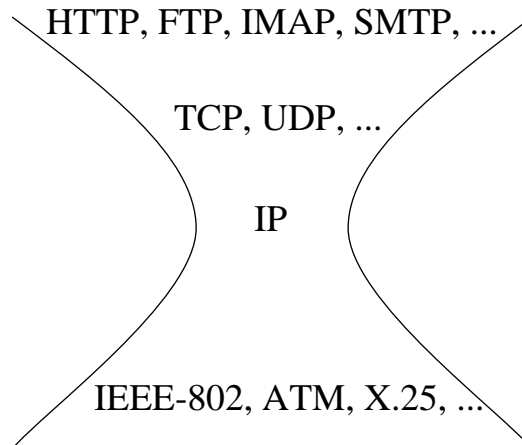
Translation still needed in many cases

E.g. signaling interworking, IPv4 to IPv6 mapping

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-4

Internet Architecture Principles IP over everything



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-5

Internet Architecture Principles

Connectivity is its own reward

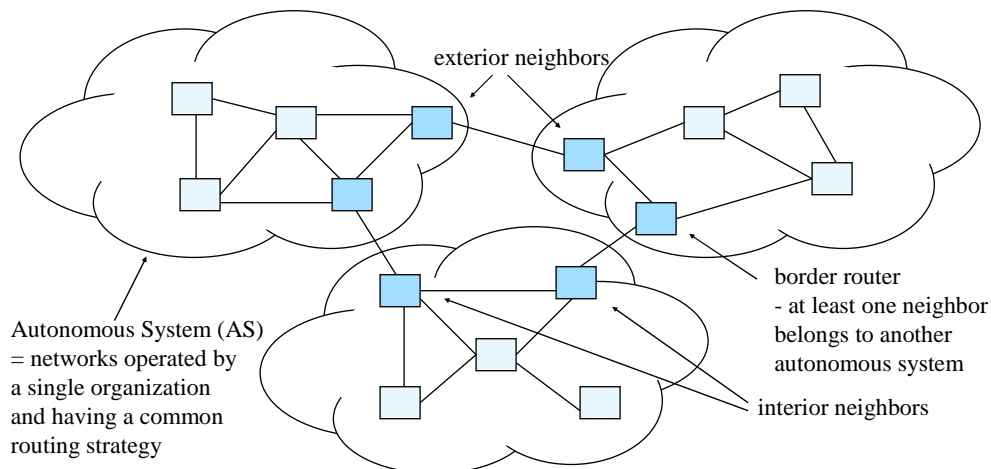
- The value of a network increases in proportion to the square of the number of nodes on the network (Robert Metcalf's law)
- Be liberal with what you receive, conservative with what you send
 - try to make your best to understand what you receive
 - maximum adherence to standard when sending
- Snowballing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

by Jon Postel

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-6

Routing is divided into interior and exterior



In this course we only deal with interior routing

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-7

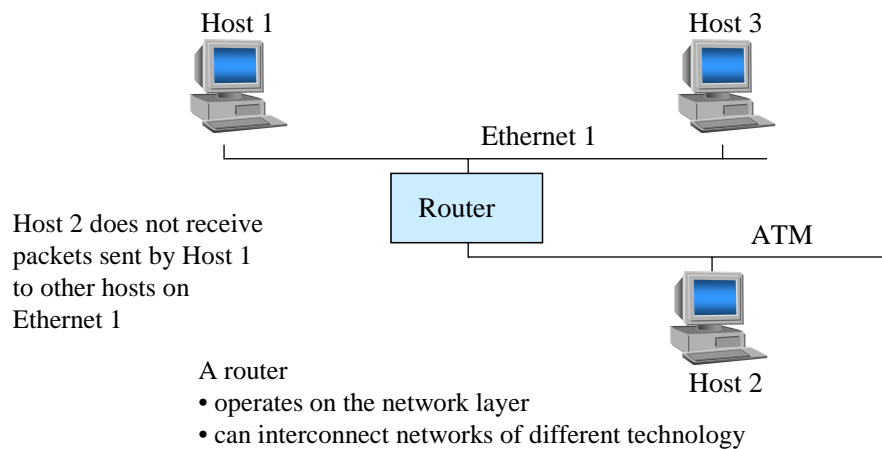
Routing is divided into interior and exterior

- 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) (*historical*)
 - **Border Gateway Protocol version 4 (BGP-4)**

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-8

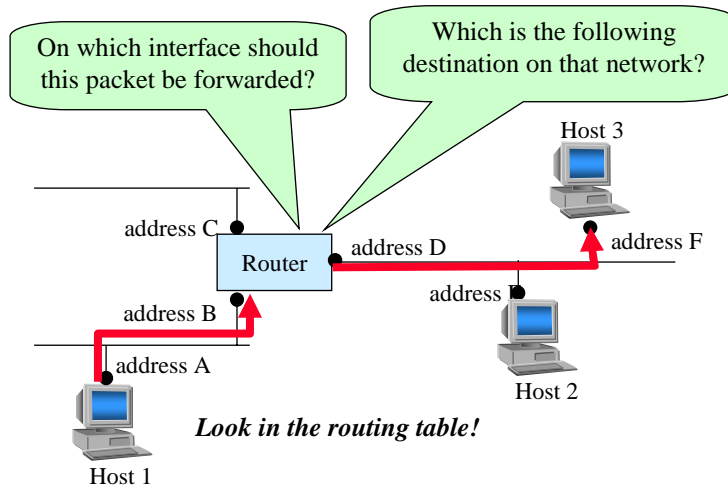
By connecting Ethernet segments with routers the traffic of the segments can be separated



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-9

Two functions of a router:
1. Packet forwarding

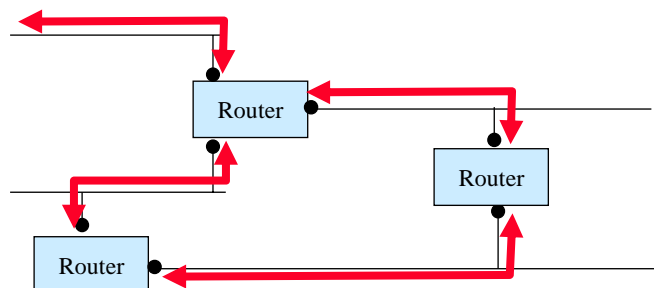


S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-10

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)



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-11

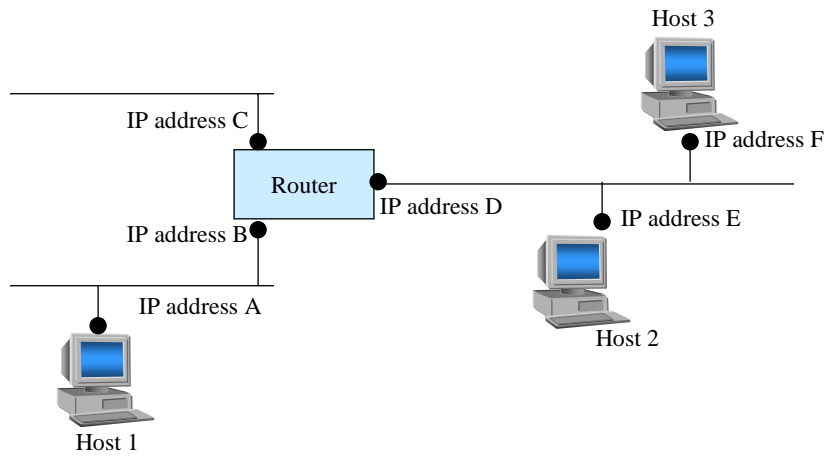
Internet routing is based on routing protocols, which collect information

- 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

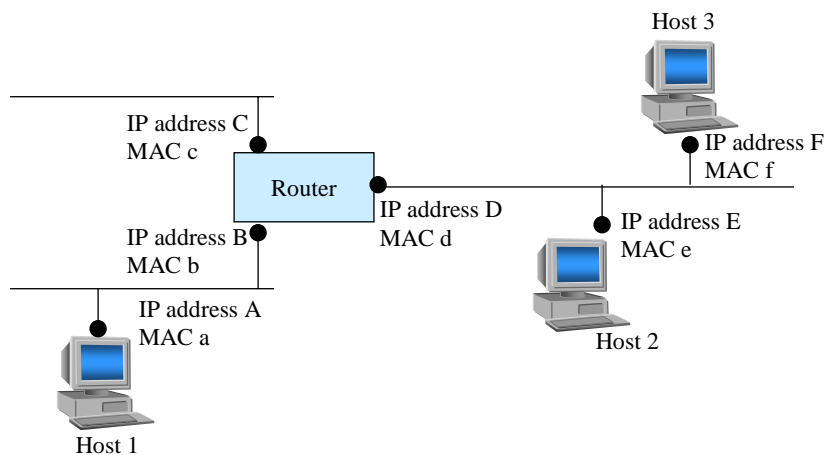
The IP address defines the interface (not the host)



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-14

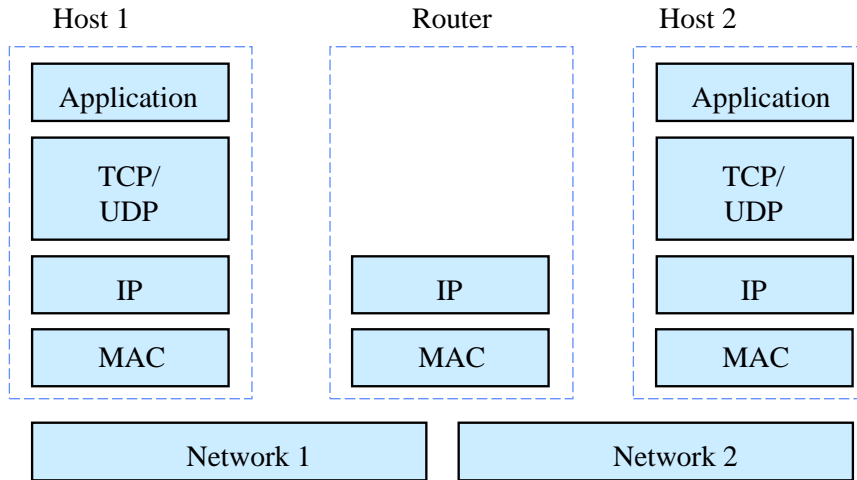
Every interface also has a media specific MAC address



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-15

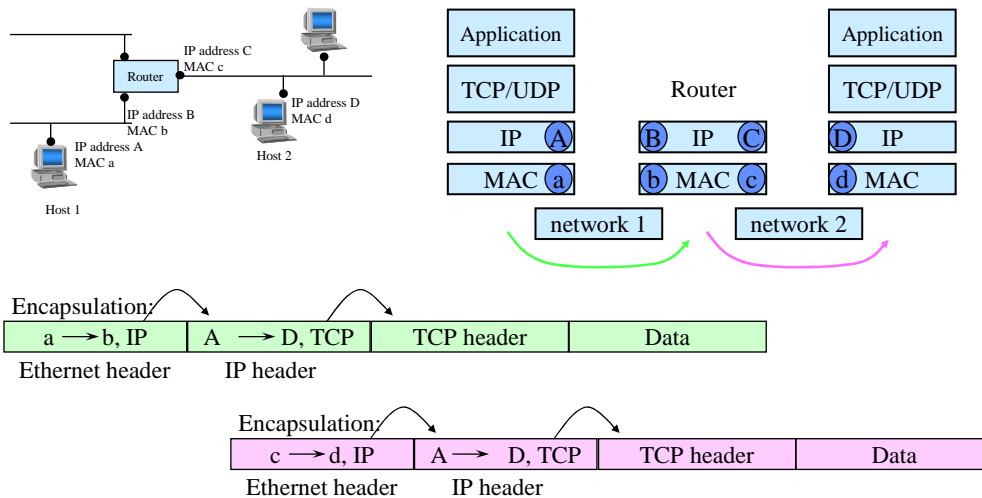
Internet layer model – hosts and routers



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-16

Layers and message forwarding

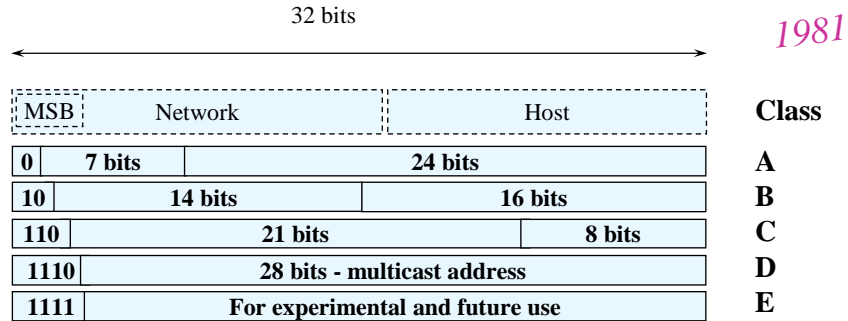


S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-17

IPv4 address formats

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



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-18

IPv4 address formats

- A new level for easier network administration

1984

		Network	Subnet	Host	
Example:					
Address:	10.38.154.117	00001010	001001	10 10011010 01110101	
Mask:	255.255.192.0	11111111	11111100	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

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-19

IPv4 address formats

- 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
0xFFFFF0C0	193.27.32.197	C: 193.27.32	3 (192)	5

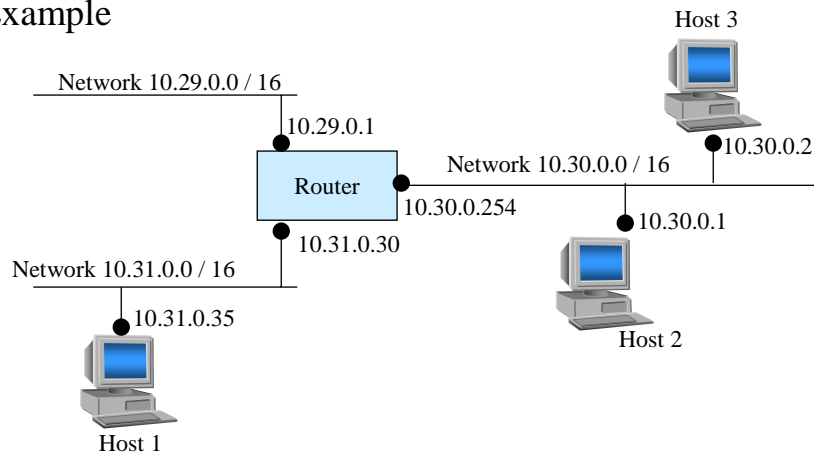
High order bits:
 0 0 - 127. → A-class
 10.... 128. - 191. → B-class
 110...192. - 223. → C-class

Without right zeroes (and with right zeroes)

*Later updated by CIDR
(discussed later)*

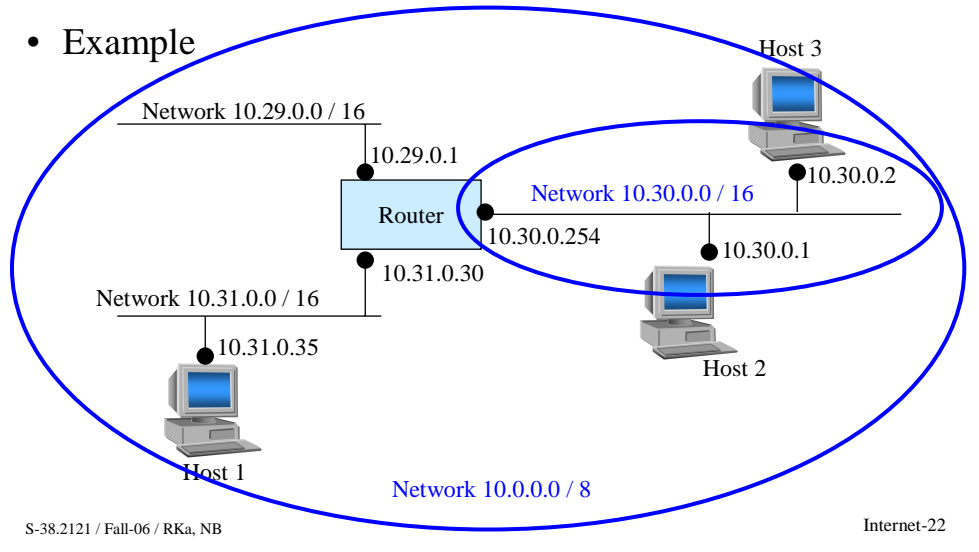
Routers maintain routes to networks (not to hosts)

- Example



Aggregation describes several addresses in a single entry to reduce size of routing tables

- Example

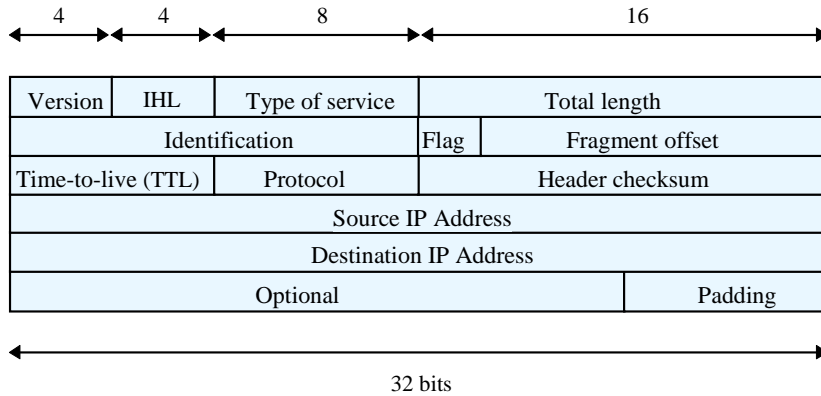


Special purpose addresses

- 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)

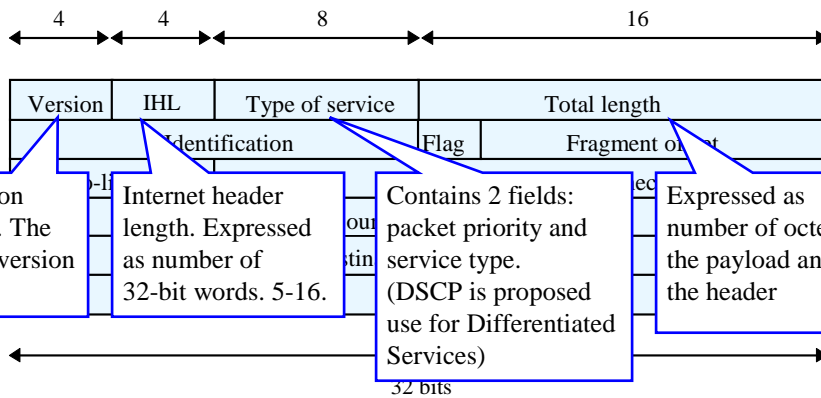
IPv4 packet header

RFC-791

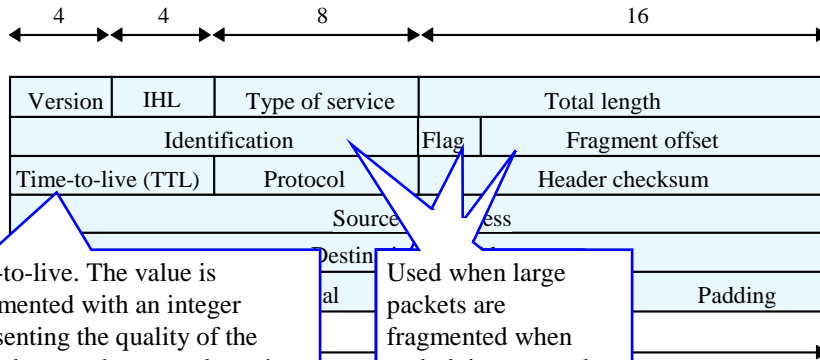


We assume that the sender knows its own IP address.
 If not: self configuration protocols such as RARP, BOOTP, DHCP (dynamic host configuration protocol) are used

IPv4 packet header



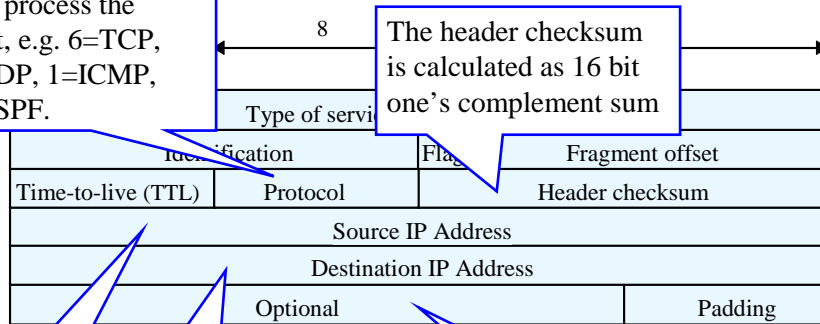
IPv4 packet header



Time-to-live. The value is decremented with an integer representing the quality of the network on each router along the path of the packet. The packet is deleted when TTL reaches 0.

Used when large packets are fragmented when underlying network has maximum packet length.

IPv4 packet header



Protocol, that the receiving host should use to process the packet, e.g. 6=TCP, 17=UDP, 1=ICMP, 89=OSPF.

The header checksum is calculated as 16 bit one's complement sum

IP address of the sender of the packet.

IP address of the receiver of the packet

32 bits

Used for special types of information or "tricks". One packet can carry many option fields.

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.

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-29

Type of service

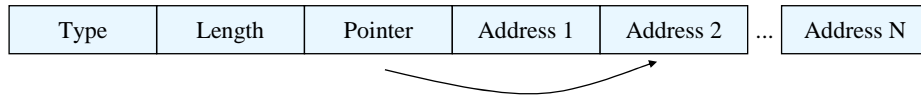
Precedence	D	T	R	C	
------------	---	---	---	---	--

- 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
 - Packet with the highest precedence is first taken from the queue to be routed.
- In practice, these are not used
- DiffServ uses the field in another way

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-30

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
------------	----------	-----	------

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-31

ICMP – Internet Control Message Protocol

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

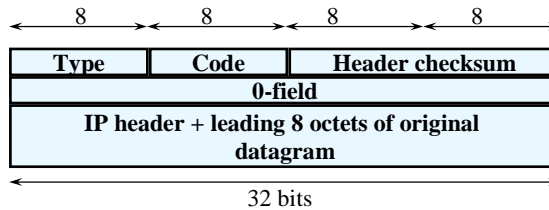
S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-32

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

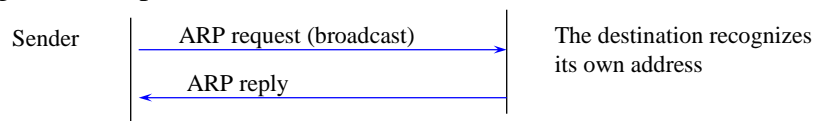


Code

- 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 next hop using the ARP-protocol.



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

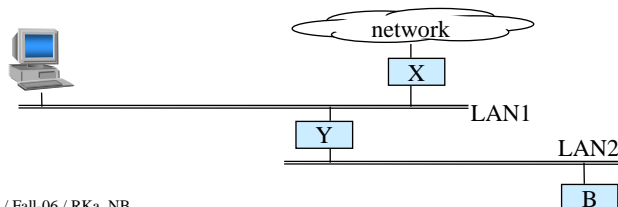
RFC-826

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-35

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

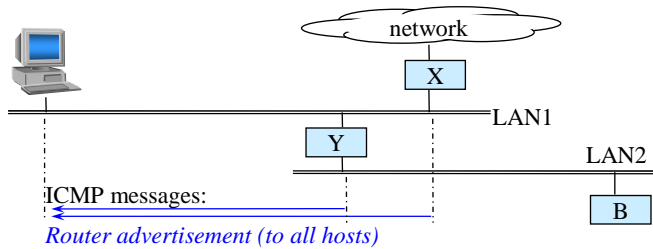


S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-36

ICMP router discovery (1)

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



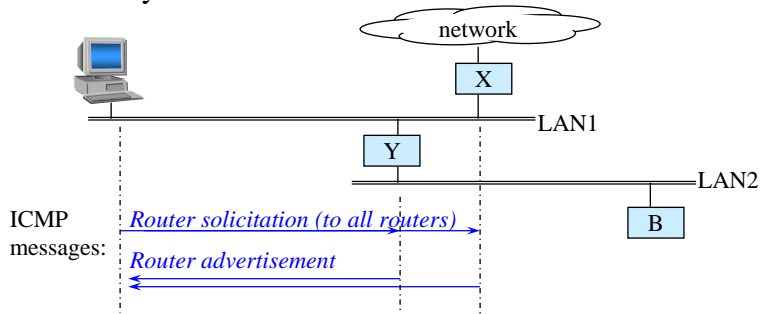
- The advertisement contains
 - a list of the router's addresses.
 - the preference of the addresses, which are used to identify the normal, reserve, etc. router or router address (the preference of the default router is highest)
 - lifetime of the information (e.g. 30 min)

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-37

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



S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-38

ICMP router discovery (3)

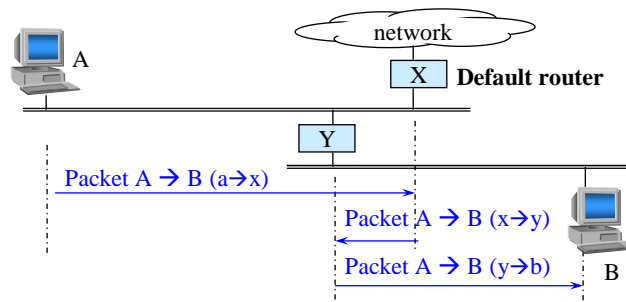
- The host chooses the router with the highest priority as its default router.
- All packets for destinations outside the sub-network are then sent to the default router.
- Any advertisement from a router outside the sub-network is discarded

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-39

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

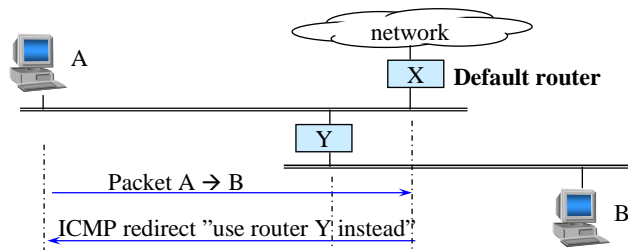


S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-40

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



Type	Code	Header checksum
IP address → router=Y		
IP header + 8 octets of the original datagram		

Type
5 – redirect

Code
0 – redirect for the network (no mask!)
1 – redirect for the host
2 – redir. for type of service and network
4 – redir. for type of service and host

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-41

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.

S-38.2121 / Fall-06 / RKa, NB

Internet-43

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 Proactive vs. reactive

- **Proactive**
 - The router creates and maintains routes to all destinations
 - The routes are available in advance
 - The routing algorithms in the Internet are proactive
- **Reactive**
 - Routes are created only when they are needed
 - Used in e.g. ad hoc networks (discussed later in this course)

Routing algorithms Distance vector vs. link state

- **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

Routing algorithms

Distance vector vs. link state

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