## 5.6 Examples: IP, IPv6, ATM

### **IP (Internet Protocol)**

Protocol of layer 3 in the Internet.

- A datagram protocol (connectionless)
- Implements routing in the internet
- Handles fragmentation of large packets: large service datagrams can be "fragmented" into smaller protocol datagrams.
- Doesn't do much more!

Note: If we say "IP" here, we refer to IP version 4. IP version 6 is discussed later.

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# Format of IP Datagrams (1)

0 4	4 8	3 1	16 -	19 2	24 31		
VERS	LEN	TYPE OF SERVICE	TOTAL LENGTH				
	IDE	NT	FRAGMEN	T OFFSET			
тп	ME	PROTO	PROTO HEADER CHECKSUM				
SOURCE IP ADDRESS							
		DESTINATION IP	ADDRESS				
		OPTIONS			PADDING		
DATA							

### Format of IP Datagrams (2)

VERS	Protocol version
LEN	Length of the header (words)
TYPE OF SERVICE	QoS (Priority and D/T/R)
TOTAL LENGTH	Length incl. data in Bytes
IDENT	Identity of the datagram
FLAGS	"don't fragment/ last fragment"
FRAGMENT OFFSET	Offset of this part
TIME	Life span in seconds ("time to live")
PROTO	Type of the higher protocol
HEADER CHECKSUM	EXOR of header words
SOURCE ADDRESS	IP address of source host
DEST ADDRESS	IP address of target host
OPTIONS	Command code for network management datagrams
PADDING	Fill up to word limit
DATA	Use data field

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# Addressing in the Internet (1)

An IP address is a hierarchical address with net and host identification number (netid and hostid). There are three formats for subnetworks of different sizes as well as one format for multicast:

	0 1	8	1	6 2	4	31
class A	0 NetID			HostID		
class B	1 0	NetID		Ho	stID	
class C	1 1 0		NetID		HostID	
class D	1 1 1 0		Gr	oup address		

# Addressing in the Internet (2)

Strangely common is a decimal way of writing with one number per byte. Example:

10.0.0.0	for Arpanet
128.10.0.0	for a large Ethernet LAN
192.5.48.0	for a small ring LAN

(hostid = 0 marks a network of one host)



# **Address Resolution in the LAN**

#### Problem

How is a computer's Internet address (IP address) mapped to its MAC layer address (IEEE 802 address)?

#### Solution

Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)

### **Address Resolution Protocol ARP (1)**

#### **Protocol in the router**

- Send an ARP Request packet by means of broadcast on the LAN, which contains the physical address (802.2) and the IP address of the transmitter and the IP address of the wanted receiver.
- Wait for the ARP Reply packet, which contains its physical address.
- Maintain a cache of (IP, 802.2) address pairs for later inquiries.

Improvement: The receiver of an ARP request also caches the (IP, 802.2) address pair of the transmitter.

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# **Address Resolution Protocol ARP (2)**

#### Flow of the ARP protocol in the LAN

"IP address B, request report"



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# **IP Version 6 (IPv6)**

#### **Motivation: Addressing problems**

- IP address range will be exhausted soon.
- Class B addresses now are already almost exhausted.
- CIDR (classless inter-domain routing) was introduced as a short-term solution
- Routing tables grow very fast: an addressing hierarchy with additional levels becomes necessary.
- (mobile) Internet devices in cars, households etc..

 $\rightarrow$  10 billion humans in the year 2020 and 100 IP addresses per person are not unrealistic.

#### **Solution**

New IP protocol version 6 (IPv6) with a larger address range is to replace IPv4.

\*) I would like to thank Professor Torsten Braun (University of Bern) for letting me use his slides on IPv6.



# **History of IPv6**

#### 1992

IETF publishes Call for Proposals for an "IP next generation" (IPng) as successor of  $\ensuremath{\mathsf{IPv4}}$ 

#### 1994

SIPP (simple Internet Protocol plus) is suggested as basis for the new IPng

#### 1995

Internet Draft "Internet Protocol, version 6 (IPv6)" becomes "Proposed standard" (9/95) and RFC1883 (12/95). First prototype implementations.

#### 1996

Establishment of the IPv6 Backbones (6Bone) between research labs, first products in the market.

#### 1998

RFC 2460, Draft Standard

#### 2004

Implemented in many products but not yet widely deployed by ISPs.

### **Characteristics of IPv6 (1)**

#### **Extended addressing capabilities**

- 128 bit addresses (one address per atom in the universe, 10<sup>23</sup> addresses per m<sup>2</sup> of earth's surface)
- Address hierarchy levels for IP (registration instance, provider, subscriber, subnetwork, interface)
- automatic address configuration built into protocol (similar to DHCP)

#### **New IP Header Format**

- simplified, minimum IP header
- improved support of new options and extensions: Extension header
- segmenting and reassembling fragments is done in end systems only

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# **Characteristics of IPv6 (2)**

#### **Quality of Service Support**

- "Flow Labels" allow marking of application data flows on the IP level
- "Traffic Classes" for Differentiated Services

#### **Multicast Integration**

- pre-defined groups of multicast for control functions
- IGMP (Internet Group Management Protocol) integrated in ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol)
- special multicast address format
- All routers and final systems support multicast, so that no special measures are necessary for multicast connections (e.g. tunnels) any more.

#### **IP Security**

Authentification and encryption are integrated.

### **Global Unicast Addresses**

### **Top Level Aggregation (TLA)**

 large internet service provider (ISPs) with transit networks to which other ISPs are attached

### **Next Level Aggregation (NLA)**

- Organizations on a lower level
- several NLA levels are possible

### Site Level Aggregation (SLA)

• individual addressing hierarchy of an individual organization

_ 3	13	8	Public topology 24		Location topology	<u>16</u>		
001	TLA ID	res.	NLA ID		SLA ID			
			Interface ID					
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### **Special Unicast Addresses (1)**

#### **Local Unicast Addresses**

- Link local
  - · for configuration purposes or IP networks without a router
  - Prefix: 111111101::/64
- Location local
  - · for IP networks that are not attached to the Internet
  - when connecting a location to the global Internet only the address prefix (1111111011::/48) must be replaced
  - · SLA ID and interface ID remain unchanged

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### **Special Unicast Addresses (2)**

#### **Compatible Unicast Addresses**

- IPv4 compatible
  - Prefix (96 0-bits) + IPv4 address
- IPv4 mapped
  - Prefix (80 0-bits, 16 1-bits) + IPv4 address
- IPX compatible

# **IPv4 Header**

#### 20 Bytes, 13 fields

#### cancelled

#### renamed

Cancelled

shifted into the extension header

- precedence → class
  total length → payload length
- time to live  $\rightarrow$  hop limit
- protocol  $\rightarrow$  next header

Version	Hdr Len	Prece- dence	ToS		Total Length				
Identification									
Time 1	Time To Live Protocol				Header Checksum				
	Source Address								
	Destination Address								
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# **IPv6 Header**

#### 40 Bytes, 8 fields

Vers.	Class	Flow Label					
	Payload Length		Next Header	Hop Limit			
Source Address							
Destination Address							

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### **Concept of Extension Headers**

#### **Small Standard Header and Extension Header**

- small minimal header of constant size
- additional extension headers, depending on the requirements of the application or the network characteristics
- future extensions and options can be added easily

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# Examples of Extension Headers

IPv6 Header next header = TCP	TCP Header + Data		
IPv6 Header next header = Routing	Routing Header next header = TCP	TCP Header + Data	
IPv6 Header next header = Routing	Routing Header next header = Fragment	Fragment Header, next header = TCP	TCP Header + Data

### **Stateless Automatic Address Configuration**



The router periodically broadcasts **IP parameters** to the multicast group of *all* hosts ("Router Advertisement"), e. g. the prefix of the local link.

Each host can send a "Router Solicitation" to the multicast group of all routers, it will be followed by a direct answer of the router.

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### **Transition Strategies**

IPv4 and IPv6 systems must be able to communicate with each other. After a transitional phase only a few pure IPv4 systems should remain.

#### **Basis mechanisms**

- Dual protocol stacks
- IPv6 over IPv4 Tunneling

The IPv6/IPv4 header translation is necessary only for communication between pure IPv4 nodes and pure IPv6 nodes.

#### More complex mechanisms

- Stateless IP/ICMP Translation (SIIT)
- No Network Address Translation (NNAT)
- Network Address Translation / Protocol Translation (NAT/PT)



# **Dual Protocol Stacks**

#### **Dual protocol stacks**

- UDP/IPv4 and UDP/IPv6
- TCP/IPv4 and TCP/IPv6

All IPv6 systems will also have an IPv4 stack during the transition phase.

Applications				
	Socket I	nterface		
UDP for IPv4	TCP for IPv4	UDP for IPv6	TCP for IPv6	
		IPv	/6	
	Netv	work		
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An IPv6 address is built on basis of the old IPv4 address.

Used by IPv6 systems for communication with other IPv6 systems via automatic tunnels.

Only useful in the early transition phase; the advantages of IPv6 addressing are lost.

### Tunneling

**Tunneling** is the wrapping of an IP packet into another IP packet with a new destination IP address. At the end of the tunnel, the internal IP packet is unwrapped again. In this way, the original IP packet can "tunnel" subnetwork distances, which it could not pass otherwise.

IP tunnels are usually configured manually.

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IPv6 Tunnels





Communication of IPv6 systems with IPv4 systems.

The "IPv4 mapped" address indicates that the IP destination system does not support IPv6. Therefore the IPv4 protocol stack will be selected there.



# Stateless IP/ICMP Translation (SIIT)

- Requires dynamic allocation of IPv4 addresses!
- Supports communication between pure IPv6 systems and pure IPv4 systems.
- Stateless translation of IPv4/IPv6 and ICMPv4/ICMPv6 packets
- No translation of Routing Headers, Hop-by-Hop options and destination options.

### **Illustration of SIIT**



### **Effects of IPv6 on other Protocols**

#### **Routing Protocols**

• Handling of longer addresses

#### **Transport Protocols**

- Reduced maximum user data length because of the larger IP header.
- The fact that there is no checksum in the IPv6 header requires the implementation of the checksum in UDP (now mandatory) and TCP.
- TCP currently does not support an IP address change during an existing TCP connection.

### ATM (Asynchronous Transfer Mode)

#### **Basics**

- Goal: one network for all kinds of applications
- A fast packet switching technology for **cells** of fixed size (53 bytes).
- Based on asynchronous (statistic) time-division multiplexing; thus the name ATM.
- Connection-oriented. Provides virtual paths and virtual circuits.
- In order to achieve high cell rates, the implementation of ATM switches is largely based on hardware.
- Removal of error detection and correction, flow control, etc. from the cell switching layer, placement in higher adaptation layers if needed
- Offers a broad spectrum of data rates and fulfills a broad spectrum of application requirements.

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# Synchronous vs. Asynchronous Time Multiplexing



# **Switching Technology**

#### Function of a switch, abstract



# **Space Division Switch**

N lines in



N lines out

Disadvantages of matrix implementation:

- number of crosspoints grows with N<sup>2</sup>.
- defective crosspoints makes a certain connection impossible.
- low utilization of the crosspoints (maximum N from N<sup>2</sup> in use).

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### **Multi-stage Space Division Switches**



#### **Advantages**

- Smaller number of interconnection points
- Several alternative paths for the connection of an input port to an output port; thus higher reliability

#### **Disadvantages**

 Congestion can occur: no connection possble between input port and output port. In the example above: cannot connect i<sub>9</sub> with o<sub>4</sub> or o<sub>6</sub>.

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### **TDM on the Line and Switching Technology**

#### One can differentiate conceptionally:

- Synchronous and asynchronous multiplexing on the transmission line
- Synchronous and asynchronous switching techniques in the switching node

# **Synchronous Time Multiplexing**

### Synchronous Time Division Multiplexing (STM)



We observe: For **STM lines**, switching simply means a re-ordering of the time slots!

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# **Transmission and Switching for Synchronous TDM**



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### Switch With An Internal TDM Bus (1)

- Use of STM on a fast bus inside the cell switch
- At a given time an input port and an output port are connected to the bus for a short period of time.
- Line buffers are used for speed adjustment between slow external lines and the faster TDM bus.
- Disadvantage: The internal bus must be as fast as the sum of all active connections at a time.

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> TDM-Bus

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### Switch with an Internal TDM Bus (2)



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# Switching with Internal Switching Memory

#### "Time Slot Interchange"



# **Virtual Circuits and Virtual Paths in ATM**

#### Virtual Circuit (VC):

• virtual connection between ATM terminal devices over several hops

#### Virtual Path (VP):

VCs bundled on hops



# **ATM Cell Formats**



### Schematic Diagram of an ATM Cell Switching Node



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# **ATM Adaptation Layer**



adaptation/convergence protocol

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# **ATM Service Classes**

	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D
Synch	isochro	nous	asyn	chronous
Bit rate	constant		variable	
Connection mode	con	nection-orien	connection-less	
Applications	emulation of synchronous services (ISDN)	variable bitrate video (MPEG,)	connection- oriented data communicaion	connection- less data communicaion

# **ATM Adaptation Layers**

- AAL1: Constant Bit Rate (CBR) with synchronisation
- AAL2: Variable Bit Rate (VBR)
- AAL3/4: for data traffic, predominantly in public networks
- AAL5: standard AAL for data traffic

AALs describe end-to-end protocols. Further AALs can be defined as needed, without changes to the ATM cell switching layer.

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# **ATM Traffic Classes**

#### **UBR: Unspecified Bitrate**

- For data applications, uses available (remaining) bandwidth
- No "admission control" and on "Policing"
- High cell losses at overload

#### **CBR: Constant Bitrate**

- For "Circuit Emulation Services" with fixed PCR, CTD, CDV
- Minimal cell losses

#### **VBR: Variable Bit Rate**

For example for compressed video streams with variable bit rate

#### **ABR: Available Bitrate**

- Reliable transmission for data applications
- Implements a flow control in the ATM network

### **ATM Traffic Contract**

- With the establishment of the connection the user and the network close a "traffic contract".
- The user supplies the traffic specified with connection establishment (traffic description)
- The user specifies the service qualities desired for this description of traffic (*QoS: Quality of service*)
- The network verifies whether specified traffic with the desired quality can still be transported (*admission control*)
- During the connection the network controls the adherence of the traffic description at the network entrance (UPC : usage parameters control or source policing)
- Non-compliant cells are:
  - · labeled with CLP=1 at the network entrance
  - Cells with CLP=1 are discarded during overload times, at the network entrance or inside the network.

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# **Traffic Parameter**

#### **Traffic Description**

- PCR: Peak Cell Rate (cells/s)
- SCR: Sustainable Cell Rate (cells/s)
- **MBS**: Maximum Burst Size (cells), also specified as **BT**: Burst Tolerance = (MBS-1)/(1/SCR-1/PCR)
- MCR: Minimum Cell Rate (only for ABR)

#### **Quality of Service Description (QoS-Parameter)**

- CLR: Cell Loss Ratio (Number of lost cells/number of sent cells)
- **CTD**: Cell Transfer Delay (from the network entrance to the delivery at the receiver)
- CDV: Cell Delay Variation (CTD variance) (Delay Jitter)

### **Traffic Shaping**

The ATM terminal equipment (end system) shapes the data traffic in order to keep the traffic contract ("**traffic shaping**").



# Traffic Shaping: The "Leaky Bucket" Algorithm



# Allocation of Bandwidth for the ATM Traffic Classes

