



# IPv6, Mobile IP and Multicast

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## Outline

- IPv6
- Mobile IP
- Multicast

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## IPv6 overview

- Motivation
  - Internet growth (address space depletion and routing information explosion)
  - CIDR has alleviated the problem
  - eventually, bigger address space is needed
    - ubiquitous networking, “Internet to the toaster!”
- Historical perspective
  - bigger address space  $\Rightarrow$  changes in IP header  $\Rightarrow$  new IP version
  - work initiated in IETF in early 90’s
    - name changed from IPng (next generation) to IPv6
  - “snow ball effect”: why not fix all problems at the same time!
    - added features: QoS, security, autoconfiguration, mobility, ...
    - note! most of these have in the mean time been introduced to IPv4
  - requirement: transition plan (from IPv4 to IPv6)
    - impossible to require an over night change in IP version in all routers
    - routers running only IPv4, IPv4 and IPv6, IPv6 will coexist for a long time
  - by now, most key specifications of IPv6 are Proposed or Draft Standards 3

## IPv6 addressing

- IPv6 uses 128 bit addresses (up to  $3.4 \times 10^{38}$  nodes!)
  - addr notation: x:x:x:x:x:x:x (x = hex representation of a 16 bit number)
- IPv6 address space
  - IPv6 does not use classes; addr space subdivided based on leading bits
  - Aggregatable Unicast Address (001):
    - most important address group, like classless IPv4 addresses but longer
    - more on these later...
  - NSAP (0000 001) and IPX (0000 010) addresses
  - Link Local Address (1111 1110 10):
    - enables host to construct an address to be used locally on a network without having to be concerned with global uniqueness (autoconfig.)
  - Site Local Address (1111 1110 11):
    - enables construction of addresses on a site (company private nw) not connected to larger Internet without requirement of global uniqueness
  - Multicast Address (1111 1111)
  - Reserved Address (0000 0000):
    - “IPv4 compatible IPv6” and “IPv4-mapped IPv6” addresses needed during IPv4 to IPv6 transition

## IPv4 to IPv6 transition

- IPv6 is deployed incrementally
  - IPv4 and IPv6 routers need to coexist
- Dual stack operation and tunneling
  - dual stack
    - IPv6 node runs both IPv4 and IPv6 (Version field identifies packets)
    - node may have separate IPv4 and IPv6 addresses or an “IPv4 mapped IPv6 address”
  - tunneling
    - used to send IPv6 packets over IPv4 network
    - IPv6 packet encapsulated inside IPv4 header
    - tunneling automatic if end point has “IPv4 mapped IPv6 address”
    - otherwise, tunnel configured manually

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## Aggregatable Global Unicast Addresses (1)

- Aggregatable Global Unicast Addresses
  - normal unicast addresses in IPv6
  - problem: how to assign unicast addresses effectively to ASs, networks, hosts, routers?
    - issues: new nodes added at an increasing rate, routing scalability
- Address allocation plan
  - Internet not just an arbitrarily connected set of ASs:
    - **subscribers** (e.g. non transit ASs) connect to **providers** (transit ASs)
    - **providers** can be *direct* (connect primarily subscribers) or *indirect* (connect other providers, backbone networks)
    - problem: how to use this hierarchy without devising mechanisms that fail when this hierarchy is not strictly observed (e.g., direct provider connecting to many other providers, subscriber connecting to many providers etc.)
  - idea: allocate addresses to enable route information aggregation (scalability)
    - by using variable length prefixes (same as in CIDR)
    - direct provider allocated a prefix and that provider can then assign longer prefixes to its subscribers (provider based addressing)
    - thus, provider needs to advertise only one prefix to all its subscribers
  - drawback: if site changes provider, whole numbering in a site must be changed

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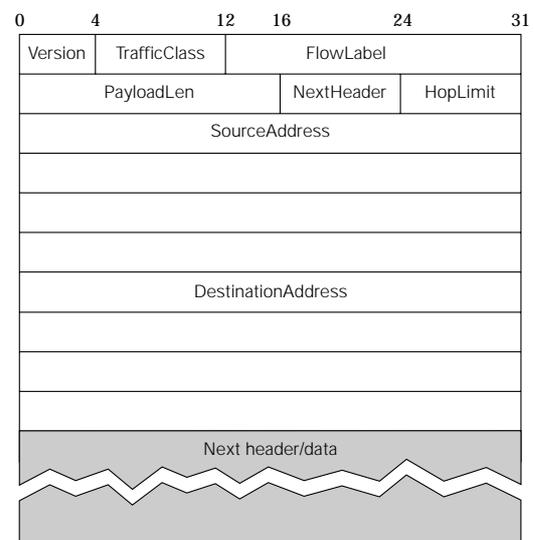
## Aggregatable Global Unicast Addresses (2)

- Is hierarchical aggregation always useful?
  - aggregation at national or continental level:
    - continental boundaries form natural aggregation points for example, all addresses in Europe have the same prefix
  - given that a provider connects to many backbones, not meaningful for providers to get their prefix from one backbone provider
  - subscriber connects to several providers:
    - if subscriber takes prefix from provider X, provider Y must advertise provider X's networks (can not be aggregated with Y's own prefixes)
    - if subscriber numbers its network using prefixes from X and Y and if connection to X goes down, hosts with prefix from X become unreachable
    - possible solution: provider X and Y share common prefix for all subscribers having connections with X and Y

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## IPv6 packet format (1)

- IPv6 header format simpler than IPv4
  - goal was to have simplified header processing
  - constant length 40 bytes
- Version = 6
- TrafficClass & FlowLabel related to QoS
  - lecture 10
- PayloadLen = length of packet in bytes (without header)
- HopLimit = TTL of IPv4
- NextHeader
  - replaces Options and Protocol field of IPv4
  - if options are required they are carried in one or several **extension headers** following the IP header
  - if no extension headers, NextHeader identifies higher layer protocol (TCP, UDP)
  - type of extension header identified by the NextHeader field in the header preceding it



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## IPv6 packet format (2)

- Improved Options handling in IPv6
  - IPv4: if any Options are present every router must parse the whole Options field to see if any Options are relevant; Options form an unsorted list
  - IPv6: options treated as extension headers appearing in a specific order ⇒ router can quickly determine which options are relevant by looking at the NextHeader field
  - no upper limit on nof options
- Some extension headers
  - fragmentation header
  - authentication header
  - routing header
    - enables source-directed routing: sender can specify nodes or topological areas that the packet should visit en route to destination
    - used also for supporting multicast and mobility

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## Autoconfiguration

- Traditionally, host configuration required considerable system administration expertise (IP address, subnet mask, name server)
- IPv6 provides “plug-and-play” functionality
  - DHCP can be used in IPv4
  - longer address format enables **stateless autoconfiguration** that does not require the use of any dedicated server
- Stateless autoconfiguration
  - each host has globally unique 48 bit LAN address (link level address)
    - LAN address used as the least significant bits for IPv6 address
  - not globally unique IPv6 address: IPv6 address prefix Link Local Address (1111 1110 10) + “70 zeros” + LAN address
    - adequate for local devices, e.g., printers, local servers
  - globally unique IPv6 address: router advertises appropriate global prefix and host uses as its address (prefix + “enough zeros” + LAN address)
  - possible because address 128 bits long!

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## Internet mobility

- What happens if node disconnects from network and connects again at another network?
  - if IP address is not changed, node becomes unreachable
  - DHCP can be used to assign new address
  - DHCP adequate sometimes, but often host does not want new address
    - host may want to connect to own home network and use home network's resources and applications while being attached to another network
    - host may even be "moving around" and still wants to stay connected to home network
  - ideally, we want the movement of the host to be transparent to the user
- IETF solution: Mobile IP

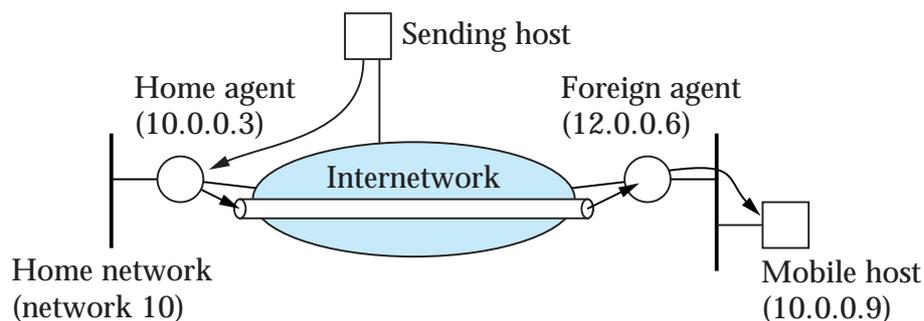
## Mobile IP overview

- Macro vs. micro mobility
  - micro: mobility between pico-cells in a building or between sectors in larger cells, seamless mobility
  - macro: mobility when moving from one AS to another, between domains or subnetworks, not seamless (on going transmissions interrupted)
- Mobile IP aims to solve macro-mobility problem
- Mobile IP design principle
  - mobility solution must work without any changes to software of nonmobile hosts and majority of routers in the Internet
- New functional entities and concepts
  - HA (Home Agent): special router with new functionality located in mobile host's home network
  - FA (Foreign Agent): special router with new functionality located in the network where mobile host is currently connected
  - home address (H@): permanent IP address of mobile host
  - care-of-address (Co@): IP address of FA

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## Basic Mobile IP operation (1)

- HA and FA periodically announce their presence by sending agent advertisement messages (host may also solicit advertisements)
  - Registration/advertisement messages implemented as an extension to ICMP router advertisement protocol (RFC1256)
- Initially
  - mobile host learns address of HA through advertisements
  - when mobile host attaches to the new network, host hears message from FA and provides it with address of its HA
  - FA contacts HA and provides HA with a CO@ (IP address of FA)
- Any host sending packets to mobile host sends them first to mobile's home nw

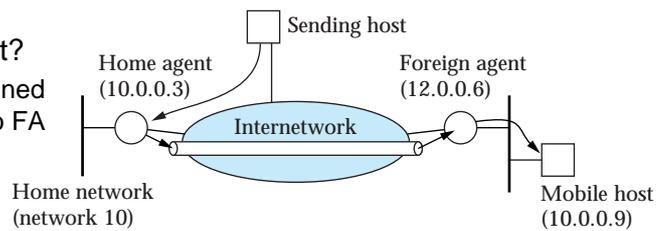


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## Basic Mobile IP operation (2)

- How does HA intercept a packet destined to a mobile host?
  - no problem if home network connected to rest of Internet via one router
  - if several routers connect home network, HA impersonates mobile host
    - “proxy ARP” technique: HA inserts IP address of mobile host in ARP messages, but uses its own hardware address  $\Rightarrow$  other nodes associate mobile host’s IP address with HA’s hw address
    - HA sends “gratuitous ARP” message immediately when mobile host registers to FA (to clear old ARP bindings)

- How does HA send packets to mobile host?
  - tunneling: HA encapsulates IP packet destined to H@ in a wrapper IP packet addressed to FA (i.e., CO@) (e.g., IP within IP, RFC2003)



- How does FA deliver packet to mobile node?
  - FA strips extra header and delivers packet to the **hw** address of mobile host (learned during registration process)

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## Basic Mobile IP operation (3)

- Traffic from mobile host to fixed host?
  - sent normally
  - destination addr = fixed IP address, source addr = mobile’s H@
- Possible for mobile host to also be the FA (co-located FA)
  - mobile node performs FA functions itself
  - mobile host must be able to acquire dynamically new IP address (DHCP)
  - benefit:
    - networks do not need to have designated FA routers
    - mobility can be achieved by introducing a home agent and some added sw in mobile host
- Problems with mobile IP
  - security (easy to, e.g., intercept packets from mobile host and send fake FA advertisements to H@  $\Rightarrow$  all traffic is received by fake FA)
  - triangle routing problem (inefficiency)

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## Mobile IP route optimization

- “Triangle routing problem”
  - extreme example: mobile host and sending host on same nw, routing still goes via HA, that may be located geographically very far from home nw
- Solution:
  - let sending host know mobile host’s CO@ and use tunneling
- Details:
  - sending host maintains binding cache: list of H@ and associated CO@ pairs
  - if HA sees packet destined for one of its mobile hosts, HA sends **binding update** message to the sender and forwards packet towards mobile host
  - sending host updates its binding cache and sends subsequent packets via tunneling straight to mobile’s CO@
  - problem: outdated cache bindings
    - FA separate from mobile: FA receives packets for a mobile host that is no longer registered ⇒ FA sends **binding warning** msg to sender
    - otherwise, cache entries eventually expire

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## Multicast overview

- Basic problem: host wants to send same data to multiple receivers
  - on a LAN this is handled in hardware
  - In Internet, multicasting must serve hosts residing on different networks and separated by large distances
- IP multicast service model:
  - hosts wishing to receive a particular multicast transmission belong to a **multicast group**
    - hosts join/leave groups dynamically by informing their local routers using IGMP (Internet Group Management Protocol)
    - any given host may belong to many groups simultaneously
  - a multicast group is associated with an IP multicast address
  - packet delivery: host sends one copy of a packet to a multicast address and Internet delivers it to all members of a group
- Here we look at how packets get distributed to the correct routers
  - group management or multicast address advertising is not considered
  - implemented by extending forwarding and routing functionality of IP routers
    - 3 approaches: link-state, distance vector, protocol independent

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## Link state multicast

- Link state routing:
  - all routers flood info related to directly connected links  $\Rightarrow$  nodes have full topology information to construct shortest paths to any given node (Dijkstra)
- Idea: add set of groups with members on a particular network to link state info
  - hosts on a given link (LAN) announce their participation to router
  - link state flooded to all other routers and each router can compute shortest path multicast trees for all sources in all groups
  - possible because in link state nodes learn full topology
  - trigger flooding when groups appear/disappear on a link
- Problems:
  - each router must keep separate shortest path multicast trees from every source to every multicast group
    - in practice, trees computed only for active source/group pairs
  - potential instability if group membership changes frequently

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## Distance vector multicast

- Distance vector routing:
  - neighbors exchange forwarding tables
  - that is, routers do not know full topology
- Generalization to multicast done in two steps:
  - 1 mechanism to broadcast packets to all networks
    - Reverse Path Broadcast, RPB
  - 2 pruning of networks that do not have hosts belonging to the multicast group
    - Reverse Path Multicast, RPM
- Real life example: MBone
  - overlay network on top of Internet
    - packets tunneled through Internet between MBone nodes
  - uses Distance Vector Multicast Routing Protocol
  - popular application: vic (multiparty videoconferencing)
    - IETF meetings have been broadcasted over MBone

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## Reverse Path Broadcast (RPB)

- Achieving flooding:
  - router forwards multicast packets of source S to all its links except on the link from where the packets were received
    - achieves flooding and packets do not loop back to S
    - creates excess traffic (router does not know if there are any group member's to receive the packets, treated in next slide)
    - if LAN network connected to Internet via several routers, same multicast packets will be sent onto the LAN by all connected routers
- Idea: eliminate duplicate broadcasts on LANs
  - designate one router as "parent" router relative to source S
    - routers connected to same LAN hear each other's distance vectors
    - router with shortest distance to S selected as parent (address used to break ties)
  - only parent router allowed to forward traffic from S to LAN
  - each router must maintain state for each source S/link (interface) pair if it is parent or not

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## Reverse Path Multicast (RPM)

- From broadcast to multicast
- First, need to recognize if a “leaf” network has any (multicast) group members
  - network is a leaf if no other router uses it to reach source S
  - hosts on leaf network periodically announce their group memberships  
⇒ router knows if any group members are present
- Second, propagation of “no members of G here” information
  - distance vector info extended to include info on the set of groups from which the leaf network wants to receive multicast traffic
  - routers can decide for its links for which groups it should forward the traffic
- Problem:
  - potentially a lot of routing state info for each router
  - in practice, routers use RPB until some node becomes active, and then those nodes not interested in this particular multicast traffic speak up

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## Protocol Independent Multicast (PIM)

- RPB and RPM do not scale
  - routers build multicast shortest path trees for all sources in all groups
  - in particular, amount of state info too large if only small proportion of routers want to receive traffic for a certain group (=“sparse” group)
- Solution: PIM
  - use single tree for sparse groups (shared tree, saves state info in routers)
  - use shortest path trees for dense groups (lot of traffic between many nodes)
  - supports different kinds of trees
  - trees can be mixed within same group depending on traffic
- PIM-SM (PIM Sparse Mode)
  - routers send Join and Prune messages to routers that have been assigned as Rendezvous Points (RP)
  - shared and source specific trees
    - initially a shared tree rooted at RP is created and source specific trees created only if traffic warrants it

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## PIM operation

- 1 R4 and R5 join the shared tree, R2 marks interfaces with (\*,G) (all traffic from group G forwarded on this interface)
- 2 R1 tries to send packet to G: sends packet to R1 (designated router), R1 not part of shared tree so it **tunnels** packet to RP, RP sends packet via shared tree
- 3 RP can force R3 to know about multicast tree (removes need for encapsulation); R3 creates sender specific state ((S,G) state)
- 4 If data rate from R1 high enough, R4 and R5 can Join the sender specific tree (to avoid looping via RP)

