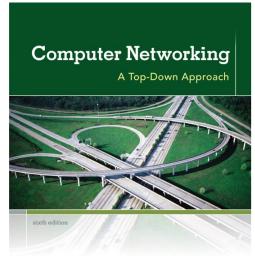
Chapter 4 Network Layer



KUROSE ROSS

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Networking: A Top
Down Approach
6th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Addison-Wesley
March 2012

Chapter 4: network layer

chapter goals:

- understand principles behind network layer services:
 - network layer service models
 - forwarding versus routing
 - how a router works
 - routing (path selection)
 - broadcast, multicast
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet

Chapter 4: outline

4.1 introduction

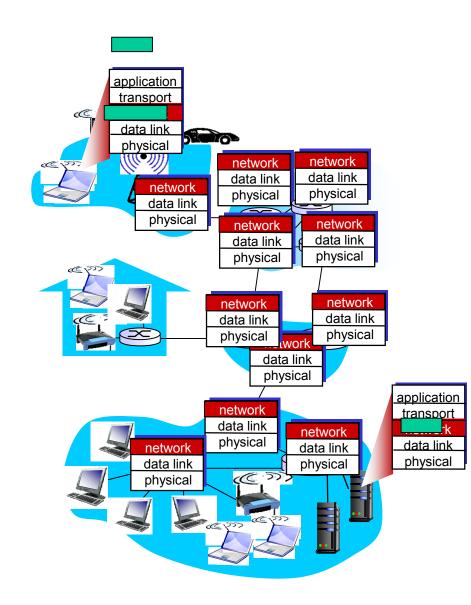
- 4.2 virtual circuit and datagram networks
- 4.3 what's inside a router
- 4.4 IP: Internet Protocol
 - datagram format
 - IPv4 addressing
 - ICMP
 - IPv6

4.5 routing algorithms

- link state
- distance vector
- hierarchical routing
- 4.6 routing in the Internet
 - RIP
 - OSPF
 - BGP
- 4.7 broadcast and multicast routing

Network layer

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
- on sending side encapsulates segments into datagrams
- on receiving side, delivers segments to transport layer
- network layer protocols in every host, router
- router examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it



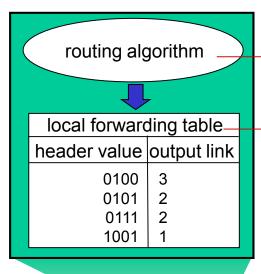
Two key network-layer functions

- forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- routing: determine route taken by packets from source to dest.
 - routing algorithms

analogy:

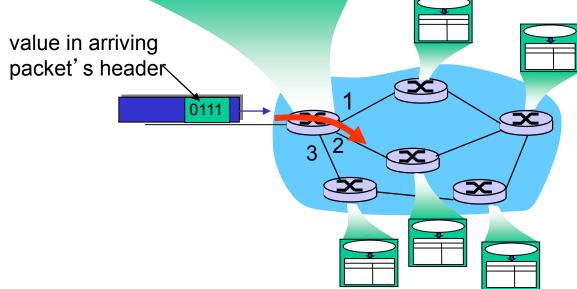
- routing: process of planning trip from source to dest
- forwarding: process of getting through single interchange

Interplay between routing and forwarding



routing algorithm determines end-end-path through network

forwarding table determines local forwarding at this router



Connection setup

- ❖ 3rd important function in some network architectures:
 - ATM, frame relay, X.25
- before datagrams flow, two end hosts and intervening routers establish virtual connection
 - routers get involved
- network vs transport layer connection service:
 - network: between two hosts (may also involve intervening routers in case of VCs)
 - transport: between two processes

Network service model

Q: What service model for "channel" transporting datagrams from sender to receiver?

example services for individual datagrams:

- guaranteed delivery
- guaranteed delivery with less than 40 msec delay

example services for a flow of datagrams:

- in-order datagram delivery
- guaranteed minimum bandwidth to flow
- restrictions on changes in inter-packet spacing

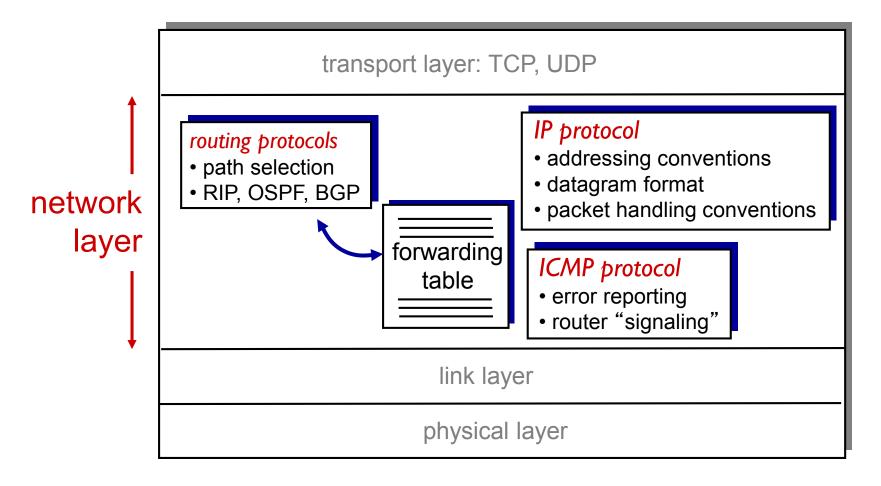
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The Internet network layer

host, router network layer functions:

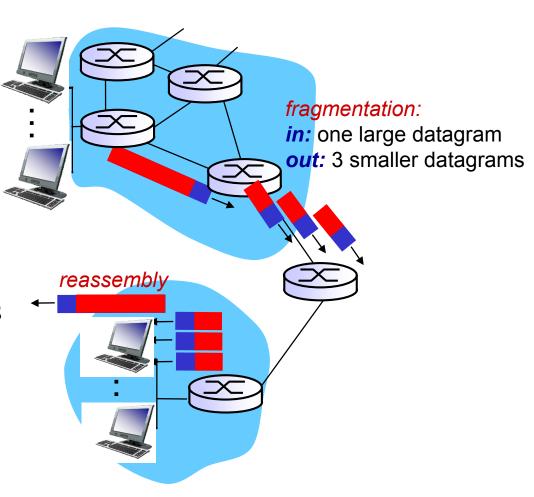


IP datagram format

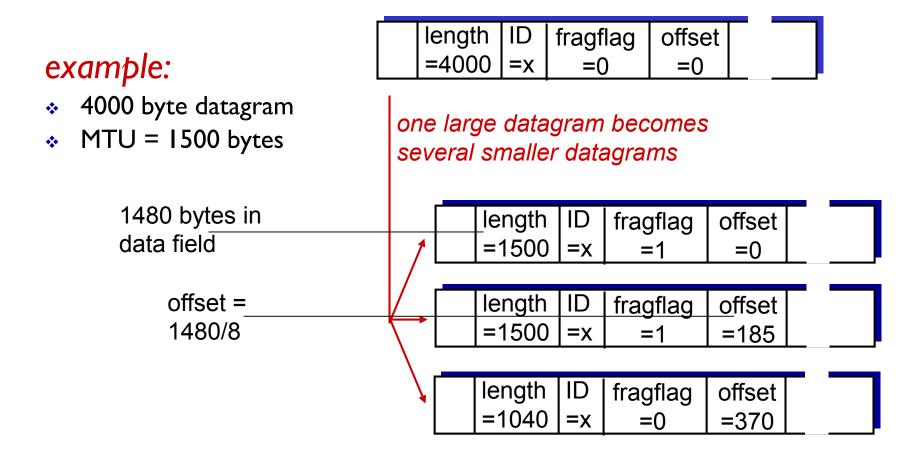
IP protocol version 32 bits total datagram number length (bytes) header length head. type of length (bytes) service ten for "type" of data fragment 16-bit identifier | flgs fragmentation/ offset reassembly max number time to upper header remaining hops layer live checksum (decremented at 32 bit source IP address each router) 32 bit destination IP address upper layer protocol to deliver payload to e.g. timestamp, options (if any) record route data taken, specify how much overhead? (variable length, list of routers 20 bytes of TCP typically a TCP to visit. 20 bytes of IP or UDP segment) = 40 bytes + app layer overhead

IP fragmentation, reassembly

- network links have MTU (max.transfer size) largest possible link-level frame
 - different link types, different MTUs
- large IP datagram divided ("fragmented") within net
 - one datagram becomes several datagrams
 - "reassembled" only at final destination
 - IP header bits used to identify, order related fragments



IP fragmentation, reassembly



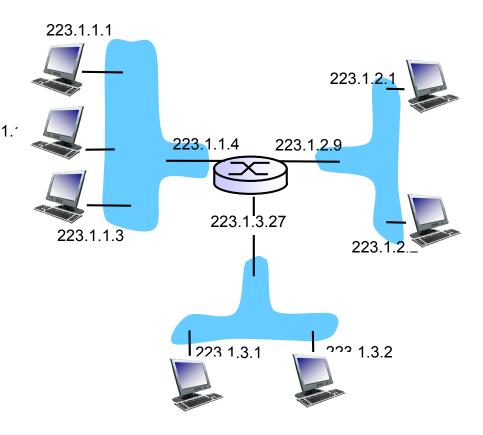
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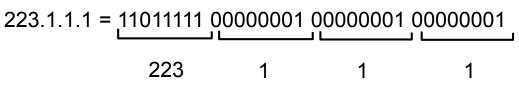
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IP addressing: introduction

- Paddress: 32-bit identifier for host, router interface
 223.1.
- interface: connection between host/router and physical link
 - router's typically have multiple interfaces
 - host typically has one or two interfaces (e.g., wired Ethernet, wireless 802.11)
- IP addresses associated with each interface





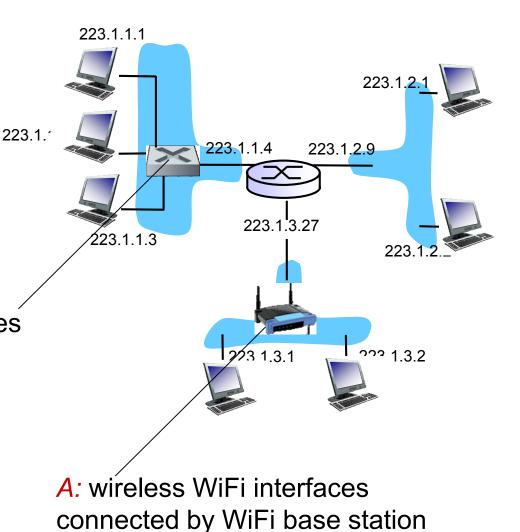
IP addressing: introduction

Q: how are interfaces actually connected?

A: we'll learn about that in chapter 5, 6.

A: wired Ethernet interfaces connected by Ethernet switches

For now: don't need to worry about how one interface is connected to another (with no intervening router)



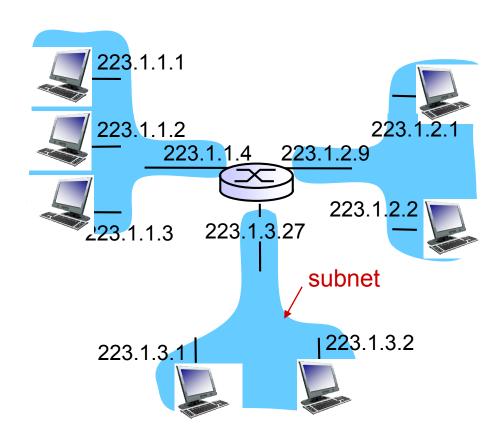
Subnets

*IP address:

- subnet part high order bits
- host part low order bits

*what 's a subnet ?

- Is a subnetwork
- device interfaces with same subnet part of IP address
- can physically reach each other without intervening router

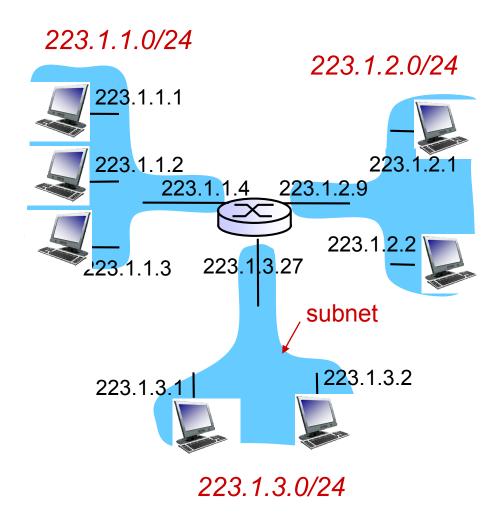


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

recipe

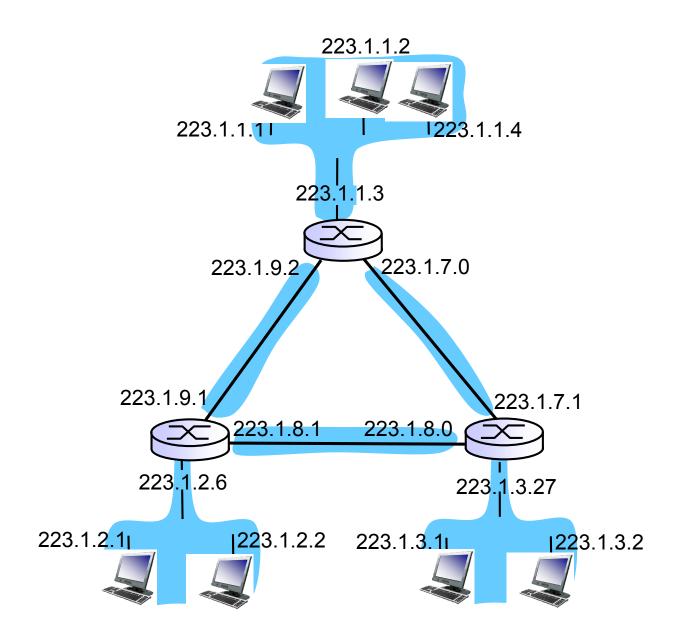
- to determine the subnets, detach each interface from its host or router, creating islands of isolated networks
- each isolated network is called a subnet



subnet mask: /24

Subnets

how many?



IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address



200.23.16.0/23

IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: How does a host get IP address?

- hard-coded by system admin in a file
 - Windows: control-panel->network->configuration->tcp/ip->properties
 - UNIX: /etc/rc.config
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address from as server
 - "plug-and-play"

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

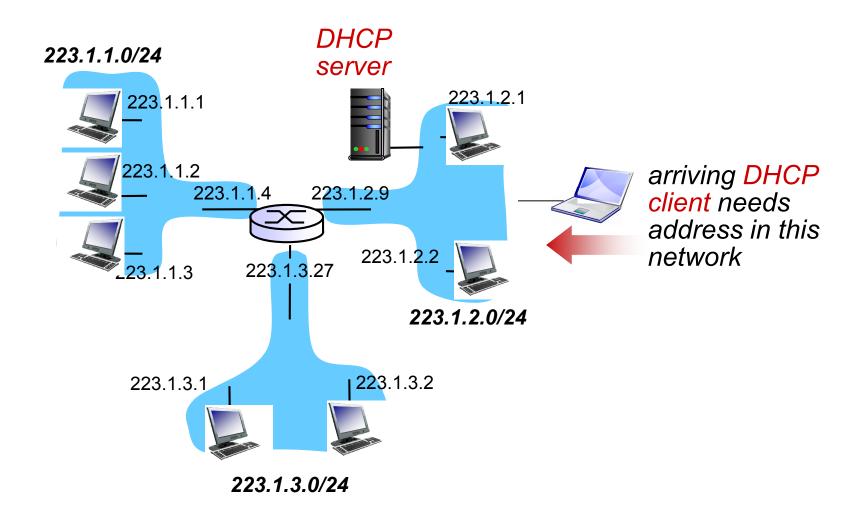
goal: allow host to dynamically obtain its IP address from network server when it joins network

- can renew its lease on address in use
- allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected/"on")
- support for mobile users who want to join network (more shortly)

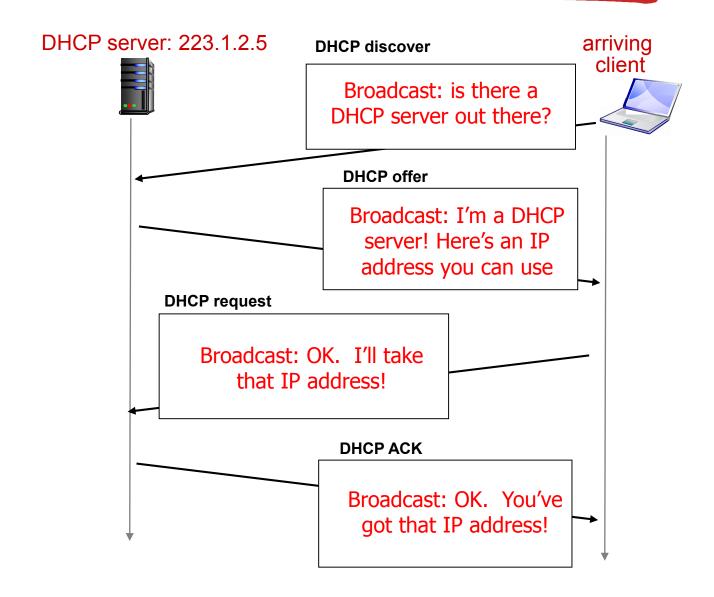
DHCP overview:

- host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg [optional]
- DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg [optional]
- host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
- DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msg

DHCP client-server scenario



DHCP client-server scenario

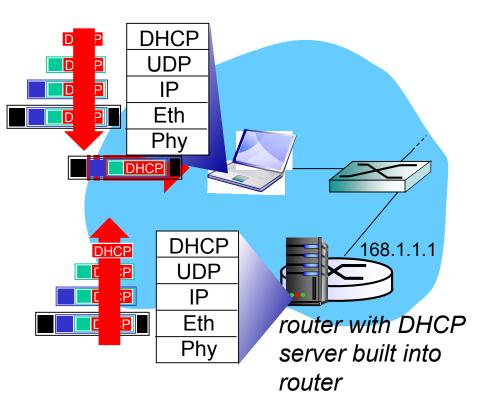


DHCP: more than IP addresses

DHCP can return more than just allocated IP address on subnet:

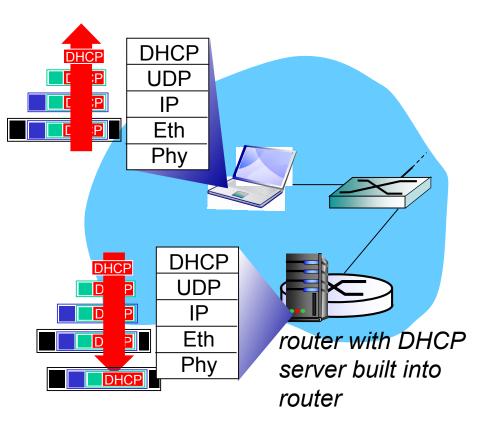
- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

DHCP: example



- connecting laptop needs its IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use DHCP
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802. I Ethernet
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

DHCP: example



- DCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulation of DHCP server, frame forwarded to client, demuxing up to DHCP at client
- client now knows its IP address, name and IP address of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

IP addresses: how to get one?

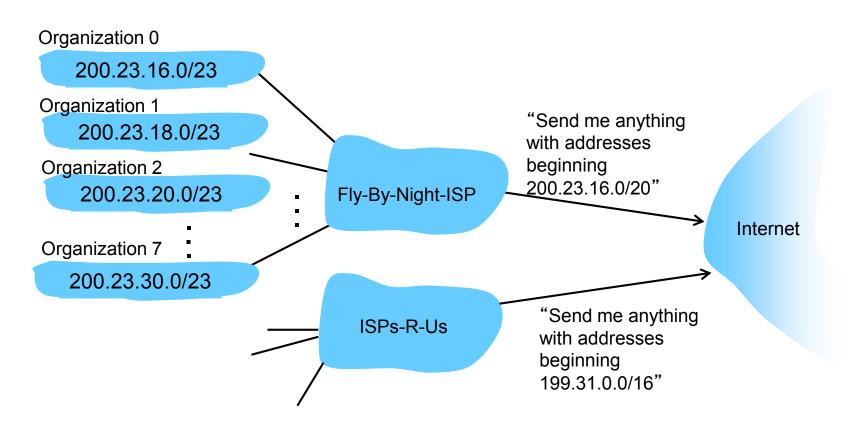
Q: how does network get subnet part of IP addr?

A: gets allocated portion of its provider ISP's address space

ISP's block	11001000	00010111	<u>0001</u> 0000	00000000	200.23.16.0/20
Organization 0	11001000	00010111	0001000	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	11001000	00010111	00010010	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	11001000	00010111	0001010	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
Organization 7	<u>11001000</u>	00010111	00011110	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

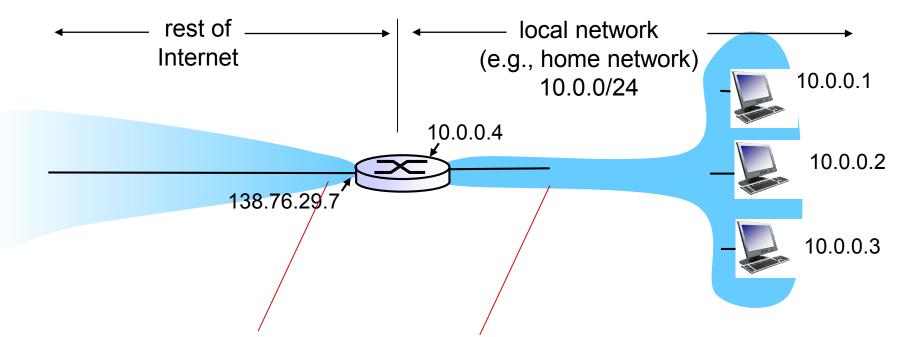
Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



IP addressing: the last word...

- Q: how does an ISP get block of addresses?
- A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers http://www.icann.org/
 - allocates addresses
 - manages DNS
 - assigns domain names, resolves disputes



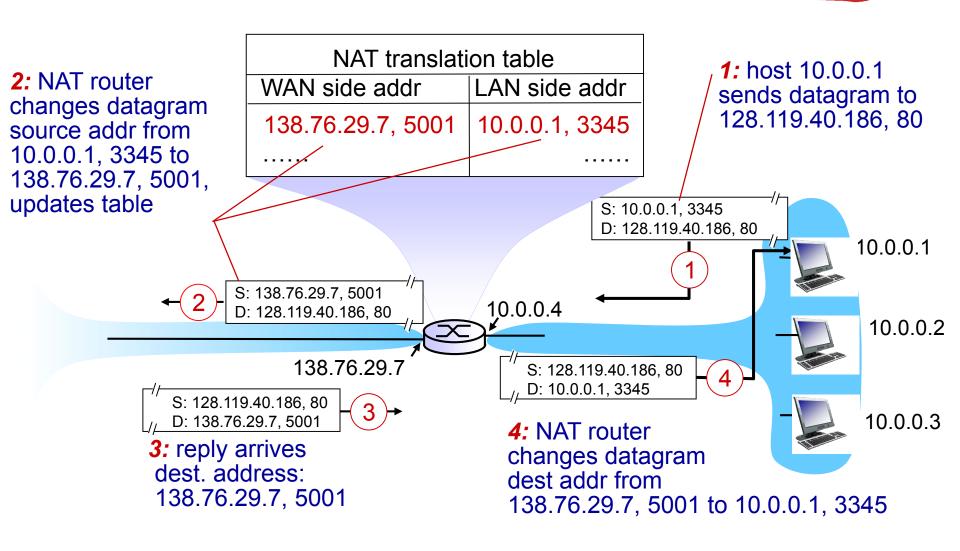
all datagrams leaving local network have same single source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, different source port numbers datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

motivation: local network uses just one IP address as far as outside world is concerned:

- range of addresses not needed from ISP: just one IP address for all devices
- can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
- can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
- devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus)

implementation: NAT router must:

- outgoing datagrams: replace (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)
 - ... remote clients/servers will respond using (NAT IP address, new port #) as destination addr
- remember (in NAT translation table) every (source IP address, port #) to (NAT IP address, new port #) translation pair
- incoming datagrams: replace (NAT IP address, new port #) in dest fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table



- 16-bit port-number field:
 - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
 - routers should only process up to layer 3
 - violates end-to-end argument
 - NAT possibility must be taken into account by app designers, e.g., P2P applications
 - address shortage should instead be solved by IPv6

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ICMP: internet control message protocol

*	used by hosts & routers	Typo	Codo	docarintion
	to communicate network-			description
	level information	0	0	echo reply (ping)
			0	dest. network unreachable
	error reporting:	3	1	dest host unreachable
	unreachable host, network,	3	2	dest protocol unreachable
	port, protocol	3	3	dest port unreachable
	echo request/reply (used by	3	6	dest network unknown
	ping)	3	7	dest host unknown
*	network-layer "above" IP:	4	0	source quench (congestion
	ICMP msgs carried in IP			control - not used)
	datagrams	8	0	echo request (ping)
	•	9	0	route advertisement
*	ICMP message: type, code	10	0	router discovery
	plus first 8 bytes of IP		0	TTL expired
	datagram causing error	12	0	bad IP header

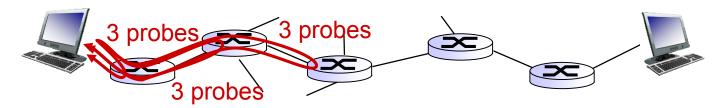
Traceroute and ICMP

- source sends series of UDP segments to dest
 - first set has TTL = I
 - second set has TTL=2, etc.
 - unlikely port number
- when nth set of datagrams arrives to nth router:
 - router discards datagrams
 - and sends source ICMP messages (type II, code 0)
 - ICMP messages includes name of router & IP address

 when ICMP messages arrives, source records RTTs

stopping criteria:

- UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- destination returns ICMP "port unreachable" message (type 3, code 3)
- source stops



IPv6: motivation

- initial motivation: 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- additional motivation:
 - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
 - header changes to facilitate QoS

IPv6 datagram format:

- fixed-length 40 byte header
- no fragmentation allowed

IPv6 datagram format

Priority/traffic class: identify priority among datagrams in flow flow Label: identify datagrams in same "flow." (concept of flow not well defined).

next header: identify upper layer protocol for data

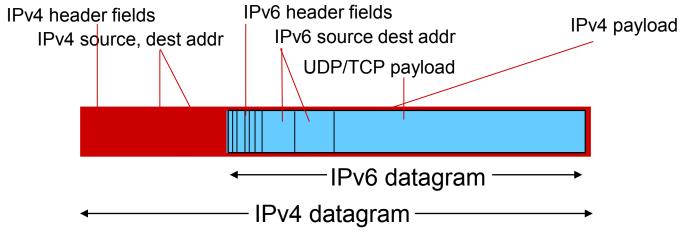
ver	pri	flow label		
payload len next hdr hop			hop limit	
source address (128 bits)				
destination address (128 bits)				
data				

Other changes from IPv4

- checksum: removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- options: allowed, but outside of header, indicated by "Next Header" field
- * ICMPv6: new version of ICMP
 - additional message types, e.g. "Packet Too Big"
 - multicast group management functions

Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
 - no "flag days"
 - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- tunneling: IPv6 datagram carried as payload in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers



Tunneling

IPv4 tunnel connecting IPv6 routers logical view: IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 Α Ε В physical view: IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 IPv4 IPv4 IPv6

Tunneling

IPv4 tunnel В connecting IPv6 routers logical view: IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 Α В Ε physical view: IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 IPv4 IPv4 src:B flow: X flow: X src:B src: A src: A dest: E dest: E dest: F dest: F Flow: X Flow: X Src: A Src: A Dest: F data Dest: F data data data A-to-B: E-to-F: B-to-C: B-to-C: IPv6 IPv6 IPv6 inside IPv6 inside IPv4 IPv4 Network Layer 4-47

IPv6: adoption

- US National Institutes of Standards estimate [2013]:
 - ~3% of industry IP routers
 - ~II% of US gov't routers
- Long (long!) time for deployment, use
 - 20 years and counting!
 - think of application-level changes in last 20 years: WWW, Facebook, ...
 - Why?

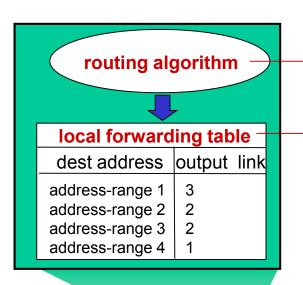
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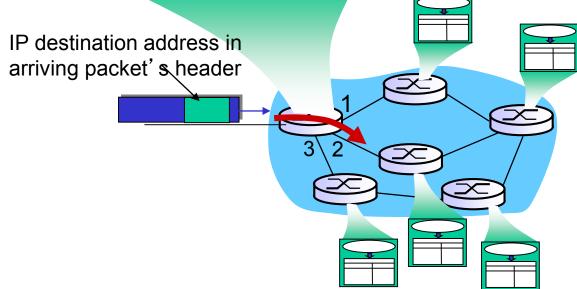
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Interplay between routing, forwarding

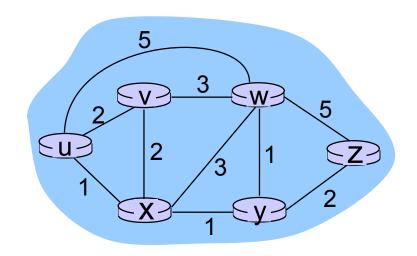


<u>routing</u> algorithm determines end-end-path through network

forwarding table determines local forwarding at this router



Graph abstraction



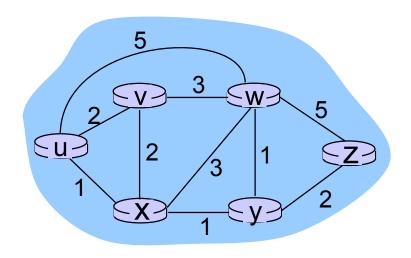
graph: G = (N,E)

 $N = set of routers = \{ u, v, w, x, y, z \}$

 $E = \text{set of links} = \{ (u,v), (u,x), (v,x), (v,w), (x,w), (x,y), (w,y), (w,z), (y,z) \}$

aside: graph abstraction is useful in other network contexts, e.g., P2P, where *N* is set of peers and *E* is set of TCP connections

Graph abstraction: costs



$$c(x,x') = cost of link (x,x')$$

e.g., $c(w,z) = 5$

cost could always be I, or inversely related to bandwidth, or inversely related to congestion

cost of path
$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_p) = c(x_1, x_2) + c(x_2, x_3) + ... + c(x_{p-1}, x_p)$$

key question: what is the least-cost path between u and z? routing algorithm: algorithm that finds that least cost path

Routing algorithm classification

Q: global or decentralized information?

global:

- all routers have complete topology, link cost info
- "link state" algorithms

decentralized:

- router knows physicallyconnected neighbors, link costs to neighbors
- iterative process of computation, exchange of info with neighbors
- "distance vector" algorithms

Q: static or dynamic?

static:

 routes change slowly over time

dynamic:

- routes change more quickly
 - periodic update
 - in response to link cost changes

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A Link-State Routing Algorithm

Dijkstra's algorithm

- net topology, link costs known to all nodes
 - accomplished via "link state broadcast"
 - all nodes have same info
- computes least cost paths from one node ('source") to all other nodes
 - gives forwarding table for that node
- iterative: after k iterations, know least cost path to k dest.'s

notation:

- * C(X,Y): link cost from node x to y; = ∞ if not direct neighbors
- D(V): current value of cost of path from source to dest. v
- p(v): predecessor node along path from source to
- N': set of nodes whose least cost path definitively known

Dijsktra's Algorithm

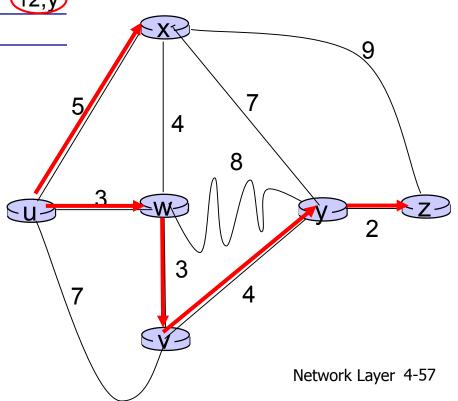
```
Initialization:
   N' = \{u\}
   for all nodes v
     if v adjacent to u
       then D(v) = c(u,v)
     else D(v) = \infty
6
   Loop
    find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
10 add w to N'
    update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N':
       D(v) = \min(D(v), D(w) + c(w,v))
13 /* new cost to v is either old cost to v or known
     shortest path cost to w plus cost from w to v */
15 until all nodes in N'
```

Dijkstra's algorithm: example

		$D(\mathbf{v})$	$D(\mathbf{w})$	$D(\mathbf{x})$	D(y)	D(z)
Step	o N'	p(v)	p(w)	p(x)	p(y)	p(z)
0	u	7,u	(3,u)	5,u	∞	∞
1	uw	6,w		5,u) 11,W	∞
2	uwx	6,w			11,W	14,X
3	uwxv				10,V	14,X
4	uwxvy					(12,y)
5	11\WX\/\/7					

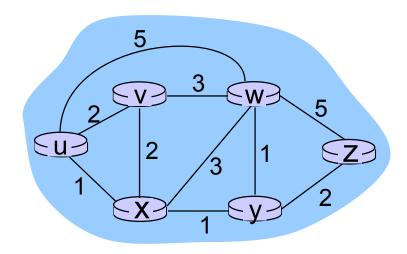
notes:

- construct shortest path tree by tracing predecessor nodes
- ties can exist (can be broken arbitrarily)



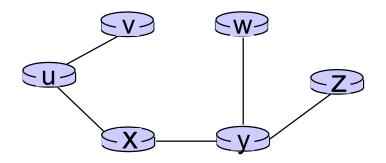
Dijkstra's algorithm: another example

Step)	N'	D(v),p(v)	D(w),p(w)	D(x),p(x)	D(y),p(y)	D(z),p(z)
C)	u	2,u	5,u	1,u	∞	∞
1		ux ←	2,u	4,x		2,x	∞
2) -	uxy <mark>←</mark>	2, u	3,y			4,y
3	}	uxyv 🗸		3,y			4,y
4	-	uxyvw ←					4,y
5	•	uxyvwz 🗲					



Dijkstra's algorithm: example (2)

resulting shortest-path tree from u:



resulting forwarding table in u:

destination	link
V	(u,v)
X	(u,x)
у	(u,x)
W	(u,x)
Z	(u,x)

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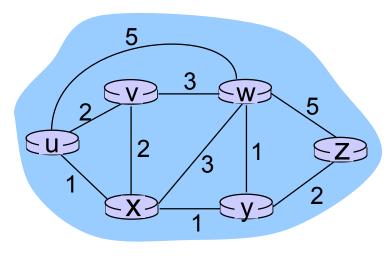
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Distance vector algorithm

Bellman-Ford equation (dynamic programming)

```
let
  d_{y}(y) := cost of least-cost path from x to y
then
  d_{x}(y) = \min_{v} \{c(x,v) + d_{v}(y)\}
                              cost from neighbor v to destination y
                    cost to neighbor v
             min taken over all neighbors v of x
```

Bellman-Ford example



clearly,
$$d_v(z) = 5$$
, $d_x(z) = 3$, $d_w(z) = 3$

B-F equation says:

$$d_{u}(z) = \min \{ c(u,v) + d_{v}(z), \\ c(u,x) + d_{x}(z), \\ c(u,w) + d_{w}(z) \}$$

$$= \min \{ 2 + 5, \\ 1 + 3, \\ 5 + 3 \} = 4$$

node achieving minimum is next hop in shortest path, used in forwarding table

Distance vector algorithm

- $D_x(y) = estimate of least cost from x to y$
 - x maintains distance vector $\mathbf{D}_{x} = [\mathbf{D}_{x}(y): y \in \mathbb{N}]$
- node x:
 - knows cost to each neighbor v: c(x,v)
 - maintains its neighbors' distance vectors. For each neighbor v, x maintains

$$\mathbf{D}_{\mathsf{v}} = [\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{v}}(\mathsf{y}): \mathsf{y} \in \mathsf{N}]$$

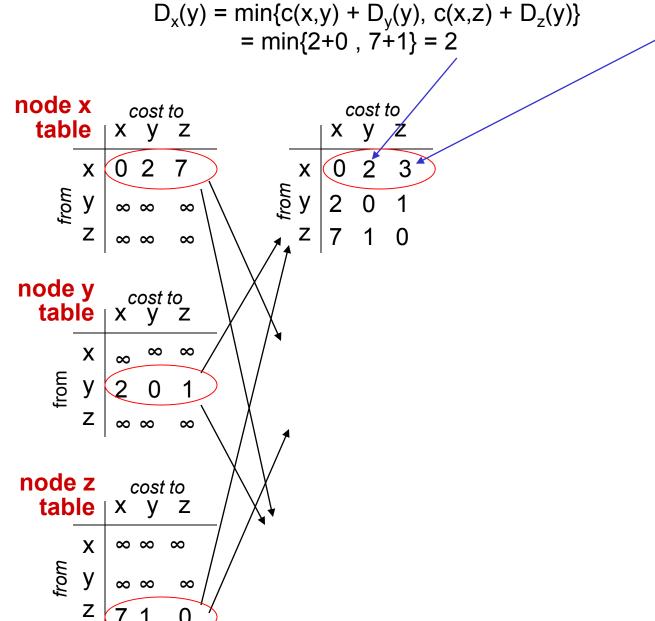
Distance vector algorithm

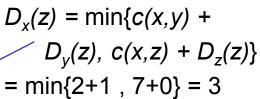
key idea:

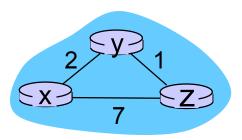
- from time-to-time, each node sends its own distance vector estimate to neighbors
- when x receives new DV estimate from neighbor, it updates its own DV using B-F equation:

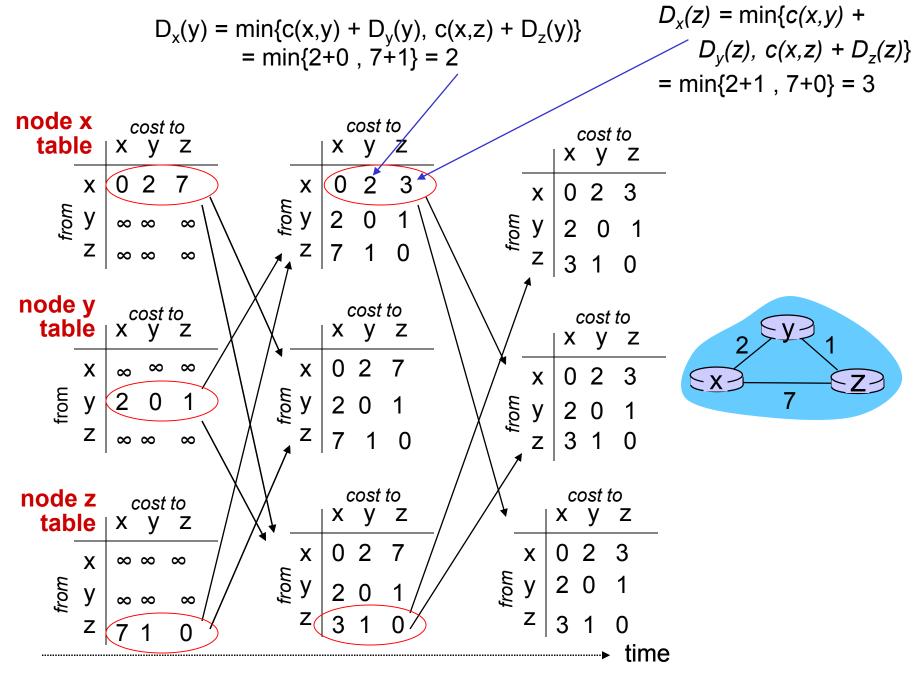
$$D_x(y) \leftarrow \min_{v} \{c(x,v) + D_v(y)\}$$
 for each node $y \in N$

* under natural conditions, the estimate $D_x(y)$ converge to the actual least cost $d_x(y)$





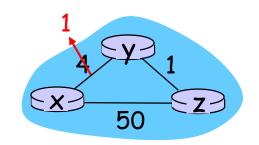




Distance vector: link cost changes

link cost changes:

- node detects local link cost change
- updates routing info, recalculates distance vector
- if DV changes, notify neighbors



"good news travels fast"

 t_0 : y detects link-cost change, updates its DV, informs its neighbors.

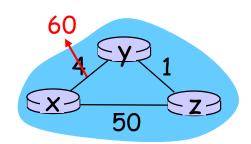
 t_1 : z receives update from y, updates its table, computes new least cost to x, sends its neighbors its DV.

 t_2 : y receives z's update, updates its distance table. y's least costs do not change, so y does not send a message to z.

Distance vector: link cost changes

link cost changes:

- node detects local link cost change
- bad news travels slow "count to infinity" problem!
- 44 iterations before algorithm stabilizes: see text



poisoned reverse:

- If Z routes through Y to get to X:
 - Z tells Y its (Z's) distance to X is infinite (so Y won't route to X via Z)
- will this completely solve count to infinity problem?

Comparison of LS and DV algorithms

message complexity

- LS: with n nodes, E links, O(nE) msgs sent
- DV: exchange between neighbors only
 - convergence time varies

speed of convergence

- LS: O(n²) algorithm requires
 O(nE) msgs
 - may have oscillations
- DV: convergence time varies
 - may be routing loops
 - count-to-infinity problem

robustness: what happens if router malfunctions?

LS:

- node can advertise incorrect link cost
- each node computes only its own table

DV:

- DV node can advertise incorrect path cost
- each node's table used by others
 - error propagate thru network

Chapter 4: outline

- 4.1 introduction
- 4.2 virtual circuit and datagram networks
- 4.3 what's inside a router
- 4.4 IP: Internet Protocol
 - datagram format
 - IPv4 addressing
 - ICMP
 - IPv6

4.5 routing algorithms

- link state
- distance vector
- hierarchical routing
- 4.6 routing in the Internet
 - RIP
 - OSPF
 - BGP
- 4.7 broadcast and multicast routing

Hierarchical routing

our routing study thus far - idealization

- all routers identical
- network "flat"
- ... not true in practice

scale: with 600 million destinations:

- can't store all dest's in routing tables!
- routing table exchange would swamp links!

administrative autonomy

- internet = network of networks
- each network admin may want to control routing in its own network

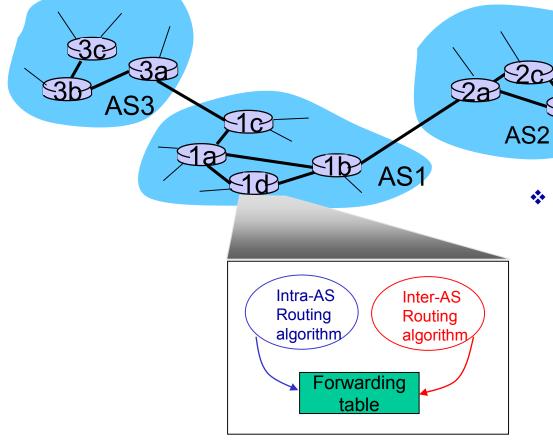
Hierarchical routing

- aggregate routers into regions, "autonomous systems" (AS)
- routers in same AS run same routing protocol
 - "intra-AS" routing protocol
 - routers in different AS can run different intra-AS routing protocol

gateway router:

- at "edge" of its own AS
- has link to router in another AS

Interconnected ASes



- forwarding table configured by both intraand inter-AS routing algorithm
 - intra-AS sets entries for internal dests
 - inter-AS & intra-AS sets entries for external dests

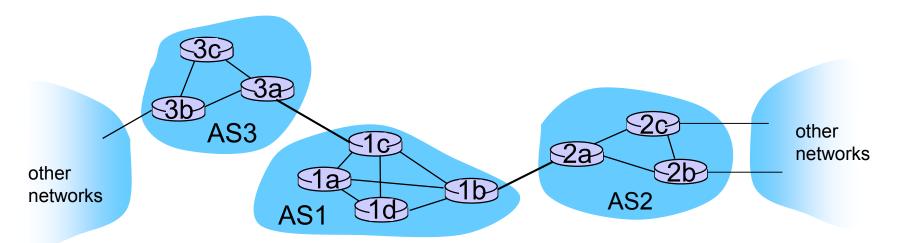
Inter-AS tasks

- suppose router in ASI receives datagram destined outside of ASI:
 - router should forward packet to gateway router, but which one?

ASI must:

- learn which dests are reachable through AS2, which through AS3
- propagate this reachability info to all routers in ASI

job of inter-AS routing!



Example: setting forwarding table in router 1d

- suppose ASI learns (via inter-AS protocol) that subnet x reachable via AS3 (gateway Ic), but not via AS2
 - inter-AS protocol propagates reachability info to all internal routers
- router Id determines from intra-AS routing info that its interface I is on the least cost path to Ic

installs forwarding table entry (x,l)

AS3

Other networks

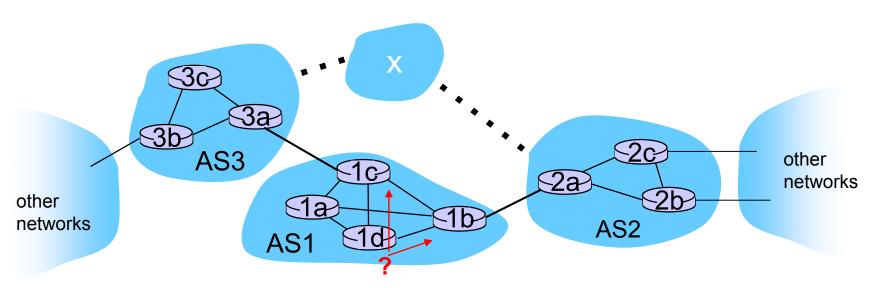
AS1

AS2

other networks

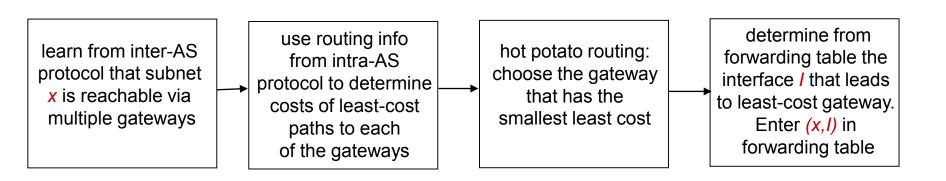
Example: choosing among multiple ASes

- now suppose ASI learns from inter-AS protocol that subnet
 x is reachable from AS3 and from AS2.
- to configure forwarding table, router 1d must determine which gateway it should forward packets towards for dest x
 - this is also job of inter-AS routing protocol!



Example: choosing among multiple ASes

- now suppose ASI learns from inter-AS protocol that subnet
 x is reachable from AS3 and from AS2.
- to configure forwarding table, router 1d must determine towards which gateway it should forward packets for dest x
 - this is also job of inter-AS routing protocol!
- hot potato routing: send packet towards closest of two routers.



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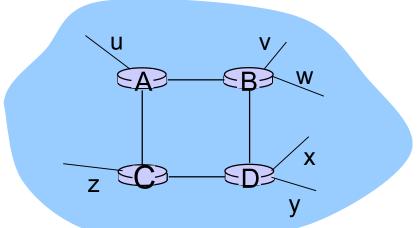
- 4.5 routing algorithms
 - link state
 - distance vector
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- 4.6 routing in the Internet
 - RIP
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 - BGP
- 4.7 broadcast and multicast routing

Intra-AS Routing

- also known as interior gateway protocols (IGP)
- most common intra-AS routing protocols:
 - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
 - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First
 - IGRP: Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (Cisco proprietary)

RIP (Routing Information Protocol)

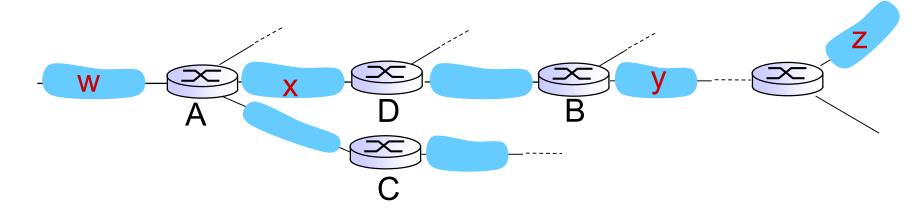
- included in BSD-UNIX distribution in 1982
- distance vector algorithm
 - distance metric: # hops (max = 15 hops), each link has cost I
 - DVs exchanged with neighbors every 30 sec in response message (aka advertisement)
 - each advertisement: list of up to 25 destination subnets (in IP addressing sense)



from router A to destination subnets:

<u>subnet</u>	hops
u	1
V	2
W	2
X	3
У	3
Z	2

RIP: example

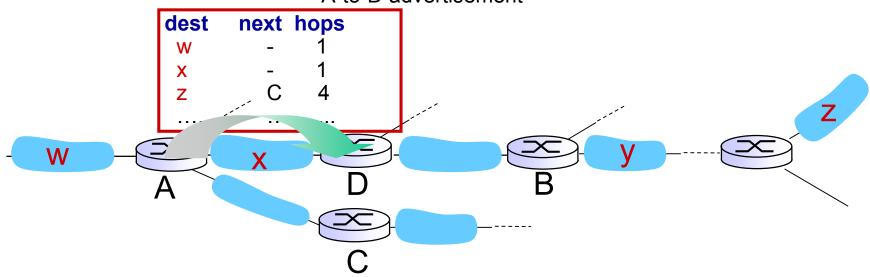


routing table in router D

destination subnet	next router	# hops to dest
W	Α	2
у	В	2
X		1

RIP: example

A-to-D advertisement



routing table in router D

destination subnet	next router	# hops to dest
W	Α	2
У	В	2 _ 5
Z	BA	7
X		1

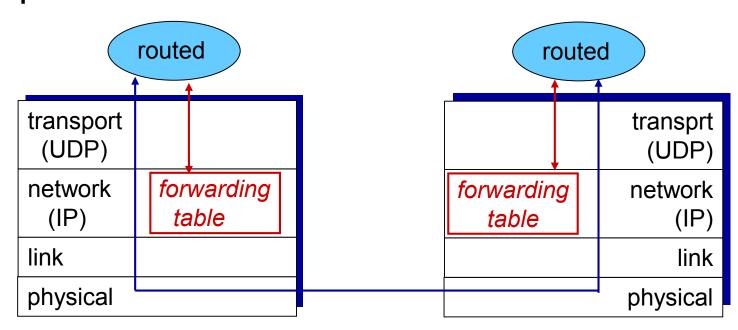
RIP: link failure, recovery

if no advertisement heard after 180 sec --> neighbor/link declared dead

- routes via neighbor invalidated
- new advertisements sent to neighbors
- neighbors in turn send out new advertisements (if tables changed)
- link failure info quickly (?) propagates to entire net
- poison reverse used to prevent ping-pong loops (infinite distance = 16 hops)

RIP table processing

- RIP routing tables managed by application-level process called route-d (daemon)
- advertisements sent in UDP packets, periodically repeated



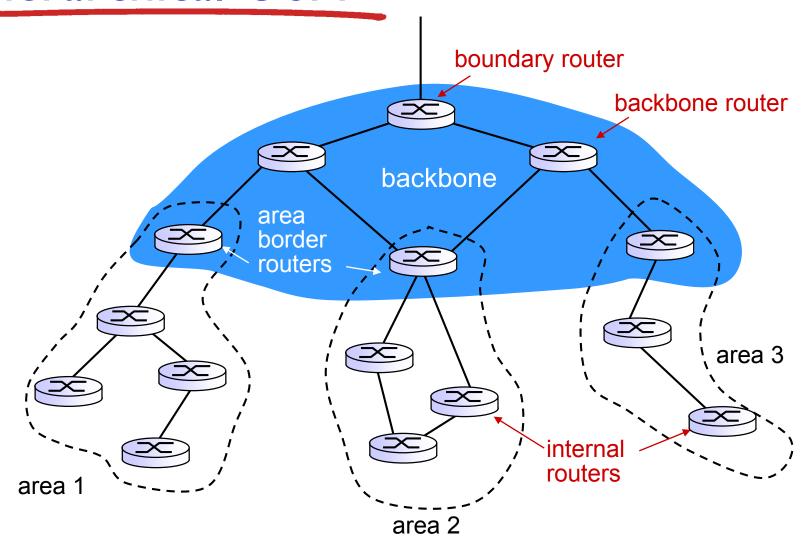
OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)

- "open": publicly available
- uses link state algorithm
 - LS packet dissemination
 - topology map at each node
 - route computation using Dijkstra's algorithm
- OSPF advertisement carries one entry per neighbor
- advertisements flooded to entire AS
 - carried in OSPF messages directly over IP (rather than TCP or UDP
- * IS-IS routing protocol: nearly identical to OSPF

OSPF "advanced" features (not in RIP)

- security: all OSPF messages authenticated (to prevent malicious intrusion)
- multiple same-cost paths allowed (only one path in RIP)
- for each link, multiple cost metrics for different TOS (e.g., satellite link cost set "low" for best effort ToS; high for real time ToS)
- integrated uni- and multicast support:
 - Multicast OSPF (MOSPF) uses same topology data base as OSPF
- * hierarchical OSPF in large domains.

Hierarchical OSPF



Hierarchical OSPF

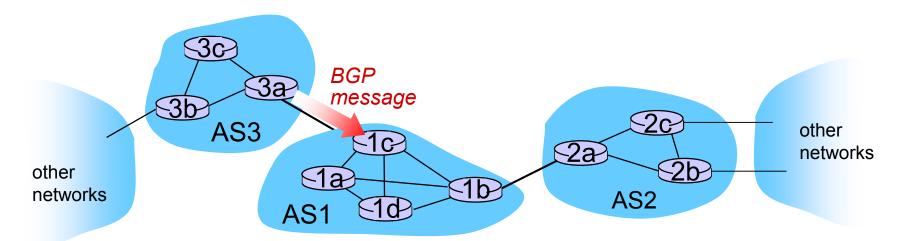
- * two-level hierarchy: local area, backbone.
 - link-state advertisements only in area
 - each nodes has detailed area topology; only know direction (shortest path) to nets in other areas.
- * area border routers: "summarize" distances to nets in own area, advertise to other Area Border routers.
- backbone routers: run OSPF routing limited to backbone.
- boundary routers: connect to other AS's.

Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol): the de facto inter-domain routing protocol
 - "glue that holds the Internet together"
- BGP provides each AS a means to:
 - eBGP: obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring ASs.
 - iBGP: propagate reachability information to all ASinternal routers.
 - determine "good" routes to other networks based on reachability information and policy.
- allows subnet to advertise its existence to rest of Internet: "I am here"

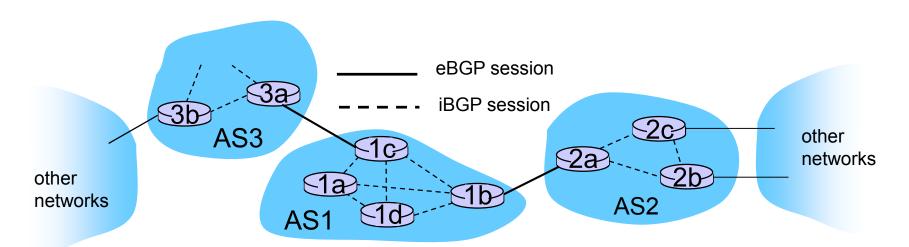
BGP basics

- BGP session: two BGP routers ("peers") exchange BGP messages:
 - advertising paths to different destination network prefixes ("path vector" protocol)
 - exchanged over semi-permanent TCP connections
- when AS3 advertises a prefix to AS1:
 - AS3 promises it will forward datagrams towards that prefix
 - AS3 can aggregate prefixes in its advertisement



BGP basics: distributing path information

- using eBGP session between 3a and 1c, AS3 sends prefix reachability info to AS1.
 - Ic can then use iBGP do distribute new prefix info to all routers in ASI
 - Ib can then re-advertise new reachability info to AS2 over Ib-to-2a eBGP session
- when router learns of new prefix, it creates entry for prefix in its forwarding table.



Path attributes and BGP routes

- advertised prefix includes BGP attributes
 - prefix + attributes = "route"
- two important attributes:
 - AS-PATH: contains ASs through which prefix advertisement has passed: e.g., AS 67, AS 17
 - NEXT-HOP: indicates specific internal-AS router to next-hop AS. (may be multiple links from current AS to next-hop-AS)
- gateway router receiving route advertisement uses import policy to accept/decline
 - e.g., never route through AS x
 - policy-based routing

BGP route selection

- router may learn about more than I route to destination AS, selects route based on:
 - I. local preference value attribute: policy decision
 - 2. shortest AS-PATH
 - 3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
 - 4. additional criteria

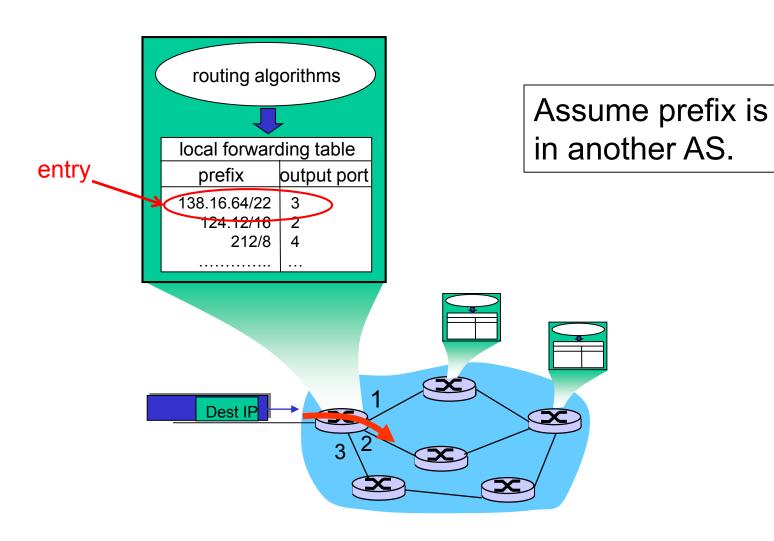
BGP messages

- BGP messages exchanged between peers over TCP connection
- BGP messages:
 - OPEN: opens TCP connection to peer and authenticates sender
 - UPDATE: advertises new path (or withdraws old)
 - KEEPALIVE: keeps connection alive in absence of UPDATES; also ACKs OPEN request
 - NOTIFICATION: reports errors in previous msg; also used to close connection

Putting it Altogether: How Does an Entry Get Into a Router's Forwarding Table?

- Answer is complicated!
- ❖ Ties together hierarchical routing (Section 4.5.3) with BGP (4.6.3) and OSPF (4.6.2).

How does entry get in forwarding table?

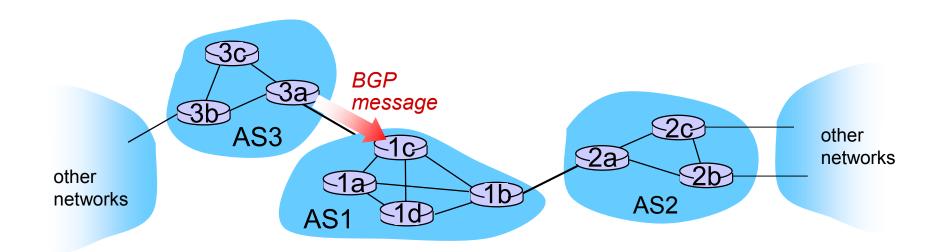


How does entry get in forwarding table?

High-level overview

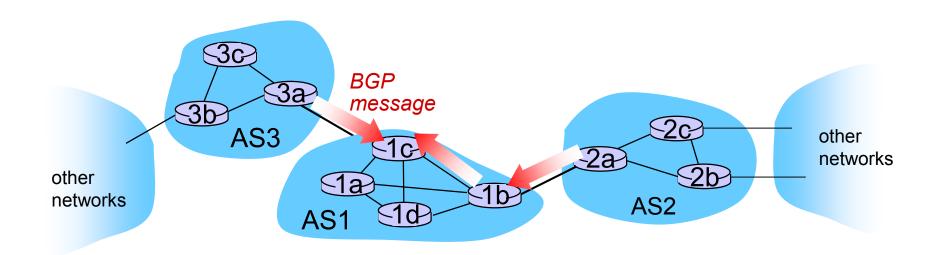
- Router becomes aware of prefix
- 2. Router determines output Interface for prefix
- 3. Router enters prefix-interface in forwarding table

Router becomes aware of prefix



- BGP message contains "routes"
- "route" is a prefix and attributes: AS-PATH, NEXT-HOP,...
- Example: route:
 - Prefix:138.16.64/22; AS-PATH: AS3 AS131;
 NEXT-HOP: 201.44.13.125

Router may receive multiple routes



- * Router may receive multiple routes for <u>same</u> prefix
- Has to select one route

Select best BGP route to prefix

Router selects route based on shortest AS-PATH

Example:

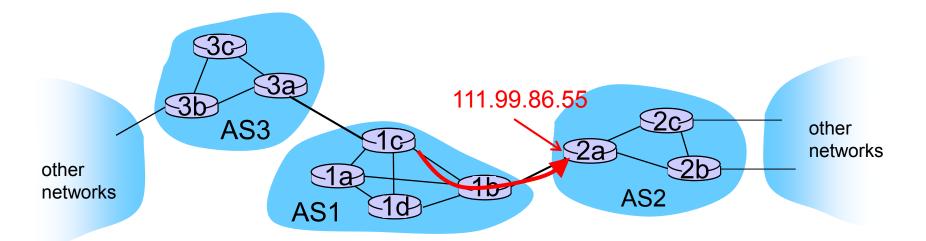
select

- *AS2 AS17 to 138.16.64/22
- * AS3 AS131 AS201 to 138.16.64/22

What if there is a tie?

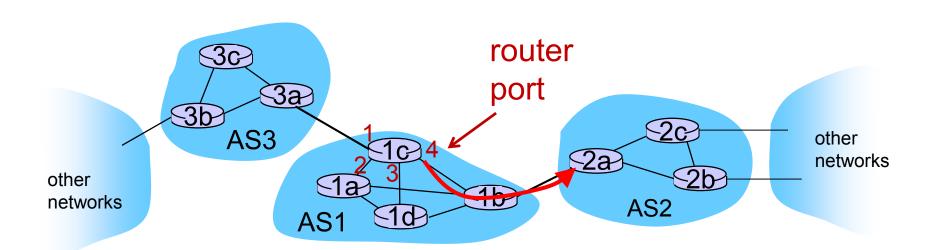
Find best intra-route to BGP route

- Use selected route's NEXT-HOP attribute
 - Route's NEXT-HOP attribute is the IP address of the router interface that begins the AS PATH.
- Example:
 - ❖ AS-PATH: AS2 AS17; NEXT-HOP: 111.99.86.55
- Router uses OSPF to find shortest path from 1c to 111.99.86.55



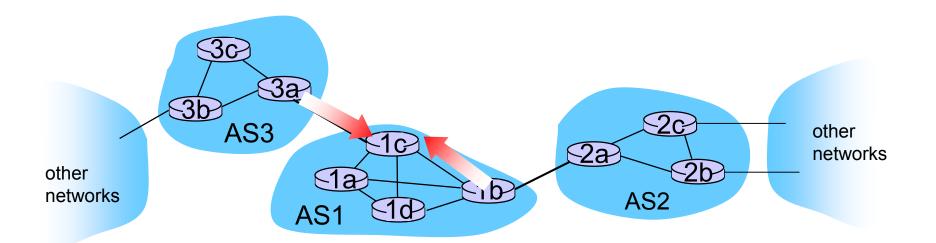
Router identifies port for route

- Identifies port along the OSPF shortest path
- Adds prefix-port entry to its forwarding table:
 - (138.16.64/22, port 4)



Hot Potato Routing

- Suppose there two or more best inter-routes.
- Then choose route with closest NEXT-HOP
 - Use OSPF to determine which gateway is closest
 - Q: From Ic, chose AS3 AS131 or AS2 AS17?
 - A: route AS3 AS131 since it is closer

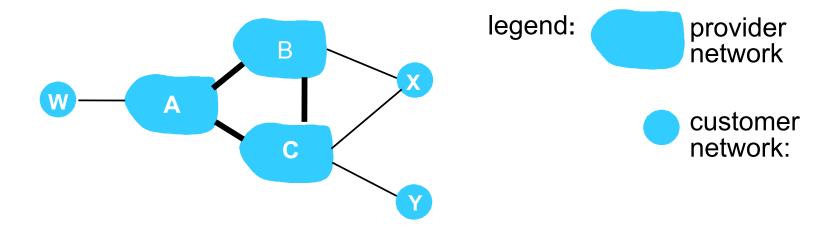


How does entry get in forwarding table?

Summary

- 1. Router becomes aware of prefix
 - via BGP route advertisements from other routers
- 2. Determine router output port for prefix
 - Use BGP route selection to find best inter-AS route
 - Use OSPF to find best intra-AS route leading to best inter-AS route
 - Router identifies router port for that best route
- 3. Enter prefix-port entry in forwarding table

BGP routing policy



- * A,B,C are provider networks
- X,W,Y are customer (of provider networks)
- * X is dual-homed: attached to two networks
 - X does not want to route from B via X to C
 - .. so X will not advertise to B a route to C

Why different Intra-, Inter-AS routing?

policy:

- inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routes, who routes through its net.
- intra-AS: single admin, so no policy decisions needed scale:
- hierarchical routing saves table size, reduced update traffic

performance:

- intra-AS: can focus on performance
- inter-AS: policy may dominate over performance

Chapter 4: done!