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# Routing Algorithms

EE450: Introduction to Computer Networks

Professor A. Zahid

# IP Packet Delivery

- Two Processes are required to accomplish IP packet delivery, namely the **Routing Process** and the **Forwarding Process**
  - **Routing** is the process of discovering and selecting the path to the destination according to some metrics.
  - **Forwarding** is the process of inserting the IP packet into a Layer-2 frame and forwarding the frame to the next hop (which could be the destination host or another intermediate router).
    - a routing table do not need receive packets  
creating forwarding table need to receive packets first.
    - forwarding table only interest in next hop

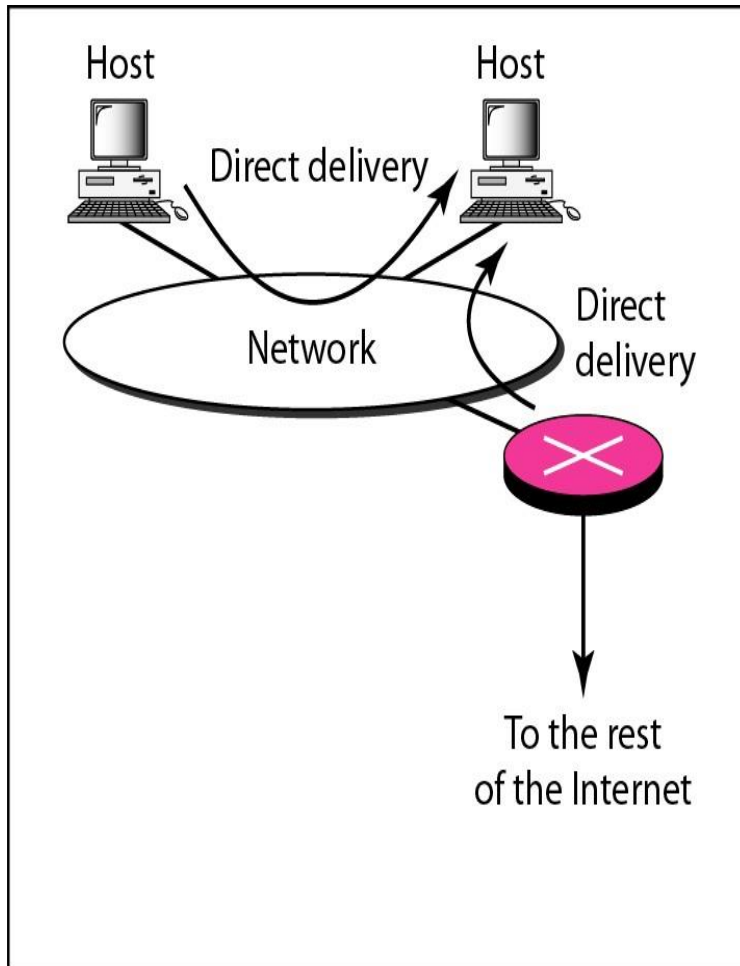
# Routing Tables

- Routing Tables are built up by the routing algorithms. They generally consist of:
  - **Destination Network Address:** The network portion of the IP address for the destination network
  - **Subnet Mask:** used to distinguish the network address from the host address
  - **The IP address of the next hop** to which the interface forwards the IP packet for delivery
  - **The Interface** with which the route is associated

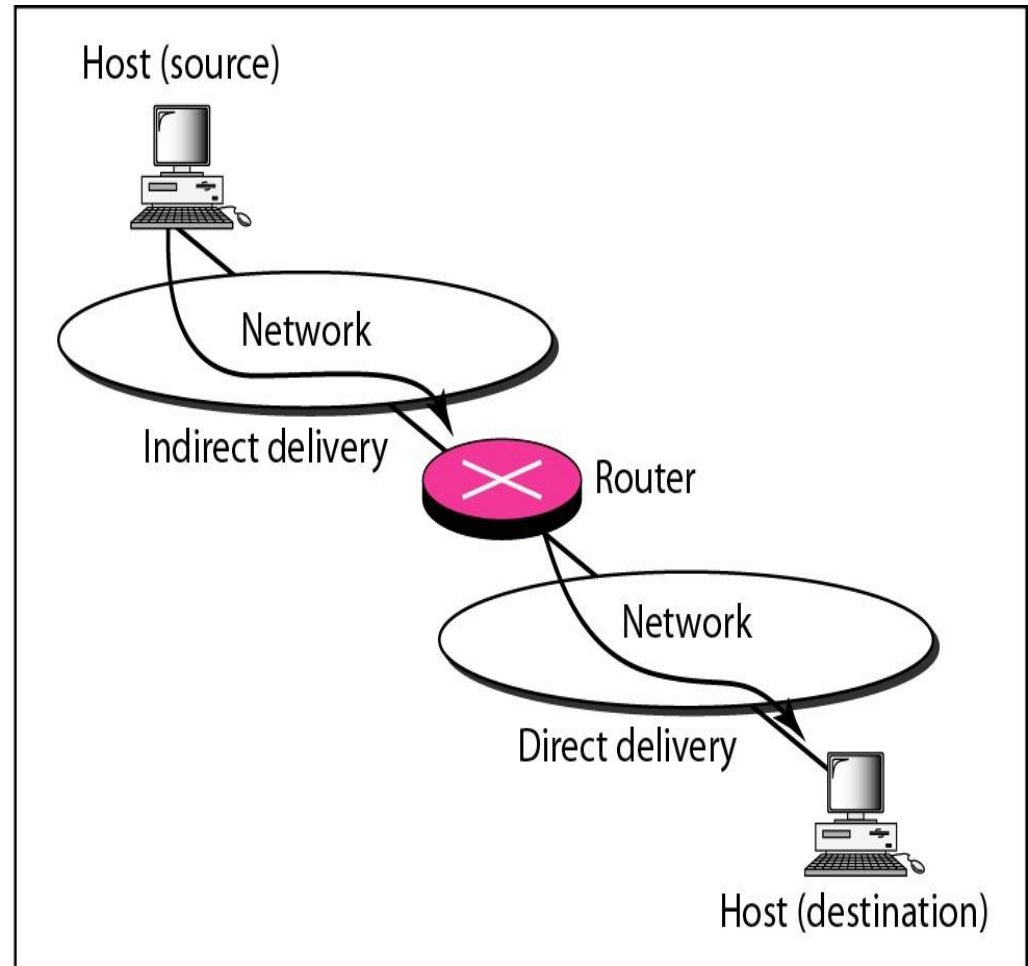
# Forwarding Tables

- After the routing lookup is completed and the next hop is determined, The IP packet is forwarded according to a local or remote delivery models
  - **Local delivery model** is when the destination and the host are on the same local network. In this case, the IP packet is inserted into a MAC-frame which is forwarded directly to the destination
  - **Remote delivery model** is when the destination and the host are on different networks. In this case, the IP packet is inserted into a Layer-2 frame which is forwarded to the next hop router

# Local (Direct) vs. Remote Delivery

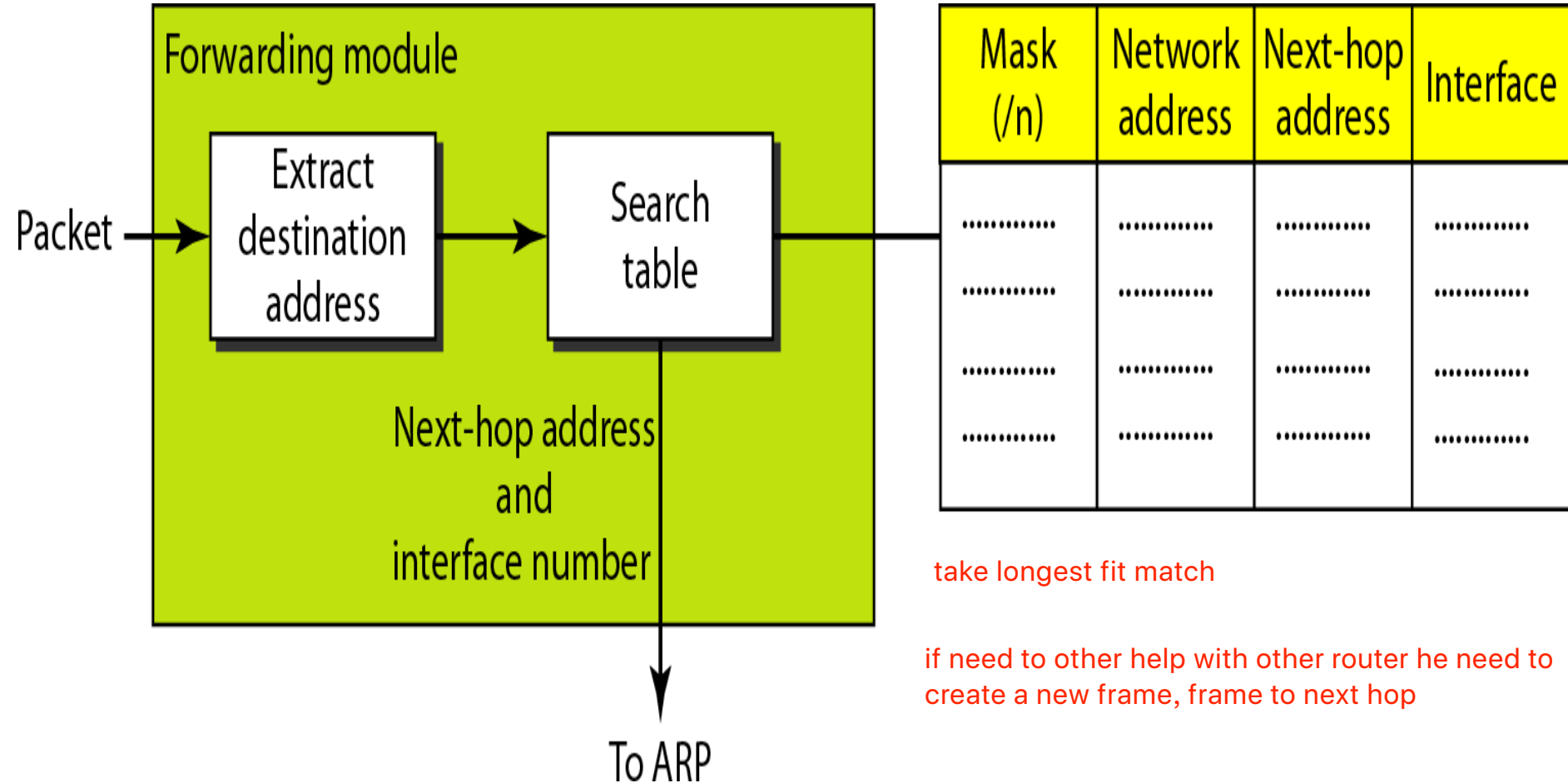


a. Direct delivery

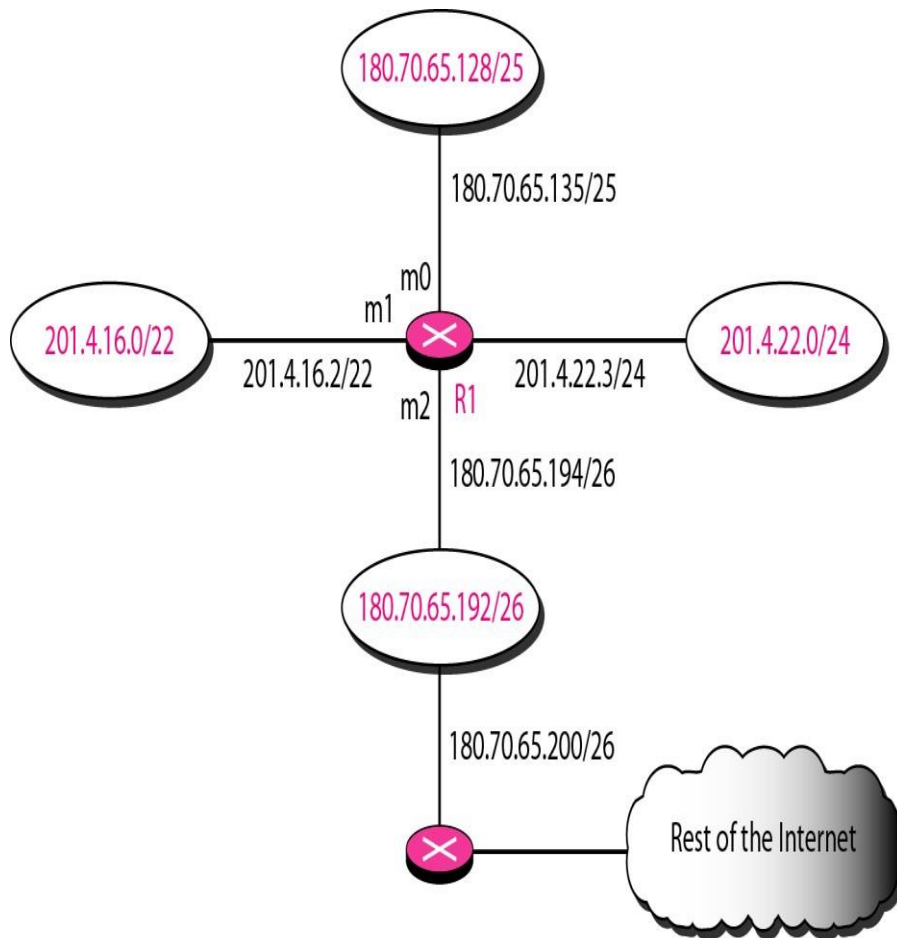


b. Indirect and direct delivery

# Forwarding Module



# Example: Forwarding Table



Mask	Network Address	Next Hop	Interface
/26	180.70.65.192	—	m2
/25	180.70.65.128	—	m0
/24	201.4.22.0	no need for other router —	m3
/22	201.4.16.0	...	m1
Any	Any	180.70.65.200 need R2	m2

# Example (Continued)

- Suppose that R1 receives a Packet destined to 180.70.65.140. The router performs the following steps:
  - The first mask (/26) is applied to the destination address. Result is 180.70.65.128. No match
  - The second mask (/25) is applied to the destination address. Result is 180.70.65.128. A match. The next hop address (in this case it is the destination host address) and the interface  $m_0$  is then passed to the ARP module to get the MAC address



# CIDR: Address Aggregation

140.24.7. \_\_ host(6)

Organization 1

140.24.7.0/26

140.24.7. \_ 1 + host(6)

Organization 2

140.24.7.64/26

140.24.7. 1 0 + host(6)

Organization 3

140.24.7.128/26

140.24.7. 1 1 + host(6)

Organization 4

140.24.7.192/26

140.24.7.140  
255.255.255.192  
-----  
140.24.7.128

received:  
140.24.7.140

m0

m4

m0

m1

R1

R2

m3

aggregate:  
140.24.7.0/24

Somewhere  
in the Internet

140.24.7.140  
255.255.255.0  
-----  
140.24.7.0

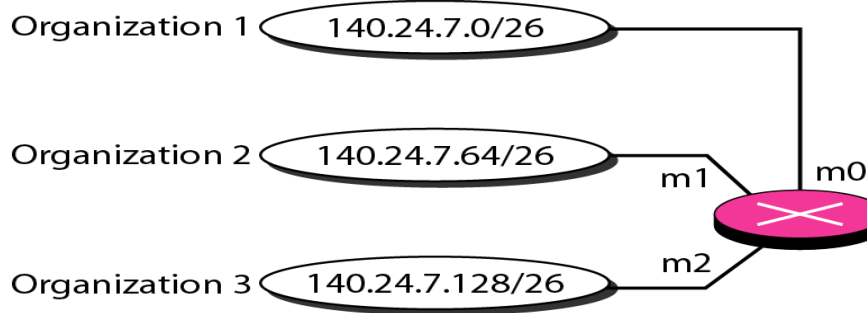
Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.0	-----	m0
/26	140.24.7.64	-----	m1
/26	140.24.7.128	-----	m2
/26	140.24.7.192	-----	m3
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m4

Routing table for R1

Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/24	140.24.7.0	---R1---	m0
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m1

Routing table for R2

# Longest Mask (Prefix) Matching

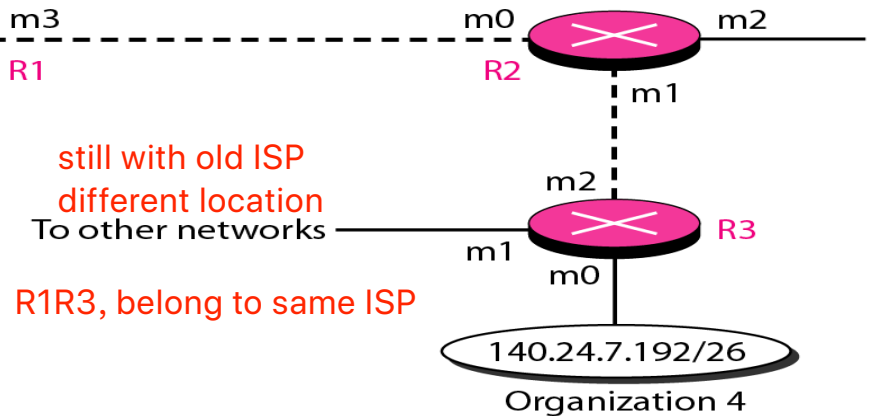


Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.0	-----	m0
/26	140.24.7.64	-----	m1
/26	140.24.7.128	-----	m2
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m3

Routing table for R1

Routing table for R2

Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.192	<del>R3</del>	m1
/24	140.24.7.0	<del>R1</del>	m0
/??	???????	?????????	m1
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m2



Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.192	-----	m0
/??	???????	?????????	m1
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m2

Routing table for R3

假设这里R2收到packet 140.24.7.200，会发给R1（因为不知道mask所以不会发给R3），然后R1发回给R2，R2→R1...TTL →0 dropped packet  
所以：如果多个network address match 选 mask长的

# Example: Longest Prefix Matching

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:

DA: 11001000 00010111 00010**110** 10100001

which interface?

DA: 11001000 00010111 00011**000** 10101010

which interface?

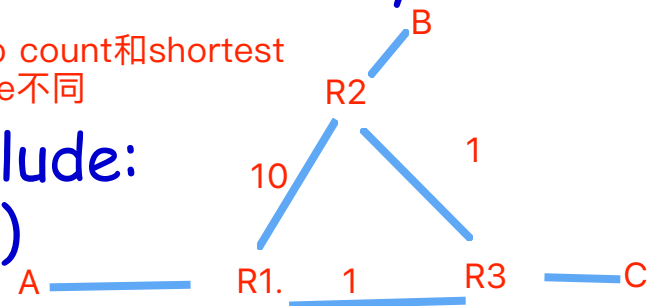
# ~~Static~~ vs. Dynamic Routing

- Static Routing Tables are entered manually
- Strengths of Static Routing
  - Ease of use
  - Reliability
  - Control
  - Security through obscurity
  - Efficiency
- Weaknesses of Static Routing
  - when failure of node or link, router need update
  - Not Scalable
  - Not adaptable to link failures
- Dynamic Routing Tables are created through the exchange of information between routers on the availability and status of the networks to which an individual router is connected to. Two Types
  - Distance Vector Protocols DV
    - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
  - Link State Protocols LS
    - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First

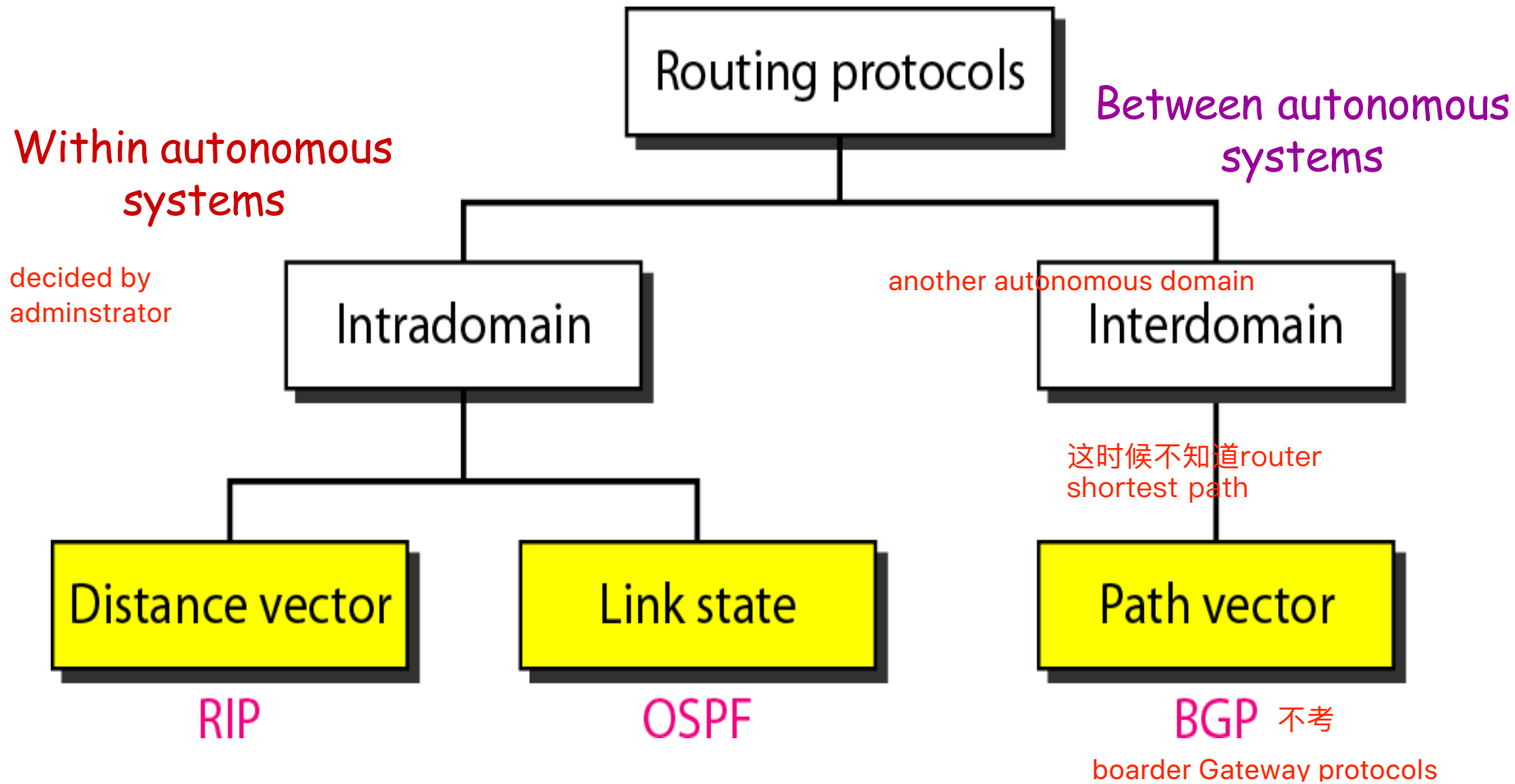
# Routing Metrics

- Routing metrics are used by dynamic routing protocols to establish preference for a particular route.
- Goal of routing metrics is to provide the capability to the routing protocol to support Route Diversity and Load Balancing
- Most Common routing metrics include:
  - Hop count (minimum # of hops)
  - Shortest distance
  - Bandwidth/Throughput (maximum throughput)
  - Load (actual usage)
  - Delay (shortest delay)
  - Reliability
  - Cost

这里hop count和shortest distance不同



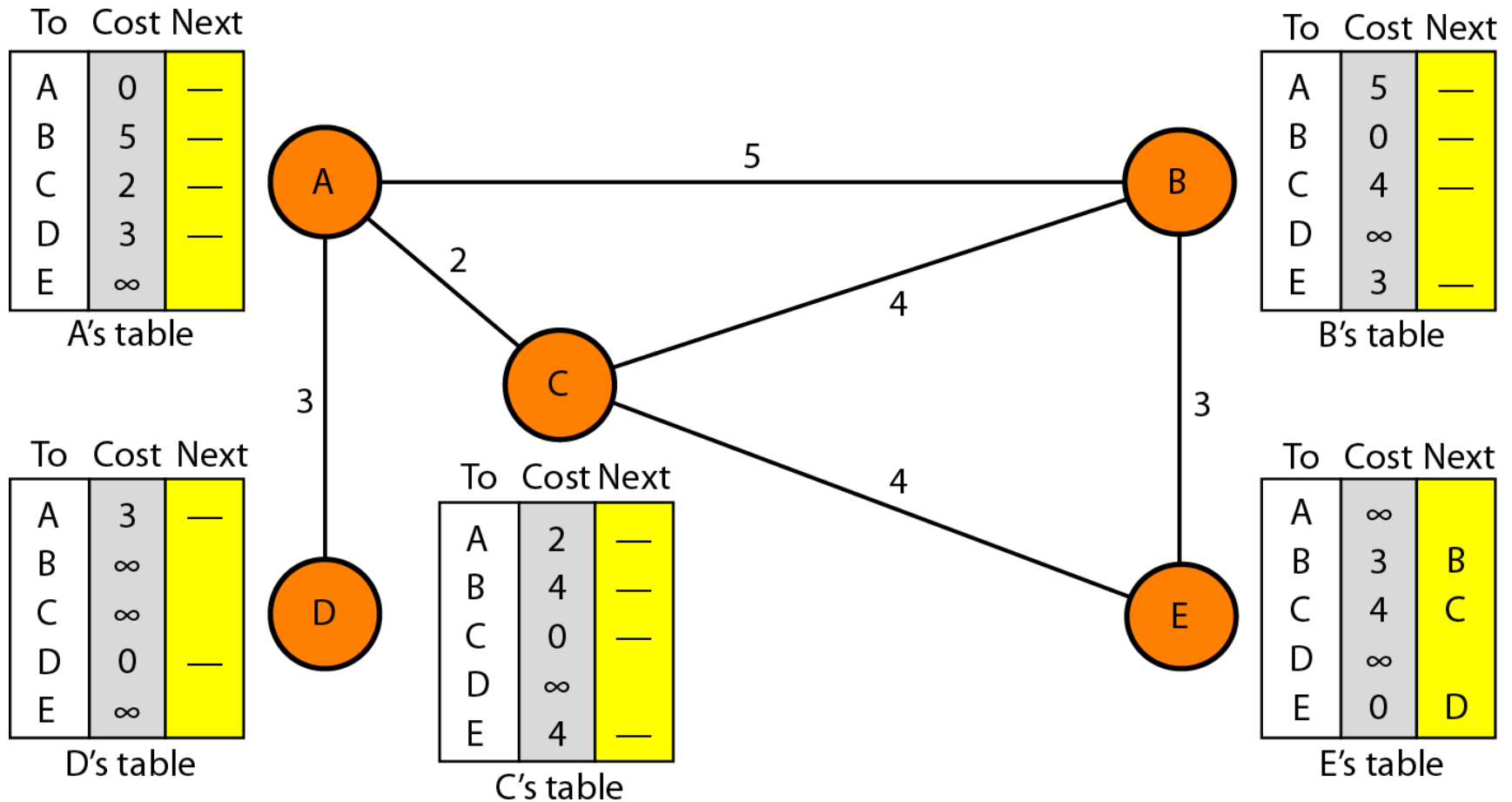
# Popular Routing Protocols



# Distance Vector (DV) Routing

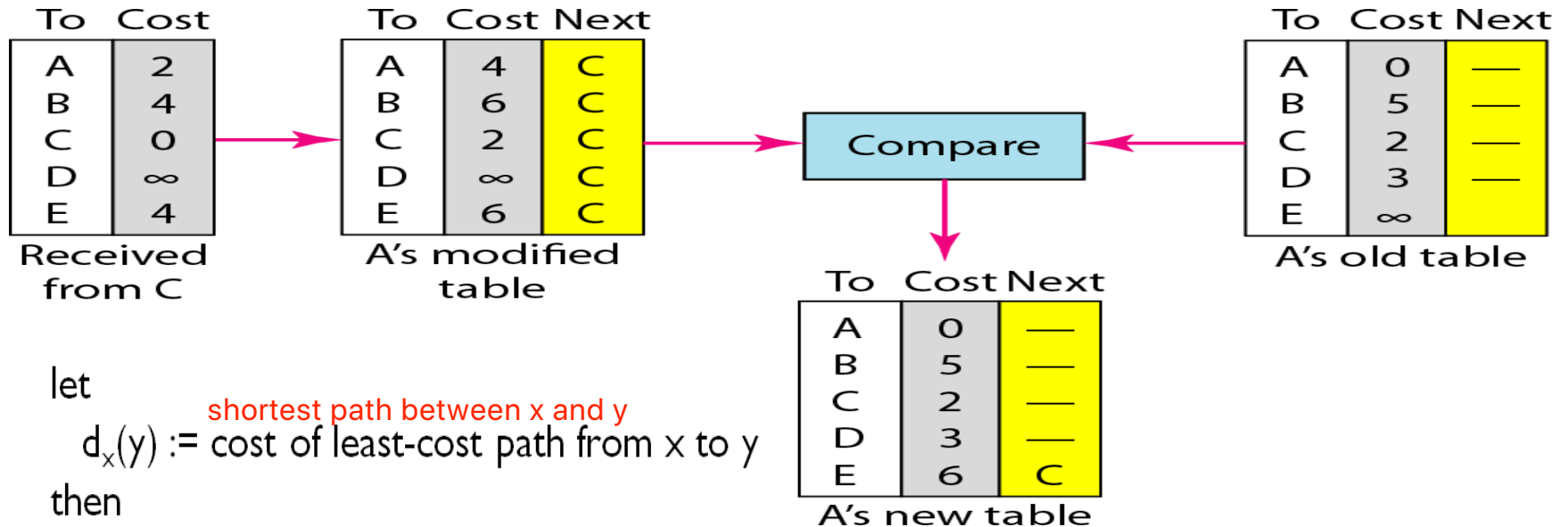
- Example: RIP: Routing Information Protocol
  - Based on an algorithm by Bellman-Ford (Dynamic Programming)
  - Each router on the network compiles a list of the networks it can reach (in the form of a distance vector) and exchange this list with its **neighboring routers only**
  - Upon receiving vectors from each of its neighbors, the router computes its own distance to each neighbor. Then, for every network X, router finds that neighbor who is closer to X than to any other neighbor. Router updates its cost to X. After doing this for all X, router goes to the first step.

# Initial Distance Vector Tables





# Updating Distance Vector Tables



```

let
   $d_x(y)$  := shortest path between x and y
    cost of least-cost path from x to y
then

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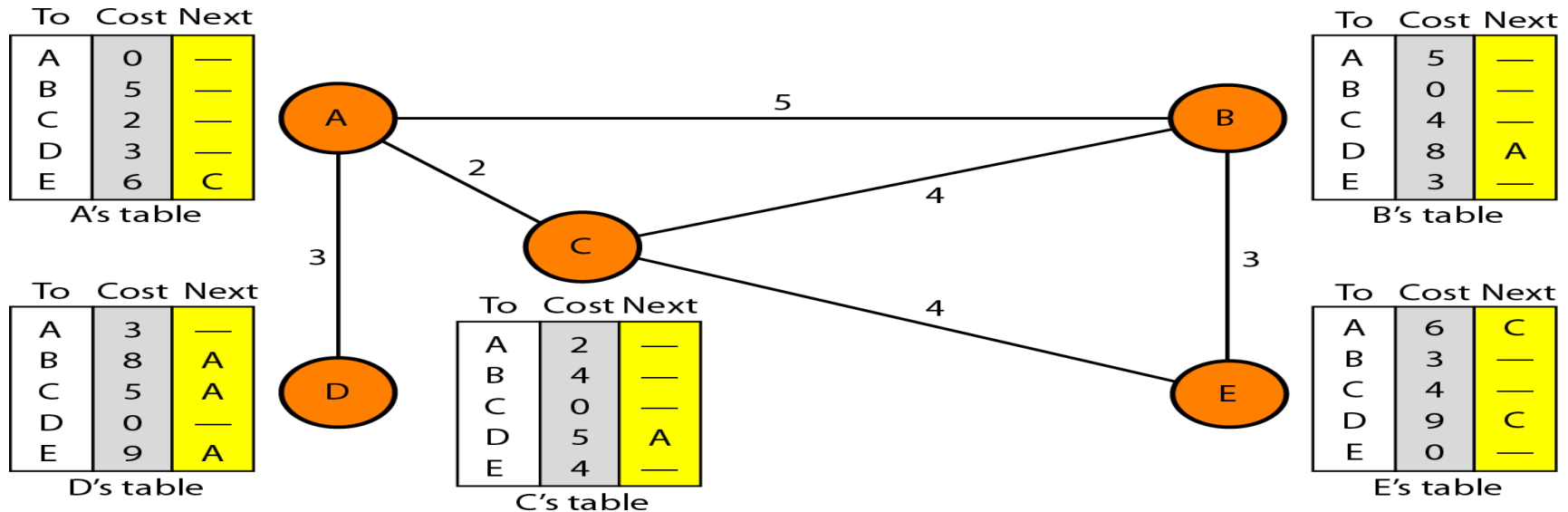
$$d_x(y) = \min \{c(x,v) + d_v(y)\}$$

v: neighbors

Diagram illustrating the Dijkstra's algorithm step for node  $x$ . The diagram shows a node  $x$  at the bottom, with three vertical lines representing its neighbors  $v$ . The lines are labeled from left to right:

- $\min$  taken over all neighbors  $v$  of  $x$
- cost to neighbor  $v$
- cost from neighbor  $v$  to destination  $y$
- shortest distance between  $v$  and  $y$ ,  $v$  tell  $x$

# Distance Vector Tables



*key idea:*

share to neighbors

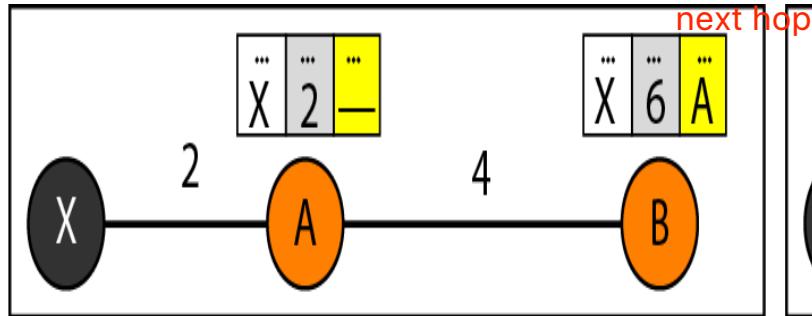
— u update, share other

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

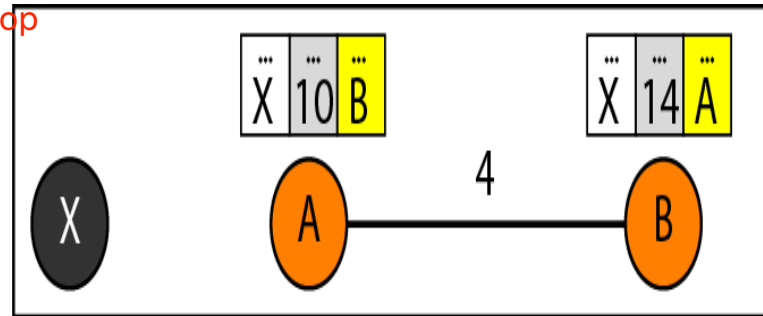
$$D_x(y) \leftarrow \min_v \{c(x,v) + D_v(y)\} \text{ for each node } y \in N$$

# Count-to- $\infty$ Problem (Instability)

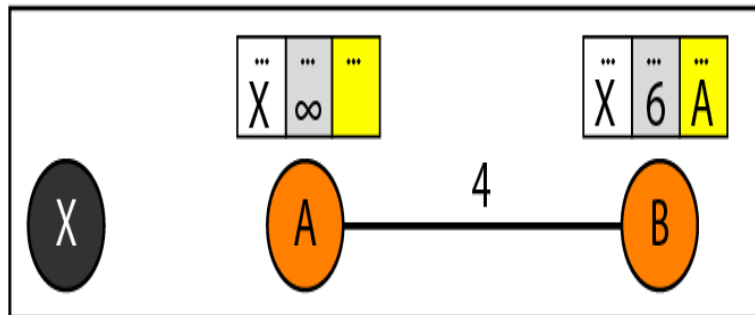
Before failure



After B receives update from A



After failure

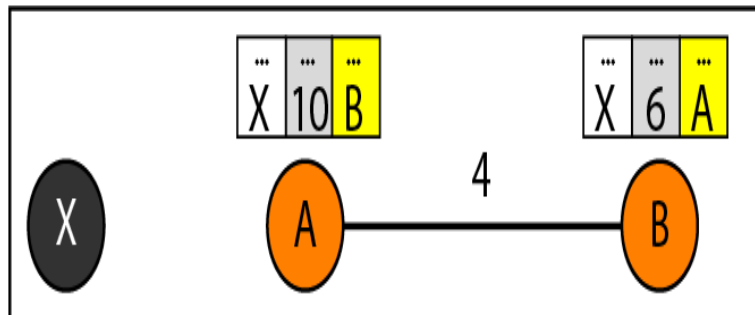


solutions:

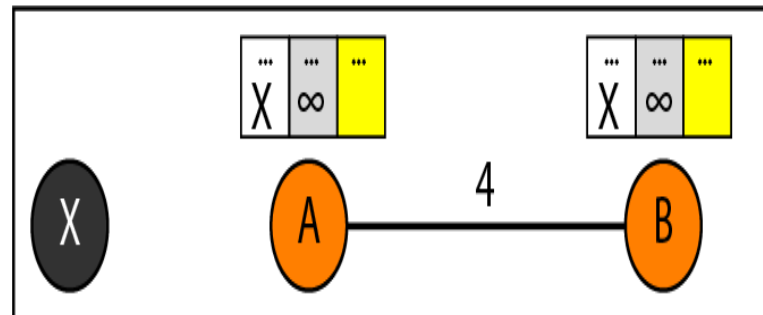
1. split horizon (B 不告诉 A 他到 X 的距离)
2. poison reverse (B 告诉 A 他到 X 的距离是 infinite)

⋮

After A receives update from B

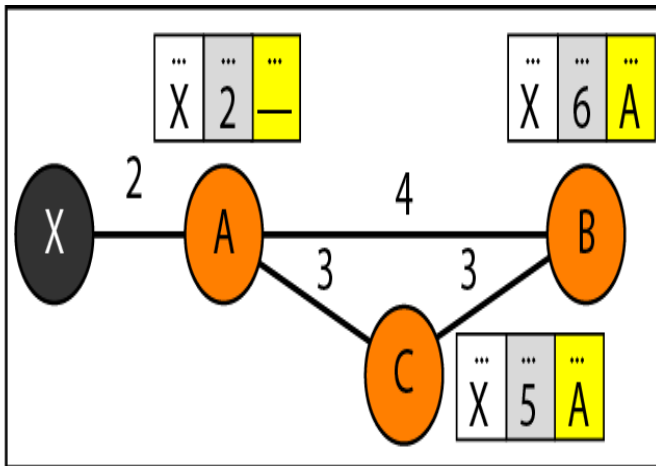


Finally

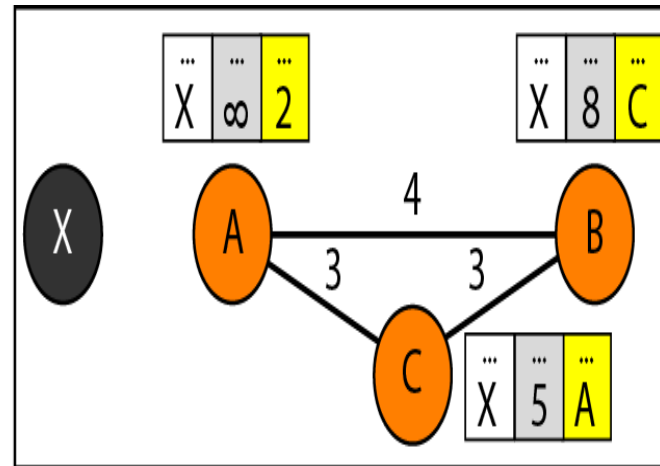


# Three-Node Instability

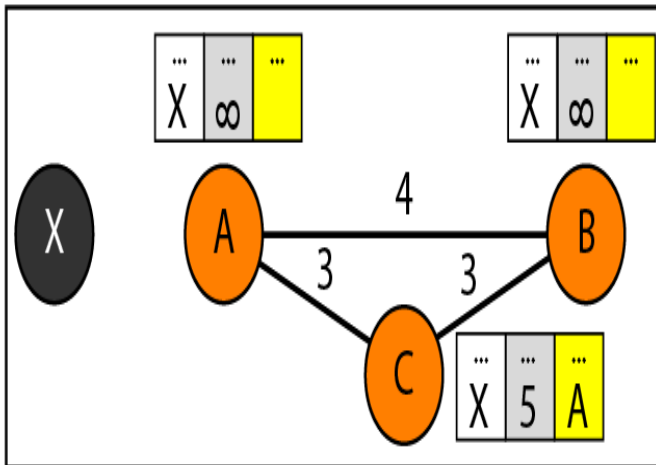
Before failure



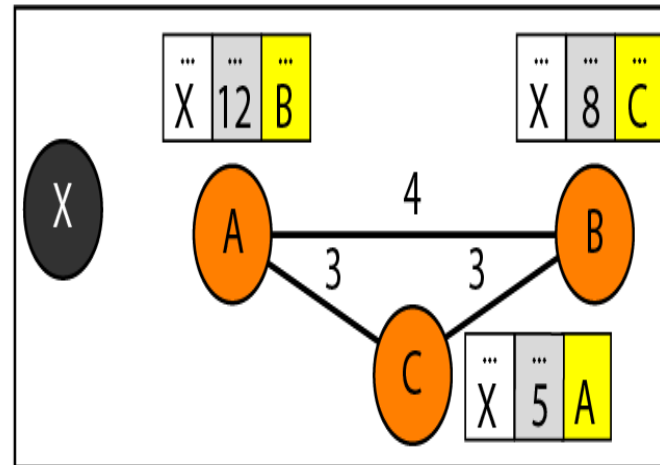
After B sends the route to A



After A sends the route to B and C, but the packet to C is lost



After C sends the route to B



# Link State (LS) Routing

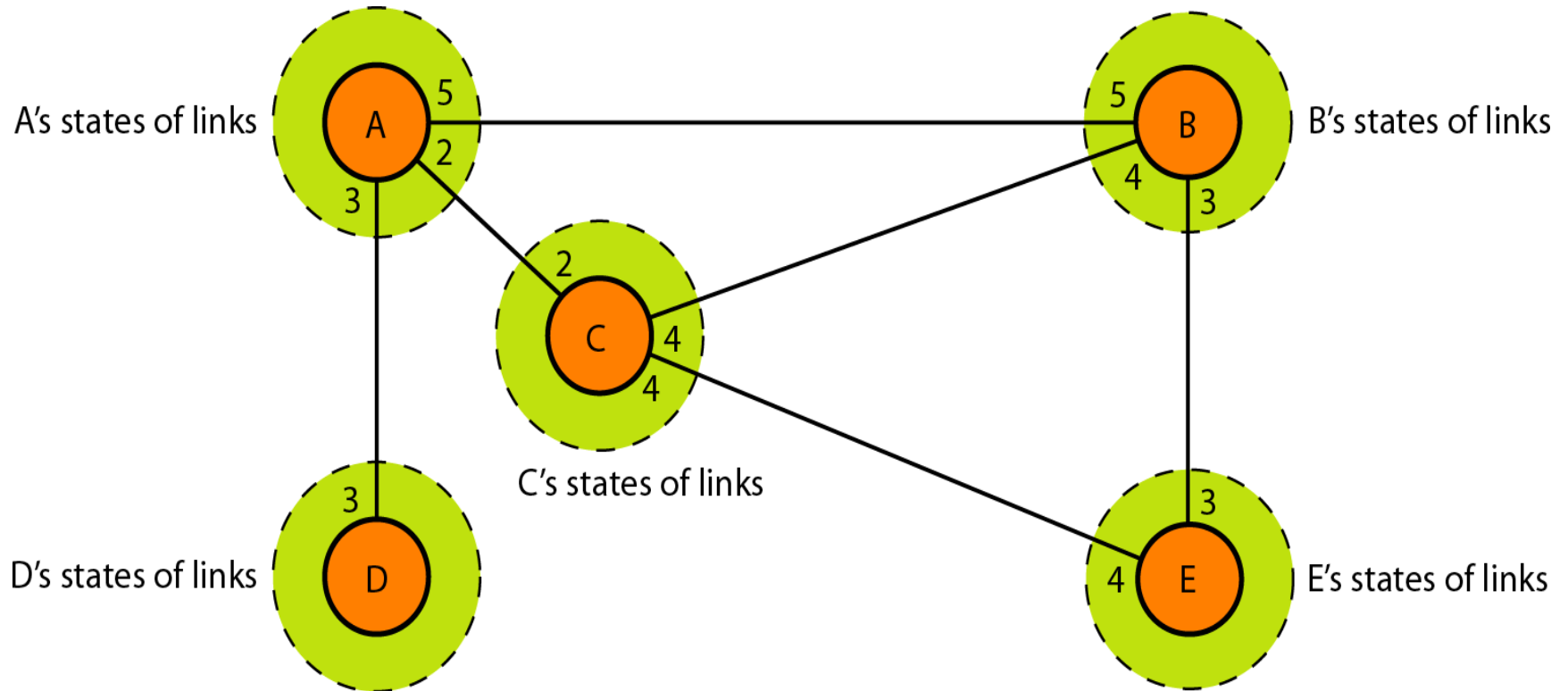
- Link-State (LS) Protocols

- Based on an algorithm by Dijkstra
- Each router on the network is assumed to know the **state of the links** to all its neighbors (Cost, Operating Status, Bandwidth, Delay, etc...)
- Each router will **disseminate** (via reliable flooding of link state packets, LSPs) the information about its link states to all routers in the network.
- In this case, every router will have enough information to build a **complete map** of the network and therefore is able to construct a **Shortest Path Spanning Tree** from itself to every other router

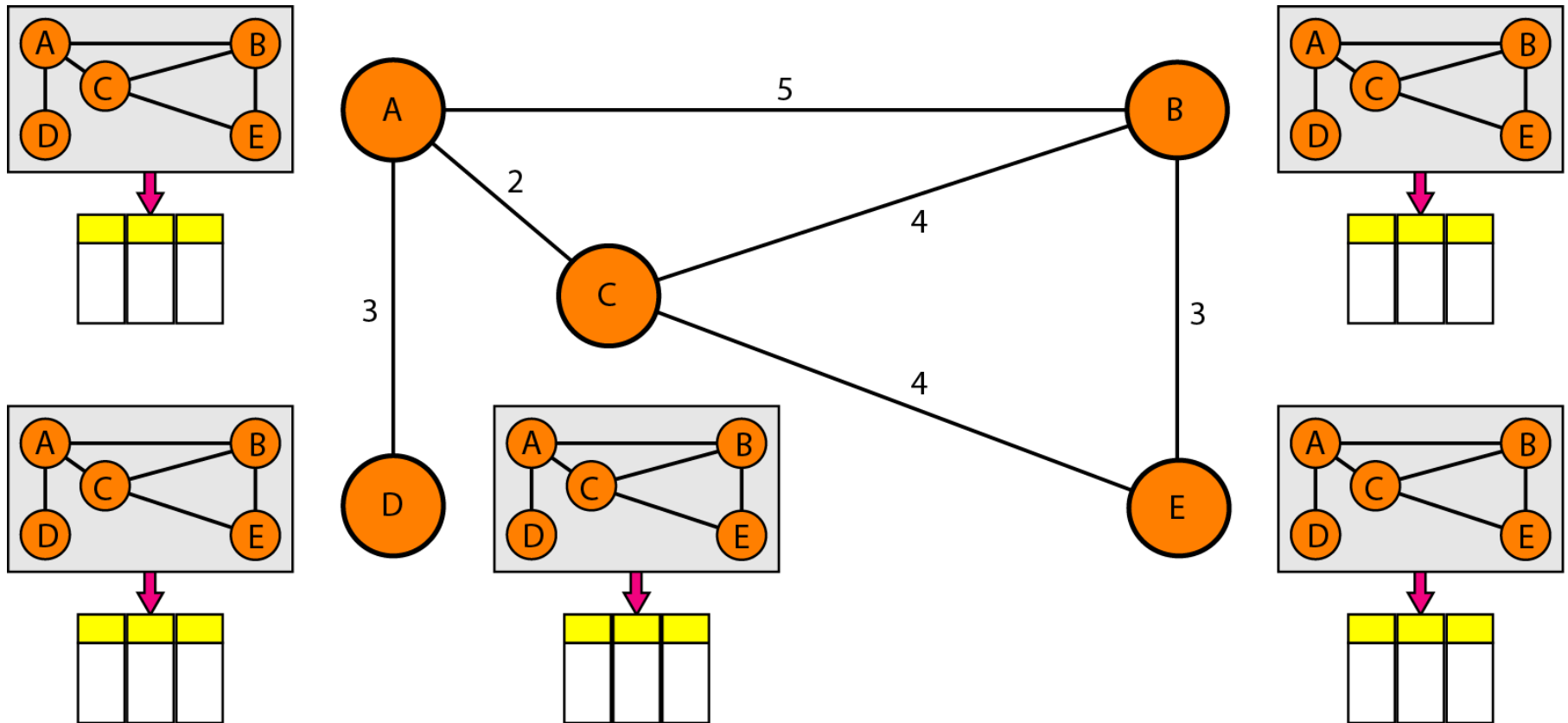
link state  
packets(LSP)

flooding: router  
接到flooding  
packets不会发回  
给收到的interface

# Link State Knowledge



# After dissemination of Link States



Every Router will create its own table based on the map  
and does not exchange tables with other routers

# Link State Packets

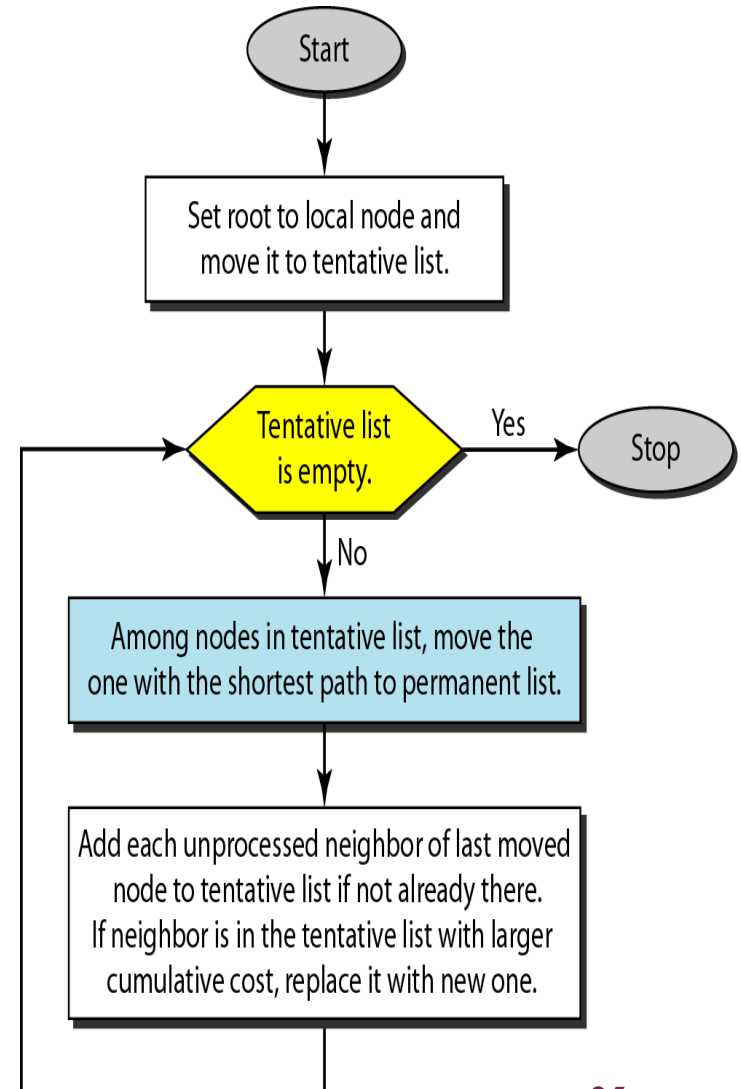
- The link state packets consist of the following information:
  - The address of the node creating the LSP
  - A list of directly connected neighbors to that node with the cost of the link to each neighbor
  - A sequence number to make sure it is the most recent one 确保收到的是most recent one (有可能连续change link state)
  - A time-to-live to insure that an LSP doesn't circulate indefinitely
- A node (router) will only send an LSP if there is a failure (change of status) to some of its links or if a timer expires

every node will create his own spanning tree without sharing to other nodes(tree entry is itself)

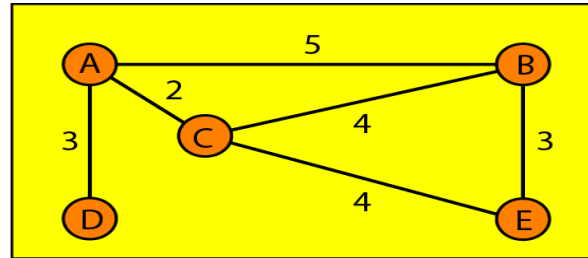


# Dijkstra Algorithm

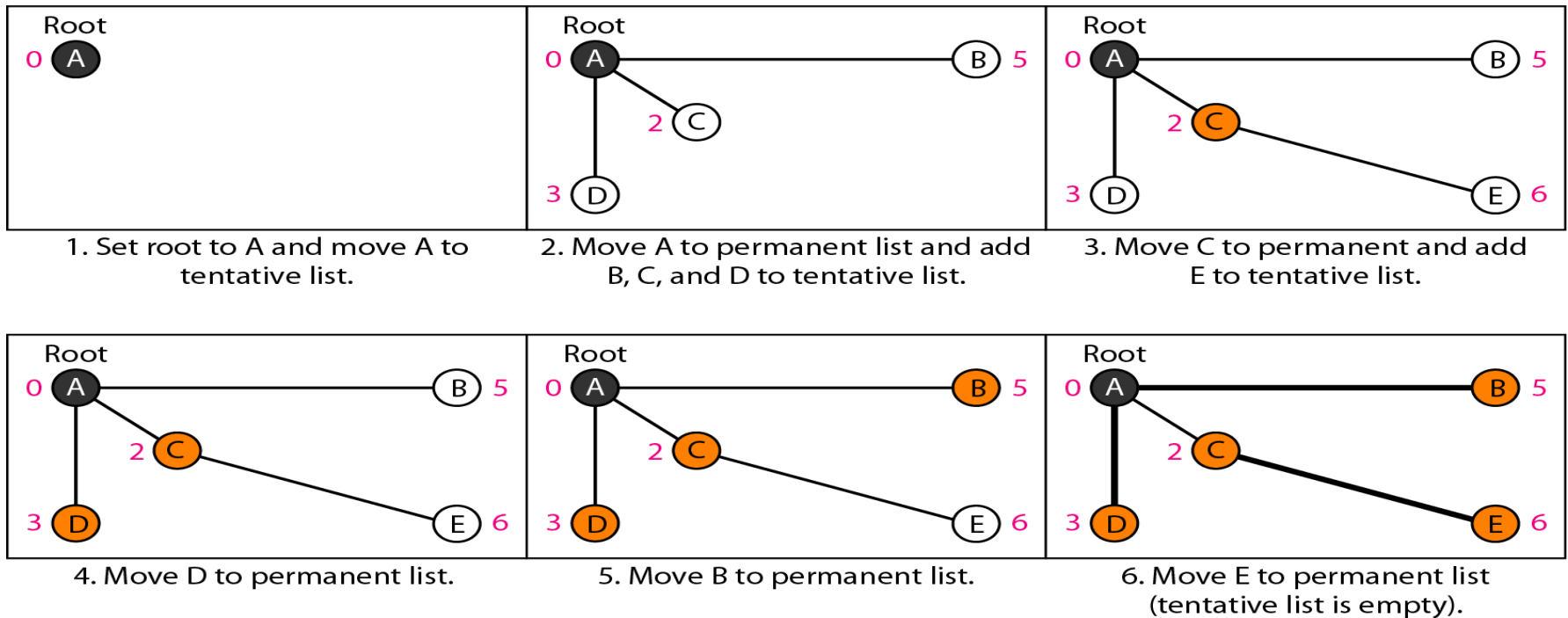
- $SPT = \{a\}$  spanning tree initially
- for all nodes  $v$ 
  - if  $v$  adjacent to  $a$  then  $D(v) = \text{cost}(a, v)$
  - else  $D(v) = \text{infinity}$
- Loop distance between  $w$  and root
  - find  $w$  not in  $SPT$ , where  $D(w)$  is min
  - add  $w$  in  $SPT$
  - for all  $v$  adjacent to  $w$  and not in  $SPT$ 
    - $D(v) = \min(D(v), D(w) + C(w, v))$
- until all nodes are in  $SPT$



# Example on Dijkstra Algorithm



Topology

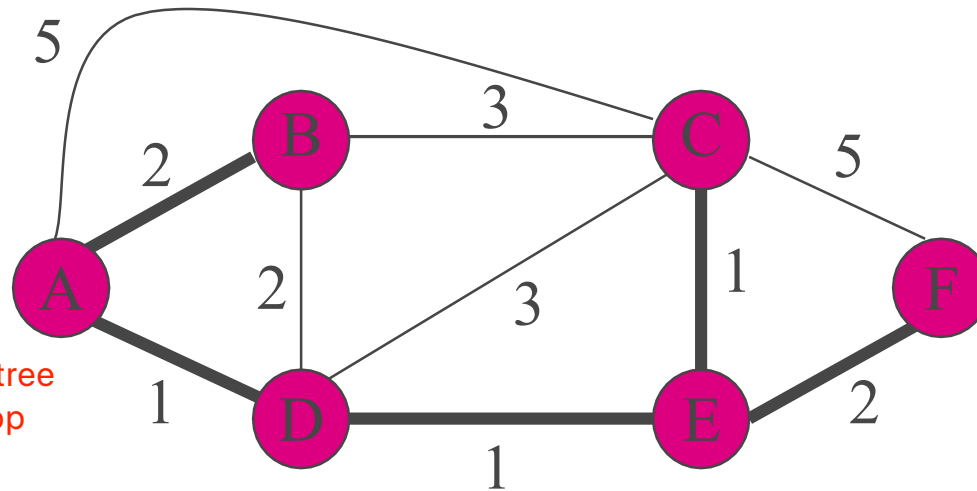


# Another Example

A tell everyone:  
I have 3 neighbors distance  
between C is 5, B is 2, D is 1

at the end, every  
router have a graph

A will be creates a spanning tree  
to all other points without loop



选择D之后计算D到所有D的neighbor的距离，然后与原来A的old距离，小于就update

spanning tree

P(b) previous node back to the root

step	SPT	D(b), P(b)	D(c), P(c)	D(d), P(d)	D(e), P(e)	D(f), P(f)
0	A	2, A	5, A	1, A	~	~
1	AD	2, A	4, D		2, D	~
2	ADE	2, A	3, E			4, E
3	ADEB		3, E			4, E
4	ADEBC					4, E
5	ADEBCF					

把D加入SPT之后就不考虑这一行了