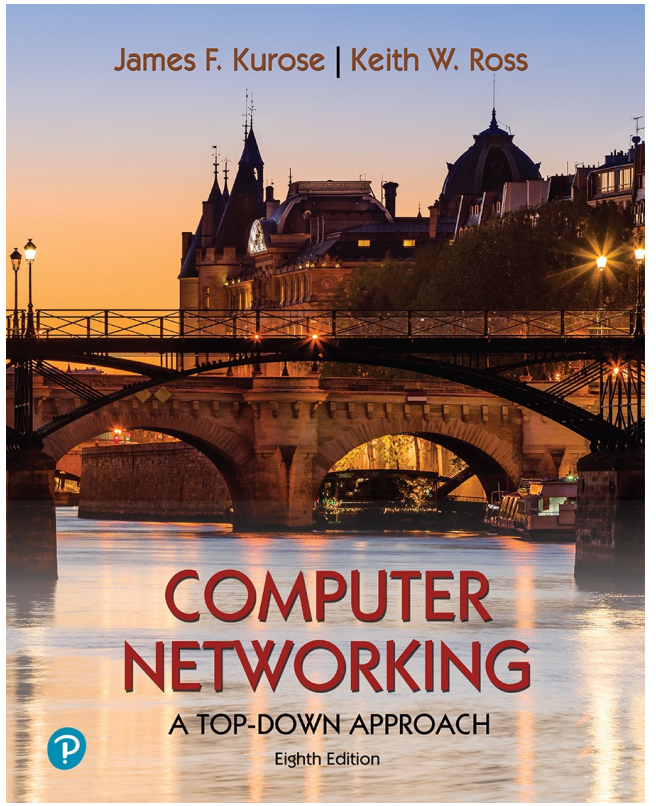
Chapters 4 & 5
Network Layer



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach
8th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Network layer: our goals

- understand principles behind network layer services:
  - network layer service models
  - forwarding versus routing
  - how a router works
  - Addressing
  - traditional routing algorithms
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet
  - IP protocol
  - NAT
  - OSPF, BGP

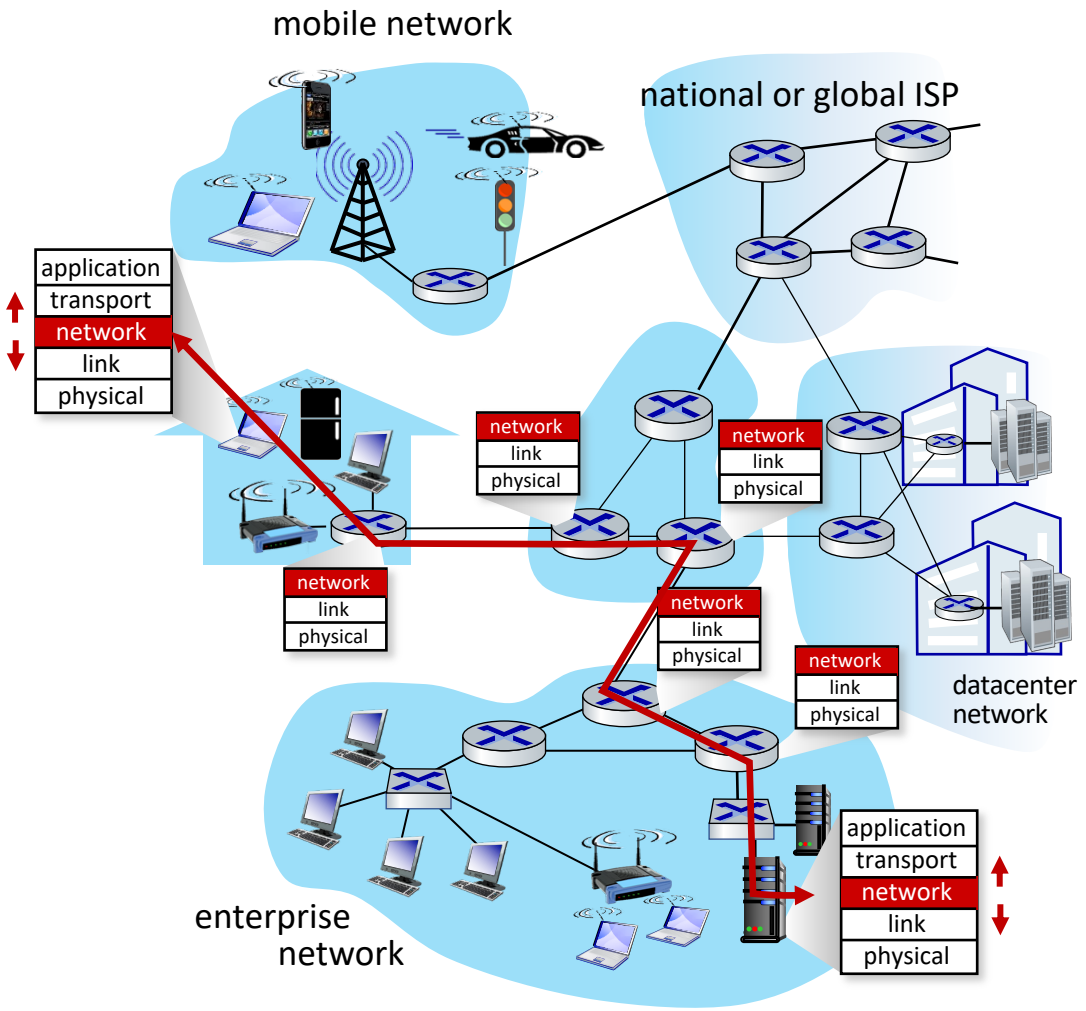
Network layer: roadmap

- Network layer: overview
  - data plane
  - control plane
- What's inside a router
  - input ports, switching, output ports
- IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format, fragmentation
  - Addressing
  - Packet forwarding using prefix matching
  - Hierarchical Addressing
  - network address translation

- routing protocols
  - link state
  - distance vector
- intra-ISP routing: OSPF
- routing among ISPs: BGP

Network-layer services and protocols

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
  - sender: encapsulates segments into datagrams, passes to link layer
  - receiver: delivers segments to transport layer protocol
- network layer protocols in *every Internet device*: hosts, routers
- routers:
  - examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it
  - moves datagrams from input ports to output ports to transfer datagrams along end-end path



Two key network-layer functions

network-layer functions:

- *forwarding:* move packets from a router's input link to appropriate router output link
- *routing:* determine route taken by packets from source to destination
  - *routing algorithms*

analogy: taking a trip

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

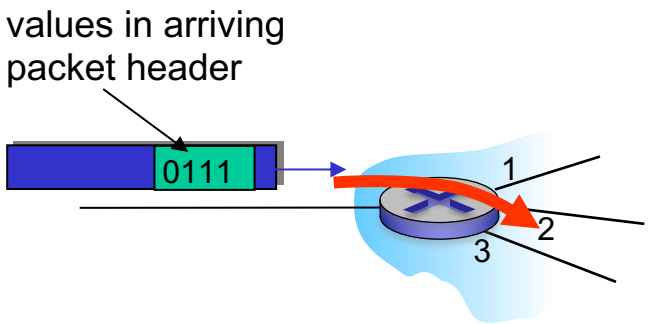
forwarding

routing

Network layer: data plane, control plane

Data plane:

- *local*, per-router function
- determines how datagram arriving on router input port is forwarded to router output port

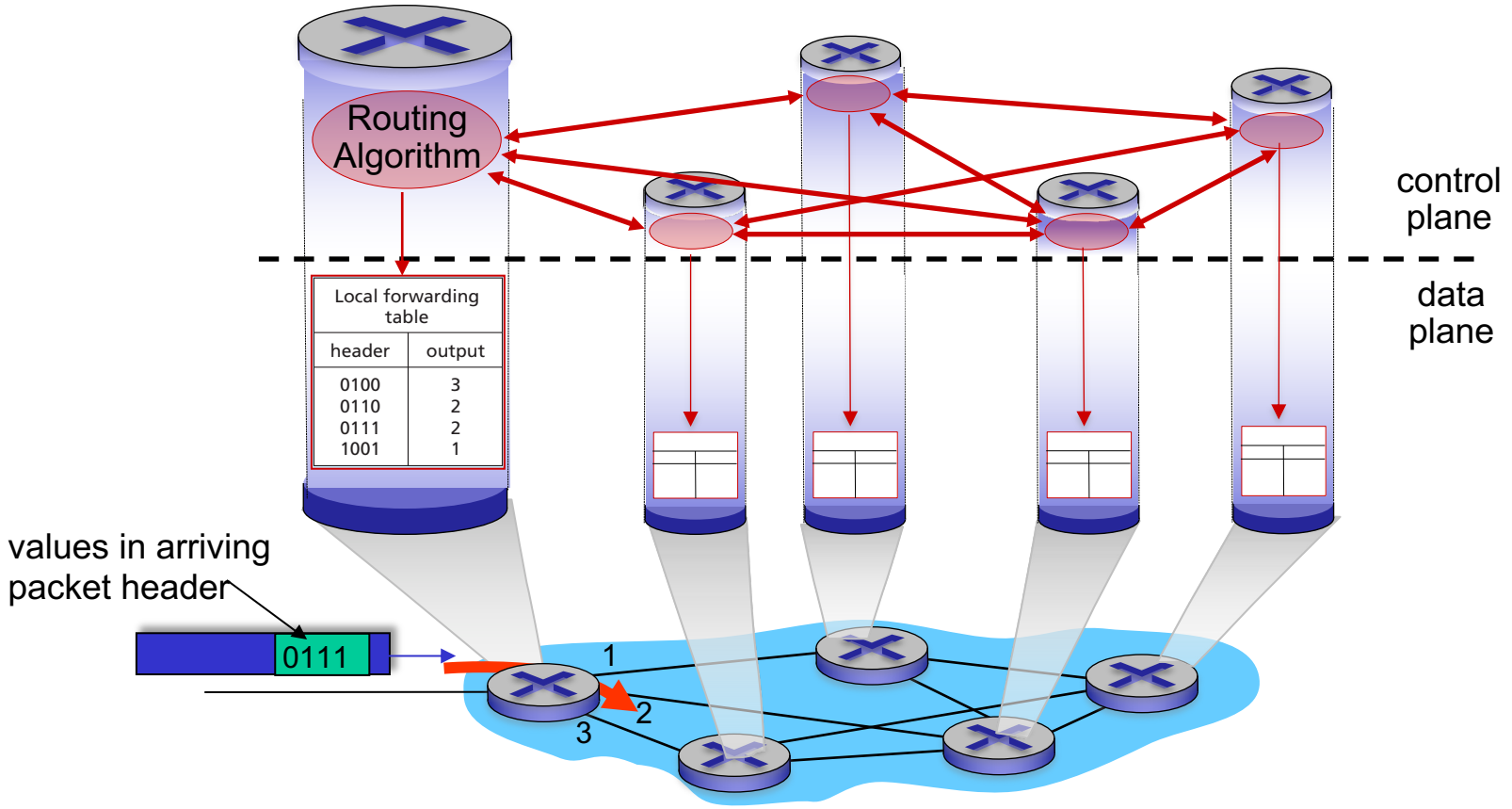


Control plane

- *network-wide* logic
- determines how datagram is routed among routers along end-end path from source host to destination host
- two control-plane approaches:
  - *traditional routing algorithms:* implemented in routers (We will focus on this approach)
  - *software-defined networking (SDN)*: implemented in (remote) servers

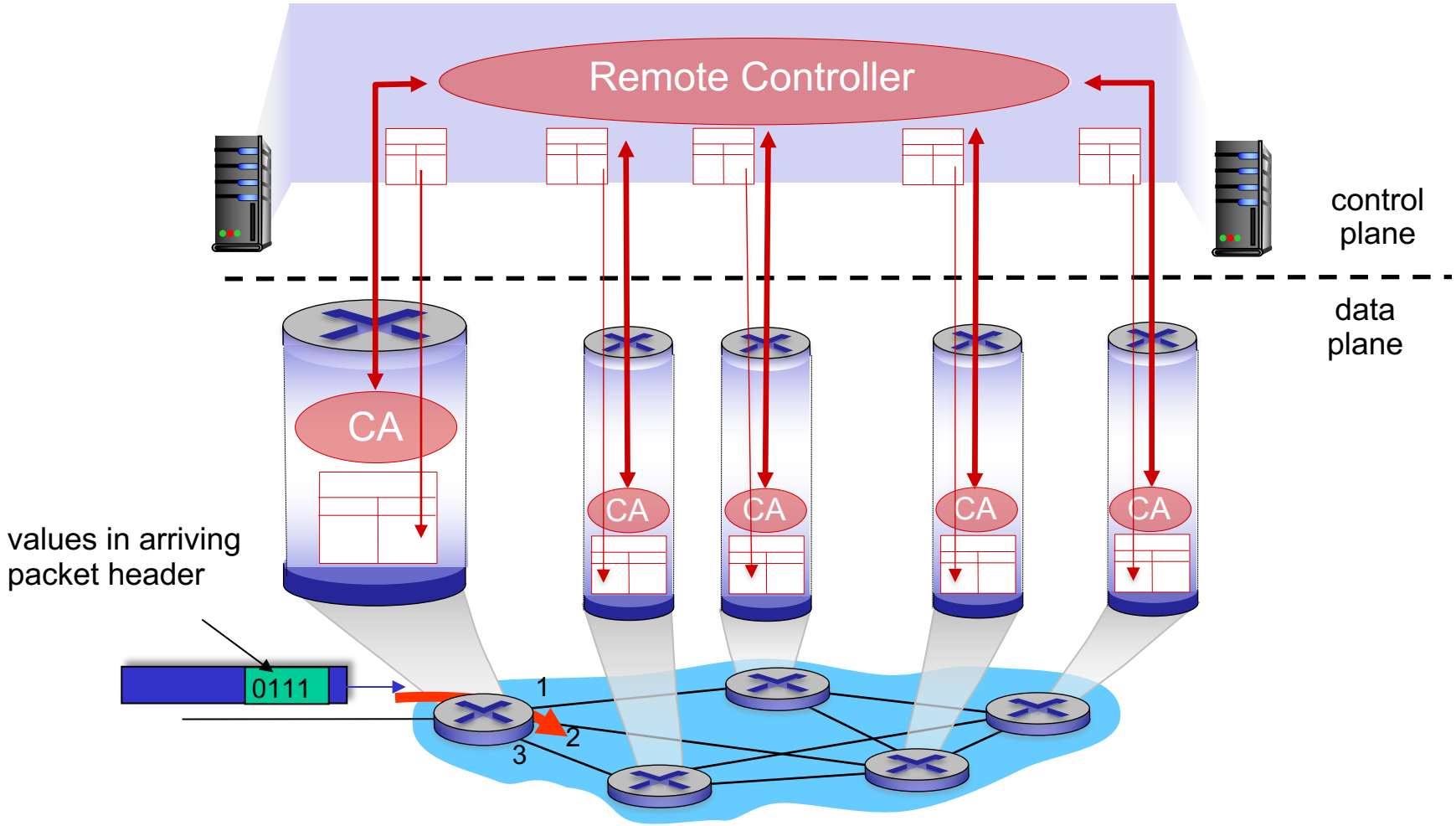
Per-router control plane

Individual routing algorithm components *in each and every router* interact in the control plane



Software-Defined Networking (SDN) control plane

Remote controller computes, installs forwarding tables in routers



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  - distance vector
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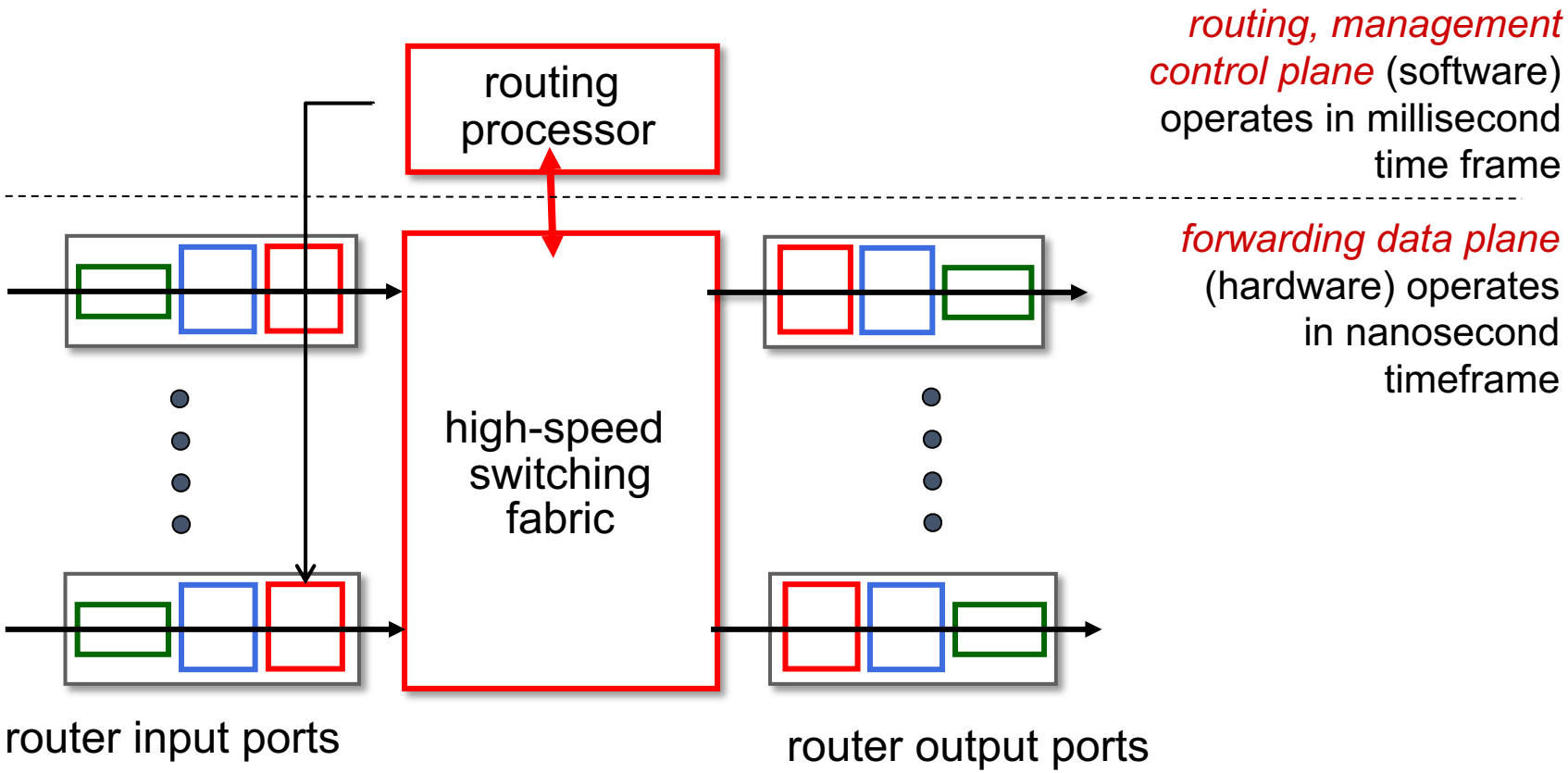
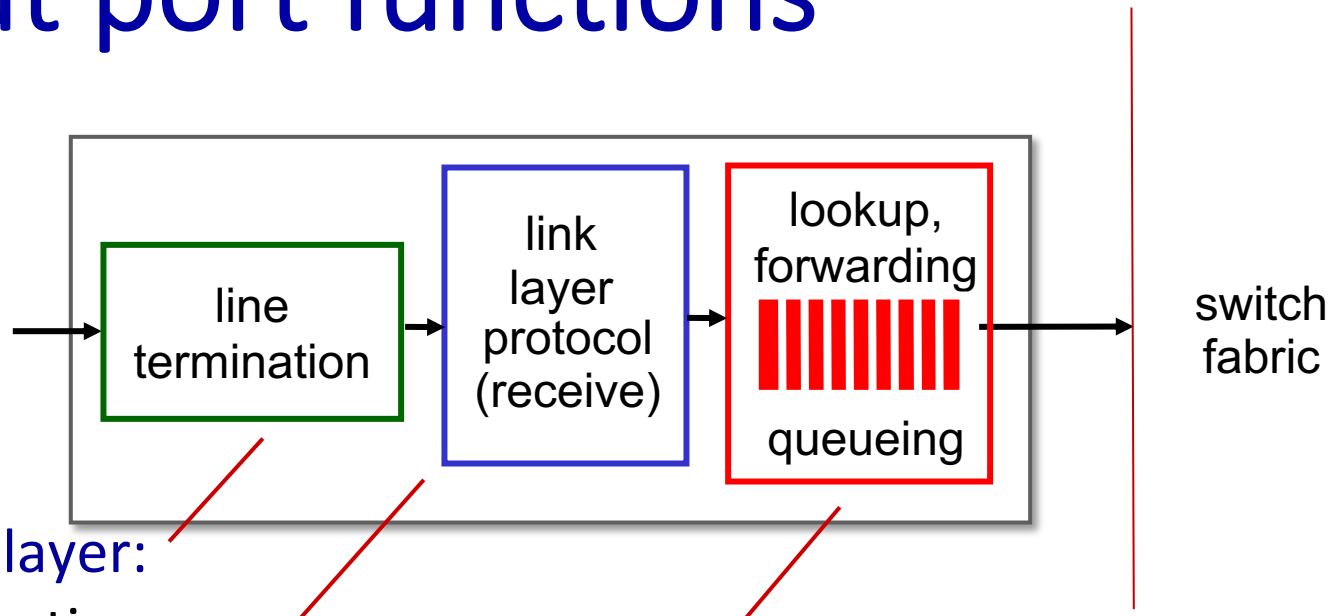
- routing among ISPs: BGP

Router architecture overview

high-level view of generic router architecture:



Input port functions



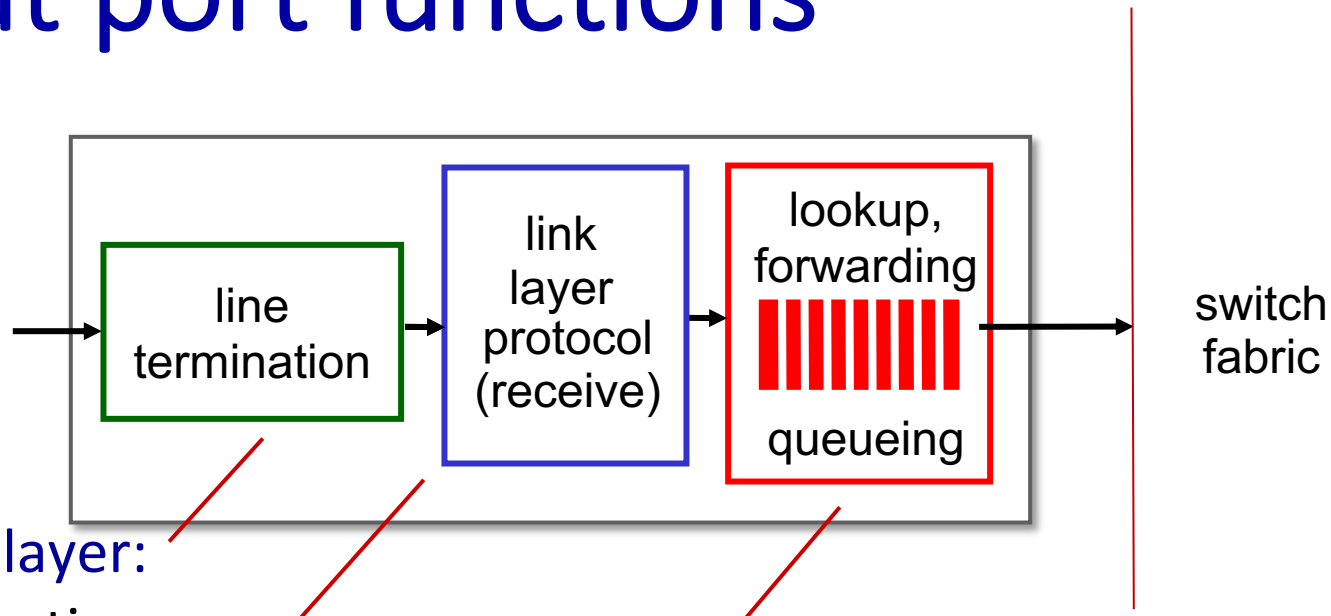
physical layer:
bit-level reception

link layer:
e.g., Ethernet
(chapter 6)

decentralized switching:

- using header field values, lookup output port using forwarding table in input port memory *("match plus action")*
- goal: complete input port processing at 'line speed'
- input port queuing: if datagrams arrive faster than forwarding rate into switch fabric

Input port functions



physical layer:
bit-level reception

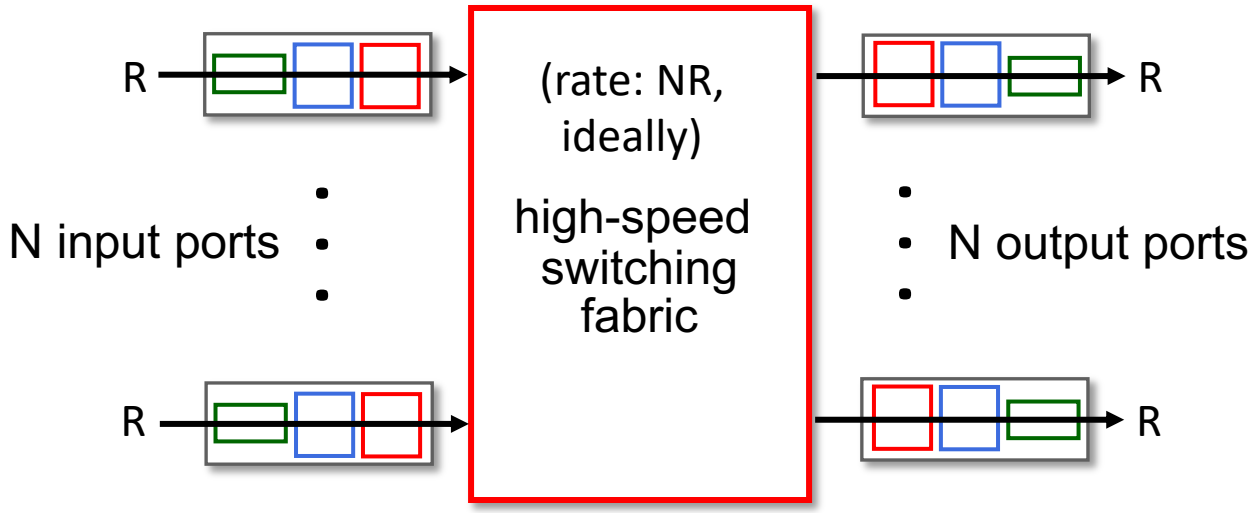
link layer:
e.g., Ethernet
(chapter 6)

decentralized switching:

- using header field values, lookup output port using forwarding table in input port memory *("match plus action")*
- destination-based forwarding: forward based only on destination IP address (traditional)

Switching fabrics

- transfer packet from input link to appropriate output link
- switching rate: rate at which packets can be transfer from inputs to outputs
  - often measured as multiple of input/output line rate
  - N inputs: switching rate N times line rate desirable



Switching fabrics

- transfer packet from input link to appropriate output link
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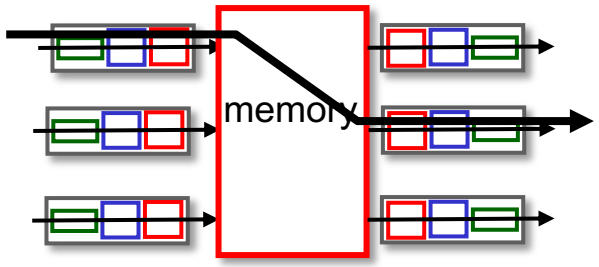
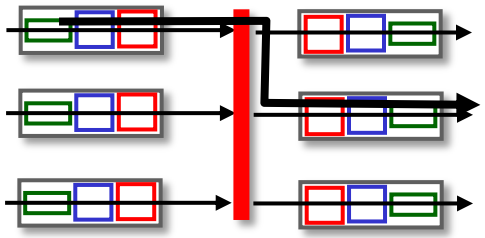
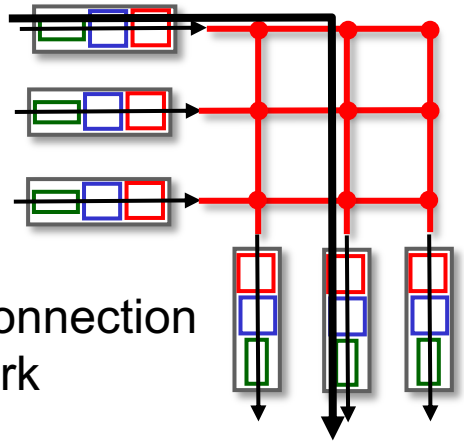
  - N inputs: switching rate N times line rate desirable
- three major types of switching fabrics:



memory



bus

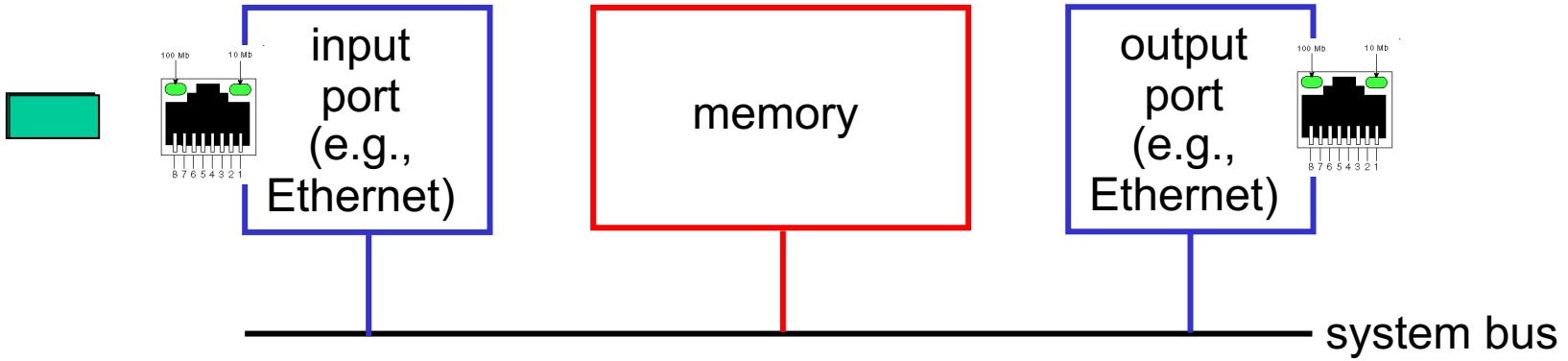


interconnection network

Switching via memory

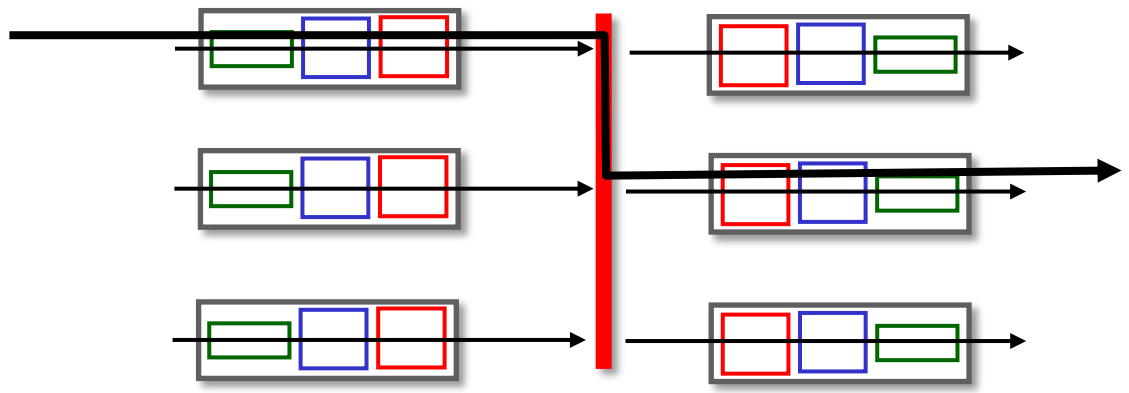
first generation routers:

- traditional computers with switching under direct control of CPU
- packet copied to system's memory
- speed limited by memory bandwidth (2 bus crossings per datagram)



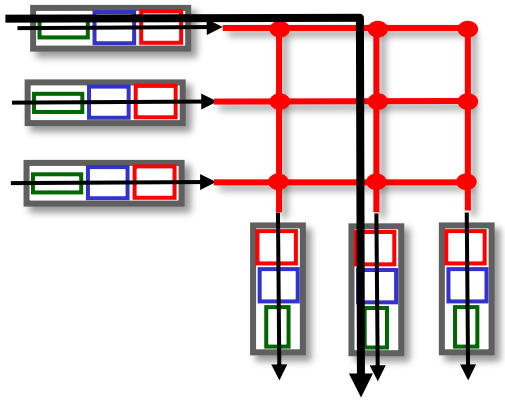
Switching via a bus

- datagram from input port memory to output port memory via a shared bus
- *bus contention:* switching speed limited by bus bandwidth
- 32 Gbps bus, Cisco 5600: sufficient speed for access routers

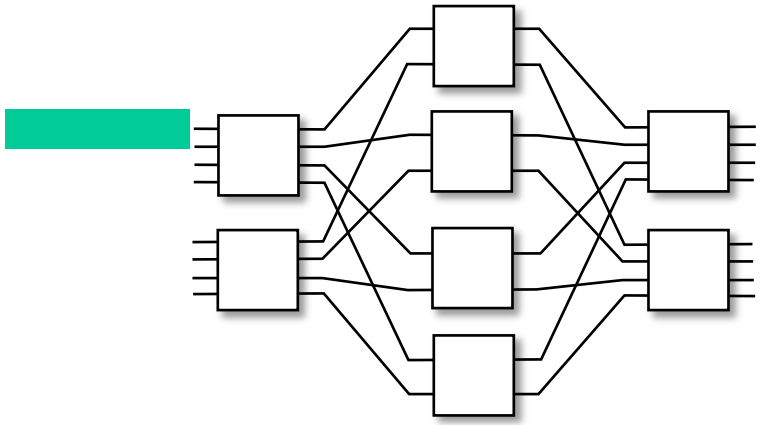


Switching via interconnection network

- Crossbar, Clos networks, other interconnection nets initially developed to connect processors in multiprocessor
- multistage switch: *nxn* switch from multiple stages of smaller switches
- exploiting parallelism:
  - fragment datagram into fixed length cells on entry
  - switch cells through the fabric, reassemble datagram at exit



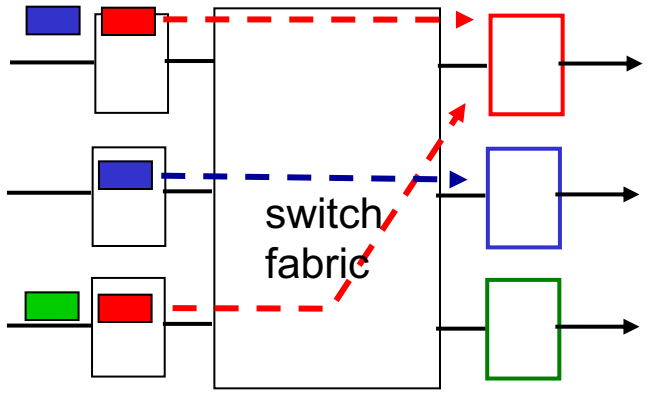
3x3 crossbar



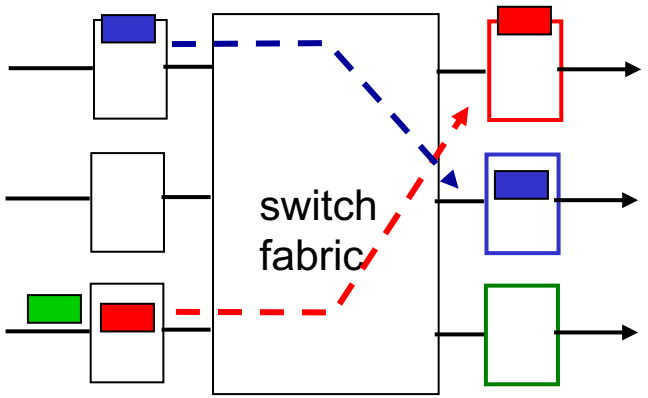
8x8 multistage switch
built from smaller-sized switches

Input port queuing

- If switch fabric slower than input ports combined -> queueing may occur at input queues
  - queueing delay and loss due to input buffer overflow!
- Head-of-the-Line (HOL) blocking: queued datagram at front of queue prevents others in queue from moving forward

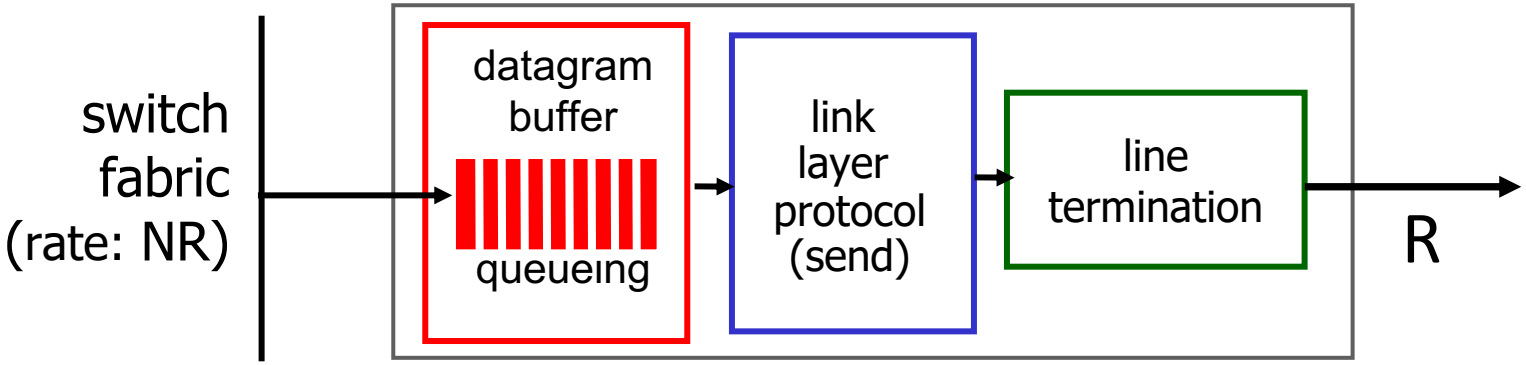


output port contention: only one red datagram can be transferred. lower red packet is *blocked*



one packet time later: green packet experiences HOL blocking

Output port queuing



This is a really important slide

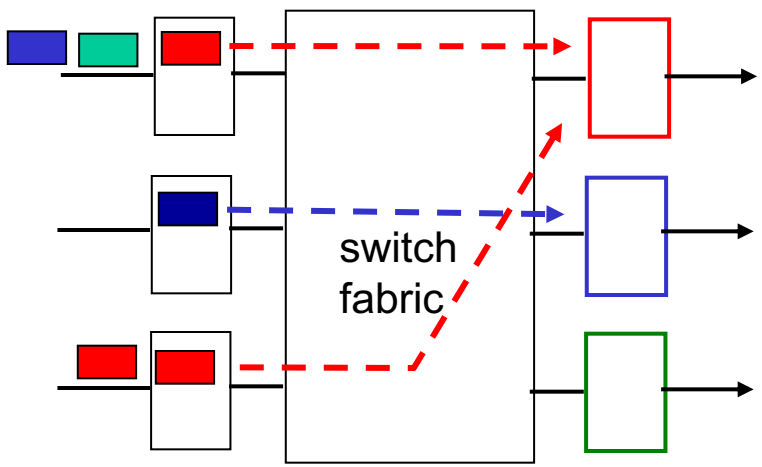
- *Buffering* required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than link transmission rate. *Drop policy:* which datagrams to drop if no free buffers?

→ Datagrams can be lost due to congestion, lack of buffers

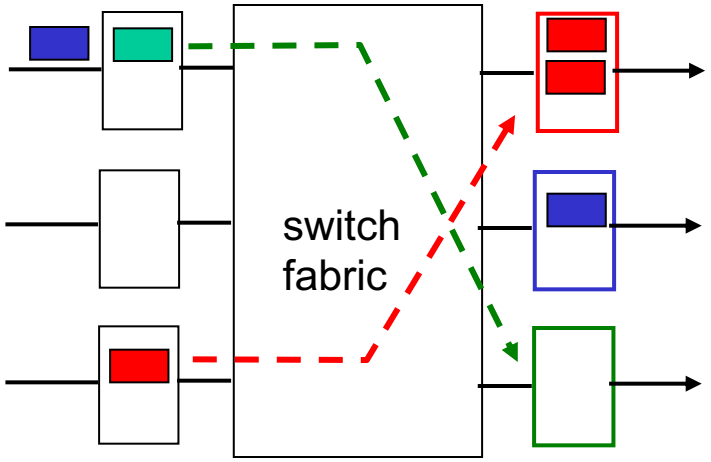
- *Scheduling discipline* chooses among queued datagrams for transmission

→ Priority scheduling – who gets best performance, network neutrality

Output port queuing



at *t*, packets more from input to output



one packet time later

- buffering when arrival rate via switch exceeds output line speed
- *queueing (delay) and loss due to output port buffer overflow!*

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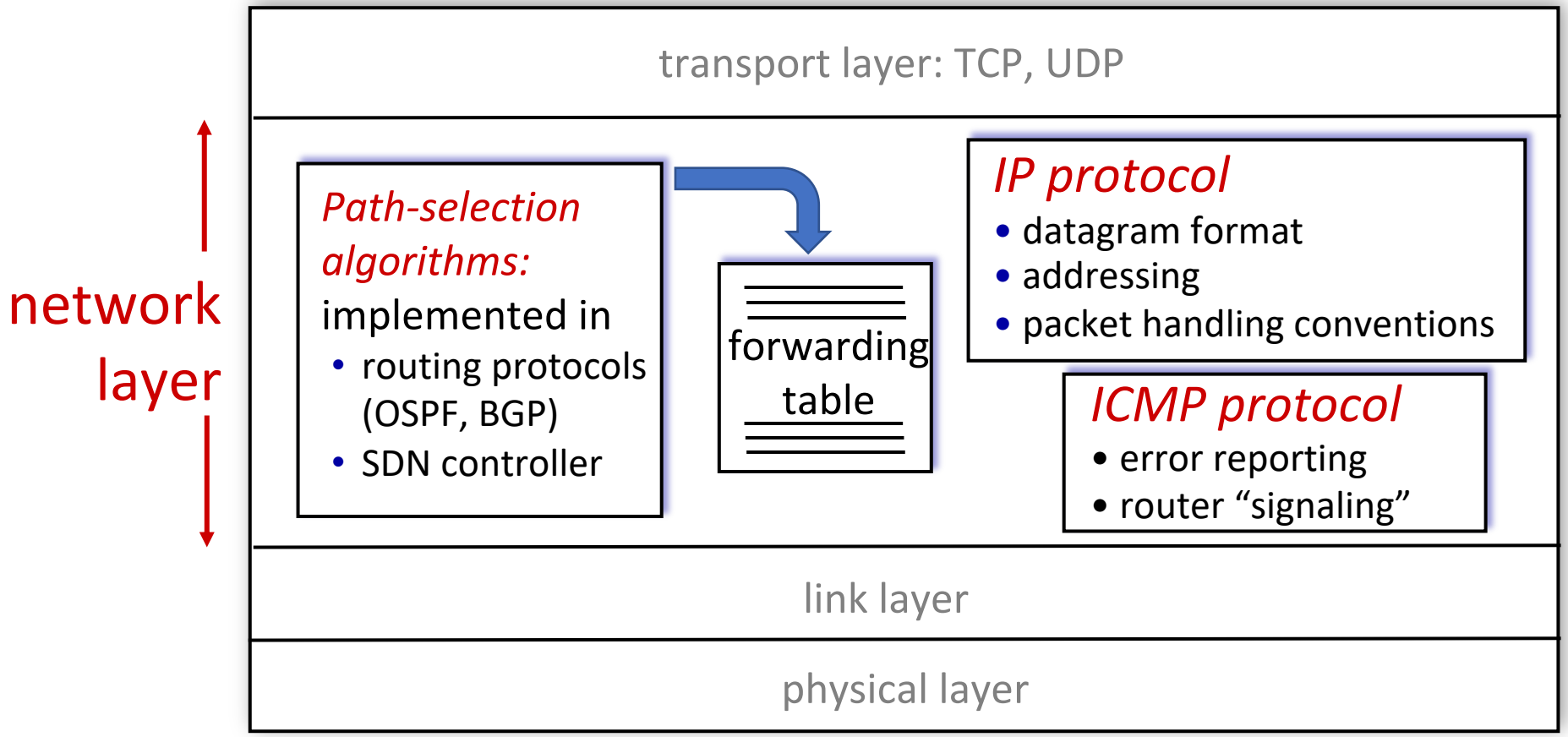
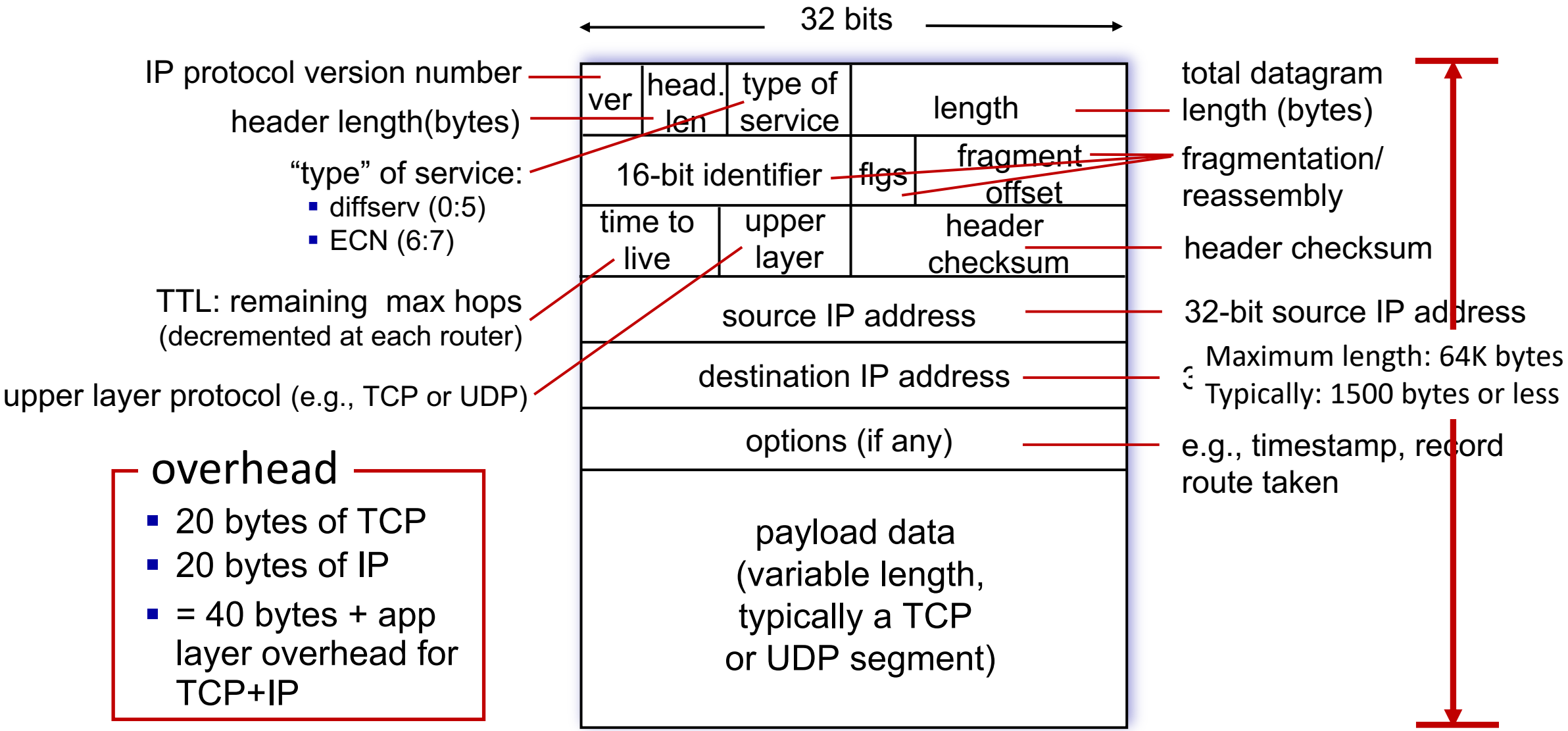
Network Layer: Internet

host, router network layer functions:



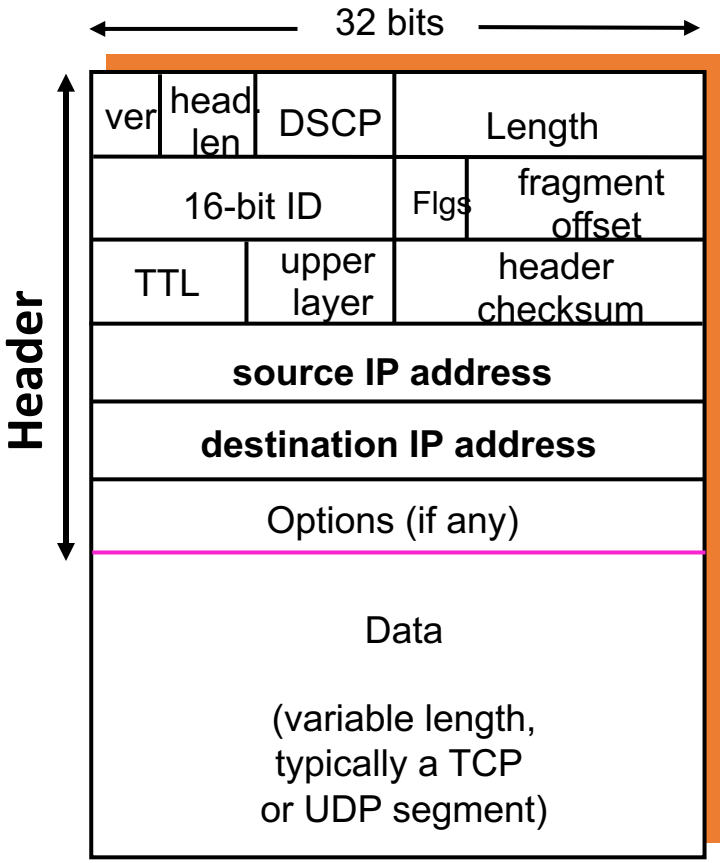
IP Datagram format



overhead

- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes + app layer overhead for TCP+IP

IP Packet Format



Version (4 bits) : 4 (= 0100)

Header length (4 bits): unit is 4-bytes
(Ex.: A 20-byte header is rep. by 5 (= 0101)

DSCP (Differentiated Services Code Point/ 8 bits):
Type of data carried
(6-bit DSCP + 2-bit)
(DSCP = 46 ➔ High Priority; 0 ➔ Low)

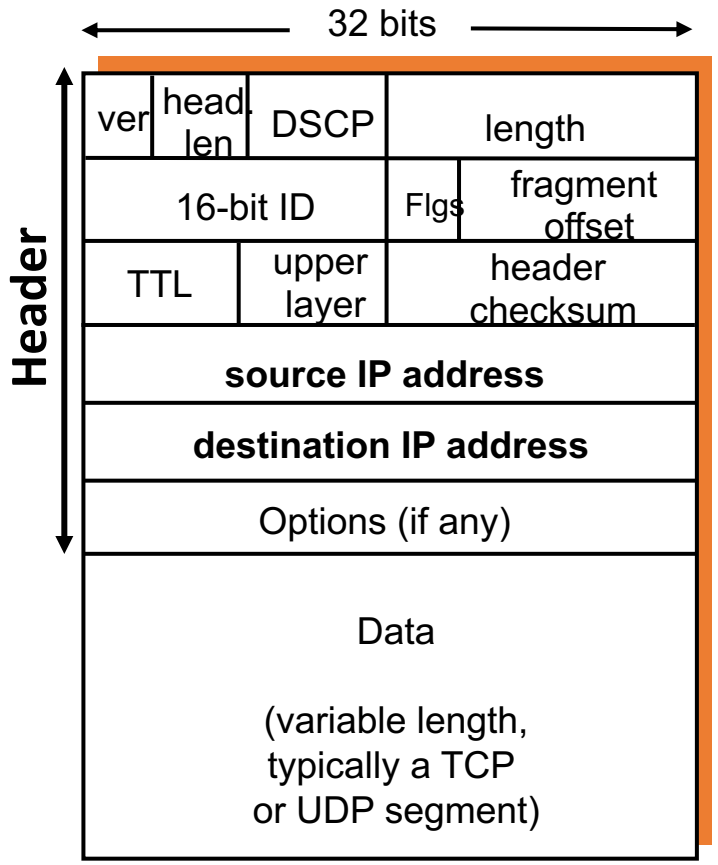
Length (16 bits): Packet length in bytes

16-bit ID: A long IP packet is fragmented into smaller packets. All those small packets carry the same 16-bit-ID.

3-bit flags:
<Not used, Don't frag., More frags. to follow>

Fragment offset x 2^3 : gives the position of the fragment in the original packet.

IP Packet Format



TTL: Time To Live
Max # of remaining hops.
TTL is decremented by 1 at each router.
TTL = 0 ➔ Router discards the packet

Upper layer: Upper layer protocol to deliver payload to (Ex.: TCP = 6 UDP=17)

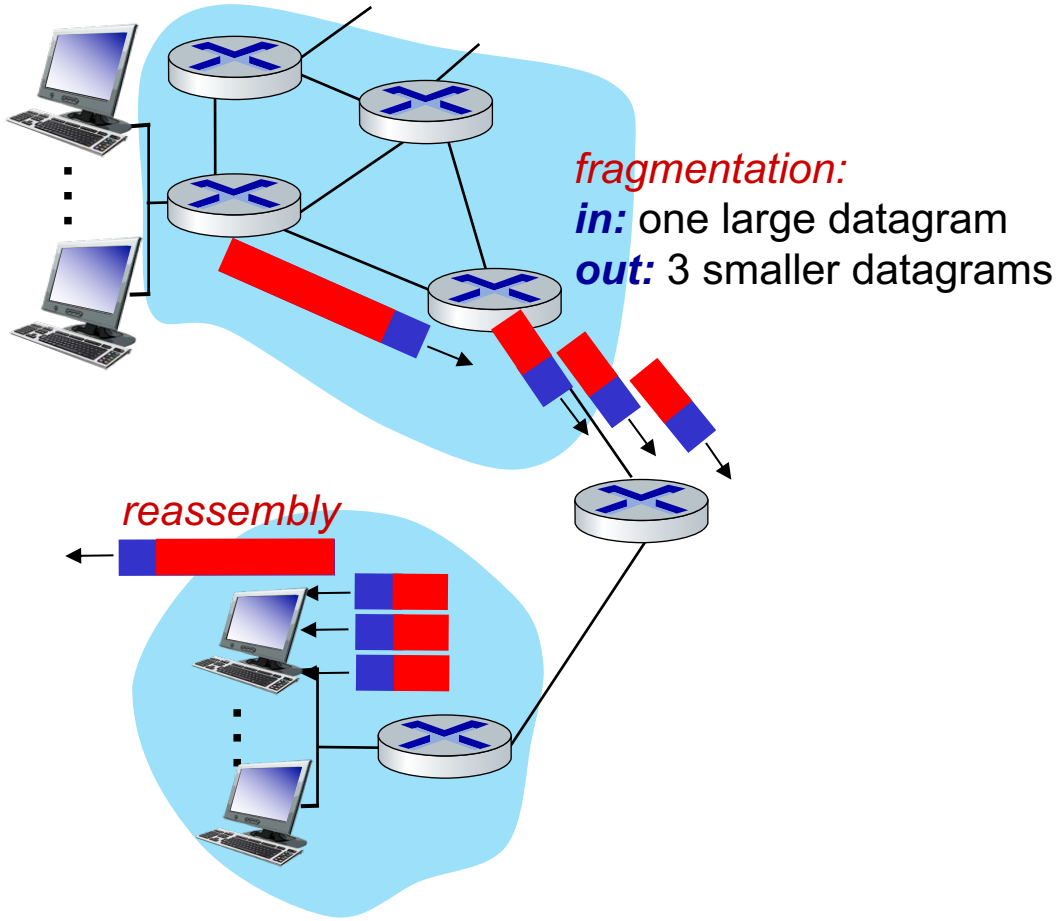
Header Checksum: to detect bit errors in packet header
(errors in "data" are ignored.)

Source IP address: 32-bit IP address of the node that (originally) created the packet.

Destination IP addresss: 32-bit IP address of the destination node of the packet.

IP fragmentation/reassembly

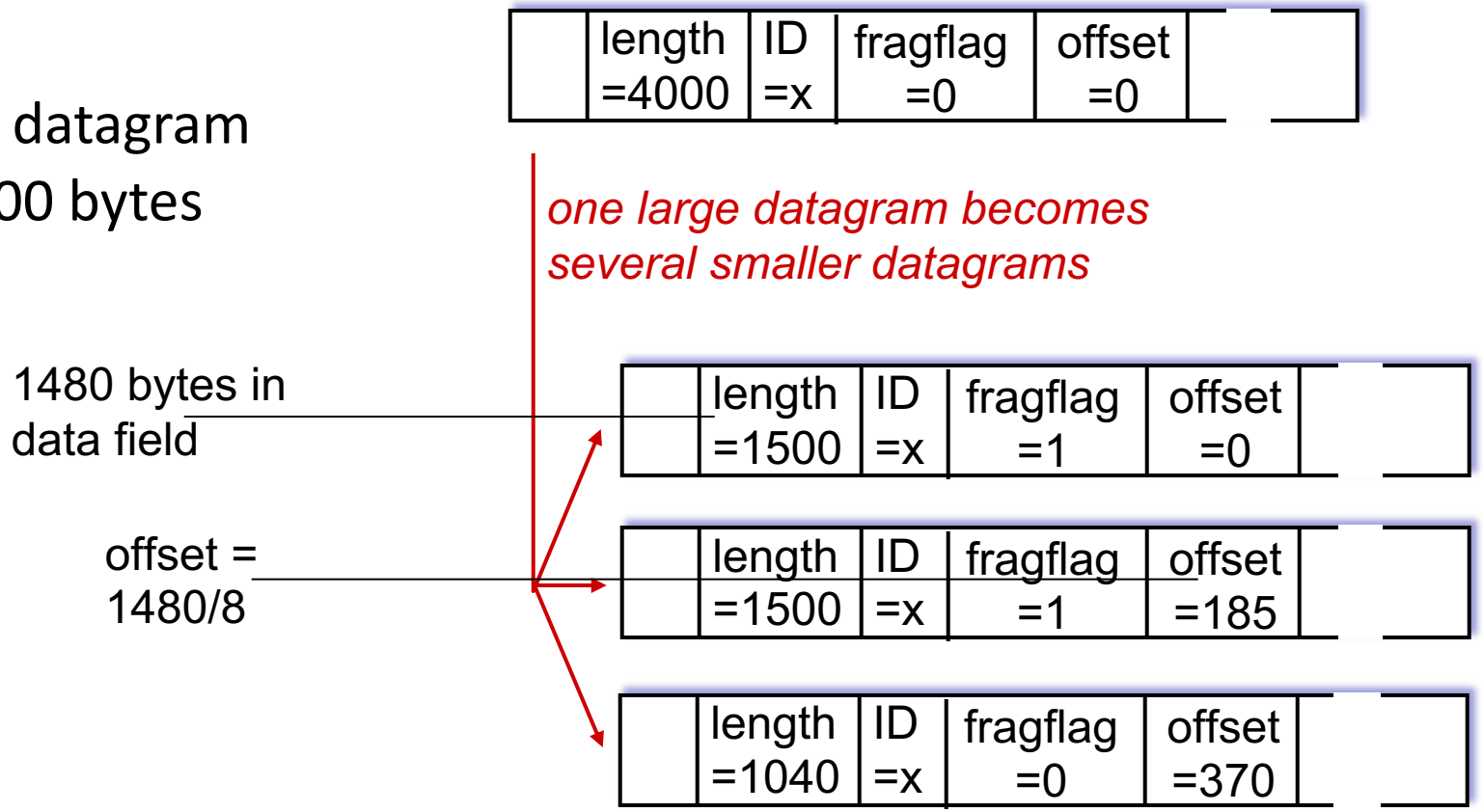
- network links have MTU (max. transfer size) - largest possible link-level frame
  - different link types, different MTUs
- large IP datagram divided ("fragmented") within net
  - one datagram becomes several datagrams
  - "reassembled" only at *destination*
  - IP header bits used to identify, order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



IP fragmentation/reassembly

example:

- 4000 byte datagram
- MTU = 1500 bytes



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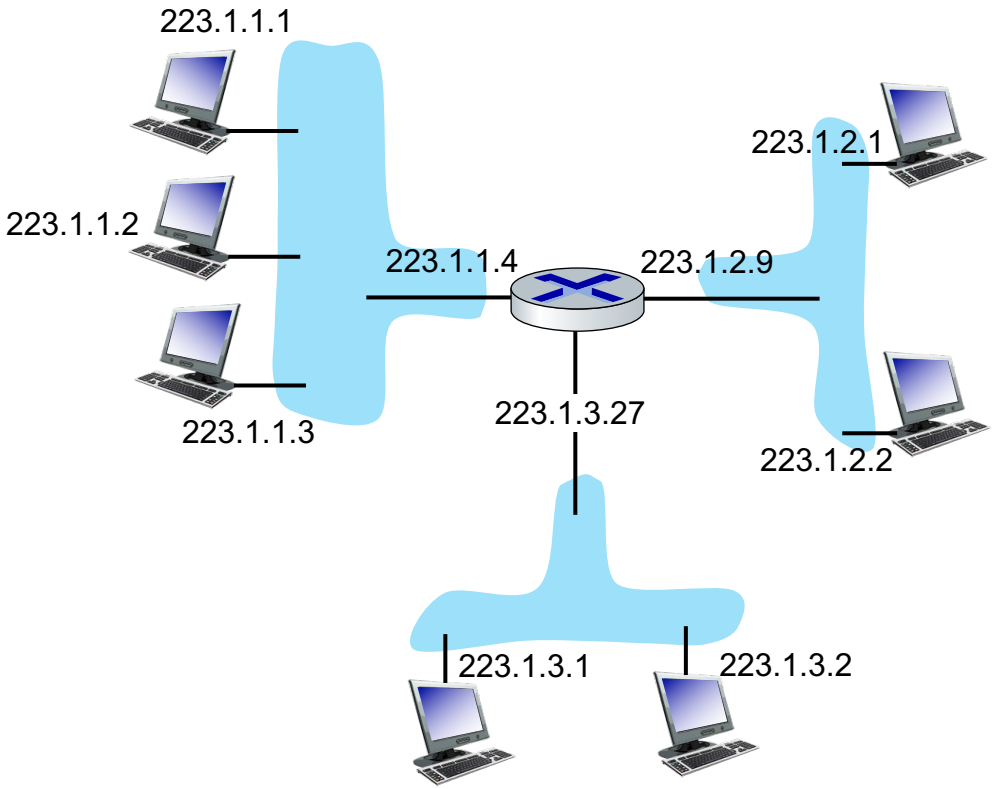
IP addressing: introduction

- IP address: 32-bit identifier associated with each host or router *interface*
- 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)



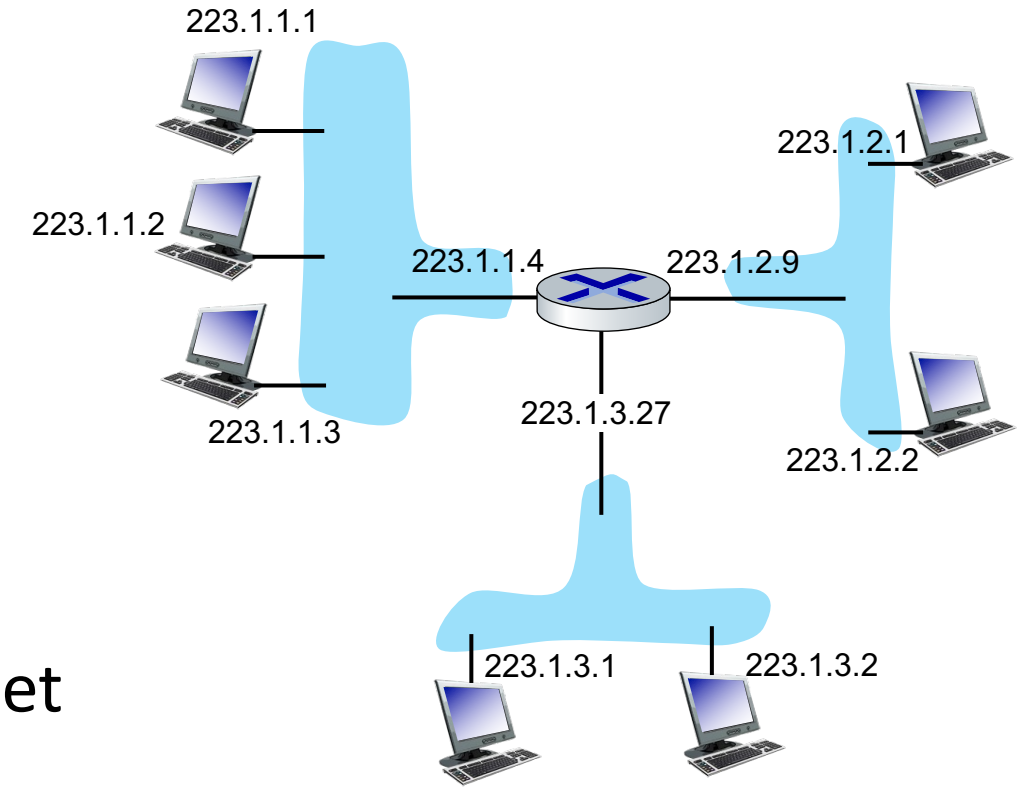
dotted-decimal IP address notation:

223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223 1 1 1

Subnets

- *What's a subnet ?*
  - device interfaces that can physically reach each other without passing through an intervening router
- IP addresses have structure:
  - subnet part: devices in same subnet have common high order bits
  - host part: remaining low order bits

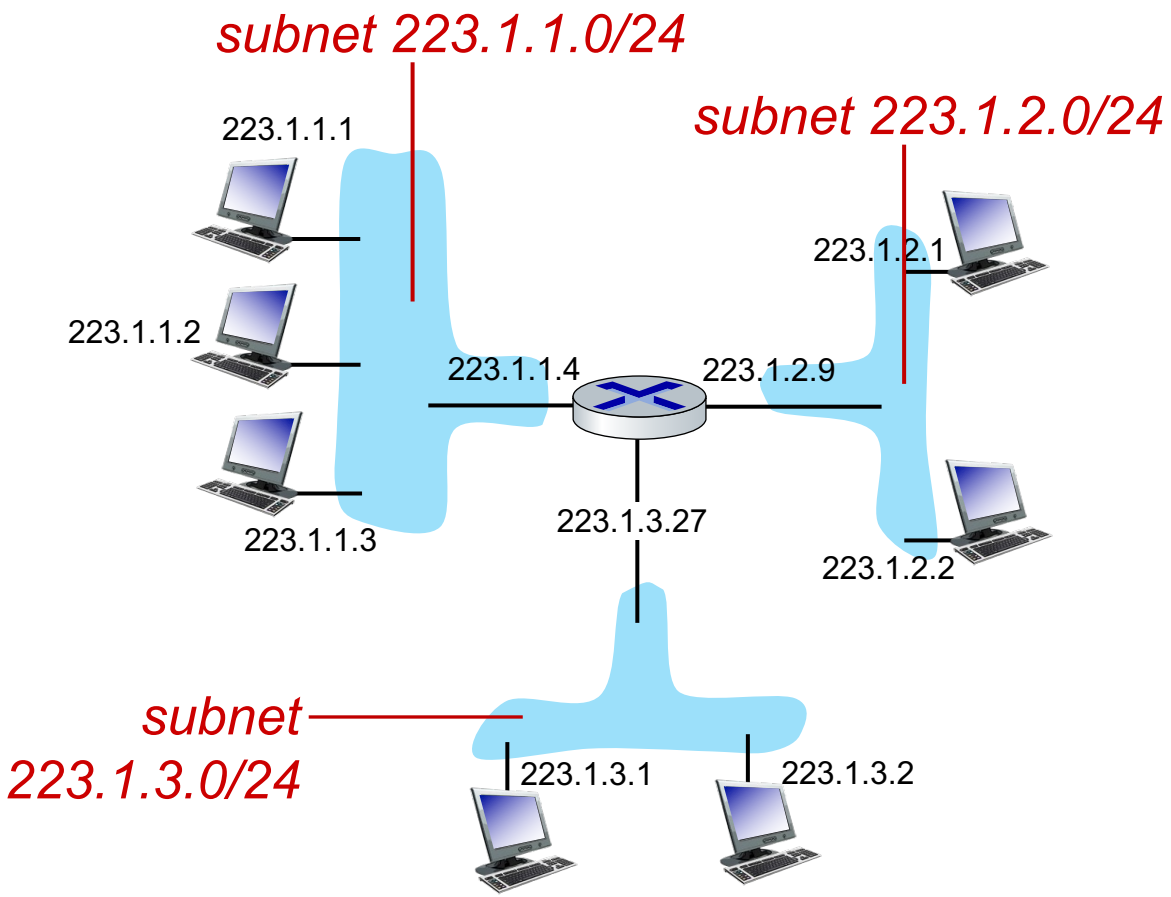


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

Recipe for defining subnets:

- detach each interface from its host or router, creating "islands" of isolated networks
- each isolated network is called a *subnet*

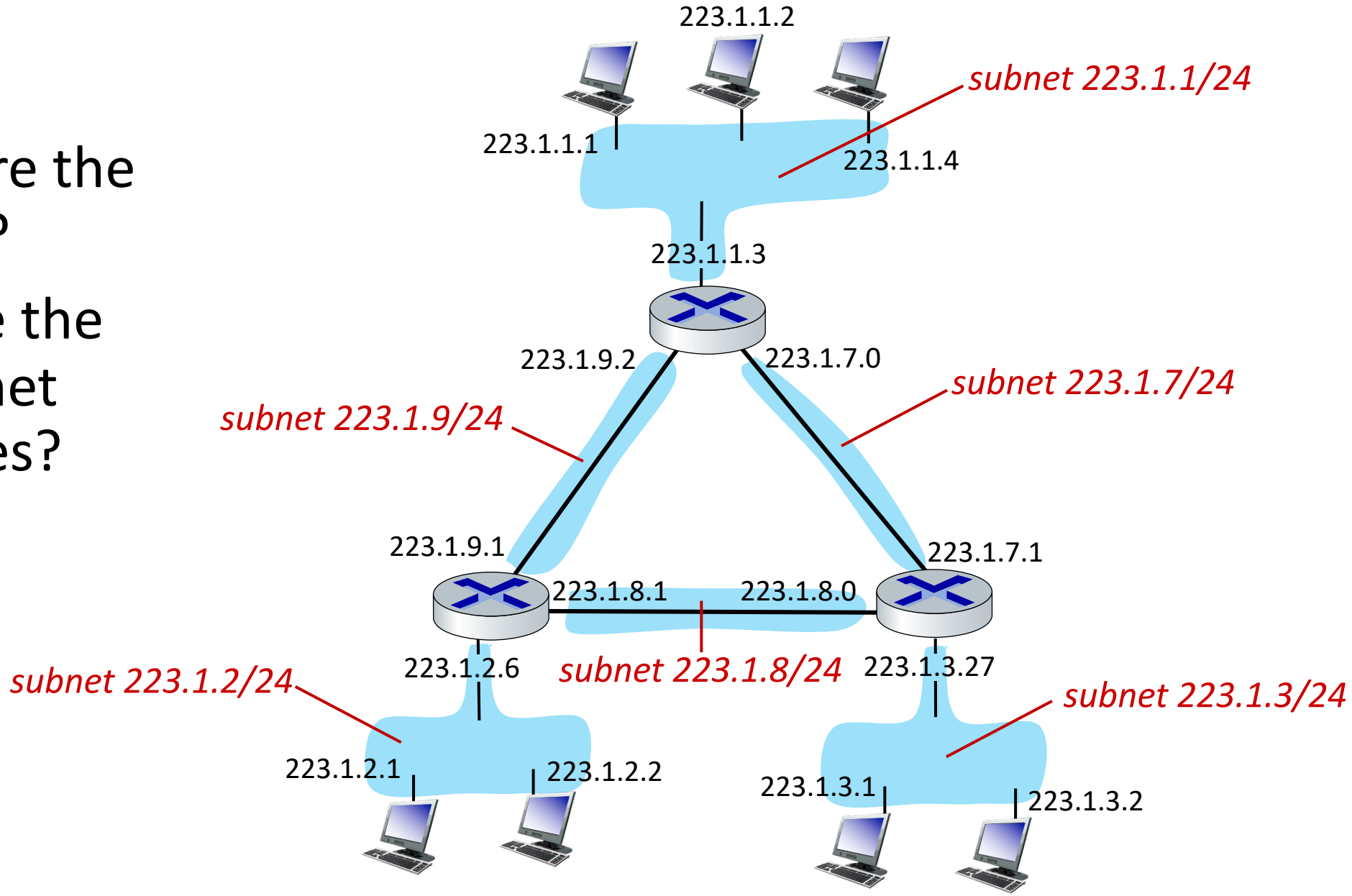


subnet mask: /24

(high-order 24 bits: subnet part of IP address)

Subnets

- where are the subnets?
- what are the /24 subnet addresses?



Classful addressing (1981—1993) vs. Classless addressing (1993 --)

Classful addressing is characterized by fixed length prefixes

Class A: Addr begins with 0 and it is of the form: Prefix . Host . Host . Host
(Prefix length is 8 bits)

Class B: Addr begins with 10 and it is of the form: Prefix. Prefix. Host. Host
(Prefix length is 16 bits)

Class C: Addr begins with 110 and it is of the form: Prefix . Prefix . Prefix . Host
(Prefix length is 24 bits)

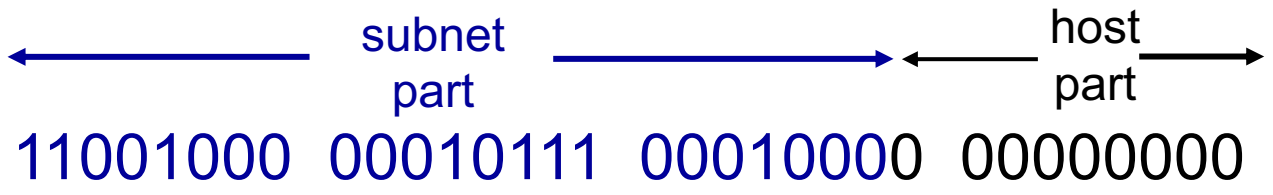
Class D: Addr begins with 1110
Class E: Addr begins with 11111

Drawback: Fixed number of networks and
fixed number of addresses per network.

IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing (pronounced “cider”)

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

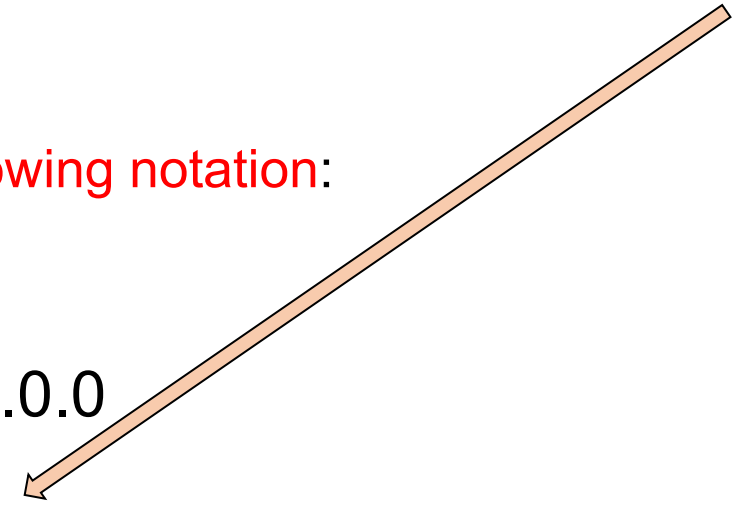


200.23.16.0/23

The concept of subnet/network prefix

For discussion purpose, we use the notation 129.97.0.0/16.

However, routers use the following notation:



Dest. Net. Address:129.97.0.0

Network Mask: 11111111.11111111.00000000.00000000

: 255.255.0.0

Destination Net. address: 129.97.0.0/ 255.255.0.0

Q.: Is it a valid mask? 255.255.64.0

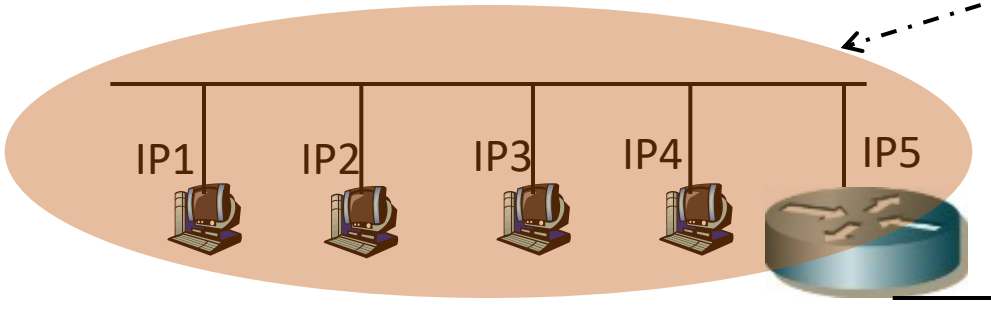
(11111111.11111111.01000000.00000000)

The concepts of network ID and broadcast address

- Network/subnet ID appears in routing tables.
  - Individual host IP addresses do NOT.

- Broadcast Address is used to perform IP-level broadcast.
  - You send an IP packet with a Broadcast Addr as the Destination, the IP packet is delivered to ALL the nodes on the network.

The concepts of network ID and broadcast address



The network has an ID called **Network ID**, expressed in the form of an IP address.

Also, the network has a **broadcast address**.

Consider the network 10.2.5.16/28

/28 = 11111111 . 11111111 . 11111111 . 11110000 = 255.255.255.240

The **FIRST** addr in the net 10.2.5.16/28 is	10.2.5.00010000 = 10.2.5.16	**Net ID**
The next addr in the net 10.2.5.16/28 is	10.2.5.00010001 = 10.2.5.17	**Assign to Router (con.)**
The next addr in the net 10.2.5.16/28 is	10.2.5.00010010 = 10.2.5.18	**Assign to hosts**
: : : : : :		
The next addr in the net 10.2.5.16/28 is	10.2.5.00011110 = 10.2.5.30	
The **LAST** addr in the net 10.2.5.16/28 is	10.2.5.00011111 = 10.2.5.31	**Broadcast addr**

Prob. Given an IP addr (10.2.64.128) and prefix length (17), find net. ID and b-cast addr.

Example on Subnetting:

- The IP block addresses 192.168.16.0/24 is assigned to a company. The company have four departments and we would like each department to have its own LAN as follows:
  - LAN A with 120 hosts
  - LAN B with 50 hosts
  - LAN C with 12 hosts
  - LAN D with 28 hosts
- Perform subnetting to give the Network ID and prefix of each LAN. As a network engineer you need to efficiently use the given IP addresses

IP addresses: how to get one?

That's actually two questions:

1. Q: How does a *host* get IP address within its network (host part of address)?
2. Q: How does a *network* get IP address for itself (network part of address)

How does *host* get IP address?

- hard-coded by sysadmin in config file (e.g., /etc/rc.config in UNIX)
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address from as server
  - "plug-and-play"

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

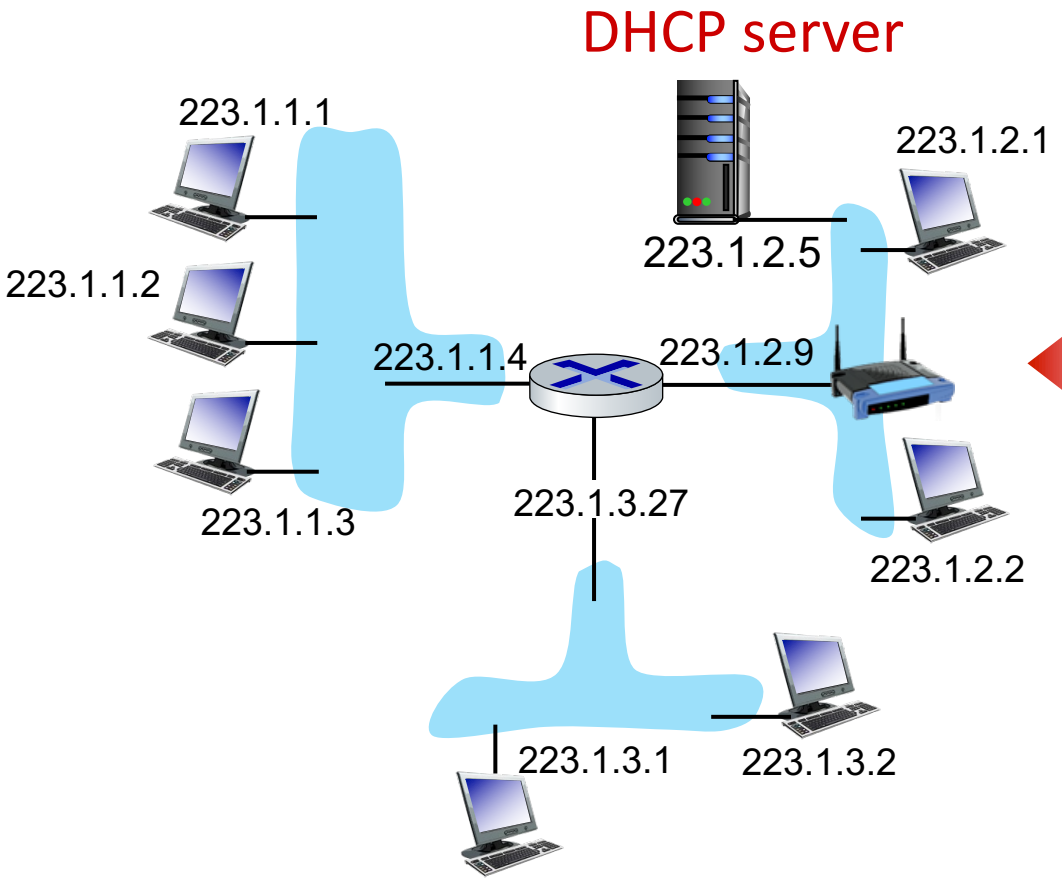
goal: host *dynamically* obtains IP address from network server when it "joins" network

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

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

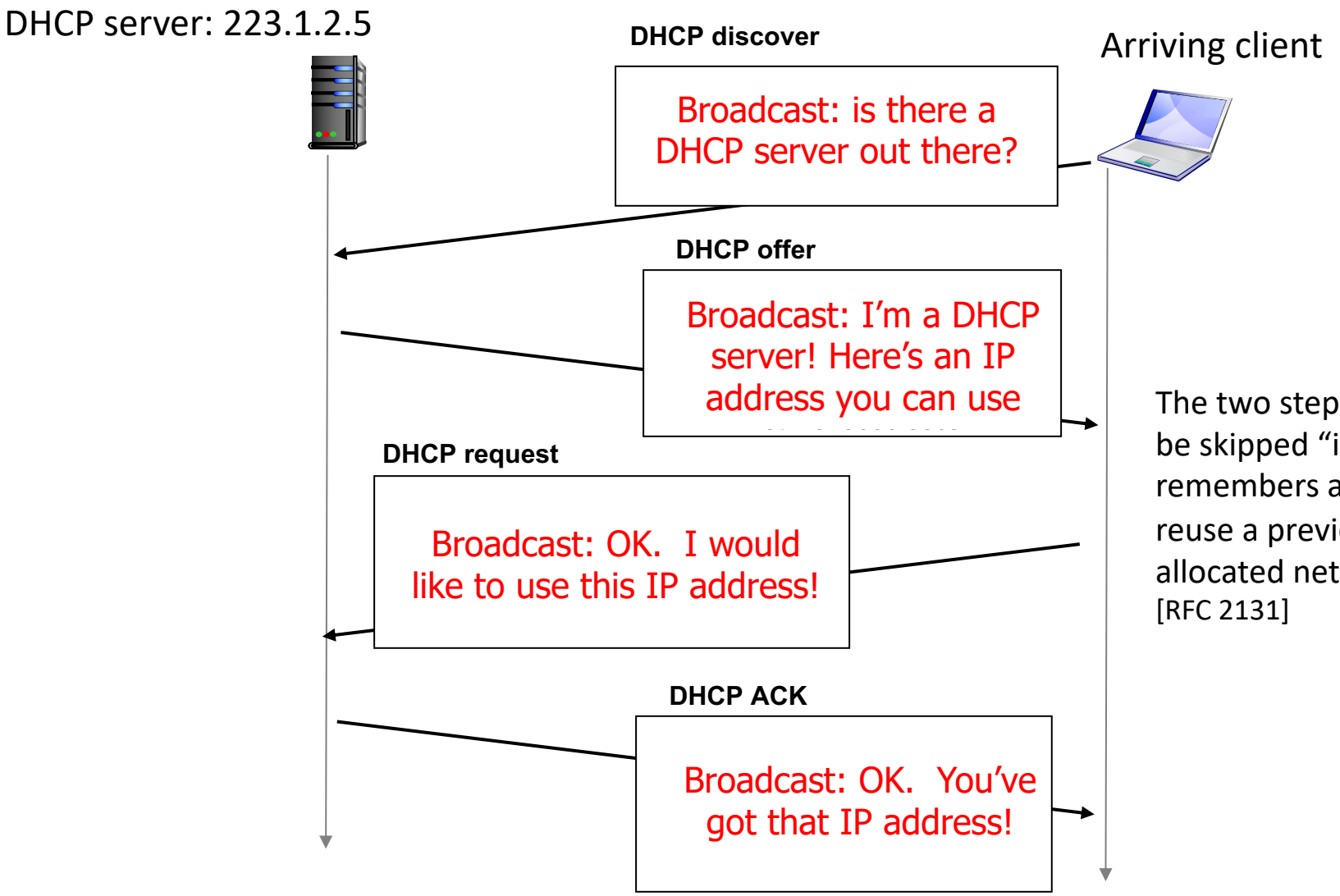
DHCP client-server scenario



Typically, DHCP server will be co-located in router, serving all subnets to which router is attached

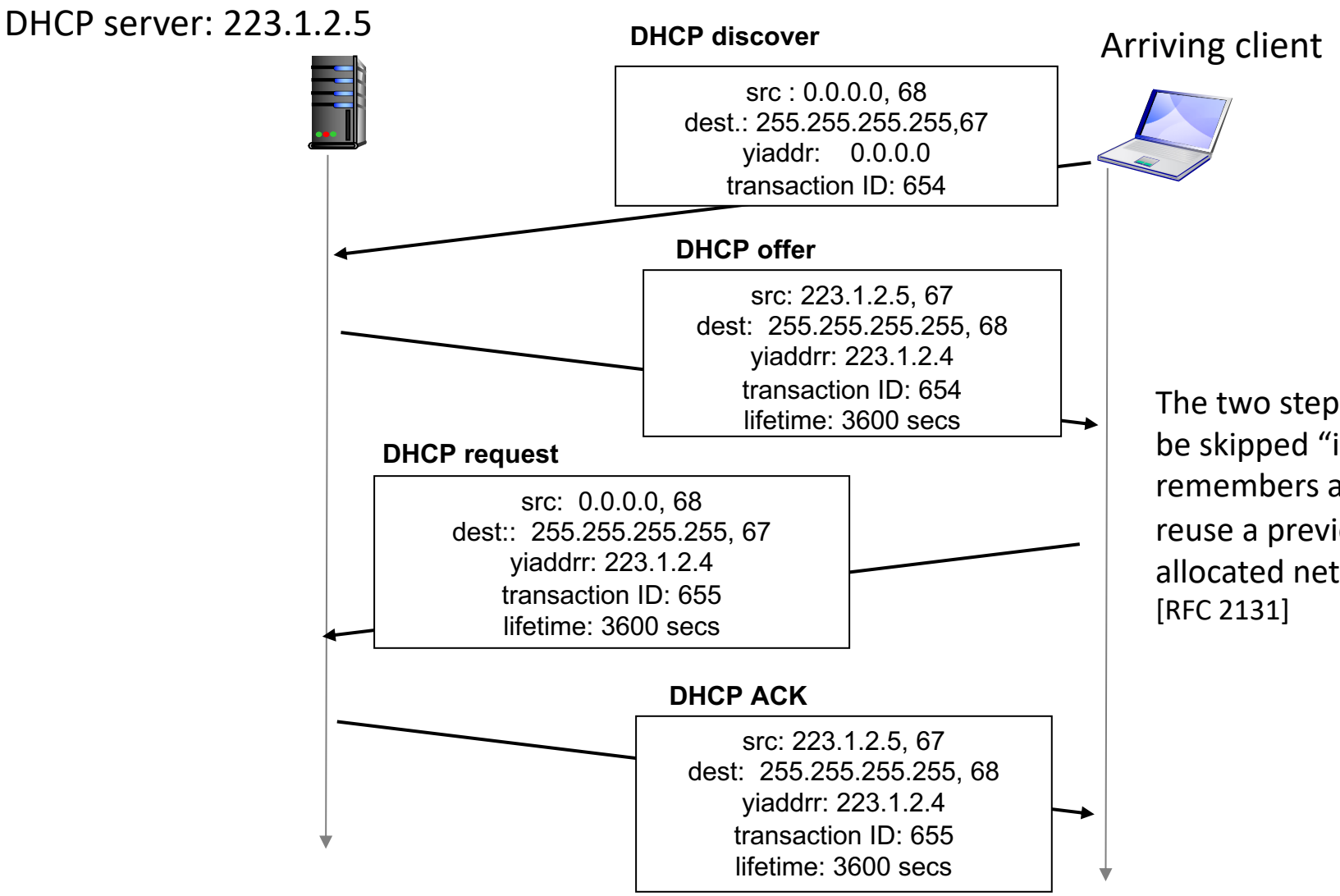
arriving DHCP client needs address in this network

DHCP client-server scenario



The two steps above can be skipped "if a client remembers and wishes to reuse a previously allocated network address" [RFC 2131]

DHCP client-server scenario



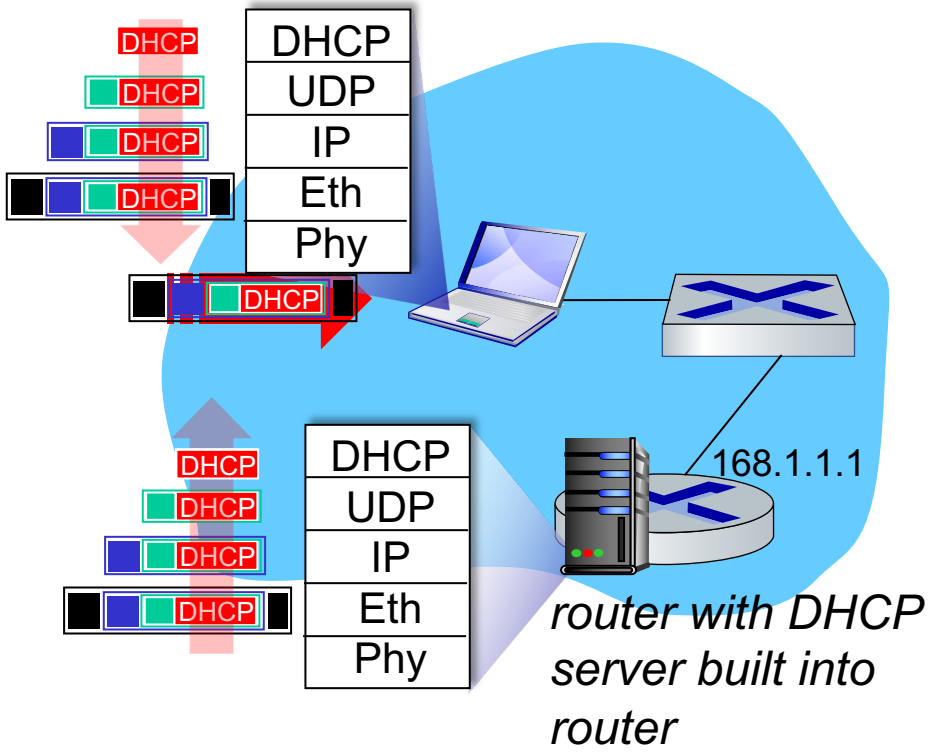
The two steps above can be skipped "if a client remembers and wishes to reuse a previously allocated network address" [RFC 2131]

DHCP: more than IP addresses

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

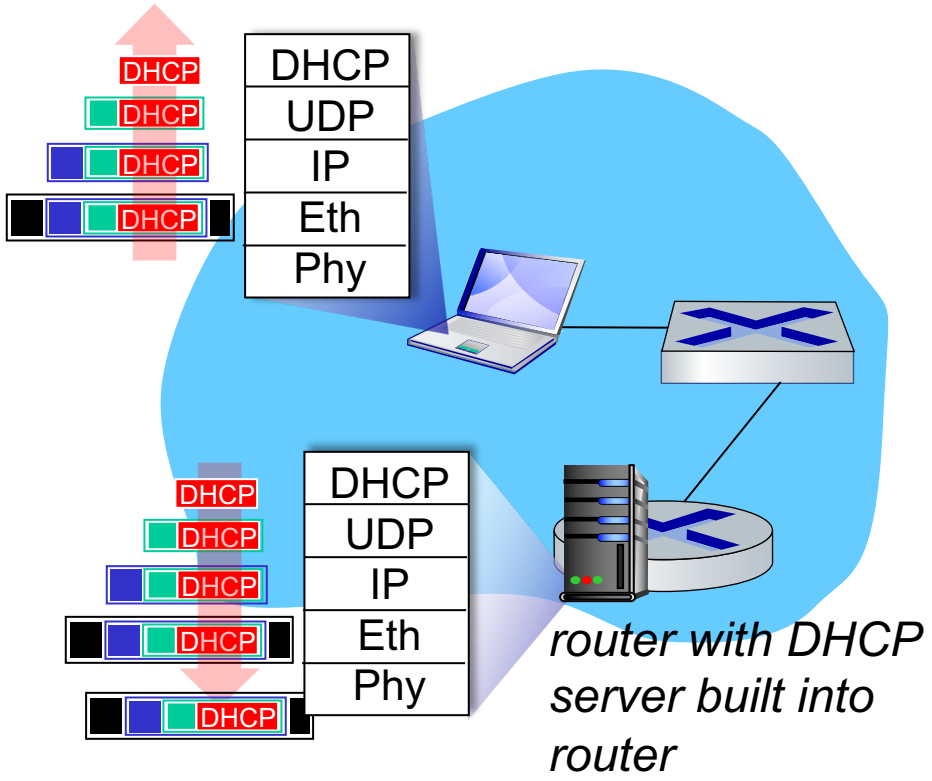
- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

DHCP: example



- Connecting laptop will use DHCP to get IP address, address of first-hop router, address of DNS server.
- DHCP REQUEST message encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demux'ed to IP demux'ed, UDP demux'ed 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
- encapsulated DHCP server reply 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 addressing: last words ...

Q: how does an ISP get block of addresses?

A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers http://www.icann.org/

- allocates IP addresses, through 5 regional registries (RRs) (who may then allocate to local registries)
- manages DNS root zone, including delegation of individual TLD (.com, .edu , …) management

Q: are there enough 32-bit IP addresses?

- ICANN allocated last chunk of IPv4 addresses to RRs in 2011
- NAT (next) helps IPv4 address space exhaustion
- IPv6 has 128-bit address space

Network layer: roadmap

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Packet forwarding

Packet forwarding is the relaying of **packets** from one physical interface to another by routers on the Internet.

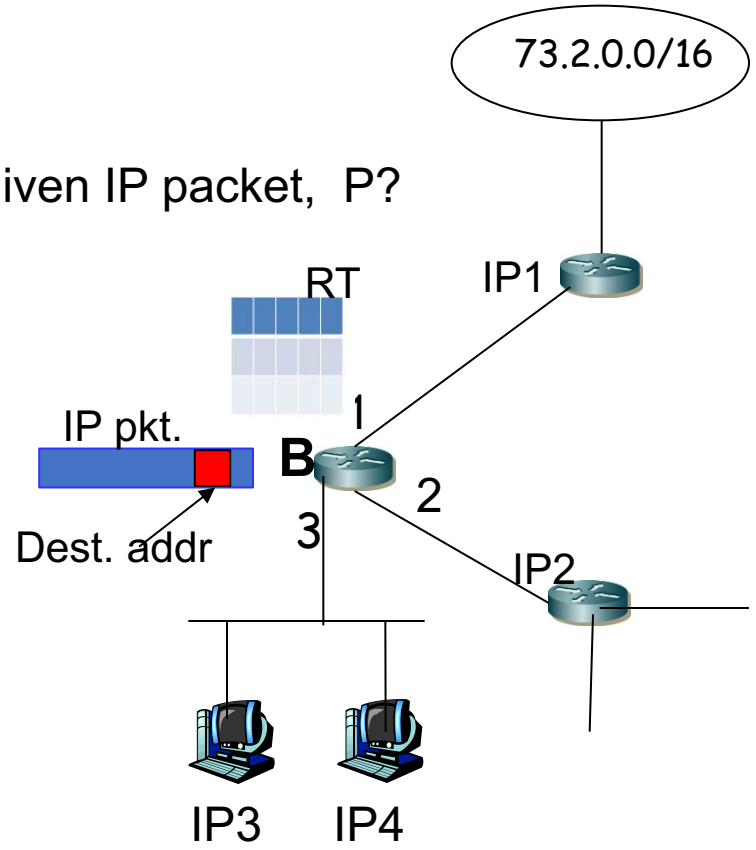
Q. How does a router (R) choose the next hop for a given IP packet, P?

A.: Next hop = f(Dest. addr in P, Routing Table in R)

Note: The function f() will be explained soon.

This is called table-driven routing.

Other forwarding techniques:
-- (Ex.) Source routing
The source host finds the path and puts it in the header, and sends the packet to the next router identified in the path.
The "next" router looks at the path in the pkt to further forward the pkt ….

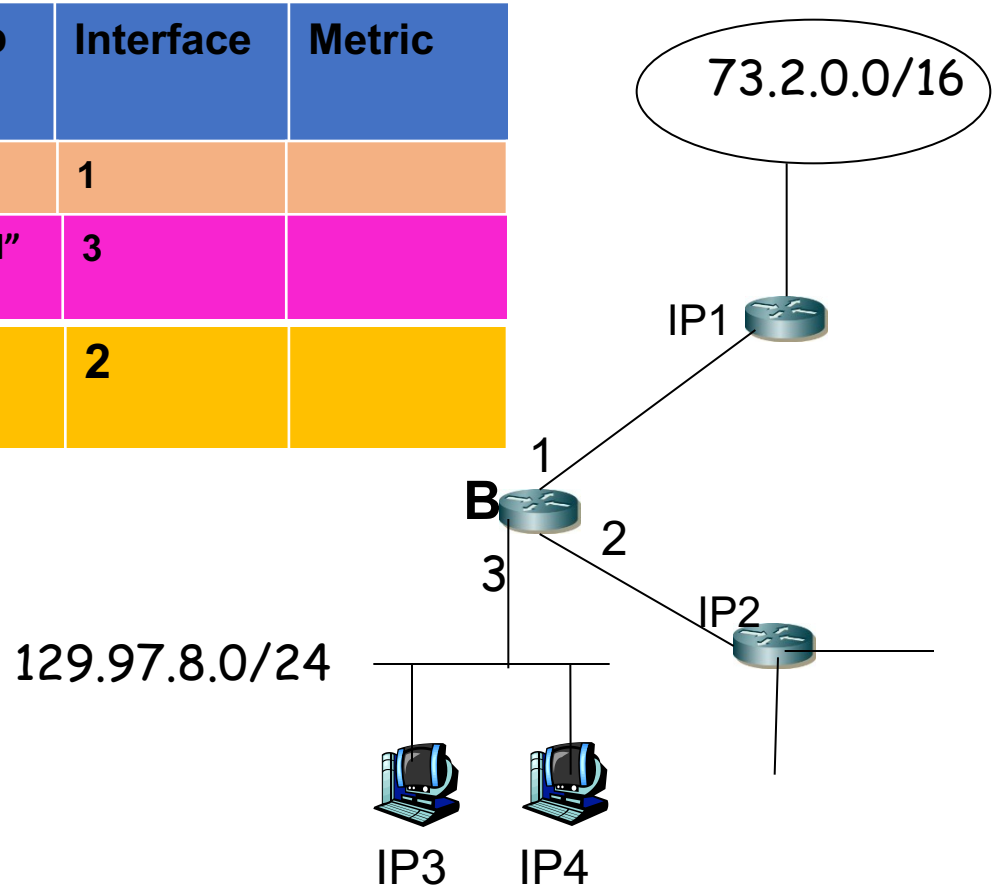


Simple **structure** of a routing table (at **B**): Example

	Dest. Address	Mask	Next hop	Interface	Metric
*	73.2.0.0	255.255.0.0	IP1	1	
	129.97.8.0	255.255.255.0	"connected"	3	
	0.0.0.0	0.0.0.0	IP2	2	

Default entry (configure it)

A network connected to the router (configure it)



* **Learn** this entry by running routing protocols.

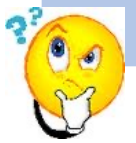
How does a router choose the next hop for a packet….

Address	Mask	Next hop	Interface	Metric
x.y.z.w	a.b.c.d	IPn	I	m

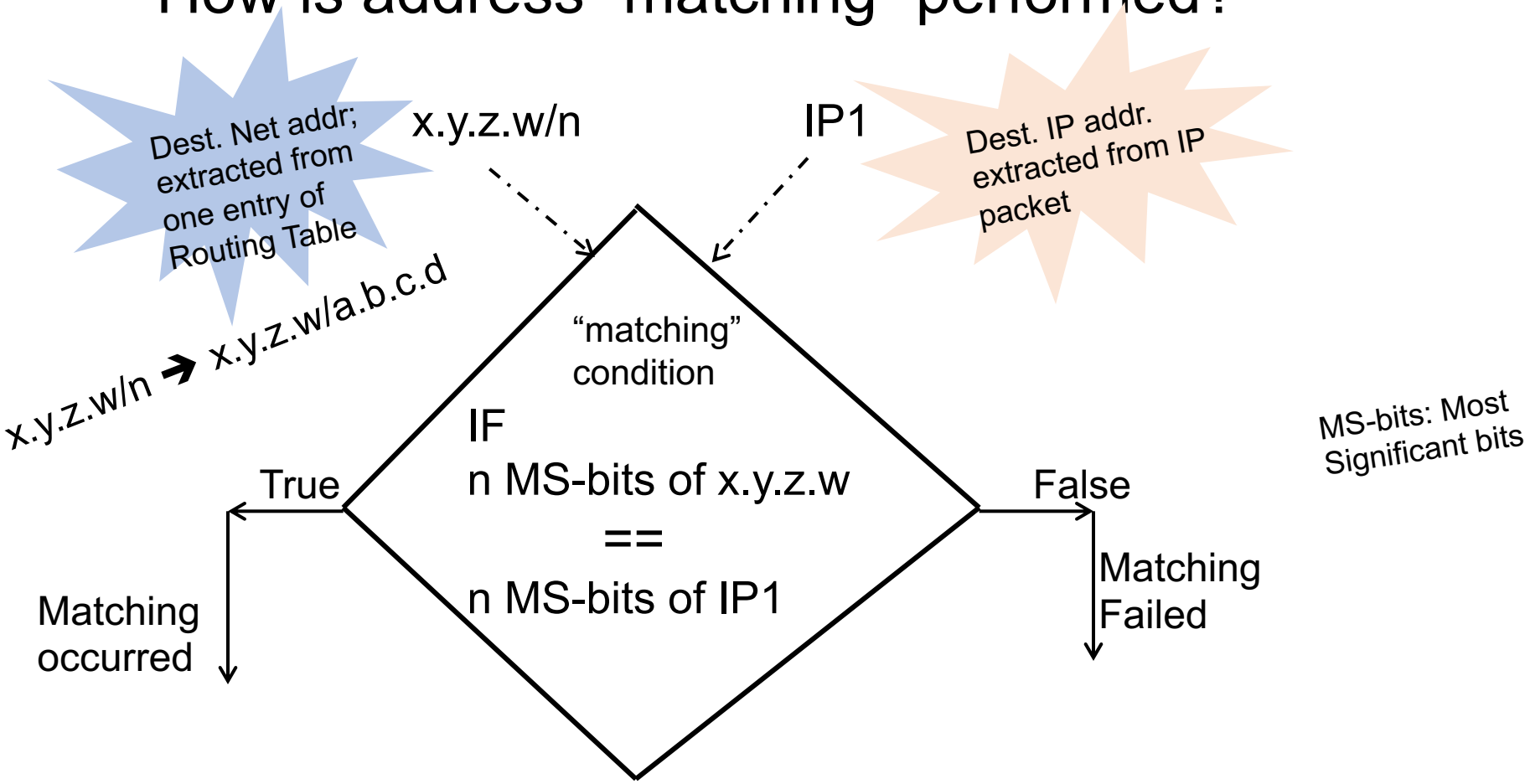
Routing Table of A

Next hop?

If dest. addr (IP1) "matches" with an entry in the RT, choose interface I.



How is address "matching" performed?



If ((x.y.z.w **AND** a.b.c.d) == (IP1 **AND** a.b.c.d)), **matching occurs**

Matching and forwarding algorithm

Inputs: IP address from packet header (call it IP1)

Routing Table (call it RT)

Processing:

```
if (matching occurs between IP1 and RT), {
        - find the matching entry with the longest prefix
        - forward the packet via the appropriate interface
}
else if (default entry exists in RT) { // default: 0.0.0.0/0
        forward the packet via the appropriate interface
}

else {
        send error message (ICMP message) to the source
        of the IP packet
}
```

ICMP: Internet Control Message Protocol

Longest prefix matching

longest prefix match

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** ********	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 ********	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** ********	2
otherwise	3

examples:

11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001 which interface?

11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 which interface?

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IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: how does *network* get subnet part of IP address?

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

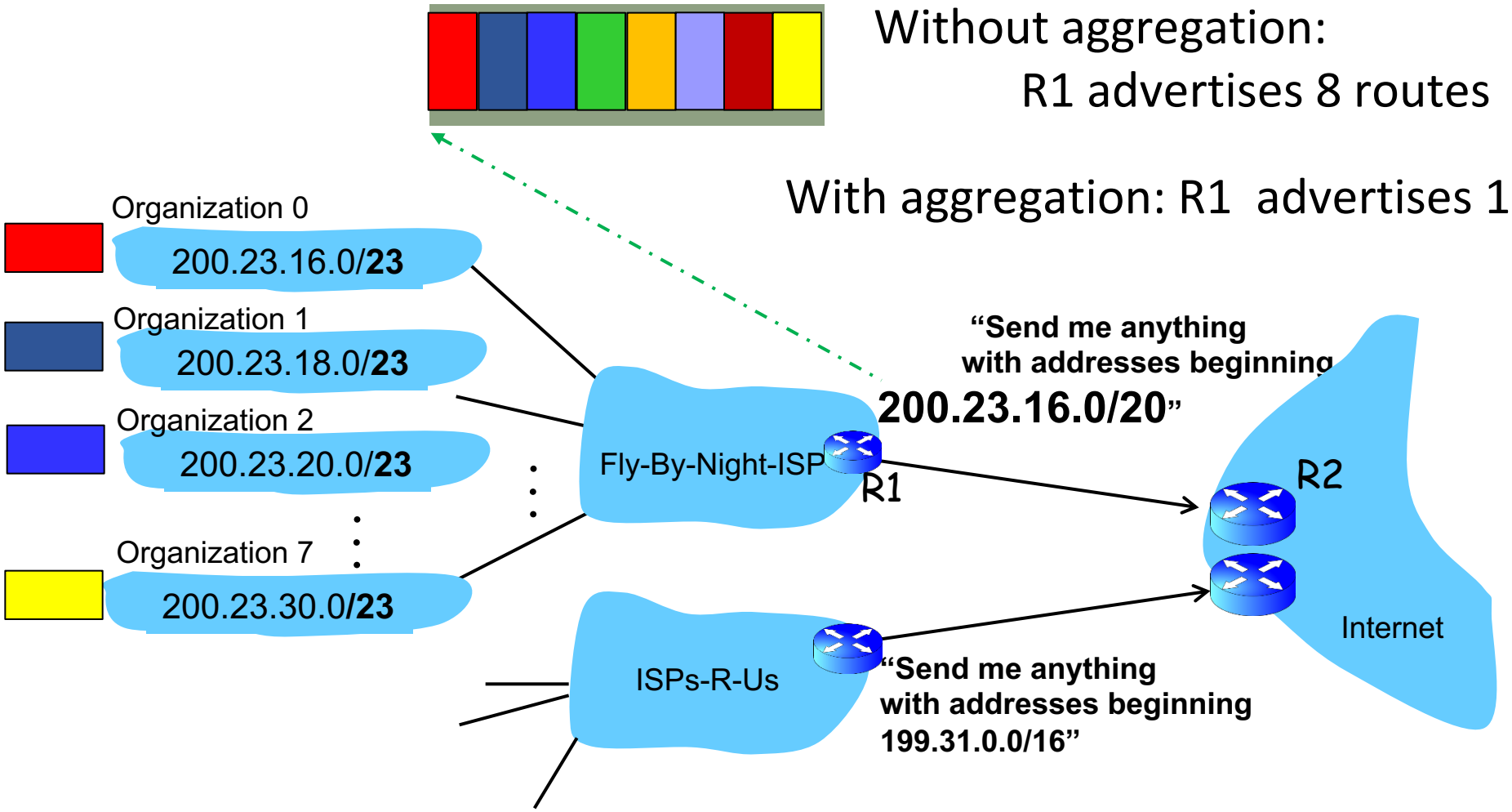
ISP's block	11001000 00010111 00010000	00000000	200.23.16.0/20

ISP can then allocate out its address space in 8 blocks:

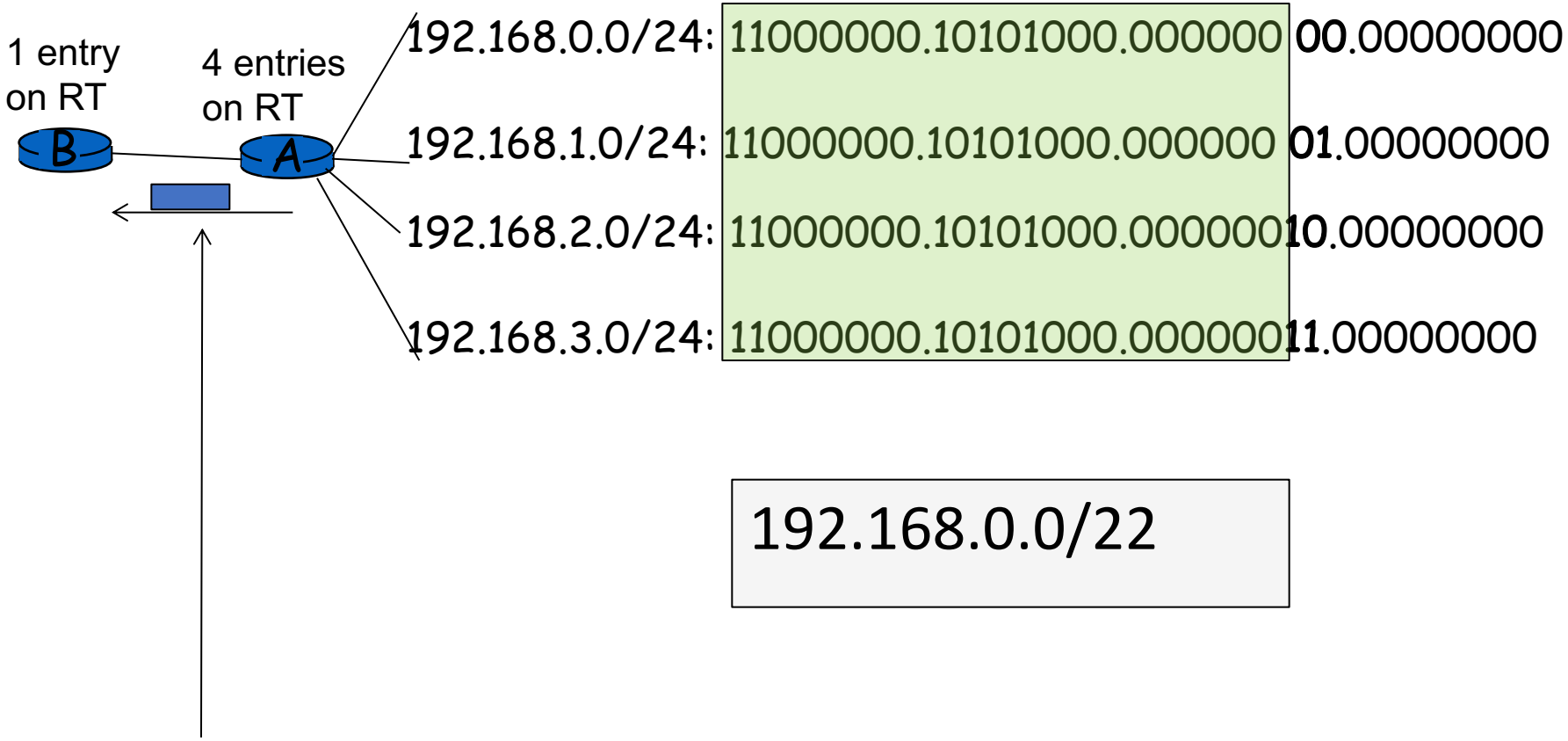
Organization 0	11001000 00010111 00010000	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	11001000 00010111 00010010	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	11001000 00010111 00010100	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
…	……	….	….
Organization 7	11001000 00010111 00011110	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

Hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:

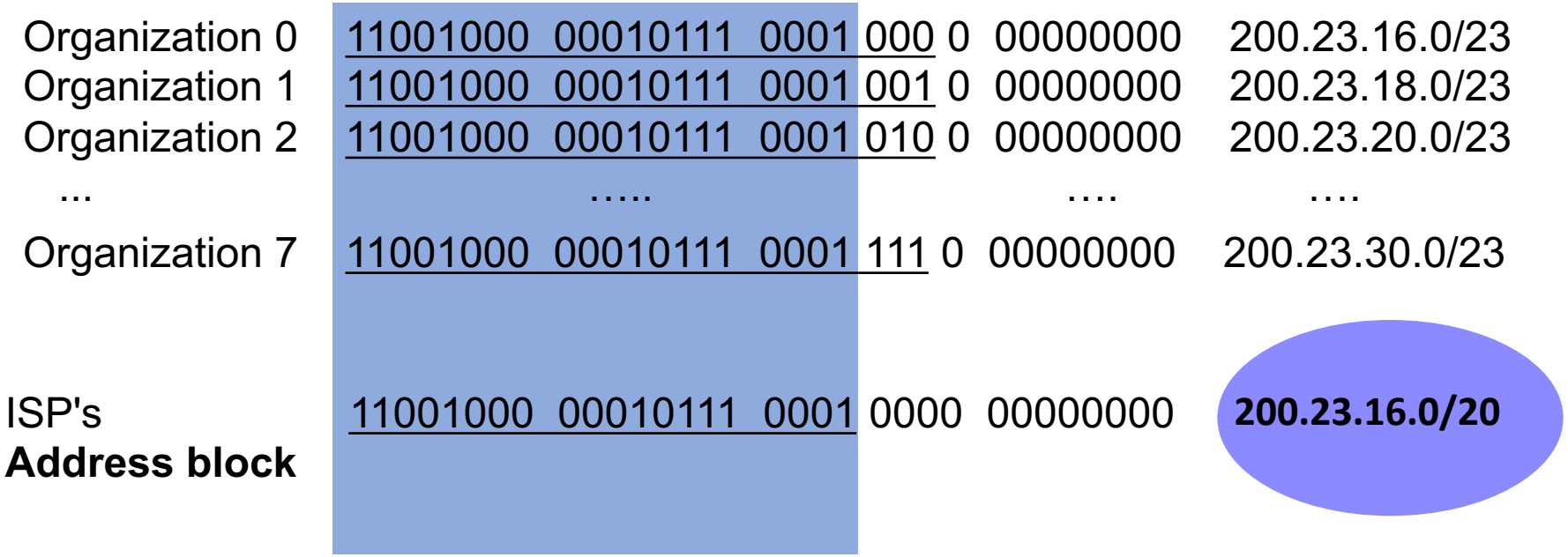


Address Aggregation (a.k.a. supernetting)



Address aggregation

(Cisco: Summary address)



Summary address

Possible Final Q.: Given a few IP address blocks, find their summary address.

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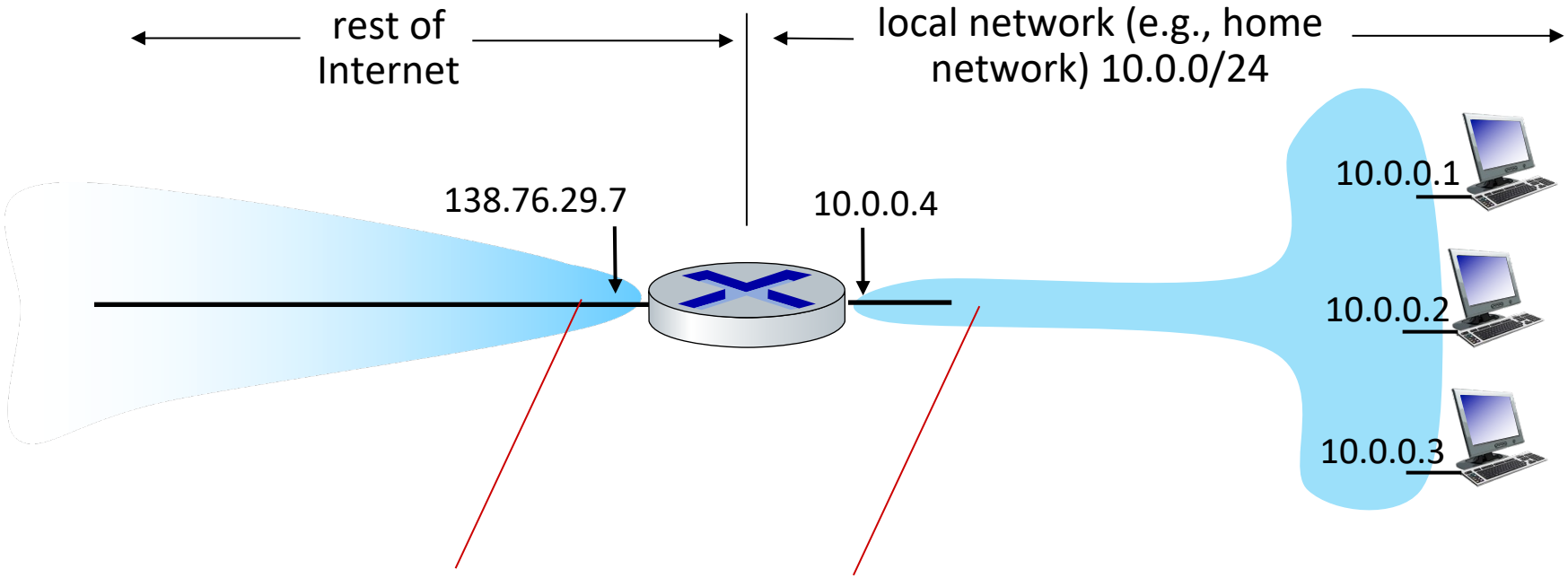
NAT: network address translation

NAT: all devices in local network share just one IPv4 address as far as outside world is concerned



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, but *different* source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

NAT: network address translation

- all devices in local network have 32-bit addresses in a “private” IP address space (10/8, 172.16/12, 192.168/16 prefixes) that can only be used in local network
- advantages:
  - just one IP address needed from provider ISP for *all* devices
  - can change addresses of host in local network without notifying outside world
  - can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
  - security: devices inside local net not directly addressable, visible by outside world

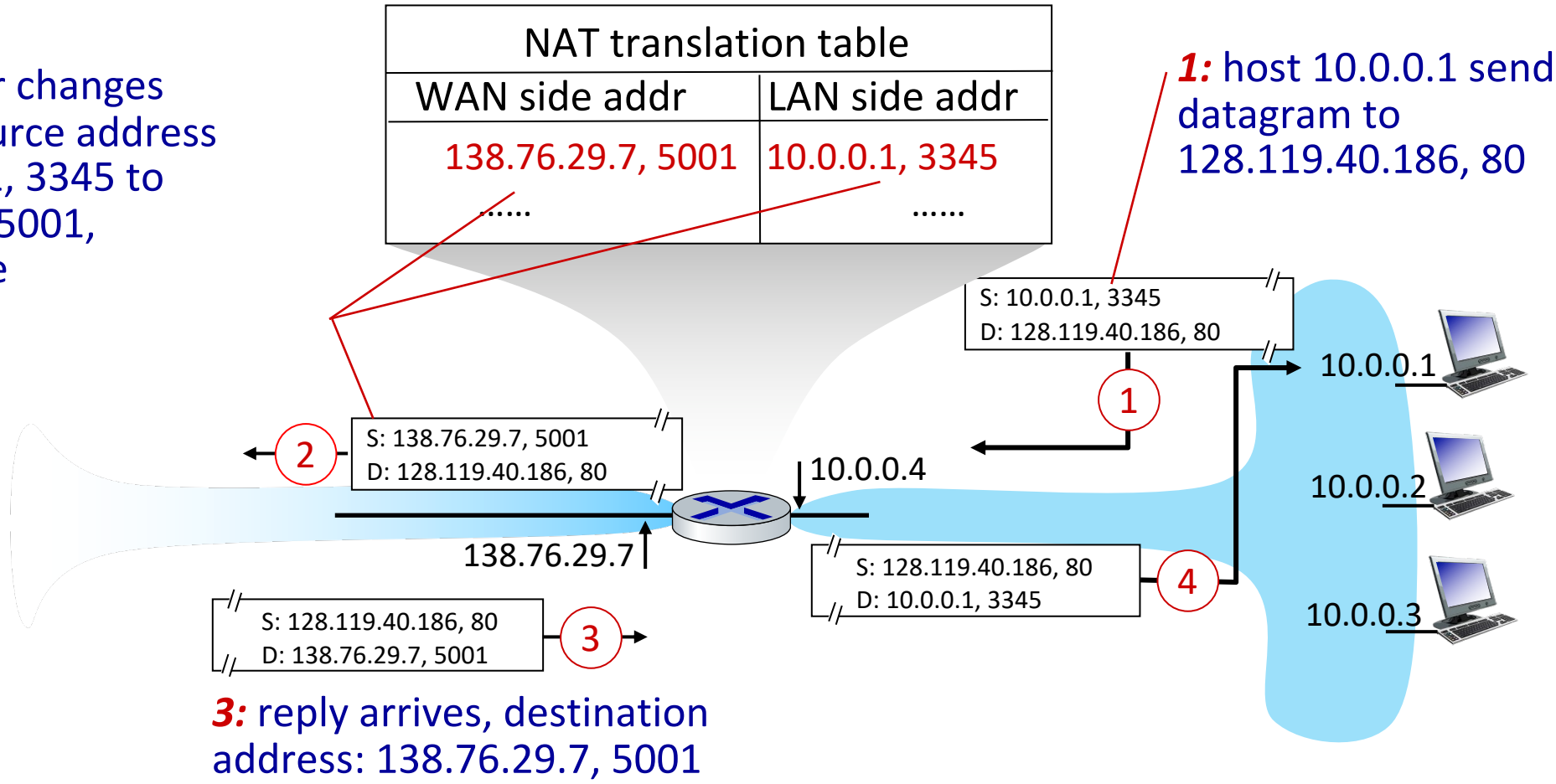
NAT: network address translation

implementation: NAT router must (transparently):

- 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 address
- 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 destination fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT: network address translation

2: NAT router changes datagram source address from 10.0.0.1, 3345 to 138.76.29.7, 5001, updates table



3: reply arrives, destination address: 138.76.29.7, 5001

NAT: network address translation

- NAT has been controversial:
  - routers “should” only process up to layer 3
  - address “shortage” should be solved by IPv6
  - violates end-to-end argument (port # manipulation by network-layer device)
  - NAT traversal: what if client wants to connect to server behind NAT?
- but NAT is here to stay:
  - extensively used in home and institutional nets, 4G/5G cellular nets

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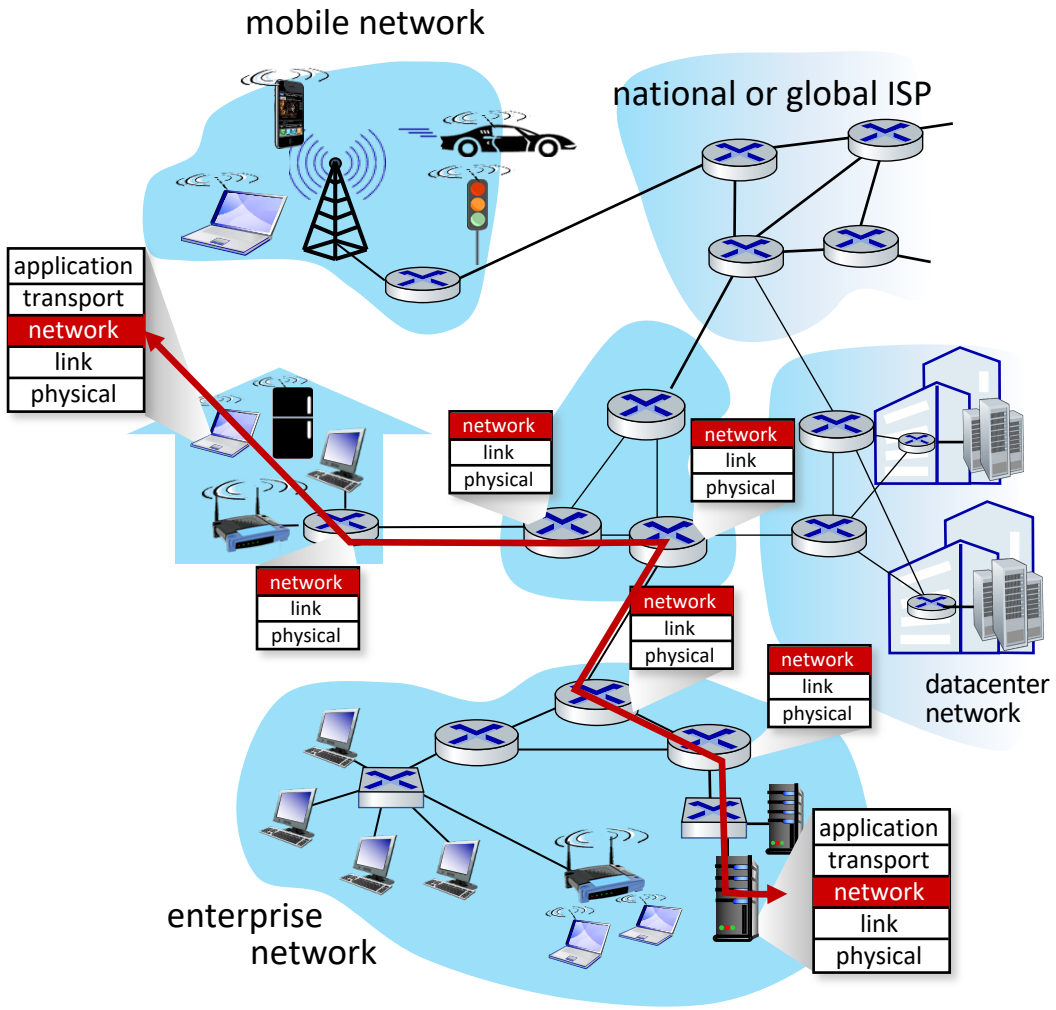
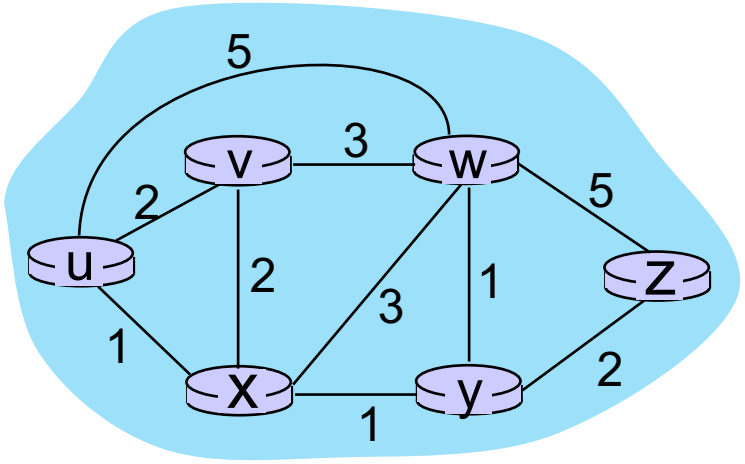
Routing protocols

Routing protocol goal: determine "good" paths (equivalently, routes), from sending hosts to receiving host, through network of routers

- path: sequence of routers packets traverse from given initial source host to final destination host
- "good": least "cost", "fastest", "least congested"
- routing: a "top-10" networking challenge!



Graph abstraction: link costs



$c_{a,b}$: cost of *direct* link connecting *a* and *b*

e.g., $c_{w,z} = 5$, $c_{u,z} = \infty$

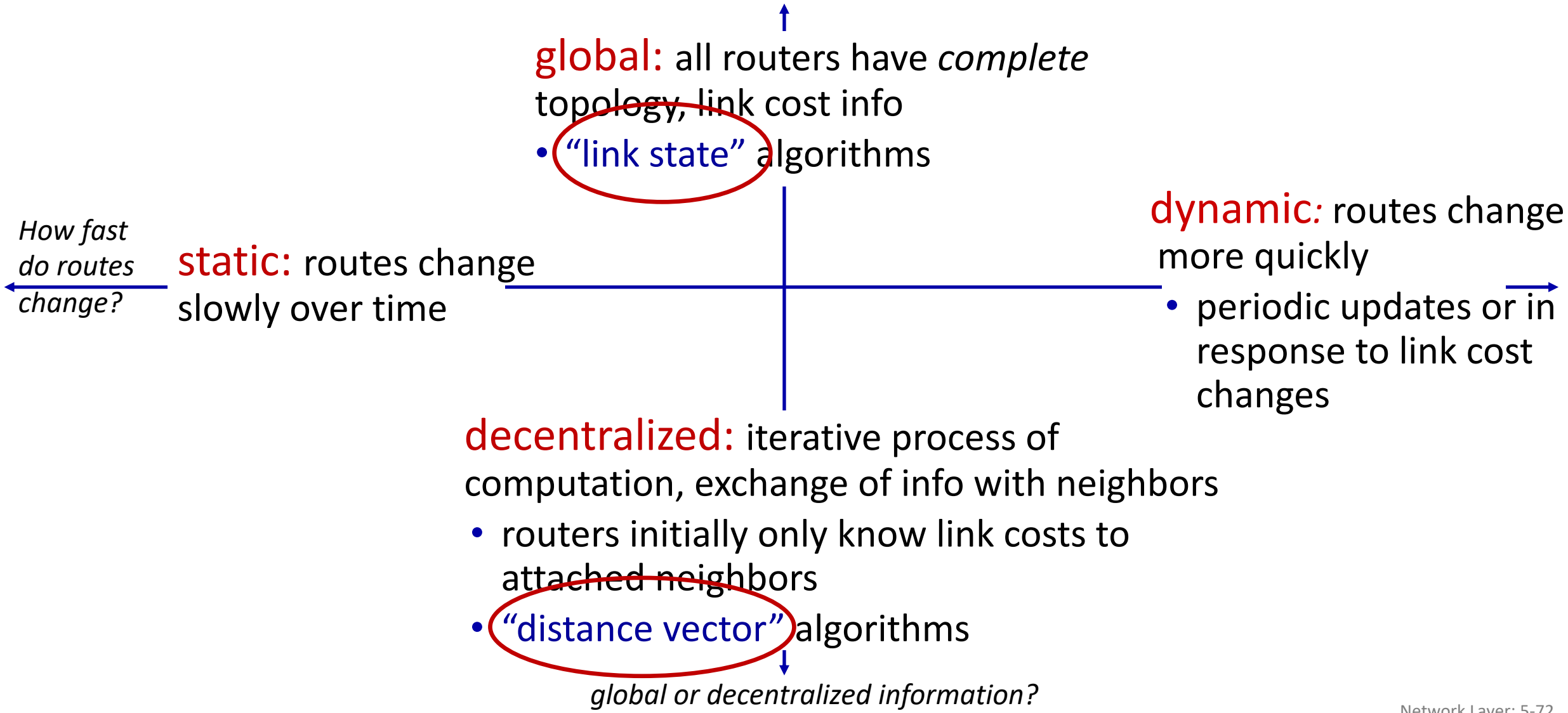
cost defined by network operator: could always be 1, or inversely related to bandwidth, or inversely related to congestion

graph: *G = (N,E)*

N: set of routers = { *u, v, w, x, y, z* }

E: set of links ={ *(u,v), (u,x), (v,x), (v,w), (x,w), (x,y), (w,y), (w,z), (y,z)* }

Routing algorithm classification



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Dijkstra's link-state routing algorithm

- centralized: network 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* destinations

notation

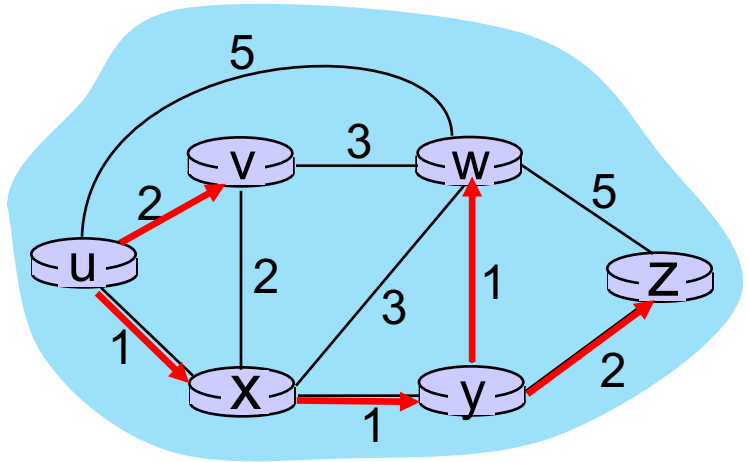
- $c_{x,y}$: direct link cost from node *x* to *y*; = ∞ if not direct neighbors
- *D(v): current* estimate of cost of least-cost-path from source to destination *v*
- *p(v):* predecessor node along path from source to *v*
- *N':* set of nodes whose least-cost-path *definitively* known

Dijkstra's link-state routing algorithm

```
1  Initialization:
2    N' = {u}                    /* compute least cost path from u to all other nodes */
3    for all nodes v
4      if v adjacent to u        /* u initially knows direct-path-cost only to  direct neighbors  */
5        then D(v) = c_u,v       /* but may not be minimum cost!                                  */
6      else D(v) = ∞
7
8  Loop
9      find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
10     add w to N'
11     update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N' :
12         D(v) = min ( D(v),  D(w) + c_w,v )
13     /* new least-path-cost to v is either old least-cost-path to v or known
14     least-cost-path to w plus direct-cost from w to v */
15 until all nodes in N'
```

Dijkstra's algorithm: an example

Step	N'	D(v),p(v)	D(w),p(w)	D(x),p(x)	D(y),p(y)	D(z),p(z)
0	u	2,u	5,u	1,u	∞	∞
1	ux	2,u	4,x		2,x	∞
2	uxy	2,u	3,y			4,y
3	uxyv		3,y			4,y
4	uxyvw					4,y
5	uxyvwz					

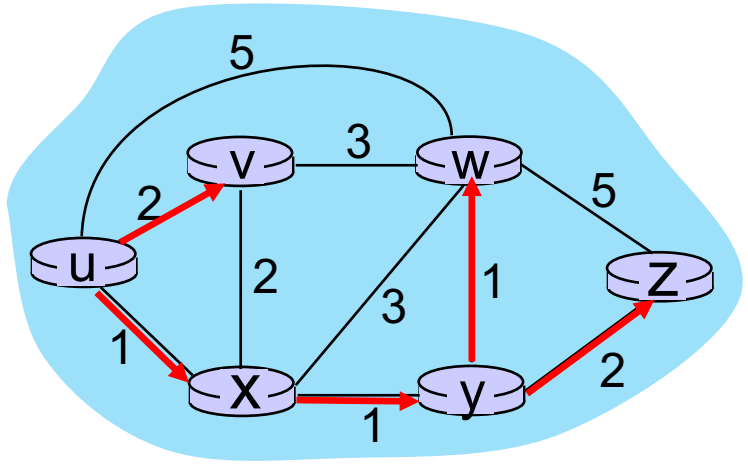


Initialization (step 0): For all a: if *a* adjacent to then $D(a) = c_{u,a}$

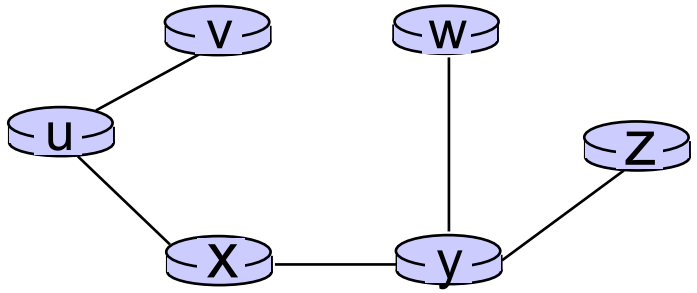
find *a* not in *N'* such that *D(a)* is a minimum
add *a* to *N'*
update *D(b)* for all *b* adjacent to *a* and not in *N'* :

$$D(b) = \min (D(b), D(a) + c_{a,b})$$

Dijkstra's algorithm: an example



resulting least-cost-path tree from u:



resulting forwarding table in u:

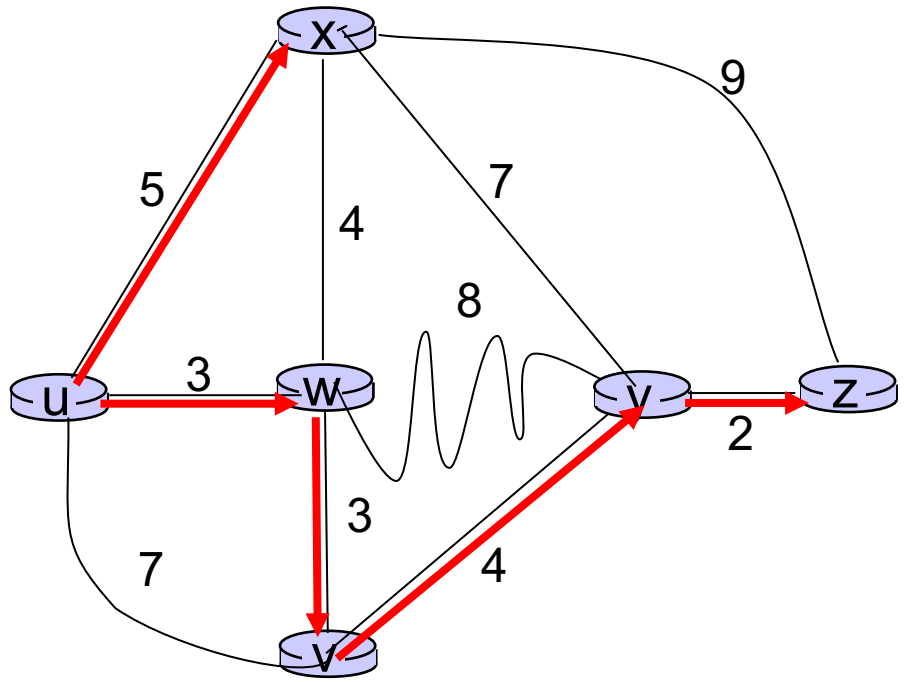
destination	outgoing link
v	(u,v)
x	(u,x)
y	(u,x)
w	(u,x)
x	(u,x)

route from *u* to *v* directly

route from u to all other destinations via *x*

Dijkstra's algorithm: another example

Step	N′	v D(v), p(v)	w D(w), p(w)	x D(x), p(x)	y D(y), p(y)	z D(z), 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	uwxvyz					



notes:

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

Network layer: roadmap

- Network layer: overview
  - data plane
  - control plane
- What's inside a router
  - input ports, switching, output ports
- IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format, fragmentation
  - Addressing
  - Packet forwarding using prefix matching
  - Hierarchical Addressing
  - network address translation

- routing protocols
  - link state
  - distance vector
- intra-ISP routing: OSPF
- routing among ISPs: BGP

Distance vector algorithm

Based on *Bellman-Ford* (BF) equation (dynamic programming):

Bellman-Ford equation

Let $D_x(y)$: cost of least-cost path from x to y.
Then:

$$D_x(y) = \min_v \{ c_{x,v} + D_v(y) \}$$

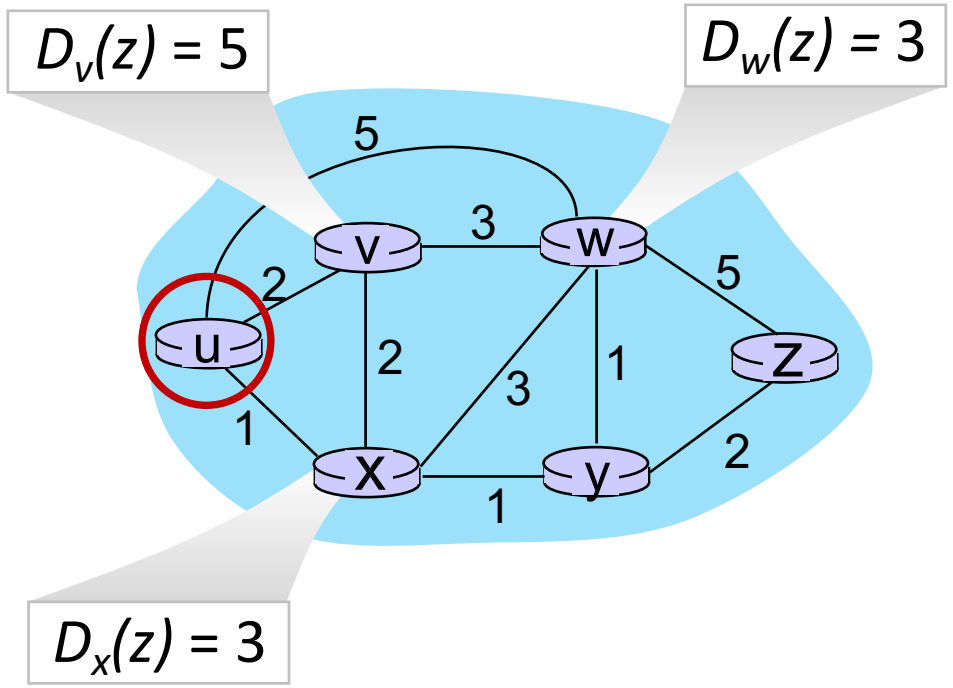
min taken over all neighbors v of x

direct cost of link from x to v

v's estimated least-cost-path cost to y

Bellman-Ford Example

Suppose that *u*'s neighboring nodes, *x,v,w,* know that for destination *z*:



Bellman-Ford 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 (x) is next hop on estimated least-cost path to destination (z)

Distance vector algorithm

key idea:

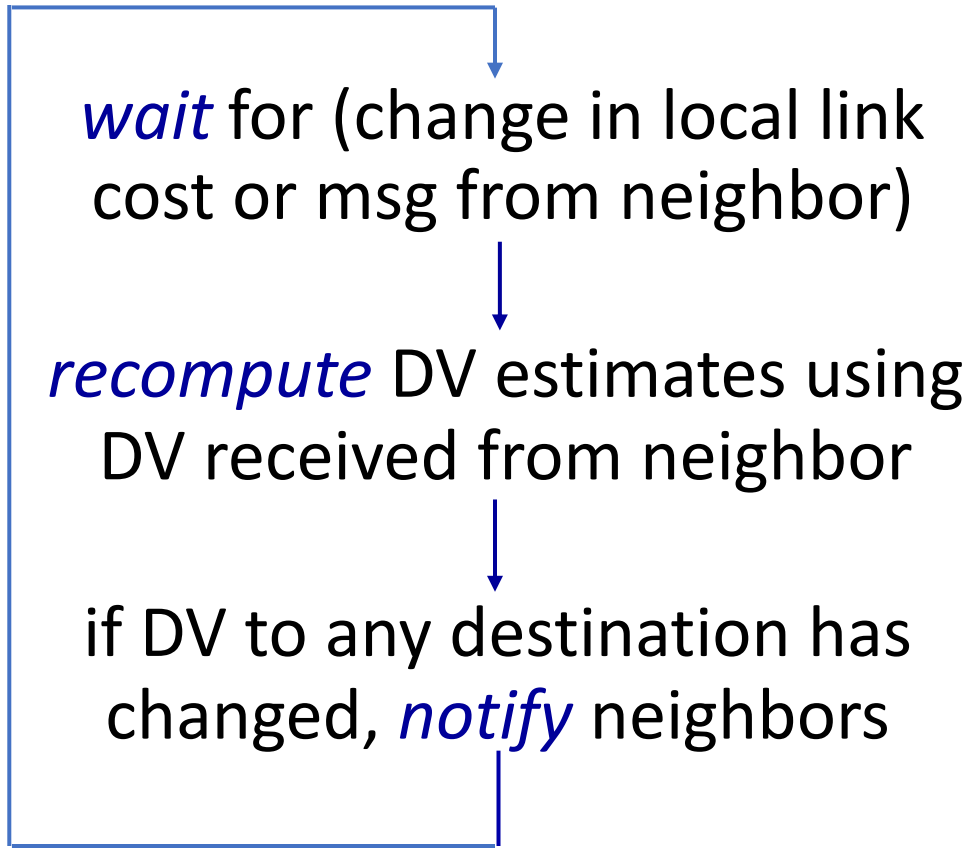
- from time-to-time, each node sends its own distance vector estimate to neighbors
- when *x* receives new DV estimate from any neighbor, it updates its own DV using B-F equation:

$$D_x(y) \leftarrow min_v\{c_{x,v} + D_v(y)\} \text{ for each node } y \in N$$

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

Distance vector algorithm:

each node:



iterative, asynchronous: each local iteration caused by:

- local link cost change
- DV update message from neighbor

distributed, self-stopping: each node notifies neighbors *only* when its DV changes

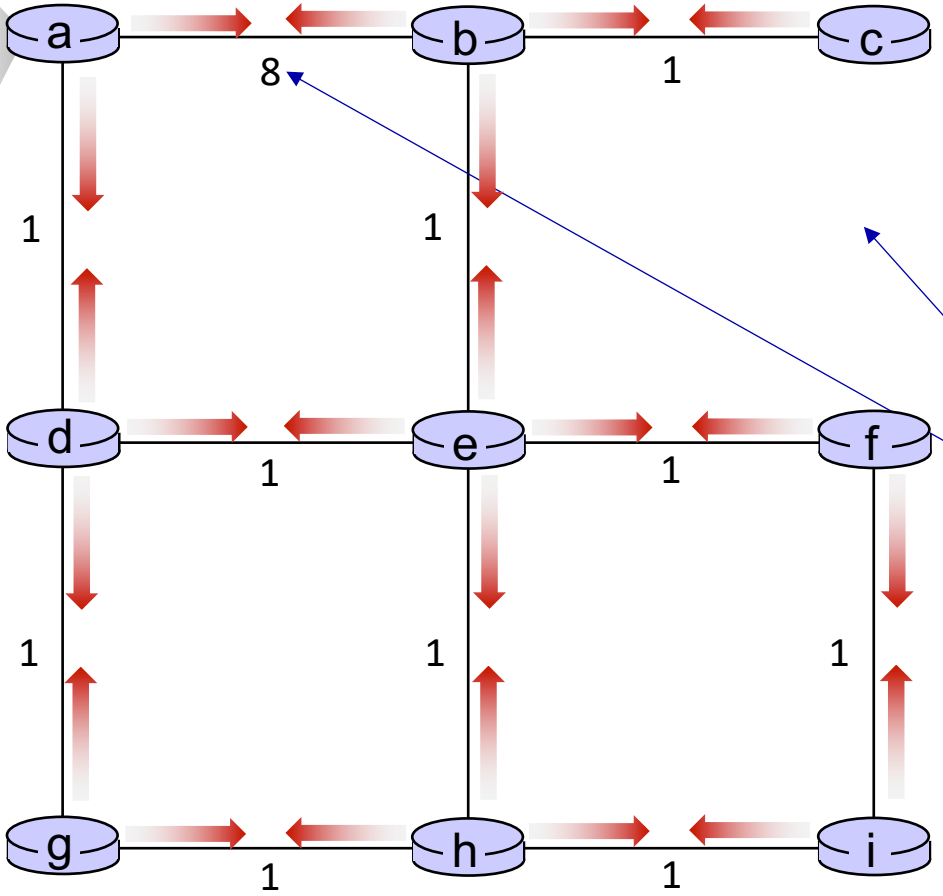
- neighbors then notify their neighbors – *only if necessary*
- no notification received, no actions taken!

Distance vector: example

t=0

- All nodes have distance estimates to nearest neighbors (only)
- All nodes send their local distance vector to their neighbors

DV in a:
$D_a(a)=0$
$D_a(b) = 8$
$D_a(c) = \infty$
$D_a(d) = 1$
$D_a(e) = \infty$
$D_a(f) = \infty$
$D_a(g) = \infty$
$D_a(h) = \infty$
$D_a(i) = \infty$



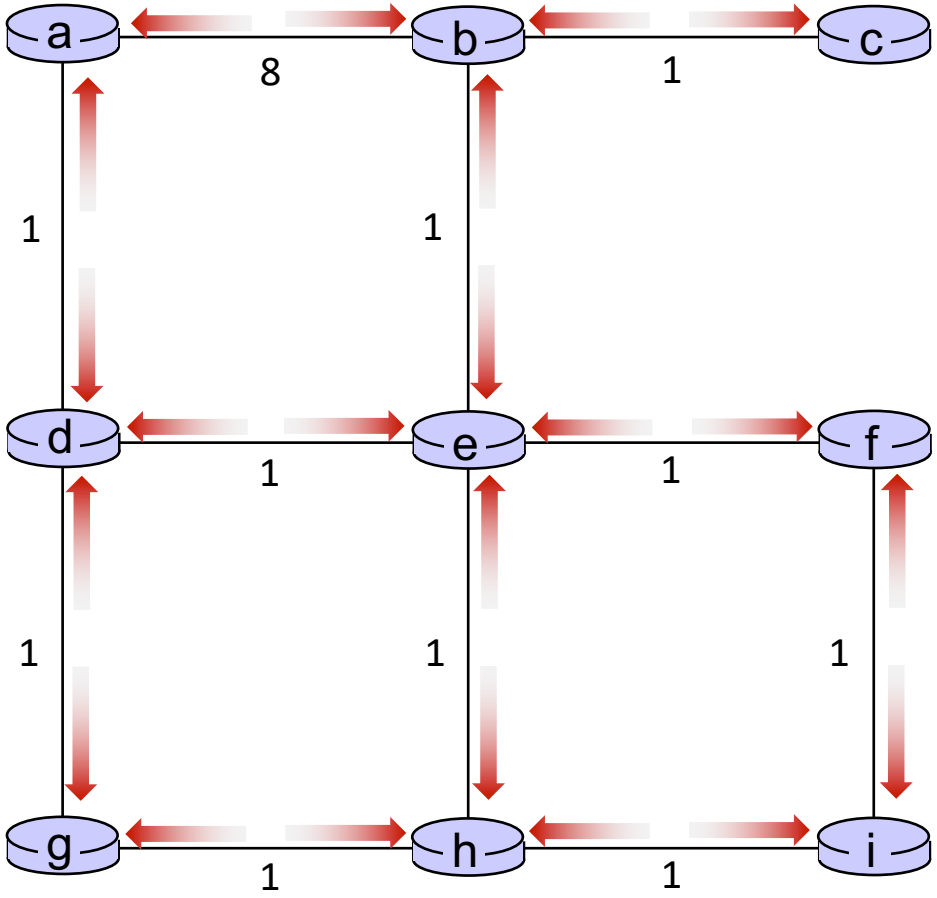
A few asymmetries:
- missing link
- larger cost

Distance vector example: iteration

t=1

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors

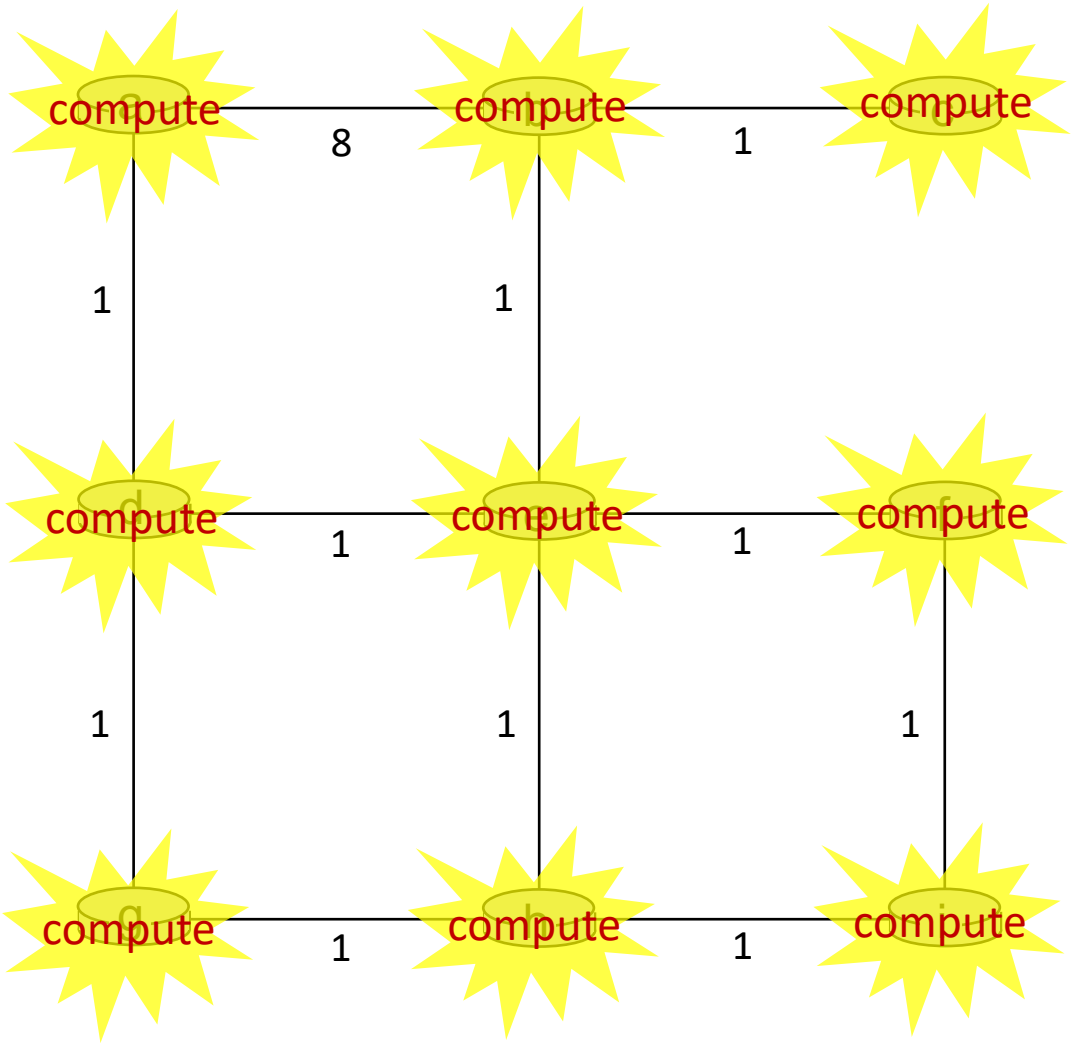


Distance vector example: iteration

t=1

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors

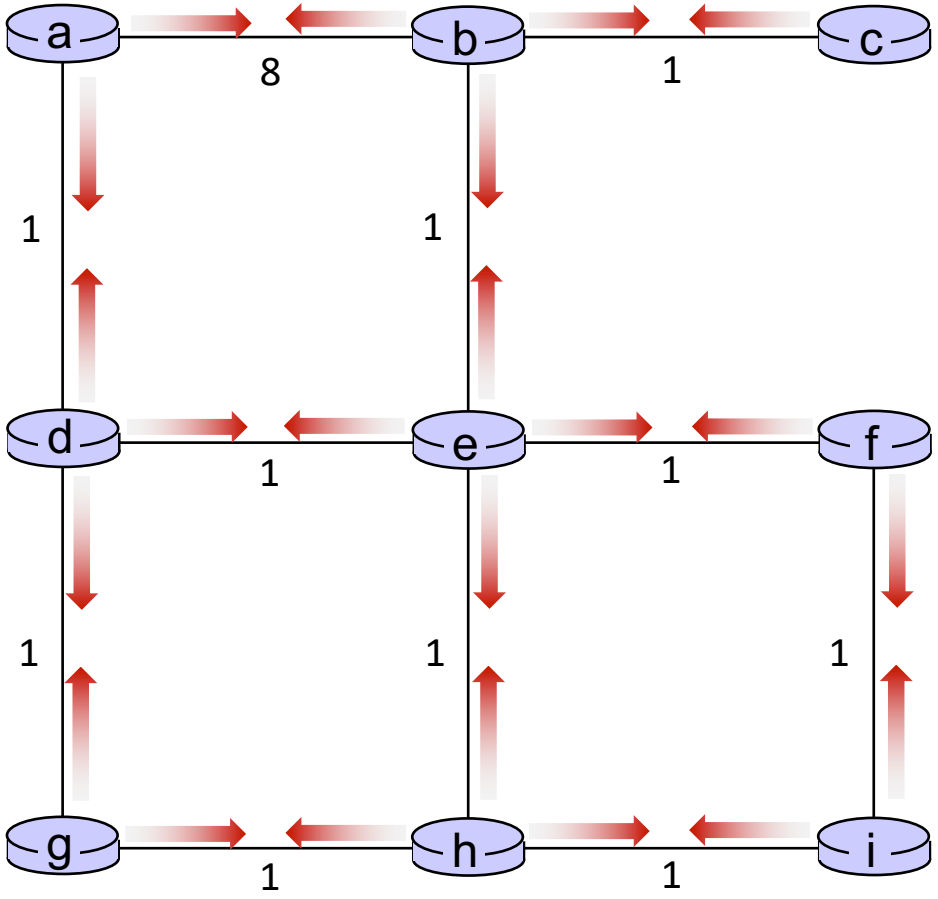


Distance vector example: iteration

t=1

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors

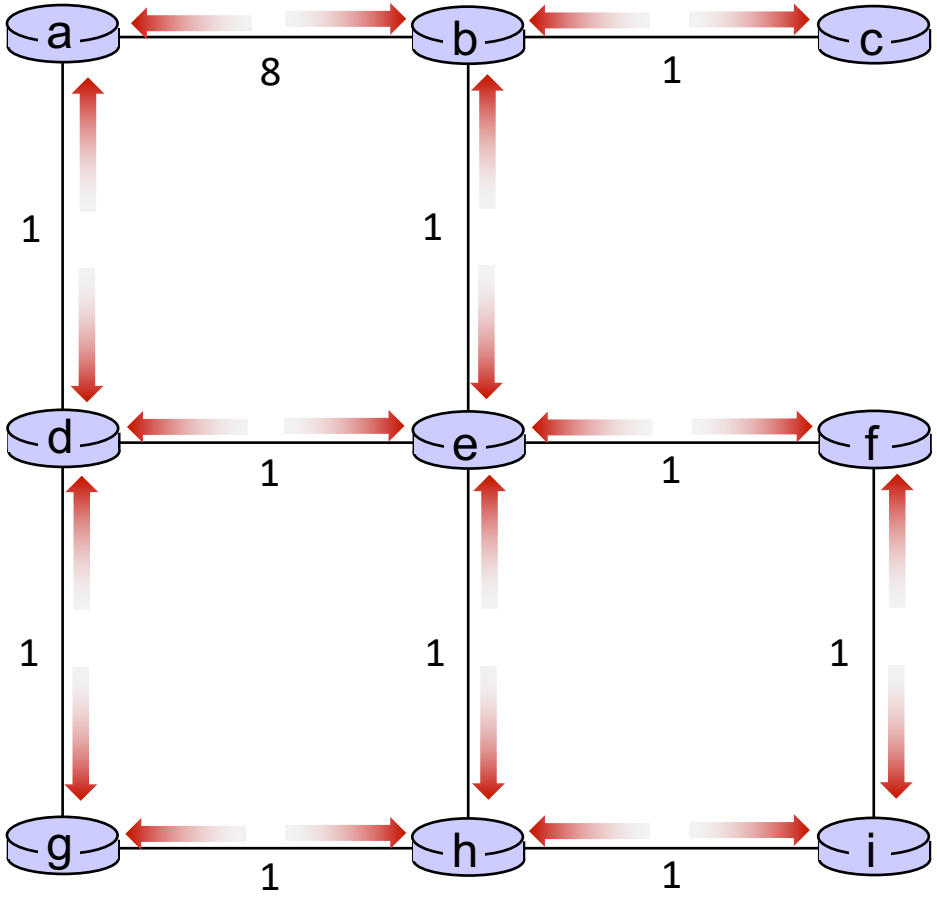


Distance vector example: iteration

t=2

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors

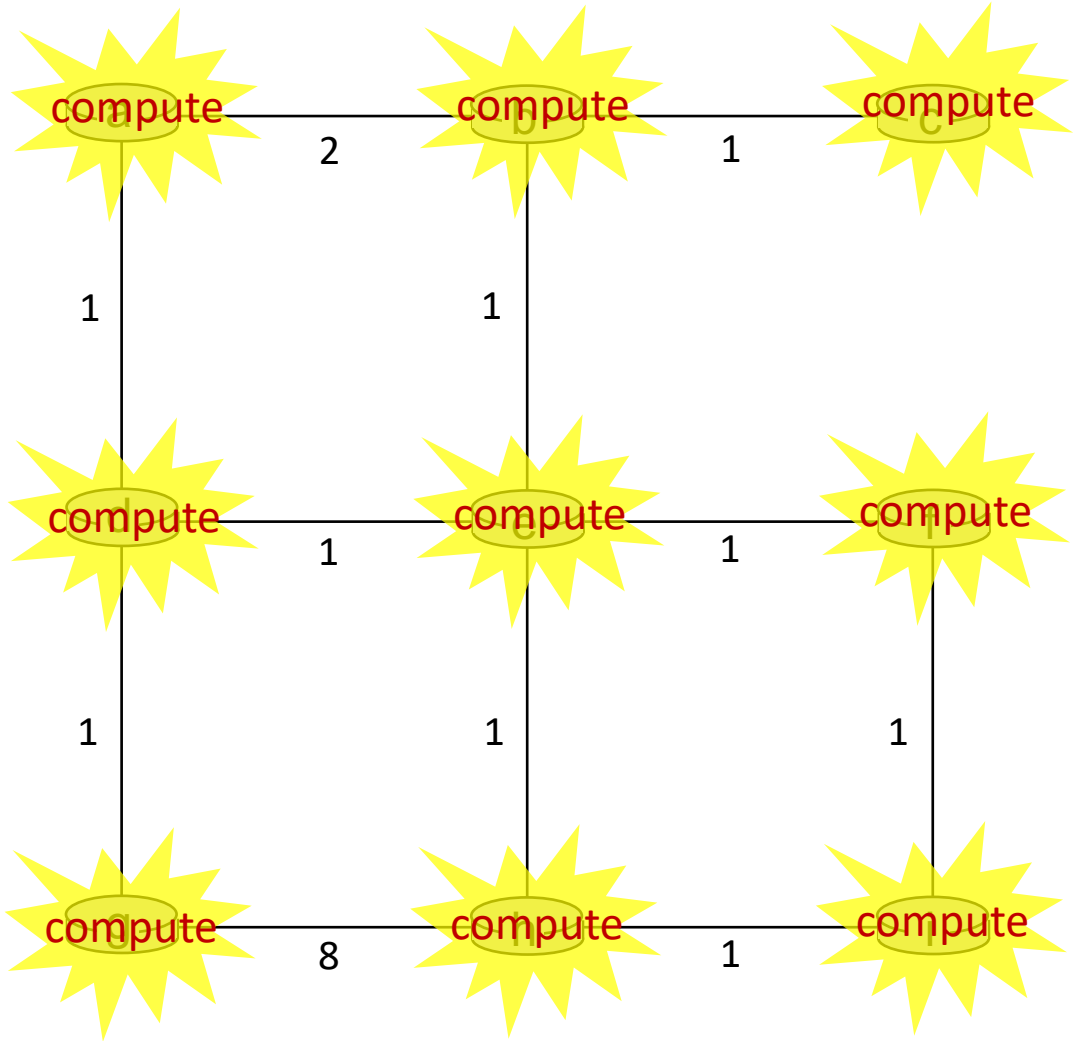


Distance vector example: iteration

t=2

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors

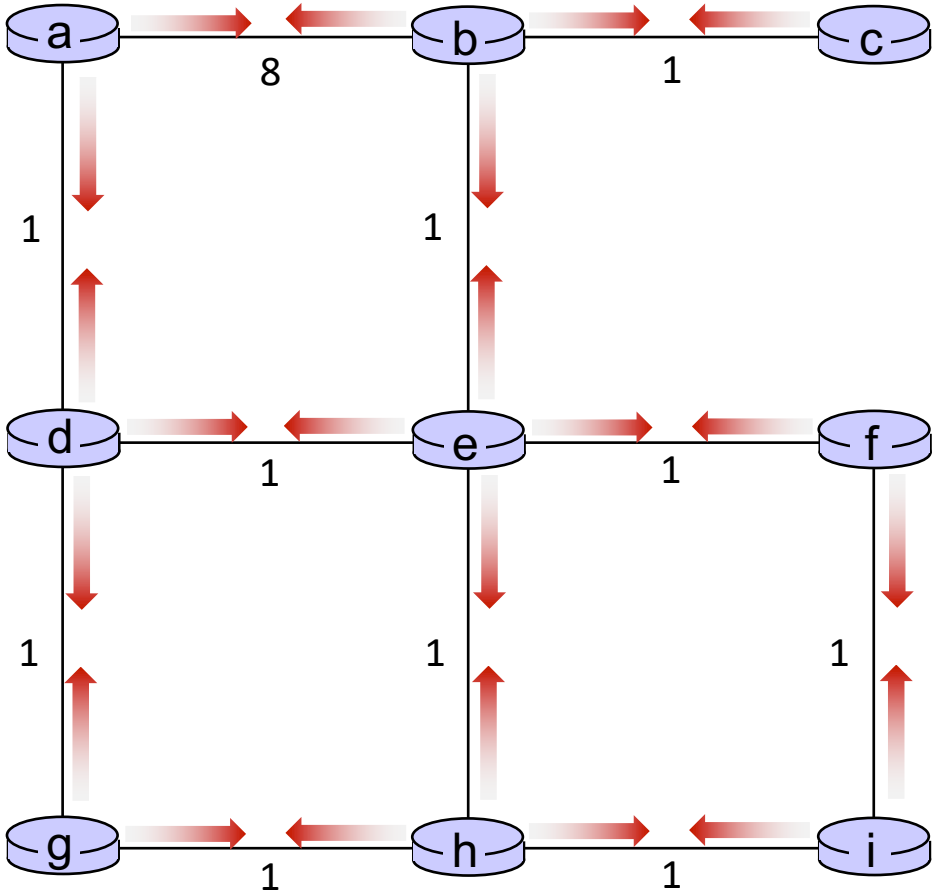


Distance vector example: iteration

t=2

All nodes:

- receive distance vectors from neighbors
- compute their new local distance vector
- send their new local distance vector to neighbors



Distance vector example: iteration

…. and so on

Let’s next take a look at the iterative *computations* at nodes

Distance vector example:

t=1

- b receives DVs from a, c, e

DV in a:

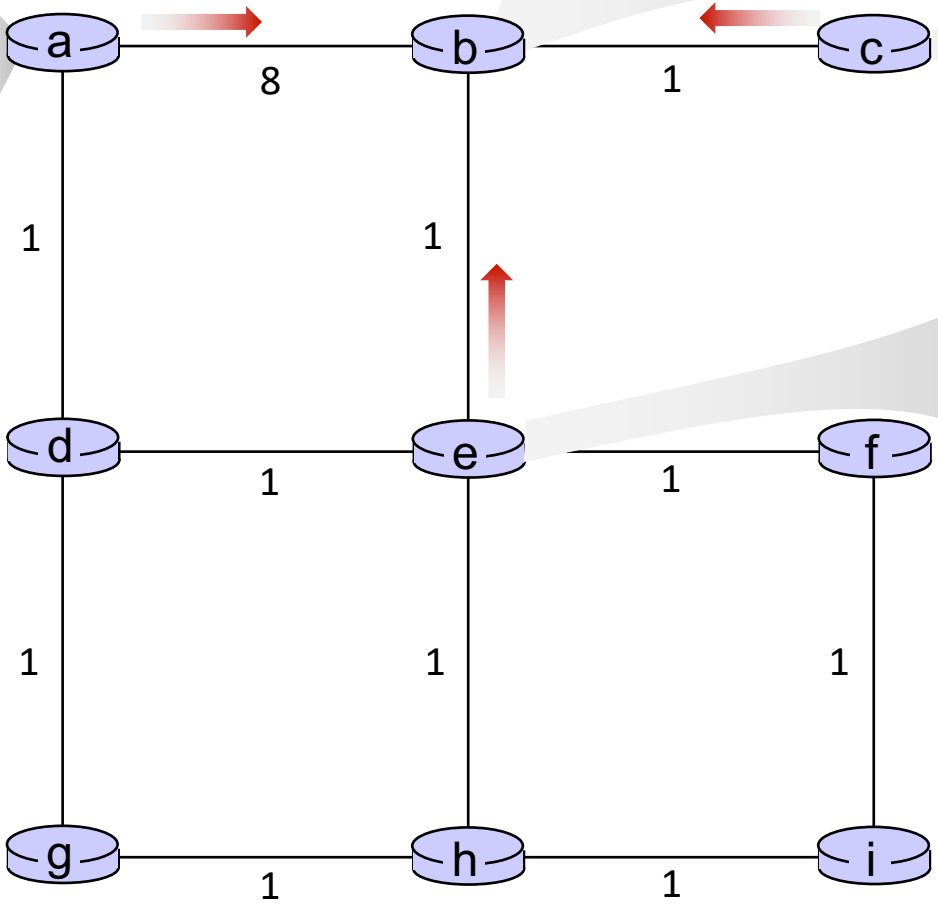
$D_a(a)=0$
$D_a(b) = 8$
$D_a(c) = \infty$
$D_a(d) = 1$
$D_a(e) = \infty$
$D_a(f) = \infty$
$D_a(g) = \infty$
$D_a(h) = \infty$
$D_a(i) = \infty$

DV in b:

$D_b(a) = 8$ $D_b(f) = \infty$
$D_b(c) = 1$ $D_b(g) = \infty$
$D_b(d) = \infty$ $D_b(h) = \infty$
$D_b(e) = 1$ $D_b(i) = \infty$

DV in c:

$D_c(a) = \infty$
$D_c(b) = 1$
$D_c(c) = 0$
$D_c(d) = \infty$
$D_c(e) = \infty$
$D_c(f) = \infty$
$D_c(g) = \infty$
$D_c(h) = \infty$
$D_c(i) = \infty$



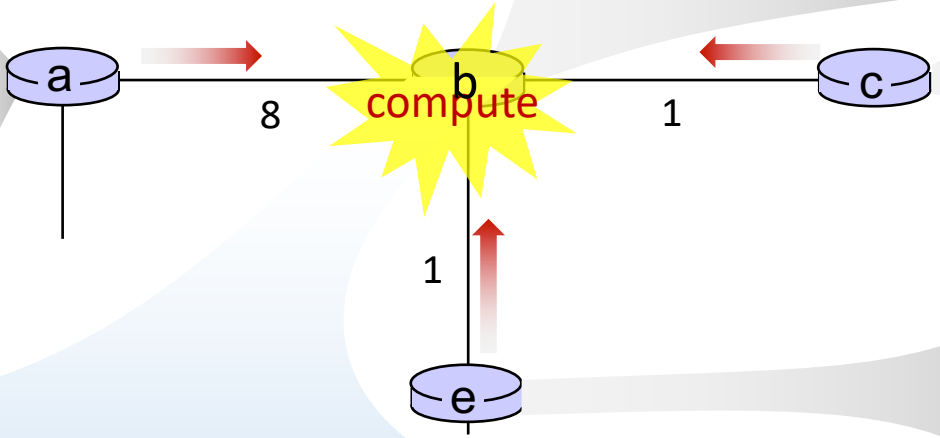
DV in e:

$D_e(a) = \infty$
$D_e(b) = 1$
$D_e(c) = \infty$
$D_e(d) = 1$
$D_e(e) = 0$
$D_e(f) = 1$
$D_e(g) = \infty$
$D_e(h) = 1$
$D_e(i) = \infty$

Distance vector example:

t=1

- b receives DVs from a, c, e, computes:



DV in a:

$D_a(a)=0$
$D_a(b) = 8$
$D_a(c) = \infty$
$D_a(d) = 1$
$D_a(e) = \infty$
$D_a(f) = \infty$
$D_a(g) = \infty$
$D_a(h) = \infty$
$D_a(i) = \infty$

DV in b:

$D_b(a) = 8$ $D_b(f) = \infty$
$D_b(c) = 1$ $D_b(g) = \infty$
$D_b(d) = \infty$ $D_b(h) = \infty$
$D_b(e) = 1$ $D_b(i) = \infty$

DV in c:

$D_c(a) = \infty$
$D_c(b) = 1$
$D_c(c) = 0$
$D_c(d) = \infty$
$D_c(e) = \infty$
$D_c(f) = \infty$
$D_c(g) = \infty$
$D_c(h) = \infty$
$D_c(i) = \infty$

DV in e:

$D_e(a) = \infty$
$D_e(b) = 1$
$D_e(c) = \infty$
$D_e(d) = 1$
$D_e(e) = 0$
$D_e(f) = 1$
$D_e(g) = \infty$
$D_e(h) = 1$
$D_e(i) = \infty$

$D_b(a) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(a), c_{b,c}+D_c(a), c_{b,e}+D_e(a)\} = \min\{8,\infty,\infty\} = 8$

$D_b(c) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(c), c_{b,c}+D_c(c), c_{b,e}+D_e(c)\} = \min\{\infty,1,\infty\} = 1$

$D_b(d) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(d), c_{b,c}+D_c(d), c_{b,e}+D_e(d)\} = \min\{9,2,\infty\} = 2$

$D_b(e) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(e), c_{b,c}+D_c(e), c_{b,e}+D_e(e)\} = \min\{\infty,\infty,1\} = 1$

$D_b(f) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(f), c_{b,c}+D_c(f), c_{b,e}+D_e(f)\} = \min\{\infty,\infty,2\} = 2$

$D_b(g) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(g), c_{b,c}+D_c(g), c_{b,e}+D_e(g)\} = \min\{\infty, \infty, \infty\} = \infty$

$D_b(h) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(h), c_{b,c}+D_c(h), c_{b,e}+D_e(h)\} = \min\{\infty, \infty, 2\} = 2$

$D_b(i) = \min\{c_{b,a}+D_a(i), c_{b,c}+D_c(i), c_{b,e}+D_e(i)\} = \min\{\infty, \infty, \infty\} = \infty$

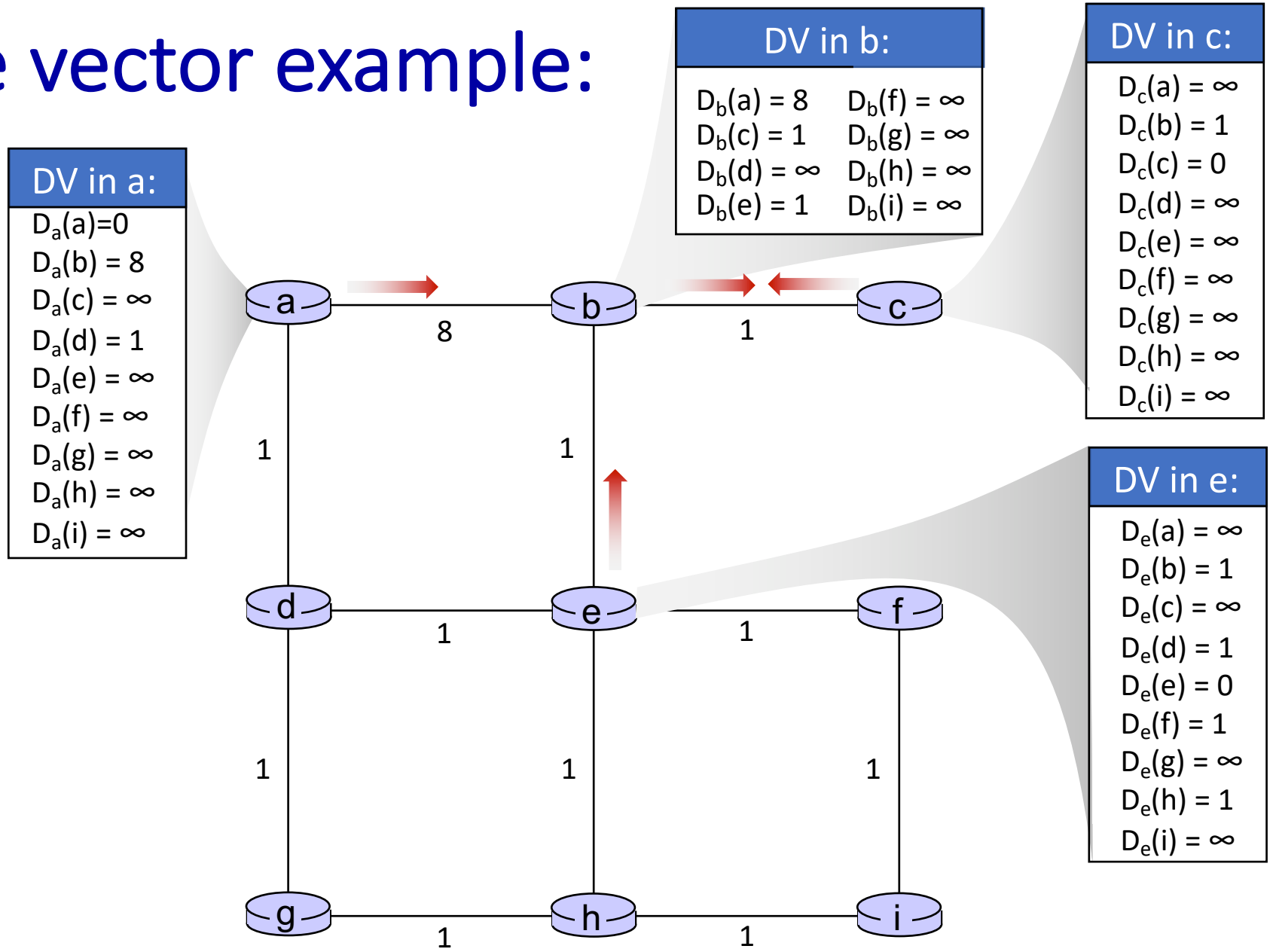
DV in b:

$D_b(a) = 8$ $D_b(f) = 2$
$D_b(c) = 1$ $D_b(g) = \infty$
$D_b(d) = 2$ $D_b(h) = 2$
$D_b(e) = 1$ $D_b(i) = \infty$

Distance vector example:

t=1

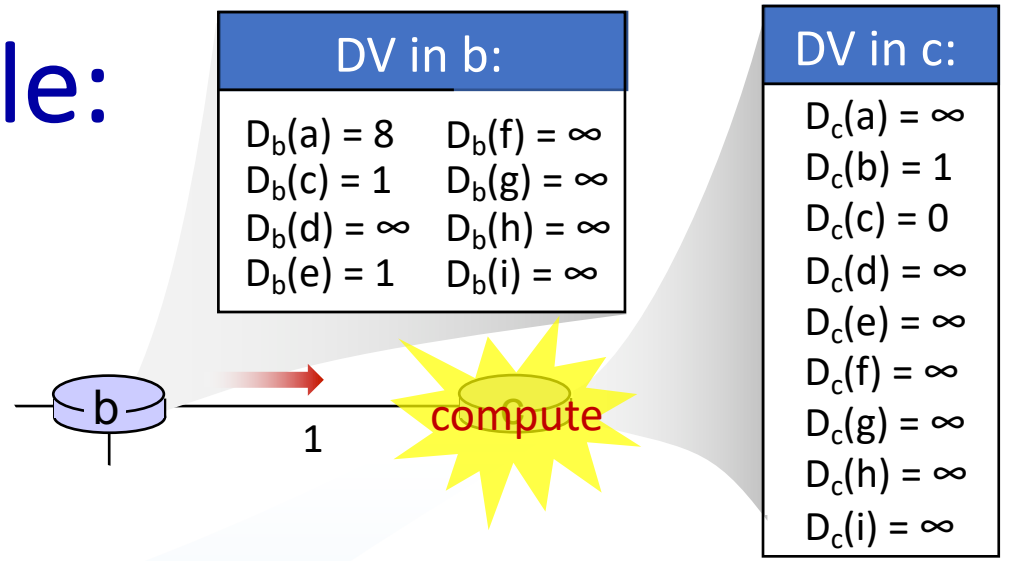
- c receives DVs from b



Distance vector example:

t=1

- c receives DVs from b computes:



$D_c(a) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(a)\} = 1 + 8 = 9$

$D_c(b) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(b)\} = 1 + 0 = 1$

$D_c(d) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(d)\} = 1+ \infty = \infty$

$D_c(e) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(e)\} = 1 + 1 = 2$

$D_c(f) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(f)\} = 1+ \infty = \infty$

$D_c(g) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(g)\} = 1+ \infty = \infty$

$D_c(h) = \min\{c_{bc,b}+D_b(h)\} = 1+ \infty = \infty$

$D_c(i) = \min\{c_{c,b}+D_b(i)\} = 1+ \infty = \infty$

DV in c:

$D_c(a) = 9$
$D_c(b) = 1$
$D_c(c) = 0$
$D_c(d) = 2$
$D_c(e) = \infty$
$D_c(f) = \infty$
$D_c(g) = \infty$
$D_c(h) = \infty$
$D_c(i) = \infty$

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Distance vector example:

t=1

- e receives DVs from b, d, f, h

DV in b:

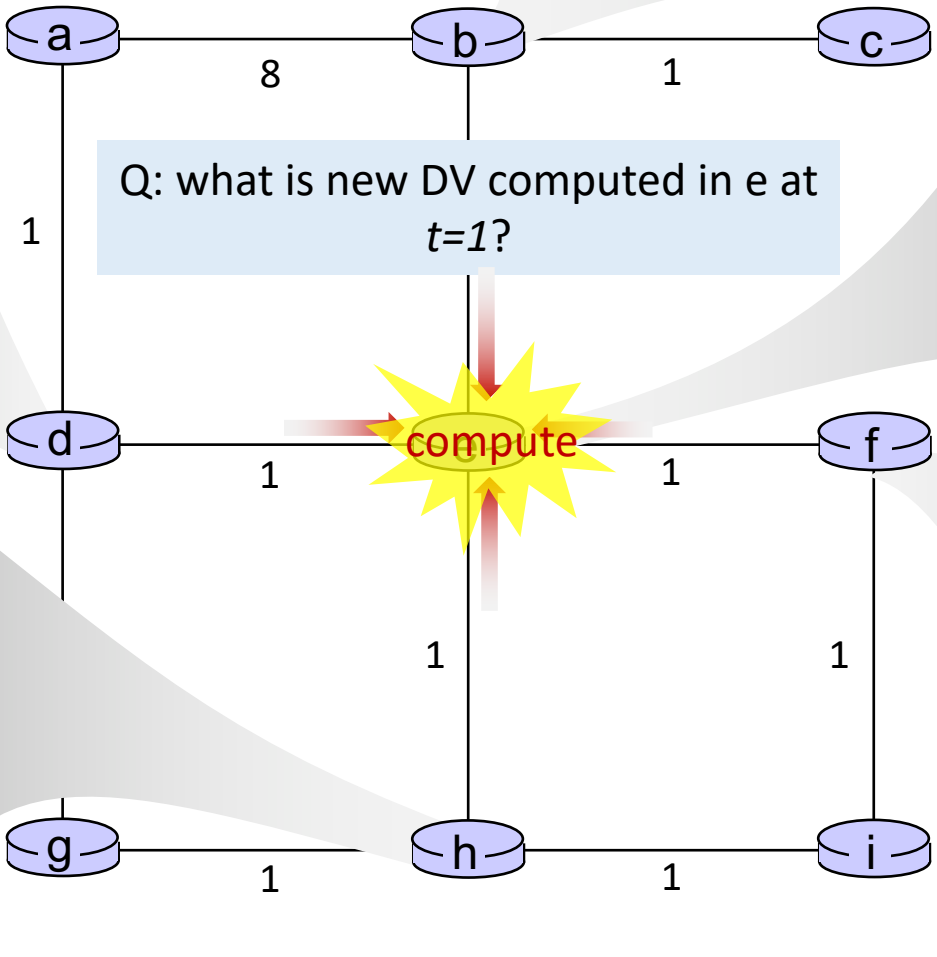
$D_b(a) = 8$ $D_b(f) = \infty$
$D_b(c) = 1$ $D_b(g) = \infty$
$D_b(d) = \infty$ $D_b(h) = \infty$
$D_b(e) = 1$ $D_b(i) = \infty$

DV in d:

$D_c(a) = 1$
$D_c(b) = \infty$
$D_c(c) = \infty$
$D_c(d) = 0$
$D_c(e) = 1$
$D_c(f) = \infty$
$D_c(g) = 1$
$D_c(h) = \infty$
$D_c(i) = \infty$

DV in e:

$D_e(a) = \infty$
$D_e(b) = 1$
$D_e(c) = \infty$
$D_e(d) = 1$
$D_e(e) = 0$
$D_e(f) = 1$
$D_e(g) = \infty$
$D_e(h) = 1$
$D_e(i) = \infty$



DV in h:

$D_c(a) = \infty$
$D_c(b) = \infty$
$D_c(c) = \infty$
$D_c(d) = \infty$
$D_c(e) = 1$
$D_c(f) = \infty$
$D_c(g) = 1$
$D_c(h) = 0$
$D_c(i) = 1$

DV in f:

$D_c(a) = \infty$
$D_c(b) = \infty$
$D_c(c) = \infty$
$D_c(d) = \infty$
$D_c(e) = 1$
$D_c(f) = 0$
$D_c(g) = \infty$
$D_c(h) = \infty$
$D_c(i) = 1$

Distance vector: state information diffusion

Iterative communication, computation steps diffuses information through network:

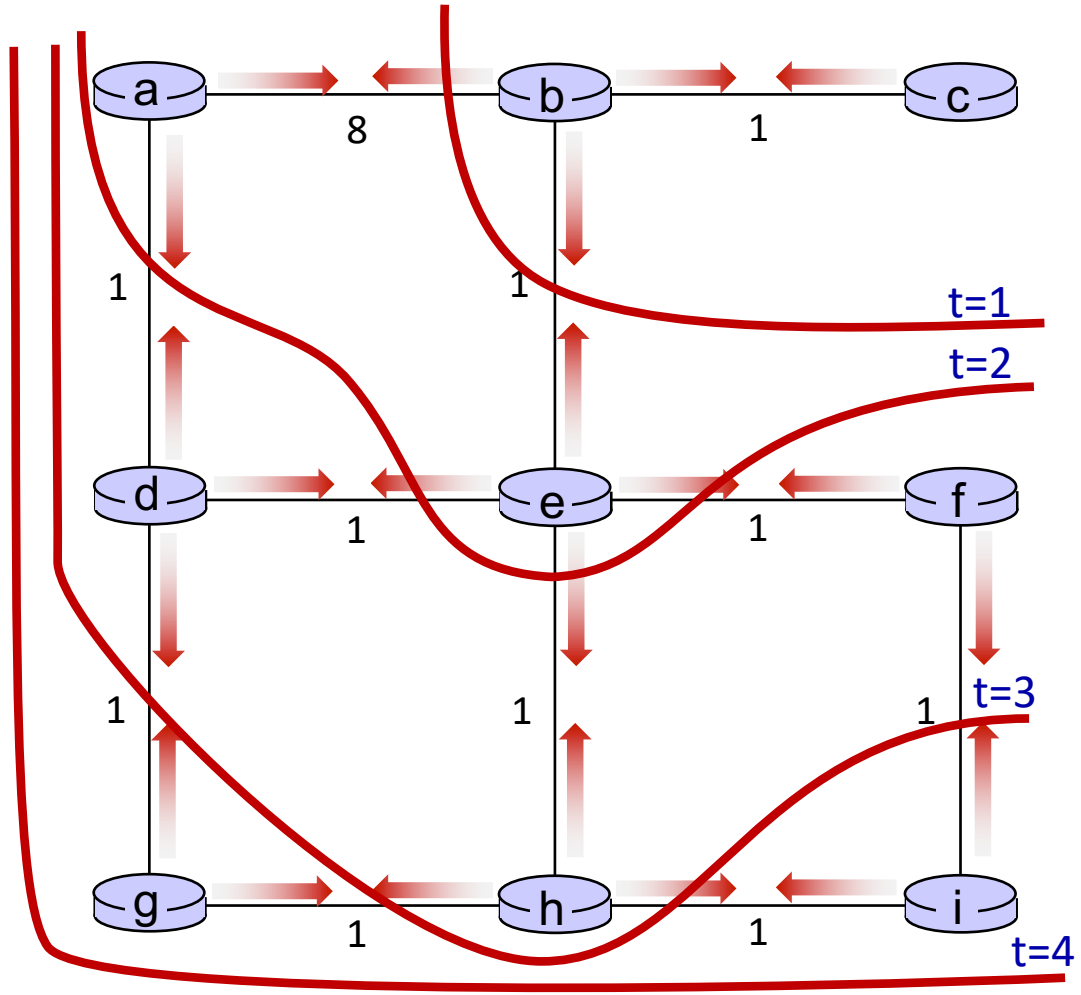
t=0 c's state at t=0 is at c only

t=1 c's state at t=0 has propagated to b, and may influence distance vector computations up to **1** hop away, i.e., at b

t=2 c's state at t=0 may now influence distance vector computations up to **2** hops away, i.e., at b and now at a, e as well

t=3 c's state at t=0 may influence distance vector computations up to **3** hops away, i.e., at b,a,e and now at c,f,h as well

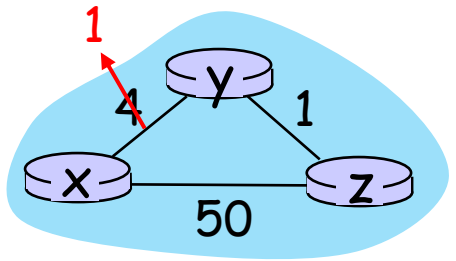
t=4 c's state at t=0 may influence distance vector computations up to **4** hops away, i.e., at b,a,e, c, f, h and now at g,i as well



Distance vector: link cost changes

link cost changes:

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



"good news travels fast"

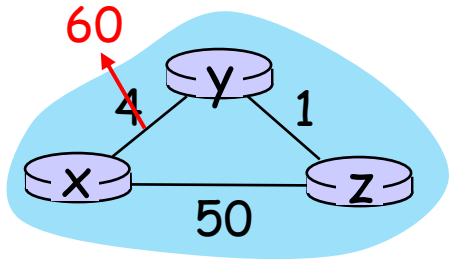
t_0 : *y* detects link-cost change, updates its DV, informs its neighbors.

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:
  - *y* sees direct link to *x* has new cost 60, but z has said it has a path at cost of 5. So *y* computes "my new cost to x will be 6, via z); notifies *z* of new cost of 6 to *x.*
  - *z* learns that path to *x* via *y* has new cost 6, so *z* computes "my new cost to *x* will be 7 via y), notifies *y* of new cost of 7 to *x.*
  - *y* learns that path to *x* via *z* has new cost 7, so *y* computes "my new cost to *x* will be 8 via y), notifies *z* of new cost of 8 to *x.*
  - *z* learns that path to *x* via *y* has new cost 8, so *z* computes "my new cost to *x* will be 9 via y), notifies *y* of new cost of 9 to *x.*

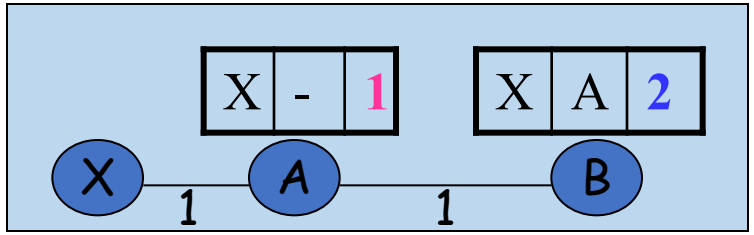
    …
- see text for solutions. *Distributed algorithms are tricky!*

DV: Two-node instability problem
(we consider a 3-node net fragment)

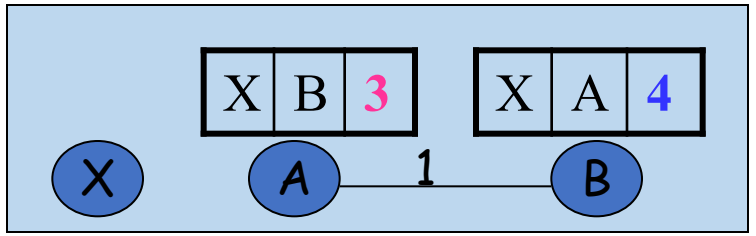
Note: RT @ each node

Dest.	NH	Cost

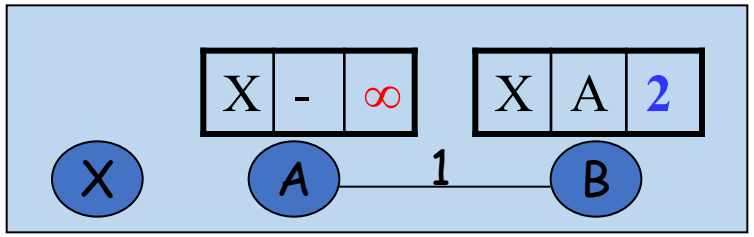
Before failure [Dest, NH, cost]



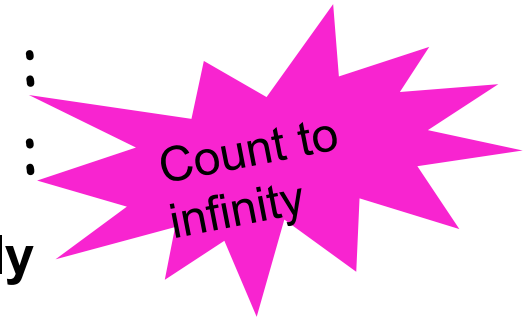
After **B** receives update from **A**



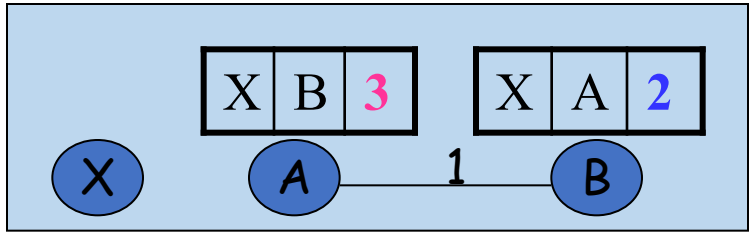
After failure

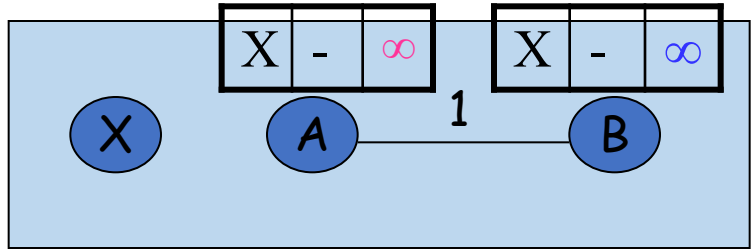


Finally

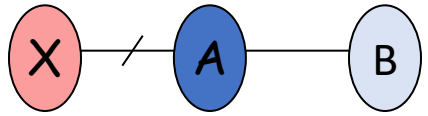


After **A** receives update from **B**





Solutions to cut the loop



- Split horizon
  - If node B learns about a **path** to X from A, subsequently, B does not tell A about this.

- Poisoned reverse
  - If A tries to route to X via B, A tells B that it has an infinity-cost path to X when the (X, A) link is broken.
    - This enables B to not try to forward the packet to X via A.

Unfortunately, this does not solve the loop problem.

- Three-node instability
- Four-node instability, …..

Network layer: roadmap

- Network layer: overview
  - data plane
  - control plane
- What's inside a router
  - input ports, switching, output ports
- IP: the Internet Protocol
  - datagram format, fragmentation
  - Addressing
  - Packet forwarding using prefix matching
  - Hierarchical Addressing
  - network address translation
- routing protocols
  - link state
  - distance vector
- intra-ISP routing: OSPF
- routing among ISPs: BGP

Making routing scalable

our routing study thus far - idealized

- all routers identical
- network “flat”

… not true in practice

scale: billions of destinations:

- can’t store all destinations in routing tables!
- routing table exchange would swamp links!

administrative autonomy:

- Internet: a network of networks
- each network admin may want to control routing in its own network

Internet approach to scalable routing

aggregate routers into regions known as "autonomous systems" (AS) (a.k.a. "domains")

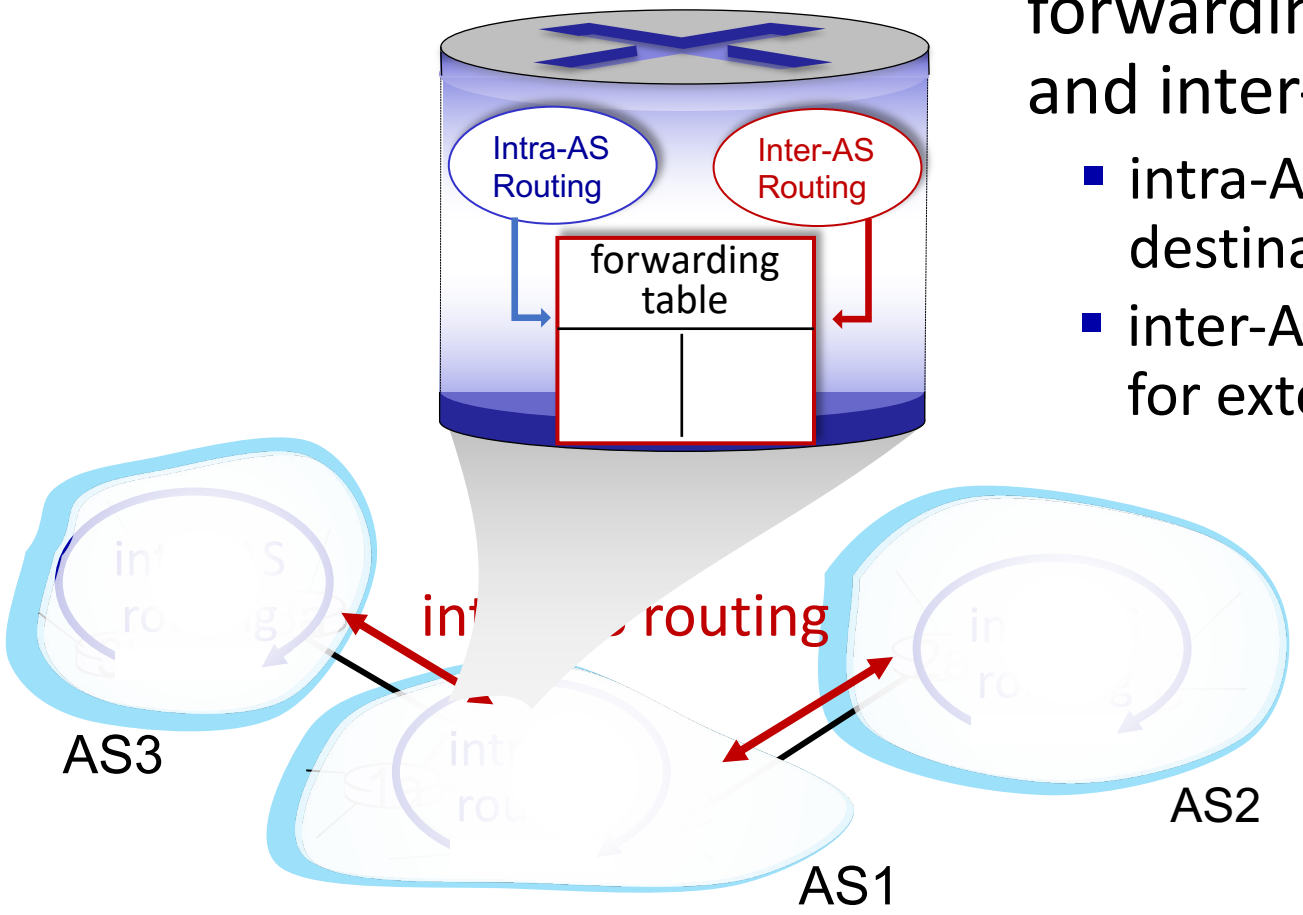
intra-AS (aka "intra-domain"): routing among *within same AS ("network")*

- all routers in AS must run same intra-domain protocol
- routers in different AS can run different intra-domain routing protocols
- gateway router: at "edge" of its own AS, has link(s) to router(s) in other AS'es

inter-AS (aka "inter-domain"): routing *among* AS'es

- gateways perform inter-domain routing (as well as intra-domain routing)

Interconnected ASes



forwarding table configured by intra- and inter-AS routing algorithms

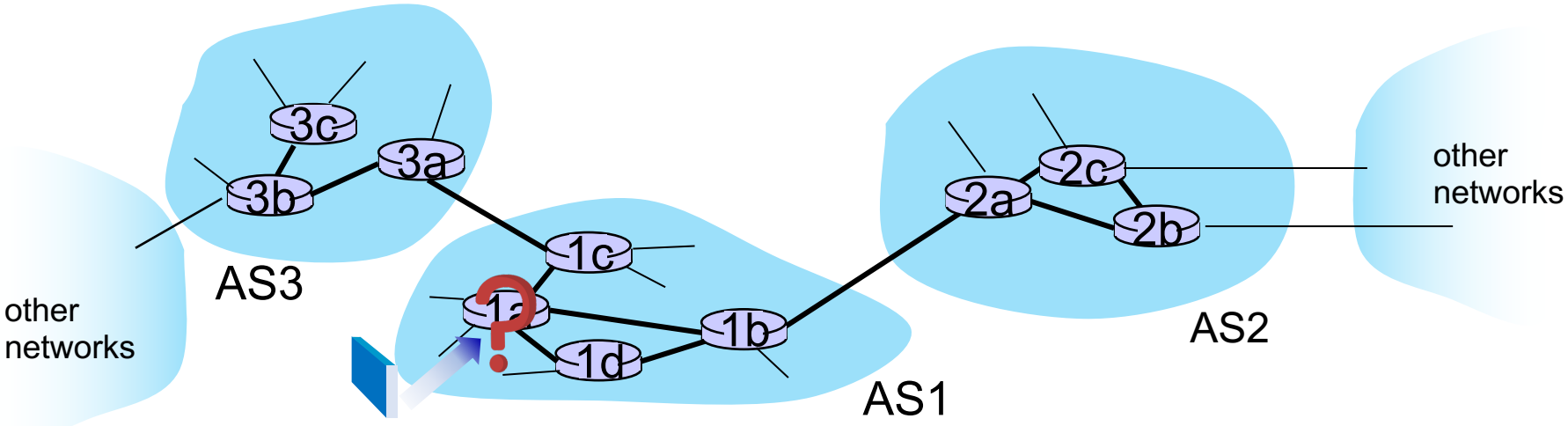
- intra-AS routing determine entries for destinations within AS
- inter-AS & intra-AS determine entries for external destinations

Inter-AS routing: a role in intradomain forwarding

- suppose router in AS1 receives datagram destined outside of AS1:
  - router should forward packet to gateway router in AS1, but which one?

AS1 inter-domain routing must:

1. learn which destinations reachable through AS2, which through AS3
2. propagate this reachability info to all routers in AS1



Inter-AS routing: routing within an AS

most common intra-AS routing protocols:

- RIP: Routing Information Protocol [RFC 1723]
  - classic DV: DVs exchanged every 30 secs
  - no longer widely used
- EIGRP: Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol
  - DV based
  - formerly Cisco-proprietary for decades (became open in 2013 [RFC 7868])
- OSPF: Open Shortest Path First [RFC 2328]
  - link-state routing
  - IS-IS protocol (ISO standard, not RFC standard) essentially same as OSPF

OSPF (Open Shortest Path First) routing

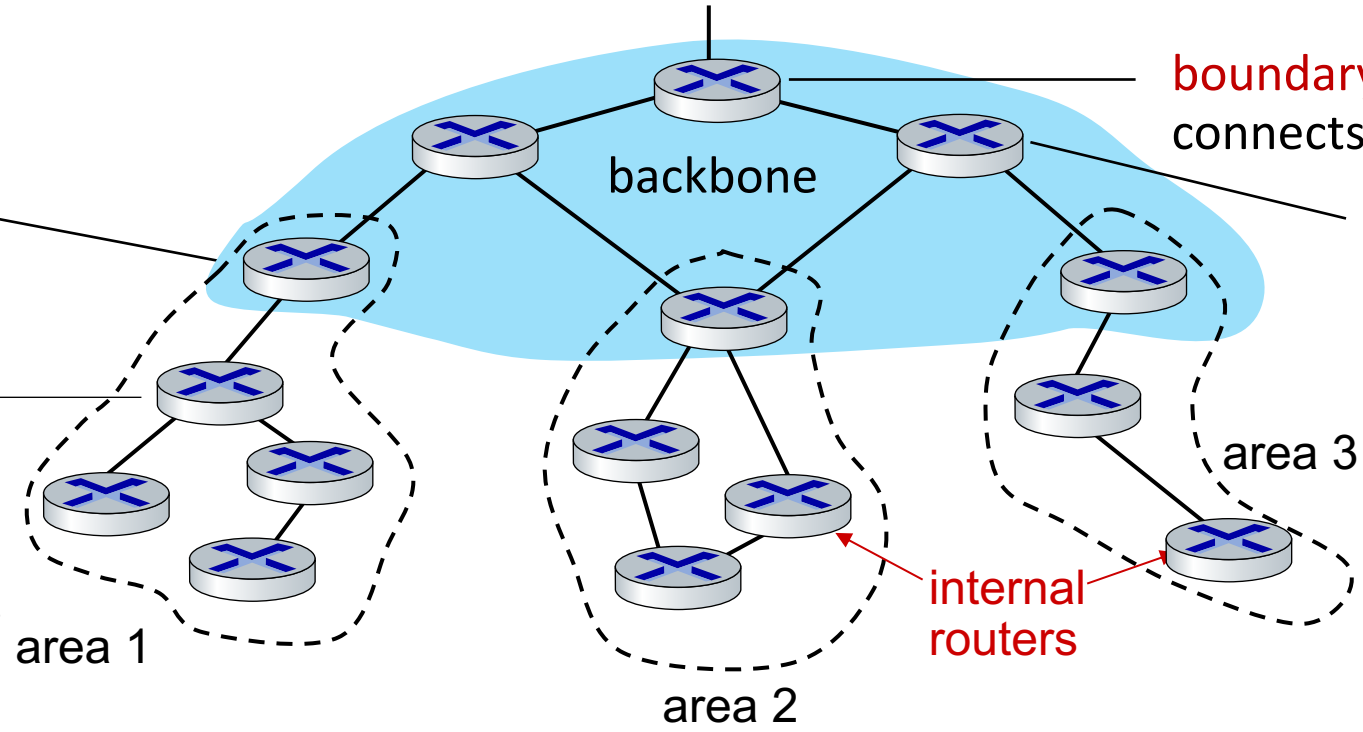
- "open": publicly available
- classic link-state
  - each router floods OSPF link-state advertisements (directly over IP rather than using TCP/UDP) to all other routers in entire AS
  - multiple link costs metrics possible: bandwidth, delay
  - each router has full topology, uses Dijkstra's algorithm to compute forwarding table
- *security:* all OSPF messages authenticated (to prevent malicious intrusion)

Hierarchical OSPF

- two-level hierarchy: local area, backbone.
  - link-state advertisements flooded only in area, or backbone
  - each node has detailed area topology; only knows direction to reach other destinations

area border routers:
"summarize" distances to destinations in own area, advertise in backbone

local routers:
- flood LS in area only
- compute routing within area
- forward packets to outside via area border router



boundary router:
connects to other ASes

backbone router:
runs OSPF limited to backbone

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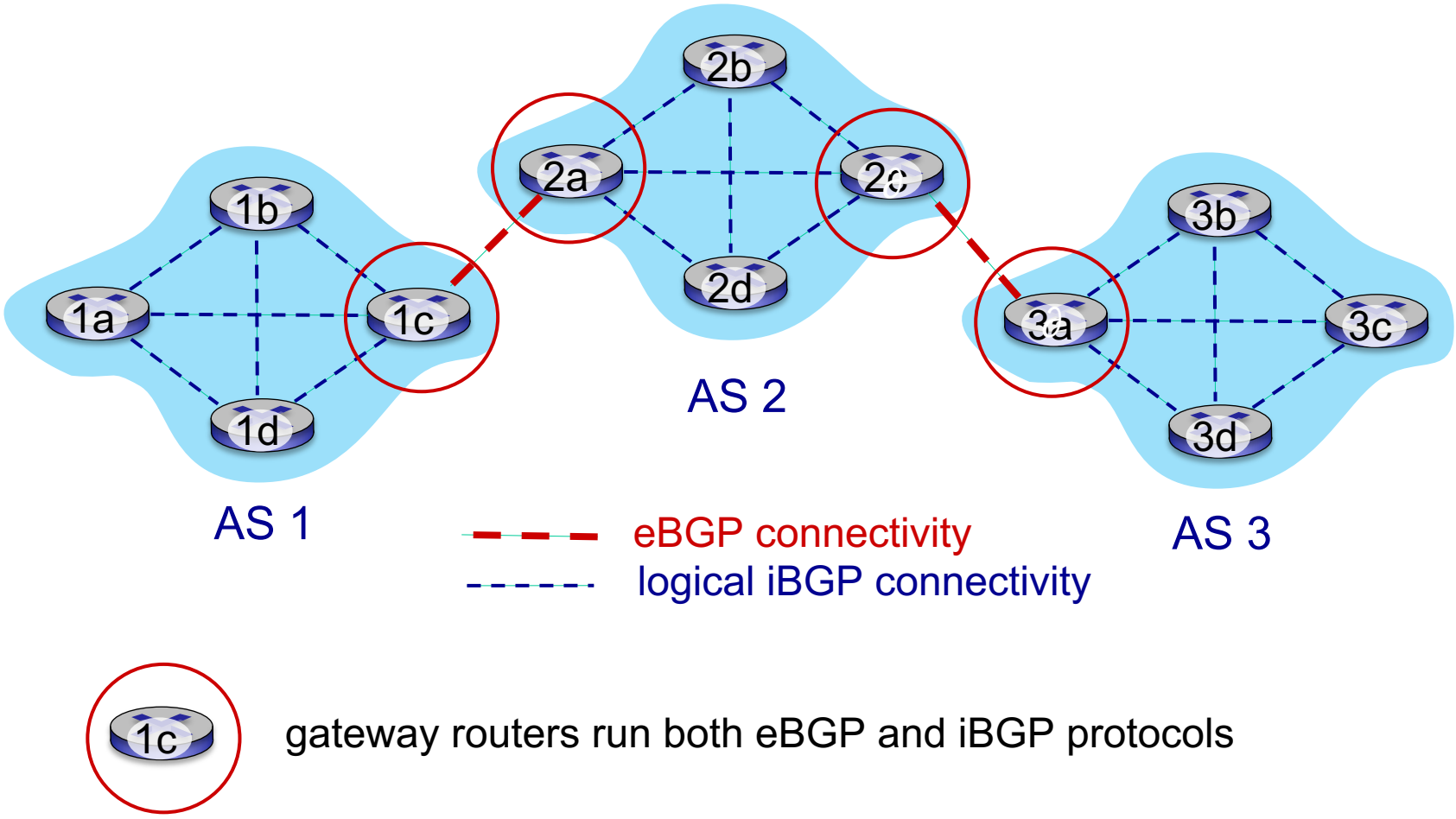
Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

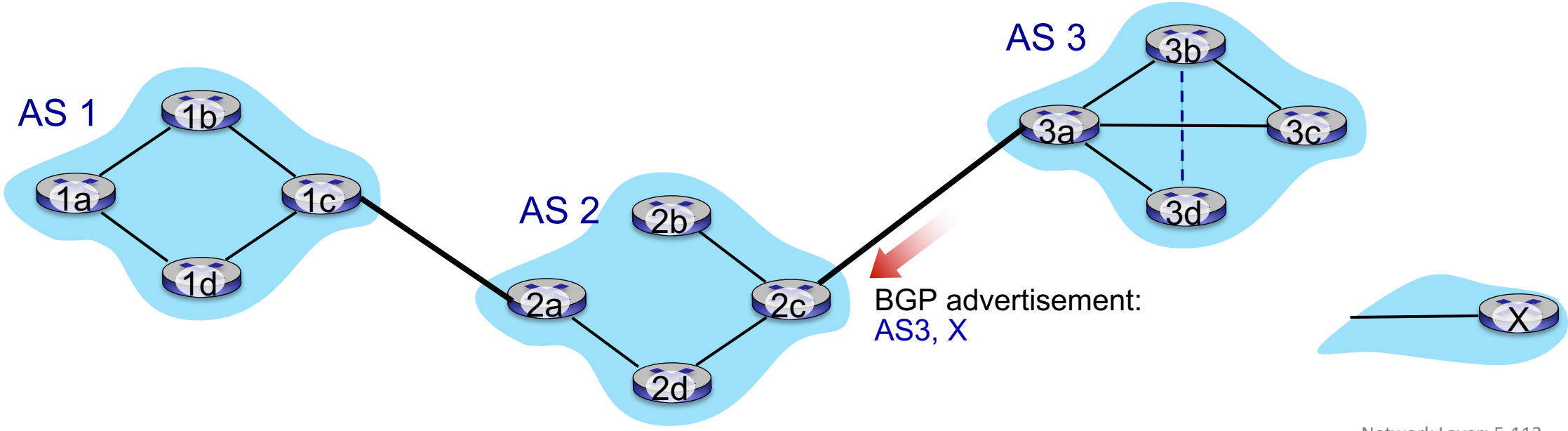
- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol): *the* de facto inter-domain routing protocol
  - "glue that holds the Internet together"
- allows subnet to advertise its existence, and the destinations it can reach, to rest of Internet: *"I am here, here is who I can reach, and how"*
- BGP provides each AS a means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

eBGP, iBGP connections



BGP basics

- BGP session: two BGP routers ("peers") exchange BGP messages over semi-permanent TCP connection:
  - advertising *paths* to different destination network prefixes (BGP is a "path vector" protocol)
- when AS3 gateway 3a advertises path AS3,X to AS2 gateway 2c:
  - AS3 *promises* to AS2 it will forward datagrams towards X



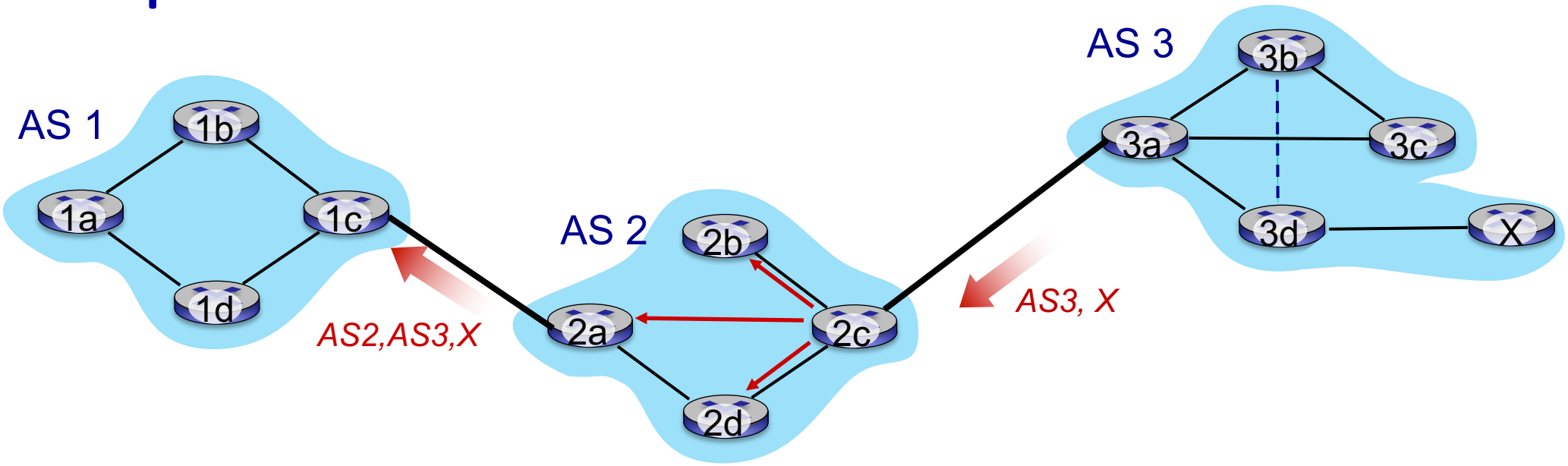
Path attributes and BGP routes

- BGP advertised route: prefix + attributes
  - prefix: destination being advertised
  - two important attributes:
    - AS-PATH: list of ASes through which prefix advertisement has passed
    - NEXT-HOP: indicates specific internal-AS router to next-hop AS
- policy-based routing:
  - gateway receiving route advertisement uses *import policy* to accept/decline path (e.g., never route through AS Y).
  - AS policy also determines whether to *advertise* path to other other neighboring ASes

BGP route selection

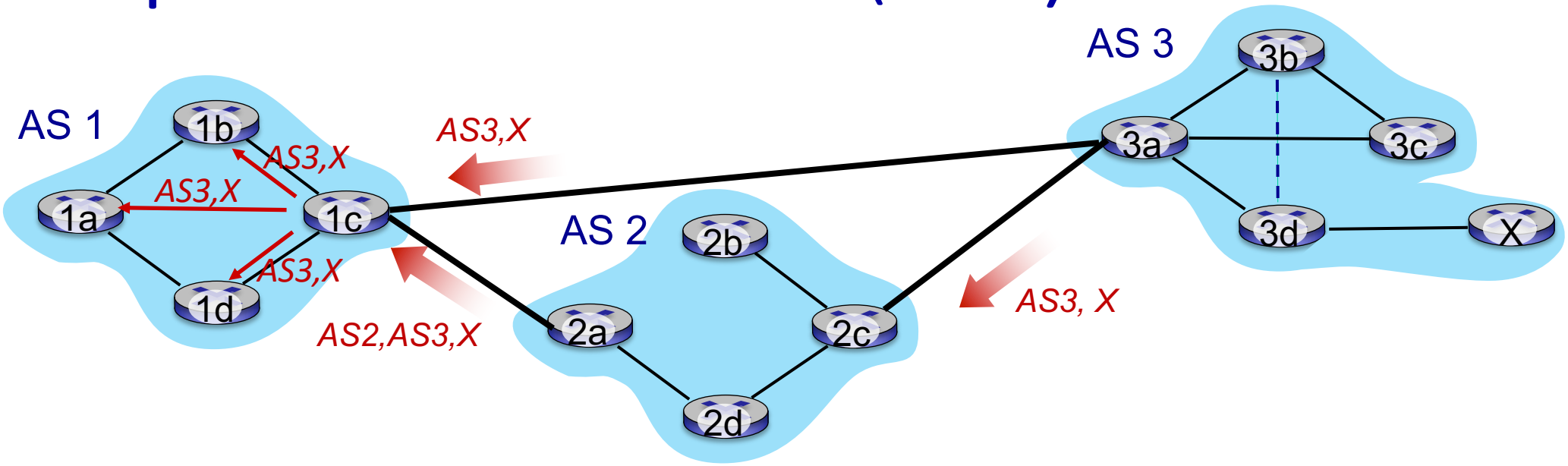
- router may learn about more than one route to destination AS, selects route based on:
  1. local preference value attribute: policy decision
  2. shortest AS-PATH
  3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
  4. additional criteria

BGP path advertisement



- AS2 router 2c receives path advertisement AS3,X (via eBGP) from AS3 router 3a
- based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2c accepts path AS3,X, propagates (via iBGP) to all AS2 routers
- based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2a advertises (via eBGP) path AS2, AS3, X to AS1 router 1c

BGP path advertisement (more)



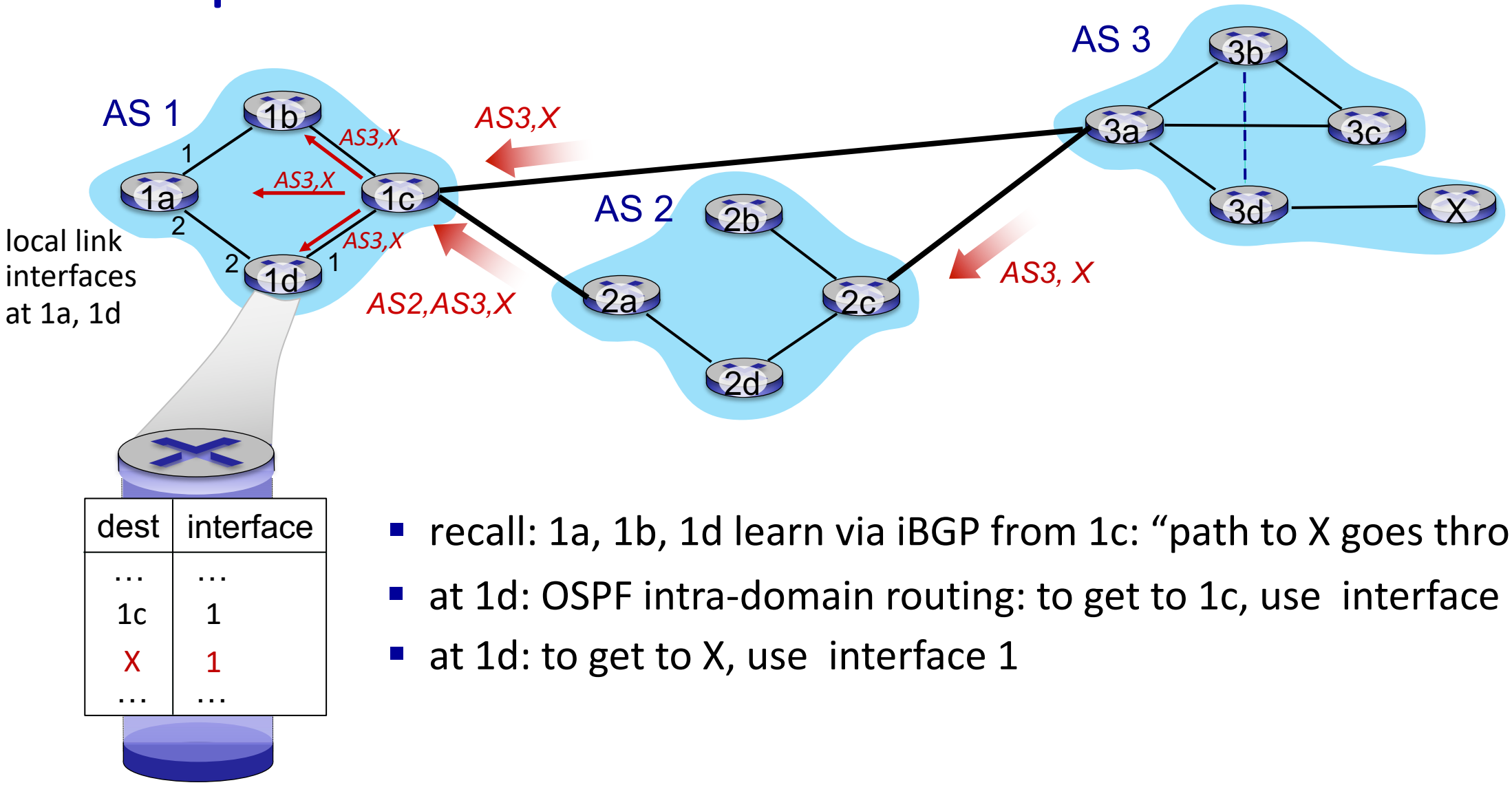
gateway router may learn about multiple paths to destination:

- AS1 gateway router 1c learns path *AS2,AS3,X* from 2a
- AS1 gateway router 1c learns path *AS3,X* from 3a
- based on *policy,* AS1 gateway router 1c chooses path *AS3,X* and advertises path within AS1 via iBGP

BGP messages

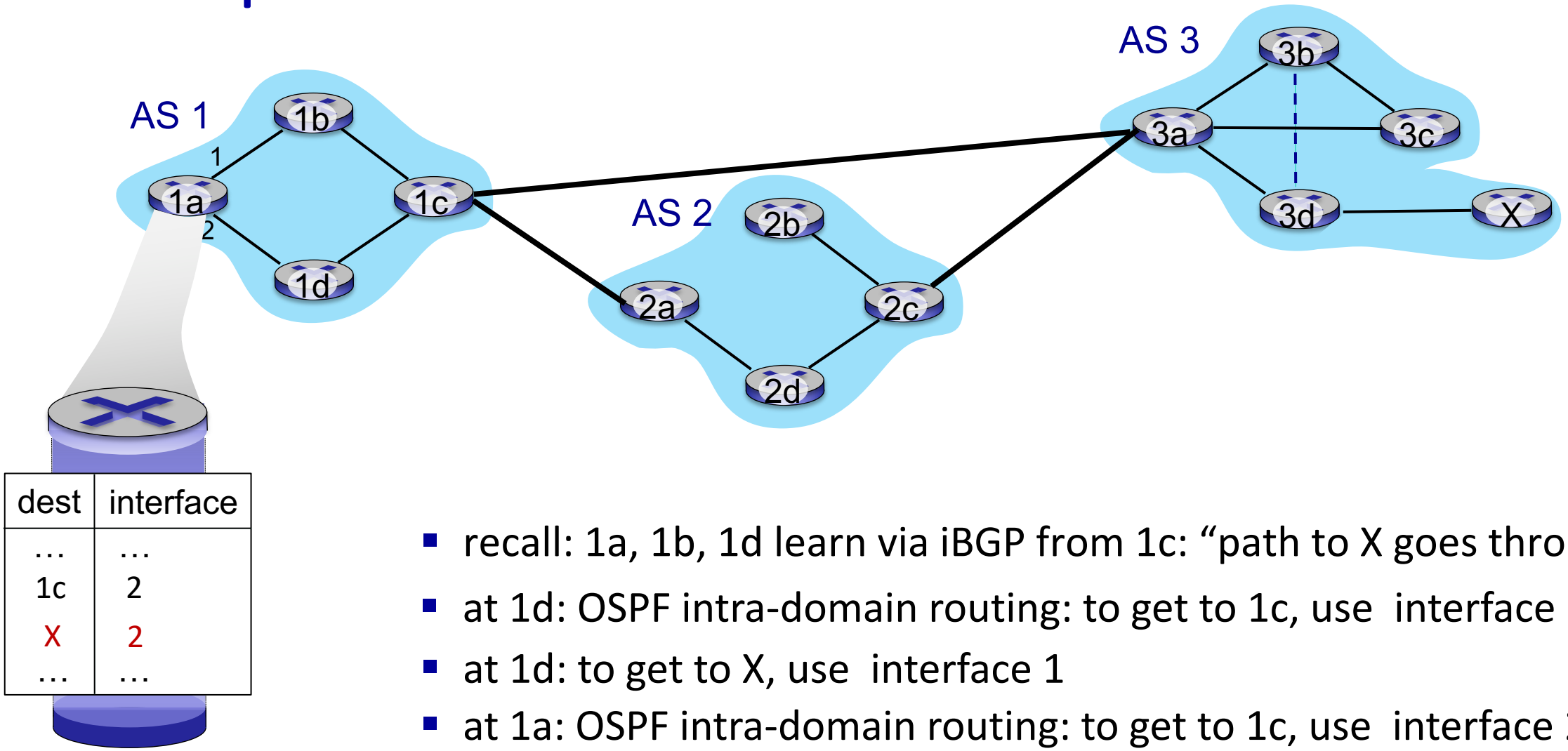
- BGP messages exchanged between peers over TCP connection
- BGP messages:
  - OPEN: opens TCP connection to remote BGP peer and authenticates sending BGP peer
  - UPDATE: advertises new path (or withdraws old)
  - KEEPALIVE: keeps connection alive in absence of UPDATES; also ACKs OPEN request
  - NOTIFICATION: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

BGP path advertisement



- recall: 1a, 1b, 1d learn via iBGP from 1c: “path to X goes through 1c”
- at 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 1
- at 1d: to get to X, use interface 1

BGP path advertisement



- recall: 1a, 1b, 1d learn via iBGP from 1c: “path to X goes through 1c”
- at 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 1
- at 1d: to get to X, use interface 1
- at 1a: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 2
- at 1a: to get to X, use interface 2

Why different Intra-, Inter-AS routing ?

policy:

- inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routed, who routes through its network
- intra-AS: single admin, so policy less of an issue

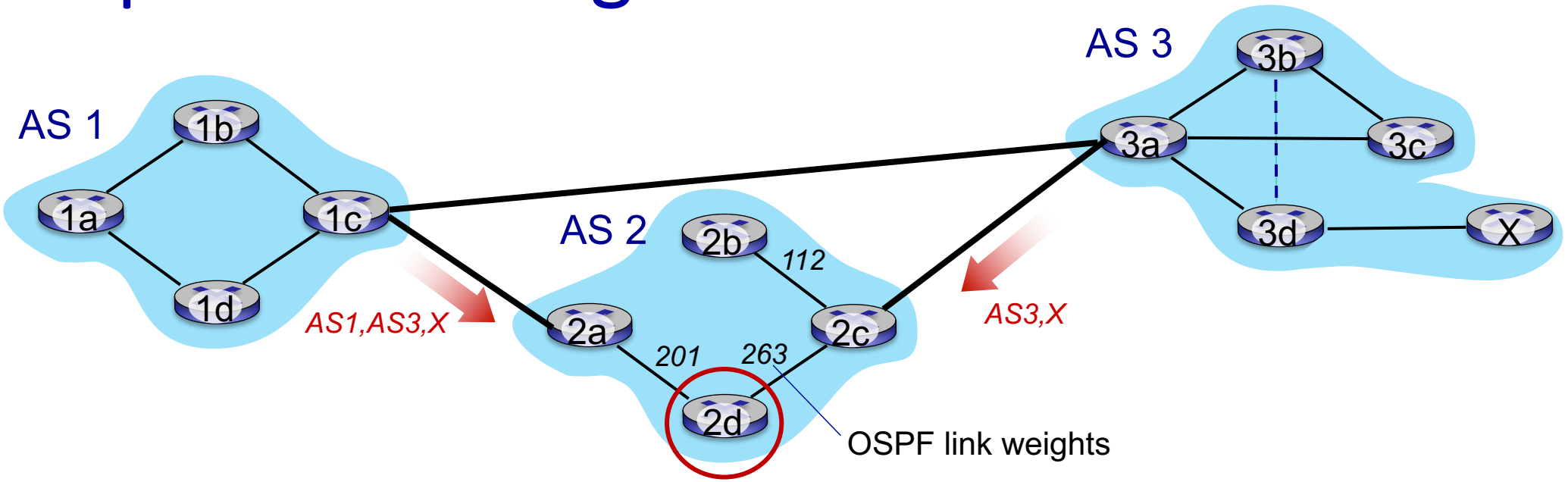
scale:

- hierarchical routing saves table size, reduced update traffic

performance:

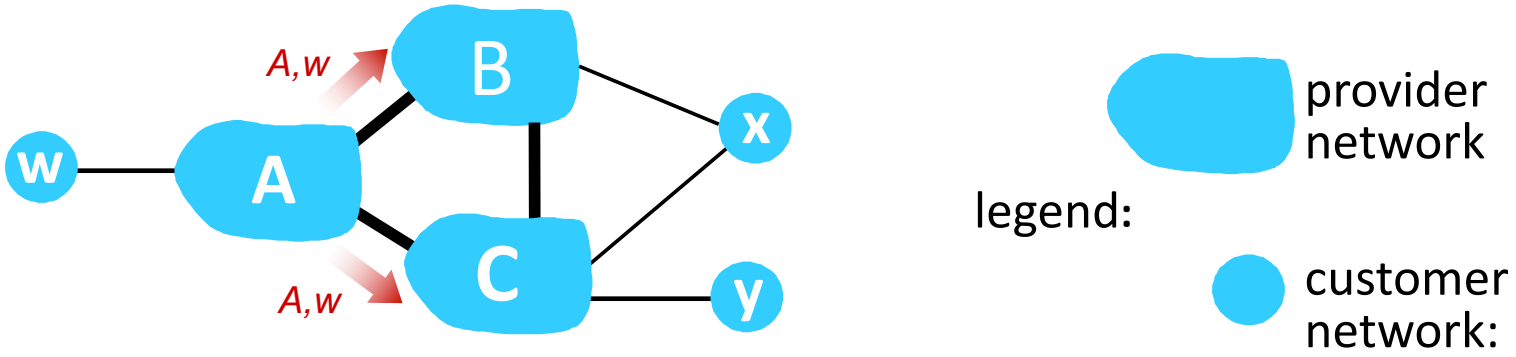
- intra-AS: can focus on performance
- inter-AS: policy dominates over performance

Hot potato routing



- 2d learns (via iBGP) it can route to X via 2a or 2c
- hot potato routing: choose local gateway that has least *intra-domain* cost (e.g., 2d chooses 2a, even though more AS hops to *X*): don't worry about inter-domain cost!

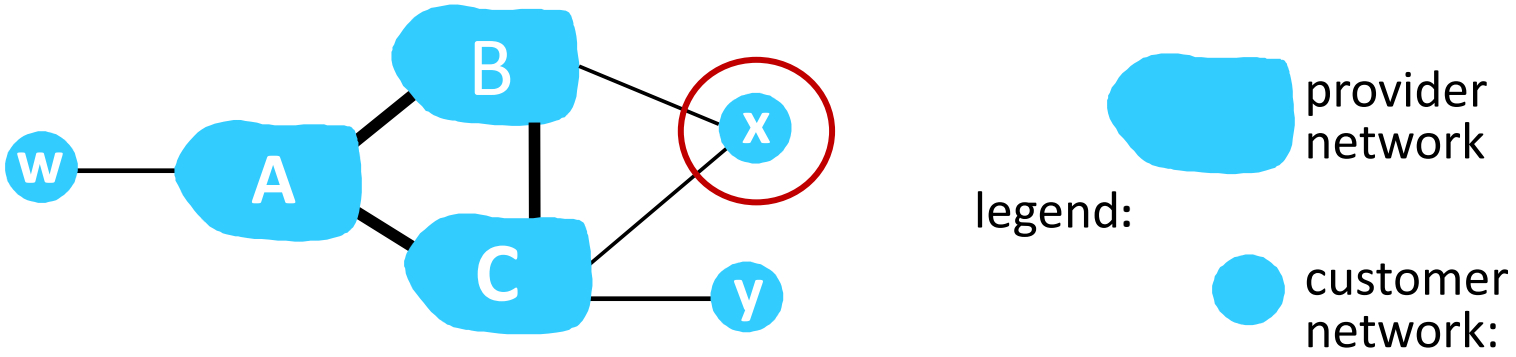
BGP: achieving policy via advertisements



ISP only wants to route traffic to/from its customer networks (does not want to carry transit traffic between other ISPs – a typical "real world" policy)

- A advertises path Aw to B and to C
- B *chooses not to advertise* BAw to C!
  - B gets no "revenue" for routing CBAw, since none of C, A, w are B's customers
  - C does *not* learn about CBAw path
- C will route CAw (not using B) to get to w

BGP: achieving policy via advertisements (more)



ISP only wants to route traffic to/from its customer networks (does not want to carry transit traffic between other ISPs – a typical "real world" policy)

- A,B,C are provider networks
- x,w,y are customer (of provider networks)
- x is dual-homed: attached to two networks
- *policy to enforce:* x does not want to route from B to C via x
  - .. so x will not advertise to B a route to C