

Simplified IP Addressing

By Gene E. Hector (Used by permission)

Some years back when I was teaching Novell courses I noted that too many students in my TCP/IP course were having problems understanding IP addressing. Other instructors were having the same results. Although I walked the students through the material very carefully, I found that many of them had difficulty grasping the concepts. Furthermore, the problem was exacerbated by them having to take the CNE tests which were closed book and timed. Hence, they needed a quick and effective way of working with IP addresses.

So I fine-tuned an approach that would minimize the chances for test errors and help them memorize and apply the principles at almost any time, even years later. I used to give this 1 to 2 hour IP presentation towards the end of the course and it worked great. Almost none of my students failed the test.

In the last couple of years I have been teaching at DeVRY and found the need to "dust off" my IP presentation. It has worked equally well at DeVRY. This article summarizes that presentation.

BASICS

The first question is what constitutes a Class A, or a Class B, etc. network. Novices have trouble remembering where each class begins and ends. Table 3 shows a schema which helps with this. But first, let's treat some basics of binary numbers.

(If you know all about binary numbers, just skip this section.)

A byte is a grouping of 8 binary bits. Since a binary bit is either a 0 or a 1, a byte consists of 8 0's and/or 1's. No mystery here. So 10010101 is a byte and 11100000 is another. How can we convert these to decimal numbers? It turns out that the right-hand most bit has a weight of 1 (2^0). The next bit to it's left has a weight of 2 (2^1), the next has a weight of 4 (2^2), i.e., two raised to the second power, and so on. This is illustrated below.

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

Or equivalently,

$$128 \ 64 \ 32 \ 16 \ 8 \ 4 \ 2 \ 1 \text{ :decimal weights}$$

So

$$1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \text{ :binary number}$$

has a decimal equivalent of,

$$1 \times 128 + 1 \times 32 + 1 \times 8 + 1 \times 1 = 169 \text{ decimal.}$$

If you assign contiguous 1's starting from the right, I can assert that the above diagram can be a kind of calculator. Let me illustrate. Let's say you have 00001111 binary bits. To get the decimal equivalent, you could do the calculations the hard way, viz.,

$$1 \times 8 + 1 \times 4 + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 = 15,$$

or you could note the following (taking our number),

```

128 64 32 16 8 4 2 1 :decimal weights
0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 :binary number

```

if you have all ones starting at the right side, you can simply take the weight of the first 0 bit, 16 in this case, subtract 1 and you have 15, the decimal equivalent without having to use a calculator. So if all the bits on the right are 1's, you can determine the decimal value by using the above diagram as a kind of calculator.

Note that the bits go up in powers of 2, so the 9th bit has a decimal weight of 256. So if you have a byte with all ones, i.e. 11111111, then it has a decimal value of 255 (256 - 1). 255 appears a lot in IP addressing.

What is this all about? Well, the host addresses usually start from the right-hand (low ordered) bits. Doesn't mean anything to you? Have patience, I'll illustrate shortly.

We need to construct another "calculator" for handy reference. There is a thing called net masking which we will treat later in the article. Standard procedure says to start the masking from the left and work down. So let's construct a table for this which can act as a "calculator."

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	Decimal Equivalents
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	128
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	192
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	224
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	240
1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	248
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	252
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	254
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	255

Table 1: Decimal Equivalents for Net Masking

So, if you make the eighth, or high order bit 1 and the rest equal to 0, the decimal equivalent is 128 or if you made the first three bits 1 and the rest 0, the decimal equivalent is 224, etc.

This table works fine but is a bit unwieldy so I shorten it as follows:

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	Binary Bits
128	192	224	240	248	252	254	255	Decimal Equivalents

Table 2: Shortened Net Mask Table

This says that if your byte is 11100000, then the decimal equivalent value, from Table 2, is 224. If this bothers you, just use the longer table (Table 1).

IP Addresses

We have now set the groundwork for IP addressing. I will treat the standard IPv4 addresses. The IP addresses are sometime called “dotted quad” numbers. There are five classes of IP addresses, viz., A, B, C, D and E. Classes D and E are reserved so you work with classes A, B and C. However, we will show all five here. The class is determined from the first byte. So an IP address of 205.140.187.31 is a class C address since the first byte is 205. How do I know that? Well, let’s construct another table:

High Ordered Byte

Class	Binary Starting Point	Decimal Starting Point	Decimal Ending
A	0	0	126 127 (loop-back)
B	10	128	191
C	110	192	223
D	1110	224	239
E	11110	240	247

Table 3: Classes of IP Addresses

How did I get table 3? I didn’t have to remember the whole thing, only a couple of pieces of information. Then I constructed the rest. Let’s show how I did it. I knew that there are five classes of IP addresses and that the first byte of the IP address tells you what class it is in. I also knew the schema for the binary starting value of the first byte, i.e., 0, 10, 110, etc. Because of the way it follows a schema, the second column is easy to construct. Now, using Table 2, it was easy to construct the third column.

Next, note that the fourth column (ending point) follows naturally by simply subtracting one from the beginning of the next class. Let’s illustrate. A class C begins at 192 while a class D begins at 224. Hence a class C must end at 223. Now you have no excuses about forgetting the beginning and ending points of each class; merely remember the binary schema and take a minute to construct the table. On a side note, you don’t have to worry about Classes D and E except the beginning of Class D tells you where Class C ends (subtract 1).

Bitwise AND

We need to discuss net-masking but, before doing it, let’s digress a moment and be sure everyone is up with us. A Boolean AND is just like it is in English. You tell Johnny that you will buy him an ice cream cone if he puts out the trash AND makes his bed. If he does neither or only one of them, he doesn’t get an ice cream cone (I hope). But, if he does both, he gets the cone.

Bitwise AND’s work bit by bit. So, if you AND a 1 with a 1, you get a 1.

If you AND two 0's, a 1 and a 0, a 0 and a 1, however, you get a 0.

Table 4 illustrates the operation.

First Bit	Second Bit	Third Bit
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Table 4: Bit-Wise Logical AND Truth Table

Now let's take a whole byte and do a Logical AND with another byte. Suppose the first byte is 10110010 and the second byte is 01100111. Working from the right, note that the first byte has a decimal value of,

$$1*128 + 0*64 + 1*32 + 1*16 + 0*8 + 0*4 + 1*2 + 0*1 = 178,$$

while the second byte has a decimal value of,

$$0*128 + 1*64 + 1*32 + 0*16 + 0*8 + 1*4 + 1*2 + 1*1 = 103.$$

Okay, we're ready to do the AND'ing.

1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	178 decimal, AND'ed with
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	103 decimal gives
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	34 decimal

Table 5: Bit-Wise AND'ing

Let's do one more. Let's AND the 178 with 255.

1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	178 decimal, AND'ed with
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	255 decimal gives
1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	178 decimal

Table 6: Bit-Wise AND'ing with 255 decimal

Not very interesting you say? But we need this fact for other work. We know, then, that when you bit-wise AND any byte(number) with 255 you get the number dropping through, i.e., the result is merely the number again. Now we are ready to start the net-masking, so here goes.

Net-Masking

The default net-masks for the various classes are shown in Table 6 with some sample host IP addresses. Simply put, a host is anything that has an IP address. This includes servers, workstations, routers, etc.

Class	Default Net-Mask	Meaning of IP (Host) Address	Host Address	Sample Network Address
A	255.0.0.0	N.H.H.H	10.0.1.23	10.0.0.0
B	255.255.0.0	N.N.H.H.	146.87.12.250	146.87.0.0
C	255.255.255.0	N.N.N.H.	200.150.189.31	200.150.189.0

Table 7: Default Net-Masks, etc.

So, what does this mean and what do we do with it? Let's work through the table. If we take the sample Class A address, 10.0.1.23 and bitwise AND it with its default net-mask we obtain 10.0.0.0. Remember that AND'ing a number (byte) with 255 merely gives the number again so the 255 AND'ed with 10 gives 10. Also 0 AND'ed with anything, gives 0. So AND'ing 10.0.1.23 with 255.0.0.0 gives 10.0.0.0. What is 10.0.0.0? Why it's the network address. Look at the last column. Notice that the first byte gives the network address when AND'ing a Class A network with its default net-mask. While the first two bytes give the network address when AND'ing a Class B IP address with the default Class B net-mask.

Hence we say that the first byte of a Class A IP address gives the network address and the three remaining bytes give the host addresses, i.e., a Class A address has the form N.H.H.H, where N stands for Network and H stands for Host. Likewise, the first two bytes of a Class B IP address pertain to the network and the last two bytes pertain to the host address, viz., N.N.H.H. Finally, the first three bytes of a Class C IP address pertain to the network while the last byte pertains to the host, viz., N.N.N.H.

That was a bit tedious so let's re-cap. We have now covered Classes of networks, default net-masking, IP addresses of networks and what those odd dotted-quad numbers mean. That done, it's now time to move on to sub-netting.

Sub-Netting

Let's illustrate with a Class B IP address such as 142.168.25.100.

From Table 6 we know that the default net-mask for a Class B network is 255.255.0.0. Hence AND'ing the default mask with the IP address yields the address of the network that particular host is on, i.e., 142.168.0.0. So a host with an IP address of 142.168.25.100 finds itself on a network with an IP address of 142.168.0.0 if a default Class B net-mask is used. Easy enough.

Now, if you are granted a full Class B suite of addresses with a network address of 142.168.0.0, what do you do with them? Remember a Class B network has the form of N.N.H.H, i.e., the last two bytes can be used for assigning host IP addresses. This yields a network with $2^{16} - 2$ host addresses. The -2 comes from the fact that 142.168.0.0 is the

network address so it can't be assigned to a host and the last address on the network, 142.168.255.255 is used for broadcasts so it, likewise, can't be assigned to a host.

This would be a very big network (65534 host addresses), far too big to be practical. A very simple approach is to "borrow" one byte's worth of host addresses and assign them as network addresses. That would yield $2^8 = 256$ networks with 254 hosts on each. Even here these are large networks. This process, borrowing host addresses and using them for networks, is called sub-netting. We accomplish this by using a sub-net mask (SNM). In this case we would use a sub-net mask of 255.255.255.0 (the default Class C net-mask). Hence we have taken one Class B network and turned it into 256 Class C networks.

Remember that AND'ing 255 with a number just gives the number again. So if we AND 142.168.25.100 with 255.255.255.0 we get a network address of 142.168.25.0 with the first available host address of 142.168.25.1 and the last of 142.168.25.254 (remember that the last address, i.e., 142.168.25.255 is reserved for broadcasts). Another way of doing this is to start with the network address, 142.168.25.0 in this case, turn all host bits into 1's and you have the broadcast address. Here the last byte is used for host addresses so turning them to ones gives 142.168.25.255. This type of broadcast is called a *directed broadcast*, meaning that it jumps routers while a local broadcast (doesn't jump routers) has the form 255.255.255.255 no matter what class of network is involved.

Whew! That was a lot. If you're not too stunned at this point, you may wonder if you can only sub-net on byte boundaries or you may ask, "can I sub-net a Class C network?" The answers are "no" and "yes", respectively, i.e., you can work in the middle of a byte. This, then, brings us to the next topic.

Sub-netting on Non-Byte Boundaries

Let's say you are granted a full Class C suite of addresses, e.g., 210.168.94.0 as your network address. You are allowed to assign the host addresses (the last byte) as you please. If you use the default Class C net-mask of 255.255.255.0, c.f. Table 6, then you can assign host addresses of 210.168.94.1 through 210.168.94.254 on a single network. That's feasible of course but you may want break this up into multiple networks of, say 25 hosts each.

Let's do some mathematics. If we have 4 bits for hosts, will it be enough? $2^4 - 2 = 14$; not enough. Okay, let's use 5 bits for hosts: $2^5 - 2 = 30$. Ah, 5 bits for hosts will work. But we have 8 bits in the last byte for hosts. So let's borrow three bits for sub-networks and we still have the requisite 5 bits for hosts. Great, but how many sub-nets do we have? How about $2^3 = 8$.

We have, then, 8 sub-networks with 30 host addresses on each. If you are doing the math you are probably saying, "but 8×30 is only 240 addresses, what happened to the others?" Valid question! Oops, don't get sore but it's time to construct another table. Note that each address will have the form of 210.168.94.<last byte>. And the SNM (Sub-Net Mask) will have the form 255.255.255.<last byte>. Hence let's just work with the last byte.

From Table 2 (or Table 1) we see that the SNM will be 255.255.255.224. The 224 comes from the last byte being 11100000. So what are the sub-nets? Table 8 shows them (last byte only).

Binary Number	Decimal Equivalent
00000000	0
00100000	32
01000000	64
01100000	96
10000000	128
10100000	160
11000000	192
11100000	224

**Table 8: Sub-Networks For The Above Class C Network
(Shows the Last Byte)**

So let's detail several of these. Let's take the smallest. The full sub-network address of the smallest is 210.168.94.0. The next one up is 210.168.94.32, and so on. Remember that with 3 bits to work with, we get $2^3=8$ sub-nets and looking at table 8 you see them.

Back to the question of why we only get 240 host addresses. Gasp, you say, "not another table!" Sorry, but yes. Looking at the last byte, we get:

Last Byte Address	What Happens To Them	Why
0	invalid	first sub-net address
1-30	valid	hosts on first sub-net
31	invalid	broadcast address of first sub-net
32	invalid	second sub-net address
33-62	valid	hosts on second sub-net
63	invalid	broadcast address of second sub-net
64	invalid	third sub-net address
65-94	valid	hosts on third sub-net
95	invalid	broadcast address of third sub-net
96	invalid	fourth sub-net address
97-126	valid	hosts on fourth sub-net
127	invalid	broadcast address of fourth sub-net
128	invalid	fifth sub-net address
129-158	valid	hosts on fifth sub-net
159	invalid	broadcast address of fifth sub-net
160	invalid	sixth sub-net address
161-190	valid	hosts on sixth sub-net
191	invalid	broadcast address of sixth sub-net
192	invalid	seventh sub-net address
193-222	valid	hosts on seventh sub-net
223	invalid	broadcast address of seventh sub-net
224	invalid	eighth sub-net address
225-254	valid	hosts on eighth sub-net
255	invalid	broadcast address of eighth sub-net

Table 9: Analysis of All 256 Values in The Last Byte

Now let's answer the question of what happened to the other addresses. To do this we need to tally all the "invalid addresses," i.e., those that can't be used for host addresses. Let's do it.

First we have 8 sub-nets, each with a sub-network address and a broadcast address. So we lose $8 \times 2 = 16$ address. Now if we subtract these from 256, viz., $256 - 16$ we get 240 available host addresses.

Doing it the other way is even easier. We have 8 sub-networks, each with 30 valid IP addresses. This give us $8 \times 30 = 240$ valid IP addresses total, the magic number.

For fun, let's do one more thing. Let's analyze the sixth sub-network in a little more detail. The last byte is 10100000 binary or 160 decimal. The full sub-net address is 210.168.94.160 decimal. And we use a SNM of 255.255.255.224. Remember I said to take the sub-net

address, set all the host bits to 1's and add them to get the broadcast address. If we do this correctly, it should give the same result as Table 9.

Here goes. We use 5 bits for host addresses so the decimal value of the sixth bit is 32. Subtracting 1 gives 31. So setting the 5 host bits to 1's, i.e., 00011111 gives a value of 31 decimal. Adding this to the last byte of the sub-net address (160) gives 191 for the broadcast address. And that agrees with Table 9.

Table 10, below (sorry, another table) shows the "whole Magilla":

210.168.94.160	The Sub-Network address
210.168.94.161-190	Valid host addresses
210.168.94.191	Directed Broadcast address

Table 10: Analysis of The Sixth Sub-Network

One final point. Some authors use the term "sub-net mask" even when referring to the default net-masks. They are just a tad loose with their terms. That ends my presentation. Happy IP addressing. And remember, Linux is inevitable.

Prof Gene Hector, M.S., P.E. | Systems Integration
geneh@netsnwebs.com | Caldera Business Partner

This article also appeared in [Linux Journal](#), January 2000.