Chapter 4: Network Layer

last revision 08/11/03

Chapter goals:

- understand principles behind network layer services:
 - routing (path selection)
 - dealing with scale
 - how a router works
 - advanced topics: I Pv6, multicast
- instantiation and implementation in the Internet

Overview:

- network layer services
- routing principle: path selection
- hierarchical routing
- IP
- Internet routing protocols reliable transfer
 - o intra-domain
 - inter-domain
- what's inside a router?
- □ I Pv6
- multicast routing

Chapter 4 roadmap

- 4.1 Introduction and Network Service Models
- 4.2 Routing Principles
- 4.3 Hierarchical Routing
- 4.4 The Internet (IP) Protocol
- 4.5 Routing in the Internet
- 4.6 What's Inside a Router
- 4.7 I Pv6
- 4.8 Multicast Routing (skipping)
- 4.9 Mobility (skipping)

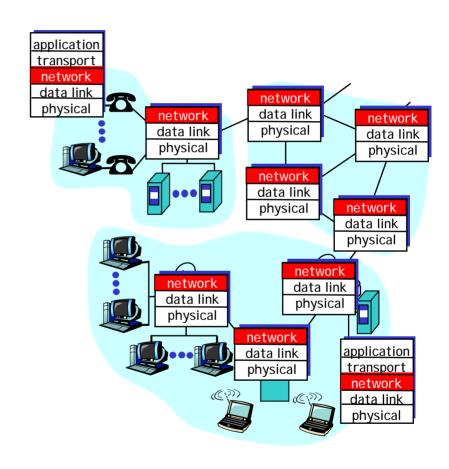
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Network layer functions

- transport packet from sending to receiving hosts
- network layer protocols in every host, router

three important functions:

- path determination: route taken by packets from source to dest. <u>Routing algorithms</u>
- switching: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- call setup: some network architectures require router call setup along path before data flows



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Network service model

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

- guaranteed bandwidth? abstraction
 - preservation of inter-packet timing (no jitter)?
 - loss-free delivery?
 - in-order delivery?
 - congestion feedback to sender?

The most important abstraction provided by network layer:

> virtual circuit or datagram?

Virtual circuits

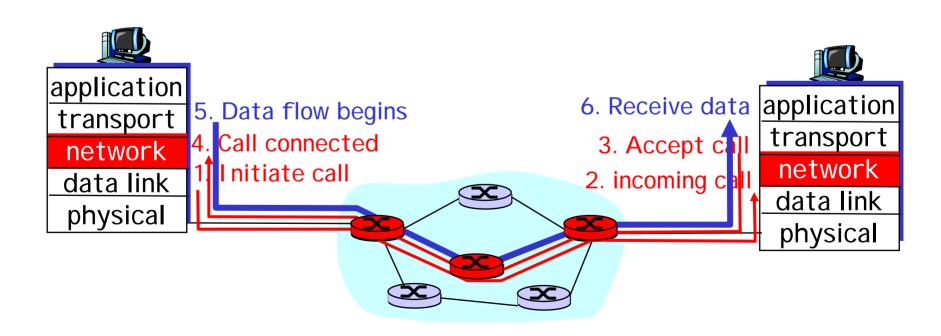
"source-to-dest path behaves much like telephone circuit"

- performance-wise
- network actions along source-to-dest path
- call setup, teardown for each call before data can flow
- each packet carries VC identifier (not destination host OD)
- every router on source-dest paths maintain the "state" for each passing connection
 - transport-layer connection only involved two end systems
- link, router resources (bandwidth, buffers) may be allocated to VC
 - to get circuit-like performance

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Virtual circuits: signaling protocols

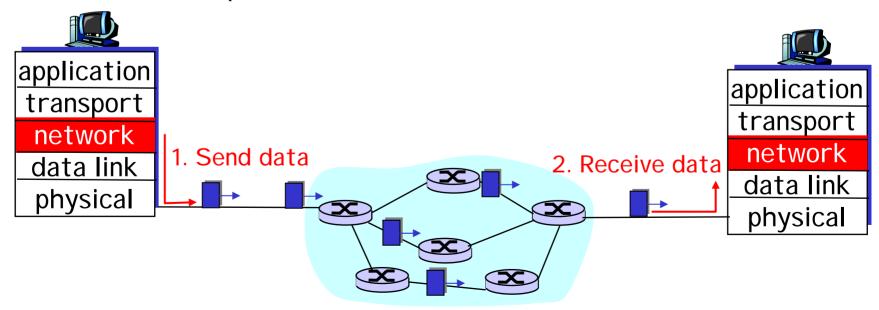
- used to setup, maintain teardown VC
- connection setup process <u>still needs routing</u> much like the way in the Internet
- used in ATM, frame-relay, X.25
- not used in today's Internet



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Datagram networks: the Internet model

- no call setup at network layer
- routers: no state about end-to-end connections
 - o no network-level concept of "connection"
- packets typically routed using destination host ID
 - packets between same source-dest pair may take different paths



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Network layer service models:

	Network	Service Model	Guarantees ?				Congestion
Α	rchitecture		Bandwidth	Loss	Order	Timing	feedback
	Internet	best effort	none	no	no	no	no (inferred via loss)
	ATM	CBR	constant rate	yes	yes	yes	no congestion
	ATM	VBR	guaranteed rate	yes	yes	yes	no congestion
	ATM	ABR	guaranteed minimum	no	yes	no	yes
	ATM	UBR	none	no	yes	no	no

- Internet model being extented: Intserv, Diffserv
 - Chapter 6

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Datagram or VC network: why?

Internet

- data exchange among computers
 - "elastic" service, no strict timing req.
- "smart" end systems (computers)
 - can adapt, perform control, error recovery
 - simple inside network, complexity at "edge"
- many link types
 - different characteristics
 - uniform service difficult

ATM

- evolved from telephony
- human conversation:
 - strict timing, reliability requirements
 - need for guaranteed service
- "dumb" end systems
 - telephones
 - complexity inside network

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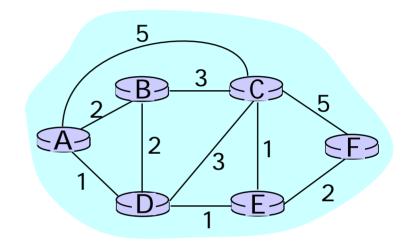
Routing

Routing protocol

Goal: determine "good" path (sequence of routers) thru network from source to dest.

Graph abstraction for routing algorithms:

- graph nodes are routers
- graph edges are physical links
 - link cost: delay, \$ cost, or congestion level



- ☐ "good" path:
 - typically means minimum cost path
 - o ther def's possible

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Routing Algorithm classification

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

Static or dynamic?

Static:

routes change slowly over time

Dynamic:

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

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 routing table for that node
- iterative: after k iterations, know least cost path to k dest.'s

Notation:

- c(i,j): link cost from node i to j. cost infinite 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 v, that is next v
- N: set of nodes whose least cost path definitively known

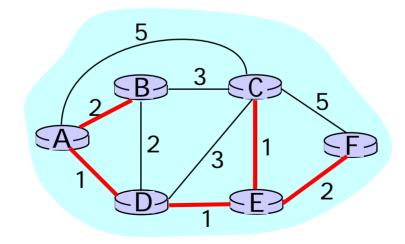
Dijsktra's Algorithm

```
Initialization:
   N = \{A\}
   for all nodes v
     if v adjacent to A
5
      then D(v) = c(A, v)
      else D(v) = infty
6
   Loop
    find w not in N such that D(w) is a minimum
    add w to N
    update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N:
12 D(v) = min(D(v), D(w) + c(w,v))
   /* 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
```

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Dijkstra's algorithm: example

Step	start N	D(B),p(B)	D(C),p(C)	D(D),p(D)	D(E),p(E)	D(F),p(F)
 0	А	2,A	5,A	1,A	infinity	infinity
1	AD	2,A	4,D		2,D	infinity
→ 2	ADE	2,A	3,E			4,E
→ 3	ADEB		3,E			4,E
 4	ADEBC					4,E
5	ADEBCF					



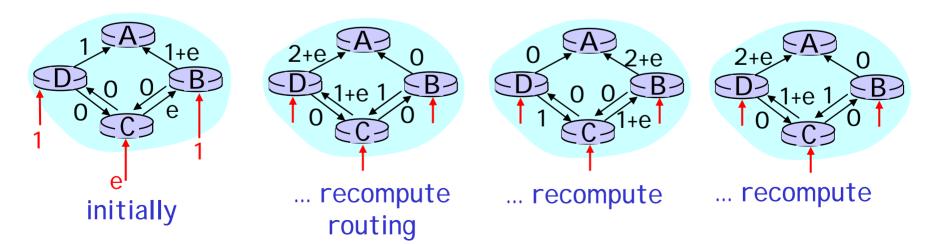
Dijkstra's algorithm, discussion

Algorithm complexity: n nodes

- each iteration: need to check all nodes, w, not in N
- \square n*(n+1)/2 comparisons: O(n**2)
- more efficient implementations possible: O(nlogn)

Oscillations possible:

e.g., link cost = amount of carried traffic



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Distance Vector Routing Algorithm

iterative:

- continues until no nodes exchange info.
- self-terminating: no "signal" to stop

asynchronous:

nodes need not exchange info/iterate in lock step!

distributed:

 each node communicates only with directly-attached neighbors

Distance Table data structure

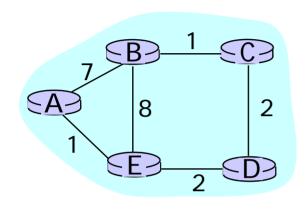
- each node has its own
- row for each possible destination
- column for each directlyattached neighbor to node
- example: in node X, for dest. Y via neighbor Z:

$$D(Y,Z) = \begin{cases} \text{distance } from X \text{ to} \\ Y, \text{ via } Z \text{ as next hop} \end{cases}$$
$$= c(X,Z) + \min_{W} \{D^{Z}(Y,W)\}$$

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Distance Table: example



$$D(C,D) = c(E,D) + \min_{W} \{D^{D}(C,w)\}$$

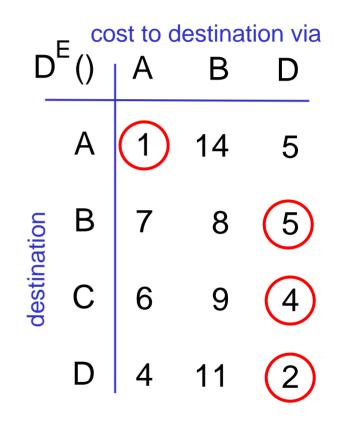
$$= 2+2 = 4$$

$$D(A,D) = c(E,D) + \min_{W} \{D^{D}(A,w)\}$$

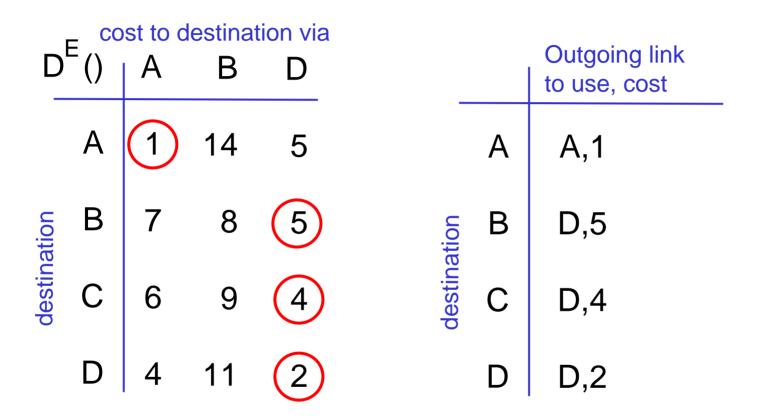
$$= 2+3 = 5_{loop!}$$

$$D(A,B) = c(E,B) + \min_{W} \{D^{B}(A,w)\}$$

$$= 8+6 = 14_{loop!}$$



Distance table gives routing table



Distance table — Routing table

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Distance Vector Routing: overview

I terative, asynchronous:

each local iteration caused by:

- local link cost change
- message from neighbor: its least cost path to some node has changed

Distributed:

- each node notifies
 neighbors only when its
 least cost path to any
 destination changes
 - neighbors then notify their neighbors if necessary

Each node:

wait for (change in local link or message from neighbor about change of a shortest path)

recompute distance table

if least cost path to any dest has changed, *notify* neighbors

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Distance Vector Algorithm:

At all nodes, X:

```
1 Initialization:
2 for all adjacent nodes v:
3 DX(*,v) = infty /* the * operator means "for all rows" */
4 DX(v,v) = c(X,v)
5 for all destinations, y
6 send min DX(y,w) to each neighbor /* w over all X's neighbors */
```

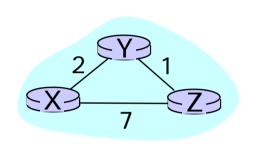
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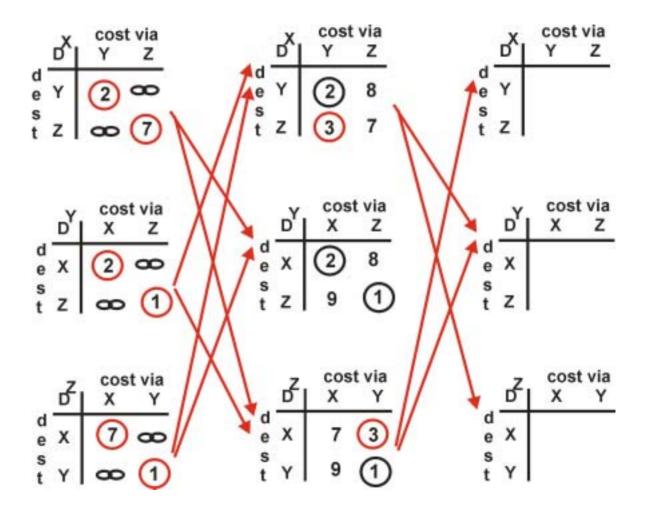
Distance Vector Algorithm (cont.):

```
8 loop
    wait (until I see a link cost change to neighbor V
10
         or until I receive update from neighbor V)
11
    if (c(X,V) changes by d)
13
    /* change cost to all dest's via neighbor v by d */
14 /* note: d could be positive or negative */
     for all destinations y: D^{X}(y,V) = D^{X}(y,V) + d
15
16
17
     else if (update received from V wrt destination Y)
18
     /* shortest path from V to some Y has changed */
     /* V has sent a new value for its minw DV(Y,w) */
19
     /* call this received new value is "newval" */
20
      for the single destination y: D^{X}(Y,V) = c(X,V) + newval
21
22
    if we have a new min<sub>w</sub> D<sup>X</sup>(Y,w)for any destination Y send new value of min<sub>w</sub> D<sup>X</sup>(Y,w) to all neighbors
23
24
25
26 forever
```

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Distance Vector Algorithm: example

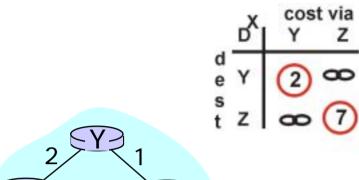




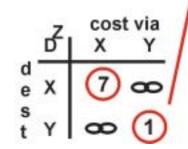
23

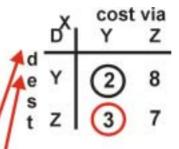
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Distance Vector Algorithm: example



	v	cost	via
	D,	X	Z
d e	х	2	<u></u>
S	z	80	1





$$D^{X}(Y,Z) = c(X,Z) + min_{W} \{D^{Z}(Y,w)\}$$

= 7+1 = 8

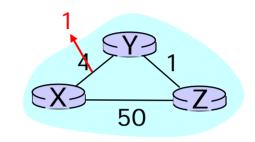
$$D^{X}(Z,Y) = c(X,Y) + min_{W} \{D^{Y}(Z,w)\}$$

= 2+1 = 3

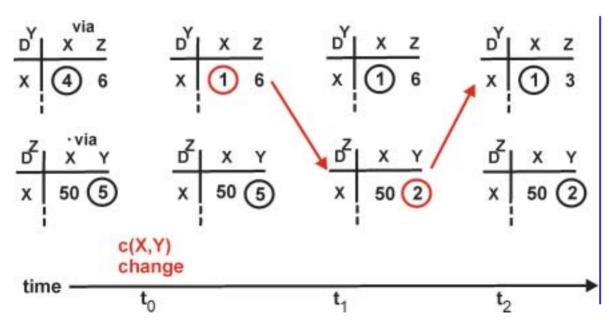
Distance Vector: link cost changes

Link cost changes:

- node detects local link cost change
- updates distance table (line 15)
- if cost change in least cost path, notify neighbors (lines 23,24)



"good news travels fast"

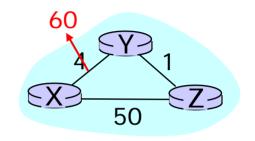


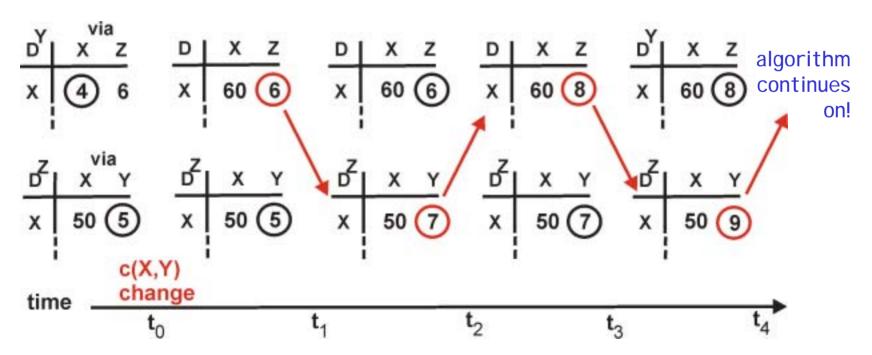
algorithm terminates

Distance Vector: link cost changes

Link cost changes:

- good news travels fast
- bad news travels slow -"count to infinity" problem!



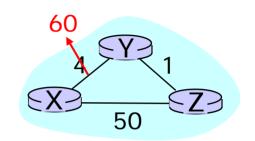


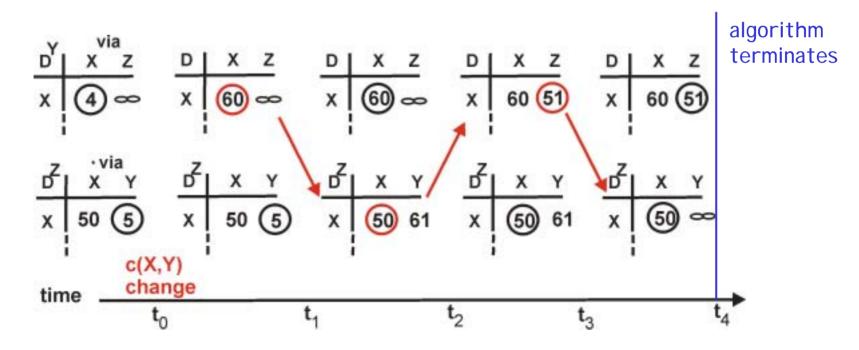
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Distance Vector: poisoned reverse

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?





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Comparison of LS and DV algorithms

Message complexity

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

Speed of Convergence

- □ LS: O(n**2) 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

<u>DV:</u>

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

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Chapter 4 roadmap

- 4.1 Introduction and Network Service Models
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Hierarchical Routing

Our routing study thus far - idealization

- all routers identical
- network "flat"

... not true in practice

scale: with 200 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

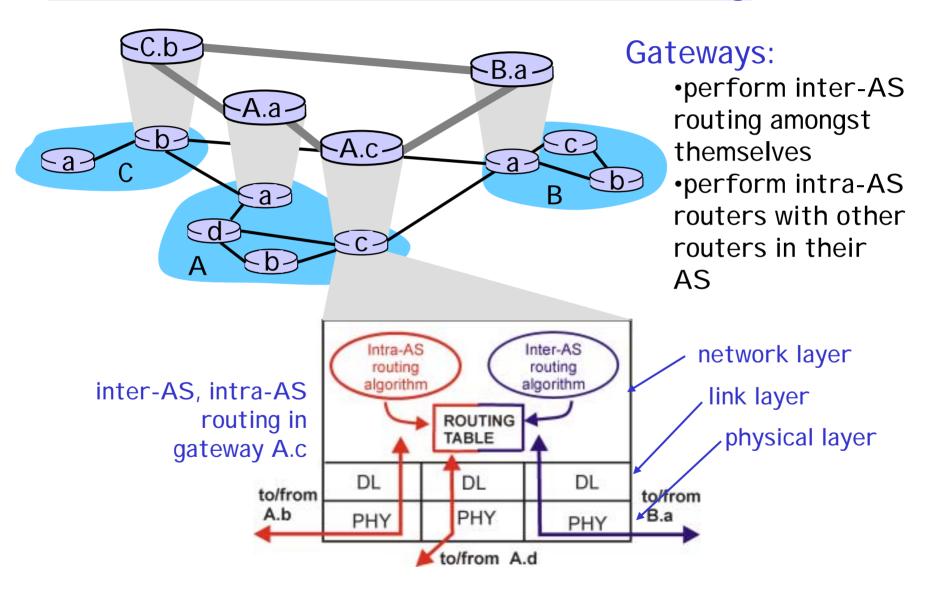
Hierarchical Routing

- 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 routers

- special routers in AS
- run intra-AS routing protocol with all other routers in AS
- also responsible for routing to destinations outside AS
 - run inter-AS routing protocol with other gateway routers

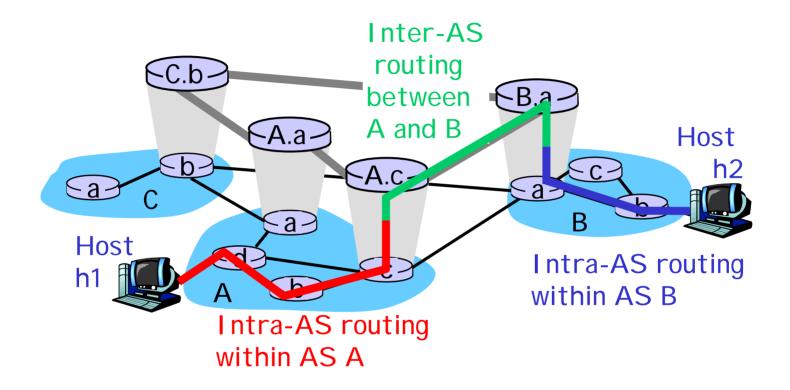
Intra-AS and Inter-AS routing



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Intra-AS and Inter-AS routing



We'll examine specific inter-AS and intra-AS Internet routing protocols shortly

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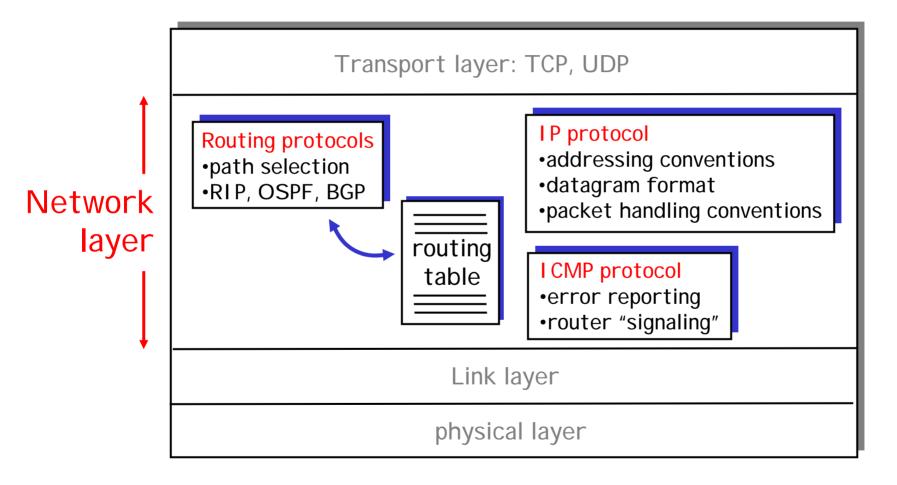
Chapter 4 roadmap

- 4.1 Introduction and Network Service Models
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- 4.3 Hierarchical Routing
- 4.4 The Internet (IP) Protocol
 - 4.4.1 I Pv4 addressing
 - 4.4.2 Moving a datagram from source to destination
 - 4.4.3 Datagram format
 - 4.4.4 IP fragmentation
 - 4.4.5 I CMP: Internet Control Message Protocol
 - 4.4.6 DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol
 - 4.4.7 NAT: Network Address Translation
- 4.5 Routing in the Internet
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The Internet Network layer

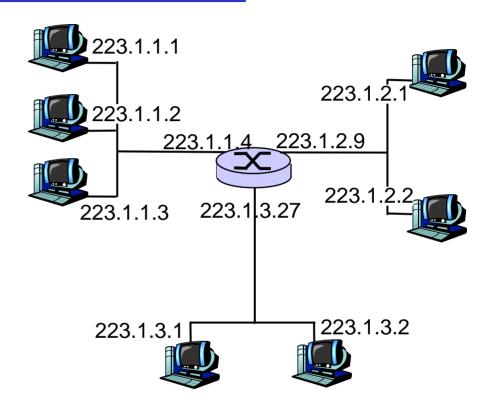
Host, router network layer functions:

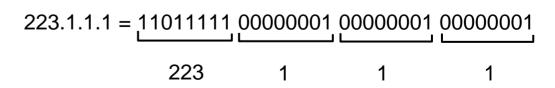


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IP Addressing: introduction

- IP address: 32-bit identifier for host, router interface
- interface: connection between host, router and physical link
 - router's typically have multiple interfaces
 - host may have multiple interfaces
 - IP addresses
 associated with
 interface, not host,
 router





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IP Addressing

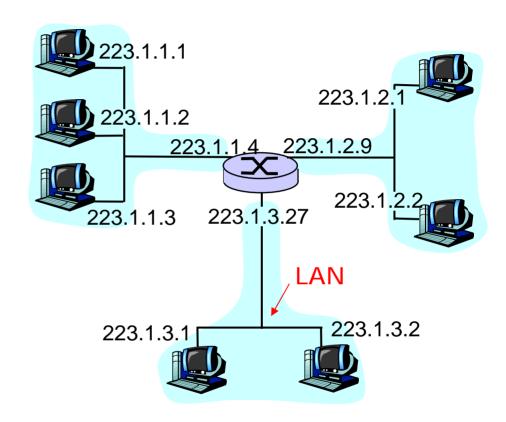
☐ IP address:

- network part (high order bits)
- host part (low order bits)

□ What's a network?

(from IP address perspective)

- device interfaces with same network part of IP address
- can physically reach each other without intervening router



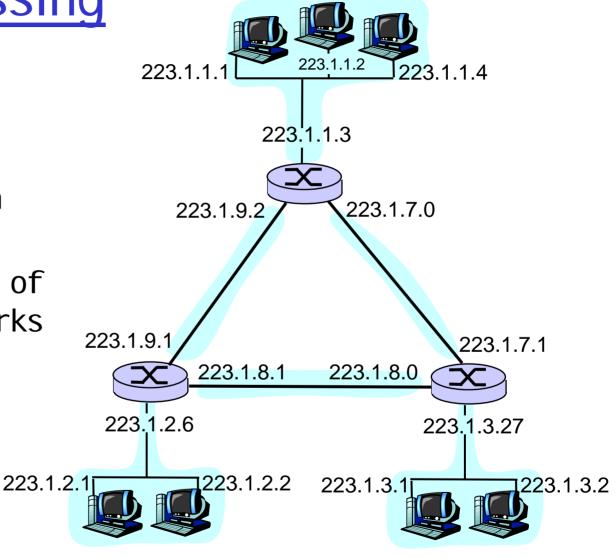
network consisting of 3 IP networks (for IP addresses starting with 223, first 24 bits are network address)

IP Addressing

How to find the networks?

- Detach each interface from router, host
- create "islands of isolated networks

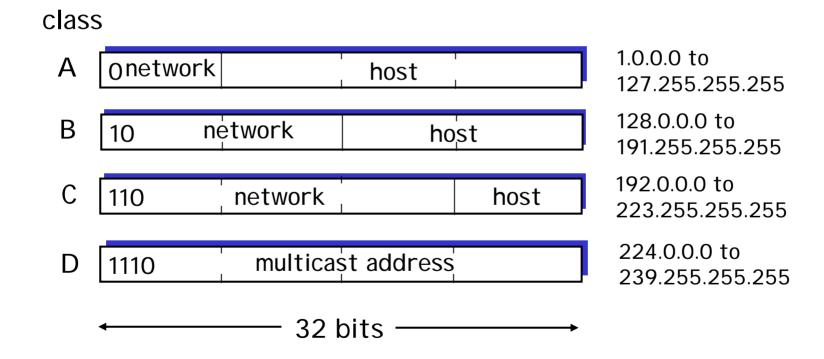
Interconnected system consisting of six networks



IP Addresses

given notion of "network", let's re-examine IP addresses:

"class-full" addressing:



IP addressing: CIDR

- classful addressing:
 - o inefficient use of address space, address space exhaustion
 - e.g., class B net allocated enough addresses for 65K hosts, even if only 2K hosts in that network
- CI DR: Classless InterDomain Routing
 - network portion of address of arbitrary length
 - address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in network portion of address



200.23.16.0/23

IP addresses: how to get one?

Hosts (host portion):

- hard-coded by system admin in a file
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address: "plug-and-play"
 - host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg
 - DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg
 - o host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
 - O DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msg

IP addresses: how to get one?

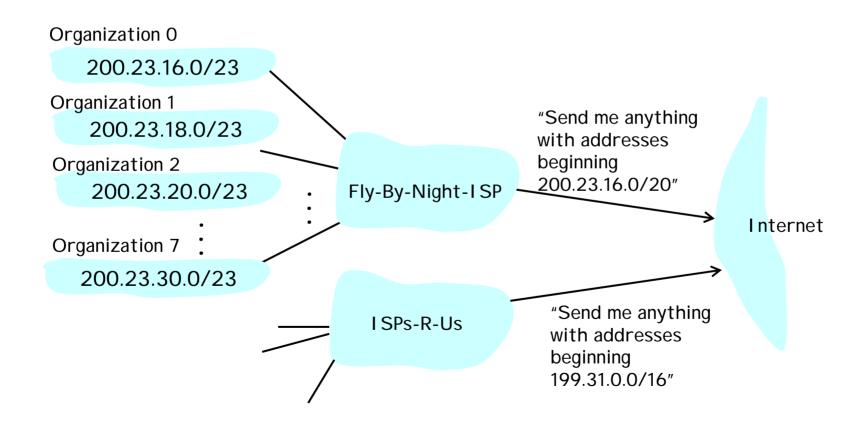
Network (network portion):

get allocated portion of I SP's address space:

ISP's block	<u>11001000</u> 0	00010111	<u>0001</u> 0000	00000000	200.23.16.0/20
Organization 0	<u>11001000 0</u>	0010111	<u>0001000</u> 0	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	<u>11001000 0</u>	00010111	<u>0001001</u> 0	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	<u>11001000 0</u>	00010111	<u>0001010</u> 0	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
•••				••••	••••
Organization 7	<u>11001000 0</u>	0010111	<u>0001111</u> 0	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

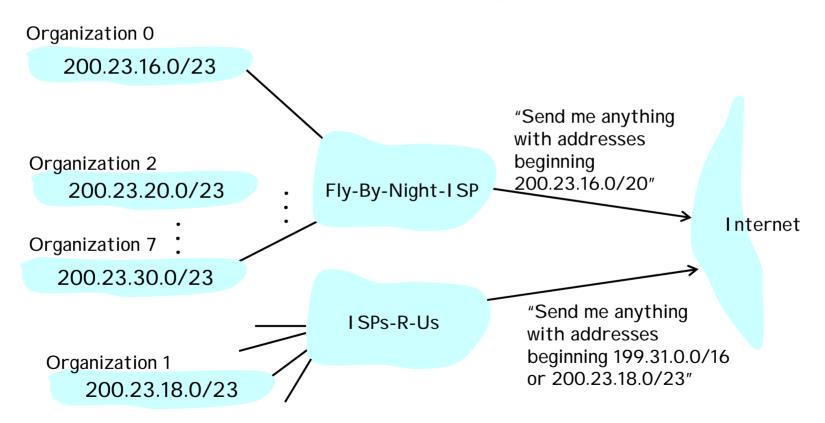
Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

Hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



Hierarchical addressing: more specific routes

I SPs-R-Us has a more specific route to Organization 1



IP addressing: the last word...

O: How does an I SP get block of addresses?

A: I CANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned

Names and Numbers

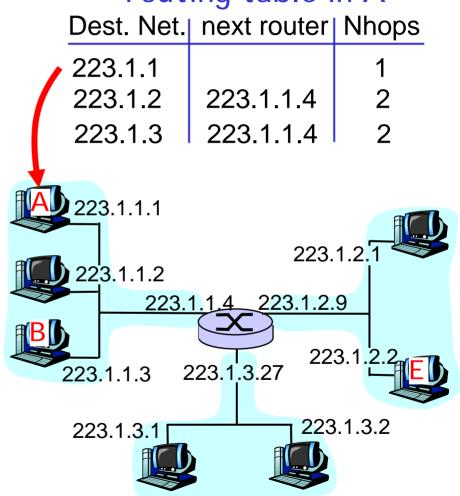
- allocates addresses
- manages DNS
- assigns domain names, resolves disputes

IP datagram:

misc	source	dest	al a 4 a
fields	IP addr	IP addr	data

- datagram remains unchanged, as it travels source to destination
- addr fields of interest here

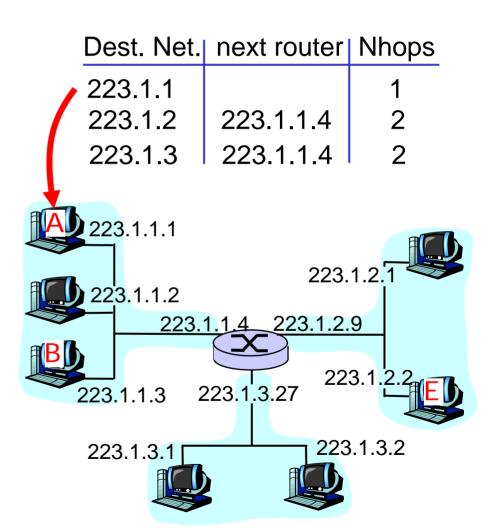
routing table in A



misc	000111	000110	ماماء
fields	223.1.1.1	223.1.1.3	data

Starting at A, given IP datagram addressed to B:

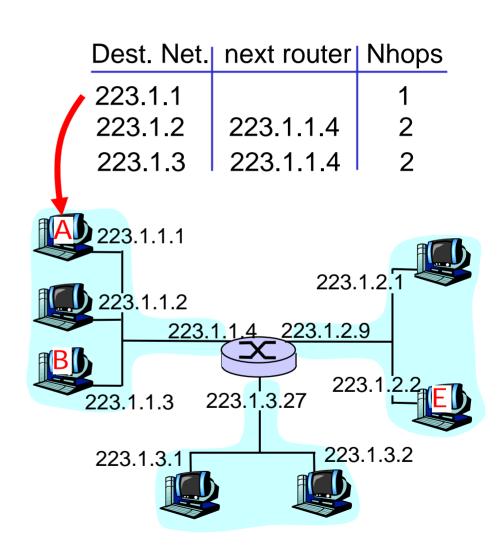
- look up net. address of B
- find B is on same net. as A
- link layer will send datagram directly to B inside link-layer frame
 - B and A are directly connected



misc fields	223.1.1.1	223.1.2.3	data
1 lelus			

Starting at A, dest. E:

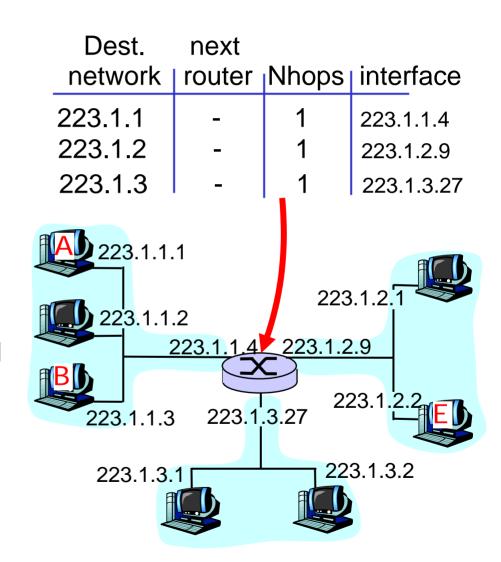
- look up network address of E
- E on different network
 - A, E not directly attached
- routing table: next hop router to E is 223.1.1.4
- link layer sends datagram to router 223.1.1.4 inside linklayer frame
- datagram arrives at 223.1.1.4
- continued.....



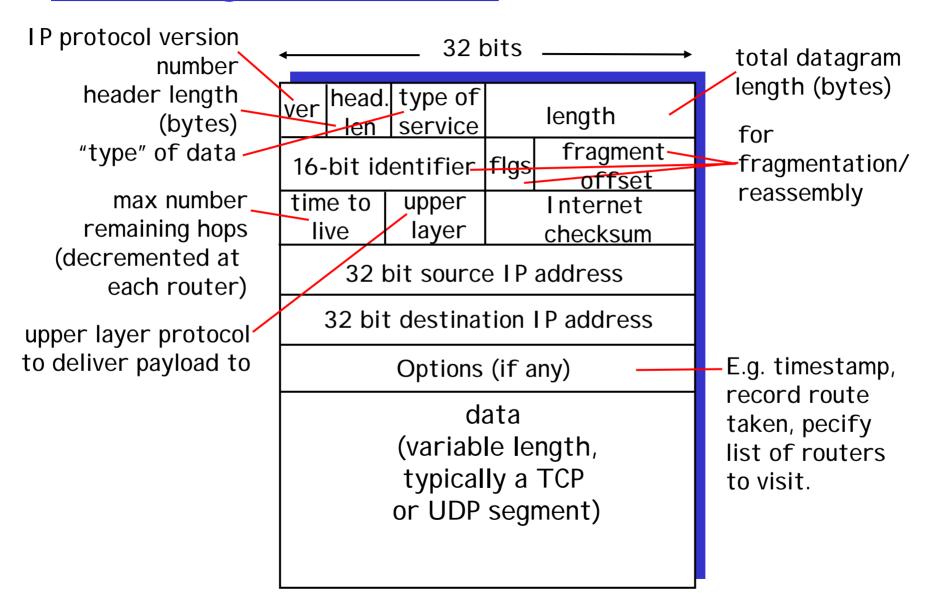
misc	000111	000100	م لـ م
fields	223.1.1.1	223.1.2.3	aata
110100			

Arriving at 223.1.4, destined for 223.1.2.2

- look up network address of E
- E on same network as router's interface 223.1.2.9
 - router, E directly attached
- link layer sends datagram to 223.1.2.2 inside link-layer frame via interface 223.1.2.9
- datagram arrives at 223.1.2.2!!! (hooray!)



IP datagram format



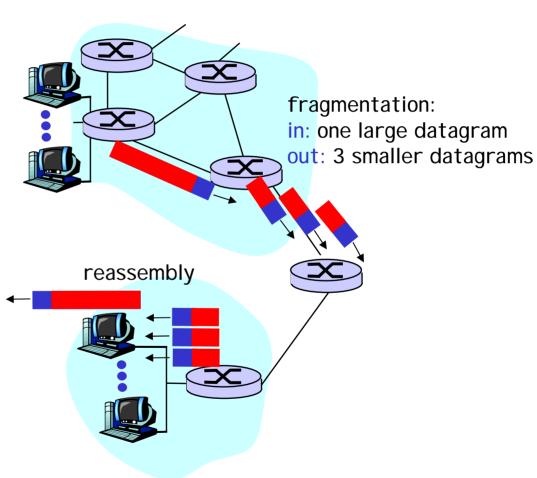
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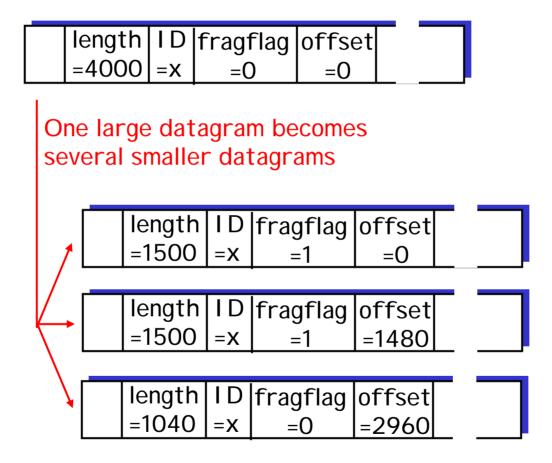
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IP Fragmentation & Reassembly

- 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 and Reassembly



ICMP: Internet Control Message Protocol

	used by hosts, routers, gateways to communication	<u>Type</u>	<u>Code</u>	description
	network-level information	0	0	echo reply (ping)
		3	0	dest. network unreachable
	o 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	3	6	dest network unknown
	by 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)
	ICMP message: type, code plus	9	0	route advertisement
firs	first 8 bytes of IP datagram	10	0	router discovery
		11	0	TTL expired
	causing error	12	0	bad IP header

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

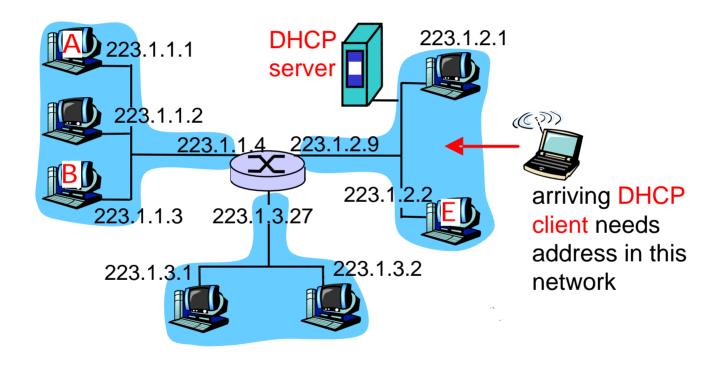
Allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected an "on"

Support for mobile users who want to join network (more shortly)

DHCP overview:

- host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg
- DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg
- o host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
- O DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msg

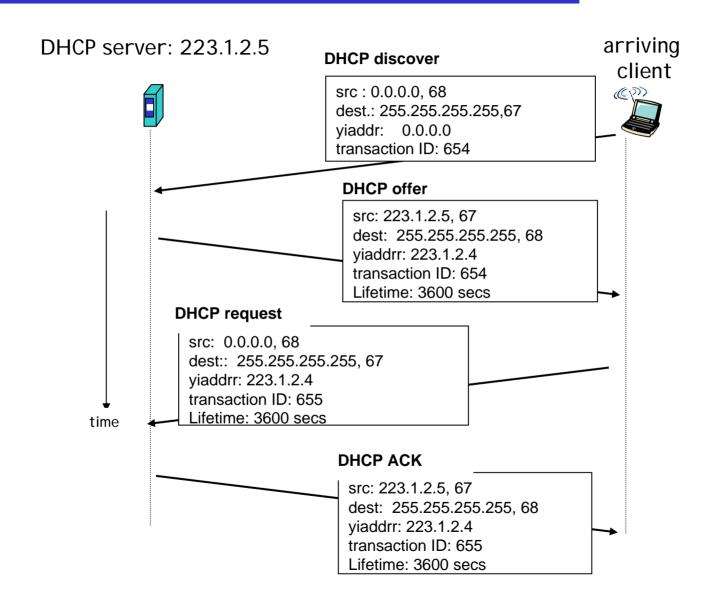
DHCP client-server scenario



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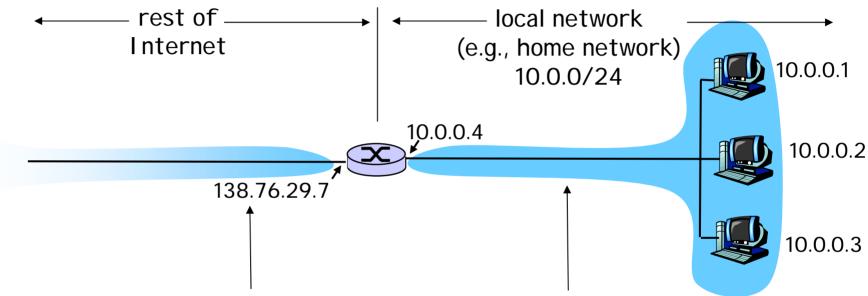
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DHCP client-server scenario



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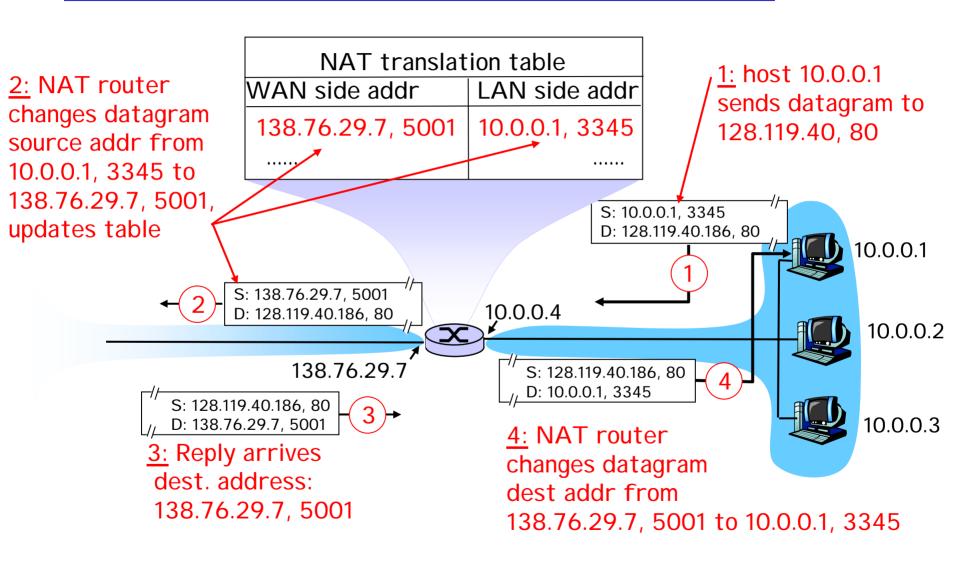
All datagrams leaving local network have same single source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, different source port numbers

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 word is concerned:
 - o no need to be allocated range of addresses from ISP:
 - just one IP address is used for all devices
 - can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
 - can change I SP 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



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- □ 16-bit port-number field:
 - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
 - o 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 I Pv6

Chapter 4 roadmap

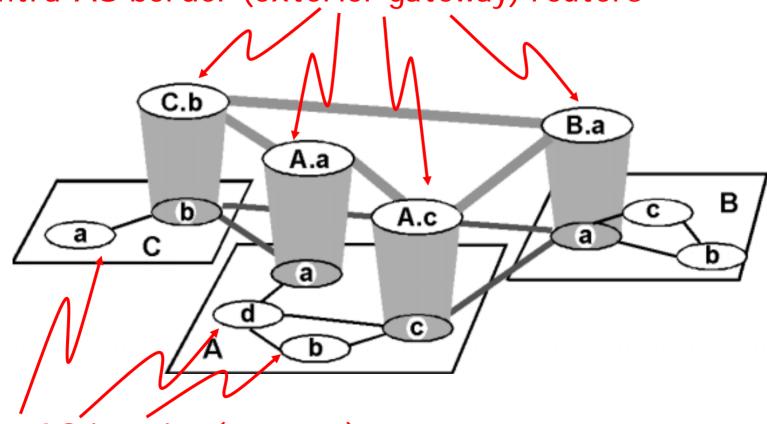
- 4.1 Introduction and Network Service Models
- 4.2 Routing Principles
- 4.3 Hierarchical Routing
- 4.4 The Internet (IP) Protocol
- 4.5 Routing in the Internet
 - → 4.5.1 Intra-AS routing: RIP and OSPF
 - 4.5.2 Inter-AS routing: BGP
- 4.6 What's Inside a Router?
- 4.7 I Pv6
- 4.8 Multicast Routing (skipping)
- 4.9 Mobility (skipping)

Routing in the Internet

- The Global Internet consists of Autonomous Systems (AS) interconnected with each other:
 - Stub AS: small corporation: one connection to other AS's
 - Multihomed AS: large corporation (no transit): multiple connections to other AS's
 - Transit AS: provider, hooking many AS's together
- Two-level routing:
 - Intra-AS: administrator responsible for choice of routing algorithm within network
 - Inter-AS: unique standard for inter-AS routing: BGP

Internet AS Hierarchy

Intra-AS border (exterior gateway) routers



Inter-AS interior (gateway) routers

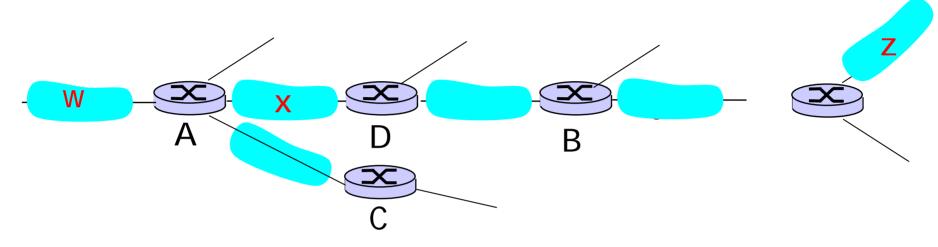
Intra-AS Routing

- Also known as Interior Gateway Protocols (I GP)
- Most common Intra-AS routing protocols:
 - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
 - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First
 - I GRP: Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (Cisco proprietary)

RIP (Routing Information Protocol)

- Distance vector algorithm
- Included in BSD-UNIX Distribution in 1982
- □ Distance metric: # of hops (max = 15 hops)
 - O Can you guess why?
- Distance vectors: exchanged among neighbors every 30 sec via Response Message (also called advertisement)
- Each advertisement: list of up to 25 destination nets within AS

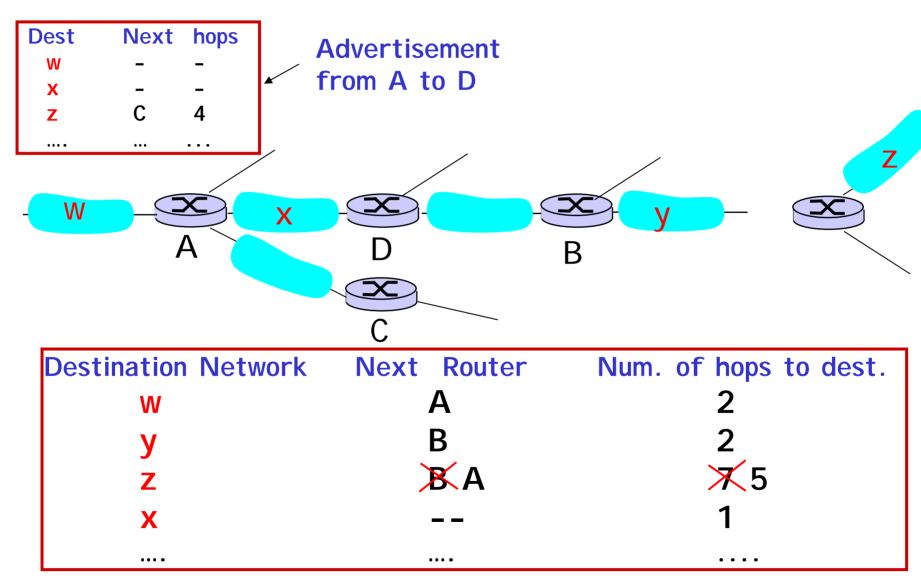
RIP: Example



Destination Network	Next Router	Num. of hops to dest.
W	Α	2
y	В	2
Z	В	7
X		1
	••••	•••

Routing table in D

RIP: Example



Routing table in D

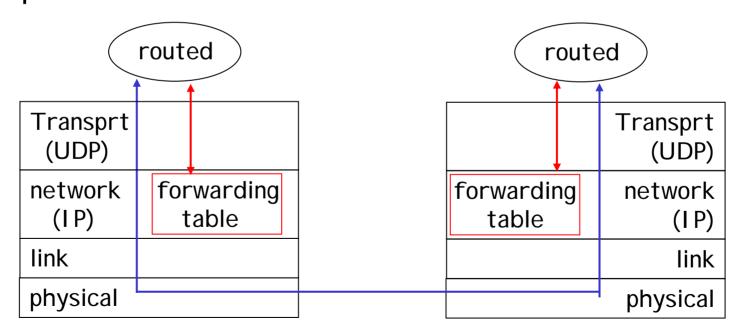
RIP: Link Failure and Recovery

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



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RIP Table example (continued)

Router: *giroflee.eurocom.fr*

Destination	Gateway	Flags	Ref	Use	Interface
127.0.0.1	127.0.0.1	UH	0	26492	100
192.168.2.	192.168.2.5	U	2	13	fa0
193.55.114.	193.55.114.6	U	3	58503	le0
192.168.3.	192.168.3.5	U	2	25	qaa0
224.0.0.0	193.55.114.6	U	3	0	le0
default	193.55.114.129	UG	0	143454	

- Three attached class C networks (LANs)
- Router only knows routes to attached LANs
- Default router used to "go up"
- Route multicast address: 224.0.0.0
- Loopback interface (for debugging)

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 router
- Advertisements disseminated to entire AS (via flooding)
 - Carried in OSPF messages directly over IP (rather than TCP or UDP

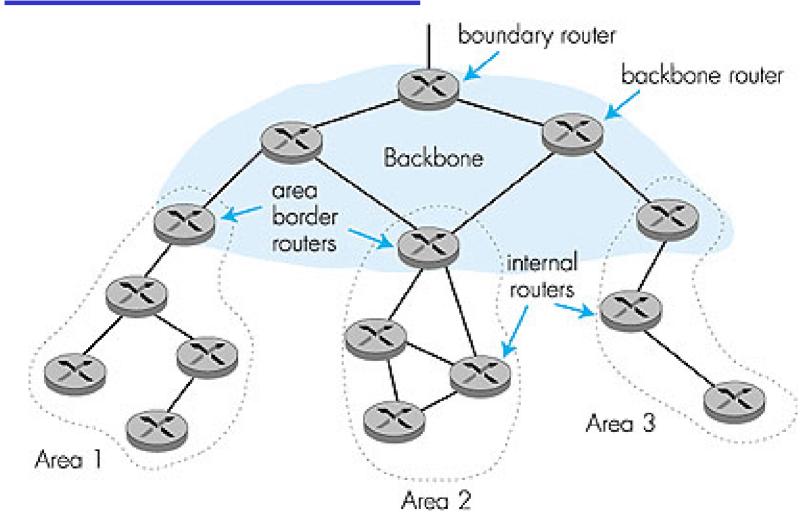
OSPF "advanced" features (not in RIP)

- 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; high for real time)
- Integrated uni- and multicast support:
 - Multicast OSPF (MOSPF) uses same topology data base as OSPF
- Hierarchical OSPF in large domains.

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Hierarchical OSPF



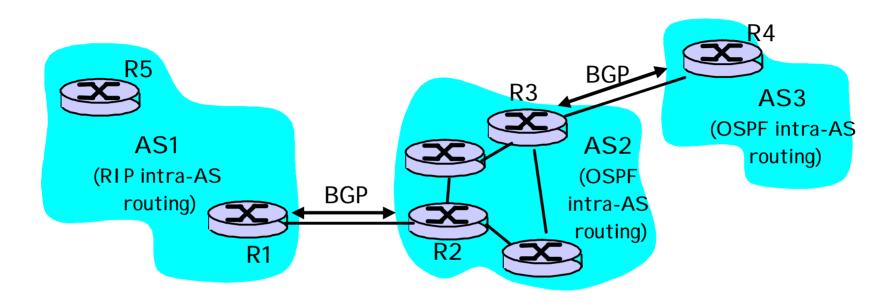
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Hierarchical OSPF

- □ 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.

Inter-AS routing in the Internet: BGP



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Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol): the de facto standard
- Path Vector protocol:
 - similar to Distance Vector protocol
 - each Border Gateway broadcast to neighbors (peers) entire path (i.e., sequence of AS's) to destination
 - BGP routes to networks (ASs), not individual hosts
 - E.g., Gateway X may send its path to dest. Z:

Path (X,Z) = X,Y1,Y2,Y3,...,Z

Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

Suppose: gateway X send its path to peer gateway W

- W may or may not select path offered by X
 - cost, policy (don't route via competitors AS), loop prevention reasons.
- ☐ If W selects path advertised by X, then:

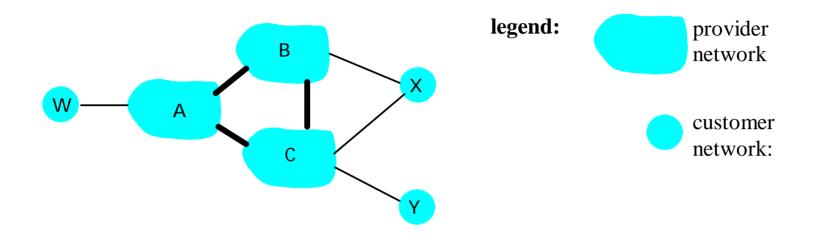
Path
$$(W,Z) = w$$
, Path (X,Z)

- Note: X can control incoming traffic by controlling it route advertisements to peers:
 - e.g., don't want to route traffic to Z -> don't advertise any routes to Z

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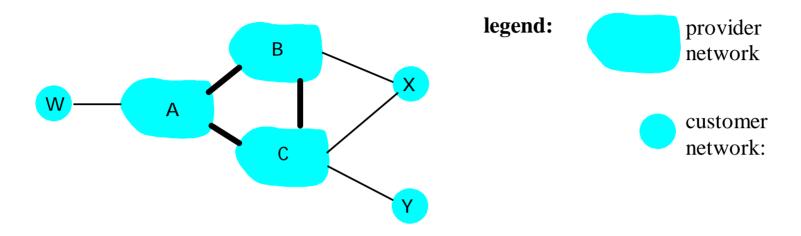
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BGP: controlling who routes to you



- 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

BGP: controlling who routes to you



- A advertises to B the path AW
- B advertises to X the path BAW
- Should B advertise to C the path BAW?
 - No way! B gets no "revenue" for routing CBAW since neither W nor C are B's customers
 - B wants to force C to route to w via A
 - B wants to route only to/from its customers!

BGP operation

Q: What does a BGP router do?

- Receiving and filtering route advertisements from directly attached neighbor(s).
- Route selection.
 - To route to destination X, which path)of several advertised) will be taken?
- Sending route advertisements to neighbors.

BGP messages

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

Why different Intra- and Inter-AS routing?

Policy:

- Inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routed, 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

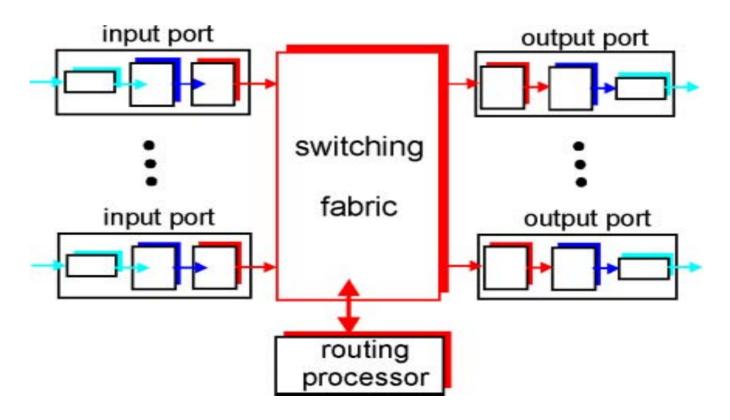
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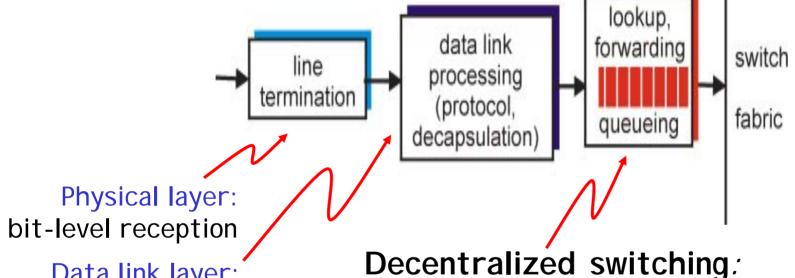
Router Architecture Overview

Two key router functions:

- run routing algorithms/protocol (RIP, OSPF, BGP)
- switching datagrams from incoming to outgoing link



Input Port Functions



Data link layer: e.g., Ethernet see chapter 5

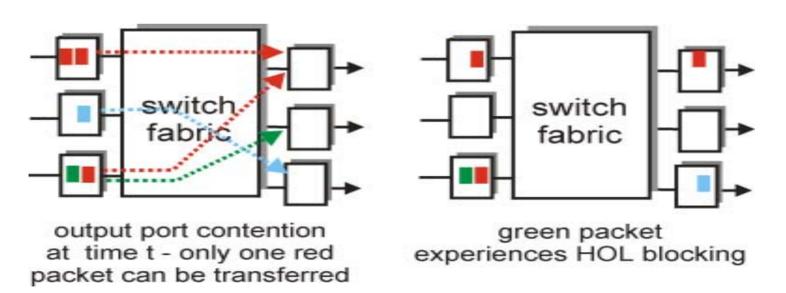
given datagram dest., lookup output port using routing table in input port memory

- goal: complete input port processing at 'line speed'
- queuing: if datagrams arrive faster than forwarding rate into switch fabric

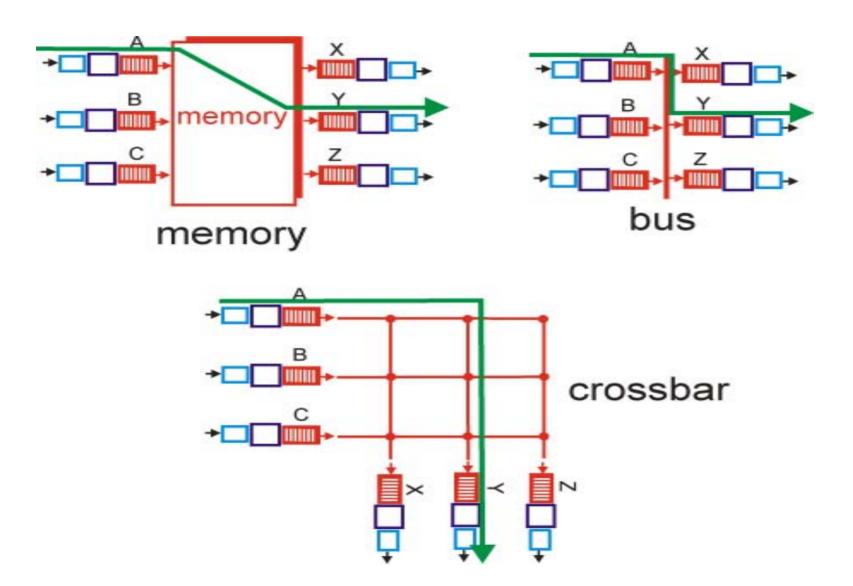
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Input Port Queuing

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



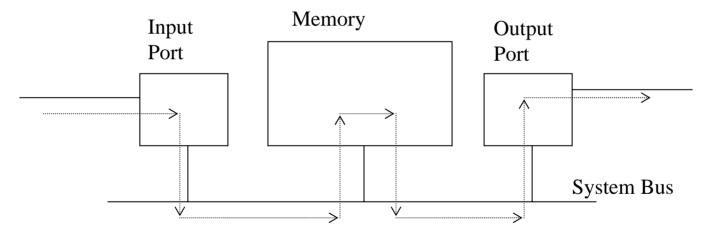
Three types of switching fabrics



Switching Via Memory

First generation routers:

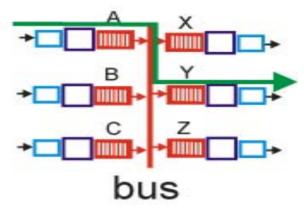
- packet copied by system's (single) CPU
- speed limited by memory bandwidth (2 bus crossings per datagram)



Modern routers:

- input port processor performs lookup, copy into memory
- ☐ Cisco Catalyst 8500

Switching Via a Bus

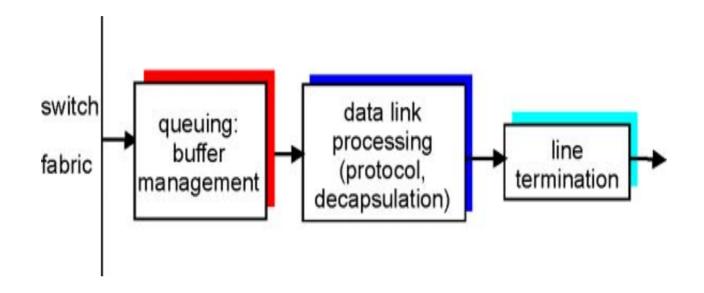


- datagram from input port memory to output port memory via a shared bus
- bus contention: switching speed limited by bus bandwidth
- 1 Gbps bus, Cisco 1900: sufficient speed for access and enterprise routers (not regional or backbone)

Switching Via An Interconnection Network

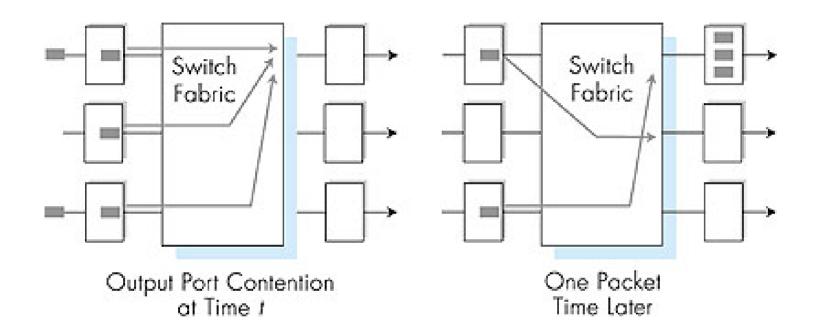
- overcome bus bandwidth limitations
- Banyan networks, other interconnection nets initially developed to connect processors in multiprocessor
- Advanced design: fragmenting datagram into fixed length cells, switch cells through the fabric.
- Cisco 12000: switches Gbps through the interconnection network

Output Ports



- Buffering required when datagrams arrive from fabric faster than the transmission rate
- Scheduling discipline chooses among queued datagrams for transmission

Output port queueing



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

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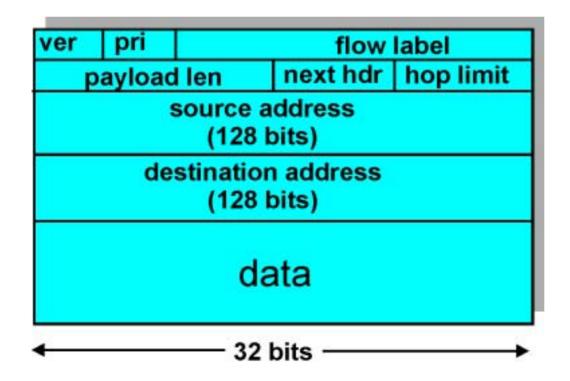
IPv6

- □ Initial motivation: 32-bit address space completely allocated by 2008.
- Additional motivation:
 - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
 - header changes to facilitate QoS
 - new "anycast" address: route to "best" of several replicated servers
- □ I Pv6 datagram format:
 - fixed-length 40 byte header
 - no fragmentation allowed

IPv6 Header (Cont)

Priority: 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



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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
- □ / CMPv6: new version of I CMP
 - additional message types, e.g. "Packet Too Big"
 - multicast group management functions

Transition From IPv4 To IPv6

- Not all routers can be upgraded simultaneous
 - o no "flag days"
 - O How will the network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- Two proposed approaches:
 - Dual Stack: some routers with dual stack (v6, v4) can "translate" between formats
 - Tunneling: I Pv6 carried as payload in I Pv4 datagram among I Pv4 routers

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Network Layer: summary

What we've covered:

- network layer services
- routing principles: link state and distance vector
- hierarchical routing
- Internet routing protocols RIP, OSPF, BGP
- what's inside a router? (sketch)
- IPv6

Next stop: the Data link layer!