Internet Protocols

Background

The Internet protocols are the world's most popular open-system (nonproprietary) protocol suite because they can be used to communicate across any set of interconnected networks and are equally well suited for LAN and WAN communications. The Internet protocols consist of a suite of communication protocols, of which the two best known are the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and the Internet Protocol (IP). The Internet protocol suite not only includes lower-layer protocols (such as TCP and IP), but it also specifies common applications such as electronic mail, terminal emulation, and file transfer. This chapter provides a broad introduction to specifications that comprise the Internet protocols. Discussions include IP addressing and key upper-layer protocols used in the Internet. Specific routing protocols are addressed individually in Part 6, Routing Protocols.

Internet protocols were first developed in the mid-1970s, when the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) became interested in establishing a packet-switched network that would facilitate communication between dissimilar computer systems at research institutions. With the goal of heterogeneous connectivity in mind, DARPA funded research by Stanford University and Bolt, Beranek, and Newman (BBN). The result of this development effort was the Internet protocol suite, completed in the late 1970s.

TCP/IP later was included with Berkeley Software Distribution (BSD) UNIX and has since become the foundation on which the Internet and the World Wide Web (WWW) are based.

Documentation of the Internet protocols (including new or revised protocols) and policies are specified in technical reports called Request For Comments (RFCs), which are published and then reviewed and analyzed by the Internet community. Protocol refinements are published in the new RFCs. To illustrate the scope of the Internet protocols, Figure 30-1 maps many of the protocols of the Internet protocol suite and their corresponding OSI layers. This chapter addresses the basic elements and operations of these and other key Internet protocols.



Figure 30-1 Internet protocols span the complete range of OSI model layers.

Internet Protocol (IP)

The Internet Protocol (IP) is a network-layer (Layer 3) protocol that contains addressing information and some control information that enables packets to be routed. IP is documented in RFC 791 and is the primary network-layer protocol in the Internet protocol suite. Along with the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP), IP represents the heart of the Internet protocols. IP has two primary responsibilities: providing connectionless, best-effort delivery of datagrams through an internetwork; and providing fragmentation and reassembly of datagrams to support data links with different maximum-transmission unit (MTU) sizes.

IP Packet Format

An IP packet contains several types of information, as illustrated in Figure 30-2.

<								
Version	IHL	Type-of-service	Total length					
Identification			Flags	Fragment offset				
Time-to-live		Protocol	Header checksum					
Source address								
Destination address								
Options (+ padding)								
Data (variable)								

Figure 30-2 Fourteen fields comprise an IP packet.

The following discussion describes the IP packet fields illustrated in Figure 30-2:

- Version—Indicates the version of IP currently used.
- IP Header Length (IHL)—Indicates the datagram header length in 32-bit words.
- *Type-of-Service*—Specifies how an upper-layer protocol would like a current datagram to be handled, and assigns datagrams various levels of importance.
- *Total Length*—Specifies the length, in bytes, of the entire IP packet, including the data and header.
- *Identification*—Contains an integer that identifies the current datagram. This field is used to help piece together datagram fragments.
- *Flags*—Consists of a 3-bit field of which the two low-order (least-significant) bits control fragmentation. The low-order bit specifies whether the packet can be fragmented. The middle bit specifies whether the packet is the last fragment in a series of fragmented packets. The third or high-order bit is not used.
- *Fragment Offset*—Indicates the position of the fragment's data relative to the beginning of the data in the original datagram, which allows the destination IP process to properly reconstruct the original datagram.
- *Time-to-Live*—Maintains a counter that gradually decrements down to zero, at which point the datagram is discarded. This keeps packets from looping endlessly.
- *Protocol*—Indicates which upper-layer protocol receives incoming packets after IP processing is complete.
- Header Checksum—Helps ensure IP header integrity.
- Source Address—Specifies the sending node.
- Destination Address—Specifies the receiving node.

- Options—Allows IP to support various options, such as security.
- Data—Contains upper-layer information.

IP Addressing

As with any other network-layer protocol, the IP addressing scheme is integral to the process of routing IP datagrams through an internetwork. Each IP address has specific components and follows a basic format. These IP addresses can be subdivided and used to create addresses for subnetworks, as discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Each host on a TCP/IP network is assigned a unique 32-bit logical address that is divided into two main parts: the network number and the host number. The network number identifies a network and must be assigned by the Internet Network Information Center (InterNIC) if the network is to be part of the Internet. An Internet Service Provider (ISP) can obtain blocks of network addresses from the InterNIC and can itself assign address space as necessary. The host number identifies a host on a network and is assigned by the local network administrator.

IP Address Format

The 32-bit IP address is grouped eight bits at a time, separated by dots, and represented in decimal format (known as *dotted decimal notation*). Each bit in the octet has a binary weight (128, 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1). The minimum value for an octet is 0, and the maximum value for an octet is 255. Figure 30-3 illustrates the basic format of an IP address.



Figure 30-3 An IP address consists of 32 bits, grouped into four octets.

IP Address Classes

IP addressing supports five different address classes: A, B,C, D, and E. Only classes A, B, and C are available for commercial use. The left-most (high-order) bits indicate the network class. Table 30-1 provides reference information about the five IP address classes.

IP Ad SS Cl	ddre S lass	Format	Purpose	High-Or der Bit(s)	Address Range	No. Bits Network/Host	Max. Hosts
Α		N.H.H.H ¹	Few large organizations	0	1.0.0.0 to 126.0.0.0	7/24	$16,777, 214^2 (2^{24} - 2)$
В		N.N.H.H	Medium-size organizations	1, 0	128.1.0.0 to 191.254.0.0	14/16	65, 543 (2 ¹⁶ – 2)
С		N.N.N.H	Relatively small organizations	1, 1, 0	192.0.1.0 to 223.255.254.0	22/8	245 (2 ⁸ – 2)
D		N/A	Multicast groups (RFC 1112)	1, 1, 1, 0	224.0.0.0 to 239.255.255.255	N/A (not for commercial use)	N/A
E		N/A	Experimental	1, 1, 1, 1	240.0.0.0 to 254.255.255.255	N/A	N/A

Table 30-1 Reference Information About the Five IP Address Classes

1 N = Network number, H = Host number.

2 One address is reserved for the broadcast address, and one address is reserved for the network.

Figure 30-4 illustrates the format of the commercial IP address classes. (Note the high-order bits in each class.)



Figure 30-4 IP address formats A, B, and C are available for commercial use.

The class of address can be determined easily by examining the first octet of the address and mapping that value to a class range in the following table. In an IP address of 172.31.1.2, for example, the first octet is 172. Because 172 falls between 128 and 191, 172.31.1.2 is a Class B address. Figure 30-5 summarizes the range of possible values for the first octet of each address class.

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