

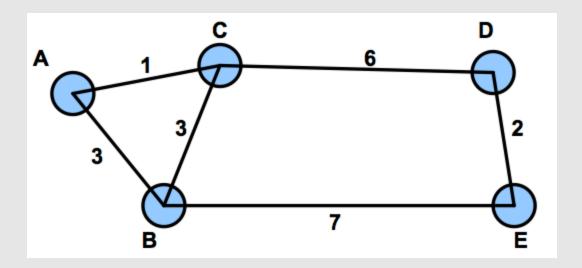
Routing

Routing is path-finding

- Routing creates FIB (that forwarding looks up)
 - Lookup Mechanisms can be:
 - Per-packet
 - Per-connection setup (traffic context)
 - Intermediate (partial path, aggregation) also possible

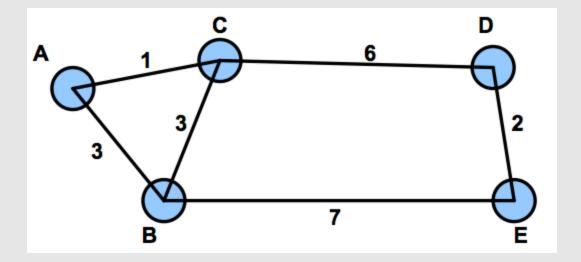
Network Routing Problem

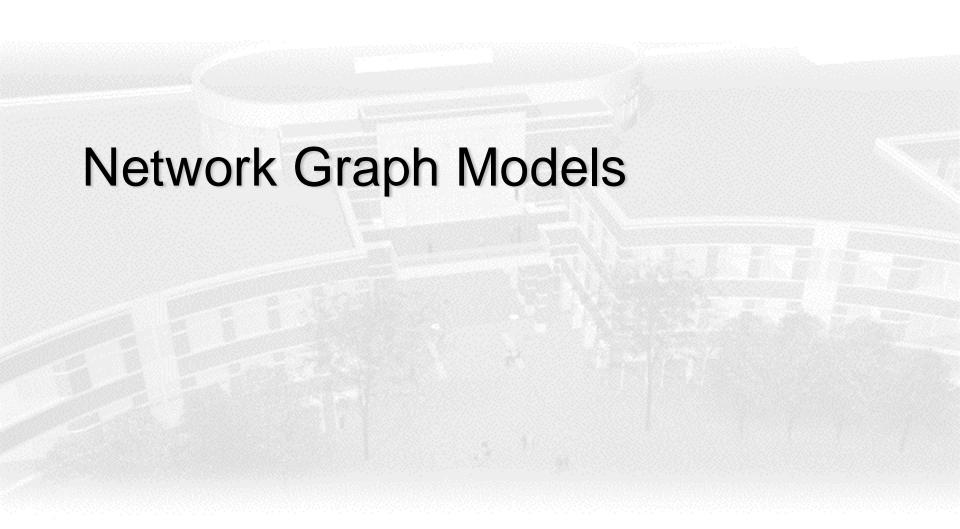
- Select a path for traffic in a network
- Which one is the best path between A and D?



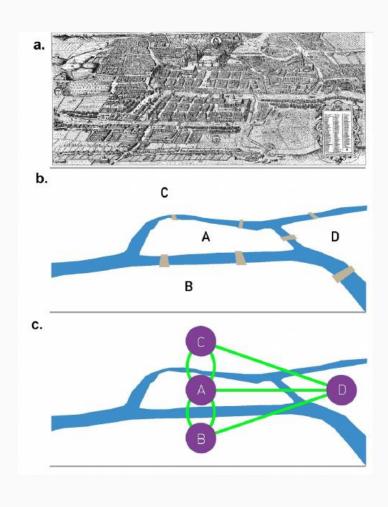
Network Routing Problem

- Criteria: (from A to D)
 - the value indicates the path length?
 - the value indicates the link capacity?
 - the value indicates the network reward?

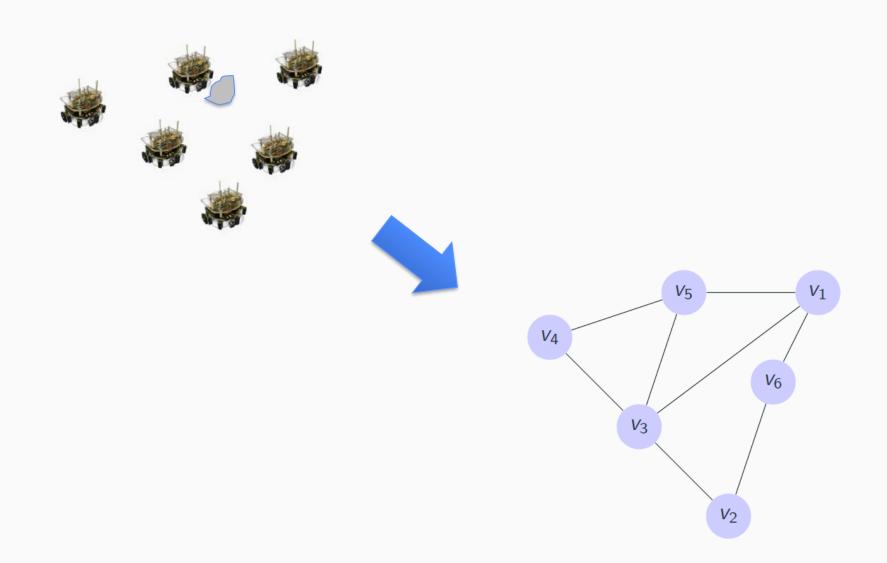




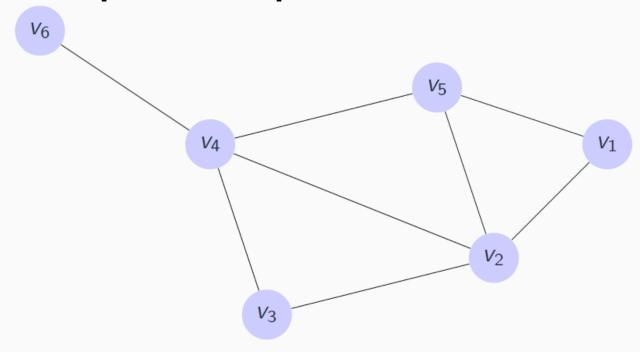
From Networks to Graphs



The Right-level of Abstraction



A Simple Graph



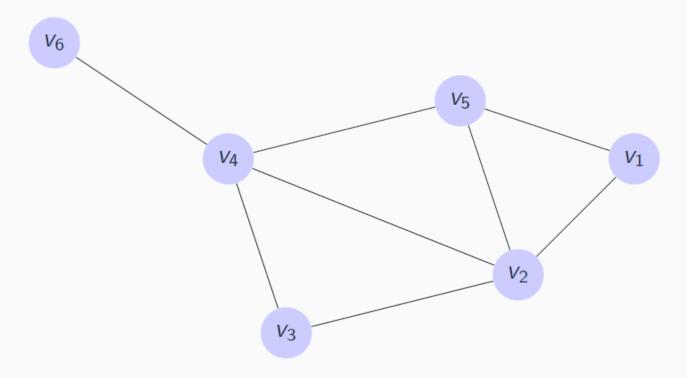
A graph G consists of a set of vertices V and edges E

$$G = (V, E)$$

where

$$V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_r, v_6\}$$
$$E \subseteq V \times V$$

A Simple Graph

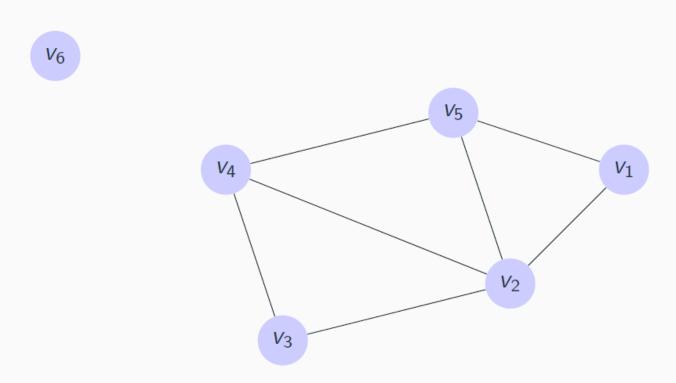


In our case,

$$E = \{(v_1, v_2), (v_1, v_5), (v_2, v_3), (v_2, v_4), (v_2, v_5), (v_3, v_4), (v_4, v_5), (v_4, v_6)\}$$

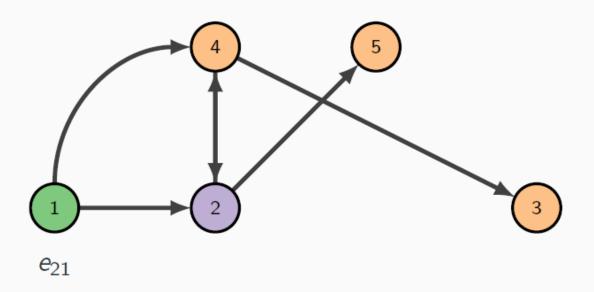
This is an undirected graph, i.e. $(v_i, v_j) \in E \iff (v_j, v_i) \in E$

Connected vs Disconnected



An undirected graph is *connected* if there is a path between any two nodes. Otherwise, it is *disconnected*.

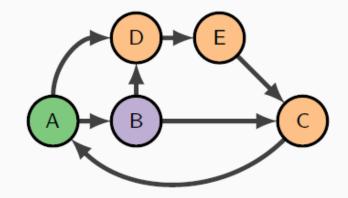
Directed Graph



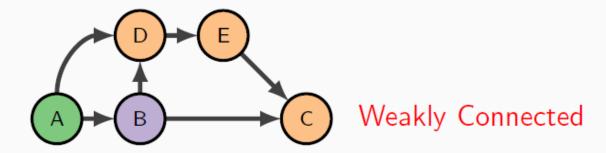
This is a *directed* graph or *digraph*, where each edge has a tail and a head, i.e. $e_{ij} = (v_i, v_j) \in E$ where v_i is the head and v_j is the tail.

Directed Graph

Strongly Connected

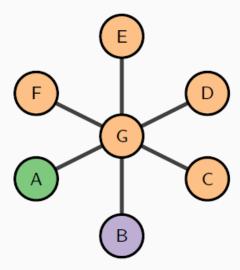


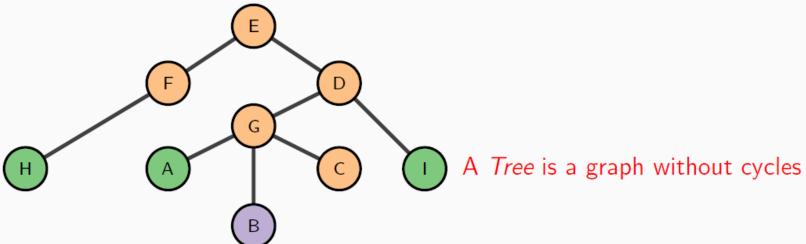
A directed graph is *strongly connected* if a directed path exists between any two nodes. It is *weakly connected* if its undirected version is connected.



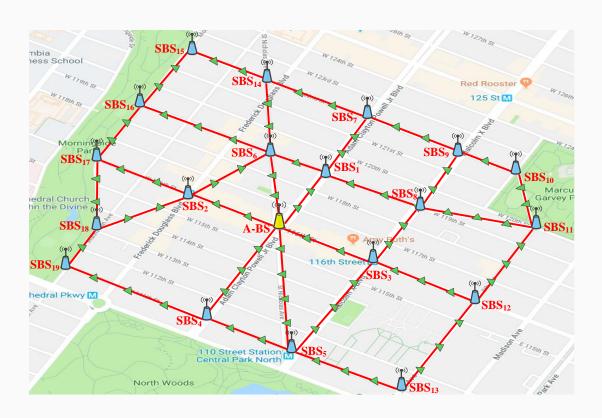
Examples

A $Star_N$ graph is a star graph of N nodes.





Examples

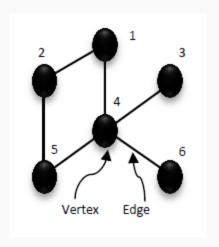


A mesh graph

Mathematical Representation

The adjacency matrix A of a graph is a matrix with elements Aij such that:

$$A_{ij} = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if there is an edge between vertices } i ext{ and } j \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Mathematical Representation

Two things to notice in this example:

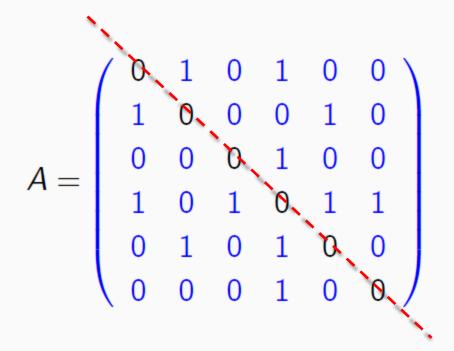
The diagonal elements of the matrix are zeros -- No self-edges

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Mathematical Representation

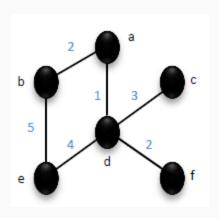
Two things to notice in this example:

The matrix is symmetric -- Undirected graph



Weighted Networks

- Useful to represent the weight or the strength of the connections between the vertices.
- Mathematically the elements of the adjacency matrix are equal to the weight of the edges.



$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Routing - Fundamentals

- Different concerns
 - Correctness and optimality
 - Robustness, stability, ...
 - More complicated "policy" concerns
 - Optimality
- Routing may be fixed (a pre-determined path)
- May be adaptive, or dynamic
 - Adapting to network state (processing overhead)

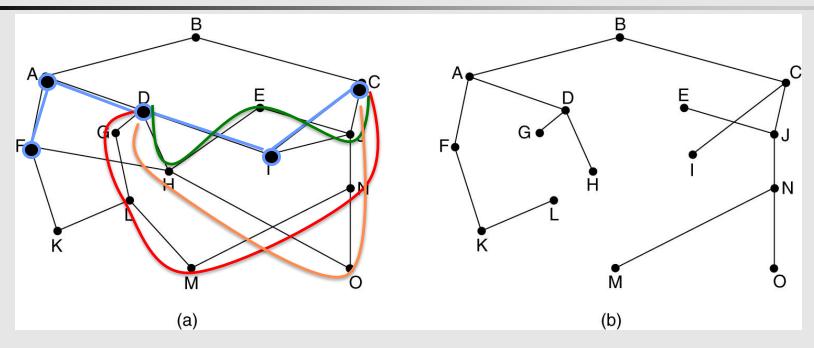
Space of Routing Choices

- Static vs. dynamic or adaptive
- For a node, next-hop determined by
 - Destination only
 - Source and destination
 - Particular flow of traffic
 - Other characteristics
- Next-hop may be unique or multiple
 - Deterministically or randomly picked
- Control and management
 - How is input information for routing collected?
 - How/where is routing algorithm run?
 - How is routing output written to FIBs?

Flooding

- No lookup! Multiple next-hop
 - Simple forward to everybody else (except neighbor received from), but consume the bandwidth
 - Generates unbounded copies
 - Hop count can be introduced to bound (TTL)
 - Can be more intelligent if packets can be recognized
- Highly robust, simple design
 - Serves as benchmark
- Can introduce "reaction window"
 - See if copies coming from multiple neighbors nearly simultaneously (skip both if so)

"Optimality Condition"

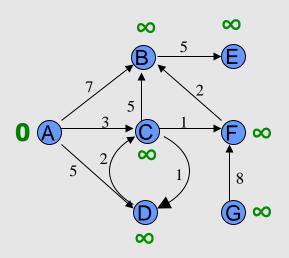


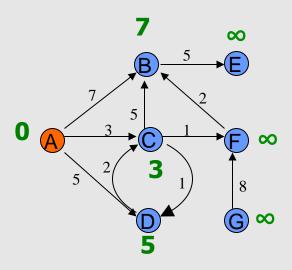
- Nice characteristic, works for "distance" or "cost" related routing goals
 - "Sub-path of optimal path must be optimal"

Finding Shortest Paths

- An example where a graph-theoretic abstraction is useful
 - Abstract networking into vertices and arcs
 - Weighted arcs least cost approach
- Dijkstra's algorithm
 - Finds least cost path to all vertices from one
 - Based on moving vertices from a set with "tentative" distances to a set with "fixed" distances
 - Desirable computational properties
 - Other algorithms exist
- Useful for additive measures of path cost
 - "Shortest" is better understood as "least additive cost"

Dijkstra's Algorithm

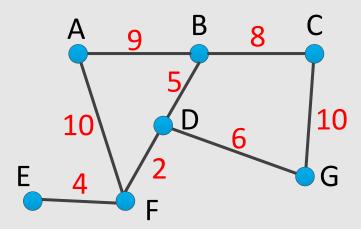




- Finding shortest distances (and corresponding paths) from ONE source to ALL destinations
 - Easily adapted to vice-versa
- First, mark source node with tentative distance zero
- Mark all other nodes tentatively with distance "infinity" (not reachable)
- Do iteratively (until all nodes marked):
 - Pick the node with the least tentative distance,
 and mark it as final distance call it node X
 - Pick all outgoing links from this node, for each:
 - Update the tentative distance of the neighbor IF:
 - (Final distance of X + link cost) < Tentative distance of neighbor
 - If updated, remember X as previous node of neighbor

At the end, previous nodes can be read off to find complete paths

- Dijkstra Shortest Path Algorithm:
 - single source to any destinations
 - e.g., values represent accumulated delays (propagation, transmission, queueing, processing), or hop count
 - distance array



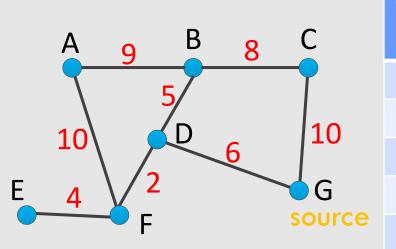
- Dijkstra Shortest Path Algorithm:
 - example

D(X) means the distance from the source to a node X, and p(X) means the parent of a node X in the computed path.

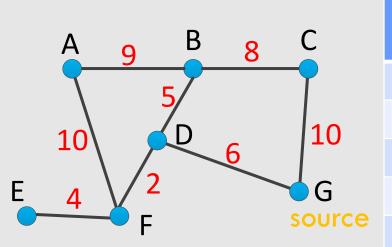
A 9 B 8 C 10 5 10 E 4 F SOURCE

distance array

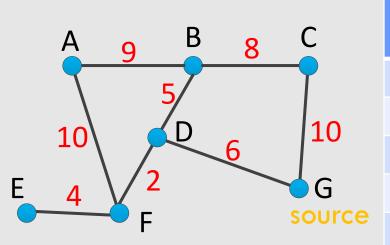
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /



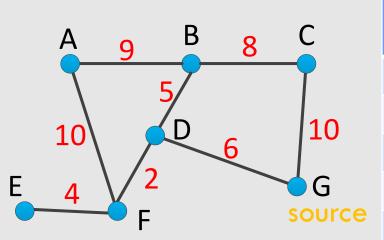
		9						
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	



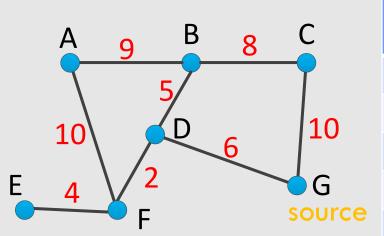
		J						
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	



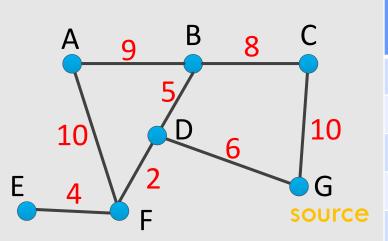
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	
3	GDF	18,F	11,D	10,G		12,F		



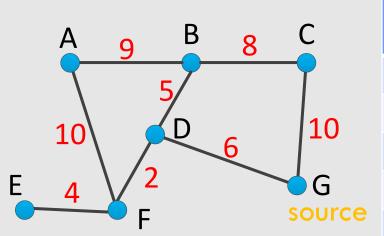
		0						
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	
3	GDF	18,F	11,D	10,G		12,F		
4	GDF C	18,F	11,D			12,F		



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Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	
3	GDF	18,F	11,D	10,G		12,F		
4	GDF C	18,F	11,D			12,F		
5	GDF CB	18,F				12,F		



		J						
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	
3	GDF	18,F	11,D	10,G		12,F		
4	GDF C	18,F	11,D			12,F		
5	GDF CB	18,F				12,F		
6	GDF CBE	18,F						

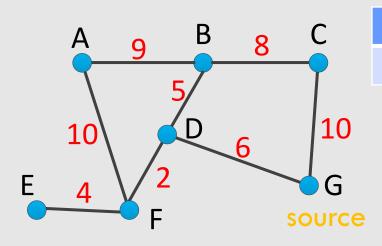


		•						
Step		D(A), P(A)	D(B), P(B)	D(C), P(C)	D(D), P(D)	D(E), P(E)	D(F), P(F)	D(G), P(G)
0	None	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	0, /
1	G	∞	∞	10,G	6,G	∞	∞	
2	GD	∞	11,D	10,G		∞	8,D	
3	GDF	18,F	11,D	10,G		12,F		
4	GDF C	18,F	11,D			12,F		
5	GDF CB	18,F				12,F		
6	GDF CBE	18,F						
7	GDF CBEA							

Dijkstra Shortest Path Algorithm:

- example

distance array



Α	В	С	D	Е	F	
18, F	11, D	10, G	6, G	12, F	8, D	

Backtrack by the p(X) field until the source, then find the next-hop for each destination from G

Routing table of G:

Dest.	Next hop
А	D
В	D
С	С
D	D
E	D
F	D

Routing Protocols

- Each node runs the routing algorithm (e.g., Dijkstra algorithm), then maintain its own routing table
- When packet arrives, forward to next hop ...
- How is the routing table constructed?
- Distance vector vs. Link state
 - distributed methods for building routing tables that converge to the shortest path tables
 - 1) collect topology information; 2) run routing algorithm

Embedding in Switch/Router

Protocols have to be embedded in realization

- Routing protocols must run on router
 - Conventional wisdom: distributed is scalable/robust

- Routers must possess control plane
 - Signaling exchange of control signals

Control plane is client of data plane

Routing Protocols

- Each node runs the routing algorithm (e.g., Dijkstra algorithm), then maintain its own routing table
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Link State Protocols

- Each router distributes information it has to every other router
- Information is in the form of Link State Announcements (LSAs)
 - (myID, neighborID, link cost)
- Distribution is by controlled flooding
 - Distribute along each link but receiving one
- Now, each router has complete information
- OSPF is a prevalent example
 - SPF with LSA to find arc costs

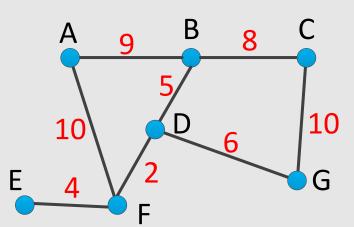
LSA Routing Algorithm

Each router does the following

- "Meets the (immediately adjacent) neighbors" and learns their IDs
- Builds an LSA containing IDs and distance to each of its neighbors
- 3. Transmits the LSA to <u>all</u> other routers
- 4. Stores the most recent LSA from <u>every other router</u> in the network
 - Not just from its immediate neighbors!
- 5. Creates a "map" of the network topology from LSAs
- 6. Computes routes (to store in forwarding table) from its local map of the topology

Link State Routing

- Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)
- Nodes exchange link state advertisements with their neighbors
- Link State Advertisements: info about links connected to a node
 (LSA) (delay + node ID of other end of link)



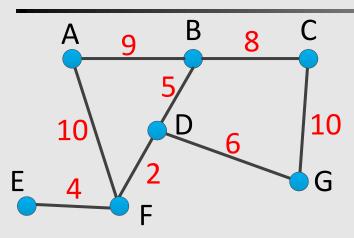
G receives LSA from C and D:

C: [B, 8; G, 10]

D: [B, 5; F, 2; G, 6]

When a node receives an LSA, it forwards it on all of its links

Link State Routing



What is the next after G knows everything?

Run Dijkstra algorithm directly

Round 1:

G receives LSA from C and D:

C: [B, 8; G, 10]

D: [B, 5; F, 2; G, 6]

Round 2:

G receives LSA from B and F:

B: [A, 9; C, 8; D, 5]

F: [A, 10; D, 2; E, 4]

Round 3:

G receives LSA from A and E:

A: [B, 9; F, 10]

E: [F, 4]

Generating LSAs

- A router generates LSAs periodically -> background refresh rate
- A router also generates LSAs when its local environment changes
 - it has a new neighbor (router comes online)
 - a link goes down (indicated by absence of "Hello" packets)
 - the cost of a link to an existing neighbor has changed
- Limiting the overhead (network bandwidth) consumed by routing messages, particularly LSAs
 - set a minimum interval between successive updates

Forwarding LSAs – Control Overhead

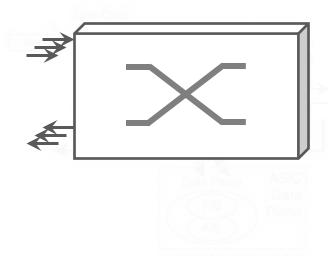
- LSA flooding can use information in LSA
 - Each router stores the most recent copy of LSAs
 from all routers → easy to recognize duplicate LSAs
 - Each router floods an LSA only once
 - An LSA will travel over each link of the network exactly once

Link State Routing (Summary)

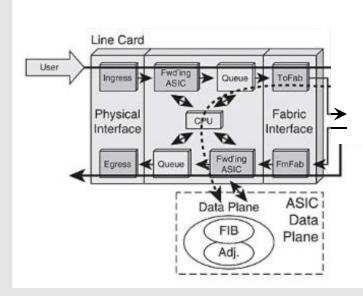
- Based on global knowledge
- Converges Faster
- No count to infinity problem

- But ...
- Require more network resources (bandwidth)
- Heavy traffic due to flooding of packets
- Flooding may result in infinite looping which can be solved by using the Time to live (TTL) field

Switch/Router Architecture



Switch/Router Architecture



Switch/Router Architecture

