<u>Network Layer</u>

Lecture 15 Layer 3 Switching

How do we go from LAN to a much larger network? Why doesn't ethernet switching scale?

→ In the spanning tree, the path between two nodes could be long.

(potentially very unoptimal because we are not using all links)

→ The forwarding table, whose size can be as large as the number of hosts, can be very cumbersome to use.

This is a result of flat addressing.

To fix this, we use hierarchical addressing in IP.

→ If a switch in the tree goes down, we reconstruct the spanning tree.

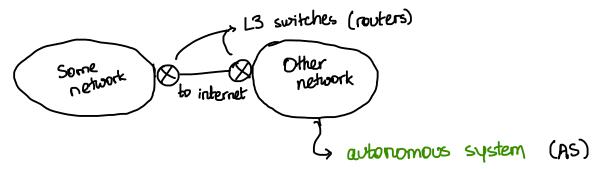
There are periodic "Hello" messages to ensure that the tree is intact.

(if not received by someone, we reconstruct)

In a large network this could happen often, thus wasting resources frequently.

→ Earlier, there were no common addressing scheme or communication protocols across the globe.

13 switches forward based on the IP address.



Each AS can choose its own internal routing protocol.

(the distance heuristic mentioned at the end of the prev. section)

There is intra-domain routing (within AS) and inter-domain nouting (between AS)

In the internet, inter-domain routing is done using BGP — the Border Gateway Protocol.

Let us start with intra-domain routing. It is broadly of two types: distance vector and link-state routing

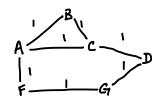
They are essentially just algorithms to:

→ find shortest path (each hop is assigned a weight by the admin)

→ avoid cycles.

A router does not need to know the entire noute, only the next hap in a shortest path.

Distance vector routing uses a distributed version of the Bellman Ford algorithm.



A (and each mode) first sends out (A, O)

Its IP - Literature to itself

It then updates its forwarding table after hearing each message.

Destination	Next hop	Cost
A	-	D
В	B	1
C	С	ı
F	F	ı

Next, A sends its table to its own neighbours.

From C. it hears (C.D. (A.D. (B.D. (D.1)

			tro	m C, ii	t hears	(C,O), (P,1), (B,I), (دارلا
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						В	B	1
						C	С	ı
						F	F	ı
						D	C	2
						G	F	2

Proceeding, it builds up a forwarding table, choosing the neighbour closest to a destination at each step

What happens if a link fails?

A node X recognizes that the link has failed and sends this information to its neighbours, sowing that its distance to that node is now as.

Similarly, if a neighbour's next hop for that destination is X, it updates its own cost as as well

This spreads until we reach a node with a different next hop.

If we receive a packet for that node in the intermittent period, it is discarded.

How often does this occur?

→ Triggered update: An event triggers a routing update. (We try to send on a link and we full)

-> Periodic update: Periodically, give neighbours information about routing table.

No particular node knows the topology of the entire network.

Lecture 16 Count-to-Infinity and Link State Routing

The Distance Vector protocol escentially shares the dest and next columns of the routing table.

Let us look at the count-to-infinity problem.

Say

 $X \stackrel{1}{\longrightarrow} A \stackrel{1}{\longrightarrow} B$

Dest Next Cost Dest Next Cost

A A I X X I A A I
B A 2 B B 1 X A 2

Suppose the X-A link fails. Then A sends (X,∞) to B. Further, at nearly the same time, suppose B sends (X,2) (to A)

(and (A,i))

A's table was

Dest Next Cost x - and on hearing B, becomes x B 3
B B 1

and simultaneously. Bis table becomes

Now, A tells B (x,3), (B,1) so B will update to (A,A,1), (x,A,4). This repeats and infinitum, with the cost to x "counting to infinity".

One solution: Keep a maximum distance considered as ∞ and stop if we reach it. This value is 16 in RIP.

One other solution is split-horizon.

→ Do not advertise information about a destination to a neighbour if that neighbour is the next hop to the destination.

In our example, B would not tell A anything about X.

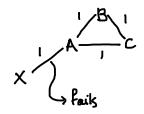
As a result, both nodes would end up (the (x,A,2) endry) with a (x, a) entry.

Another is split-horizon with foisson reverse.

- A node tells its next hop to the destination that its distance to the destination is ∞ .

B sends advertisements (x,00) to A.

However, the above do not fix the problem in general.



there are also more general counterexamples that do not depend on this

A sends (X,00) to B and C Suppose the message to C is lost

Then, B's table is updated with (X,C,3). Now, B tells this to A

(A is not its next hop anymore) and A's table is updated with (X,B,4).

A will relay this to C. As before, this is a loop and the count-toinfinity problem arises once more.

In RIP (Routing Information Protocol),

The cost of all links is 1.

The routing problem is partially fixed ($16 \equiv \infty$ now) but as a result, we cannot have larger networks.

more than 16 hops

Distance Vector:

- + simple and easy to implement
- count-to-infinity and routing loops
- convergence of routing tables may take a long time.

The alternative is link-state routing.

Each node broadcasts information about costs to immediate neighbours. (sort of a flipped version of $D \cdot V \cdot -$ globally tell local information) instead of locally tell global information.

Each node can reconstruct the entire topology and find the shortest distance using any standard algorithm.

LSR uses Dijkstra's Algorithm, wherein each mode finds a shortest path tree to all the other nodes in the network.

A's routing table is then built from the tree.

Prouting loops are not a problem because on link failure, the failure is broadcast to everyone (from both sides).

All nodes rerun Dijkstra's Algorithm.

- + No routing loops or count-to-infinity.
- + Convergence of routing table is fast.
- Algorithm is more complex (than Distance Vector)

The remaining question is: what do we choose for the costs?