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# **L3 Latency in Regional Networks**

## **Preparing 5G Launch**

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Abstract  <p>The purpose of the research was to measure the two-way L3 latency in Telia Finland's regional MPLS networks. The subject was topical, as 5G networks require a significantly smaller amount of delay compared to the existing 4G mobile networks. The primary objective was to produce a baseline for the network delay to be used in planning and development of the regional networks to prepare for the introduction of 5G.</p> <p>An additional objective was to compare two measurement methods to determine their suitability for conducting measurements in the production network. Eventually ping was selected as a measurement method while TWAMP implementation was limited solely to Telia's laboratory environment. However, the results gained from TWAMP testing were used as a reference when assessing the reliability of the results measured from production network.</p> <p>The research constrained to Telia's 13 regional networks consisting of Nokia's SR, ESS, and SAS series routers and switches. In total, 1139 network elements were measured using fping program run on a Unix server in a separate management network. In order to assess the reliability of the results, additional data gained with traceroute program as well as inventory information such as location and site details was combined with the actual measurement data.</p> <p>The result of the research was a reliability analysis of the measurement statistics and the baseline delivered to designers responsible for planning the regional networks. Despite the fact that ICMP traffic is de-prioritized in network elements, this research proves that a simple measurement method can produce accurate enough information for planning and can reveal issues in the network.</p>		
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Tiivistelmä <p>Tutkimuksen tavoitteena oli mitata kaksisuuntainen L3-viive Telia Finland Oyj:n MPLS-alueverkossa. Tutkittava aihe oli ajankohtainen, sillä 5G-verkon käyttöönotto vaatii operaattorin runkoverolta huomattavasti pienempää viivettä nykyiseen 4G-standardiin verrattuna. Pääasiallisena tavoitteena oli tuottaa tieto tuotantoverkon viiveistä viiveen vertailuarvojen tuottamiseksi, jolloin vertailuarvoja voidaan hyödyntää alueverkkojen suunnittelussa ja rakentamisessa 5G-verkon käyttöönottoa varten.</p> <p>Tutkimuksessa tarkasteltiin lisäksi kahta eri mittausmenetelmää, jolloin menetelmistä sopivampi voitiin valita tuotantoverkon viivemittauksiin. Lopulliseksi mittausmenetelmäksi valikoitui ICMP-protokollaan perustuva ping ja TWAMP-protokollaa päädyttiin testaamaan ainoastaan Telian laboratorioympäristössä. TWAMP-protokollalla saatuja mittaustuloksia käytettiin kuitenkin tuotantoverkosta mitattujen viiveitten luotettavuuden arviointiin.</p> <p>Mittaus rajoittui Telian 13 alueverkkoon, jotka koostuivat Nokian SR-, ESS- ja SAS-sarjan reitittimisestä ja kytkimisestä. Mittaukset toteutettiin fping-sovelluksella, jota ajettiin hallintaverkossa sijaitsevalta Unix-palvelimelta, ja mittaukset kohdistuivat yhteensä 1139 verkkolaitteeseen. Tulosten analysoinnin helpottamiseksi mittaustuloksiin yhdistettiin lisäksi laitetietokannan sijainti- ja teletilatietoja sekä traceroute-sovelluksella kerättyä dataa.</p> <p>Työn lopputuloksena oli arvio mittaustulosten luotettavuudesta sekä taulukoitu viivestatiikka, joka luovutettiin alueverkon suunnittelijoiden käyttöön. Siitä huolimatta että verkkolaitteet käsittelevät ICMP-liikennettä muuta liikennettä alemmalla prioriteetilla, tutkimus osoittaa, että yksinkertainen mittausmenetelmä voi tuottaa riittävän tarkkaa tietoa suunnittelutyöhön sekä paljastaa lisäksi verkon ongelmakohtia.</p>		
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## Acronyms

3GPP	3 <sup>rd</sup> Generation Partnership Project
4G	4 <sup>th</sup> Generation
5G	5 <sup>th</sup> Generation
ASBR	Autonomous System Border Router
AES	Advanced Encryption Standard
BGP	Border Gateway Protocol
CLI	Command Line Interface
CPE	Customer Premises Equipment
CPU	Central Processing Unit
DNS	Domain Name System
DSLAM	Digital Subscriber Line Access Multiplexer
eMBB	Enhanced Mobile Broadband
ESS	Ethernet Service Switch
FEC	Forwarding Equivalence Class
FTTB	Fiber to the Building
ICMP	Internet Control Message Protocol
IGP	Interior Gateway Protocol
IP	Internet Protocol
IPTD	IP Packet Transfer Delay
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
IS-IS	Intermediate System-to-Intermediate System
ISP	Internet Service Provider
L2	Layer 2
L3	Layer 3

LAN	Local Area Network
LSP	Label Switched Path
LSR	Label Switching Router
MBH	Mobile Backhaul
ME	Metro Ethernet
MEF	Metro Ethernet Forum
mMTC	Massive Machine Type Communications
MPLS	Multiprotocol Label Switching
NR	New Radio
NSE	Network Section Ensemble
NTP	Network Time Protocol
OAM	Operation Administration and Maintenance
OWAMP	One-Way Active Measurement Protocol
PDU	Protocol Data Unit
PE	Provider Edge
PM	Performance Management
POP	Point of Presence
QoS	Quality of Service
SAM	Service Aware Manager
SAP	Service Access Point
SAS	Service Access Switch
SLA	Service Level Agreement
SR	Service Router
SR OS	Service Router Operating System
SNMP	Simple Network Management Protocol
TCC	TWAMP and TWAMP-Light Control Client

TCP	Transport Control Protocol
TOS	Type of Service
TTL	Time to Live
TWAMP	Two-way Active Measurement Protocol
UDP	User Datagram Protocol
uRLLC	Ultra-Reliable and Low-latency Communications
VPN	Virtual Private Network
VPRN	Virtual Private Routed Network
VRF	Virtual Routing and Forwarding
VSR	Virtual Service Router
WDM	Wavelength Division Multiplexing

## 1 Introduction

In the course of the history of the Internet, organizations have not always been confident to rely on network services for business critical tasks, due to bottlenecks relating to lack of routing intelligence and bandwidth issues. Over the years, the development of networks has led to significant service quality improvements with increased bandwidth capacity and overall reliability. The Internet Protocol has become an integral part of people's everyday lives that allows carrying data, voice and video instantly around the world. (Service Level Monitoring with Cisco IOS Service Assurance Agent N.d.)

General adoption of IP (Internet Protocol) has caused a significant increase in overall data traffic. Today, as mobile devices have become a commodity, the trend is the mobile Internet. According to Cisco's VNI Forecast Highlights Tool (N.d.), the overall monthly IP data traffic will almost triple its byte-count in 2021. Regarding mobile networks, the mobile data will grow globally 7-fold from 2016 to 2021. This can be seen in Figure 1, which presents the estimation for global mobile data growth in exabytes between 2016 and 2021.

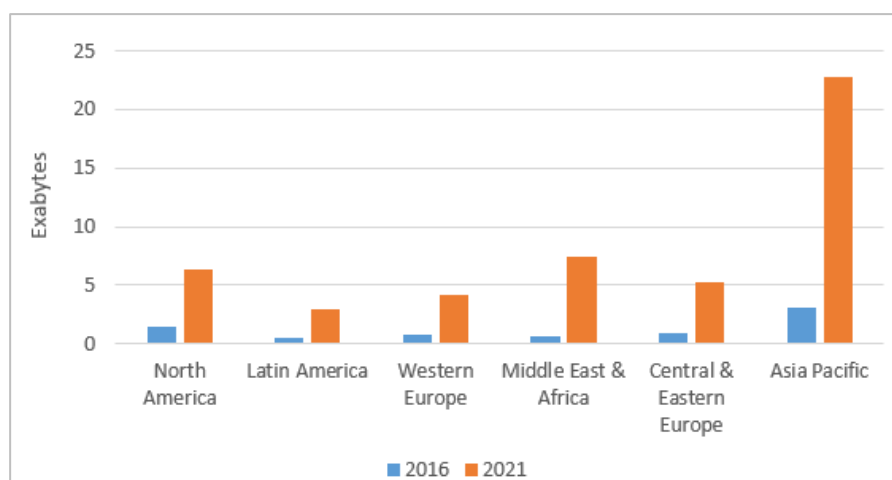


Figure 1. Mobile Data Growth Estimation (VNI Forecast Highlights Tool N.d.)

The evolution of IP networks does not seem to slow down, as new types of applications and services are brought to mobile devices. As the mobile Internet has become more common access technology, also the expectations towards the performance of mobile networks have raised. To meet the demands for high-speed mobile subscriptions and better user experience, service providers need to respond by introducing new wireless technologies to their customers.

The upcoming 5G (5<sup>th</sup> Generation) aims to enhance the capabilities of today's 4G (4<sup>th</sup> Generation) mobile networks by providing more throughput and better QoS (Quality of Service). 5G also extends the service range by introducing new applications including wearable devices, platforms for IoT (Internet of Things), high quality video streams and autonomous vehicles. Each of the applications require certain capabilities from the network infrastructure such as energy efficiency, throughput or latency. Although the overall mobile data is expected to multiply in the future, the throughput is not the only important metric for defining network performance.

The commercialization of 5G networks requires that existing network infrastructure can meet all of the specifications set for 5G services. Probably the most problematic metric for the next generation mobile network is the latency, which is especially important to uRLLC (Ultra-Reliable and Low-latency Communications) 5G applications such as healthcare management devices or self-driving cars. These applications require 1 millisecond latency, which in practice, is equal to the distance light impulse travels approximately 200 kilometers in the glass core of an optical fiber.

The length of the transmission medium is one of the dominant factors contributing to overall latency meaning the distance constraints the 5G architecture. The other factor contributing to overall latency is the equipment. Each time the data passes through a router or switch, the latency increases as IP packets need to be processed

by the equipment. Although 5G's uRLLC applications are not the first to be introduced as a service, it is essential to determine the latency of the network to prepare for 5G era. This is important especially when network infrastructure forms a country-wide large-scale network consisting of hundreds or thousands of Metro Ethernet nodes.

## 2 Research Frame

The primary objective of this thesis is to provide a baseline for L3 (Layer 3) latency in Telia's Finnish regional networks. The baseline is used to determine, if the current state of regional networks meet the latency requirements set for 5G services. This information is important to the organization as the baseline is expected to indicate the parts of regional networks, which might require investments from the organization. The study does not take a stand on whether construction of regional networks is necessary but only aims to provide the latency statistics for Telia organization. The main research question is "How high is the latency in regional networks?"

This thesis follows a quantitative research approach in latency measurements since the data requires analyzation of the numeric data. According to Shuttleworth (N.d.), quantitative experiments suit research which uses mathematical or statistical means to solve research questions. Additionally, the benefits of a quantitative research approach is that the research can be repeated if they are constructed correctly (Shuttleworth N.d.). While the measurement statistics are analyzed as quantitative means, the study also contains a minor qualitative element, as it aims to study how to effectively conduct the measurements. The analyzation of the data gained is based primarily on quantitative research calculations, and mathematical comparison of the data gained from individual measurement sessions.

Two main factors constraint this study. The first constraint is the equipment used in regional networks. The research focuses only on the part of regional networks consisting of Nokia's SR (Service Router), ESS (Ethernet Service Switch) and SAS (Service Access Switch) series equipment forming the main backbone for 13 individual regional networks. The total amount of routers and switches in the scope is 1139 devices.

The second constraint are the measurement methods. The thesis focuses on ping and TWAMP (Two-way Active Measurement Protocol). Ping was selected as it is a common program available in the most of network hosts and provides an accurate enough baseline for the regional latency. TWAMP, on the other hand, was selected, since it is not yet implemented in Telia's regional networks; and in theory, provides more exact delay statistics over ping. Since there is not much comprehensive research data or publications concerning TWAMP, testing it may provide additional information when TWAMP is adopted as a measurement method in regional networks.

### **3 Telia Company**

Telia Company has roots in history all the way back to the telegraph age in the 19<sup>th</sup> century – long before the merger of the two companies, Swedish Telia and Finnish Sonera took place. Before merging into TeliaSonera, the underlying histories of both countries have much in common although some important differences exist. Telia's home country Sweden has enjoyed a long period of peace after the Treaty of Hamina that ended the Finnish War between Sweden and the Russian Empire in 1809. As a part of the treaty conditions Sweden had to cede the whole of Finland to Russia, which in contrast, meant more turbulence for telecom development in Finland. (Geary, Martin-Löf, Sundelius & Thorngren 2010, 7.)

The roots of Telia reach to its home country Sweden, where its predecessor Televerket was originally formed to run the electrical telegraph in Sweden in 1853. After the arrival of telephone in the 1880s, Televerket received competition as local private companies started to build telephone networks. Eventually, the majority of the local telephone networks fell under Televerket's control when the Swedish government decided to build a united national telephony network. In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, Televerket finally achieved the monopoly status by purchasing the largest competitor Stockholms-telefon in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century and the telecommunications in Sweden came under state control. (Geary et al. 2010, 7.)

In Sweden's neighboring country Finland, the results of the Finnish War affected significantly the local telecommunication systems. During the era when Finland was a Russian Grand Duchy, the Finnish Telegraph was a part of Imperial Telegraph. Between 1855 and 1917, the telegraph remained under Russian control; yet, the regional telephone networks were secured by private companies wanting to protect Finnish autonomy. After the declaration of Finnish independence, the state-owned Finnish Telegraph Administration was formed to take control over the telegraph system and only some parts of fixed telephony in Finland. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the local telecom business was mainly in the hands of many private monopoly companies. Unlike in Sweden, the Finnish telecommunication market was divided roughly into two equally-sized segments, and thus, it was never a responsibility of any single entity. (Geary et al. 2010, 7-8.)

Technologically-wise, the years through 1970s – 1980s were important in the Nordic countries since the telephony network became fully automated, the first mobile generation (1G) was introduced and the transmission lines were digitalized in 1987. The Finnish and Swedish national telecom authorities continued developing individually;



however, they started to cooperate in the Baltic region in 1990s. They were eventually listed on the stock exchange and two companies were founded. The telecom authority in Sweden became Telia AB and the Finnish counterpart became Sonera Oy. In 2002, the companies merged as TeliaSonera after Sonera's financial crisis resulted from failed 3G technology investments in Germany. (10 Year Review of TeliaSonera 2013.)

Today, Telia Company is the fifth largest network operator in the Europe, which provides network access and telecommunication services in 12 countries including the Nordic and Baltic countries as well as in Eurasia. At the end of year 2017, Telia had 23.1 million active subscriptions and in total 20 700 employees. Telia's service portfolio includes wide range of products and services for operator, enterprise and residential customer segments. The current strategy of the company is to invest in capacity in order to secure high quality transportation of massive data volumes and network virtualization to achieve a converged IT infrastructure. (Annual and Sustainability Report 2017, 4-7 and 21.)

## **4 IP Network**

### **4.1 General Design of Large-Scale IP Networks**

Certainly, the best known large-scale IP network is the Internet of today. The Internet is a collection of interlinked independent service provider networks, which provide a global medium for users and devices around the world. These independent networks are run by different companies and organizations sharing common protocols and network architecture in order to operate together. Two main elements form the Internet: communication links that transport the data from one point to another and routers, which direct the traffic flow between the links. (Nucci & Papagiannaki 2009.)

Communication links may vary from telephone lines to television system cables, or to wireless circuits including satellite or radio link connections. In the developed part of the world, links that carry the large amounts of Internet traffic are optical fiber cables. The largest of these high capacity links form the backbone for the Internet and may be directly owned by ISPs (Internet Service Provider) or by organizations that offer link capacity to network operators. As backbone networks require high capacity and high performance, they utilize IP-over-WDM (Wavelength Division Multiplexing) technology to bundle multiple signals together. In IP-over-WDM, the physical optics provide a medium for logical IP links between network nodes as shown in Figure 2. (Nucci et al. 2009.)

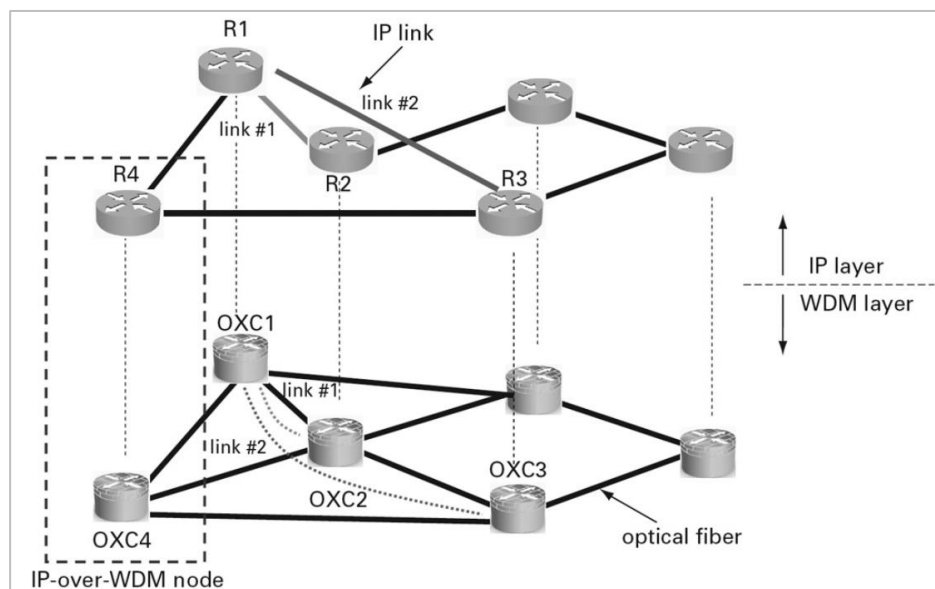


Figure 2. IP-over-WDM (Nucci et al. 2009)

The Internet consists of ISPs categorized into three different tiers and each of them administers their own share of the global IP network. Figure 3 illustrates a hierarchic ISP relationships model, which describes transit and peering interconnection principles between tiers. According to Ghafary, Shaheen & Warnock (2015), there are not

hard distinction between the tiers, but the following generally accepted definitions apply:

- A tier 1 ISP can reach any part of Internet without paying transit fees and therefore must peer with all other tier 1 ISPs.
- A tier 2 does not have the same global reach as tier 1 ISP, but rather serves large regional area such as a country or continent. A tier 2 ISP peers with other tier 2 ISPs and relies acquiring transit services from Tier 1 in order to reach the remaining parts of the Internet.
- A tier 3 ISP serves small regional areas and depends solely on transit services provided by higher-tier service providers.

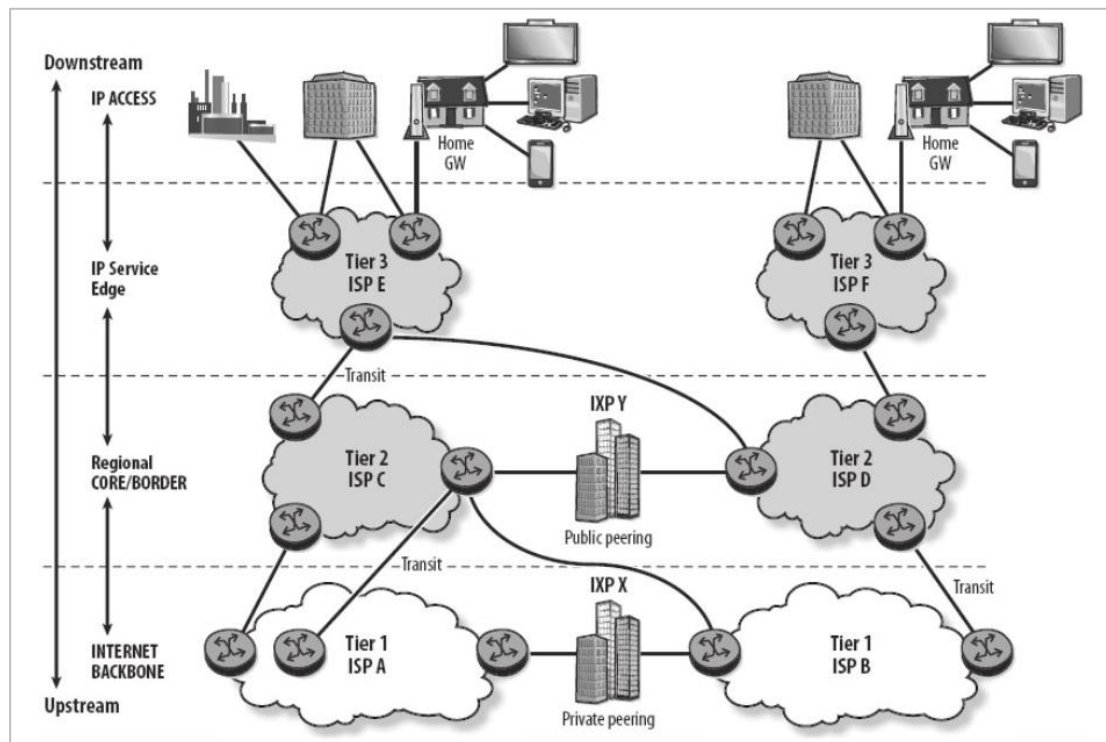


Figure 3. Architecture of Internet (Ghafary et al. 2015)

Although the design of the Internet breaks down to individual networks of service providers, a tier 1 ISP network still reaches great geographical distances. According to Raza & Turner (1999, 83-84), a successful network design of a large network bases on

modular network model, which divides into core (equivalent also to backbone layer), distribution and access layers. Even though this Cisco's theoretical model is nearly two decades old, modern large-scale IP network design still follows this fundamental structure due to its efficiency in packet forwarding process.

Figure 4 visualizes a high-level example of a service provider network, which follows a three-layered hierarchical model. In the figure, the red backbone links connect the core sites within a service provider network as well as connect the service provider network to other service providers (peers). The core sites also connect to distribution and access layers, which extend reachability towards customers in the edge of regions.

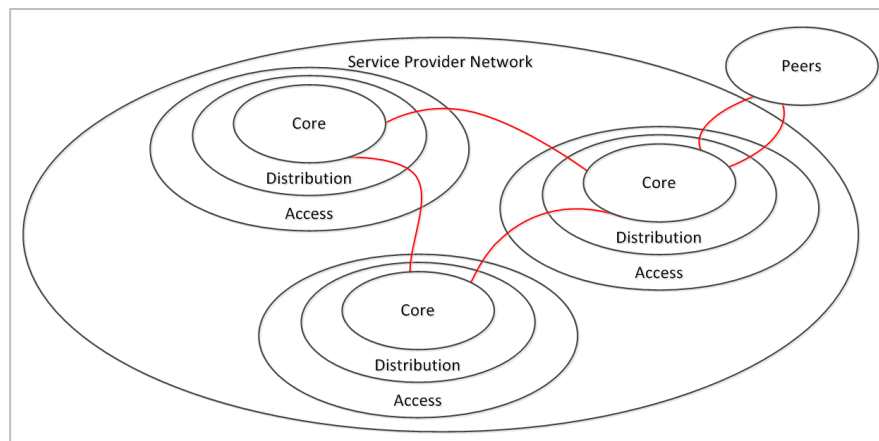


Figure 4. Modular Large Scale Network (Modified from Raza et al. 1999, 31)

The network layers consist of routers performing a number of different roles depending which network layer they serve. In general, a service provider network consist of small number of high-capacity core routers at higher network layers and larger number of low capacity nodes at lower layers. Core routers are responsible for connecting regional networks to the backbone by forwarding packets to and from the regions. Core routers also advertise regional reachability information to the other core routers and may exchange routes with external peer networks. (Raza et al. 1999, 84-85.)

Distribution routers are used to consolidate connections from access routers and provide redundant connections to the backbone network. Distribution routers also may contain topological information about their own region, but they forward packets to core routers for inter-regional routing. In some cases, distribution routers may form their own hierarchy and can be used for direct customer connections that require high-performance services. (Raza et al. 1999, 85.)

The access layer connects the remaining customers to the distribution network. Typically, the access layer consists of lower-end equipment with high port density that collect the traffic from multiple customers using several access technologies. In packet switched networks, it is common that access devices use Ethernet to connect to the CPE (Customer Premises Equipment).

## 4.2 TCP/IP Model

Because IP networks need to support a vast amount of protocols and devices regardless of vendors, all Internet hosts must follow universal methods in order to communicate together. The principles of communication between Internet hosts have

been defined in Internet standard RFC 1122 *Requirements for Internet Hosts -- Communication Layers*. According to RFC 1122 (1989, 7-8), the Internet architecture bases on network reference model where the following fundamental assumptions apply:

- Internet design has to tolerate network variation including e.g. bandwidth, delay, packet loss and packet reordering, as well as failure of individual networks, gateways (routers) or hosts
- An Internet host must be able to communicate with all other Internet hosts regardless of their location
- Hosts must use the same set of protocols regardless of their location
- Gateways are designed to be stateless and end-to-end host data flow control is implemented in hosts
- Only routers should be responsible of routing actions

A network reference model is a logical structure that defines how devices and software interoperate in multi-vendor IP networks. Although other network reference models exist, TCP/IP model is the foundational de facto protocol today's IP networks. The TCP/IP model was originally sprouted when U.S. Department of Defense started funding a reference model that would help build a network that could withstand in crisis situations – even in case of a nuclear war. (Odom 2011.) The name TCP/IP derives from two of its best known protocols TCP (Transmission Control Protocol) and IP. Regardless of the naming convention, the TCP/IP model provides a framework for wide array of different protocols. (Goralski 2009.)

The fundamental element of the TCP/IP model are communication protocol layers. Each TCP/IP layer has specific functions distinct from the others; however, they can be combined for performance reasons (Goralski 2009). Figure 5 presents the five-layered TCP/IP model where some of the common protocols used in service provider networks are tied to the protocol layers. The figure also maps the four lowest layers

of OSI (Open System Interconnection), which is another most used network reference model used today.

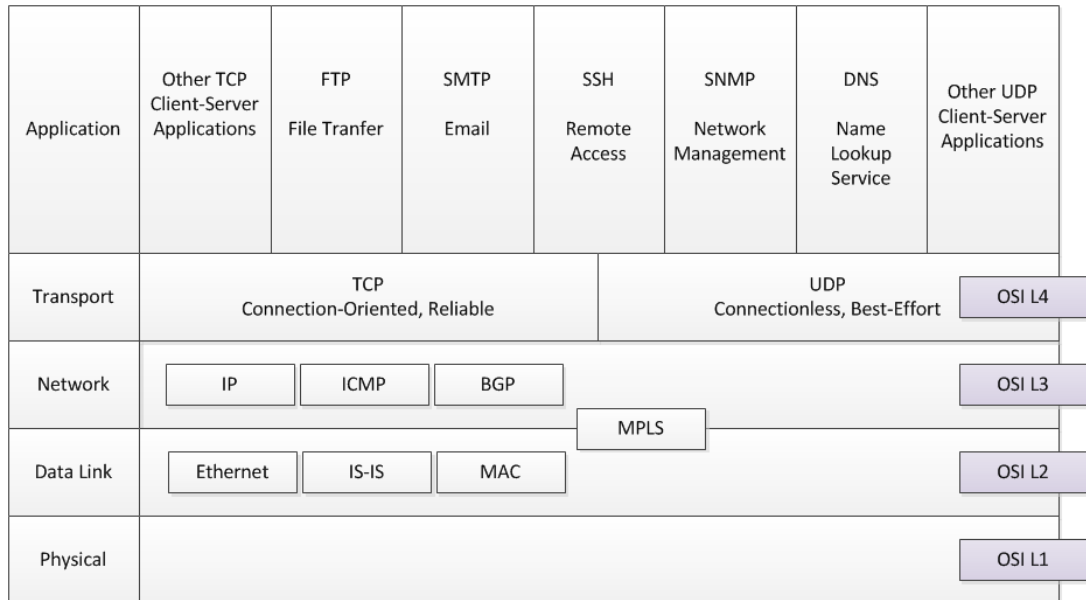


Figure 5. TCP/IP Layers (Modified from Goralski 2017)

In practice, each layer provides services to the upper layer protocols and obtains services from the lower layers protocols. Physical layer defines data transmission rate, synchronization and shape of connector components to signal electrical or optical line conditions for 0 or 1 bit. The above figure does not include any physical layer protocols, as the TCP/IP model is not directly concerned of the physical layer. It instead defines how to interface the lowest layers with the upper layers. Because physical layer is only responsible of transmitting data, it must obtain services from data link layer for connecting hosts in a same LAN (Local Area Network). (Goralski 2009.)

The data link layer provides MAC (Media Access Control) addressing services and adds reliability to raw communication links by adding error detection mechanisms to make links appear error-free for the network layer. This is usually done by framing the data between a header and a trailer before it is transmitted via physical link. The

data link layer cannot communicate outside LAN and relies on network layer protocols. (Goralski 2009.)

The network layer includes only a few protocols, but one major protocol, IP. IP is a widely used protocol designed to interconnect devices in packet-switched networks by providing two important functions: addressing and routing (Odom 2011). Every Internet host needs a unique network address that universally pinpoints their individual locations. For this purpose, the network layer uses IP addresses to reach distant links and hosts across the Internet. IP does also allow other important functions like traffic prioritization and fragmenting. By fragmenting data to packets, IP helps ensure that packets reach to their destinations in IP networks, which are by default unreliable. (Carrell, Kim & Solomon 2015.) Figure 6 describes the original IPv4 packet format, which includes the following fields:

<b>Version</b>	Defines the IP version (IPv4)
<b>IHL</b>	Indicates the length of IP header
<b>Type of Service</b>	(Type of Service field have been renamed and is currently used to define Differentiated Services Code Points)
<b>Total Length</b>	Indicates the total Length of the IP packet including header and data
<b>Identification</b>	Identifier assigned by the sender to aid reassembling fragments
<b>Flags</b>	Provides additional information about fragments and can be used to prevent fragmentation
<b>Fragment Offset</b>	Indicates the number of 8-byte units in the packet fragment
<b>Time to Live</b>	8-bit value which is decremented by routers are packet traverses in the network (IP packet is discarded if Time to Live reaches 0)



<b>Protocol</b>	Indicates the transport layer protocol number carried in the IP packet
<b>Options</b>	Defines rarely used optional variables not common today
<b>Padding</b>	The amount bits that are added to the IP header to ensure header size end on a 32-bit boundary (used only if Options are used)

(Goralski 2017, 202-204.)

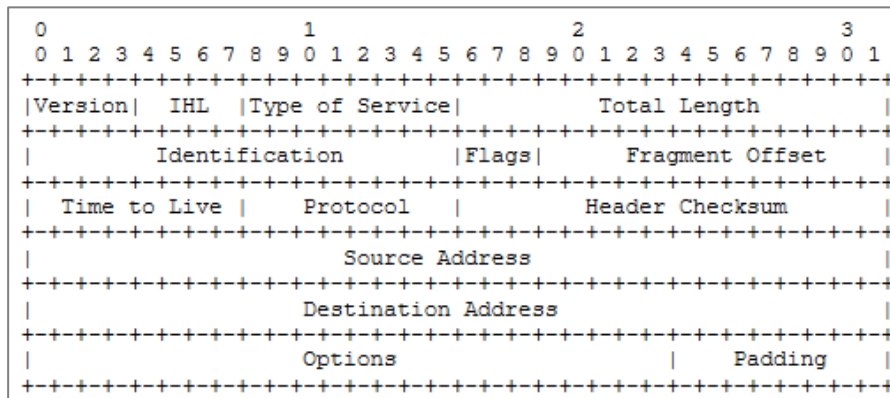


Figure 6. IP Header (RFC 791 1981, 11)

Because of the unreliable characteristics of the network layer, and due to the fact IP packets are fragmented, IP packet might not always use same network path to its destination – and there is also a possibility that it will not reach it at all. In the Internet, end-to-end message delivery relies on transport layer protocols. The two of the most common protocols at transport layer are TCP and UDP (User Datagram Protocol). TCP is used when it is necessary to guarantee that data flows reach their destinations, whereas UDP is used when certain application (e.g. video stream) can tolerate some data loss. The primary functions of transport layer include error correction mechanisms, retransmission of data as well as ensuring that transmitted data is presented to applications in the correct order. (Carrell et al. 2015.)

In contrast to UDP, TCP connections include a successful three-way handshake between hosts before transmission of actual application data can begin. The handshake process is a prerequisite for some applications, such as email clients or web browsers, which require a reliable host-to-host connection. This makes UDP more desirable protocol when speed is a crucial factor and there is no need for error correction mechanisms. The transport layer is the first layer to receive data from applications and starting the encapsulation process required for end-to-end communication between two hosts.

Figure 7 illustrates a scenario where two hosts communicate with each other using a five-layered TCP/IP model. In the figure, an application running on a Device A initiates communication session with a remote Device B over IP network. The application layer interacting directly with the user and the software application, passes application data to the transport layer, which encapsulates the application data with a transport layer header (TH) starting the encapsulation process. When the transport layer has finished the encapsulation process, the application data is passed to lower layers, where the data is further encapsulated within IP packets and frames before transmission. When Device B receives the data, it removes the headers and finally passes the data to correct application based on TCP or UDP port numbers present in transport layer headers.

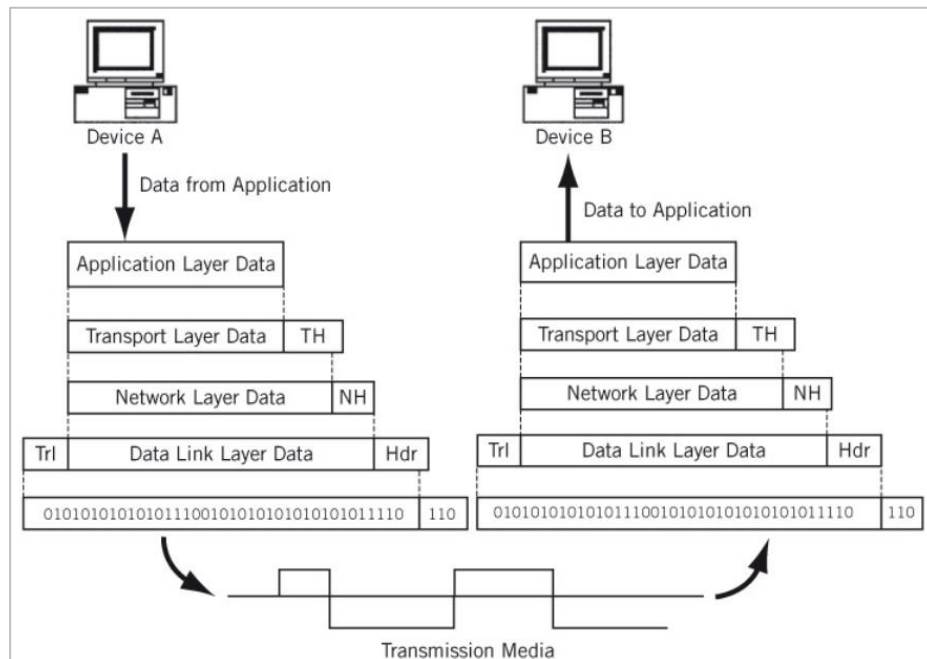


Figure 7. Encapsulation Process (Goralski 2009)

Not all hosts of a network need to mandatorily implement all layers of TCP/IP. The basic philosophy of TCP/IP follows a flexible model, which allows an intermediate system – such as a router to efficiently function only on the first three layers of TCP/IP (Goralski 2009). As illustrated in Figure 8, the core network functions in TCP/IP networks remain simple and efficient whereas functions of the edges of the network surrounding the core on the other hand are more complex. This is sensible, since the one of the main core network functionalities is to enable high-speed data forwarding for applications.

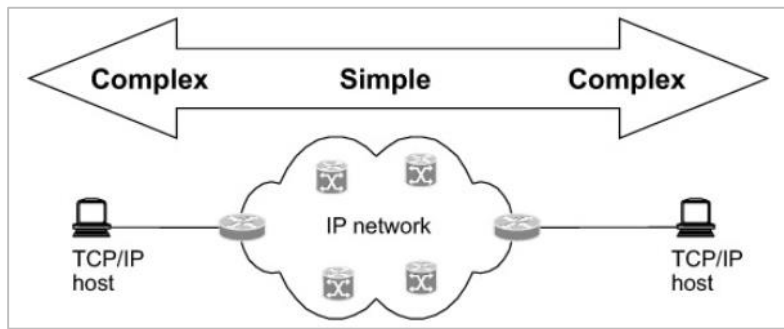


Figure 8. TCP/IP – Basic Philosophy (Oki, Rojas-Cessa, Tatimapula & Vogt 2012)

## 5 Telia Network Architecture

### 5.1 Backbone Networks

The IP network of Telia Company follows a similar large-scale IP network design as described in Chapter 4.1. Hierarchically, Telia's common network architecture shares the three-layer structure but with one major distinction, Telia's core network layer is divided into international and inter-regional layers. This separation is reasonable for administrative reasons. Each of Telia's country organizations administer their own national network whereas international network is not administered by local organizations. Telia's IP network design uses a four-layered model where the national networks consist of the three lowest layers:

- International
- Inter-regional
- Regional
- Access

The international network layer administered by Telia Carrier connects Telia's national inter-regional networks and consists of multiple high-capacity links between

multiple POPs (Point of Presence) around the world. The international backbone network spreads across Europe, Asia and the U.S., forming the second largest ISP backbone network of today's Internet along with other tier 1 ISPs. For reference, a portion of the Telia Carrier's IP backbone and POPs in Europe can be seen in Figure 9.

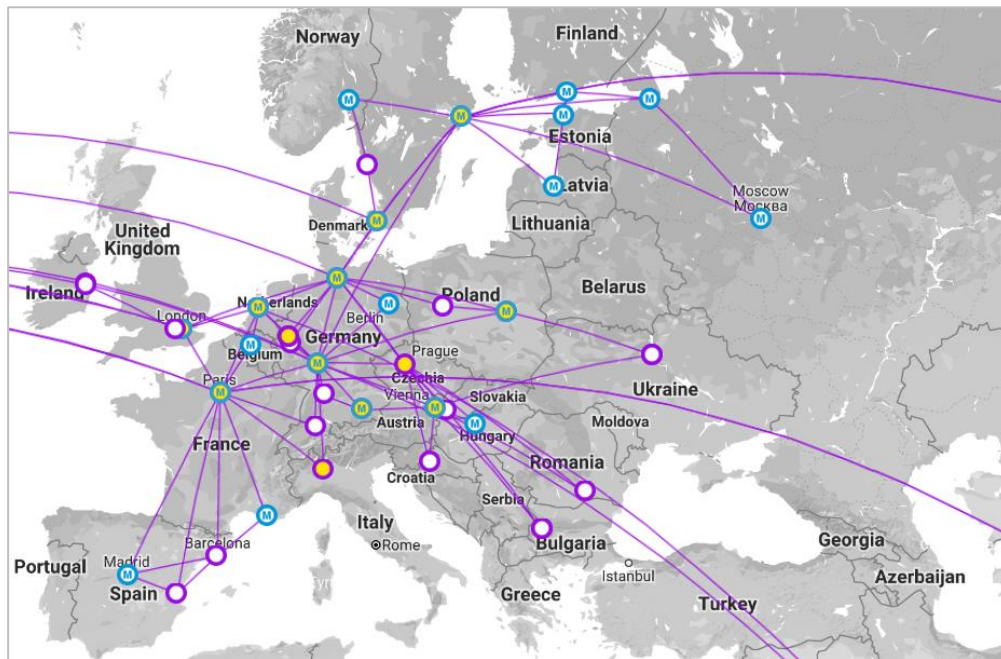


Figure 9. International Network (Telia Carrier – Network Map N.d.)

While Telia has only one international network, it has multiple inter-regional networks in the Nordic countries. In general, the functions and characteristics of inter-regional networks are similar to international backbone network and base on IP-over-WDM MPLS (Multiprotocol Label Switching) backbone, which forwards data in high speed between long or very long distances. Both of the backbone networks also rely on diverse capacity links, which connect the core sites as well as provide peering interconnections with other network providers.

The structure of Telia's national networks is similar, although network topology varies slightly depending on the country. Figure 10 illustrates Telia's common principle

for inter-regional networks that consist of symmetrical red-blue network halves. In the figure, ASBR (Autonomous System Border Router) nodes represent peer routers at the edge of an autonomous system. The other nodes in the figure represent inter-regional core-level routers connecting regions. Configurations of non-ASBR core routers are kept simple in order to achieve high-performance traffic forwarding to, for example, enable a BGP-free (Border Gateway Protocol) core network.

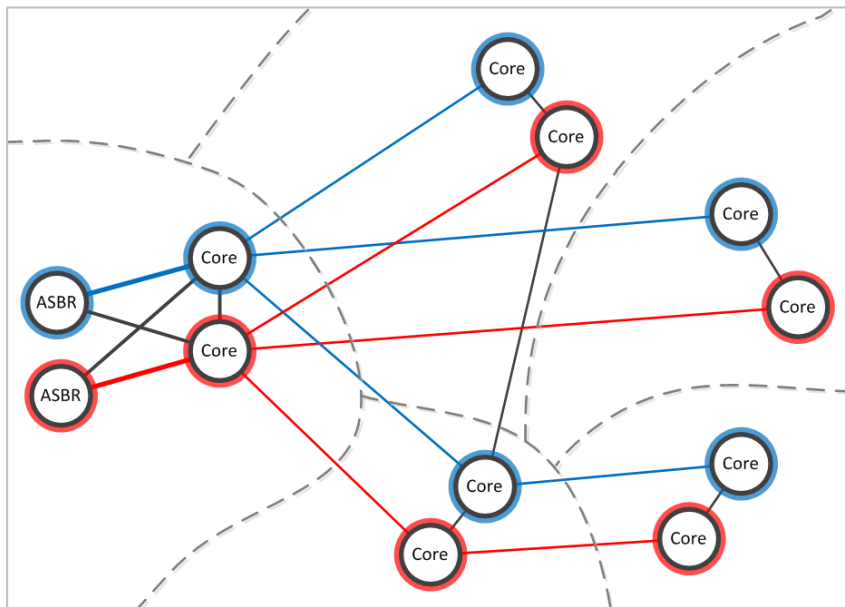


Figure 10. Inter-regional Network

Although not shown in the figure, the inter-regional networks include infrastructure support nodes such as DNS (Domain Name System) servers and BGP route reflectors as well as more ‘intelligent’ service edge routers. The service edge routers collect consumer and corporate Internet services – and interconnect PSTN (Public Switched Telephone Network) and mobile networks. As the edge routers are also used as termination points for customer VPN (Virtual Private Network) services, they are the first devices participating on the routing from customer’s perspective. Due to dimensions of the countrywide inter-regional networks, Telia’s national networks are further composed of several regional network segments that extend reachability within

regions. Regional networks collect traffic from large regional areas and aggregate customer traffic to the inter-regional routers utilizing WDM, OTN (Optical Transport Network) or fiber connections on a physical layer.

## 5.2 Regional Network

### 5.2.1 Topology

There are in total 13 individual regional networks in Finland consisting of Nokia's ME (Metro Ethernet) nodes and Huawei's layer 2 switches. The ME nodes are mainly SR and ESS series equipment forming the main aggregation ring for the Finnish regional network. The layer 2 switches are mainly used to backhaul base station traffic as well as to connect customers but they are not used in the aggregation ring. The list shown in Table 1 lists the equipment considered as aggregation nodes, which as well are the device models in the scope of this thesis.

Table 1. Regional Network Nodes

Vendor	Model	Description	Type
Nokia	7750 SR-12	Service Router (IP edge)	Core/Access
	7750 SR-7	Service Router (IP edge)	Access
	7750 SR-A4	Service Router (IP edge)	Access
	7750 SR-C4	Service Router (IP edge)	Access
	7450 ESS-12	Ethernet Service Switch	Core/Access
	7450 ESS-7	Ethernet Service Switch	Access
	7210 SAS-X	Service Access Switch	Access

The ME nodes are categorized into access nodes and core nodes. ME access nodes are used to aggregate customer traffic using either directly connected customer interfaces or access-to-regional-network interfaces. Unlike the ME access nodes, ME core nodes do not have directly connected customer subscriptions and their purpose is to connect to IP core as well as to other ME nodes. Regional networks offer a degree of redundancy with ring-shaped topology, which is the preferred topology.

However, usually the physical topology of regional network is actually a combination of different logical topologies shown in Figure 11.

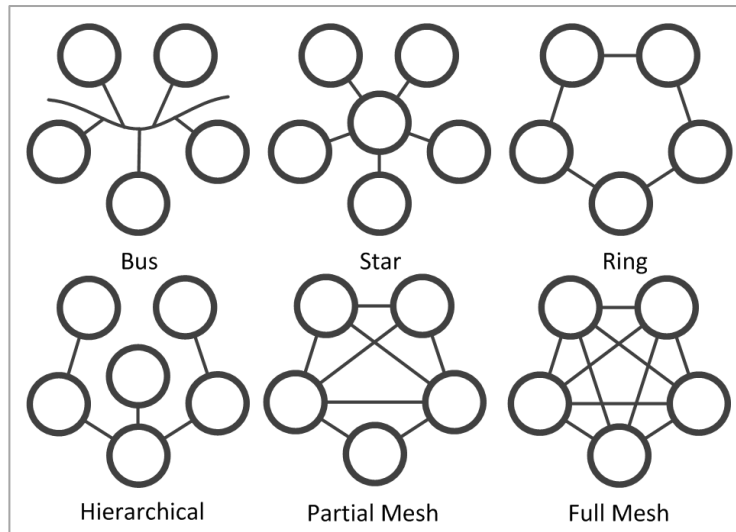


Figure 11. Logical Topologies (Modified from CCNA 1 and 2 Companion Guide 2005, 62)

Bus topology is considered archaic and is not a suitable for large network due to scalability issues (CCNA 1 and 2 Companion Guide 2005, 64). Like bus topology, star-shaped network has a single point of failure, which jeopardizes the network in equipment failure scenarios, and when network congestion occurs. Ring topology, on the other hand, enables redundancy, because even if a link or an ME node fails, there is an alternative path towards the backbone network. Although ring-shaped ME node topology is the basic thought for aggregation networks, in reality, regional networks are actually mesh networks and may contain parts where ME nodes follow hierarchical topology.

A fully connected mesh network offers a high degree of fault tolerance due to maximum numbers alternate connections. Regardless, a large-scale full mesh network is expensive to build and maintain as every node is directly connected to every other



node. A partially connected mesh network is another type of mesh network, which provides fault tolerance without requiring the expense of a fully connected mesh network. In partial mesh topology, nodes connect to only some of the other nodes.

Usually, a typical regional network follows the similar topology as illustrated in Figure 12. The outer rim forms a ring-shaped border for the regional network, but is a partially connected mesh network. In the figure, unlabeled larger grey circles represent the ME access nodes, which usually have redundant paths towards the red and blue ME core nodes (MEc). The ME core nodes are directly connected to each other and provide redundancy towards the IP core and are on the edge of an aggregation area. The two MEs nodes represent nodes dedicated for supporting the regional network infrastructure and are not really considered core or access ME nodes. The figure also includes smaller circles that represent Layer 2 switches which, such as access network nodes, do not have redundant paths towards the inter-regional network.

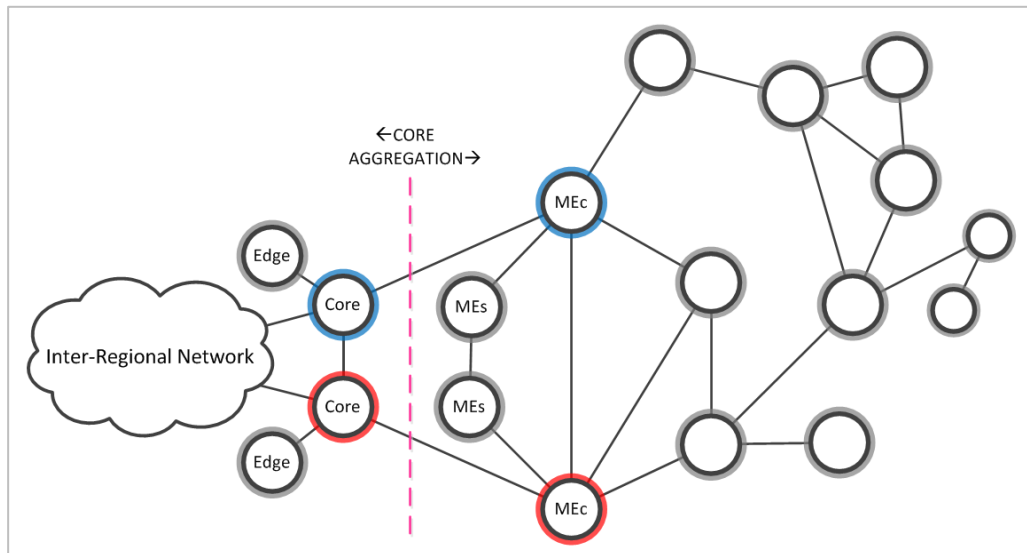


Figure 12. Regional Network

## 5.2.2 Traffic Forwarding

Routing in regional networks bases on IS-IS (Intermediate System-to-Intermediate System) IGP (Interior Gateway Protocol), which provides the necessary reachability information for MPLS (Multiprotocol Label Switching) to form LSPs (Label Switched Path) within a regional network. The packet forwarding in regions bases on MPLS, which is common in Carrier Ethernet networks as it provides more efficiency compared to conventional routing of IP packets. According to RFC 3031 (2001, 4) MPLS reduces IP routing lookups, as packet forwarding does not require the existence of routing protocols. Instead, it uses MPLS labels that are used to determine the next hop address of the IP packet. MPLS does not completely remove the IP lookup process, as the IP header inspection is done once when packet enters the MPLS network (RFC 3031 2001, 4).

This first inspection is performed by IS-IS, which uses Dijkstra shortest path algorithm to calculate best paths through the network. IS-IS is the preferred routing protocol in large ISP networks because of its ability to scale and because it supports traffic engineering (Carrell et al. 2015). According Unicast Routing Protocols Guide Release 15.1.R1 (2017, 305-306) IS-IS supports large networks by allowing autonomous systems to be divided into more manageable areas using two-level hierarchy, where Level 1 routing is performed within a certain IS-IS area separately from Level 2 routing (intra-area routing) whereas Level 2 routing is performed between IS-IS areas (inter-area routing).

In regional networks, the ME nodes perform Level 1 IS-IS routing. Level 1 routers are not aware of Level 2 routes and thus must forward traffic to Level 2 IP core routers in order to reach destinations outside regional networks. MPLS calculates the best paths using IS-IS metrics, which form the forwarding paths in logically complex large-

scale mesh networks. In Figure 13, the green links represent a metropolitan area near a core site. The orange links represent the connections of ME nodes further in regional topology, which expand around borders of a region. The metrics shown on the links ensure that the traffic from the ME access nodes always travels the shortest path and prevents the traffic looping against the preferred paths. The red dotted arrows represent undesirable paths from ME access nodes towards ME core nodes whereas the green dotted arrows represent the preferred routes.

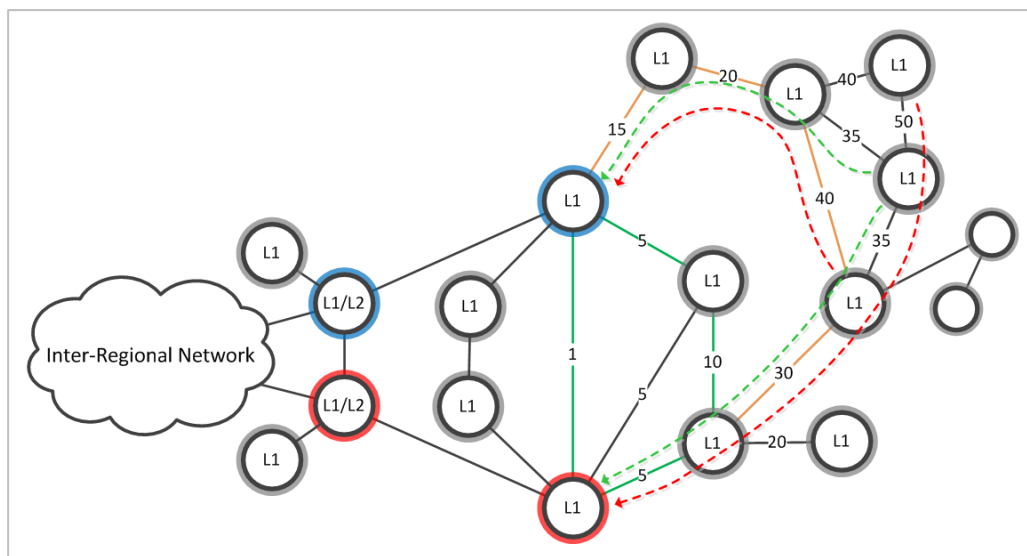


Figure 13. IS-IS Areas and Metrics

IP packets forwarded in regional networks are encapsulated within MPLS headers, which are carried between the data link and network layers. For this reason, MPLS is considered to operate on layer 2.5. An MPLS header (shown in Figure 14) is only 4 bytes in length, meaning less calculation in the forwarding lookup process, compared to a 20-byte IP header.



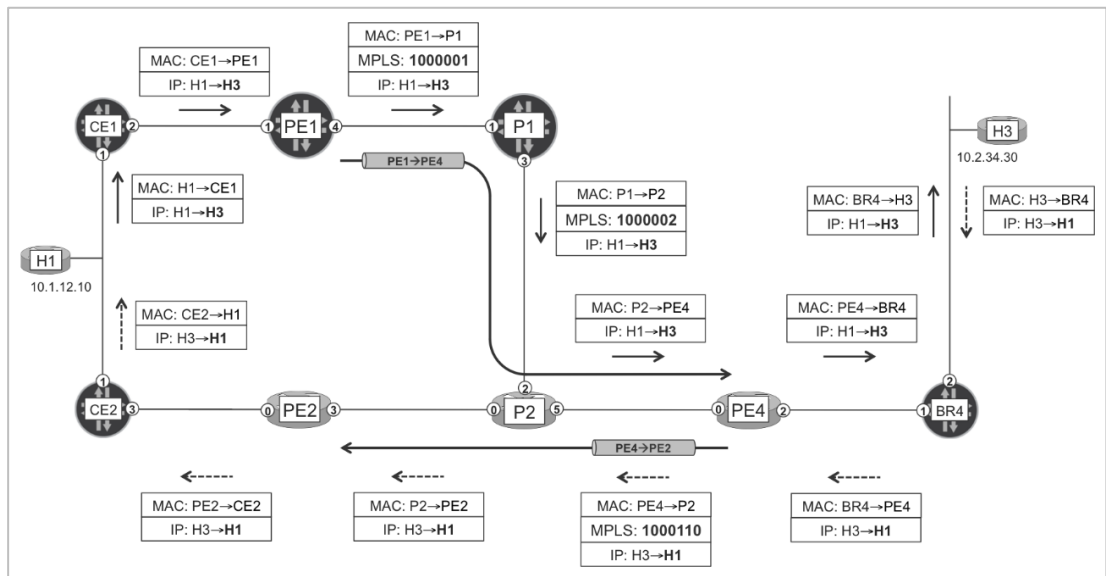


Figure 15. LSP Example (Monge & Szarkowicz 2015)

Processing of MPLS-labeled packets is always based on the top label as a single packet can have multiple labels on the MPLS label stack. LSRs participating to MPLS forwarding may swap the label at the top of the stack (swap), remove a labels (pop) or add labels into the stack (push) (Monge et al. 2015). In the above figure, P1 performs a swap action by swapping the label of the MPLS header to 1000002. The packet is then assigned to the same LSP once again, and as the packet is about to leave the MPLS domain, egress LSR P2 pops the label and sends the packet towards PE4. As shown in the example, the forward and return LSPs may be asymmetric.

### 5.3 Access Network

Most of the services including consumer broadband subscriptions and enterprise VPN services are connected to access network equipment. Access network layer provides an extension for regional networks by reaching especially the residential customers and the enterprise customers who do not necessarily need high performance

services. The access network divides roughly into copper access nodes and fiber access nodes.

The fiber access nodes comprise ME nodes, and L2 (Layer 2) switches and optical FTTH (Fiber to the Home) Ethernet switches providing fiber access for residential customers. Although ME nodes and L2 switches are classified as regional nodes, they are also considered access nodes. The copper access nodes include DSLAMs (Digital Subscriber Line Access Multiplexer), FTTB (Fiber to the Building) Ethernet Switches and the physical medium determines the access node type for the customers. For CAT 3 customers, DSLAMs are the only available access node type whereas CAT 5/6 customers are connected via Fast Ethernet or Gigabit Ethernet interfaces of FTTB switches.

The copper nodes include also TDMoP (Time Division Multiplexing over Packet) nodes used to connect mobile base stations, which can be connected using 2048 Mbps E1 Fast Ethernet interfaces. However, for example 4G base stations require much more capacity than older generation mobile technologies, which is why 4G base stations use fiber connections. Figure 16 illustrates a MBH (Mobile Backhaul) connection from a 4G base station towards mobile core network. As shown in the figure, the MBH is not necessarily forwarded directly to a core router when compared to conventional customer traffic, which comes from a CPE device through a green access node.

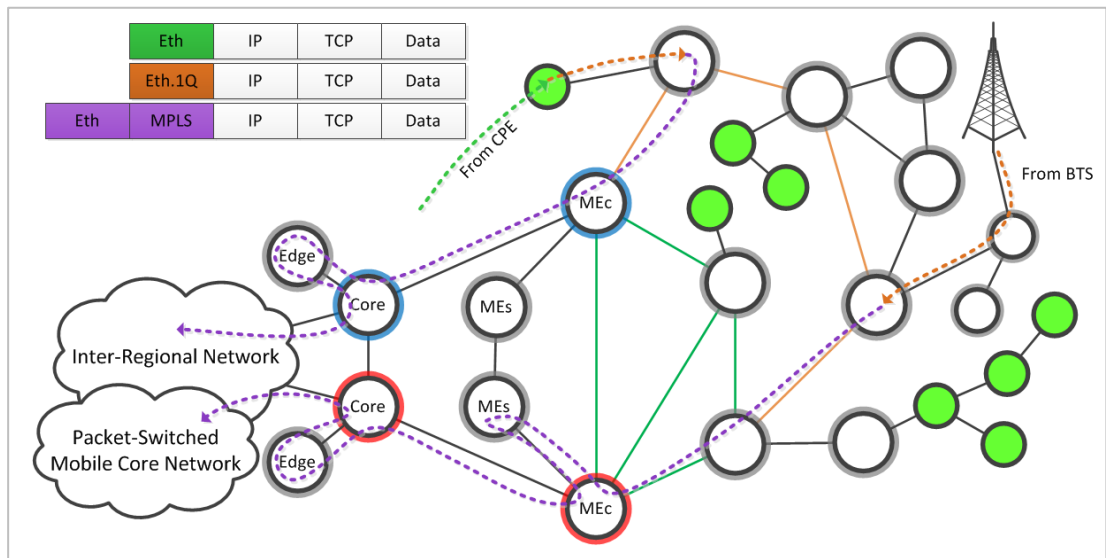


Figure 16. Service Forwarding and Encapsulation

Appendix 1 describes the interconnection of access and regional networks. The CPE layer in the appendix is only used to visualize the customer premises and does not count as a separate network layer in Telia's network architecture. As illustrated, CPEs can be directly connected to regional nodes. The appendix features also inter-regional layer, as the 'regional intelligence', the service edge routers, reside at core site's premises.

## 6 5G

IMT-2020 (5G) is a next generation mobile network technology, which is currently being standardized by ITU (International Telecommunications Union) with the help of other standard development organizations. As of April 2018, ITU has agreed the key performance requirement of IMT-2020 as well as reached the first-stage approval for new standards relating closely to upcoming 5G networks (Zhao 2017; Zhao 2018). Compared to IMT-Advanced (4G), IMT-2020 aims to enhance the existing mobile networks by improving the key capability areas shown in Figure 17.

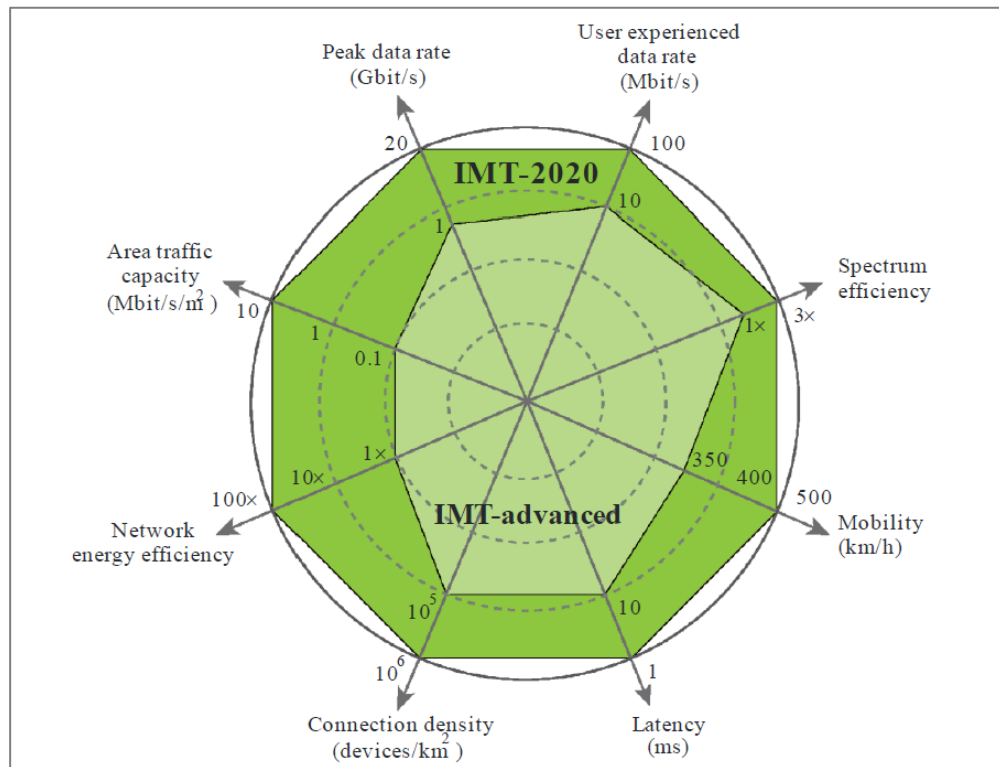


Figure 17. Enhancement of Key Capabilities from IMT-Advanced to IMT-2020 (M.2083-0 2015, 14)

Although ITU is the main organization driving the development of IMT-2020, the other major organization in 5G's evolution, 3GPP (3<sup>rd</sup> Generation Partnership Project), has been working with a new 5G radio access technology known as NR (New Radio). In December 2017, 3GPP released initial NR specifications for non-standalone access, which bases on cooperation of 4G and 5G networks. In the non-standalone access, both 4G and 5G radios coordinate in the same device to provide necessary control and data paths for 5G traffic. The first set of NR specifications are capable of fulfilling many of the IMT-2020's requirements; however, the standalone access specifications expected to be ready by the end of the first half of 2018, are required to fulfill all of the requirements for 5G applications. (Kim et al. 2018.)



Because standardization of IMT-2020 is still ongoing, the final architectural models are not currently known. Still, the device manufacturers have already responded to the commercialization of 5G networks by introducing solutions for the future 5G applications. Even though the requirements for 5G networks are tight, not all of the requirements need to be met simultaneously adding flexibility to efficiently support various 5G applications (Kim et al. 2018). As shown in Figure 18, the 5G applications are divided into three usage scenarios: eMBB (Enhanced Mobile Broadband), mMTC (Massive Machine Type Communications) and uRLLC (Ultra-reliable and Low-latency Communications).

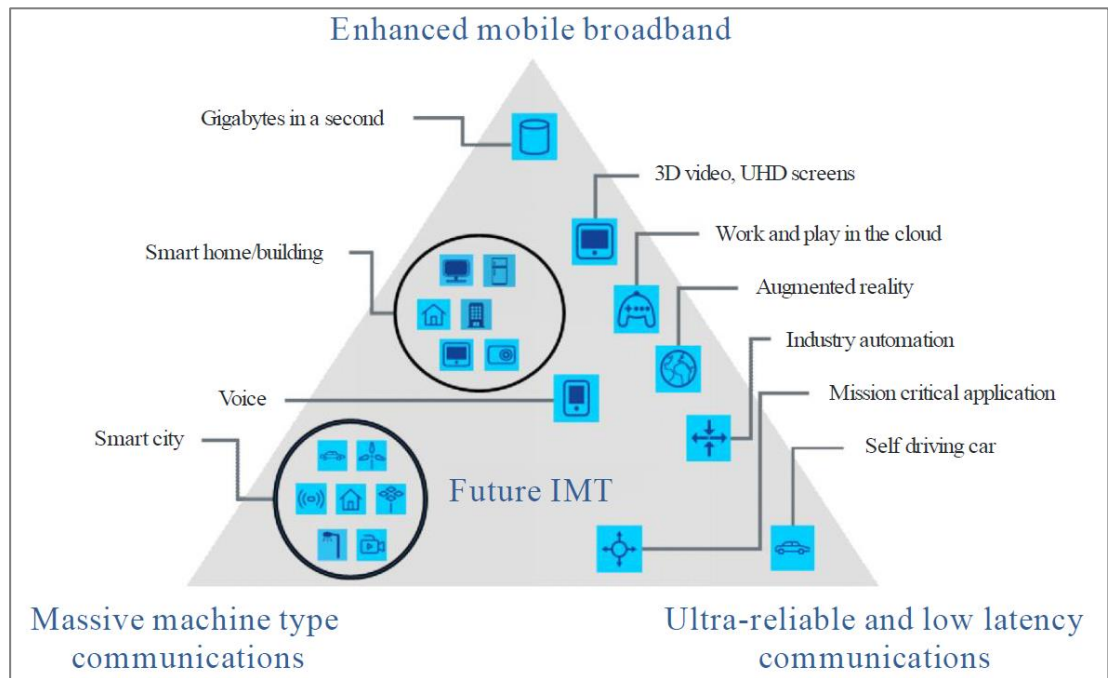


Figure 18. IMT-2020 Usage Scenarios (M.2083-0 2015, 12)

Each of the usage scenarios require distinct key capability parameters from IP networks. For example, eMBB applications have high importance in area traffic capacity, peak data rate, user experienced data rate and spectrum efficiency. On the other hand, mMTC applications do not depend so much on these parameters. Instead, the

most important parameter is connection density to support the tremendous numbers of devices, which may transmit data only occasionally. In high mobility uRLLC applications, low latency and high mobility are the most essential parameter to secure e.g. transportation safety of autonomous vehicles. (M.2083-0 2015, 15.)

## 7 Network Performance

### 7.1 Metrics

The overall network performance is a combination of factors affecting both packets and frames when they are transmitted over networks. As communication networks operate on different TCP/IP layers, the performance metrics for network and data-link layers have been specified by different organizations: MEF (Metro Ethernet Forum) and ITU's Telecommunication Standardization Sector. As this thesis focuses on measuring L3 latency, Chapter 7 neither covers the L2 metrics defined by MEF nor provides a comprehensive theory about all L3 metrics.

In IP networks, packet forwarding decisions are based on the most current network conditions. The paths to the other networks constantly change due to hardware failures or excessive use of network's available capacity. This, in addition to the fact that there are no performance monitoring authorities for the Internet, makes IP networks generally unreliable. Hence, performance monitoring is a responsibility that falls to the individual service providers. (Carrell et. al 2015.)

In many cases, today's IP network design requires that packets make several hops before reaching their destination. Each of the hops represents a point in the network, which can make packet susceptible to performance issues. In some cases, performance issues may result from a single cause, e.g. equipment failure or congestion,

however, in some cases poor network performance does not have a single cause. (Carrell et al. 2015.) According to Carrell et al. (2015), the common network performance is composed of the following metrics:

- **Latency** measures how long it takes a PDU (Protocol Data Unit) to travel from node to another. Latency can either be measured as one-way (source to destination) or two-way (round-trip time) latency.
- **Packet/Frame Loss** indicates the number or percent of PDUs that do not reach their intended destination.
- **Retransmission** of a PDU occurs when packet is lost and a reliable transport protocols (e.g. TCP) is used for transmission. Retransmission delay measures the amount of time required to retransmit the PDU lost PDU.
- **Throughput** is a measure of amount of traffic a network can handle.

In addition to above metrics, several other performance metrics exist. ITU's recommendation Y.1540 defines more comprehensive metrics for measuring IP packet transfer and availability performance. According to Y.1540 (2016, 16-28), additional IP performance parameters include: IP service availability, end-to-end 2-point IP packet delay variation, spurious IP packet rate and several capacity metrics as well as ratios for IP packet errors and reordered packets.

Regarding 5G, the latest requirements for performance metrics of some applications can be seen in Appendix 2 (3GPP TS 23.501 v15.0.0 2017, 89). The 3GPP's QoS model shown in the Appendix defines packet error rate and packet delay budget for 5G applications. However, the QoS model does not yet contain latency requirements for all 5G applications.

## 7.2 Network Delay

Latency – or network delay indicates how much time it takes for a datagram to get transmitted from one point to another. To the most of us, network delay of modern IP network is probably most noticeable and concrete, when we are on a voice over IP call with a person in the same room. It might be thought that delay is not, in fact, much of an issue in people's everyday life. However, when there is a need to implement new latency critical applications such as more advanced industrial automation or intelligent transport systems, delay becomes a much more critical metric. According to Evans & Filsfils (2007, 4), time-critical applications are highly dependent on low latency, which is why SLA (Service Level Agreement) terms for network delay are defined for one-way delay. On the contrary, for more adaptive TCP applications it is more reasonable to define SLA terms for two-way delay (Evans et al. 2007, 4).

Network delay can be measured as one-way delay and two-way delay. Measuring one-way delay over two-way delay is more accurate, since measuring round-trip delay measures the performance of two distinguished network paths together. Hence, the network paths in IP networks are considered asymmetric, which means that the actual physical path from a source to the destination may differ from the path from the destination to the source. The delay of the forward and reverse path may also be asymmetric due to asymmetric queuing or because paths' QoS provisioning may differ in both directions. Finally, applications do generate unequal amount of data for both directions, which can make an application more dependent on the performance in one direction. (RFC 2679, 2-3.)

Both one-way and two-delay are caused by the various delay components. First of all, serialization delay (also known as transmission delay) occurs when a packet is sent into the transmission media. Serialization delay depends on packet size and link

speed and is proportional to packet size and inversely proportional to link speed (Evans et al. 2007, 6-7):

$$D_{\text{serialization}} = \frac{\text{bits}}{s_{\text{link}}}$$

where  $\text{bits}$  = transmitted bits and  $s_{\text{link}}$  = link speed

Serialization delay is not significant in regional IP networks since the ME nodes are connected together with high-speed transmission links. The next delay component is equal to the time taken for a bit to reach destination is constrained by the distance and the physical media (Evans et al. 2007, 5). Propagation delay is constrained by the speed of light in the transmission medium and depends upon the distance. In optical fibers, the theoretical maximum travel speed of is only near to the speed of light  $c$  due to refractive index of fibers' glass core (Miller 2012). For reference, propagation delay increases when electric medium such as copper cable is used. Then maximum travel speed of the electric signal is roughly  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the constant  $c$ .

$$D_{\text{propagation}} = \frac{d}{s}$$

where  $d$  = distance and  $s$  = wave propagation speed

Because physical laws constrain the propagation speed, the only way on controlling propagation delay is control the physical link routing or alternatively, change the network topology to reduce the propagation delay (Evans et al. 2007, 5-6). The propagation delay is the most noticeable in very long distances, even if the best available transmission technology is used. This can be seen in Table 2, which contains Telia Carrier's round-trip statistics about packet loss ratios and packet delay.

Table 2. Telia Carrier's Performance Report – March 2018 (Telia Carrier – Services)

Region	Monthly Average RT packet loss (%)	Monthly Average RTT packet delay (ms)
Intra-Europe	0.01	14.67
Intra-US	0.02	28.71
Intra-Asia	0.00	34.72
Trans-Atlantic	0.01	84.67
Trans-Pacific	0.02	160.70
Europe-Asia	0.02	183.46

Routers also need to time to process the IP packets, which causes another delay component, switching delay. The switching delay is the time difference between host receiving a packet on ingress interface and transmitting the packet into the medium. Typically, switching delays are 10-20 microseconds in hardware-based switching and more if software-based router implementations are used. If the distances between routers or switches are long, switching delays are insignificant compared to the overall end-to-end delay. Lastly, if a router receives more packets to its ingress interfaces that it is able to process, the packets are queued. This adds another factor (scheduling or queuing delay) to overall delay since packets must remain in the queue until forwarding conditions defined by the scheduling algorithm are met. (Evans et al. 2007, 6.) Finally, the end-to-end delay is the sum of all of the delay components (Evans et al. 2007, 5):

$$D_{tot} = (D_{ser} + D_{pro} + D_{swi} + D_{sch})$$

where  $D_{tot}$  = total delay,  $D_{ser}$  = serialization delay,  $D_{pro}$  = propagation delay,  $D_{swi}$  = switching delay and  $D_{sch}$  = scheduling delay

According to Y.1540 (2016, 17), IPTD (IP packet Transfer Delay) is defined for all successful and errored packet outcomes across a basic section or a Network Section Ensemble (NSE). IPTD (shown in Figure 19) is calculated using ingress and egress event IPREs (Internet Protocol packet transfer reference event):

*IPTD is the time,  $(t_2 - t_1)$  between the occurrence of two corresponding IP packet reference events, ingress event IPRE1 at time  $t_1$  and egress event IPRE2 at time  $t_2$ , where  $(t_2 > t_1)$  and  $(t_2 - t_1) \leq T_{max}$ . If the packet is fragmented within the NSE,  $t_2$  is the time of the final corresponding egress event. (Y.1540 2016, 17.)*

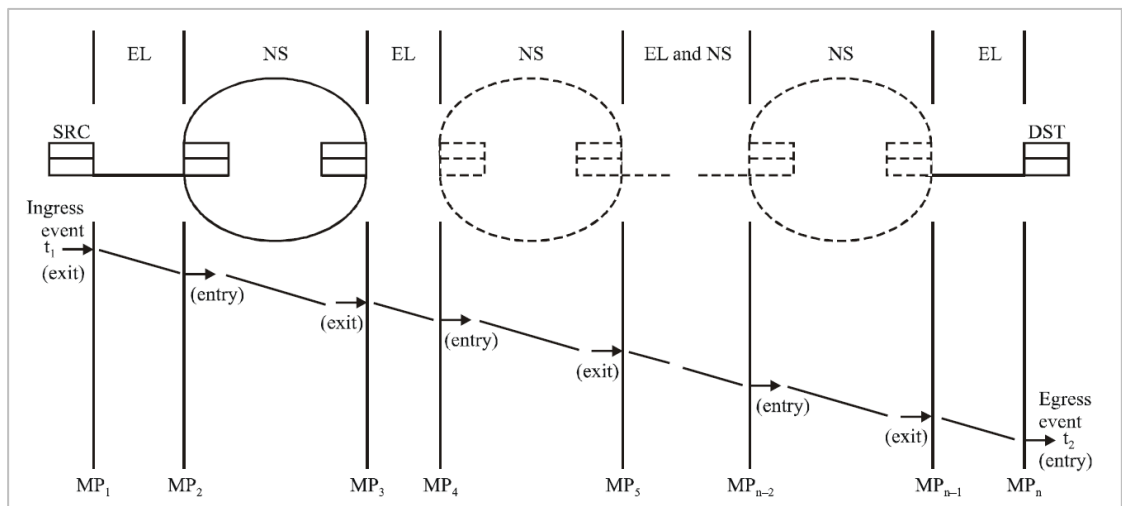


Figure 19. End-to-end Transfer of an IP Packet (Y.1540 2016, 17)

In the figure, the one-way end-to-end IPTD is the delay between the measurement point (MP) at the source (SRC) and destination (DST). ELs represent exchange links connecting hosts (source/destination host and routers) whereas NSs represent a set of hosts and links that together provide IP service between the source and destination host.

Y.1540 also defines mean, minimum and median metrics for end-to-end IPTD. Mean IPTD is the arithmetic average of IP packet transfer delays. Minimum IPTD is the smallest value of IPTD among all IP packet transfer delays and includes propagation delay and queuing delays common to all packets. Therefore, minimum IPTD may not represent the theoretical minimum delay of the path between measurement points. Median IPTD is the 50th percentile of the frequency distribution of IP packet transfer delays representing the middle value once the transfer delays have been rank-ordered. (Y.1540 2016, 18.)

### 7.3 Delay Variation

Delay variation is an important metric to some of the applications. For example, streaming applications may use information about the total range of IP delay variation to avoid buffer underflow and overflow. Extreme variation of IP delay will also cause problem TCP connections as TCP's retransmission timer thresholds grow and may cause delayed packet transmission or even unnecessary transmissions. (Y.1540 2016, 18.)

Delay variation (also referred to as jitter) may be a result of several occurrences. If the network topology changes because of a link failure or because LSPs change, the change in propagation delay may cause a sudden peak in delay variation. For the same reason, if the traffic is rerouted over links with slower speeds, serialization may contribute to jitter. Variation in scheduling delay may cause delay variation if scheduler buffers oscillate between empty and full. In addition, switching delay may affect jitter, however, since modern routers use hardware-based packet switching, the switching delay variation is a lesser consideration. (Evans et al. 2007, 8.)



End-to-end 2-point IP packet delay variation bases on the measured delay for consecutive packets and is measured observing IP packet arrivals at ingress and egress measurement points (Y.1540 2016, 18). According to Evans et al. (2007, 8), it is fundamental that delay variation is measured as one way delay since measuring round-trip delay is not sensible. IP delay variation is calculated as presented in Figure 20.

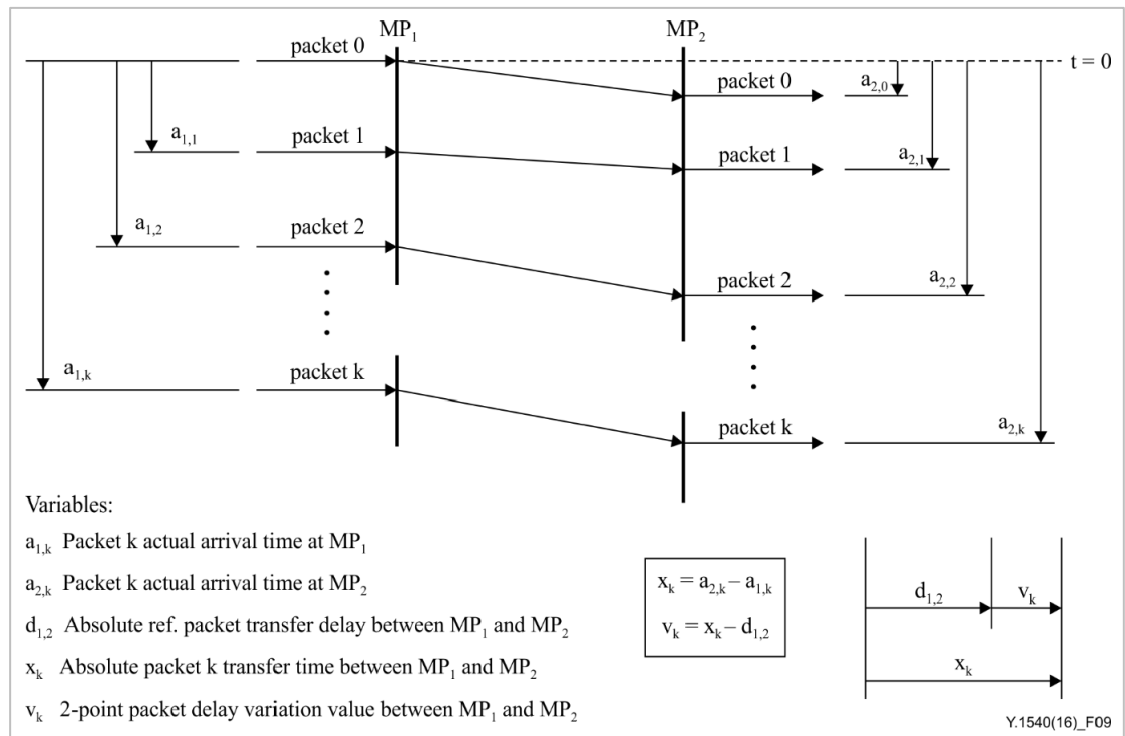


Figure 20. End-to-end 2-Point IP Packet Delay (Y.1540 2016, 19)

## 8 Performance Monitoring Methods

### 8.1 Overview

In general, network performance monitoring methods can be considered as either active or passive. Active methods generate synthetic packet streams whereas passive methods base on observation of unmodified (real) traffic. Passive methods base

most importantly on the integrity of the measured traffic flow; meaning that passive method must not generate, modify or discard packets in the test stream (RFC 7799 2016, 5). Other attributes of active methods include that:

- The packets in the stream of interest have (or are modified to have) dedicated fields or field values for measurement
- The source and destination measurement points are usually known in advance
- The characteristics of the packet stream of interest are known by the source (RFC 7799 2016, 4.)

The important characteristic of a passive method is that it relies solely on observation of packet streams. Unlike active methods, passive methods does not influence the quantities measured, which removes the need to analyze and/or minimize effects of synthetic test traffic. However, passive methods collect information using a collector, which may increase traffic load when transferring measurement results to collector. Passive methods depend on existence of one or more packets streams and require often more than one designated measurement point. If more than one measurement point is used to e.g. measure the latency between two measurement points, passive methods require that packets contain enough information determine the results. (RFC 7799 2016, 5.)

Some methods may use a subset of both active and passive attributes making them hybrid methods. RFC 7799 defines two hybrid categories: Hybrid Type I and Hybrid Type II. Hybrid Type I is a synthesis of the fundamental methods (active and passive), which focuses on single packet stream. An example of a Hybrid Type I method, is a method that generates synthetic stream(s) and observes an existing stream according to the criteria for passive methods. Hybrid Type II methods employ two or more different streams of interest with some degree of mutual coordination (e.g. one or more synthetic packet streams and one or more undisturbed and unmodified packet

streams) to enable enhanced characterization from additional joint analysis. (RFC 7799 2016, 6-7.)

The two methods, ping and TWAMP, used in this study are examples of purely active methods. Passive measurement protocols such as SNMP (Simple Network Management Protocol) collects and stores a great amount of data, which is not necessary (or even reasonable) to conduct simple end-to-end measurements. Active methods on the other hand provide a more efficient way of gathering specific data from network elements.

## 8.2 Ping

### 8.2.1 Basic Operation

The best-known example of an active method of measurement is ping utility. Ping provides a simple method to test network host reachability as well as is able to report diagnostic reports about errors, packet loss and round-trip times. Ping operates on layer 3 and uses an echo query-and-response ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol) messages. According to Huston (2003), the basic operation of ping is simple: a ping source generates an ICMP echo message and sends it to a destination host. The destination receiving the IP packet then examines the ICMP header, forms an ICMP echo request message based on ICMP echo message and sends it back to the ping source. This operation is described in Figure 21.

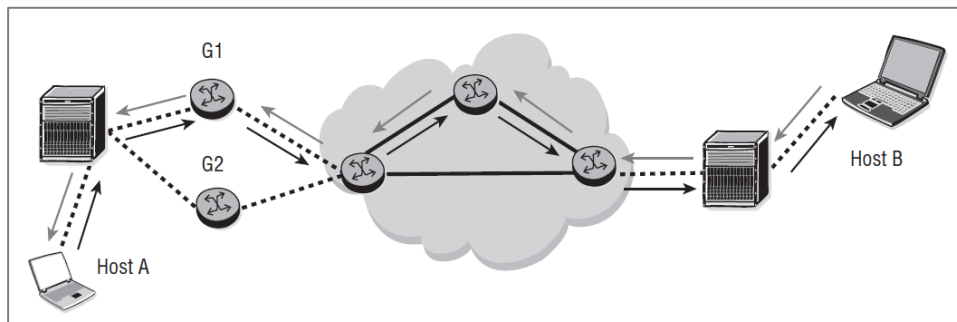


Figure 21. ICMP Echo Query and Response (Hundley 2009, 253)

Ping implementations and the parameters supported vary among different operating systems. Usually ping programs allow modifying parameters such as send interval and number of sent echo requests or changing TTL (Time to Live), TOS (Type of Service) and source address of the host by setting IP header fields. Typically, ping programs also allow set the amount of padding that should be added to the packet. Depending on the ping program and operating system, also other parameters can be set. The example output shown below displays a summary of loss and round-trip delay statistics (minimum, maximum and standard deviation) for the five sent packets when ping command was issued on SR OS (Service Router Operating System) device.

```
*A:vSim1# ping <IP address> rapid size 1024 pattern 65532 do-not-fragment
PING <IP address> 1024 data bytes
!!!!
---- <IP address> PING Statistics ----
5 packets transmitted, 5 packets received, 0.00% packet loss
round-trip min = 1.21ms, avg = 1.36ms, max = 1.41ms, stddev = 0.076ms
```

ICMP messages use IP protocol number 1 and are constructed at the IP layer. The messages encapsulated within IP packets are considered part of the IP layer itself, and like UDP, ICMP does not guarantee delivery. A ping might also result in a destination unreachable ICMP-message, which can indicate that packet might not have a route between the hosts or then it might have been discarded. (Hundley 2009, 252-253.)

Ping uses the header format shown in Figure 22 for generating both ICMP echo and ICMP echo replies between network hosts. The three first fields are common to all ICMP messages: an 8-bit type and code followed by a 16-bit checksum. (Goralski 2017).

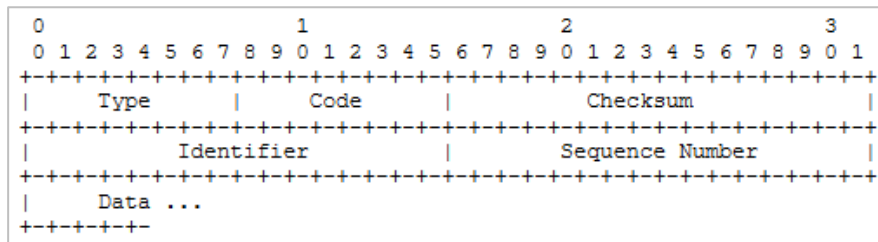


Figure 22. ICMP Echo/Reply Header (RFC 792 1981, 14)

The type field defines the purpose of the ICMP message. According to Goralski (2017), type field is used to recognize about 40 different ICMP message types categorized in two major categories: error messages and queries. The Table 3 shows some of the non-optional ICMP message types that are mandatory to implement in network hosts. Note that ICMP messages also include optional messages types, which are not presented in Table 3.

Table 3. ICMP Message Types (Modified from Goralski 2017)

Type	Meaning	Codes	Category
0	Echo Reply	0	Query
3	Destination Unreachable	0-15	Error
5	Redirect	0-3	Error
8	Echo Request	0	Query
11	Time Exceeded	0-1	Error
12	Parameter Problem	0-2	Error
17	Mask Request	0	Error
18	Mask Reply	0	Error
37	Domain Name Request	0	Error
38	Domain Name Reply	0	Error

The code gives additional information about the condition of the message type and usually most of the ICMP messages use only Code=0. The checksum is equivalent to

the checksum used in IP packet headers and provides an error checking mechanism. Identifier and sequence number fields may be used to aid in matching echoes and replies or can be equal to zero. (Goralski 2017; RFC 792 1981, 14-15.)

## 8.2.2 Reliability

Although ping is a simple and widely supported tool in nearly all operating systems, it nevertheless has flaws due to ICMP message processing in network elements. Typically, router architectures use hardware-based data plane to fast switch and process the data, however, ICMP echo requests are directed to control plane where the CPU (Central Processing Unit) is responsible for handling ICMP echo requests (Huston 2003). Figure 23 illustrates a router architecture, which is divided into management, control and data planes. Where the data plane is responsible of processing the passing traffic individually without requiring interaction with the control plane, the control plane resources are required to process ICMP packets.

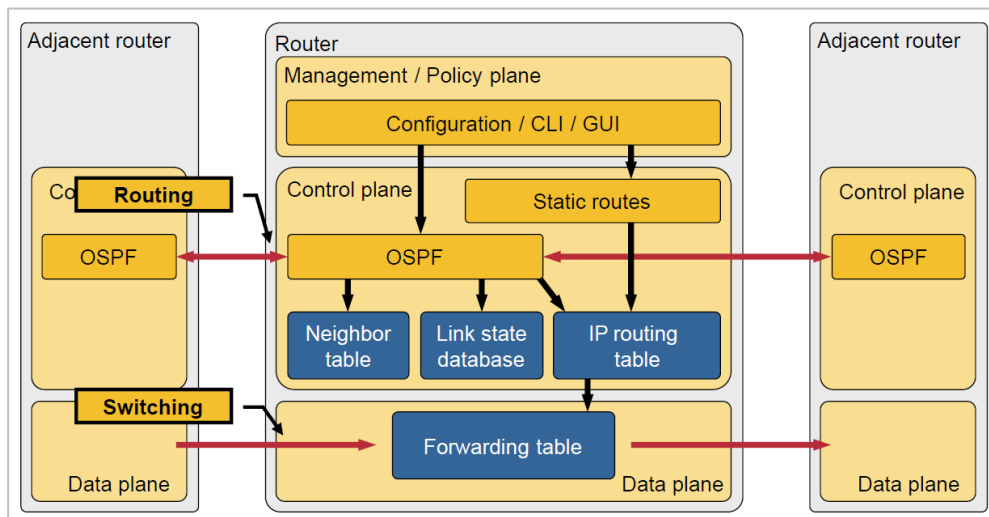


Figure 23. General Router Architecture (Pepelnjak 2013, 4)

For example in Juniper router architecture, the data plane also limit rates how many ICMP echo requests are passed to the control plane. Furthermore, processing of ICMP messages is considered a low-priority task meaning the router is not ready to respond until it has finished processing higher-priority tasks such as building the routing table. (Marschke, Reynolds & Southwick 2011, 473.)

Due to ICMP echo requests are processed at a lower priority makes ping unreliable method of determining the actual performance of network paths. Ping also relies on round-trip measurements, which gives an approximate value of the one way-delay. By measuring the round-trip delay, the one-way delay may or may not be roughly half of the round-trip delay, because ICMP echo and ICMP reply packets do not necessarily return the same path. As mentioned in earlier chapters, QoS markings in two directions may also be asymmetric, which results in an unequal amount queuing time the test packet spends in the scheduler. However, routers are supposed to set the TOS field (precedence) of an IP packet to 6 or 7 giving it a high priority to secure its delivery to the destination address (Goralski 2017). Regardless, this does not prioritize ICMP packets at the control plane and only gives them higher priority as they are passed from router to another.

Ping is generally considered a not reliable method of measuring the network performance. Some vendors even discourage using ping to measure latency as ICMP processing delay with certain equipment can be up to four milliseconds or more (KB27335 N.d.). Consequently, TWAMP is becoming more preferable method for measuring latency, which advantages are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Comparison of TWAMP and Ping (TWAMP Explained 2014)

Capability	TWAMP	ICMP echo (Ping)
Original purpose	Performance monitoring across IP networks	Connectivity check, Basic round-trip delay capability
Monitoring existing infrastructure	Available in certain routers, NIDs or probes	Yes (Widely supported in every NE and Operating systems)
Transparency through network elements allowing generic, robust, predictable test methodology	Yes (test based on UDP traffic which passes through network)	In some cases routers block or rate limit ICMP
Round trip Delay KPI	Yes	Insufficient accuracy due to slow ICMP processing in network elements
1-way Loss KPI	Yes	No
1-way delay KPI	Yes	No
1-way delay variation (PDV) KPI	Yes	No

## 8.3 TWAMP

### 8.3.1 Overview

TWAMP is a protocol used to measure the metrics of bidirectional IP performance between two devices. It uses the OWAMP (One-Way Active Measurement Protocol) architecture initially developed for measuring only unidirectional metrics such as one-way delay or packet loss in IP networks. Because TWAMP bases on OWAMP, it is capable of measuring also one-way metrics, which however, is less common in IP networks. Two-way measurements are primarily used as remote measurement point may be limited to a simple echo function, and because round-trip metrics does not require synchronization between local and remote measurement points. (RFC 5357 2008, 1-2.)

Compared to ping, TWAMP is a less familiar measurement method. There are not many publicly available research results or publications concerning TWAMP and



probably the most informative research for comparison of ping and TWAMP is discussed in Ingmar Bäckström's master's (2009) thesis. In his thesis, Bäckström implemented a measurement topology where two test probes were connected over an Internet connection. The test sessions between the probes were conducted with TWAMP, ping as well as two other active measurement methods.

According to Bäckström (2009, 29), ping performed well compared to TWAMP, as there was no significant difference in two-way latency in the test sessions. The average round-trip delay of ping test session was around 1 millisecond more than round-trip delay compared to TWAMP when three separate test sessions were conducted. In the three test sessions, the ping measurements resulted in a 0.3% to 3.4% greater round trip delay. However, in one of the tests, the dispersion of ping's round-trip delays was worse than measured with TWAMP.

TWAMP consists of four logical entities: the Control-Client, the Session-Sender, the Server and the Session-Reflector (RFC 5357 2008, 4). Like ping, TWAMP uses echo/reply principle where Session-Reflector employs time stamps and reflects test packets back to the source (Session-Sender) over a TWAMP-test session. Figure 24 illustrates to logical model of TWAMP where the roles have the following definitions:

<b>Session-Sender</b>	The sending endpoint of an TWAMP-Test session
<b>Session-Reflector</b>	The receiving endpoint of an TWAMP-Test session which is able the reflect packets but does not collect packet information
<b>Server</b>	An end system that controls TWAMP-Test sessions and is capable configuring of per-session state in the endpoints
<b>Control-Client</b>	A system that initiates and/or terminates TWAMP-Test sessions

(RFC 4656 2006, 4; RFC 5357 2008, 3-4.)

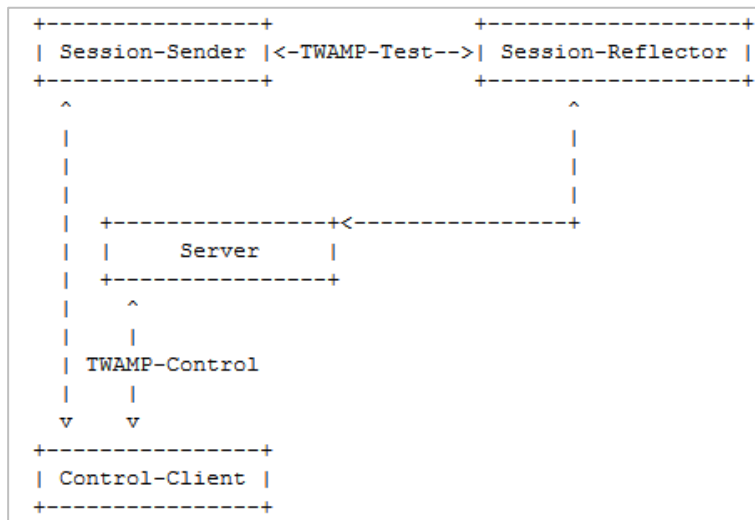


Figure 24. Logical Structure of TWAMP (RFC 5357 2008, 4)

As shown in Figure 24, each of the logical roles can be implemented to different hosts. This adds more freedom for device manufacturers to decide which roles should be assigned to TWAMP hosts. According to RFC 5357 (2008, 3) typical TWAMP measurement architecture (shown in Figure 25) usually uses only two hosts which allows protocol simplifications compared to OWAMP. In two-host TWAMP implementation the host responsible of the Control-Client and Session-Sender roles, is referred to as the controller; and the host responsible of the Server and Session-Reflector roles is the responder.

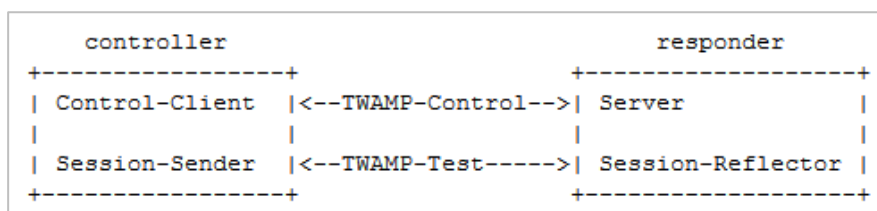


Figure 25. Roles of the TWAMP Hosts (RFC 5357 2008, 4)

Despite the fact that TWAMP hosts have been originally named as the controller and the responder in the TWAMP standard, vendors have adopted a slightly more common naming convention. Generally, the TWAMP hosts form a client-server model. A TWAMP 'client' is a host containing the Control-Client and Session-Sender role and a host containing the Server and/or Session-Reflector role is referred to as 'server'. Regardless, TWAMP implementations are vendor-specific.

Where Cisco and Nokia use similar two-host model than defined in the RFC 5357, Juniper TWAMP client does not require that the Server and the Session-Reflector are implemented on the same physical device. Hence, Juniper TWAMP clients operate with a 3<sup>rd</sup> party server implementations. (7450 ESS, 7750 SR, 7950 XRS, and VSR OAM and Diagnostics Guide R15.1.R1 2017, 270; IP SLAs Configuration Guide, Cisco IOS XE Release 3S 2018; Understanding Two-Way Active Measurement Protocol on Routers 2018.)

### 8.3.2 TWAMP-Control

TWAMP measurement session consists of two inter-related protocols, which both have specific tasks. TWAMP-Control is used to initiate, start and control measurement sessions, whereas TWAMP-Test is responsible for transmitting test packets between two TWAMP entities. Before TWAMP measurements can be performed, a series of tasks have to be accomplished during the TWAMP-Control connection setup. (RFC 5357 2008, 3.)

A TWAMP session is initiated by the Control-Client when it establishes a TCP connection with the Server on port 862. Next, the Server responds using a greeting message indicating the available security modes and other parameters presented in Figure 26 for the connection. (RFC 4656 2006, 6-7; RFC 5357 2008, 6.)

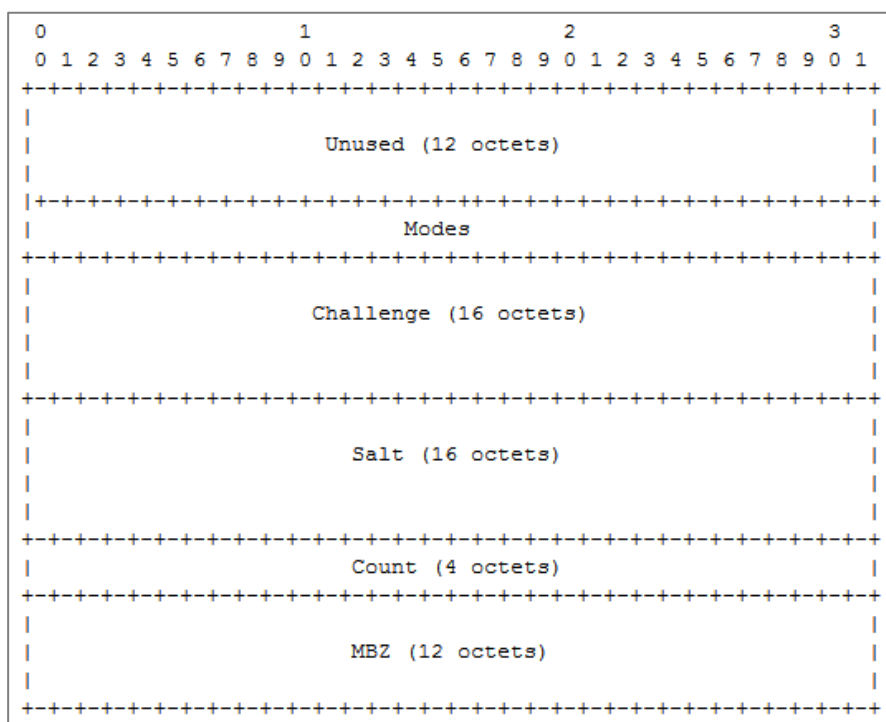


Figure 26. Server-Greeting Message (RFC 4656 2006, 7)

TWAMP supports the following authentication modes: 1 for unauthenticated, 2 for authenticated and 4 for encrypted and 8 for mixed mode (RFC 5618 2008, 4). If the Control-Client receives a greeting message which modes field is equal to zero, server indicates that it is not willing to proceed with the control setup. Otherwise, the Control-Client must send a Set-Up-Response message show in Figure 27 used to inform about the chosen parameters. (RFC 4656 2006, 8.) Other parameters in the Server-Greeting message include:

<b>Challenge</b>	A random sequence of octets generated by the server; challenge is used to prove possession of shared secret
<b>Salt</b>	A pseudo-randomly generated binary string
<b>Count</b>	A value of power of 2 which is at least 1024
<b>MBZ</b>	(Must be Zero)

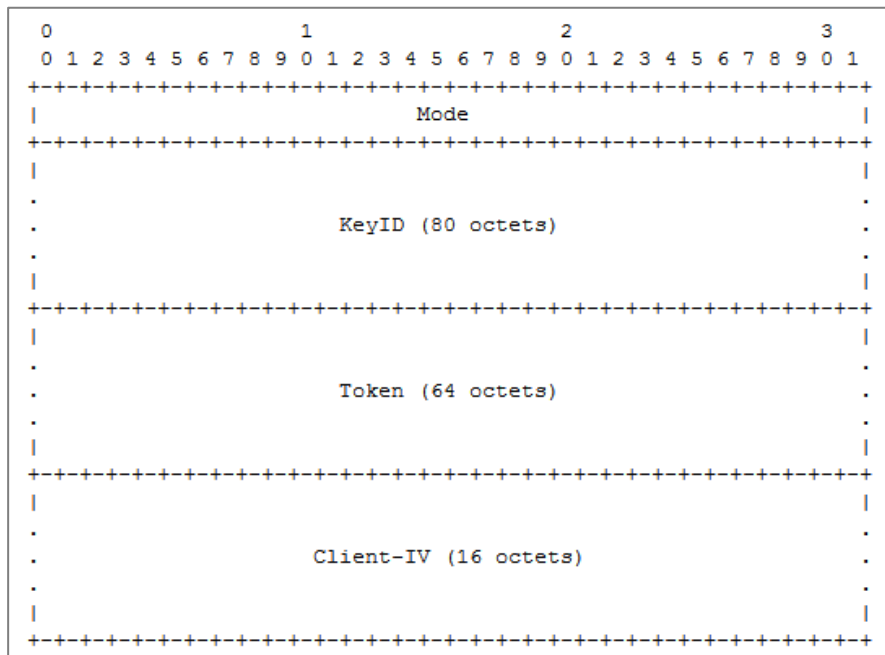


Figure 27. Set-Up-Response Message (RFC 4656 2006, 8)

In Set-Up-Response message, Mode represents the mode that the client chooses to use during TWAMP-Control session. The client may also set Mode bits to zero to indicate that it will not continue with the session, which triggers a TCP session closure by the server. KeyID, Token and Client-IV fields are left unused, if unauthenticated mode is selected. Otherwise, the Control-Client forms the following: a KeyID containing the shared secret the client wishes to use for authentication or encryption, a token containing an encrypted concatenation of a 16-octet Challenge, a randomly generated AES (Advanced Encryption Standard) session key used for encryption and 32-octet HMAC-SHA1 session key for authentication. (RFC 4656 2006, 8-9.) If the server is ready to progress establishing TWAMP-Control, it responds with Server-Start message shown in Figure 28, which concludes the TWAMP-Control connection setup. The Server-Start message includes fields for the following parameters:

<b>Accept</b>	Value representing server's willingness to communicate with the client
---------------	--

**Server-IV** Randomly generated initialization vector by the server

**Start-Time (Timestamp)** Timestamp representing the time when server started operating

(RFC 4656 2006, 10)

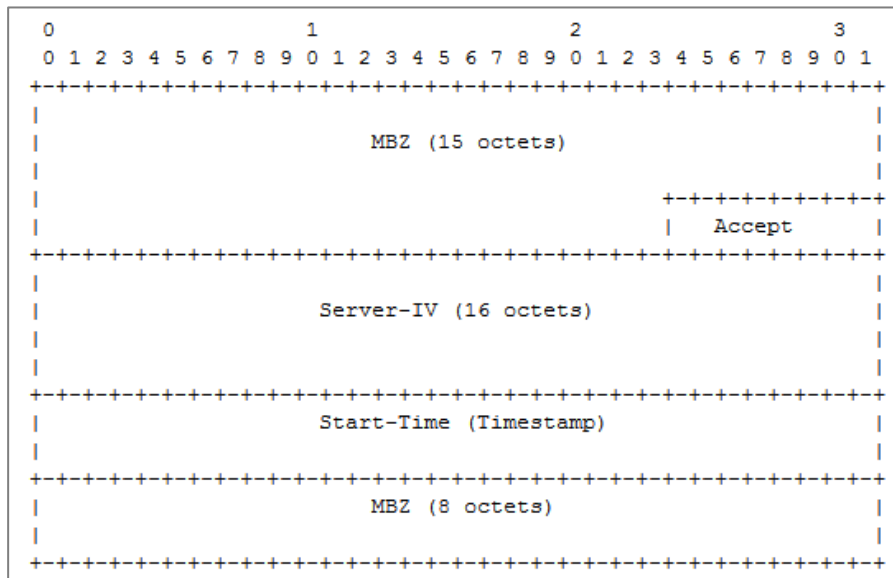


Figure 28. Server-Start Message (RFC 4656 2006, 10)

Depending on which authentication mode was selected, all further communication is encrypted with AES Session-key and authenticated with HMAC Session-key (RFC 4656 2006, 10). TWAMP uses the request/response sequence of TWAMP-Control commands shown in figure 29 to create test sessions. The test session creation comprise Request-TW-Session (presented in Appendix 3) and Accept-Session messages.

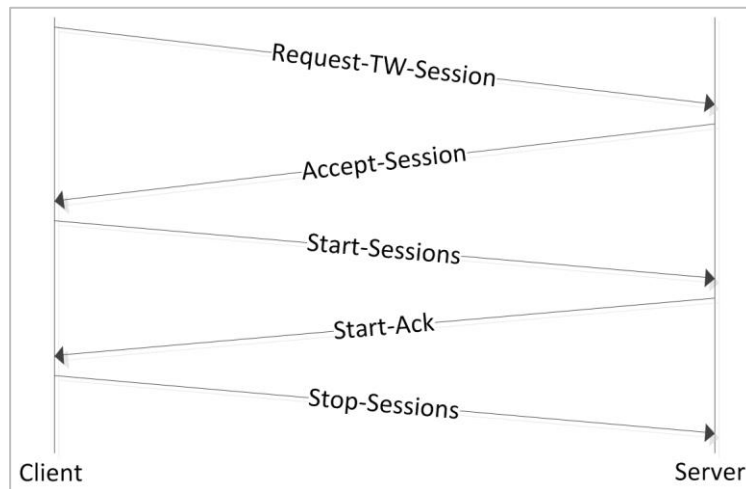


Figure 29. TWAMP-Control Commands (Modified from RFC 4656 2006, 13-21; RFC 5357 2008, 7-10)

By sending a Request-TW-Session, the Control-Client sends parameters such as IP version, sender and receiver IP addresses as well as port numbers. Unlike OWAMP, TWAMP does not use Number of Schedule Slots field indicating when exactly TWAMP sends the test packets, and additionally does not need to communicate the amount of test packet beforehand to the server. (RFC 4656 2006, 15-16; RFC 5357 2008, 9.) The other parameters in Request-TW-Session message header are:

<b>SID</b>	Test session identifier
<b>Padding Length</b>	Amount of padding to append a TWAMP test packet
<b>Start Time</b>	Timestamp indicating the session start time
<b>Timeout</b>	Timestamp for session timeout
<b>Type-P Descriptor</b>	Field for setting traffic class

(RFC 4656 2006, 16-17.)

After receiving Request-TW-Sessions message, the server responds with Accept-Session message (presented in Figure 30), indicating either rejection or acceptance for

conducting further testing. The message's parameters comprise test session identifier, port and HMAC authentication key. Once the TWAMP hosts have finished the second pair of request/reply negotiation (Start-Sessions and Start-Ack), the client starts streaming TWAMP test packets according to TWAMP-Test protocol, immediately after receiving Start-Ack or after the specified start time. (RFC 4656 2006, 17-20.)

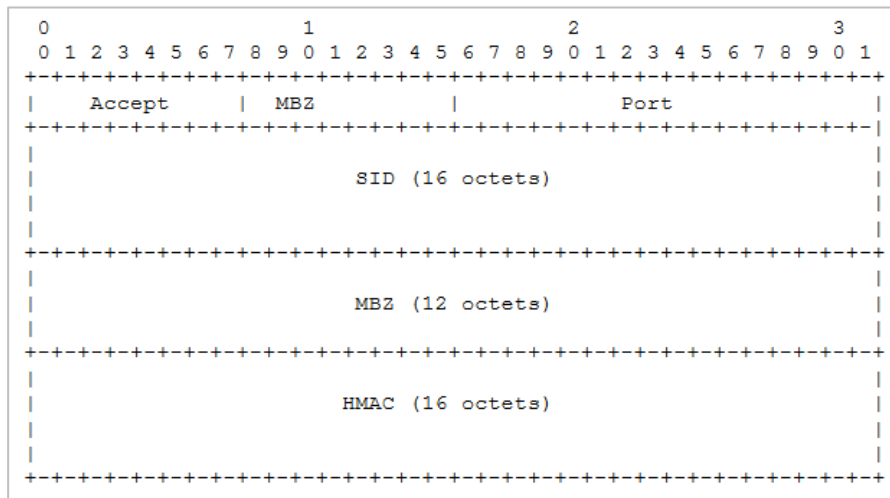


Figure 30. Accept-Session Message (RFC 4656 2006, 17)

### 8.3.3 TWAMP-Test

In TWAMP test session, the Session-Reflector transmits test packets back to the Session-Sender in response to each test packet it receives. The sender behavior is not thoroughly described in the TWAMP standard and the statistics recorded by the Session-Sender are implementation dependent. Both Session-Sender and Session-Reflector are responsible of including the best possible approximation of departure timestamps to test packets regardless of scheduling delay. (RFC 5357 2008, 12.)

TWAMP defines two different test packets formats. One for test packets generated by the Session-Sender and one for reflected test packets. The test packets generated



by the Session-Sender are UDP traffic and the format depends on which authentication mode was selected in during TWAMP-Control protocol phase. A TWAMP test packet sent by the Session-Sender contains the fields shown in Figure 31. (RFC 4656 2006, 29-31; RFC 5357 2008, 12.)

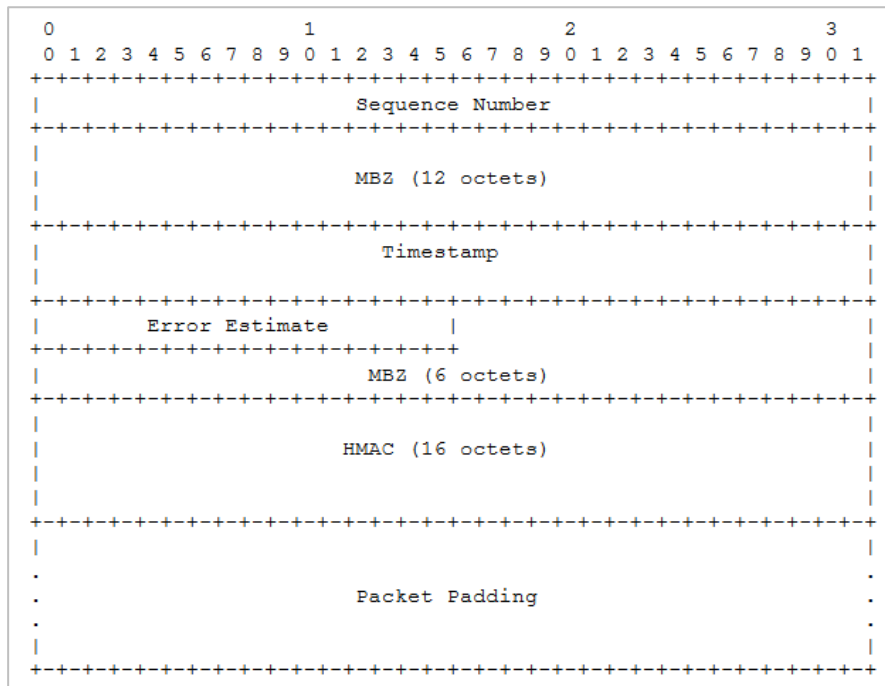


Figure 31. TWAMP Test Packet Format I (RFC 4656 2006, 30)

The above figure represents the packet format when authenticated or encrypted mode is in use. When TWAMP is used in unauthenticated mode no Must Be Zero nor HMAC fields are used in the test packets. Regardless of the mode, TWAMP uses the Sequence Number field to track subsequent test packets, as well as timestamp field, which divides into two sections 32-byte section containing integers and fractions of seconds. The header also includes a 16-byte field including an error estimate and information if TWAMP host generating the test packet, is synchronized to an external NTP (Network Time Protocol) source. (RFC 4656 2006, 29-31.)

The Session-Reflector must send a response to each TWAMP test packet sent by the Session-Sender as immediately as possible by performing the following actions (RFC 5357 2008, 13-14):

- **Timestamp** the received packet
- **Decrypt and/or check the integrity** of the packet if authenticated or encrypted mode was used
- **Copy the sequence number** into to the corresponding reflected packet
- **Fetch the TTL field value** from the IP header and replace the value set by the Session-Sender
- **Ignore packet** after timeout (following the Stop-Sessions command)

TWAMP-Test packet format depends on the selected mode. If unauthenticated mode was selected the test packet format sent by session reflector is similar than show in Figure 32. A reflected test packet contains a sequence number, a timestamp and an error estimate generated independently from arriving test packets. Reflector is also responsible of copying sender sequence number, timestamp and error estimate from the received packet; as well as copying the TTL value from IP header to Sender TTL field. In order to compensate reflectors larger packet format, the sender must append the test header size by at least 27 or 56 octets depending of the mode. Therefore, the reflector should reduce sufficient amount of packet padding to achieve equal payload size. (RFC 5357 2008, 13 and 17-18.)

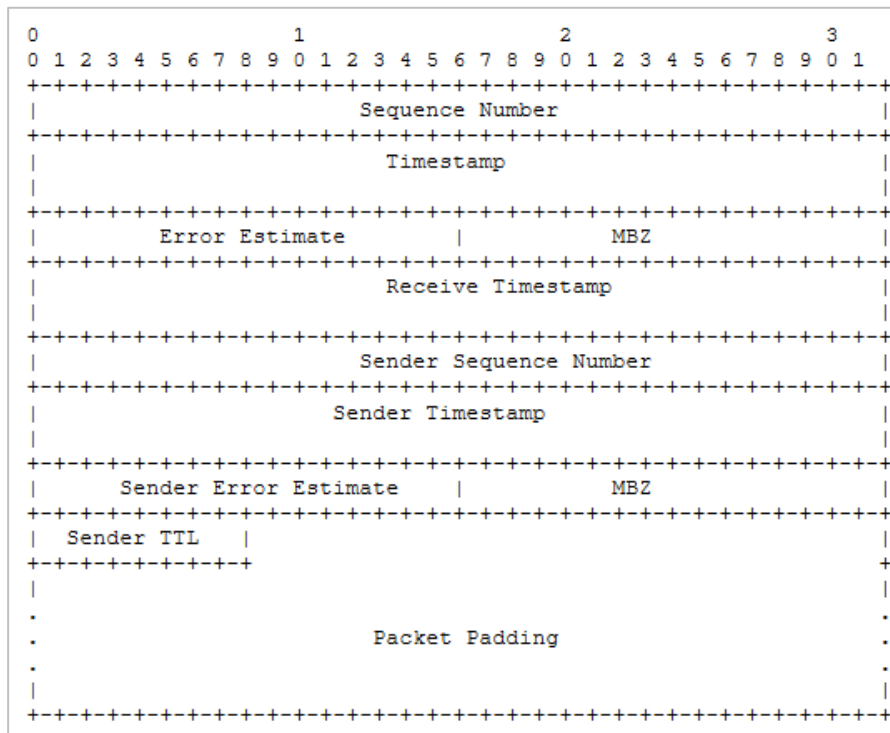


Figure 32. TWAMP Test Packet Format II (RFC 5357 2008, 15)

The TWAMP test session continues as long as the session-sender receives a Stop-Sessions message from the Control-Client. The Server may also close the TWAMP suspend any control connections if no associated test packets have been received and SERVWAIT or REFWAIT timeout value has been configured. (RFC 5357 2008, 6.)

### 8.3.4 TWAMP Light

Whereas there are not many publications or research regarding TWAMP, there are even less for TWAMP Light. TWAMP Light, briefly described in Appendix I of RFC 5357, is an optional model for responders. It allows responders to act as light test points in the network using TWAMP packet format to gather IP delay, jitter and loss statistics. The Appendix I in RFC 5357 provides only general overview of TWAMP Light protocol, which is presented in Figure 33.

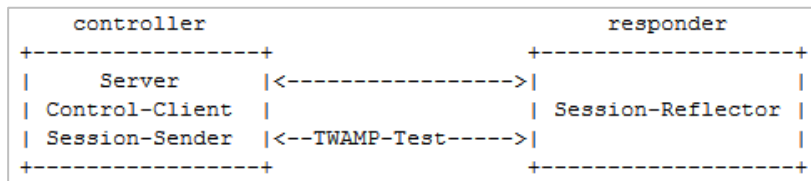


Figure 33. TWAMP Light: Controller and Responder Roles (RFC 5357 2008, 23)

The most distinguishable difference in TWAMP Light implementation is that the Server role has been moved from the responder to the controller. This means that the controller establishes the test session with the server using non-standard means. Although the responder follows the standard Session-Reflector behavior as described earlier, there is an exception: the responder does not need to have knowledge of the session state. In this case, the Session-Reflector must copy the Sequence Number of the received packet to the Sequence Number field of the reflected packet. (RFC 5357 2008, 23.)

Consequently, these differences eliminates the need for the TWAMP-Control Protocol, however, using a non-standard session establishment the following security features should be considered:

- **The non-standard Responder Control Protocol** should use an authentication mode and should have means to accept only authenticated and encrypted modes of TWAMP-Test protocol.
- **The Responder** should be configurable to accept only authenticated control sessions.
- **The Session-Reflector** must have a mechanism for key generation.

(RFC 5357, 23-24.)

## 9 TWAMP Implementation

### 9.1 TWAMP Light

#### 9.1.1 Preparation

The first preliminary steps before implementing TWAMP were to find out the specifications of the laboratory equipment and if there were in use and if there were any differences regarding TWAMP or TWAMP Light. Examination of Nokia's OAM (Operation Administration and Maintenance) and Diagnostics Guides revealed that TWAMP was first introduced for SR OS in March 2011 with 9.0.R1 software release. Interestingly, the newest version of SR OS offered exactly the same configuration options for TWAMP than the 9.0.R1. Another finding was that there were no references to TWAMP Light protocol until the release of 12.0.R4 OAM and Diagnostics Guide.

All testing relating to TWAMP and TWAMP Light were conducted in Telia's laboratory environment, which consisted of Nokia's VSRs (Virtual Service Router) and physical SRs (Service Router). At first, the initial tests were restricted to VSRs as the environment was not familiar and there were other ongoing tests. In the beginning, the only thing that was known about VSRs was that they in fact were virtualized SR series routers run on the same CentOS host machine. In practice, this meant that VSR topology (as well as the other configuration) had to be charted by logging directly to the CLI (Command Line Interface) of the devices. The VSRs followed a ring-shaped topology using VLAN (Virtual Local Area Network) tagged point-to-point links as shown in Figure 34. In the figure, the dotted blue line represents the interface of CentOS host, which connects vSim1 router to physical 7450 ESS7 service switch. Note that all IP addresses and most of the device names have been masked or hidden in figures and configuration examples presented in the following chapters.

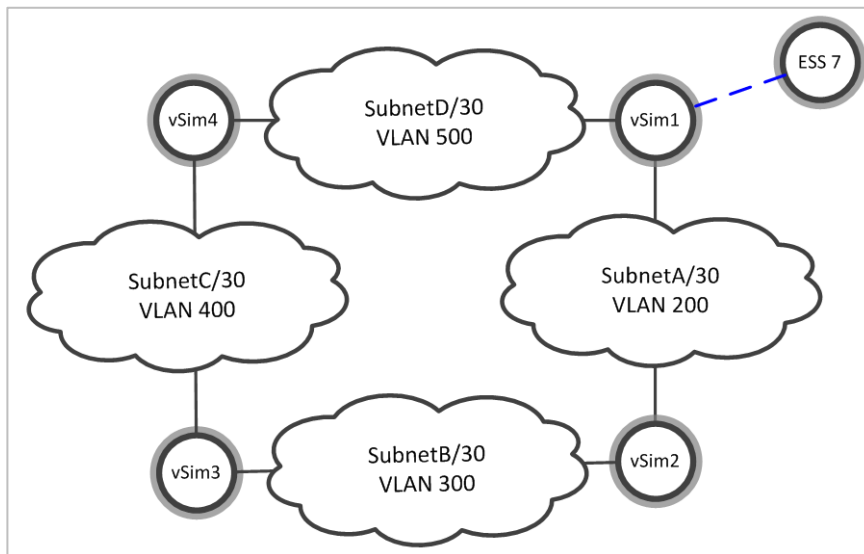


Figure 34. VSR Topology

All of the VSRs shared the same SR OS software version TiMOS-B-12.0.R8 and simulated the same 7750 SR-12 chassis model. By default, all Nokia's SR and ESS series equipment are connected with SNMP to 5620 SAM (Service Aware Manager) management client, which is used to gather statistics from the equipment as well as used as a configuration client. However, the VSRs were not connected to Nokia's 5620 SAM due to MTU (Maximum Transmission Unit) issues in the physical network interface card of the CentOS host machine.

### 9.1.2 MPLS and BGP

TWAMP Light configuration was started by configuring a VPRN (Virtual Private Routed Network) service, as VPRN-based TWAMP Light session was the only example in Nokia's configuration guides (Note: It was later found out that TWAMP Light session does not necessarily need a VPRN service). A VPRN is Nokia's term for a L3VPN service, which connects PE (Provider Edge) routers over a service providers MPLS backbone. In VPRN, the PE routers associated to a specific VPRN service also need to share routes using a Multiprotocol BGP.

Although the VSRs already had basic L3 connectivity through existing IS-IS instances, all of them lacked BGP configuration, and MPLS configuration across the devices was inconsistent. This in practice meant that BGP and MPLS had to be configured first before a VPRN service could be provisioned. The following command was issued to enable MPLS for vSim1 to enable resolution of IGP routes using Label Distribution Protocol.

```
configure router ldp-shortcut
```

Once MPLS was functional, BGP instances were configured to enable routing of VPRN services. Only the minimum amount of BGP configuration was implemented, just to establish a BGP session between vSim1 and vSim2 routers. The following BGP configuration (vSim1 above, vSim2 below) was implemented using the steps presented in Figure 35:

```

#-----
echo "BGP Configuration"
#-----
    bgp
      cluster 0.0.0.99
      local-as 65100
      router-id <IP addressX>
      group "TWAMP_TEST"
        neighbor <IP addressY>
          family vpn-ipv4
          type internal
        exit
      exit
    no shutdown
  exit
exit
#-----
echo "BGP Configuration"
#-----
    bgp
      group "TWAMP_TEST"
        neighbor <IP addressX>
          family vpn-ipv4
          type internal
        exit
      exit
    no shutdown
  exit
exit

```

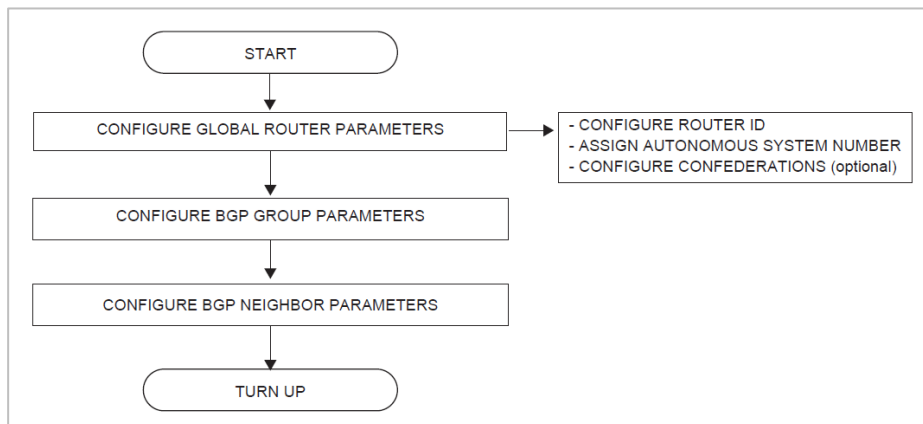


Figure 35. BGP Configuration Prerequisites (Alcatel-Lucent 7740 SR OS Routing Protocols Guide 2015, 685)

After BGP instances were set up, BGP neighbor adjacencies were verified using *show router bgp neighbor* command:



```
*A:vSim2# show router bgp neighbor
```

```
=====
BGP Neighbor
=====
-----
Peer   : <IP addressX>
Group  : TWAMP_TEST
-----
Peer AS      : 65100          Peer Port      : 50558
Peer Address : <IP addressX>
Local AS     : 65100          Local Port     : 179
Local Address: <IP addressY>
Peer Type    : Internal
State        : Established    Last State     : Established
Last Event   : rcvKeepAlive
Last Error   : Cease (Connection Collision Resolution)
Local Family : VPN-IPv4
Remote Family: VPN-IPv4
Hold Time    : 90             Keep Alive     : 30
...

```

### 9.1.3 VPRN

To enable any TWAMP Light test sessions between vSim1 and vSim2, a VPRN service was configured between two end points. A functional VPRN service was a prerequisite as TWAMP Light session controller and session reflector had to be configured in *service>vprn>twamp-light* context. Figure 36 presents the VPRN service in which the end points are the physical ports of vSim1 and vSim2 routers. In the figure, the red line marks the VPRN service (and the end points of TWAMP Light test session) between two remote locations.

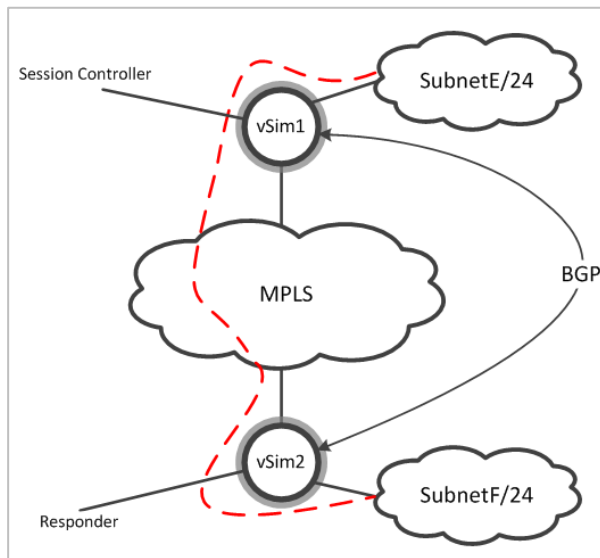


Figure 36. TWAMP Light Test Session (VPRN)

A VPRN service requires a set of parameters configured in `service>vprn` context. These parameters include a physical port, a customer ID and some other VPRN-specific parameters like `route-distinguisher` and `vrf-target`. The following configuration displays the parameters for vSim1:

```
#-----
echo "Service Configuration"
#-----
...
service
  customer 606 create
    description "TWAMP testing"
  vprn 607 customer 606 create
    route-distinguisher <IP addressX>:607
    auto-bind ldp
    vrf-target target:65100:607
    interface "to_vSim1_4" create
      address <IP addressE>/24
      sap 1/1/4:607 create
    exit
  exit
  no shutdown
exit
exit
```

In the configuration, the `route-distinguisher` add as a unique identifier to routes to which the VPRN service 607 belongs. The route distinguisher was derived from the system interface address of vSim1 and the identifier of the routing instance, to match

the common route distinguisher principles across all of the laboratory equipment. The *vrf-target* is used to import and export advertised routes via BGP from other PE routers. Lastly, an IP address and SAP (Service Access Point) were associated with the *to\_vSim1\_4* interface from *service>vprn>interface* context.

Once the same configuration (the only difference is in interface IP addresses and SAP) was applied also to vSim2, the VRF (Virtual Routing and Forwarding) routes were present in the routing table. Figure 37 presents the available routes for the VPRN service (router instance 607) on vSim1 and a ping connectivity test to the remote VPRN interface.

```
*A:vSim1# show router 607 route-table

Route Table (Service: 607)
=====
Dest Prefix[Flags]
Next Hop[Interface Name]
Type      Proto    Age           Pref
Metric
-----
[redacted]
to_vSim1_4          Local    Local    10h07m47s  0
0
[redacted]
[redacted] (tunneled)      Remote  BGP VPN  05h20m08s  170
0
-----
No. of Routes: 2
Flags: n = Number of times nexthop is repeated
       B = BGP backup route available
       L = LFA nexthop available
       S = Sticky ECMP requested
=====

*A:vSim1# ping router 607 [redacted]
PING [redacted] 56 data bytes
64 bytes from [redacted]: icmp_seq=1 ttl=64 time=1.46ms.
64 bytes from [redacted]: icmp_seq=2 ttl=64 time=1.62ms.
64 bytes from [redacted]: icmp_seq=3 ttl=64 time=1.39ms.
64 bytes from [redacted]: icmp_seq=4 ttl=64 time=1.61ms.
64 bytes from [redacted]: icmp_seq=5 ttl=64 time=1.62ms.

---- [redacted] PING Statistics ----
5 packets transmitted, 5 packets received, 0.00% packet loss
round-trip min = 1.39ms, avg = 1.54ms, max = 1.62ms, stddev = 0.097ms
*A:vSim1#
```

Figure 37. Reflector Connectivity Test

### 9.1.4 Controller and Reflector

In TWAMP Light test session, vSim1 acted as a session controller, which was the launch point of the test sessions. The session reflector, vSim2, on the other hand, was only used as another end of the VPRN service and as a test packet reflector. The reflector functionality was very simple to configure under *service>vprn>twamp-light* context. The reflector only required a listening UDP port for TWAMP Light test sessions, an IP address prefix for allowed test sources and a *no shutdown* command. The following configuration was implemented on vSim2:

```
#-----
echo "Service Configuration"
#-----
...
vprn 607 customer 606 create
  route-distinguisher <IP addressX>:607
  auto-bind ldp
  vrf-target target:65100:607
  interface "to_vSim2_5" create
    address <IP addressF>/24
    sap 1/1/5:607 create
    exit
  exit
  twamp-light
    reflector udp-port 64364 create
      description "TWAMP Light reflector VPRN 607"
      prefix <IP addressE>/32 create
        description "Allow TWAMP Light test sessions only from <IP
addressE>"
      exit
      prefix <IP addressZ>/16 create
        description "Allow TWAMP Light test sessions from other lab
equipment"
      exit
      no shutdown
    exit
  exit
  no shutdown
exit
exit
```

When the reflector's configuration was finalized, a TWAMP Light test session was created. The configuration below creates a TWAMP Light test session, which is saved to RAM (Random Access Memory) in 15 minute intervals, in total 8 intervals being

stored. Parameters under *ip* define the IP specific information of the destination and the source, as well as the IP test tools on the launch point.

```
*A:vSim1>config>oam-pm>session# info detail
-----
    bin-group 1
    no description
    meas-interval 15-mins create
        no accounting-policy
        boundary-type clock-aligned
        clock-offset 0
        intervals-stored 8
    exit
    ip
        dest-udp-port 64364
        destination <IP addressF>
        fc "12"
        no forwarding
        profile in
        router 607
        source <IP addressE>
        ttl 255
        twamp-light test-id 1 create
            shutdown
            interval 1000
            pad-size 27
            no test-duration
        exit
    exit
-----
```

Other session parameters in the configuration included:

- **fc "12"** – forwarding class /2 (low-2) is set for the test packets
- **no forwarding** – default forwarding options are used (no next-hop address or routing-bypass is used)
- **profile in** – TWAMP Light PDU packet will be sent as in-profile
- **router 607** – Routing instance of VPRN 607 is used
- **ttl** – TTL value of the packet header is set to 255
- **twamp-light test-id 1 create** (including additional parameters) – creates an individual endless test session where test PDU is sent at 1000 ms intervals using 27 byte padding

After finishing the configuration, the TWAMP Light session data became available – although data was highly inconsistent, compared to average round-trip time (1.54

ms) of ping in Figure 37. Statistics presented that average round trip frame delay was 0.978 ms, at the same time average backward frame delay was 292 748.49 ms. At first, an incorrect assumption was made that virtualized hosts may not measure and display statistics correctly – however, it was later revealed that this was a clock synchronization issue (NTP was not configured on vSims).

```
*A:vSim1>show>oam-pm>stats>session>twamp-light# meas-interval raw all
```

```
-----
Start (UTC)      : 2017/08/07 15:36:48      Status          : in-progress
Elapsed (seconds) : 110                               Suspect         : yes
Frames Sent      : 111                               Frames Received : 111
-----
```

```
-----
Bin Type   Direction   Minimum (us)   Maximum (us)   Average (us)
-----
FD         Forward     0              0              0
FD         Backward    292748236     292748771     292748487
FD         Round Trip  653           1384          978
FDR        Forward     0              0              0
FDR        Backward    0              535           152
FDR        Round Trip  0              731           310
IFDV      Forward     0              0              0
IFDV      Backward    2              430           101
IFDV      Round Trip  1              619           152
-----
```

As the controller keeps tracks of the data in TWAMP architecture, session statistics vSim2 (reflector) did not have statistics of the TWAMP Light session. However, as show in Figure 38, the amount of received and sent TWAMP Light packets could be verified from the reflector. After successful TWAMP Light implementation, TWAMP was examined next.

```
*A:vSim2# show test-oam twamp twamp-light reflectors

=====
TWAMP-Light Reflectors
=====
Router/VPRN      Admin      UDP Port      Prefixes      Frames Rx      Frames Tx
-----
Base              Up         64364         1              0              0
607               Up         64364         2             4665788        4665788
-----
No. of TWAMP-Light Reflectors: 2
=====

TWAMP-Light Reflector Inactivity Timeout: 100 seconds
*A:vSim2#
```

Figure 38. Reflector Statistics

## 9.2 TWAMP

Nokia's OAM and Diagnostics guides revealed that there was very little information available, how to fully implement a TWAMP session natively from SR OS. In addition, the guides focused mainly on TWAMP Light implementations (for reference see available TWAMP and TWAMP Light configuration options in Appendix 4). Based on the available configuration options, it was evident that SR OS supported TWAMP server functionality, however, there was no clear indication, what the capabilities of TWAMP session initiation are in SR OS. Hence, it was necessary to experiment with the available configuration options.

It was soon found out that there was no way to send TWAMP test packets natively from SR OS, although there was no mention of this in Nokia's OAM and Diagnostics Guides. However, a reference to this was found later in the help section 5620 SAM client. According to the help, TWAMP sessions would have required an external probe to be used as a TWAMP controller. Eventually TWAMP measurement session was not implemented since there were no TWAMP-capable probes available in the laboratory. Regardless, Nokia's TWAMP server implementation supported TWAMP Light packet reflection, which was tested.

The topology in this test session followed a topology shown in Figure 39. The test session a measurement session was configured between the two physical devices shown in Table 5. The equipment had almost similar TWAMP server configuration capabilities, although the never SR OS R7.0.R8 had additional *ref-inactivity-timeout* option, which enables an inactivity timeout setting for reflector functionality. Device me-s02 was selected as TWAMP Light controller as 7705 SAR did not support OAM functionalities, which was a mandatory feature for initiating TWAMP Light test packets.

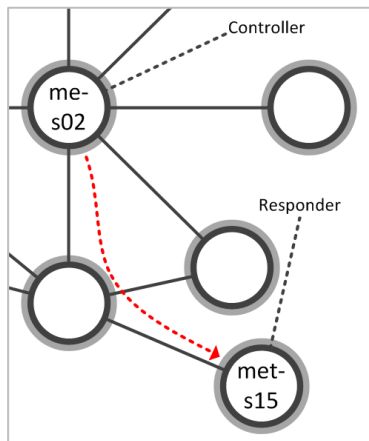


Figure 39. TWAMP Light Test Session (TWAMP server)

Table 5. Physical Equipment

Model	Version	Hostname	Role
7750 SR 7	TiMOS-C-13.0.R8 (September 2017)	me-s02	Controller
7705 SAR 8	TiMOS-B-7.0.R8 (March 2016)	met-s15	Responder

5620 SAM client was used to remotely configure a TCC (TWAMP and TWAMP-Light Control Client) session as shown in Figure 40. This created the required TCP control channel with the TWAMP server along with the PM (Performance Management) session used to initiate tests on the TWAMP Light launch point. After configuring the TCC test, TWAMP server configuration settings were reflected on the responder (met-s15).



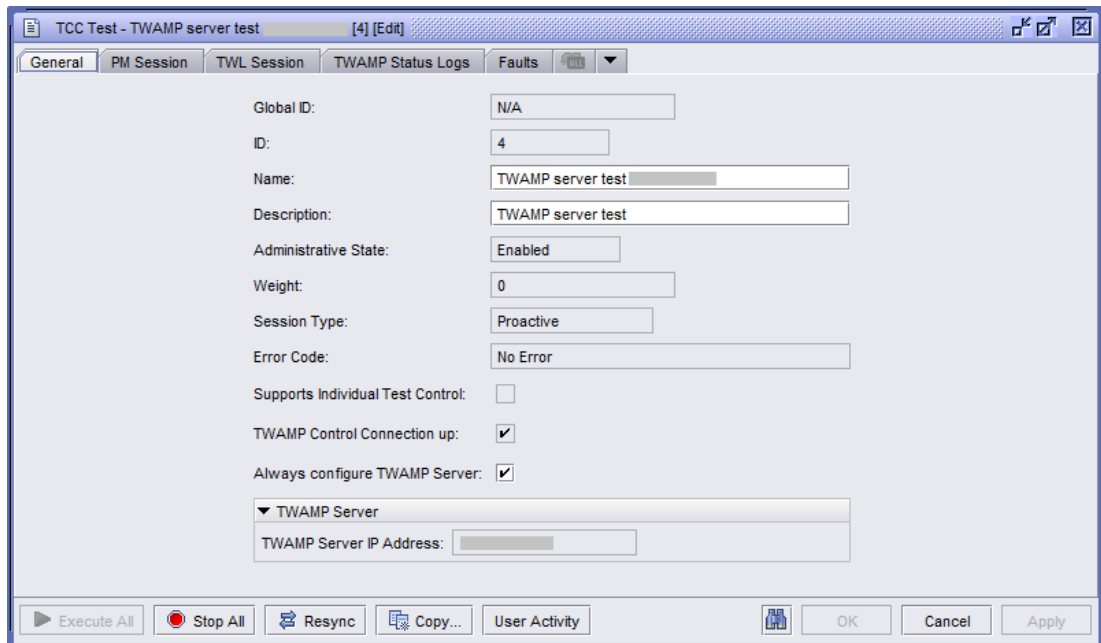


Figure 40. TWAMP Test Instance in 5620 SAM

TWAMP Light test session required also configuring a PM session, which was configured as displayed in Appendix 5. After configuring the PM session, the configuration presented in Appendix 6 was presented on me-s02 device. As physical routers used newer software than VSRs, TWAMP Light session configuration options were more extensive than on vSim routers. The most distinguishable difference was that packet loss measurement was not supported in R.12.0.R8 release.

The packet reflection was verified from the CLI of met-s15, which displayed the current connections and sessions. The command `show test-oam twamp server` displayed the amount of test packets received and reflected back to the client as shown in Figure 41.

```

*A: >config>test-oam>twamp>server# show test-oam twamp server
=====
TWAMP Server
=====
Admin State      : Up                Operational State : Up
Up Time         : 0d 00:19:55
Current Connections : 1                Max Connections  : 32
Connections Rejected : 0                Inactivity Time Out : 900 seconds
Current Sessions   : 1                Max Sessions     : 32
Sessions Rejected  : 0                Sessions Aborted  : 5
Sessions Completed : 7                Ref Inact Time Out : 900 seconds
Test Packets Rx   : 6576098           Test Packets Tx   : 6576098
=====

TWAMP Server Prefix Summary
=====
Prefix                Current Connections Current Sessions Description
-----
                    1                1
                    0                0
                    0                0                Prefix for me*
=====
No. of TWAMP Server Prefixes: 3
=====
* indicates that the corresponding row element may have been truncated.
*A: >config>test-oam>twamp>server#

```

Figure 41. TWAMP Server Status

Interestingly, the test session appeared to be coming from the 5620 SAM management application (based on the IP address), although me-s02 was configured as the session controller. TWAMP server implementation had one drawback, which TWAMP Light reflector did not have. While there was a TWAMP Light session active with a TWAMP server, and if the TWAMP server was set into shutdown mode and restarted, the session did not recover and manual restart of the sessions was required. The session data is presented in Appendix 7 where the results of the following commands are shown:

```
show oam-pm statistics session "TWL -> TWAMP Server Test" twamp-light meas-interval raw
show oam-pm session "TWL -> TWAMP Server Test"
```

### 9.3 Comparison of TWAMP Light and ping

During the TWAMP Light testing, an interesting observation was made. When the statistics of two TWAMP Light measurement sessions with the same configuration were compared, the statistics of the two sessions did not correlate. The round-trip delay difference between the two similar sessions was several hundred microseconds. In order to reset the statistics, both of the test session were stopped and reinitiated, which resulted again deviating results.

Every time that the TWAMP Light test session was reinitiated the round-trip delay statistics were different. The other test session was shut down and observation focused only to one of the test sessions. Interestingly, when compared to conventional ping, the round-trip delay statistics of TWAMP Light sessions were totally inconsistent. The Figure 42 illustrates five consequent TWAMP Light and ping measurements (measurement durations = 60 seconds).

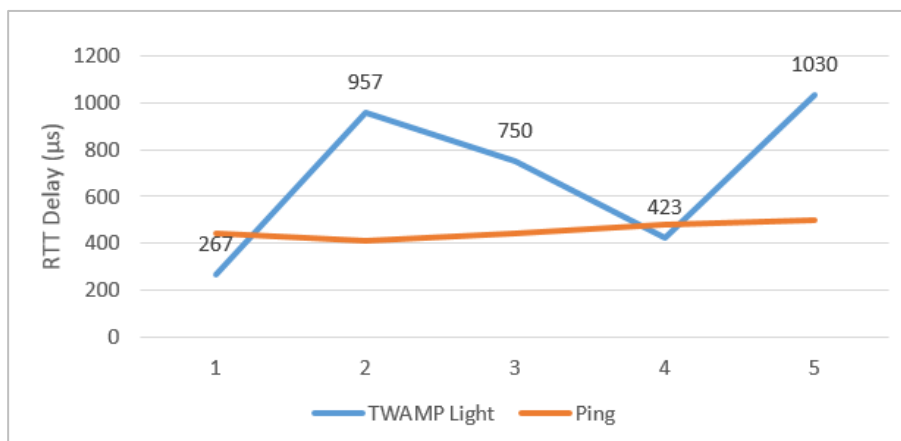


Figure 42. Comparison of Round-trip Delay (TWAMP Light and ping)

It seemed like re-initiation of TWAMP Light session generated a random value for the round-trip delay statistic. Even if the test session was observed a longer period of time, the results were the same. If the average round-trip delay started high, it also remained high. It would have been reasonable, if the long-term statistics had been adjusted near (or even below) to the more consistent delay value measured with ping. Theoretically, this would have been correct, especially when TWAMP Light test packets were marked as highest priority forwarding class. To experiment more, TWAMP Light session controllers were configured to me-s01, me-s02 and me-s03 devices. TWAMP Light responder functionality was configured to all named devices in Figure 43.

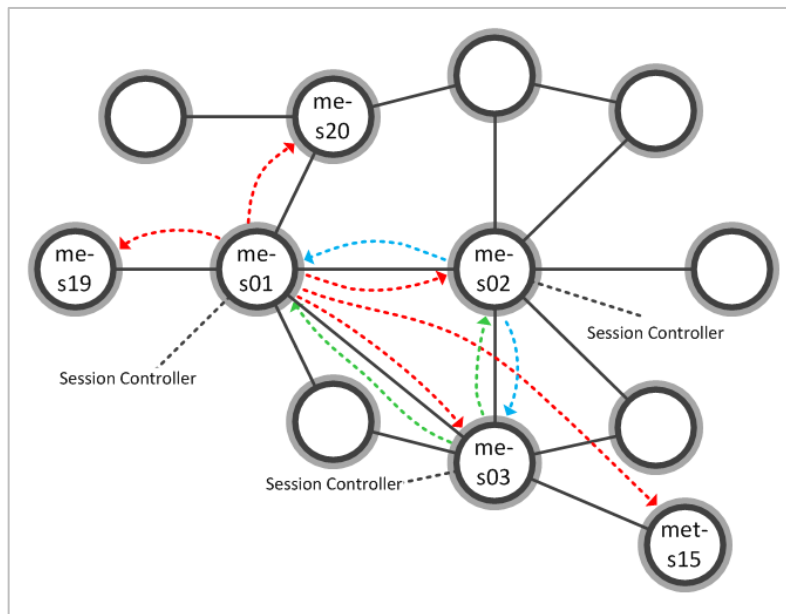


Figure 43. TWAMP Light Test Sessions

Two separate measurement sessions were conducted. Each of the two sessions was observed when approximately 1 000, 2 000 and 3 000 test packets were received by

the session controllers. The observations in the Table 6 are presented in microseconds, where column A represents the observation at 1000 test packet milestone. Similarly, column B equals to 2 000 and column C to 3 000 received test packets.

Table 6. Round-trip Delay (TWAMP Light)

Controller	Reflector	Session 1					Session 2				
		A	B	C	Min	Max	A	B	C	Min	Max
me-s01	me-s02	650	652	653	645	665	134	136	137	128	137
	me-s03	49	49	49	44	56	49	49	39	45	59
	met-s15	70	70	70	67	78	70	70	70	67	78
	me-s19	70	70	70	67	80	70	70	70	67	78
	me-s20	61	61	61	55	71	61	61	61	55	69
me-s02	me-s01	755	755	755	751	764	270	270	270	264	270
	me-s03	734	734	734	729	743	298	298	298	292	298
me-s03	me-s01	49	49	49	44	55	49	49	49	44	55
	me-s02	790	794	798	783	818	245	250	254	238	254

Based on the results, it seemed that me-s02 was actually only device, which had issues reporting consistent statistics. When compared to ping, me-s02 performed similarly than me-s03 giving consistent round-trip delay statistics. Table 7 presents a reference statistics measured from me-s01 using ping.

Table 7. Round-trip Delay (Ping)

Source	Destination	Ping1	Ping2	Ping3	Ping4	Ping5
me-s01	me-s02	338	369	334	354	344
	me-s03	334	338	334	332	349
	met-s15	476	466	494	619	692
	me-s19	494	506	467	436	523
	me-s20	372	383	388	342	376

Assuming round-trip delays measured with TWAMP Light are reliable, the time required to process ICMP packets is few hundred microseconds. As the fiber connection were short in the laboratory environment (up to 15 meters), the results in Table 6 correlate well with theoretical minimum round-trip delay values, which in really short connections should be around 20  $\mu$ s. me-s02 and me-s03 seemed to perform

better compared to other nodes, which were lower-end equipment. The reason why me-s02 did not perform well in TWAMP Light measurement sessions remained unknown.

## 10 Latency Tests

### 10.1 Preparation

Ping was selected as a measurement method, because it was most likely capable of delivering accurate enough statistics on millisecond scale. The biggest drawback of TWAMP Light was its scalability compared to ping, which was more flexible of gathering and logging arrays of measurement data. TWAMP Light measurements would have required CPU stress testing and additionally testing of packet generation capabilities of the devices, which would have been used as TWAMP Light clients. The measurement statistics presented in this and the following chapters represent the real data gathered from measurement sessions. Some parts of the measurement data and configuration examples such as device names, locations details and IP addresses are masked or hidden as they are not public part of the thesis.

The measurements were conducted individually for each regional network by using a Unix server dedicated for network management functions. This approach added some uncertainty since Telia's management network had dozens of connections to production network. Therefore, before any measurements could be conducted, it was necessary to determine the names of the ME nodes and the routes to regional networks. First, the names of all ME nodes in each region were polled using SNMP. The following *snmpwalk* command queries all ME nodes that belong to the same region as *me-node1*. The command also parses the query and writes the nodes' DNS names into *areaA* file:

```
snmpwalk -v 2c -c example me-node1 .1.3.6.1.4.1.x.y.z | grep 'me-' | awk '{print $4}' |
sed 's/"//g' > areaA
```

The next step was using traceroute to determine the forward routes for the test packets as well as the ME nodes that connected regional networks to the management network. A bash script was made for running multiple traceroutes to the nodes in the same region, however, for some reason traceroute could not be initiated with the script file:

```
traceroute: icmp socket: Permission denied
```

Consequently, it was necessary to issue traceroute commands by sequencing them directly from the CLI (1) and grep node names from *areaA-trc file* to create *areaA-hps file* (2), which contained the number of hops and DNS names of the nodes (3):

```
(1) traceroute me-node1 >> areaA-trc; traceroute me-node2 >> areaA-trc; ...
(2) more areaA-trc | grep me- > areaA-hps
(3) ...
    7 me-node1 (<IP address>)  1.088 ms  1.120 ms  1.103 ms
    6 me-node2 (<IP address>)  1.229 ms  1.107 ms  1.248 ms
    ...
```

Examination of the two generated files revealed the ME node connecting the management network to the regional network (least amount of hops) as well as the routes to the ME nodes within the region. The ME nodes interconnecting the management and regional networks were directly connected to a ME core node in each region (as shown in Figure 44).

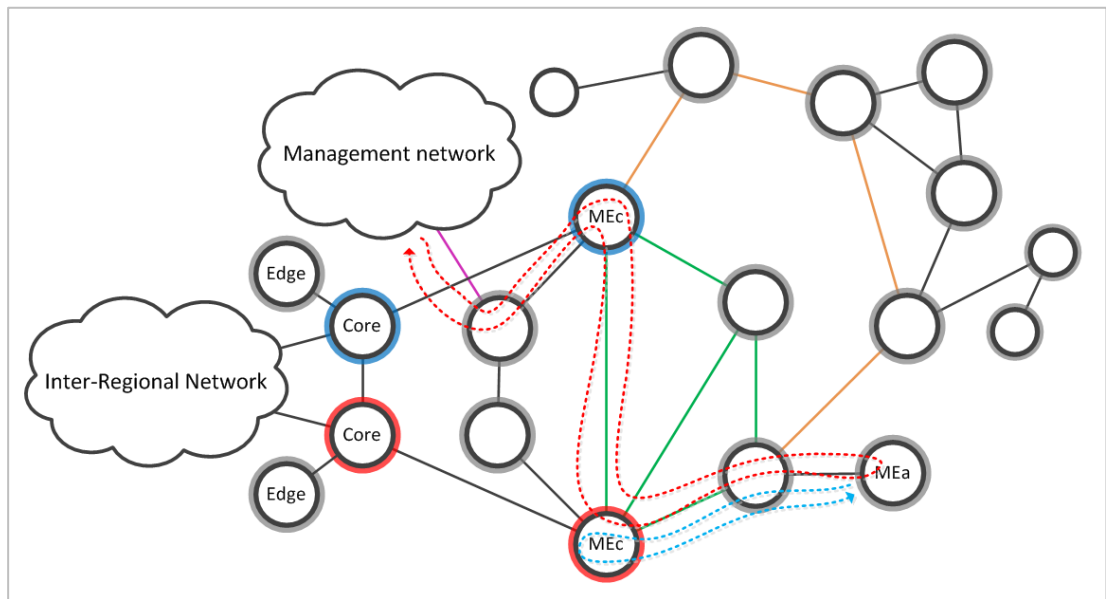


Figure 44. Measurement Topology I

The red dotted line in the above figure represents the forward and reverse paths of a ping packet. For comparison, the blue dotted line represents the round-trip path of an IP packet when ping is initiated from a ME access node (MEa). In this example, the blue path is the best forwarding path for traffic from the ME access node and represents the shortest possible ‘regional latency’. As shown in the figure, in some cases the measurement setup added additional delay to the statistics gained from the measurements. Although sending ping packets from the management server was not optimal, it was the only alternative with the available timeframe due to major issues with user accounts and permissions required to get access to production network devices.

## 10.2 fping

The measurements were conducted using fping program, which was an alternative for utilizing bash script language with Unix’s built-in ping program. Both of the programs’ delay statistics were in the same magnitude; however, eventually fping was



selected due to its suitability for pinging multiple hosts and collecting large amounts data. The Figure 45 presents the measurement topology, which highlights the regional latency in service-perspective with blue dotted lines. The red dotted line represents the delay caused by management network, which was subtracted from the overall delay of individual measurements.

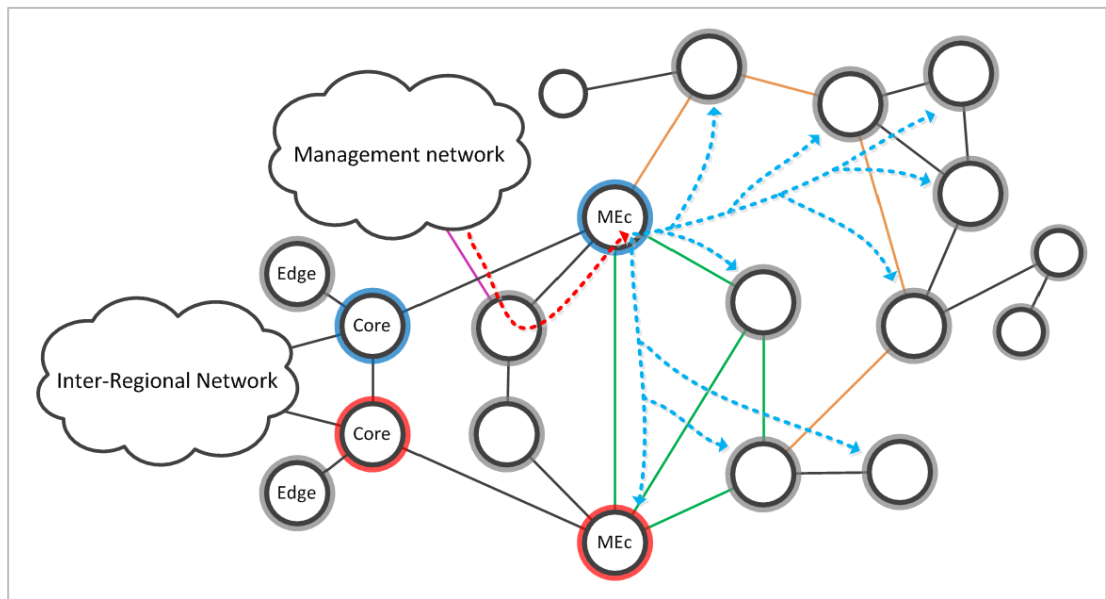


Figure 45. Measurement Topology II

The amount of test packets sent to each ME node was 120 and multiple measurements were conducted using 84-byte and 1500-byte packet sizes. The command (1) shown below sends 120 ICMP echo requests to each ME node present in areaA file, labels statistics of individual test packets with a Unix time stamp and writes them to areaA-vrb file. The output (2) displays the contents of the file:

```
(1) fping -C 120 -D < areaA >> & areaA-vrb

(2) [1523699889.755149] me-node75      : [49], 84 bytes, 6.60 ms (6.79 avg, 0% loss)
    [1523699889.780036] me-node76      : [49], 84 bytes, 6.45 ms (6.51 avg, 0% loss)
    [1523699889.804812] me-node77      : [49], 84 bytes, 5.99 ms (6.05 avg, 0% loss)

me-node1      : 5.80 5.74 5.71 5.71 5.70 5.65 5.73 5.69 5.83 5.65 5.56 5.80 5
.69 6.10 5.74 5.71 5.92 5.64 5.74 5.65 5.75 5.92 5.81 5.80 5.89 5.78 5.81 5.84 5
.70 5.71 5.76 5.72 5.80 5.80 5.78 5.87 5.92 5.78 5.90 5.88 5.44 5.71 5.58 5.78 5
.73 5.70 5.69 5.83 5.77 5.79
```

Due to the volume of measurement statistics (136,680 individual records per measurement = 120 test packets sent to all ME nodes), the data was exported to Excel where it was easier to analyze. In order to do this, the data required parsing. The following command finds the rows starting with *me-*, adds a string *AreaA* with a space as a delimiter and removes all tabular keystrokes as well as colons:

```
more areaA-vrb | grep "^me-" | awk '{print "areaA " $0}' | sed 's/          //g' | sed
's/://g' > areaA-sts
```

After the data was parsed, it was analyzed in Excel where it was enriched by adding information such as device models, technical sites and geographical locations from Telia's inventories. In addition, the number of hops was included as it helped assessing the reliability of the measured data. The statistics presented in Figure 46 represent real round-trip delay statistics from a regional network. The columns in the figure include: measured delay (minimum, median and average) of the 120 test packets, ratio of measured average and median delay, variance and standard deviation of measured delay as well as delay statistics of the ME core node, which were subtracted from the measured values (the estimated delay is displayed in *Min*, *Median*, *Average and Max* columns). The delay statistics of individual test packets are shown on the right side of the figure beside the *Hops* column. In the figure, one row represents statistics of a ME node.

	Raw Min	Raw median	Raw average	Ratio	Variance	Std. Dev.	Mngmt. Min	Mngmt. Median	Mngmt. Average	Min	Median	Average	Max	Hops
9001	0.73	0.93	0.93	1.01	0.01	0.11	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.05	0.00	0.01	0.52	5
9002	0.69	0.95	0.97	1.02	0.01	0.10	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.39	6
9003	0.8	0.95	0.99	1.05	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.12	0.02	0.07	0.61	6
9004	0.73	1.00	1.02	1.02	0.01	0.10	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.66	7
9005	0.69	1.06	1.08	1.08	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.21	0.13	0.16	0.75	6
9006	0.69	1.09	1.09	1.01	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.21	0.16	0.17	1.36	8
9007	0.92	1.11	1.14	1.03	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.24	0.18	0.21	0.84	7
9008	0.92	1.13	1.16	1.03	0.03	0.17	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.24	0.20	0.24	1.19	7
9009	0.94	1.13	1.16	1.02	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.26	0.20	0.23	0.71	7
9010	0.93	1.15	1.20	1.04	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.25	0.22	0.28	0.91	8
9011	0.96	1.16	1.20	1.03	0.02	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.28	0.23	0.27	0.92	7
9012	0.93	1.19	1.21	1.02	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.25	0.26	0.23	0.73	7
9013	0.99	1.20	1.24	1.04	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.31	0.27	0.32	0.86	8
9014	0.98	1.21	1.23	1.02	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.30	0.28	0.30	0.86	7
9015	0.99	1.21	1.23	1.02	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.31	0.28	0.30	1.17	8
9016	1.03	1.21	1.25	1.03	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.35	0.28	0.32	0.93	9
9017	1.04	1.21	1.23	1.01	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.36	0.28	0.30	0.79	7
9018	1.05	1.21	1.27	1.05	0.03	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.37	0.28	0.34	1.04	9
9019	0.97	1.22	1.25	1.03	0.04	0.20	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.29	0.29	0.32	1.45	8
9020	1	1.23	1.27	1.04	0.03	0.17	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.32	0.30	0.35	1.23	8
9021	1.01	1.23	1.26	1.03	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.33	0.30	0.34	0.99	8
9022	1.02	1.23	1.26	1.02	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.34	0.30	0.33	0.80	7
9023	1.01	1.24	1.26	1.01	0.01	0.11	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.33	0.31	0.33	0.74	9
9024	0.96	1.25	1.26	1.01	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.28	0.32	0.33	0.80	9
9025	1.05	1.25	1.28	1.02	0.03	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.37	0.32	0.35	1.43	8
9026	1.07	1.25	1.29	1.03	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.39	0.32	0.36	0.88	7
9027	1.05	1.26	1.31	1.04	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.37	0.33	0.36	1.06	9
9028	1.06	1.26	1.27	1.01	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.38	0.33	0.34	0.91	8
9029	1.08	1.28	1.33	1.04	0.03	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.40	0.35	0.40	1.10	8
9030	1.13	1.28	1.31	1.02	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.45	0.35	0.36	1.28	7
9031	1.09	1.28	1.31	1.02	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.41	0.35	0.38	0.92	8
9032	1.1	1.30	1.33	1.02	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.42	0.37	0.40	0.99	9
9033	1.15	1.30	1.34	1.03	0.03	0.17	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.47	0.37	0.42	1.20	9
9034	1.12	1.33	1.37	1.04	0.03	0.19	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.44	0.40	0.45	1.35	9
9035	1.12	1.34	1.40	1.05	0.03	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.44	0.41	0.47	1.09	9
9036	1.13	1.34	1.35	1.01	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.45	0.41	0.43	0.96	8
9037	1.15	1.37	1.39	1.02	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.47	0.44	0.47	1.11	9
9038	1.21	1.43	1.46	1.02	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.53	0.50	0.53	1.05	8
9039	1.25	1.44	1.46	1.02	0.02	0.15	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.57	0.51	0.53	1.12	9
9040	1.21	1.45	1.49	1.03	0.03	0.17	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.53	0.52	0.56	1.23	9
9041	1.29	1.46	1.50	1.03	0.02	0.14	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.61	0.53	0.57	1.20	10
9042	1.27	1.47	1.49	1.01	0.02	0.13	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.53	0.54	0.57	1.19	9
9043	1.27	1.50	1.52	1.01	0.03	0.16	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.53	0.57	0.59	2.19	9
9044	1.33	1.52	1.54	1.02	0.01	0.12	0.68	0.92	0.93	0.65	0.59	0.62	1.27	9

Figure 46. Round-trip Delay Statistics

## 11 Results

### 11.1 Analysis

Even if the actual measurement was straightforward, analysis of the data gathered in multiple measurement sessions was much more complex. The analysis required examining the complete traceroute data together with technical drawings and information gathered using 5620 SAM. Although the drawings included IS-IS metrics and approximate geographical locations of the ME nodes, one of the most time consuming tasks was to investigate the actual routes to the remote measurement points. Because traceroute reported link addresses, there was no easy way to determine, to which of the nodes the link addresses belonged.

The first observation of the measurement data was that the statistics were coherent. In overall, the average delay correlated well with the median delay, which made the data mathematically symmetric. There was also no significant packet loss, as the

highest recorded test packet loss was 0.000055% (which equals to 15 lost ICMP packets when 273,360 packets were sent). Considering the average and median delay, 99.6% of the measured ME nodes were under 8 ms limit. The percentage for 5 ms limit was 95.3%. (Note: These are the results of three separate measurements)

The comparison of maximum delay did not prove useful, as sometimes there were individual test packets with high delay while the other test packets were near to minimum measured round-trip time. However, there were nodes, which reported high maximum values in patterns (e.g. every other test packet reported 10 ms greater delay than the previous test packet) indicating possible issues. In addition, a comparison of average delay was less useful as significantly high maximum values raised the average delay considerably. For most of the nodes, there was a rather small difference of 300  $\mu$ s between median and minimum delay, which indicated that routers responded to ICMP echo requests in uniform, considering that the intention was only to produce millisecond-level data with the ping measurements.

ME nodes physically connected to management network (from now on referred as MEm nodes) performed consistently, i.e. usually the measured round-trip delay was almost the same. Although the overall results of the MEm nodes were consistent, there were individual test packets with greater delay. Based on the results, MEms which were 7750 SR-12, 7450 ESS-12 or 7450 ESS-7 series equipment, were not always the fastest nodes to respond to ICMP echo requests. It was evident that ESS series equipment responded considerably slower to ping than SR series equipment, which were further in the topology on a same or even a different site. This can be seen in Figure 47 where the only 'better performing' ESS series node is the first node present in the figure.

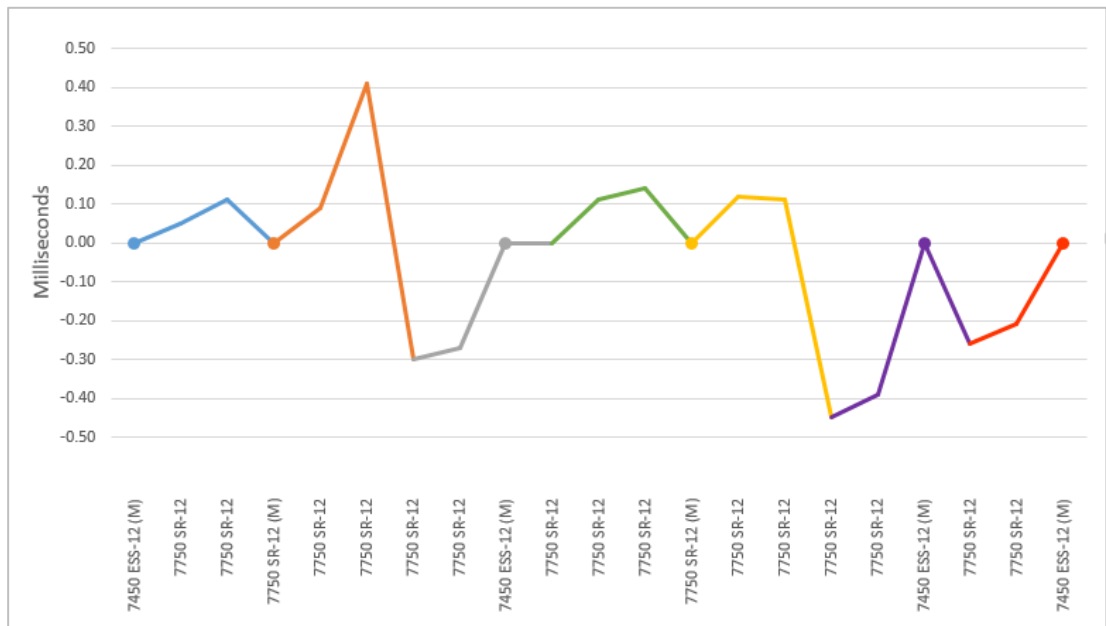


Figure 47. Comparison of Round-trip Delay Statistics

The figure above illustrates the three fastest (minimum delay of 120 test packets) ME nodes from eight individual regional networks. The dots highlight the MEMs, which are the closest nodes to the ping source (the management server). Note that the figure also contains negative values as the measured delay from management server to SR-12s was usually smaller, and because the greater delay (delay from management server to ESS-12s) it was subtracted from the total measured round-trip delay.

The raw measurement data ( $D_r$ ) was only useful when comparing ME nodes within a single region. For this reason, the estimated round-trip delay ( $D_e$ ) was calculated by subtracting the delay ( $D_m$ ) resulting from management network (refer to Figure 48). This means that the amount of subtracted round-trip delay  $D_m$  is always the same for every ME node in a region per measurement. Since this subtraction was necessary, there is an error margin, as there is a difference between ME nodes' capability to handle ICMP echo requests.

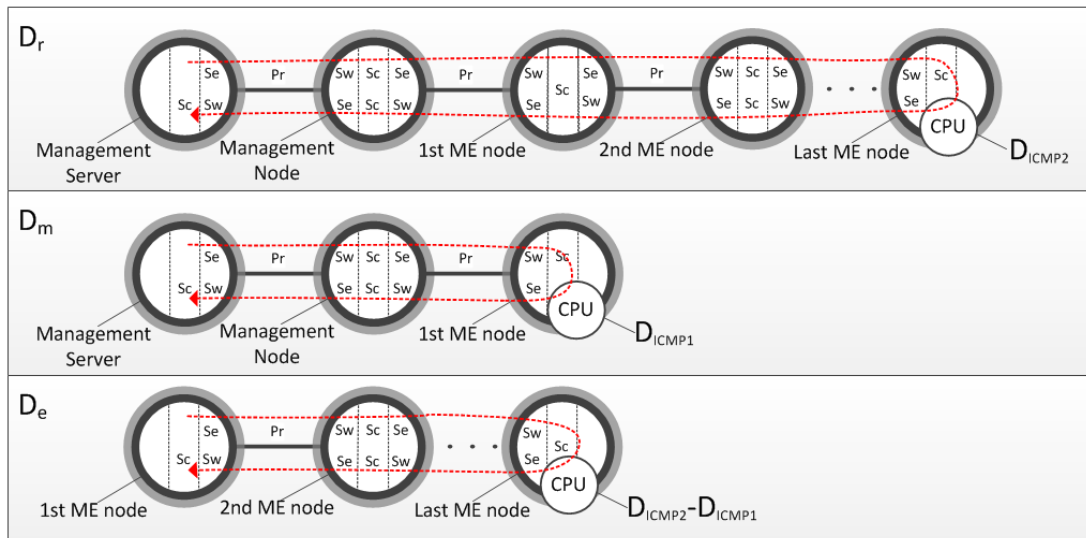


Figure 48. Delay Components I

For example,  $D_m$  is  $2\,400\ \mu\text{s}$  and the amount of time test packet spends in the control plane of the device ( $D_{ICMP}$ ) is  $300\ \mu\text{s}$ . If another node from the same region is measured, and the total round-trip time is  $D_r\ 4\,600\ \mu\text{s}$ , then according to calculation logic  $D_e$  is  $2\,200\ \mu\text{s}$ . If  $D_{ICMP}$  in this case had been instead  $450\ \mu\text{s}$  (assuming  $450\ \mu\text{s}$   $D_{ICMP}$  stays constant), the measured round-trip delay would have been  $2\,350\ \mu\text{s}$ , when pinging the node directly from a ME core node. If all device models' ICMP processing capabilities were similar, the delay resulting from ICMP packet processing would be theoretically non-existent as shown in Figure 49.

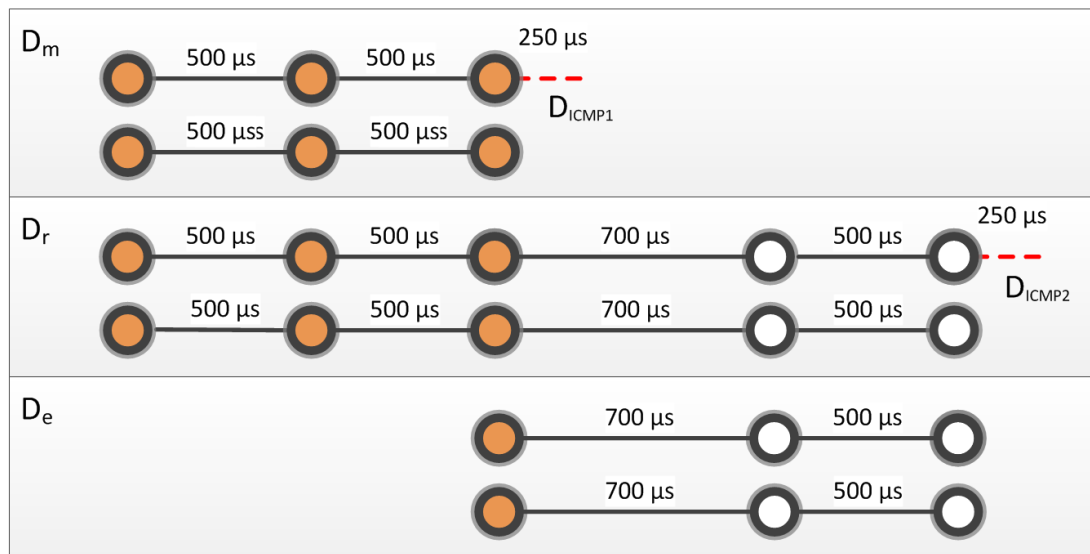


Figure 49. Delay Components II

The most distinguishable factor contributing to the overall delay was the distance. If the distance between nodes was long, also the number of hops correlated well with the data. Another factor was the packet size. When comparing D<sub>r</sub> of 84 byte and 1500 byte packets, the 1500-byte packet size increased the minimum and average delay of all measured equipment by 0.9 ms compared to smaller test packets. However, when D<sub>m</sub> was subtracted there was no significant difference, indicating that the increased test packet size seemed only to measure the ICMP processing capability of the ME nodes.

There were only minor differences when comparing statistics of two separate measurements sessions with the same packet size (84-byte packets). Table 8 presents the difference, where the column < 100 μs indicate how many of the ME nodes responded to ping within ± 100 μs time frame. Correspondingly, < 200 μs indicates the amount of ME nodes, which managed to respond within ± 200 μs. Based on the results, the response rates were quite consistent as there are only few nodes present in the > 200 μs column (excluding less indicative average delay).

Table 8. ME Node Response Rates within Time Intervals

	< 100 $\mu$ s	< 200 $\mu$ s	> 200 $\mu$ s
Minimum	1051 (92.3 %)	1137 (99.8 %)	2 (0.2 %)
Median	1103 (96.8 %)	1134 (99.6 %)	5 (0.4 %)
Average	875 (76.8 %)	1029 (90.3 %)	110 (9.7 %)

To determine the reliability of the results, it was also necessary to calculate the theoretical minimum delay values, which were compared to actual results. Due to number of equipment measured, only a number of calculations were made. Calculations assumed 10  $\mu$ s switching delay, since no response was received from Nokia about switching delay of the equipment in the scope. All calculations also assumed 0 ms scheduling delay as regional networks did not contain any saturated links between the ME nodes. Technically, there was a possibility that some test packets were scheduled as the overall port utilization rate is calculated from a certain interval. Moreover, the utilization rate of the links in management network was not known during the measurements.

The propagation delay was calculated based on the actual cable lengths recorded in Telia's inventories and serialization delay based on the actual link speeds. Figures 50 and 51 present the results of calculations and the minimum  $D_e$  for two packet sizes. The theoretical values for both packet sizes are almost equal, as packet size in 10 Gbps links is an insignificant factor contributing to overall delay. There is also a minor error margin in switching delay because smaller packet sizes require less processing in the data plane. The milliseconds represent the round-trip time while kilometers represent the length of the cable route, and therefore, they do not represent the 'round-trip distance' of the test packets.



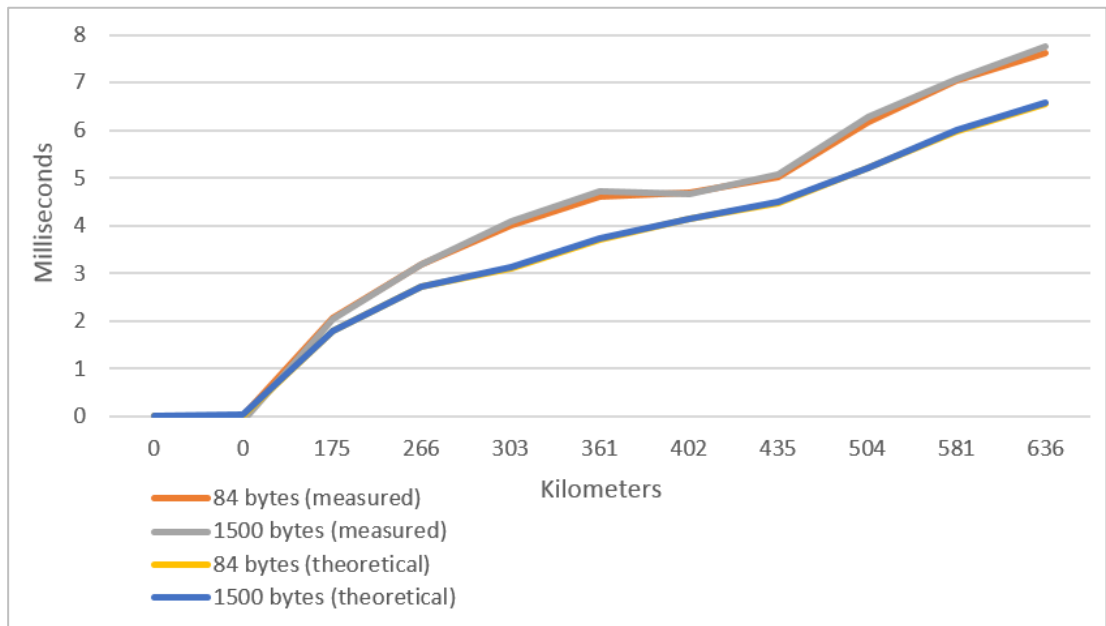


Figure 50. Comparison of Round-trip Delay Statistics (Theoretical vs. Actual) I

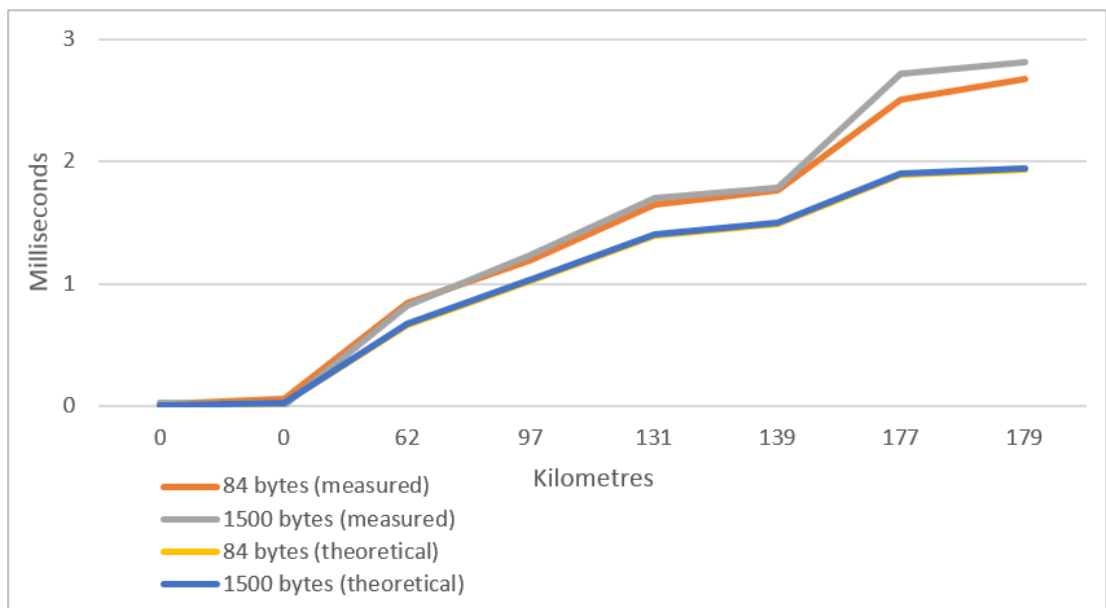


Figure 51. Comparison of Round-trip Delay Statistics (Theoretical vs. Actual) II

Based on the above figures, there is a difference between the measured and theoretical round-trip delay – which was expected. The possible reason why the delay difference is the greatest in the end of the cable route is that these two examples had

lower-tier ME nodes in the remote end. Since the ME core nodes were the fastest nodes to respond to ICMP echo requests, their  $D_{ICMP}$  was the lowest. The delay difference mostly likely grows as lower-tier ME nodes respond slower to ping ( $D_{ICMP}$  is greater).

## 11.2 Conclusions

Since high percentage of ME nodes (99.6 %) were under 8 ms limit, the overall delay performance of the network is likely sufficient for early 5G applications. The statistics are not absolute, which means the measurement statistics are very likely greater than actual values due to variation in ICMP packet processing. In addition, TWAMP Light measurements support this. The comparison of TWAMP and ping revealed that the measured delay difference in laboratory environment was significant, when the links between the nodes were short. The probable reasons are most likely that there was insignificant amount of propagation delay and the most decisive delay component was high  $D_{ICMP}$  of Nokia's network equipment.

Presumably, the difference in TWAMP and ping delay statistics will be smaller, when the distance between measurement points are greater. As a result, the decisive factor affecting to overall delay would be caused by signal propagation, naturally depending on the amount actual  $D_{ICMP}$ . As shown in the equation, the distance is the primary delay factor in longer links (five 40 kilometer link sections, 10  $\mu$ s switching delay and 0  $\mu$ s scheduling delay are assumed):

$$D_{tot} = 2 \{N(D_{ser} + D_{pro} + D_{swi} + D_{sch})\} + D_{ICMP}$$

$$D_{tot} = 2 \{5(1 \mu s + 200 \mu s + 10 \mu s + 0 \mu s)\} + D_{ICMP}$$

$$D_{tot} = 2 \ 110 \ \mu s + ?$$

where  $D_{ser} = \frac{bits}{slink} = \frac{1522 \text{ bytes}}{10 \text{ Gbps}}$  and  $D_{pro} = 5 \text{ ms (per 1000 km)}$

Although ping does not represent TWAMP-like accuracy, it clearly correlates with the distance, which is the most decisive delay factor in large-scale networks. The most problematic parts of the network are clearly the nodes, which are far from the core sites. However, even if the nodes are not very far from the core sites, the length of redundant routes is also a problem. The highest measured median round-trip delay was 9.67 ms due to the length of an alternative WDM route, which was preferred because of its greater capacity compared to considerable shorter fiber route.

An overview of the measurement statistics can be seen in Appendix 8 where measurement data is sorted by median delay per region. The appendix does not contain any actual numeric values as they are not the public part of this thesis. The appendix rather visualizes the coherence of data for four separate regional networks using a green-yellow-red formatting.

### 11.3 Improvements and Recommendations

Because the difference of observed round-trip delay of ping and TWAMP Light measurements was several hundred milliseconds, it is recommendable to conduct TWAMP Light measurements in regional networks in order to determine the correctness of the statistics measured in this research. In addition, the access network layer, including some regional nodes dedicated to backhaul the mobile traffic, was excluded from the scope of the thesis. Therefore, this research does not indicate the end-to-end latency between base stations and the mobile core, leaving room for future end-to-end measurements from service-perspective. Most importantly, the delay for alternative routes was not measured, which is important, as network faults and planned maintenances force the traffic to routes that are not preferred in normal conditions.

Arranging fault scenarios voluntarily to production network is not an option, meaning there is likely a need to measure the delay of individual links in order to determine the delay of the longest routes.

Concerning TWAMP, there are use cases, which require further investigation. For example, an additional research question was raised during the TWAMP Light testing concerning TWAMP Light's suitability for monitoring LAGs (Link Aggregation Group). Another topic that remained uninvestigated was how to collect TWAMP Light statistics effectively from the ME nodes if external probes are not used to send test packets. This, as a result, requires some testing as routers and switches are not primarily built for generating traffic, and because CPU stress of the TWAMP Light measurement sessions is not known. Implementing TWAMP Light is beneficial due to its ability to measure one-way statistics indicating possible latency issues per direction and because it would likely provide reliable delay variation statistics, of which ping is not capable.

When the final results of were introduced to the stakeholders in Telia's organization, especially the presentation of the data made an impression. There is already a plan to implement scheduled script, which will utilize a ping program and transfer statistics automatically to Splunk application. This easy-to-implement method should provide an automatic overview of the nodes that for some reason have problems replying ICMP echo request messages. Although slow ICMP echo response rate might not indicate clearly of any specific issue, displaying ping statistics (also possibly traceroute statistics) in real-time should provide a proactive tool for network monitoring. Splunk integration will also save time, since gathering measurement statistics to an Excel file took approximately five minutes of manual effort per measurement.

## 12 Discussion

Ping is not a reliable method of measuring latency. Regardless, ping is a simple method of measuring latency and provides a very cost-effective way to get a baseline of the network quickly without making any investments in software or probes. Hence, ping clearly can correlate well enough in measurements, which does not require near absolute delay statistics. In addition, combining simple data such as number of traceroute hops did reveal unexpectedly routing issues in both production and management network. For example, one finding was that there was a 6-hop difference between two directly connected nodes, which meant an additional round-trip delay of 1.14 ms, resulting only from signal propagation as alternative 114 kilometer longer route was used. The root cause for the finding was a missing LDP configuration that prevented all traffic forwarding via the preferred shorter link.

The subject of the thesis was extremely interesting and provided a great lookout spot to study Telia's network architecture. Both the thesis process, as well as the technologies studied in this research, provided an educative opportunity (which was, by the way, eagerly accepted) to improve the knowledge of an operator-tier IP network. However, the thesis subject was quite demanding, as it contained two individual practical phases and required a great deal of familiarization with Telia's network architecture. Although the constraints of the thesis were clear, it was hard to estimate the amount of effort required to complete all of the tasks. It was particularly hard to assess the reliability of an unreliable measurement protocol.

Although the latency tests were eventually conducted using a simple method, working in a foreign and complex laboratory environment with new SR operating system was not exactly easy. As my tasks in normal daily work at Telia did not relate at all to networking, the main delay elements in the thesis process were schedule-related

due to workload of a major project in Telia, and getting necessary access rights and permissions to be able to access and configure the network elements. Working with two completely different issues made it very hard to keep the focus on both the thesis process and the daily work at the same time. Nevertheless, the primary objective was achieved by providing the essential information for the organization.

The results of this research identify the areas of regional networks requiring optimization and guide the network planning for 5G. By comparing earlier historic measurement statistics to the most current statistics, regular measurements should indicate configuration issues relating to routing, and how network topology changes affect the delay. Regular measurements also likely add value to planning of customer solutions requiring low latency as well as may help identifying faults of latency-critical customers. (Kivirinta 2018.)

The statistics are useful especially for the designers and technicians familiar with network topologies. Although the full value of the results of the thesis cannot be estimated for certain, the measurements for the baseline have already been proven valuable by pointing out a configuration issue in the production network. There was only one finding, since only one of the regional networks' measurement statistics was analyzed more thoroughly by comparing the statistics to the physical topology. Only the most familiar topology was selected, as full analysis of all of the regions' statistics would have required another thesis. The research results relating to TWAMP testing may prove useful at some point, however, that is to be seen when TWAMP testing becomes relevant in the near future.

Telia, likely along with the other service providers, plans to introduce the future 5G network gradually, where 5G network is integrated with the existing 4G network architecture. This enables securing the infrastructure for early 5G applications, such as

eMBB, which is likely the first 5G service category to be introduced. This also means that the rest of the more advanced 5G usage cases relating to augmented reality and industrial automation will be introduced as a service later. Most likely, the most stringent latency-critical uRRLC applications are the last to be introduced. It will be interesting to see whether the most remote rural areas far from larger cities will ever support uRRLC usage cases as – well... One millisecond is a very short period of time. To meet the requirement in every corner within a geographically large and sparsely populated country requires an overhaul of the entire mobile core architecture. This, instead, would greatly increase the overall cost of constructing 5G, making it an unreasonable investment.

It might be easy to think that once the upcoming 5G standard is finished, the vendors can start creating high-end equipment dedicated to delay mitigation, and the equipment is then installed to service provider networks. From a service provider's perspective, investing into the high-end technology will require a valid business case to justify the reason to invest. This means also that the customers need to be willing to acquire high-end services that are not likely cheap. The commercialization of 5G networks is the next major milestone in the evolution of mobile networks, which is why it will be worth waiting to see what exactly that means in practice – and what exactly it actually changes.

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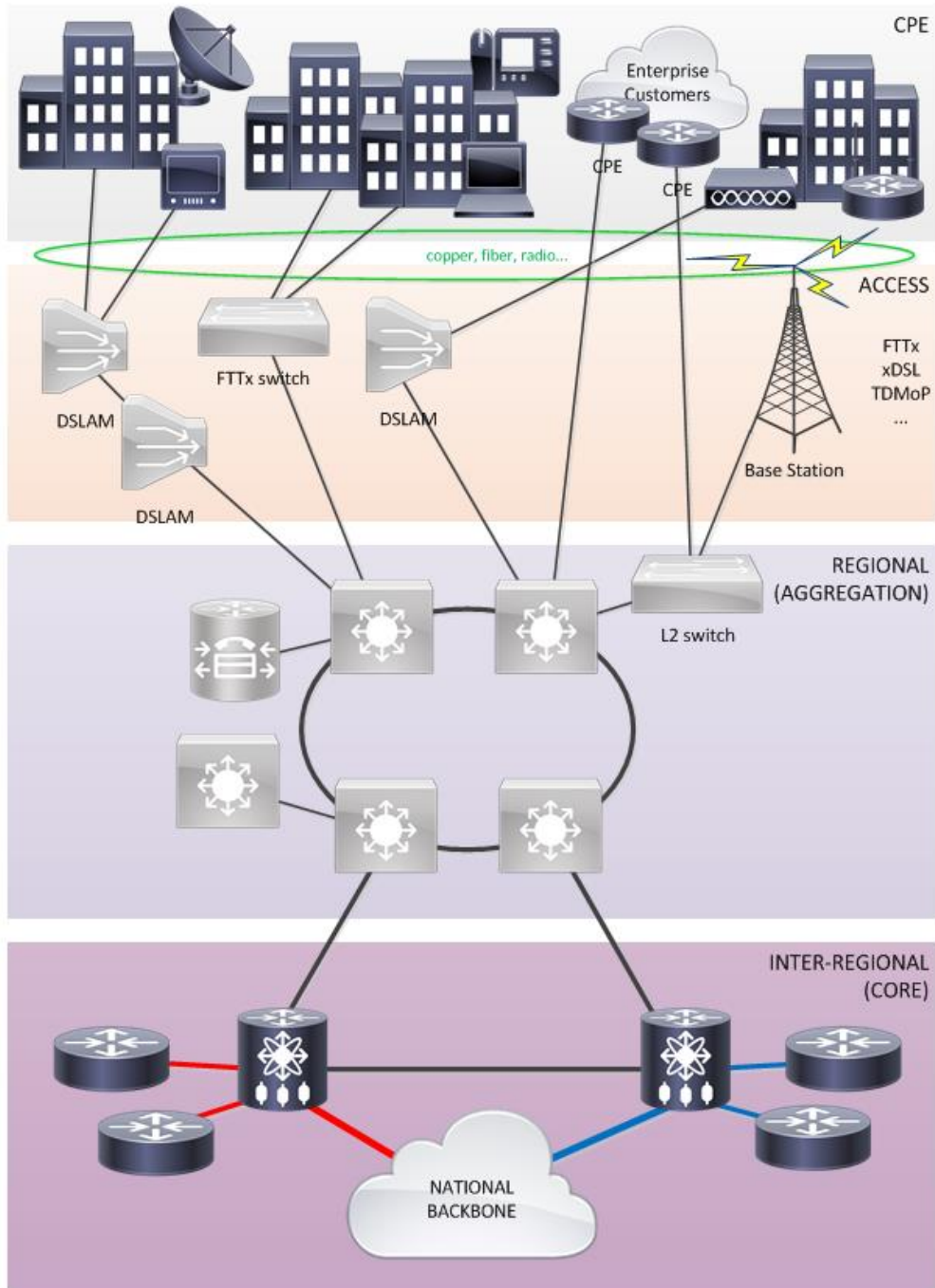
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# Appendices

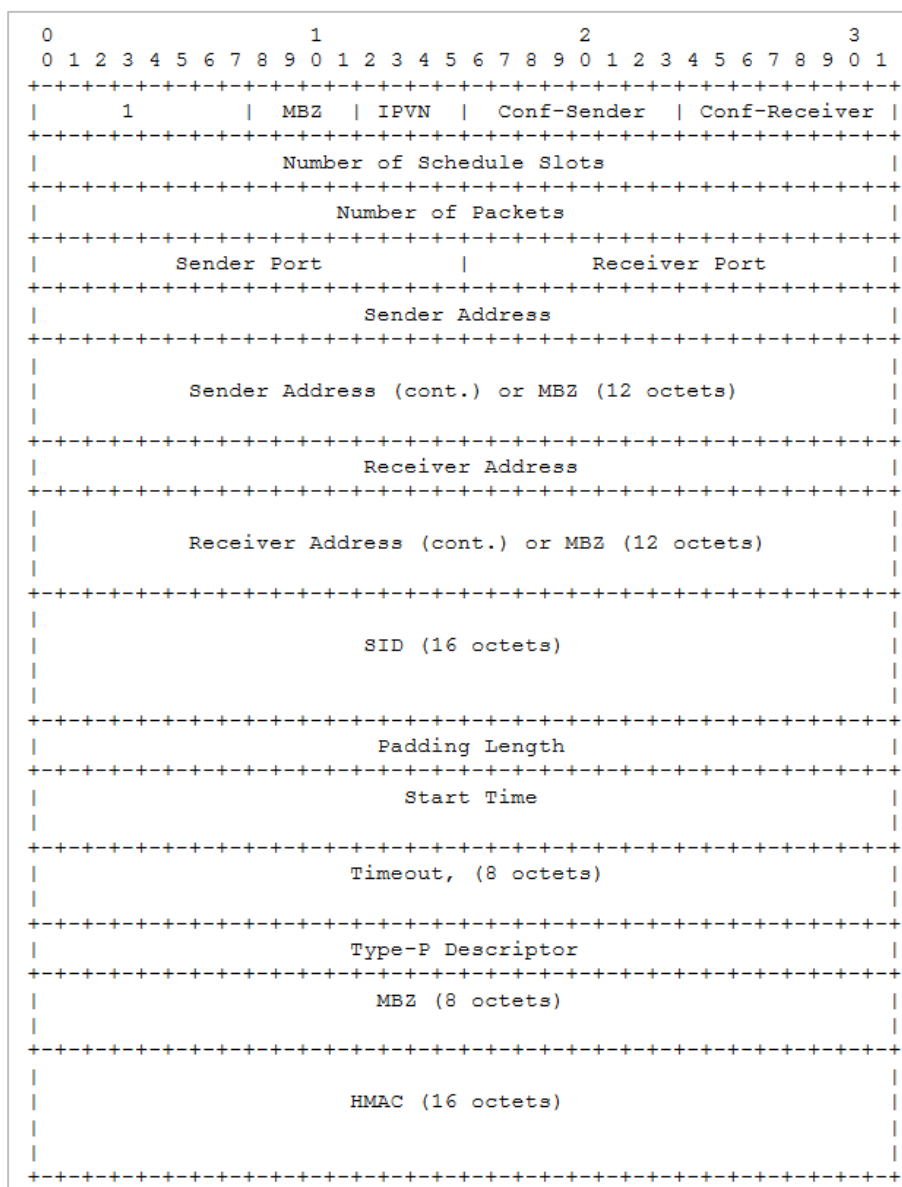
## Appendix 1. National Network Layers



## Appendix 2. 5QI QoS Characteristics mapping

5QI Value	Resource Type	Priority Level	Packet Delay Budget	Packet Error Rate	Default Maximum Data Burst Volume (NOTE 2)	Default Averaging Window	Example Services
B	Delay Critical GBR	11	5 ms	$10^{-5}$	160 B	TBD	Remote control (see TS 22.261 [2])
C NOTE 4		12	10 ms NOTE 5	$10^{-6}$	320 B	TBD	Intelligent transport systems
D		13	20 ms	$10^{-5}$	640 B	TBD	
1	GBR NOTE 1	20	100 ms	$10^{-2}$	N/A	TBD	Conversational Voice
2		40	150 ms	$10^{-3}$	N/A	TBD	Conversational Video (Live Streaming)
3		30	50 ms	$10^{-3}$	N/A	TBD	Real Time Gaming, V2X messages Electricity distribution – medium voltage, Process automation - monitoring
4		50	300 ms	$10^{-6}$	N/A	TBD	Non-Conversational Video (Buffered Streaming)
65		7	75 ms	$10^{-2}$	N/A	TBD	Mission Critical user plane Push To Talk voice (e.g., MCPTT)
66		20	100 ms	$10^{-2}$	N/A	TBD	Non-Mission-Critical user plane Push To Talk voice
75		25	50 ms	$10^{-2}$	N/A	TBD	V2X messages
E NOTE 4		18	10 ms	$10^{-4}$	255 B	TBD	Discrete Automation
F NOTE 4		19	10 ms	$10^{-4}$	1358 B NOTE 3	TBD	Discrete Automation
5		Non-GBR NOTE 1	10	100 ms	$10^{-6}$		N/A
6	60		300 ms	$10^{-6}$		N/A	Video (Buffered Streaming) TCP-based (e.g., www, e-mail, chat, ftp, p2p file sharing, progressive video, etc.)
7	70		100 ms	$10^{-3}$		N/A	Voice, Video (Live Streaming) Interactive Gaming
8	80		300 ms	$10^{-6}$		N/A	Video (Buffered Streaming) TCP-based (e.g., www, e-mail, chat, ftp, p2p file sharing, progressive video, etc.)
9	90					N/A	sharing, progressive video, etc.)
69	5		60 ms	$10^{-6}$		N/A	Mission Critical delay sensitive signalling (e.g., MC-PTT signalling)
70	55		200 ms	$10^{-6}$		N/A	Mission Critical Data (e.g. example services are the same as QCI 6/8/9)
79	65		50 ms	$10^{-2}$		N/A	V2X messages

## Appendix 3. Request-TW-Session Message (RFC 4656 2006, 14)



## Appendix 4. TWAMP/TWAMP Light Commands in SR OS 14.0.R4

### TWAMP

```

configure
- test-oam
  - twamp
    - server
      - [no] prefix {address/prefix-length} [create]
        - description text
        - no description
        - max-conn-prefix count
        - no max-conn-prefix
        - max-sess-prefix count
        - no max-sess-prefix
        - [no] shutdown
      - inactivity-timeout seconds
      - no inactivity-timeout
      - max-conn-server count
      - no max-conn-server
      - max-sess-server count
      - no max-sess-server
      - shutdown

```

### TWAMP Light

```

configure
- router
  - twamp-light
    - reflector [udp-port udp-port-number] [create]
    - no reflector
      - description description
      - no description
      - prefix {ip-prefix/prefix-length} [create]
      - no prefix
        - description description
        - no description
      - [no] shutdown

configure
- service
  - vprn
    -[no] twamp-light
      - reflector [udp-port udp-port-number] [create]
      - no reflector
        - description description
        - no description
      - prefix
      - no prefix
        - description description
        - no description
      - [no] shutdown

configure
- test-oam
  - twamp
    - twamp-light
      - inactivity-timeout seconds
      - no inactivity-timeout

configure
- oam-pm
  - session
    - ip
      - destination ip-address

```



```

- no destination
- dest-udp-port udp-port-number
- no dest-udp-port
- fc fc-name
- no fc
- forwarding {next-hop ip-address | interface interface-name | bypassrouting}
- no forwarding
- profile {in | out}
- no profile
- router {base | routing-instance | service-name service-name}
- no router
- source ip-address
- no source
- source-udp-port udp-port-number
- no source-udp-port
- ttl time-to-live
- no ttl
  - twamp-light [test-id test-id][create]
  - no twamp-light
    - interval milliseconds
    - no interval
    - loss
      - flr-threshold percentage
      - [no] flr-threshold
      - timing frames-per-delta-t frames consec-delta-t deltas
        chli-threshold threshold
      - [no] timing
    - loss-events
      - avg-flr-event {forward | backward} threshold raisethreshold-percent [clear clear-threshold-percent]
      - [no] avg-flr-event {forward | backward}
      - chli-event {forward|backward|aggregate} threshold
        raise-threshold [clear clear-threshold]
      - [no] chli-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
      - hli-event {forward|backward|aggregate} threshold
        raise-threshold [clear clear-threshold]
      - [no] hli-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
      - unavailability-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
        threshold raise-threshold [clear clear-threshold]
      - [no] unavailability-event{forward|backward|aggregate}
      - undet-availability-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
        threshold raisethreshold [clear clear-threshold]
      - [no] undet-availability-event{forward|backward|aggregate}
      - undet-unavailability-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
        threshold raisethreshold [clear clear-threshold]
      - [no] undet-unavailability-event {forward|backward|aggregate}
    - pad-size octets
    - no pad-size
    - pad-size
    - record-stats {delay | loss | delay-and-loss}
    - [no] record-stats
    - [no] shutdown
    - test-duration seconds
    - no test-duration

```

## Appendix 5. PM Session Configuration

PMSession - [network: :pmsess-TWL -> TWAMP Server Test] [Edit]

General Components IP Session Deployment

PM Session Name: TWL -> TWAMP Server Test

Description: TWL packet reflection test

Test Family: IP

Network Element

System ID (Loopback IP Address):

Active Management IP:

Bin Group

Bin Group Mgr Object ID: 1

Description: OAM PM default bin group (not modifiable)

Administrative State: Enabled

PM Session Type: Proactive

TWAMP

TCC Test

ID: 4

TWAMP Server IP:

PMSession - [network: :pmsess-TWL -> TWAMP Server Test] [Edit]

General Components IP Session Deployment

PMSession

- Measurement Intervals
  - Duration 15 Minutes, Type Proactive
- Sessions
  - IP - Site ID, SRC IP, DST IP, DST UDP '49152'
  - Test Sessions
    - TWAMPLight - Test ID 6, Admin State Disabled
    - Bins

PMSession - [network: :pmsess-TWL -> TWAMP Server Test] [Edit]

General Components IP Session Deployment

Session Name: TWL -> TWAMP Server Test

Site Id:

IP Session Target Type: Router

Source and Destination Addresses

Source IP

Source IP Address: Clear Properties

Destination IP: Clear

Session Details

Dest UDP Port: 49152

Source UDP Port: 64375

Bypass Routing:

Egress Interface

Name: Select... Properties

Terminated Object:

ID: 0

Next Hop IP: 0.0.0.0

Forwarding Class: af

IP Profile: out

Time to Live: 255

Resync Copy... User Activity OK Cancel Apply

## Appendix 6. TWAMP Light Session Configuration

```
B:me-s02>config>oam-pm>session# info detail
```

```
-----
bin-group 1
description "Test for TWL packet reflection from TWAMP server"
meas-interval 15-mins create
  no accounting-policy
  boundary-type clock-aligned
  clock-offset 0
  event-mon
    shutdown
    no delay-events
    no loss-events
  exit
  intervals-stored 32
exit
ip
  dest-udp-port 49152
  destination <IP address>
  fc "be"
  no forwarding
  profile out
  router "Base"
  source <IP address>
  source-udp-port 64374
  ttl 255
  twamp-light test-id 5 create
    shutdown
    interval 1000
    loss
      flr-threshold 50
      timing frames-per-delta-t 1 consec-delta-t 10 chli-threshold 5
    exit
    loss-events
      no avg-flr-event forward
      no avg-flr-event backward
      no chli-event forward
      no hli-event forward
      no unavailability-event forward
      no undet-availability-event forward
      no undet-unavailability-event forward
      no chli-event backward
      no hli-event backward
      no unavailability-event backward
      no undet-availability-event backward
      no undet-unavailability-event backward
      no chli-event aggregate
      no hli-event aggregate
      no unavailability-event aggregate
      no undet-availability-event aggregate
      no undet-unavailability-event aggregate
    exit
  pad-size 27
  record-stats delay-and-loss
  no test-duration
exit
exit
-----
```

## Appendix 7. TWAMP Light Session: me-s02

```
B:me-s02>config>oam-pm>session# show oam-pm statistics session "TWL -> TWAMP Server Test"
twamp-light meas-interval raw
```

```
-----
Start (UTC)      : 2018/04/17 11:07:58      Status          : in-progress
Elapsed (seconds) : 371                    Suspect         : yes
Frames Sent      : 371                    Frames Received : 371
-----
```

### =====

#### TWAMP-LIGHT DELAY STATISTICS

```
-----
Bin Type   Direction   Minimum (us)   Maximum (us)   Average (us)
-----
FD         Forward    500576702     500579818     500578260
FD         Backward   0              0              0
FD         Round Trip 563            574            566
FDR        Forward    0              3116           1558
FDR        Backward   0              0              0
FDR        Round Trip 0              11             3
IFDV       Forward    1              15             8
IFDV       Backward   0              0              0
IFDV       Round Trip 0              11             2
-----
```

### -----

#### Frame Delay (FD) Bin Counts

```
-----
Bin    Lower Bound   Forward   Backward   Round Trip
-----
0      0 us           0         371        371
1      5000 us        0         0          0
2      10000 us       371        0          0
-----
```

### -----

#### Frame Delay Range (FDR) Bin Counts

```
-----
Bin    Lower Bound   Forward   Backward   Round Trip
-----
0      0 us           382        382        382
1      5000 us        0         0          0
-----
```

### -----

#### Inter-Frame Delay Variation (IFDV) Bin Counts

```
-----
Bin    Lower Bound   Forward   Backward   Round Trip
-----
0      0 us           381        381        381
1      5000 us        0         0          0
-----
```

### =====

#### TWAMP-LIGHT LOSS STATISTICS

```
-----
Frames Sent   Frames Received
-----
Forward       367             367
Backward      367             367
-----
```

```
-----
Frame Loss Ratios
-----
```

	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Forward	0.000%	0.000%	0.000%
Backward	0.000%	0.000%	0.000%

```
-----
```

```
-----
Availability Counters (Und = Undetermined)
-----
```

	Available	Und-Avail	Unavailable	Und-Unavail	HLI	CHLI
Forward	368	0	0	0	0	0
Backward	368	0	0	0	0	0

```
-----
```

```
=====
B:me-s02>config>oam-pm>session# show oam-pm session "TWL -> TWAMP Server Test"
-----
```

```
-----
Basic Session Configuration
-----
```

```

Session Name      : TWL -> TWAMP Server Test
Description       : TWL packet reflection test
Test Family      : ip                      Session Type      : proactive
Bin Group        : 1
-----
```

```
-----
IP Configuration
-----
```

```

Source IP Address : <IP address>
Dest IP Address  : <IP address>
Config Src UDP Port: 64375                In-Use Src UDP Port: 64375
Dest UDP Port    : 49152                  Time To Live       : 255
Forwarding Class : af                     Profile            : out
Router           : Base                   Bypass Routing     : no
Egress Interface : (Not Specified)
Next Hop Address : (Not Specified)
-----
```

```
-----
TWAMP-Light Test Configuration and Status
-----
```

```

Test ID          : 6                      Admin State       : Up
Oper State       : Up                     Pad Size         : 27 octets
On-Demand Duration: Not Applicable        On-Demand Remaining: Not Applicable
Interval        : 1000 ms                 Record Stats     : delay-and-loss
CHLI Threshold  : 5 HLIs                  Frames Per Delta-T : 1 frames
Consec Delta-Ts : 10                      FLR Threshold    : 50%
-----
```

```
-----
15-mins Measurement Interval Configuration
-----
```

```

Duration         : 15-mins                 Intervals Stored  : 16
Boundary Type    : clock-aligned           Clock Offset      : 0 seconds
Accounting Policy : none                   Event Monitoring  : disabled
Delay Event Mon  : disabled                Loss Event Mon    : disabled
-----
```

```
-----
Configured Lower Bounds for Delay Tests, in microseconds
-----
```

Group Description	Admin Bin	FD(us)	FDR(us)	IFDV(us)
-------------------	-----------	--------	---------	----------

```

-----
1   OAM PM default bin group (not*  Up  0      0      0      0
                                     1    5000  5000  5000
                                     2   10000  -     -
-----

```

\* indicates that the corresponding row element may have been truncated.

```

-----
Delay Events for the TWAMP-Light Test
-----

```

```

Bin Type  Direction  LowerBound(us)  Raise  Clear  Last TCA (UTC)
-----

```

```

-----
Loss Events for the TWAMP-Light Test
-----

```

```

Event Type          Direction  Raise  Clear  Last TCA (UTC)
-----

```

Appendix 8. Coherence of Visualized Data

