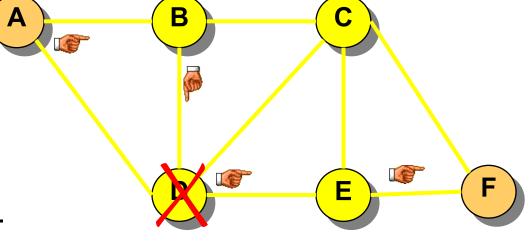
## Dynamic Routing Protocols II OSPF

Relates to Lab 4. This module covers link state routing and the Open Shortest Path First (OSPF) routing protocol.

## Distance Vector vs. Link State Routing

- With distance vector routing, each node has information only about the next hop:
  - Node A: to reach F go to B
  - Node B: to reach F go to D
  - Node D: to reach F go to E
  - Node E: go directly to F
- Distance vector routing makes poor routing decisions if directions are not completely correct (e.g., because a node is down).

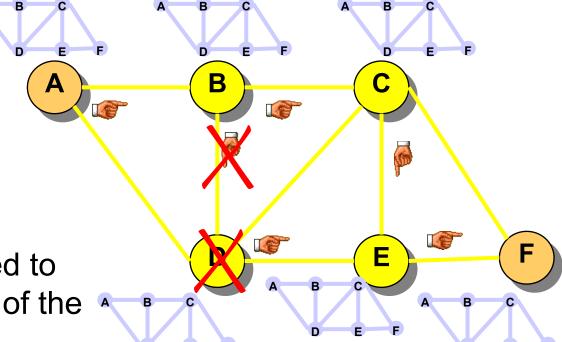


 If parts of the directions incorrect, the routing may be incorrect until the routing algorithms has re-converged.

## Distance Vector vs. Link State Routing

In link state routing, each node has a complete map of the topology

 If a node fails, each node can calculate the new route



 Difficulty: All nodes need to have a consistent view of the network

## **Link State Routing: Properties**

- Each node requires complete topology information
- Link state information must be flooded to all nodes
- Guaranteed to converge

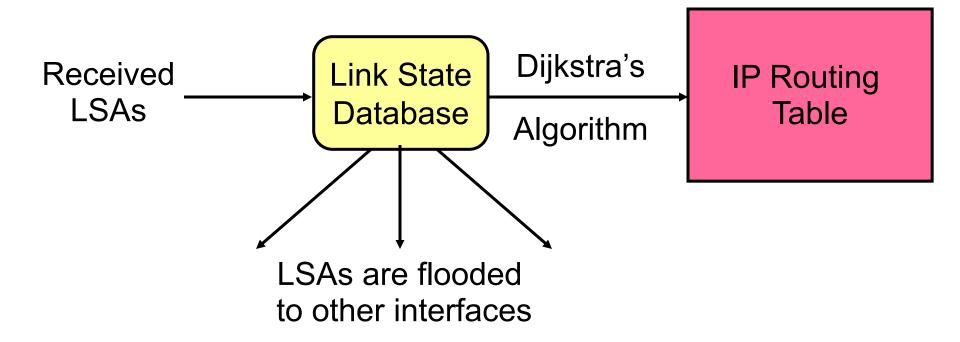
## Link State Routing: Basic princples

- 1. Each router establishes a relationship *("adjacency")* with its neighbors
- 2. Each router generates *link state advertisements (LSAs)* which are distributed to all routers

LSA = (link id, state of the link, cost, neighbors of the link)

- 3. Each router maintains a database of all received LSAs (topological database or link state database), which describes the network has a graph with weighted edges.
- 4. Each router uses its link state database to run a shortest path algorithm (Dijikstra's algorithm) to produce the shortest path to each network.

## Operation of a Link State Routing protocol



## Dijkstra's Shortest Path Algorithm for a Graph

**Input:** Graph (N,E) with

enddo

```
n the set of nodes and E ? n the set of edges
                link cost (d_{vv} = infinity if (v, w) \notin E, d_{vv} = 0)
        \mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{w}}
                source node.
        S
Output: D cost of the least-cost path from node s to node n
        M = \{s\};
        for each n ∉ M
                D_n = d_{sn};
        while (M \neq all nodes) do
                Find w \notin M for which D_w = \min\{D_i ; j \notin M\};
                Add w to M;
                 for each n ∉ M
                         D_n = \min_{w} [D_n, D_w + d_{wn}];
                         Update route;
```

## **OSPF**

- OSPF = Open Shortest Path First
- The OSPF routing protocol is the most important link state routing protocol on the Internet
- The complexity of OSPF is significant

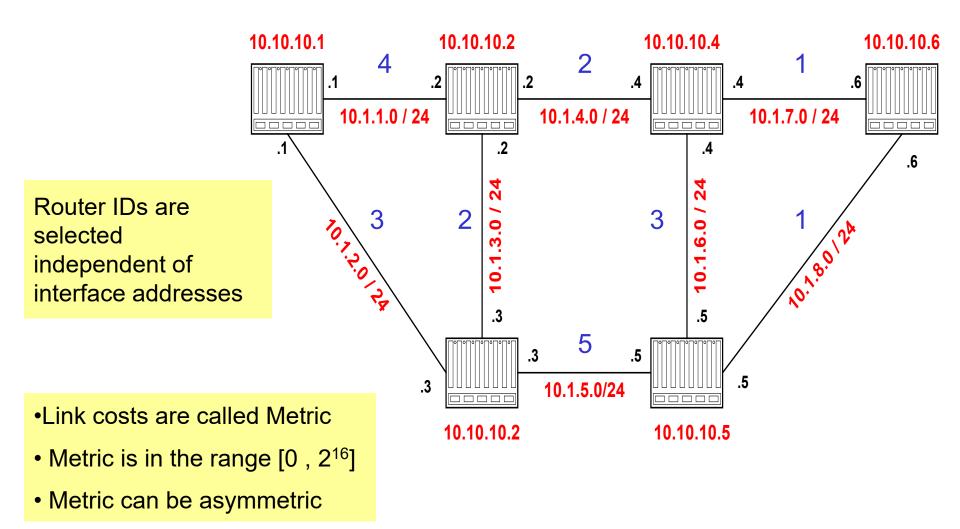
#### History:

- 1989: RFC 1131 OSPF Version 1
- 1991: RFC1247 OSPF Version 2
- 1994: RFC 1583 OSPF Version 2 (revised)
- 1997: RFC 2178 OSPF Version 2 (revised)
- 1998: RFC 2328 OSPF Version 2 (current version)

## **Features of OSPF**

- Provides authentication of routing messages
- Enables load balancing by allowing traffic to be split evenly across routes with equal cost
- Type-of-Service routing allows to setup different routes dependent on the TOS field
- Supports subnetting
- Supports multicasting
- Allows hierarchical routing

## **Example Network**



## Link State Advertisement (LSA)

 The LSA of router 10.10.10.1 is as follows:

• Link State ID: 10.10.10.1 = Router ID

• Advertising Router: 10.10.10.1 = Router ID

• Number of links: 3 = 2 links plus router itself

Description of Link 1: Link ID = 10.1.1.1, Metric = 4

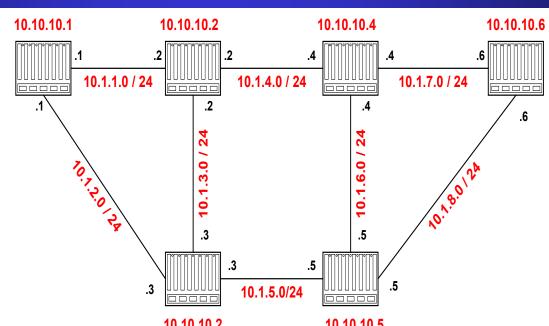
Description of Link 2: Link ID = 10.1.2.1, Metric = 3

• **Description of Link 3:** Link ID = 10.10.10.1, Metric = 0

Each router sends its LSA to all routers in the network (using a method called reliable flooding)

## **Network and Link State Database**

Each router has a database which contains the LSAs from all other routers

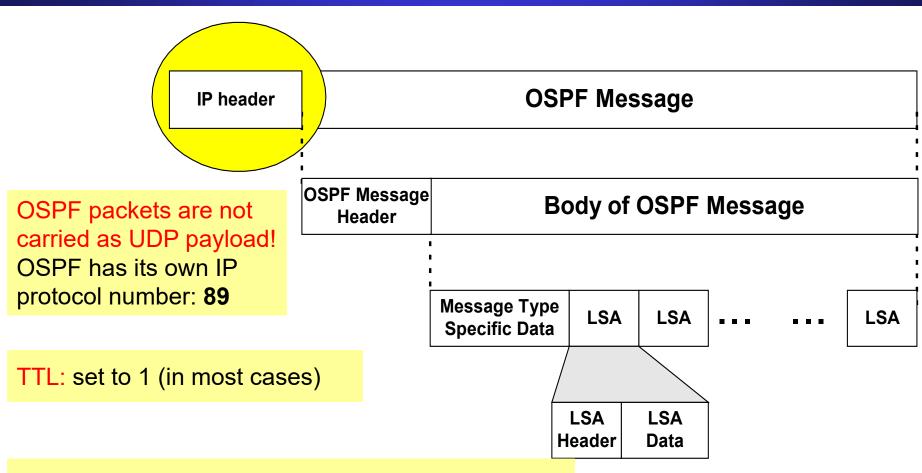


10.10.10.2 10.10.10.3					
LS Type	Link StateID	Adv. Router	Checksum	LS SeqNo	LS Age
Router-LSA	10.1.10.1	10.1.10.1	0x9b47	0x80000006	0
Router-LSA	10.1.10.2	10.1.10.2	0x219e	0x80000007	1618
Router-LSA	10.1.10.3	10.1.10.3	0x6b53	0x80000003	1712
Router-LSA	10.1.10.4	10.1.10.4	0xe39a	0x8000003a	20
Router-LSA	10.1.10.5	10.1.10.5	0xd2a6	0x80000038	18
Router-LSA	10.1.10.6	10.1.10.6	0x05c3	0x80000005	1680

## **Link State Database**

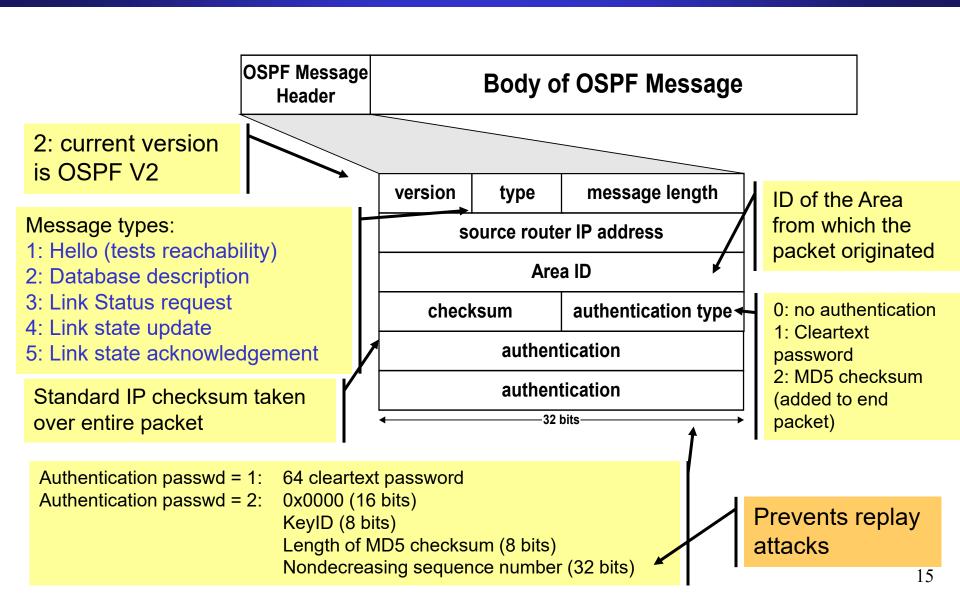
- The collection of all LSAs is called the link-state database
- Each router has an identical link-state database
  - Useful for debugging: Each router has a complete description of the network
- If neighboring routers discover each other for the first time, they will exchange their link-state databases
- The link-state databases are synchronized using reliable flooding

## **OSPF Packet Format**

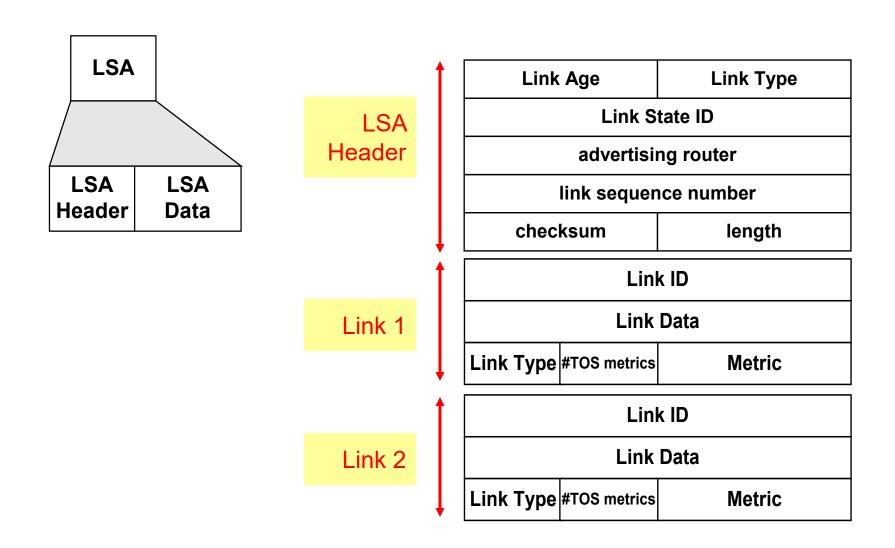


Destination IP: neighbor's IP address or 224.0.0.5 (ALLSPFRouters) or 224.0.0.6 (AllDRouters)

## **OSPF Packet Format**

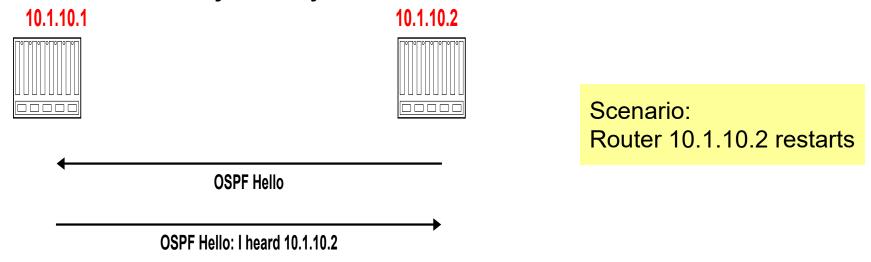


## **OSPF LSA Format**



## **Discovery of Neighbors**

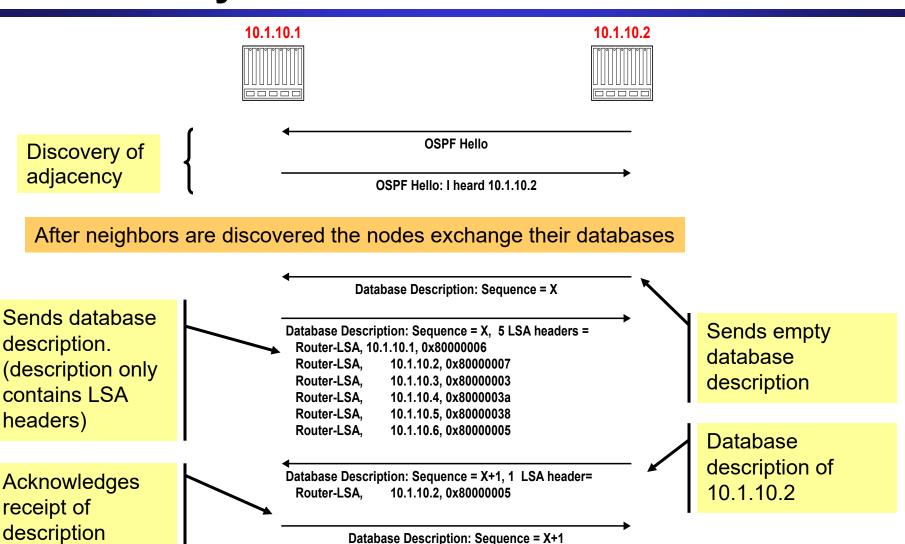
- Routers multicasts OSPF Hello packets on all OSPF-enabled interfaces.
- If two routers share a link, they can become neighbors, and establish an adjacency



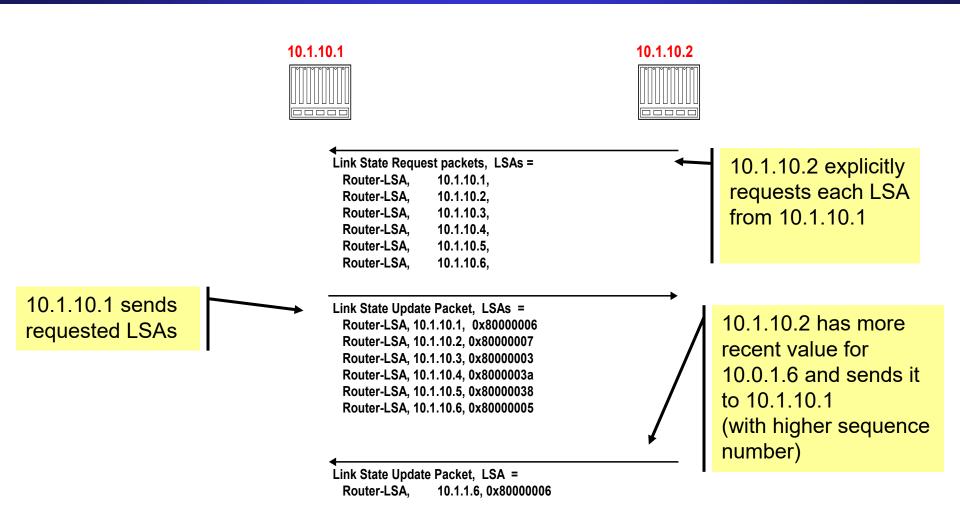
 After becoming a neighbor, routers exchange their link state databases

# Neighbor discovery and database synchronization

Scenario: Router 10.1.10.2 restarts

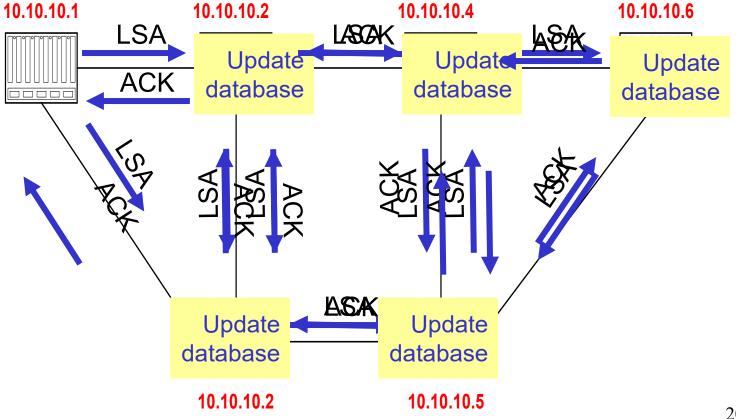


## Regular LSA exchanges



## **Routing Data Distribution**

- LSA-Updates are distributed to all other routers via Reliable **Flooding**
- **Example:** Flooding of LSA from 10.10.10.1



## **Dissemination of LSA-Update**

- A router sends and refloods LSA-Updates, whenever the topology or link cost changes. (If a received LSA does not contain new information, the router will not flood the packet)
- Exception: Infrequently (every 30 minutes), a router will flood LSAs even if there are not new changes.
- Acknowledgements of LSA-updates:
  - · explicit ACK, or
  - implicit via reception of an LSA-Update

- The rapid growth and expansion of modern networks has pushed Routing Information Protocol (RIP) to its limits.
- RIP has certain limitations that can cause problems in large networks
- RIP has a limit of 15 hops. A network that spans more than 15 hops (15 routers) is considered unreachable.
- RIP cannot handle Variable Length Subnet Masks (VLSM).
   Given the shortage of IP addresses and the flexibility VLSM gives in the efficient assignment of IP addresses, this is considered a major flaw.

- Periodic broadcasts of the full routing table consume a large amount of bandwidth. This is a major problem with large networks especially on slow links and WAN clouds.
- RIP converge is slower than OSPF. In large networks convergence gets to be in the order of minutes.
- RIP routers go through a period of a hold-down and garbage collection and slowly time-out information that has not been received recently. This is inappropriate in large environments and could cause routing inconsistencies.

- RIP has no concept of network delays and link costs.
   Routing decisions are based on hop counts.
- RIP networks are flat networks. There is no concept of areas or boundaries. With the introduction of classless routing and the intelligent use of aggregation and summarization, RIP networks have fallen behind.
- Enhancements were introduced in a new version of RIP called RIP2. RIP2 addresses the issues of VLSM, authentication, and multicast routing updates.

 RIP2 is not a big improvement over RIP (now called RIP1) because it still has the limitations of hop counts and slow convergence which are essential in large networks.

- OSPF, on the other hand, addresses most of the issues previously presented:
- With OSPF, there is no limitation on the hop count.
- The intelligent use of VLSM is very useful in IP address allocation.
- OSPF uses IP multicast to send link-state updates.
- OSPF has better convergence than RIP.

- OSPF allows for better load balancing.
- OSPF allows for a logical definition of networks where routers can be divided into areas. This limits the explosion of link state updates over the whole network. This also provides a mechanism to aggregate routes and decrease the unnecessary propagation of subnet information.
- OSPF allows for routing authentication through different methods of password authentication.

 OSPF allows for the transfer and tagging of external routes injected into an Autonomous System. This keeps track of external routes injected by exterior protocols such as BGP.

## **BGP**

- BGP = Border Gateway Protocol
- Currently in version 4
- Note: In the context of BGP, a gateway is nothing else but an IP router that connects autonomous systems.
- Interdomain routing protocol for routing between autonomous systems
- Uses TCP to send routing messages
- BGP is neither a link state, nor a distance vector protocol.
   Routing messages in BGP contain complete routes.
- Network administrators can specify routing policies

## **BGP**

- BGP's goal is to find any path (not an optimal one). Since the internals of the AS are never revealed, finding an optimal path is not feasible.
- For each autonomous system (AS), BGP distinguishes:
  - local traffic = traffic with source or destination in AS
  - transit traffic = traffic that passes through the AS
  - Stub AS = has connection to only one AS, only carry local traffic
  - Multihomed AS = has connection to >1 AS, but does not carry transit traffic
  - Transit AS = has connection to >1 AS and carries transit traffic

## **BGP**

