Primer IP Technology

L2 Ethernet Switching versus L3 routing IP Protocol, IP Addressing, IP Forwarding ARP and ICMP IP Routing, OSPF Basics First Hop Redundancy (HSRP)

Agenda

- L2 versus L3 Switching
- IP Protocol, IP Addressing
- IP Forwarding
- ARP and ICMP
- IP Routing
- First Hop Redundancy

Review Packet Switching



 Decision about where to forward is based on tables

Bridging (Ethernet Switching) versus IP Routing



Bridging is

- Connectionless packet switching on OSI layer
 2 using unique but unstructured MAC addresses without any topology information
- Signpost in the MAC address table
- Routing is
 - Connectionless packet switching on OSI layer
 3 using unique and structured addresses which contain topology information
 - Signpost in the routing table

IP Technology

IP (Internet Protocol)

- Packet switching technology
 - Packet switch is called router or gateway (IETF terminology)
 - End system is called IP host
 - Structured layer 3 address (IP address)

Datagram service

- Connectionless
 - Datagrams are sent without establishing a connection in advance
- Best effort delivery
 - Datagrams may be discarded due to transmission errors or network congestion

IP Datagram Service



IP and OSI Network Layer 3

Layer 3 Protocol = IP Layer 3 Routing Protocols = RIP, OSPF, EIGRP, BGP



Example Topology for Review Bridging



Frame MAC A to MAC D (1)



Frame MAC A to MAC D (2)



Frame MAC A to MAC D (3)



Frame MAC A to MAC D (4)



Frame MAC C to MAC D (1)



Frame MAC C to MAC D (2)



Frame MAC C to MAC D (3) Takes Same Path as Frame from MAC A to MAC D -> No Load Distribution



Frame MAC C to MAC D (4)



Requirements for Routing

Consistent layer-3 functionality

- For entire transport system
- From one end-system over all routers in between to the other end-system
- Hence routing is not protocol-transparent
 - all elements must speak the same "language"

End-system

- Must know about default router
- On location change, end-system must adjust its layer 3 address

• To keep the routing tables consistent

 Routers must exchange information about the network topology by using <u>routing-protocols</u> or network administrator has to configure static routes in all routers

Routing Facts

In contrast to bridges

- Router maintains only the Net-ID of the layer 3 addresses in its routing table
- The routing table size is direct proportional to the number of Net-IDs and not to the number of end-systems

Transport on a given subnet

- Still relies on layer 2 addresses
- End systems forward data packets for remote destinations
 - To a selected router (default gateway, default router) using the router's MAC-address as destination
 - Only these (unicast MAC addressed) packets must be processed by the router

Routing Facts

- L2 Broadcast/multicast-packets in the particular subnet
 - Are blocked by the router so L2 broad/multicast traffic on the subnets doesn't stress WAN connections
- Independent of layer 1, 2
 - so coupling of heterogeneous networks is possible
- Routers can use redundant paths
 - meshed topologies are usual
- Routers can use parallel paths for load balancing

Example Topology for Intro Routing



Packet 1.1 to 3.1 (1)



Packet 1.1 to 3.1 (2)



Packet 1.1 to 3.1 (3)



Packet 2.1 to 3.1 (1)



Packet 2.1 to 3.1 (2)



Packet 2.1 to 3.1 (3) Takes Different Path as Packet from 1.1 to 1.3 -> Load Distribution



Packet 2.1 to 3.1 (3)



Bridging versus Routing



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Bridging versus Routing

Bridging

No LAN/WAN coupling because of high traffic (broadcast domain!)

Routing

Does not stress WAN with subnet's L2 broad- or multicasts; commonly used as "gateway"



Paths selected by STP may not match communication behavior/needs of end systems



Faster, because implemented in HW; no address resolution



Router knows best way for every destination a packet is sent for



Slower, because usually implemented in SW; address resolution (ARP) necessary; hardware-optimization overcomes this nowadays



Location change of an end-system does not require updating any addresses



Location change of an end-system requires adjustment of layer 3 address



Routing-protocols necessary to determine network topology, modern link-state routing has network topology database in router and hence a global view

Datagram Service Principles

Connectionless service

- Packets can be sent without establishing a logical connection between end systems in advance
- Packets have no sequence numbers
- They are called "Datagrams"
- Every incoming datagram
 - Is processed independently regarding to all other datagrams by the packet switches
- The forwarding decision for incoming packets
 - Depends on the current state of the routing table
- Each packet contains
 - Complete address information (source and destination)

Packet forwarding (CL) is based on routing tables <u>only</u> (Datagram Service, Best-Effort Service)



Datagrams are forwarded completely independent from each other based on current state of routing tables



Best-Effort Service



Datagram Service Facts (1)

Packets may be discarded / dropped by packet switches

- In case of network congestion
- In case of transmission errors

Best effort service

- Transport of packets depends on available resources

• The end systems may take responsibility

- For error recovery (retransmission of dropped or corrupted packets)
- For sequencing and handling of duplicates

Reliable data transport requires good transport layer

- "Dumb network, smart hosts"

Rerouting – Sequencing Not Guaranteed !



Datagram forwarding needs a kill-mechanism to overcome inconsistent routing tables



IP Technology Primer, v6.4
Datagram Service Facts (2)

- Rerouting in case of topology changes or load balancing means
 - Packets with the same address information can take different paths to destination
 - Packets may arrive out of sequence

Sequence not guaranteed

- Rerouting on topology change
- Load sharing on redundant paths
- End stations must care
- Delivery of packets is not guaranteed by the network, must be handled by end systems using higher layer protocol

TCP/IP Protocol Suite

| Application | si | МТР | HTTP HTTPS | FTP | Telnet SSH | DNS | DHCP (BootP) | Т | FTP | etc. | | | |
|--------------|----|--|---------------|------------|----------------|-----|------------------------------------|---|-----|-----------------|--|--|--|
| Presentation | (| (US-ASCII and MIME) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Session | | (RPC) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Transport | (Т | TCP (Transmission Control Protocol) | | | | | UDP (User Datagram Protocol) | | | RIP OSPF BGP | | | |
| Network | | ICMP IP (Internet Protocol) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Link | | IP transmission over | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Physical | | ATN RFC 14 | 1 IE 483 R | 25 1356 | FR RFC 1490 | | PPP RFC 1661 | | | | | | |

TCP/IP Technology

- Shared responsibility between network and end systems
 - Routers responsible for delivering datagrams to remote networks based on structured IP address
 - IP hosts responsible for end-to-end control

End to end control

- Is implemented in upper layers of IP hosts
- TCP (Transmission Control Protocol)
 - Connection oriented
 - Sequencing, windowing
 - Error recovery by retransmission
 - Flow control between end systems

Layer 4 Protocol = TCP (Connection-Oriented)



UDP (User Datagram Protocol)

- UDP is a connectionless layer 4 service (datagram service)
- Layer 3 Functions are extended by port addressing and a checksum to ensure integrity
- UDP uses the same port numbers as TCP (if applicable)
- Less complex than TCP, easier to implement

Layer 4 Protocol = UDP (Connectionless)



DoD 4-Layer Model (Internet)







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- L2 versus L3 Switching
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- IP Routing
- First Hop Redundancy

IP Protocol Functions

Packet forwarding

Based on network addressing (Net-IDs)

Error detection

- Packet header only

Fragmentation and reassembly

- Necessary, if a datagram has to pass a network with a smaller maximum frame size
- MTU (Maximum Transmission Unit)
- Reassembly is done at the receiver

Mechanisms to limit the lifetime of a datagram

 To omit an endless circulating of datagrams if routing loops occur in the network



The IP Address

- Identifies access to a network (network interface)
- Two level hierarchy:
 - Network number (Net-ID)
 - Host number (Host-ID)
- Dotted Decimal Notation

Decimal Representation *per byte*:



Binary versus Decimal Notation



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IP Address Classes

Originally border between Net-ID and Host-ID was identified by ranges within the IP address room -> address classes -> *"First Octet Rule"*



Border between Net-ID and Host-ID of an IP address is identified

- by Subnetmask
- Subnetmask
 - is either written in IP address style e.g. 255.255.0.0
 - or given by prefix / length notation e.g. 10.3.0.0 / 16

Classless Routing

- No interpretation of old IP address classes A, B, C
- Modern IP routing protocols can carry subnetmask
 - hence no classless routing limitations anymore
- VLSM (Variable Length Subnet Mask)
- Address room can be managed in the most flexible way

Subnetting Example

Class B Address: 172.16.1.5, Subnet Mask: 255.255.255.0

Alternative (prefix/length) notation: 172.16.1.5 / 24



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Possible Subnet Mask Values

$$2^7$$
 2^6 2^5 2^4 2^3 2^2 2^1 2^0



Special Addresses

- All ones in the Host-ID represents "IP Directed-Broadcast" (10.255.255.255)
- All ones in the Net-ID and Host-ID represents "IP Limited Broadcast" (255.255.255.255)
- All zeros in the Host-ID represents the "Network-Address" (10.0.0.0)
- Network 127.x.x is reserved for "Loopback"
- All zeros in the Net-ID and Host-ID means
 - This host on this network (0.0.0.0)
 - Used during initialization phase (e.g. DHCP)
 - Host uses IP for communication with DHCP server but has no IP address assigned so far

Private Addresses / NAT

Address range for private use

- 10.0.0.0 10.255.255.255
- 172.16.0.0 172.31.255.255
- 192.168.0.0 192.168.255.255
- RFC 1918

NAT (Network Address Translation)

- Is necessary to connect IP hosts with private addresses
 via NAT Gateway to Internet which needs official IP
 addresses
- NAT static 1:1 mapping
- NAT dynamic n:1 mapping with PAT
 - (UDP/TCP) port address translation
 - 1 official (global routable) IP address may be shared by many internal private stations

Net-ID Addressing Example



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IP Limited Broadcast



IP Directed Broadcast



Subnet Example 1

"Use the class A network 10.0.0.0 and 8 bit subnetting"

- 1) That is: 10.0.0.0 with 255.255.0.0 (pseudo class B) or 10.0.0.0/16
- 2) Resulting subnetworks:



Class A address

Subnet mask 255.255.0.0 IP- Address 10.3.49.45 ? Net-ID, ? Host-ID

> **Net-ID = 10.3.0.0** Host-ID = 0.0.49.45

65534 IP hosts range: 10.3.0.1 -> 10.3.255.254 10.3.0.0 -> network itself 10.3.255.255 -> directed broadcast for this network

Class B address

Subnet mask 255.255.255.192

- IP- Address 172.16.3.144
- ? Net-ID, ? Host-ID

| address binary | 10101110 . | . 00010000 | • | 0000011 . | 10010000 |
|----------------|------------|------------|---|-----------|----------|
| mask (binary) | 11111111 . | . 11111111 | • | 11111111. | 11000000 |

logical AND (bit by bit)

net-id 10101100 . 00010000 . 00000011 . 10000000

Net-ID = 172.16.3.128 Host-ID = 0.0.0.16

"Use the class B network 175.32.0.0 and 4 bit subnetting"

- 1) That is: 175.32.0.0 with 255.255.240.0 or 175.32.0.0/20
- 2) Resulting subnetworks:



"Use the class C network 201.64.1.0 and 6 bit subnetting"

- 1) That is: 201.64.1.0 with 255.255.255.252 or 201.64.1.0/30
- 2) Resulting subnetworks:



Variable Length Subnetting (VLSM)

- Remember:
 - IP-routing is only possible between different "IP-Networks = Net-IDs"
 - Every link must have an IP net-ID
- Today IP addresses are rare!
- The assignment of IP-Addresses must be as efficient as possible!



Example VLSM



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VLSM Example (1)

• First step 6 bit subnetting of 172.16.0.0

- 172.16.0.0 with 255.255.252.0 (172.16.0.0 / 22)

- Subnetworks:

- 172.16.0.0
- 172.16.4.0
- 172.16.8.0
- 172.16.12.0
- 172.16.16.0

.

- 172.16.248.0
- 172.16.252.0

- Subnetworks are capable of addressing 1022 IP systems

VLSM Example (2)

Next step sub-subnetting

- Basic subnet 172.16.4.0 255.255.252.0 (172.16.4.0 / 22)
- Sub-subnetworks with mask 255.255.255.252 (/ 30):
 - 172.16.4.0 / 30
 - 172.16.4.4 / 30
 - 172.16.4.4 net-ID
 - 172.16.4.5 first IP host of subnet 172.16.4.4
 - 172.16.4.6 last IP host of subnet 172.16.4.4
 - 172.16.4.7 directed broadcast of subnet 172.16.4.4
 - 172.16.4.8 / 30
 - 172.16.4.12 / 30
 - •
 - 172.16.4.252 / 30

Sub-subnetworks capable of addressing 2 IP systems

VLSM Example (3)

Next step sub-subnetting

- Basic subnet 172.16.8.0 255.255.252.0 (172.16.8.0 / 22)
- Sub-subnetworks with mask 255.255.255.0 (/ 24):
 - 172.16.8.0 / 24
 - 172.16.9.0 / 24
 - 172.16.9.0 net-ID
 - 172.16.9.1 first IP host of subnet 172.16.9.0
 - 172.16.9.254 last IP host of subnet 172.16.9.0
 - 172.16.9.255 directed broadcast of subnet 172.16.9.0
 - 172.16.10.0 / 24

• 172.16.11.0 / 24

- Sub-subnetworks capable of addressing 254 IP systems

VLSM Example (4)

- No sub-subnetting for basic subnet 172.16.12.0
 - 172.16.12.0 with 255.255.252.0 (172.16.12.0 / 22)
 - 172.16.12.0 net-ID

- 172.16.12.1 first IP host of subnet 172.16.12.0
- 172.16.15.254 last IP host of subnet 172.16.12.0
- 172.16.15.255 directed broadcast of subnet 172.16.12.0

Subnetwork capable of addressing 1022 IP systems

Agenda

- L2 versus L3 Switching
- IP Protocol, IP Addressing
- IP Forwarding
- ARP and ICMP
- IP Routing
- First Hop Redundancy

IP Forwarding Responsibilities

- IP hosts and IP routers take part in this process
 - IP hosts responsible for direct delivery of IP datagram's
 - IP routers responsible for selecting the best path in a meshed network in case of indirect delivery of IP datagram's
 - Decision based on current state of routing table
- Direct versus indirect delivery
 - Depends on destination net-ID
 - Net-ID equal source net-ID -> direct delivery
 - Net-ID unequal source net-ID -> indirect delivery
- IP hosts know about default router aka "Default Gateway"
 - As next hop in case of indirect delivery of IP datagrams
Direct versus Indirect Delivery Default Gateway / Routing Table



Principle

- IP Forwarding is done by routers in case of indirect routing
 - Based on the destination address of a given IP datagram
 - Following the path to the destination hop by hop
- Routing tables
 - Have information about which next hop router a given destination network can be reached
- L2 header must be changed hop by hop
 - If LAN then physical L2 address (MAC addresses) must be adapted for direct communication on LAN
- Mapping between IP and L2 address on LAN
 - Is done by Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)

Example Topology





ARP ... Address Resolution Protocol













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ARP Cache - Final Picture



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IP address

- Identifies the access to a network (interface)
- If the physical network is of point-to-point link to another IP system
 - This IP system can be reached without any further addressing on layer 2

• On a shared media or multipoint-network

Layer 2 addresses are necessary to deliver packets to a specific station using the corresponding L2 technology (LAN, Frame-Relay, ATM ...)

Hence a mapping between IP address and L2 address is needed

ARP (Address Resolution Protocol)

In case of LAN

- The mapping is between MAC- and IP-addresses
- Mapping can be static or dynamic
- ARP protocol is used in case of dynamic mapping
 - RFC 826
 - Defines procedure to request a mapping for a given IP address and stores the result in the so called ARP cache memory
 - ARP cache will be checked first before new requests are sent
 - ARP cache can be refreshed or times out

| preamble | DA | SA | 0x806 | | ARP-N | lessage | CRC |
|--|---|--------------------|------------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------|-------------|------|
| Ethernet II | Frame | | | | | | |
| | | (|) | 8 | 1 | 6 24 | 32 |
| | | Hardware | | Protocol | | | |
| Example ARP Request (Ethernet / IP): | | | hir (Hardware Ad | dr length) (Laye | pin or 3 Addr length) | Operati | ion |
| Hardware: 6 (IEEE802.x) Protocol: 0x0800 (IP) | | | Source Hardware Address | | | | |
| hln: 6 (MAC A pln: 4 (IP Add | ddress in Byt ress in Bytes) | l Bytes) vtes) | Source HW Addr | | Source IP Address | | |
| Operation: 1 (Source HW A | ARP Request |) 0 97 bc 88 f1 | Sour | ce IP Ad | ldress | Dest HW | Addr |
| Source IP Add Dest HW Add | dr: 192.168.1.1 r: hex: ff ff ff ff 192.168.1.254 | f ff ff | Destination Hardware Address | | | | |
| Dest IP Addr: | | | Destination IP Address | | | | |

ARP Request



ARP Reply



Gratuitous ARP for Duplicate Address Check and ARP Cache Refresh



ICMP (RFC 792)

Datagram service of IP

- Best effort -> IP datagrams can be lost
- If network cannot deliver packets the sender must be informed somehow !
 - Reasons: no route, TTL expired, ...

ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol)

 Enhances network reliability and performance by carrying error and diagnostic messages

ICMP must be supported by every IP station

- Implementation differences!
- Analysis of ICMP messages
 - Network management systems or can give valuable hints for the network administrator

ICMP

• Principle of ICMP operation

- IP station (router or destination), which detects any transmission problems, generates an ICMP message
- ICMP message is addressed to the originating station (sender of the original IP packet)

ICMP messages are sent as IP packets

• Protocol field = 1, ICMP header and code in the IP data area

If an IP datagram carrying an ICMP message cannot be delivered

- No additional ICMP error message is generated to avoid an ICMP avalanche
- "ICMP must not invoke ICMP"
 - Exception: PING command (Echo request and echo response)

ICMP Message Types

| 0 | Echo Reply ("Ping Response") |
|-------|--|
| 3 | Destination Unreachable |
| | Reason specified in Code field of ICMP message |
| 4 | Source Quench (decrease data rate of sender) |
| | Theoretical Flow Control Possibility of IP |
| 5 | Redirect (use different router) |
| | More information in Code field of ICMP message |
| 8 | Echo Request ("Ping Request") |
| 11 | Time Exceeded |
| | code = 0 time to live exceeded in transit |
| | code = 1 reassembly timer expired |
| 12 | Parameter Problem (IP header) |
| 13/14 | Time Stamp Request / Time Stamp Reply |
| 15/16 | Information Request / Reply |
| | e.g. finding the Net-ID of the network |
| 17/18 | Address Mask Request / Reply |

Delivery 1.0.0.1 - > 4.0.0.1



ICMP Destination Unreachable (code: network unreachable)



Delivery 1.0.0.1 - > 2.0.0.4



Delivery 1.0.0.1 - > 2.0.0.4



ICMP Destination Unreachable (code: host unreachable)



Ping 1.0.0.1 - > 2.0.0.1



Ping Echo 2.0.0.1 - > 1.0.0.1



Delivery 1.0.0.1 - > 2.0.0.1 (TTL=2)



ICMP TTL exceeded



Traceroute

Using ICMP TTL exceed messages

The current route, a datagram will take through the network, can be find

Just generate IP messages

- With increasing values for TTL
- You will find the route
 - Hop by hop

Two types of messages generated by of trace route CLI commands:

- ICMP-Echo
- UDP

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IP Routing

- Introduction
- OSPF Basics
- OSPF Communication Procedures (Router LSA)
- LSA Broadcast Handling (Flooding)
- OSPF Splitted Area
- Broadcast Networks (Network LSA)

First Hop Redundancy
What is Routing?

- Finding / choosing a path to a destination address
- Direct delivery performed by IP host
 - Destination network = local network
- Indirect delivery performed by router
 - Destination network ≠ local network
 - Datagram is forwarded to default gateway
 - Passed on by the router based on routing table

Routing table

- Database of known destinations
- Signposts leading to next hop

IP, IP Routing Protocol, IP Routing Table

Layer 3 Protocol = IP Layer 3 Routing Protocols = RIP, OSPF, EIGRP, BGP



IP Routing Paradigm

Destination Based Routing

Source address is not taken into account for the forward decision

• Hop by Hop Routing

 IP datagrams follow the path (signpost) given by the current state of routing table entries

Least Cost Routing

- Typically only the best path is considered for forwarding of IP datagrams
- Alternate paths will not be used in order to reach a given destination
 - Note: Some methods allow load balancing if paths are equal

Static versus Dynamic Routing

Static

- Routing tables are preconfigured by network administrator
- <u>Non-responsive</u> to topology changes
- Can be labor intensive to set up and modify in complex networks
- <u>No overhead</u> concerning CPU time and traffic

Dynamic

- Routing tables are dynamically updated with information received from other routers
- <u>Responsive</u> to topology changes
- Low maintenance labor cost
- Communication between routers is done by <u>routing protocols</u> using routing messages for their communication
- Routing messages need a certain percentage of bandwidth
- Dynamic routing need a certain percentage of CPU time of the router
- That means <u>overhead</u>

Routing Table - Dynamic Routing (1)



Routing Table - Dynamic Routing (2)



Routing Table - Dynamic Routing (3)



Dynamic Routing

Basic principle

- Routing tables are dynamically updated with information from other routers exchanged by routing protocols
- Routing protocol
 - Discovers current network topology
 - Determines the best path to every reachable network
 - Stores information about best paths in the routing table
- Metric information is necessary for best path decision
 - In most cases summarization of <u>static</u> preconfigured values along the given path
 - Hops, interface cost, interface bandwidth, interface delay, etc.
- Two basic technologies
 - Distance vector, Link state

Routing Metric

- Routing protocols typically find out more than one route to the destination
- Metric help to decide which path to use
 - Static values
 - Hop count, distance (RIP)
 - Cost like reciprocal value of bandwidth (OSPF)
 - Bandwidth (EIGRP), Delay (EIGRP), MTU
 - Variable or dynamic values
 - Load (EIGRP)
 - Reliability (EIGRP)
 - Very seldom used
 - Cisco citation:

"If you do not know what you are doing do not even think using or touching them!"

Dynamic Routing

 Each router can run one or more routing protocols

Routing protocols

- Are information sources to create routing table
- Announce network reachability information
 - By doing this a router declares that traffic destined to a certain network can be sent to him
 - Network reachability information flows in the opposite direction to the traffic destined to a network

Routing protocols differ in

 Convergence time, loop avoidance, maximum network size, reliability and complexity

| Routing Protocol | Complexity | Max. Size | Convergence Time | Reliability | Protocol Traffic |
|------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| RIP | very simple | 16 Hops | High (minutes) | Not absolutely loop-safe | High |
| RIPv2 | very simple | 16 Hops | High (minutes) | Not absolutely loop-safe | High |
| IGRP | simple | x | High (minutes) | Medium | High |
| EIGRP | complex | x | Fast (seconds) | High | Medium |
| OSPF | very complex | Thousands of Routers | Fast (seconds) | High | Low |
| IS-IS | complex | Thousands of Routers | Fast (seconds) | High | Low |
| BGP-4 | very complex | more than 100,000 networks | Middle | Very High | Low |

Distance Vector Protocols (1)

- After powering-up each router only knows about directly attached networks
- **Routing table** is sent periodically to all neighbor-routers
- Received updates are examined, changes are adopted in own routing table
 - Changes announced by next periodic routing update
- Metric information is based on hops (distance between hops)
 - Hop count metric is a special case for the more generic distance value between two routers
 - Hop count means distance = 1 between any two neighboring routers
- "Bellman-Ford" algorithm

Distance Vector Protocols (2)

Limited view of topology

- Next hop is always originating router
- Topology behind next hop unknown
- Signpost principle
- Loops can occur!

• Additional mechanisms needed

- Maximum hop count
- Split horizon (with poison reverse)
- Triggered update
- Hold down
- Route Poisoning

Distance Vector Protocols (3)

• Examples

- RIP, RIPv2 (Routing Information Protocol)
- IGRP (Cisco, Interior Gateway Routing Protocol)
- IPX RIP (Novell)
- AppleTalk RTMP (Routing Table Maintenance Protocol)

Link State Protocols (1)

- Each two neighbored routers establish adjacency
- Routers learn real topology information
 - Through "Link State Advertisements (LSAs)"
 - Stored in database (Roadmap principle)

Routers have a global view of network topology

- Exact knowledge about all routers, links and their costs (metric) of a network
- Updates only upon topology changes

Propagated by *flooding* of LSAs (very fast convergence)

Link State Protocols (2)

- Routing table entries are calculated by applying the Shortest Path First (SPF) algorithm on the database
 - Loop-safe
 - Only the lowest cost path is stored in routing table
 - But alternative paths are immediately known
 - Could be CPU and memory greedy
 - Mainly a concern in the past
- Large networks can be split into areas

Link State Protocols (3)

With the lack of topology changes

- Local hello messages are used to supervise local links (to test reachability of immediate-neighboring routers)
- Therefore less routing overhead concerning link bandwidth than periodic updates of distance vector protocols

But more network load is caused by such a routing protocol

- During connection of former separated parts of a network
- During topology database synchronization

Link State Protocols (4)

• Examples

- OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)
- Integrated IS-IS (IP world)
 - note: Integrated IS-IS takes another approach to handle large networks (topic outside the scope of this course)
- IS-IS (OSI world)
- PNNI (in the ATM world)
- APPN (IBM world),
- NLSP (Novell world)

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- OSPF Splitted Area
- Broadcast Networks (Network LSA)

First Hop Redundancy

"OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)

• OSPF is a link-state routing protocol

- Inherently fast convergence
- Designed for large networks
- Designed to be reliable

Basic ideas:

- Every router knows topology of the whole network including subnets and routers
 - "Roadmap"
- Topology (roadmap) stored in router's OSPF database
- Shortest Path First (SPF) algorithm applied to find the best path
 - Invented by E. W. Dijkstra
 - Creates a (loop-free) tree with local router as source
 - Is used to find the best path by calculating very efficiently all paths to all destinations at once; best path is entered into the routing table

- Changes are flooded over the network to update the OSPF database

- Like traffic announcements used by car navigation systems
- LSA (Link State Advertisements)

OSPF Topology Database

Every router maintains a topology database

- Like a "network roadmap"
- Describes the whole network !!
 - Note: RIP provides only "signposts"

• Database is based on a graph

- Where each knot (vertex) stands for a router
- Where each edge stands for a subnet
 - Connecting the routers
 - Path-costs are assigned to the edges

Router uses the graph

- To calculate shortest paths to all subnets
 - Router itself is the root of the shortest path

OSPF Domain



Shortest Paths regarding Router R6



Routing Table Router 6

| NET-ID | NEXT HOP | DISTANCE | |
|--|---|---|--|
| NL 110 N1 N2 N3 N4 N6 N7 N8 N9 N10 N11 | R3 R3 R3 R3 R10 R10 R10 R10 R10 R10 R10 R10 R10 | 10 10 7 8 8 12 10 11 13 14 | |
| | | | |

What is **Topology Information**?

- The smallest topological unit is simply the information element ROUTER-LINK-ROUTER
- So the question is: Which router is linked to which other routers?
- Link-state



Agenda

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First Hop Redundancy

 The basic means for creating and maintaining the database are the so-called

Link States

- A link state stands for an intact (synchronized) local neighbourhood between two routers
 - The link state is created by these two routers
 - Other routers are notified about this link state via a special broadcast-mechanism ("traffic-news")
 - Flooding together with sequence numbers stored in topology database
 - Link states are verified continuously

How are Link States used?

- Adjacent routers declare themselves as neighbours by setting the link state up (or down otherwise)
 - The link-state can be checked with hello messages
 - Note: Link state down is no explicitly expressed, it is just the absence of the link to the former neighbour in the LSA announcement
- Every link state change is published to all routers of the OSPF domain using <u>Link State</u> <u>Advertisements (LSAs)</u>
 - Is a broadcast mechanism
 - Whole topology map relies on correct generation and delivery of LSAs
 - Synchronization of a distributed database !!!

OSPF Communication Principle 1

- OSPF messages are transported by IP
 - ip protocol number 89
- During initialization a router sends hellomessages to all directly reachable routers
 - To determine its neighbourhood
 - Can be done automatically in broadcast networks and point-to-point connections by using the IP multicastaddress 224.0.0.5 (all OSPF routers)

 This router also receives hello-messages from other routers

OSPF Communication Principle 2

- Each two acquainted routers send <u>database</u> <u>description messages</u> to each other, in order to publish their topology database
- Unknown or old entries are updated via <u>link state</u> request and <u>link state update</u> messages
 - Which synchronizes the topology databases
- After successful synchronization both routers declare their neighbourhood (adjacency) via <u>router LSA</u>s (using link state update messages)

Distributed across the whole network

OSPF Communication Principle 3

- Periodically, every router verifies its link state to its adjacent neighbours using hello messages
- From now only changes of link states are distributed
 - Using link state update messages (LSA broadcastmechanism)
- If neighbourhood situation remains unchanged, the periodic hello messages represents the only routing overhead
 - Note: additionally all Link States are refreshed every 30 minutes with LSA broadcast mechanism




















OSPF Start-up



starting position: all routers initialized, no connection between R1-R2 or R2-R3

OSPF Hello R1 - R2



link between R1-R2 activated: get acquainted using hello messages

OSPF Data Base Description R1 -> R2



database synchronization: R1 master sends Database-Description, R2 slave sends Link-State Request

OSPF Data Base Update R1 -> R2



database synchronization: R1 master sends Link-State Update, R2 slave sends Link-State Acknowledgement

OSPF Data Base Description R2 -> R1



database synchronization: R2 master sends Database-Description, R1 slave sends Link-State Request

OSPF Data Base Update R2 -> R1



database synchronization: R2 master sends Link-State Update, R1 slave sends Link-State Acknowledgement

OSPF Router LSA Emission



completely and notify other nodes about their links

OSPF Hello R2 - R3



link between R2-R3 activated: get acquainted using Hello, determination of designated router

OSPF Database Update



R2 and R3 synchronize their databases (DB-Des., LS-Req.,LS-Upd., LS-Ack.)

OSPF Router LSA Emission R2



R2 notifies other nodes about its links using Router LSA, (transport mechanism are LS-Update packets hop-by-hop)

OSPF Router LSA Emission R3



OSPF Network LSA R2



Designated Router R2 notifies other nodes about the multi-access network using Network-LSA (transport mechanism are LS-Update packets hop-by-hop

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First Hop Redundancy

LSA Broadcast Mechanism (1)

Flooding mechanism

- Receive of LSA on incoming interface
- Forwarding of LSA on all other interfaces except incoming interface
- Well known principle to reach all parts of a meshed network
 - Remember: Transparent bridging Ethernet switching for unknown destination MAC address
- "Hot-Potato" method

• Avoidance of broadcast storm:

- With the help of LSA sequence numbers carried in LSA packets and unique indexes of topology database
 - Remember: In case of Ethernet switching we had STP to avoid the broadcast storm
 - În our case we want to establish topology database so we do not have any STP information; SPF information and hence routing tables will result from existence of consistent topology databases
 - "Chicken-Egg" problem

LSA Sequence Number

- In order to stop flooding, each LSA carries a sequence number
- Only increased if LSA has changed
 - So each router can check if a particular LSA had already been forwarded
 - To avoid LSA storms
- 32 bit number



LSA Broadcast Mechanism (2)

- LSA must be safely distributed to all routers within an area (domain)
 - Consistency of the topology-database depends on it
 - Every LS-Update is acknowledged explicitly (using LS-ACK) by the neighbor router
 - If a LS-ACK stays out, the LS-Update is repeated (timeout)
 - If the LS-ACK fails after several trials, the adjacencyrelation (the link state between the routers) is cleared

LSA Broadcast Example (1)



LSA Broadcast Example (2)



LSA Broadcast Example (3)



LSA Broadcast Example (4)



LSA Broadcast Example (5)



LSA Usage

- Additionally, link states are repeated every 30 minutes to refresh the databases
 - Link states if not refreshed become obsolete after 60 minutes and are removed from the databases

• Reasons:

- Automatic correction of unnoticed topology-mistakes (e.g. happened during distribution or some router internal failures in the memory)
- Combining two separated parts of an OSPF area (here OSPF also assures database consistency without intervention of an administrator)

- Each router as a node in the graph (link state topology database)
 - Is identified by a unique Router-ID
 - Note: automatically selected on Cisco routers
 - Either numerically highest IP address of all loopback interfaces
 - Or if no loopback interfaces then highest IP address of physical interfaces

• Every link and hence LS between two routers

- Can be identified by the combination of the corresponding Router-IDs
- Note:
 - If there are several parallel physical links between two routers the Port-ID will act as tie-breaker

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First Hop Redundancy

Basic Principle (1)

 Consider two routers, lucky integrated in their own networks...



Basic Principle (2)

- Suddenly, some brave administrator connects them via a serial cable...
- Both interfaces are still in the "Down state"



Basic Principle (3)

• Init state:

 Friendly as routers are, they welcome each other using the "Hello protocol"...



Basic Principle (4)

• Two-way state:

- Each Hello packet contains a list of all neighbors (IDs)
- Even the two routers themselves are now listed (=> 2-way state condition)
- Both routers are going to establish the new link in their database...



Basic Principle (5)

Exstart state:

- Determination of master (highest IP address) and slave
- Needed for loading state later
- Exchange state:
 - Both router start to offer a short version of their own roadmap, using "Database Description Packets" (DDPs)
 - DDPs contain partial LSAs, which summarize the links of every router in the neighbor's topology table.



Basic Principle (6)

- Loading State:
 - One router (here the right one) recognizes some missing links and asks for detailed information using a "Link State Request" (LSR) packet...



Basic Principle (7)

 The left router replies immediately with the requested link information, using a "Link State Update" (LSU) packet ...


Basic Principle (8)

 The right router is very thankful, and returns a "Link State Acknowledgement"...



Basic Principle (9)

• Then the left router recognizes some unknown links and asks for further details...



Basic Principle (10)

 The right router sends detailed information for the requested unknown links...



Basic Principle (11)

- The left router replies with a link state acknowledgement a new adjacency has been established...
 - Neighbors are "fully adjacent" and reached the "full state"



Basic Principle (12)

- Both routers tell all other routers about all local adjacencies by flooding link state advertisements (LSAs)
- Both routers now see their own IDs listed in the periodically sent Hello packets



Database Inconsistency

 When connecting two networks, LSA flooding only distributes information of the local links of the involved neighbors (!)



Healing Inconsistency

Every router sends its LSAs every 30 minutes (!)

- Heals but long time of routing table / topology table inconsistence when combining a former split area of a OSPF domain
- Triggering database synchronization between any two routers in the network
 - In order to avoid long time of inconsistence
 - So whenever a router is informed by a Router-LSA about some changes in the network this router additionally will do a database synchronization with the router from which the Router-LSA was received
 - Database description packets will help to reduce traffic to the necessary minimum

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First Hop Redundancy

Broadcast Multi-Access Media (1)

- When several OSPF routers have access to the same Ethernet segment they would create n(n-1)/2 adjacencies
- Furthermore, SPF algorithm requires to represent a fully meshed network as tree



Broadcast Multi-Access Media (2)

- Solution: Elect one "Designated Router" (DR) to represent the whole LAN segment
 - Election uses the Hello protocol
- DR sends Network LSA
 - List of all local routers
 - Ensures that every router on the link has the same topology database
 - Also contains subnet mask (!)
- Each other router establishes an adjacency only to the DR
 - Using "All DR" multicast address 224.0.0.6



Broadcast Multi-Access Media (3)

- Only the DR will send LSAs to the rest of the network
- For backup purposes also a Backup DR is elected (BDR)
 - All routers also establish adjacencies to the BDR
 - BDR itself also establishes adjacency to DR



DR/BDR Election Process

- Election process starts if no DR/BDR listed in the hello packets during the init state (i. e. when two routers begin to establish an adjacency)
 - Note: if already one DR/BDR chosen, any new router in the LAN would not change anything!
 - Therefore, the power-on order of routers is critical !!!
- Always configure loopback interface in order to "name" your routers
 - Loopback interface never goes down
 - Ensures stability
 - Simple to manage

DR, Router LSA, Network LSA

Designated Router (DR) is responsible

- For maintaining neighbourhood relationship via virtual point-to-point links using the already known mechanism
 - DB-Description, LS-Request LS-Update, LS-Acknowledgement, Hello, etc.

Router-LSA implicitly describes

- These virtual point-to-point links by specifying such a network as transit-network
 - Remark: Stub-network is a LAN network where no OSPF router is behind

To inform all other routers of domain about such a special topology situation

DR is additionally responsible for emitting <u>Network LSAs</u>

Network LSA describes

- Which routers are members of the corresponding broadcast network

OSPF Network LSA R2



Designated Router R2 notifies other nodes about the multi-access network using Network-LSA (transport mechanism are LS-Update packets hop-by-hop

Details: OSPF Multicast Usage

- OSPF uses dedicated IP multicast addresses for exchanging routing messages
 - 224.0.0.5 ("All OSPF Routers")
 - 224.0.0.6 ("All Designated Routers")

• 224.0.0.5 is used as destination address

- By all routers for Hello-messages
 - DR and BR determination at start-up
 - link state supervision
- By DR router for messages towards all non-DR routers
 - LS-Update, LS-Acknowledgement

• 224.0.0.6 is used as destination address

- By all non-DR routers for messages towards the DR
 - LS-Update, LS-Request, LS-Acknowledgement and database description messages

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First L3 Hop?









ICMP redirect







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Next Packet 1.0.0.2 -> 3.0.0.1



Unavailability of R1: System B losses connectivity to Net 3.0.0.0 or 2.0.0.0



• The problem:

- How can local routers be recognized by IP hosts?
- Note: Normally IP host has limited view of topology
 - IP host knows to which IP subnet connected (own Net-ID)
 - IP host knows one "Default Gateway" to reach other IP networks
- Static configuration of "Default Gateway" means:
 - Loss of the default router results in a catastrophic event, isolating all endhosts that are unable to detect any alternate path that might be available

• Two design philosophies:

- Solve the problem at the IP host level
 - OS of the IP host has to support an appropriate functionality
- Solve the problem at the IP router level
 - OS of the IP host has to support the basic functionality only
 - That is static configuration of one "Default Gateway"
 - Appropriate functionality needed at the router

- Methods for solving it at the IP host level:
 - Proxy ARP
 - DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol)
- Methods for solving it at the IP router level:
 - HSRP (Hot Standby Router Protocol)
 - Cisco proprietary
 - VRRP (Virtual Router Redundancy Protocol)
 - Same as HSRP but open RFC

HSRP – Hot Standby Router Protocol

- HSRP (<u>Hot Standby Router Protocol</u>)
 - Proprietary protocol invented by Cisco
 - RFC 2281 (Informational)
- Basic idea: a set of routers pretend a single (virtual) router to the IP hosts on a LAN
 - Active router
 - One router is responsible for forwarding the datagrams that hosts send to the virtual router
 - Standby router
 - If active router fails, the standby takes over the datagram forwarding duties of the active router
 - Conspiring routers form a so called HSRP group

HSRP Overview



HSRP Principles (1)

Basics:

- A group of routers forms a HSRP group
- The group is represented by a virtual router
 - With a virtual IP address and virtual MAC address for that group
- IP hosts are configured with the virtual IP address as default gateway
- One router is elected by HSRP as the active router, one router is elected as the standby router of that group
 - HSRP messages are UDP messages to port 1985, addressed to IP multicast 224.0.0.2 using Ethernet multicast frames
 - Note HSRP version 1
- Active router responds to ARP request directed to the virtual IP address with the virtual MAC address
- Standby router supervises if the active router is alive
 - By listening to HSRP messages sent by the active

HSRP Principles (2)

- Roles:
 - Active router
 - Is responsible for the virtual IP address hence attracts any IP traffic which should leave the subnet
 - Standby router
 - Takes over the role of the active router in case the active router fails for the subnet
 - Additional HSRP member routers Other
 - Other routers are neither active nor standby. They just monitor the messages of the current active and standby routers and transition into one of those roles if the current router fails for the subnet
 - Virtual router
 - The virtual router is not an actual router
 - Rather, it is a concept of the entire HSRP group acting as one virtual router for the IP hosts of the given subnet

HSRP Principles (3)

- Roles (cont.):
 - Active, Standby, Other defined by HSRP priority
 - Priority value can be configured
 - Default value is 100
 - The higher the better
 - Will become the active router after initialization
 - If priority is equal than the higher IP address decides
 - Preemption allows to give up the role of the active router
 - When a router with higher priority is reported by HSRP messages
 - Preemption happens
 - Either when the failed router comes back, a better router is activated or object tracking has changed priority

HSRP Principles (4)

• Two basic failover scenarios:

- 1) Active router is not reachable via LAN
 - Standby router will take over active role
 - A new standby router is elected from the remaining routers of a HSRP group
 - Timing depends on HSRP hello message interval and hold-time
 - Default hello-time = 3 seconds, default hold-time = 10 seconds
 - Note HSRP version 1
- 2) Active router losses connectivity either to a WAN interface or losses connectivity to a given IP route
 - Tracking will lower the priority of the active router
 - If preemption is configured on all routers the standby router will take over
 - Remember: Preemption allows another router to take over the role of the active router even if the current active router does not fail

HSRP Protocol Fields

- Standby protocol runs on top of UDP (port 1985)
 - IP packets are sent to IP multicast address 224.0.0.2 (HSRPv1) or 224.0.0.102 (HSRPv2) with a IP TTL = 1

| 0 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 31 |
|---------------------|----------|----------|-------|-----------|
| | Version | Op Code | State | Hellotime |
| | Holdtime | Priority | Group | Reserved |
| Authentication Data | | | | |
| Authentication Data | | | | |
| Virtual IP Address | | | | |

- Version: Version of the HSRP messages
- Op code: 4 types
 - **Hello**: Indicates that a router is running and is capable of becoming the active or standby router
 - Coup: When a router wishes to become the active router
 - **Resign**: When a router no longer wishes to be the active router
 - Advertise: Announce state of own HSRP interface

- States: Initial, learn, listen, speak, standby, active
- Hellotime: Contains the period between the hello messages that the router sends
- Holdtime: Amount of time the current hello message is valid
- **Priority**: Compares priorities of 2 different routers
- **Group**: Identifies standby group (0...255)
- Authentication data: Cleartext or MD5 signed hash

HSRP States Details



HSRP: Real and Virtual IP Addresses / MAC Addresses



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Default values on Cisco routers for virtual
HSRP in Action (1)



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HSRP in Action (2)



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HSRP – Gratuitous ARP



HSRP Load Balancing

