

# Basic Network Organization

Portions Courtesy Ellen Liu

# Outline

- Internet and Internet Standards
- Protocols and Protocol Layering
  - Packet-switching
  - Segment, packet, frame
  - TCP segment header and IP packet header
- Addressing in networks
- The IP protocol

# Internet

- Internet started as a research network called ARPANET in 1969. It became commercial in late 1980s
- Today's Internet is a collection of networks owned by various levels of ISPs (Internet service providers)
- It has now evolved into a public utility

A map of the Internet: <http://www.opte.org/maps/>

# Internet

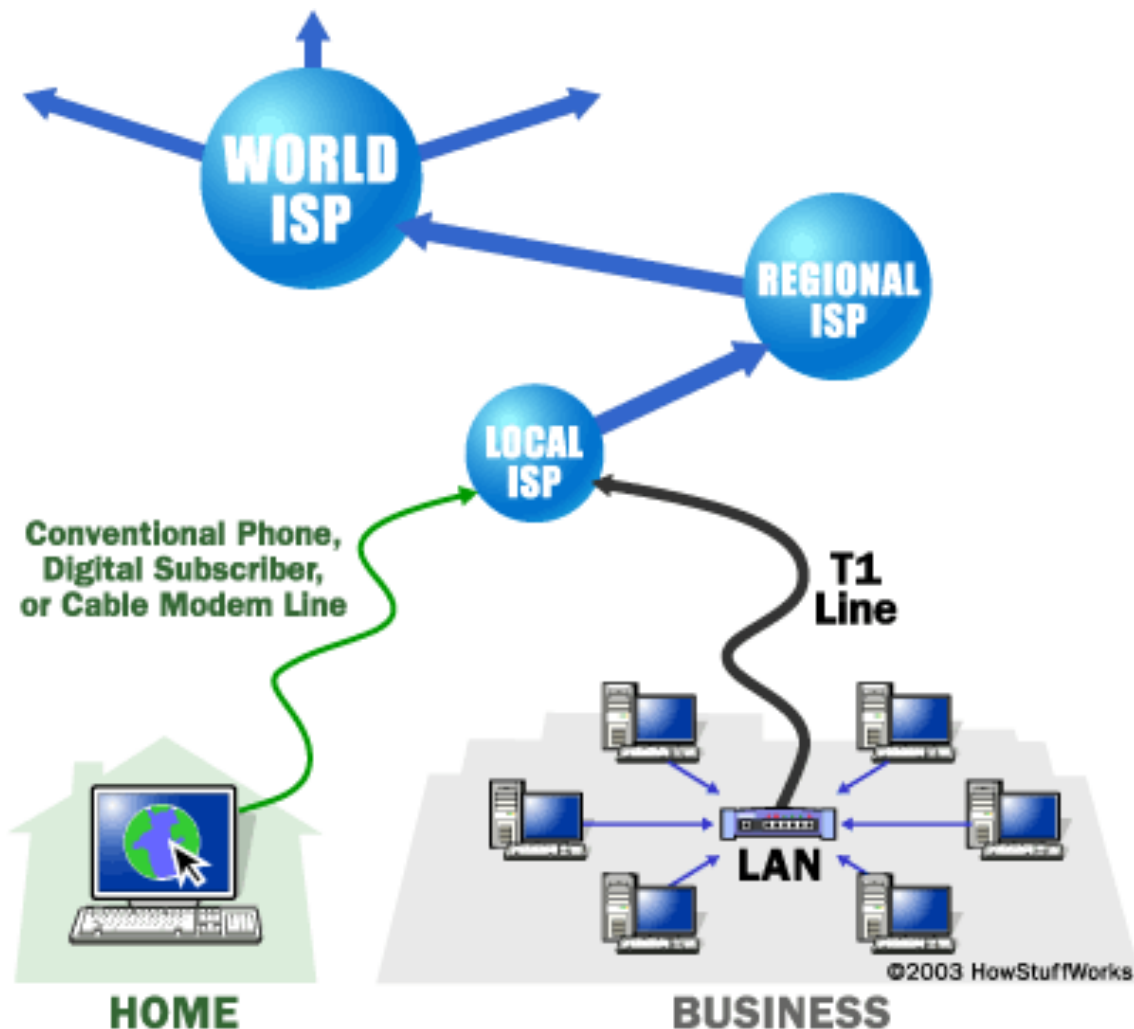
- Backbone (tier1) ISPs

International coverage. Are equals

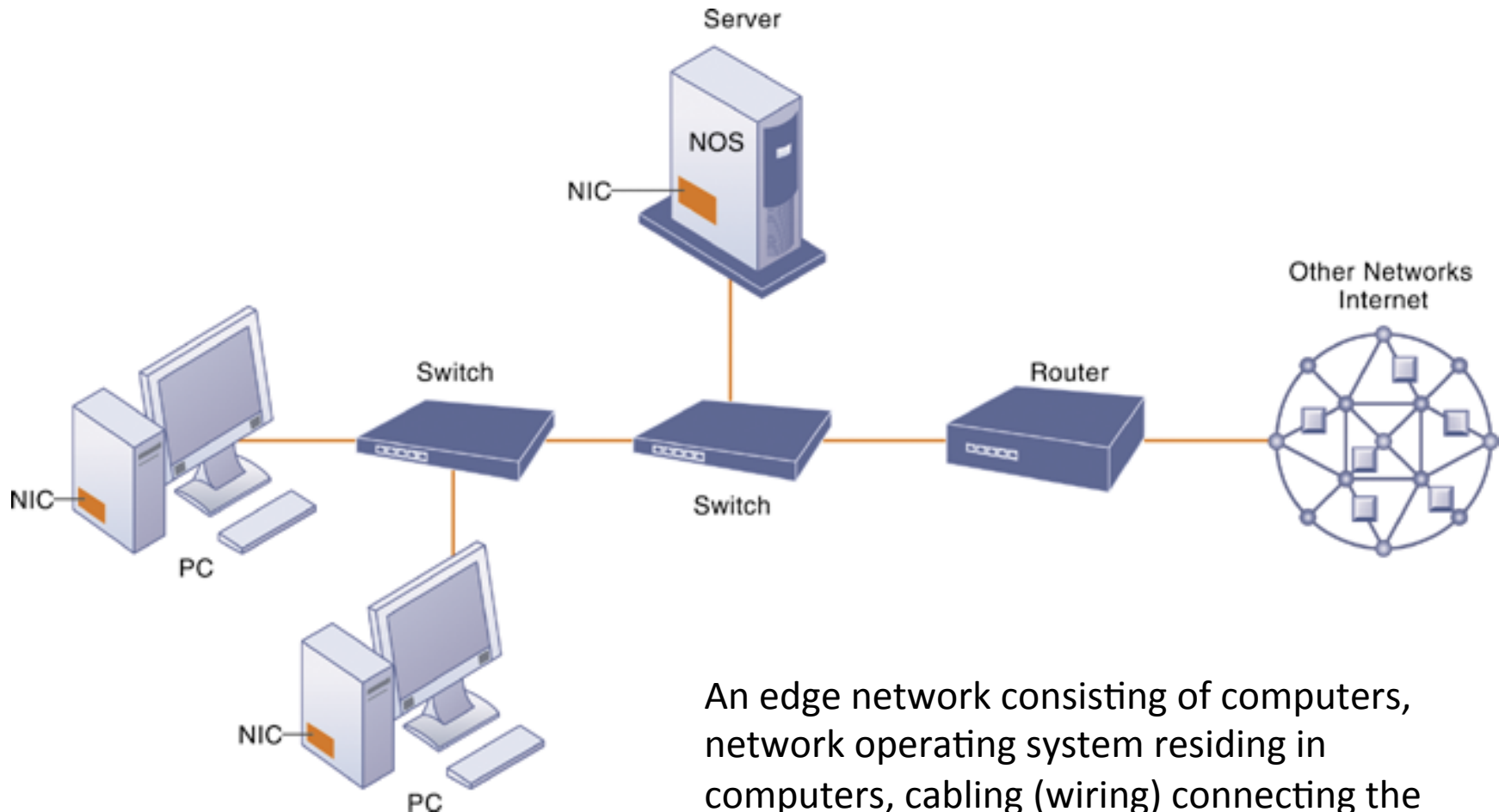
- Regional (tier2) ISPs

connect to 1 or more tier1 ISPs

- Local ISPs closest to end users



# Internet Edge



An edge network consisting of computers, network operating system residing in computers, cabling (wiring) connecting the devices, network interface cards (NICs), switches, and a router

# Internet Governance

No formal management. Policies established by professional and government organizations

- **ICANN**: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers. Allocation of IP addresses, domain names, protocol port numbers, autonomous system numbers
- **ISOC**: Internet Society. Overlooking technical development
  - **IETF**: Internet Engineering Task Force. Produces Internet standards
  - **IAB**: Internet Architecture Board. Directly oversees IETF's work

# Internet Standards and Documents

- RFC (request for comment) - a memorandum published by IETF describing methods, behaviors, research, or innovations applicable to the working of the Internet and Internet-connected systems
- There are 6921 RFCs as of today. See the rfc index at <http://www.ietf.org/download/rfc-index.txt>
- RFCs started as **Internet Drafts**. Each went through an intensive review process.
- There are many **IETF working groups**. Each is busy on the Internet drafts under the group charter. Everybody who is interested can join these groups and get involved.

# RFCs

- Not all RFCs are standards. RFC status include:  
proposed standard (STD), informational,  
experimental, best current practice (BCP), historic,  
unknown
- Once an RFC is distributed, its contents never change
- Updates can extend, clarify, or supersede old RFCs,  
are distributed with a new RFC number
- RFC2026 and RFC5540 describe this process



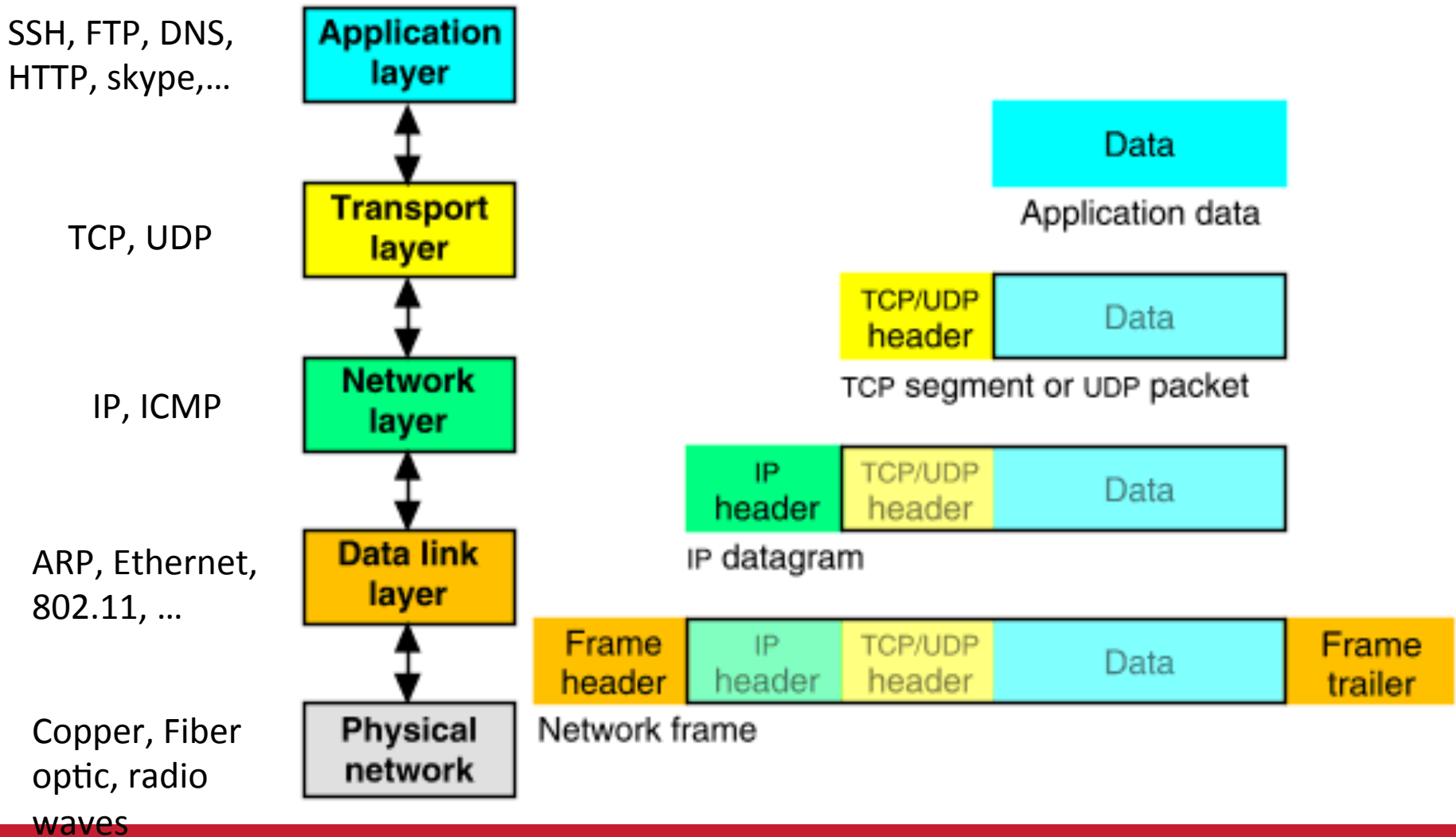
# Protocols

- **Protocols:** define type, format, and order of messages sent and received among network entities, and actions taken on message transmission and receipt, or other events (e.g., timer expires)
- Computers talk to each other in a way that is really not much different from how we humans talk to each other
  - Hi. Hi. Got the time? 5 o'clock. Thanks. Bye. Bye.
  - Connection request. Connection response. Got page index.html? Here you are. ACK. Connection teardown. Connection teardown.

# Protocol Layering

- Network protocols are arranged in a hierarchy or stack, with higher-level ones making use of the ones beneath them
- Five protocol layers in **Internet Protocol Stack**:  
**Application, Transport, Network, Data Link, Physical layers**
- There are other networking protocol stacks. E.g., ISO OSI 7-layer model, ATM, X.25, SNA
  - Not as widely used as Internet Protocol stack

# Internet Protocol Layering



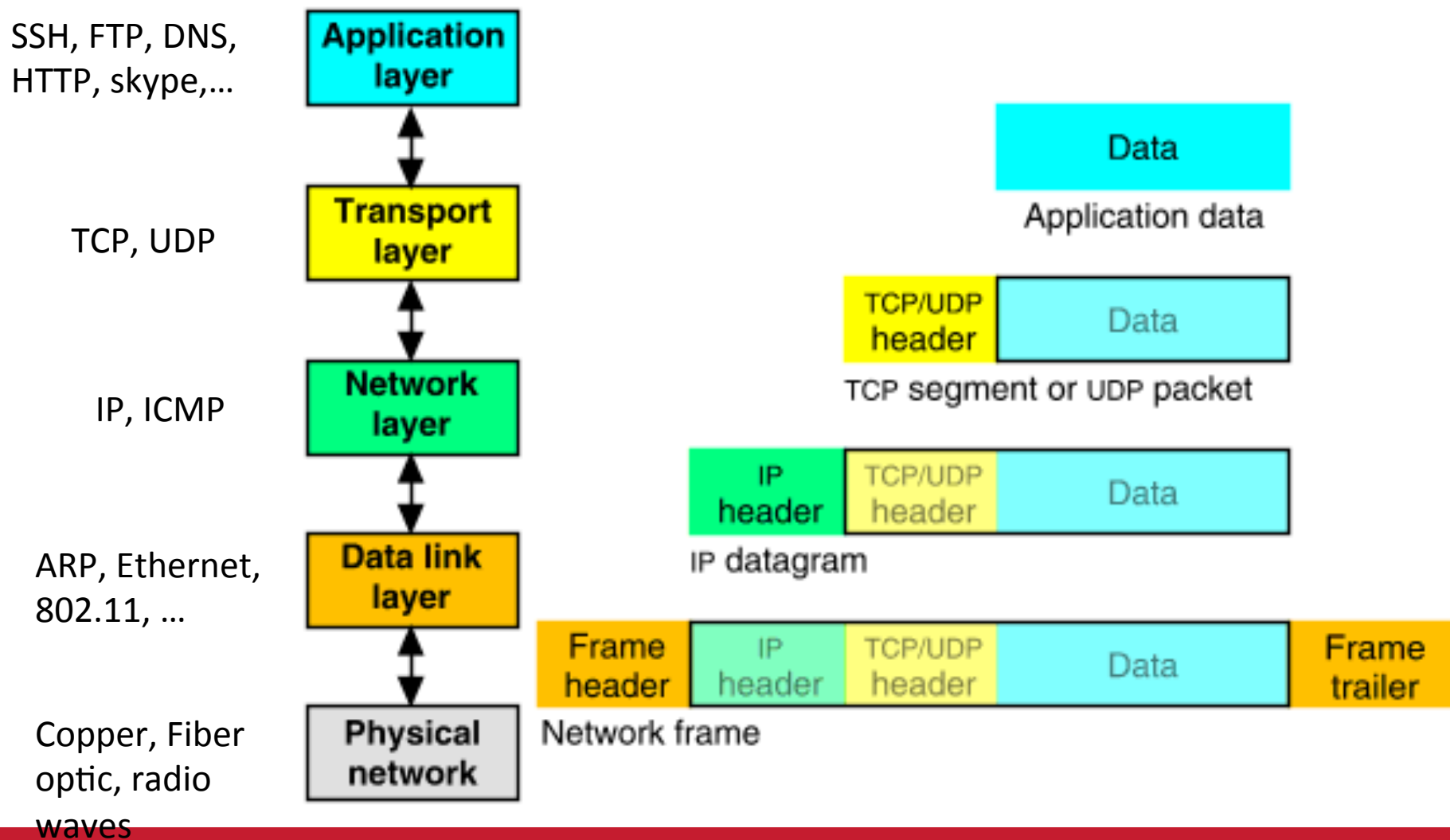
# Physical Layer

- Physical layer is the specification of low-level electrical signals (or waves or light beams) used to encode a message
  - Generally encapsulated from the administrator
    - Although there are some limits on signal length over a medium

# Packets

- The basic unit of data transmission
- Most media specify a Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU)
  - Packets cannot be larger than the MTU
  - Higher-level protocol messages may have to be split across multiple packets

# Internet Protocol Layering



# Data Link Layer

- Software-level abstraction of the physical layer + some higher-level protocols
- Ethernet (most common wired network)
  - Older wired protocols include Token Ring
- Wireless (802.11)
  - 801.11a, b, g, n, etc all specify different radio wave specifications

# MAC Address

- Unique identifier for a network device
  - E.g., 0e:d1:c3:db:e7:b3
  - First few bytes encode manufacturer and model
  - Others are supposed to be unique
- Used at the Data Link Layer to specify the destination for a message (packet)
- Note: Many NICs allow you to change the MAC address

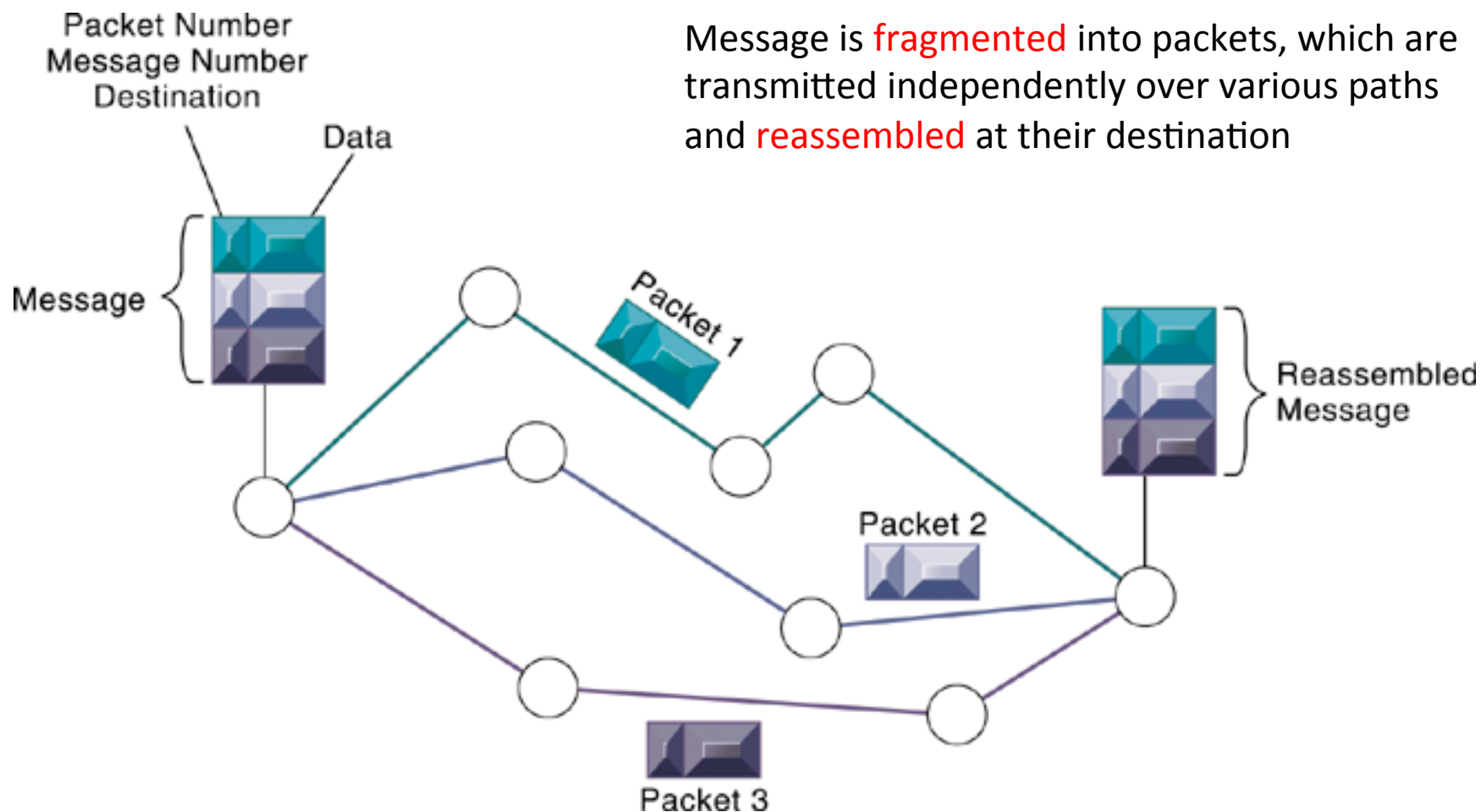


# Packet Switching

- **Packets**: method of slicing digital messages into parcels. Each **packet** contains a *header* and *payload*.  
*The payload carries a parcel of message*
- As packets become available, they are sent along paths between a sender/receiver pair, then reassembled at the destination (see next slide)
- **Store-and-forward**: entire packet must arrive at a router before it can be transmitted onto next link
  - This introduces  $L/R$  seconds delay. L: packet size, R: **link capacity** (also called **bandwidth, transmission rate**)

# Fragmentation and Reassembly

Message is **fragmented** into packets, which are transmitted independently over various paths and **reassembled** at their destination



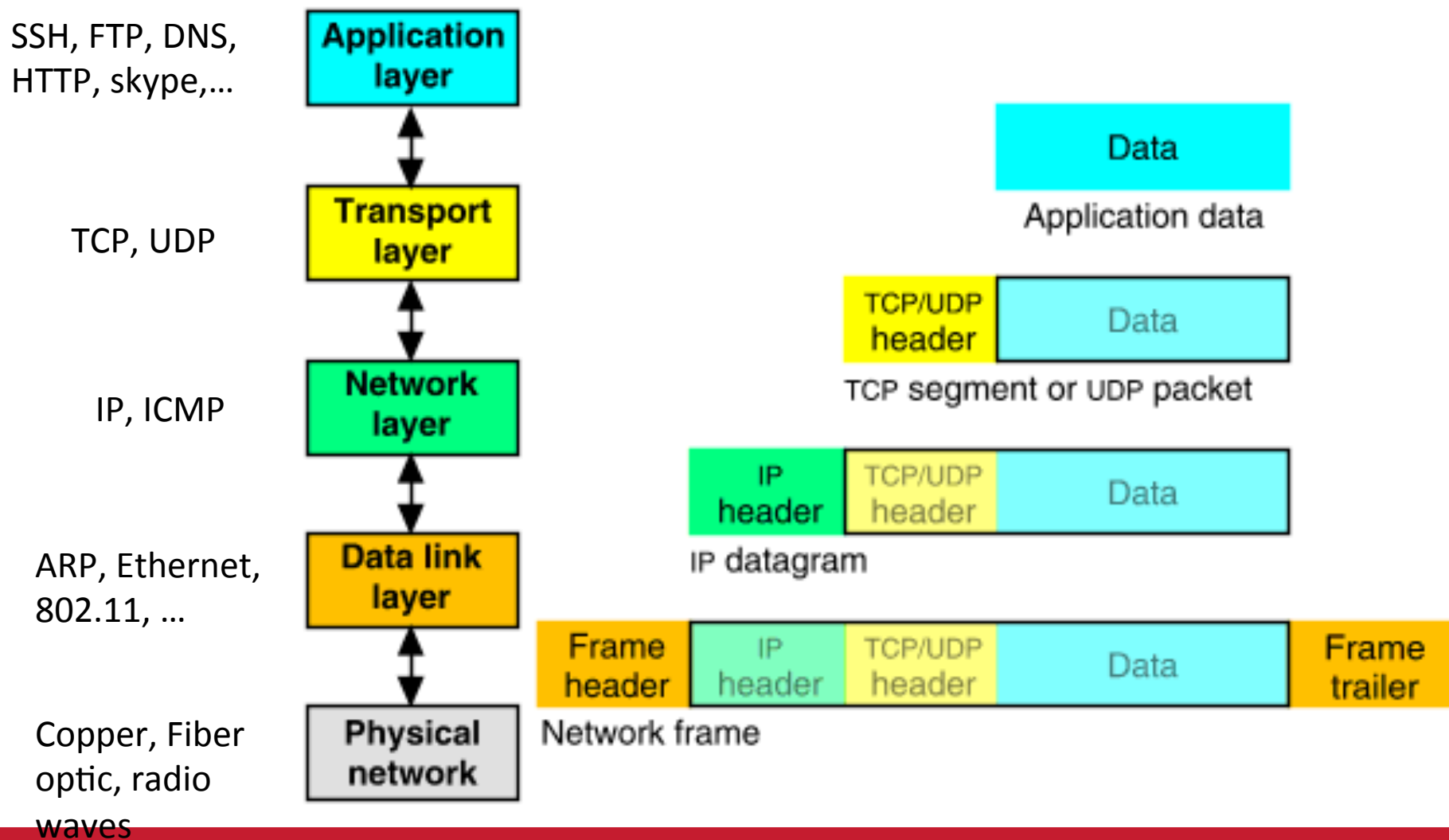
# Segment, Packet, and Frame

- The name of the primitive data unit depends on the layer of the protocol in question
  - At the network layer, it is called a **packet** or **datagram**
  - At the transport layer above, it is called a **segment**
  - At the data link layer below, it is called a **frame**
- As the unit travels down the protocol stack in preparation for being sent, each protocol adds some header for doing its job
  - Thus, e.g., a packet is a segment plus a packet header, i.e., the segment becomes the packet payload

# IP (Internet Protocol)

- Most common Network Layer protocol
- Routing packets from source machine to destination machines
  - Across networks (i.e., the Internet)
  - Data Link Layer is sufficient within a local network
    - E.g., among computers connected via a single wireless access point

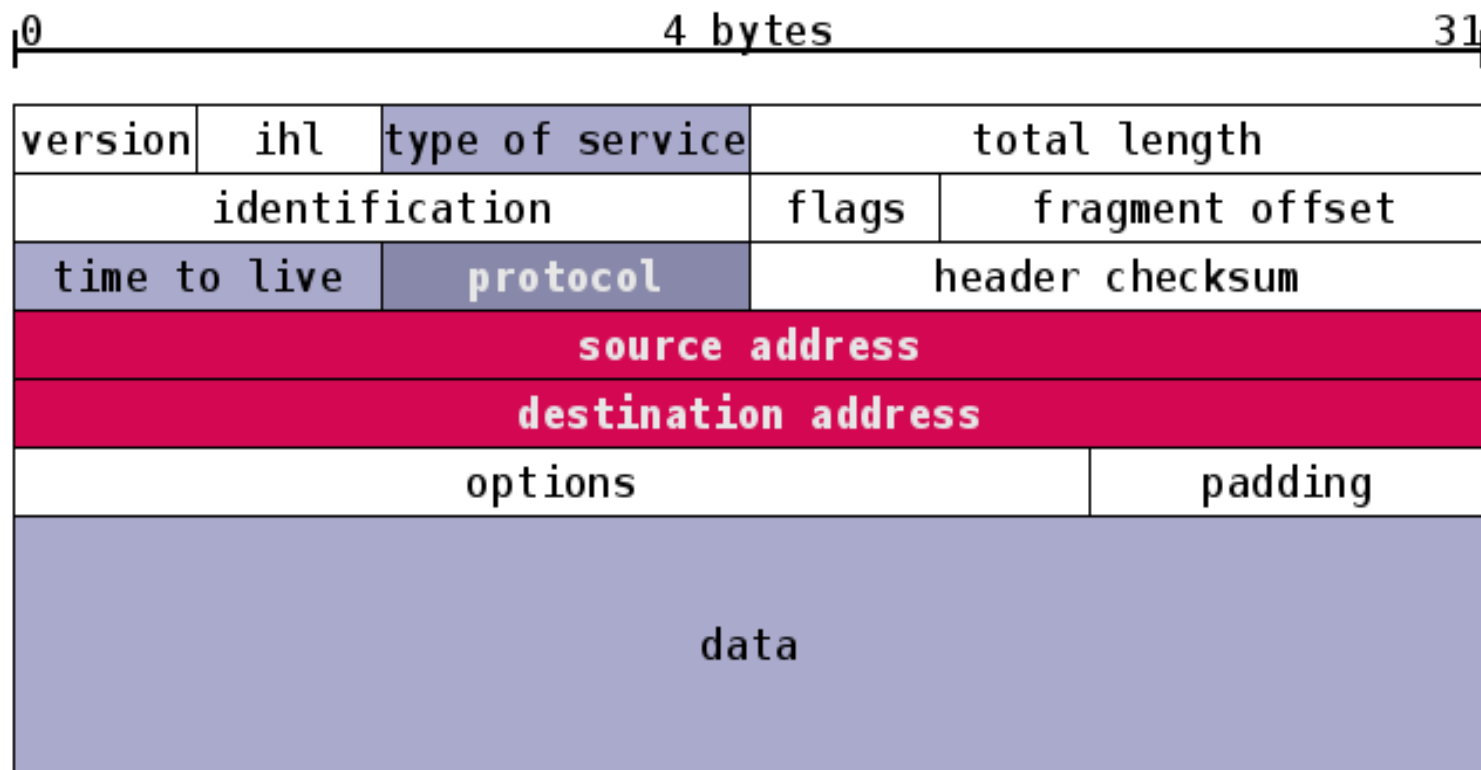
# Internet Protocol Layering



# IP Packet Header

- E.g., **source, destination address**: IP addresses of the source and destination; **version**: v4 or v6; **entire second row** for fragmentation/reassembly

**IPv4**  
**packet**  
**header**  
(20 bytes)



# IP Addresses

- **IP address**: also called network address. Used by software called the TCP/IP stack. Per *network interface*. One machine can have multiple of them
  - *NIC*: network interface card
- Are 4 bytes (32 bits) long for IPv4, and 16 bytes (128 bits) long for IPv6. All modern OS and devices support both
  - IPv6 has built-in security/authentication, it addresses IPv4 address space shortage
  - Will focus on IPv4 here

# IP Address Examples

- IPv4: 130.245.65.129
  - 4 8-bit values, each separated by a dot
  - If any number is  $\geq (2^8=256)$ , it is wrong
    - Here's looking at you, CSI
- IPv6: fe80::7ed1:c3ff:fedb:e7b3
  - One hexadecimal digit encodes 4 bits
  - 8 x 4 hex digits = 128 bits
  - A string of consecutive 0's in the middle replaced with double colons (::)



# How many IPv4 Addresses are there?

- $2^{32} = \sim 4.3$  billion
- How many computers in the world?
  - $\sim 2$  billion on the internet in 2010
- How many people in the world?
  - $\sim 7$  billion
- So IPv4 will eventually run out
  - And management issues have caused problems already

# The IP Protocol

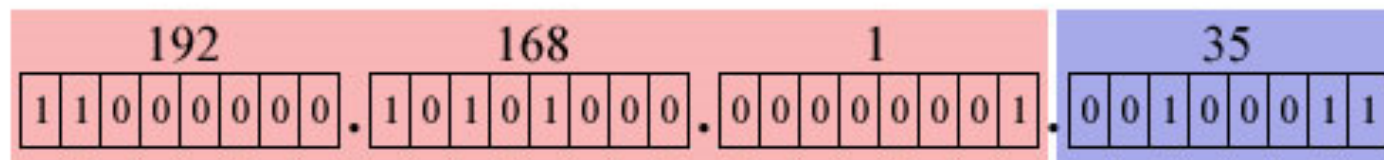
- **Major job:** routing packets from source machine to destination machines. Actually two tasks
- Forwarding vs. routing
  - **Forwarding:** move a packet from a router's input to an output
  - **Routing:** determine a route taken by a packet from source to destination
- **Routing is done in the background. It produces IP forwarding tables**
  - Will focus on forwarding here

# Another way to look at IP Addresses

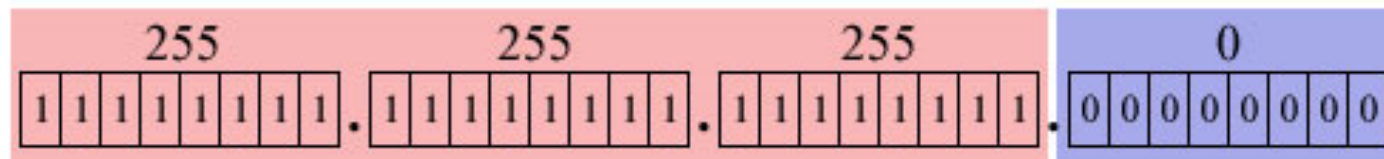
Consists of a **network portion** and a **host portion**

- Network portion: high order bits, identifies a logical network
- Host portion: the rest bits, identifies a node on the network

IP Address



Subnet Mask



Network ID

Device ID

# Packet Delivery (within network)

- You can figure out if an IP is in the same network by looking at the Network ID portion of the address
- Use a Data Link Layer protocol called Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) to ask:
  - “Does anyone know the MAC address of IP x.x.x.x?”
  - Cache results in a local table
  - Usually only ask once

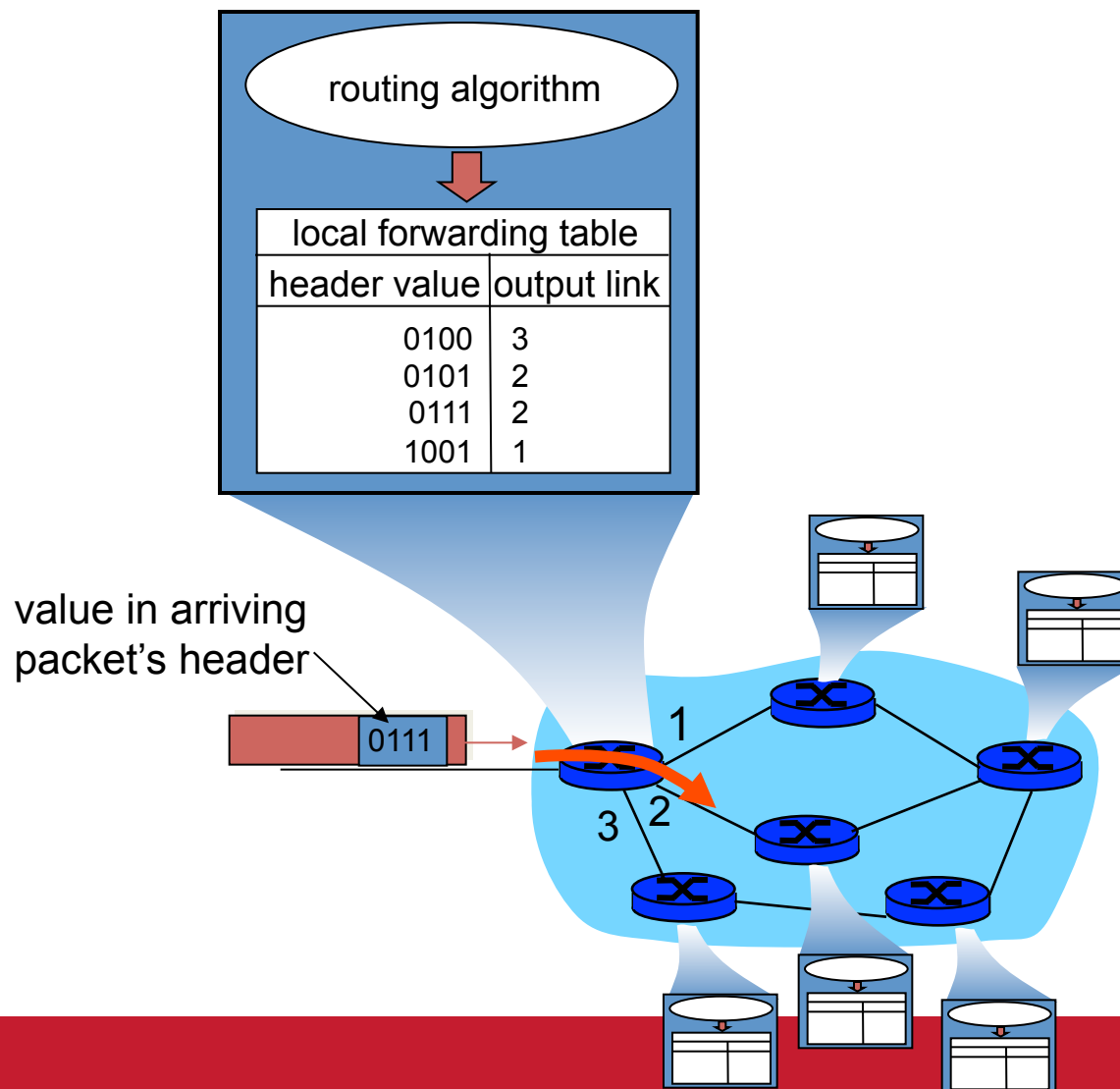
# Local Packet Delivery

- Common case: look up ARP cache, send directly from one computer to another

# Remote Packet Delivery

- Computers also include **routing tables** that map network names onto remote IP addresses
- Within a simple network (like campus), your routing table may simply send all remote packets to the edge router

# Interplay between routing, forwarding



# Subnet

- A **subnet** is made of those network interfaces that can reach each other **without passing through a router**. All of them have the same subnet (network) portion
- **Subnet mask**: specifies the length of the network portion. The 1's must be leftmost and contiguous
  - E.g., /24 or 255.255.255.0
  - What's equivalent of /26? **Answer: 255.255.255.192**
- **How many hosts can be in a /26 network/subnet?** **Answer: 62**
  - Host portion of all 0's denotes this subnet, all 1's is used as a multicast address. They cannot be assigned to hosts



# Historical network types

- Class A: only first byte used for network address
  - Huge, hard to get
- Class B: second two bytes for network
  - Still pretty big, easier to get
- Class C: First three bytes identify network
  - Easy to get – Even I have one for my lab
- Netmasks give you finer-grained subdivision

# How many computers in a Class C?

- Hint: 1 byte for host portion
- 254
- Why not 256?
  - .0 reserved for router
  - .255 reserved for broadcast

# CIDR

- **Classless Inter-Domain Routing.** A method to allocate IP addresses and routing IP packets. Allows arbitrary length of the network portion
  - The previous **classful** addressing uses fixed length
    - Class A: 8 bits in network portion
    - Class B: 16 bits in network portion
    - Class C: 24 bits in network portion
- CIDR notation: 192.144.0.0/21
- Assume a site is given the block 192.144.0.0/21. The site could use the block in various ways. For example:

# Supernetting

- 1 network /21 with 2,046 hosts
- 8 networks /24 with 254 hosts each
- 16 networks /25 with 126 hosts each
- 32 networks /26 with 62 hosts each
- Q: how many routing table entries for each case?
- A:
  - From the perspective of Internet, no need to have 8, 16, 32 entries
  - All refer to the same organization, go to the same ISP
  - A single entry **192.144.0.0/21** suffices.
- Supernetting aggregates several networks for purposes of routing

# IP Forwarding Table

Destination IP address range

Link Interface

*11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000*

*through*

*0*

*11001000 00010111 00010111 11111111*

*11001000 00010111 00011000 00000000*

*through*

*1*

*11001000 00010111 00011000 11111111*

*Otherwise*

*2*

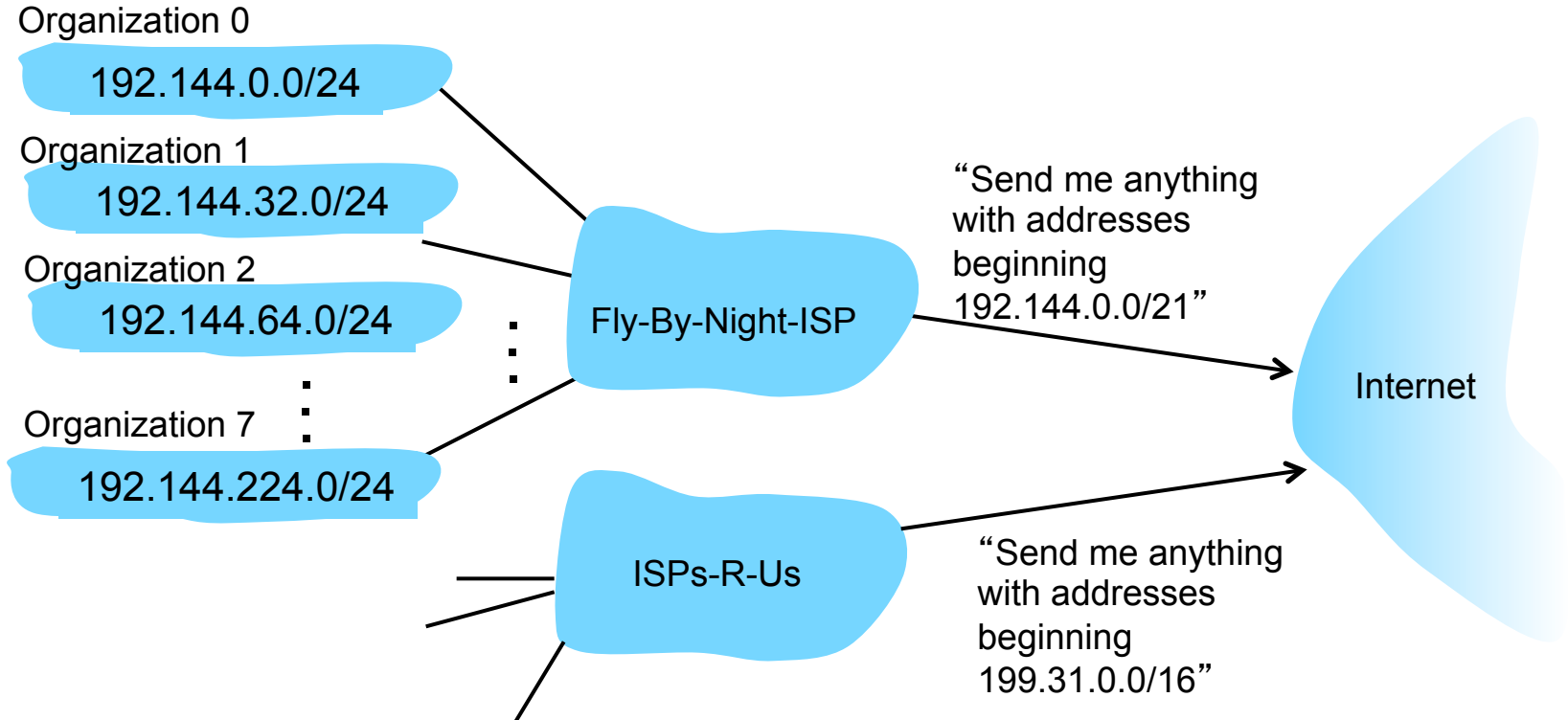
200.23.16.0/21	0
200.23.24.0/24	1
Otherwise	2

## Longest Prefix Match

- In the previous example, assume the site has 8 /24 networks with 254 hosts each
  - We only need one entry to route to these 8 networks
- If one of the 8 networks moves to a new ISP, can add a more specific entry **192.144.32.0/24**
  - In addition to the single **192.144.0.0/21** entry
- **Longest prefix match**. When both entries apply, use the one with longest prefix
  - Thus /24 is used. This way the packet is routed correctly to the new ISP

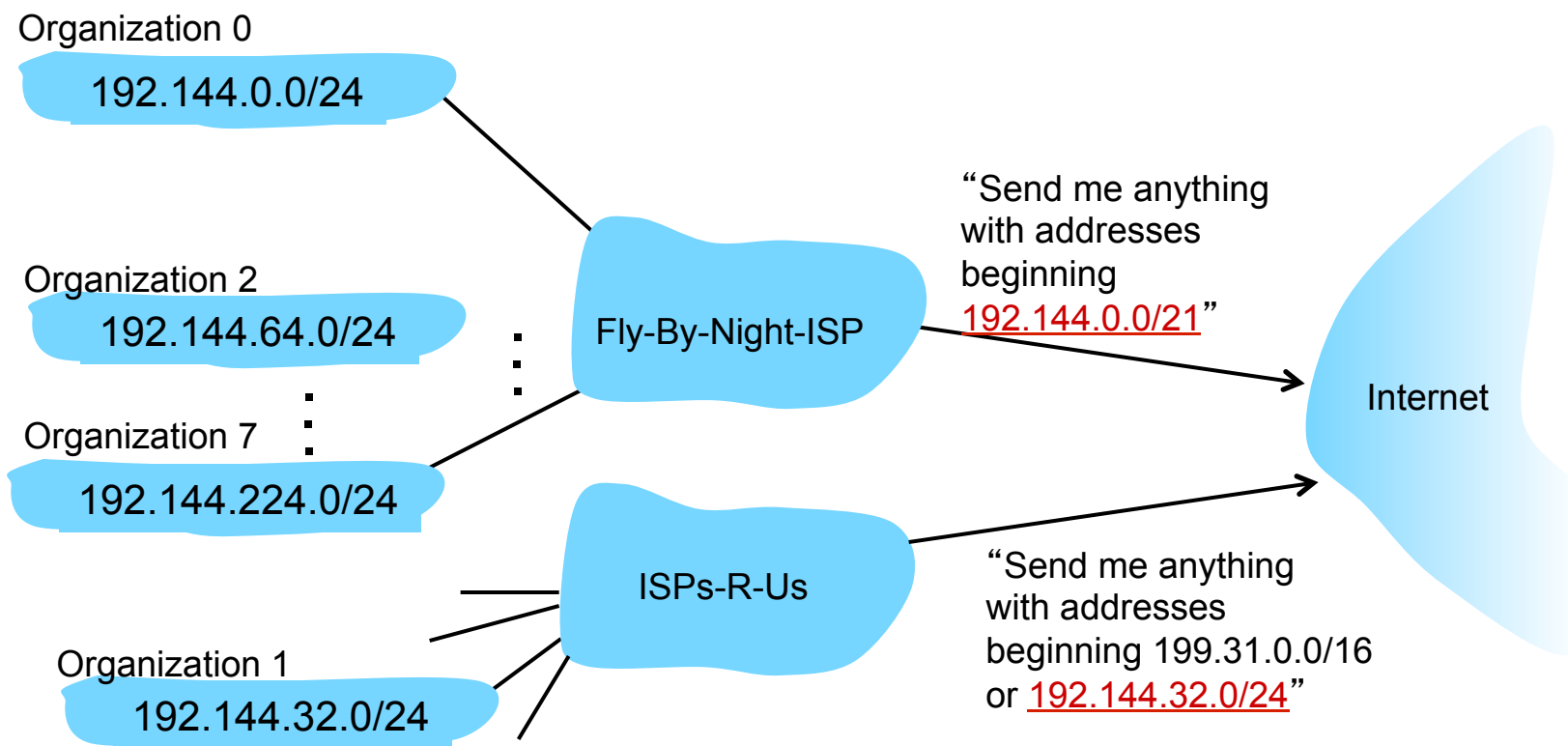
# Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



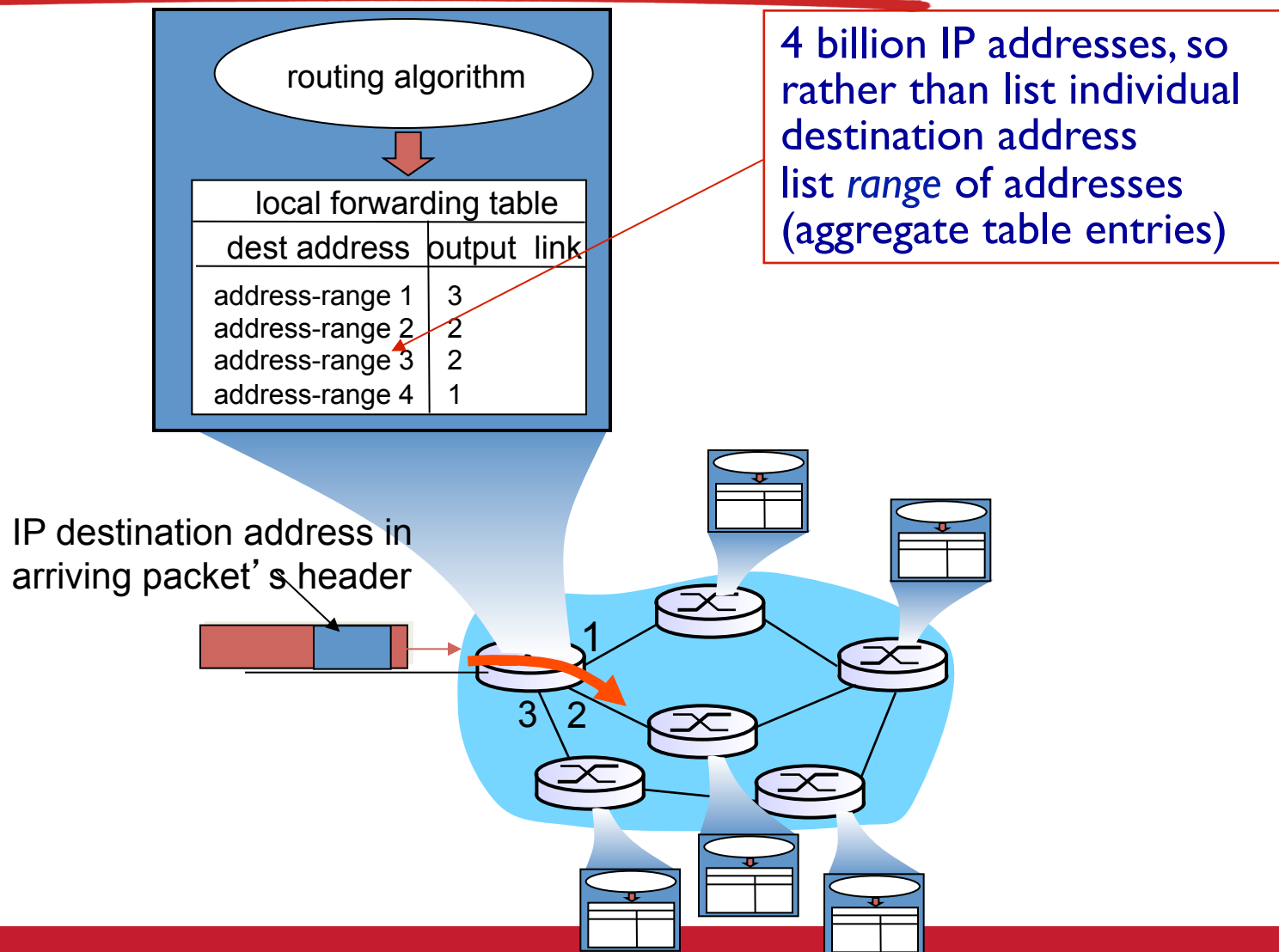
# Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

ISPs-R-U has a more specific route to Organization 1





# Datagram forwarding table



# Longest prefix matching

## *longest prefix matching*

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *****	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *****	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *****	2
otherwise	3

examples:

DA: 11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001

which interface?

DA: 11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010

which interface?

# Human-Understandable Addressing

## Hostname and Ports

- **Hostname:** IP addresses are hard to remember. Thus we name our machines
  - Hostnames generally managed by a transport layer protocol called Domain Name Service (DNS)
- DNS maps human-readable names to IP addresses

\$ host www.cs.stonybrook.edu

www.cs.stonybrook.edu is an alias for www.cs.sunysb.edu.

www.cs.sunysb.edu has address 130.245.27.2

# Human-Understandable Addressing

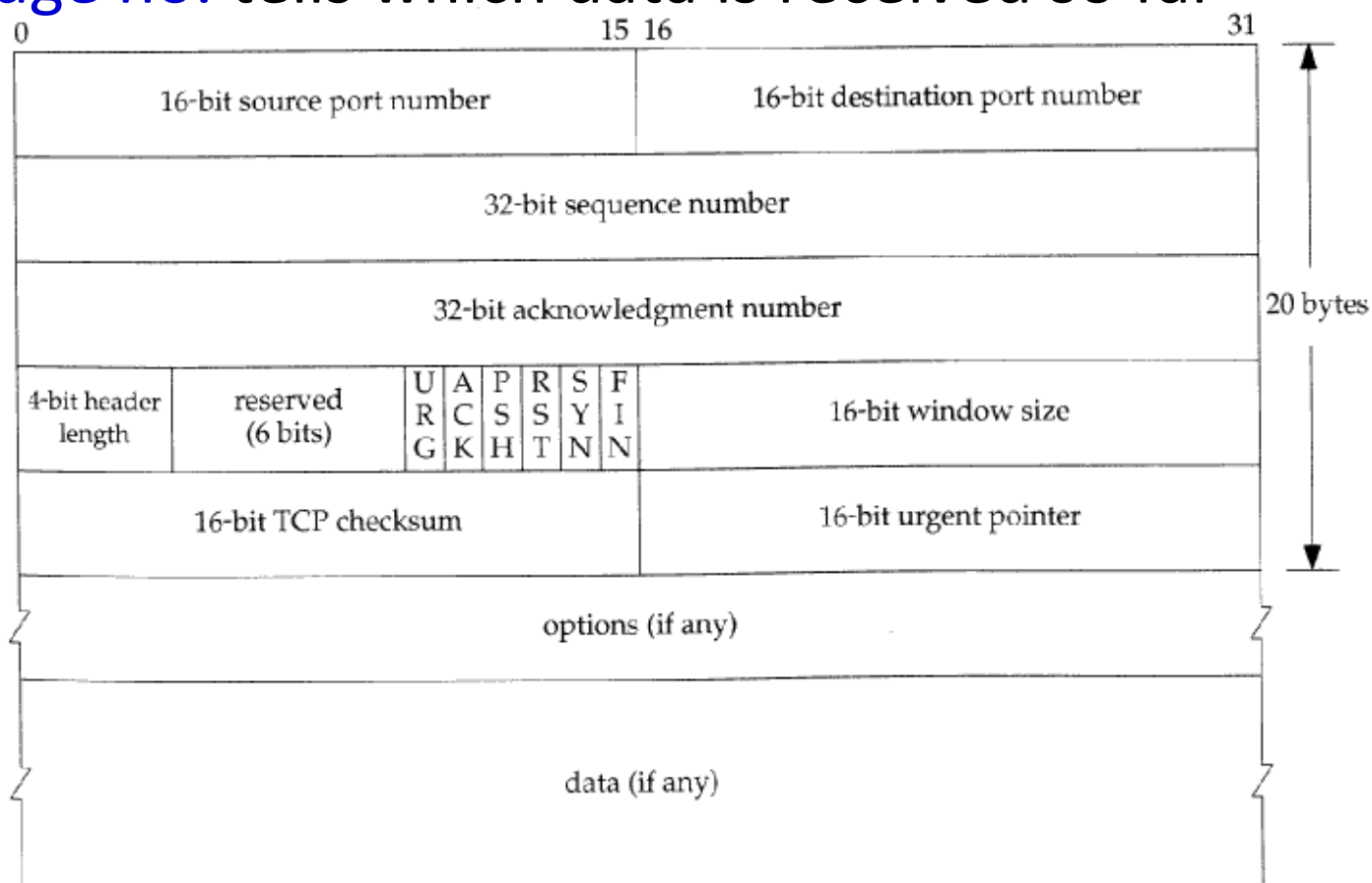
## Hostname and Ports

- **Ports:** an IP address leads packets to a machine. A port number leads packets to a process or service. 80 for Web, 25 for email, 20/21 for ftp ...
  - Ports are a TCP/UDP abstraction for a specific application/protocol
  - Where are ports in packets? They are in the transport segment header.
  - 16 bits to encode ports. How many ports overall possible?  $2^{16}$ . Some are well-known. Some not. See <http://iana.org/assignments/port-numbers>

# TCP Segment Header

- E.g., sequence no. tells which data is in payload;  
acknowledge no. tells which data is received so far

**Minimum**  
(20 bytes)



# What does each protocol do?

- HTTP: requests and serves web pages
- FTP: requests and serves files
- **TCP**: reliable, full-duplex, flow-controlled, error-corrected conversations
- UDP: unverified, one-way data delivery
- **IP**: routing packets from source machine to destination machines
- Ethernet: communication between adjacent nodes

To do these jobs, headers are added

# TCP/IP Protocols

A suite of protocols. Each defined by one or more RFCs. Some major ones:

- **IP**: Internet Protocol. RFC791
- **ICMP**: Internet Control Message Protocol. RFC792
- **ARP**: Address Resolution Protocol. RFC826
- **UDP**: User Datagram Protocol. RFC768
- **TCP**: Transmission Control Protocol. RFC793