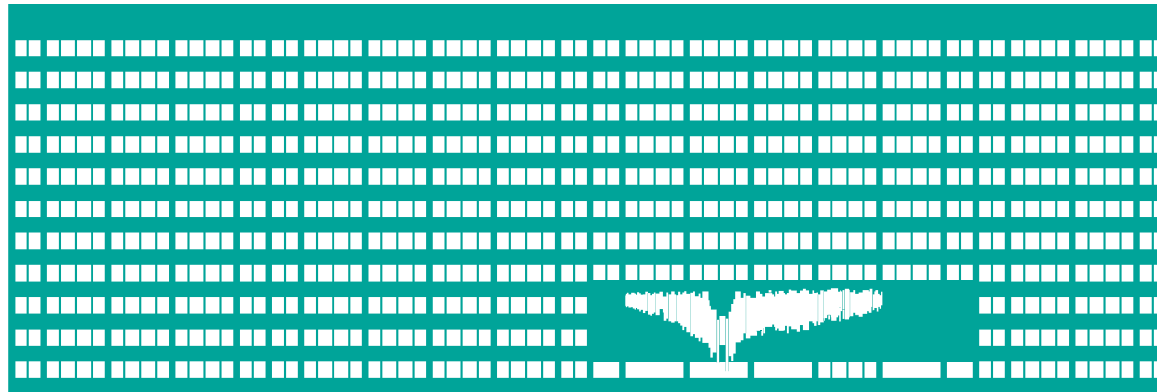


# Routing, Routing Algorithms & Protocols



Computer Networks  
Lecture 6

# **Circuit-Switched and Packet-Switched WANs**

# Circuit-Switched Networks

- Older (evolved from telephone networks), a node has to explicitly ask the network to establish circuit to the partner node and tear it down
  - A network returns a circuit ID if a node may establish multiple circuits at the same time
- Capacity is reserved for the whole existence of circuit
  - as all data travel through the single circuit, there is no risk of ordering data out-of-order
- Advantageous for users – guaranteed QoS
- Not economic for net. operator in case of bursty traffic
  - The channel is not utilized between data bursts
- In case of the circuit outage the node has to ask creation of the new circuit
  - A network has to find an alternate path that avoids usage of the failed paths/intermediate nodes
  - A circuit-establishment procedure can be time consuming (e.g. handshake of analog modems)

# Packet-Switched Networks

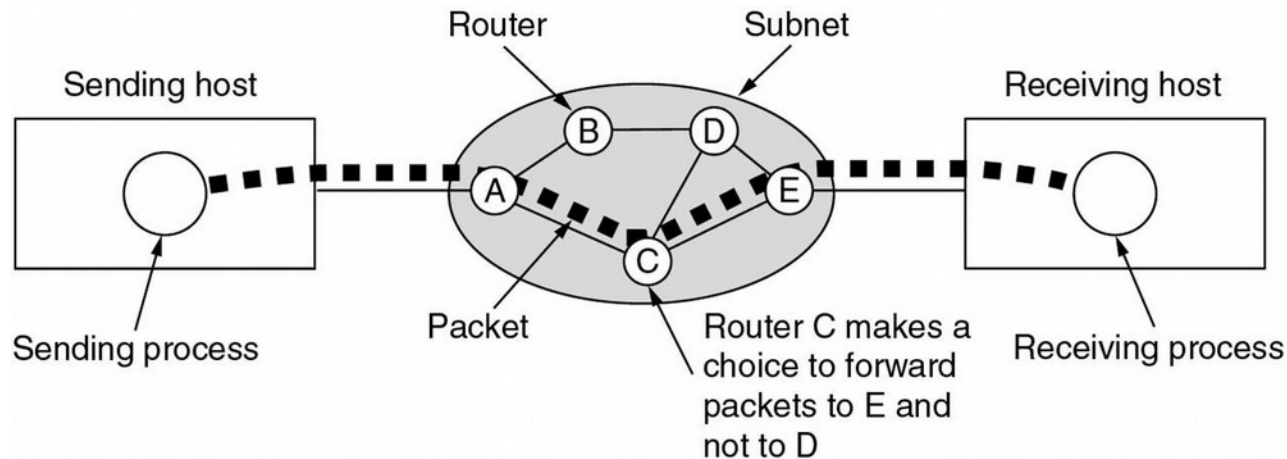
- Developed in scope of the military ARPA project
  - The goal was to reach a resiliency against link and switching element failures and a fast error recovery
  - Forms a basis of the today's Internet
- Hop-by-hop data passing over a polygonal structure
  - Routers interconnected with (redundant) links
- Data units (packets) are passed between routers independently of other packets
  - Each packets carries the receiver identification
  - Every packet may follow a different path
    - Protects against outages of links and routers
    - Packets may be received out-of-order and/or duplicated
  - A packet may wait in a router's queue for arbitrary time

# Virtual Channel

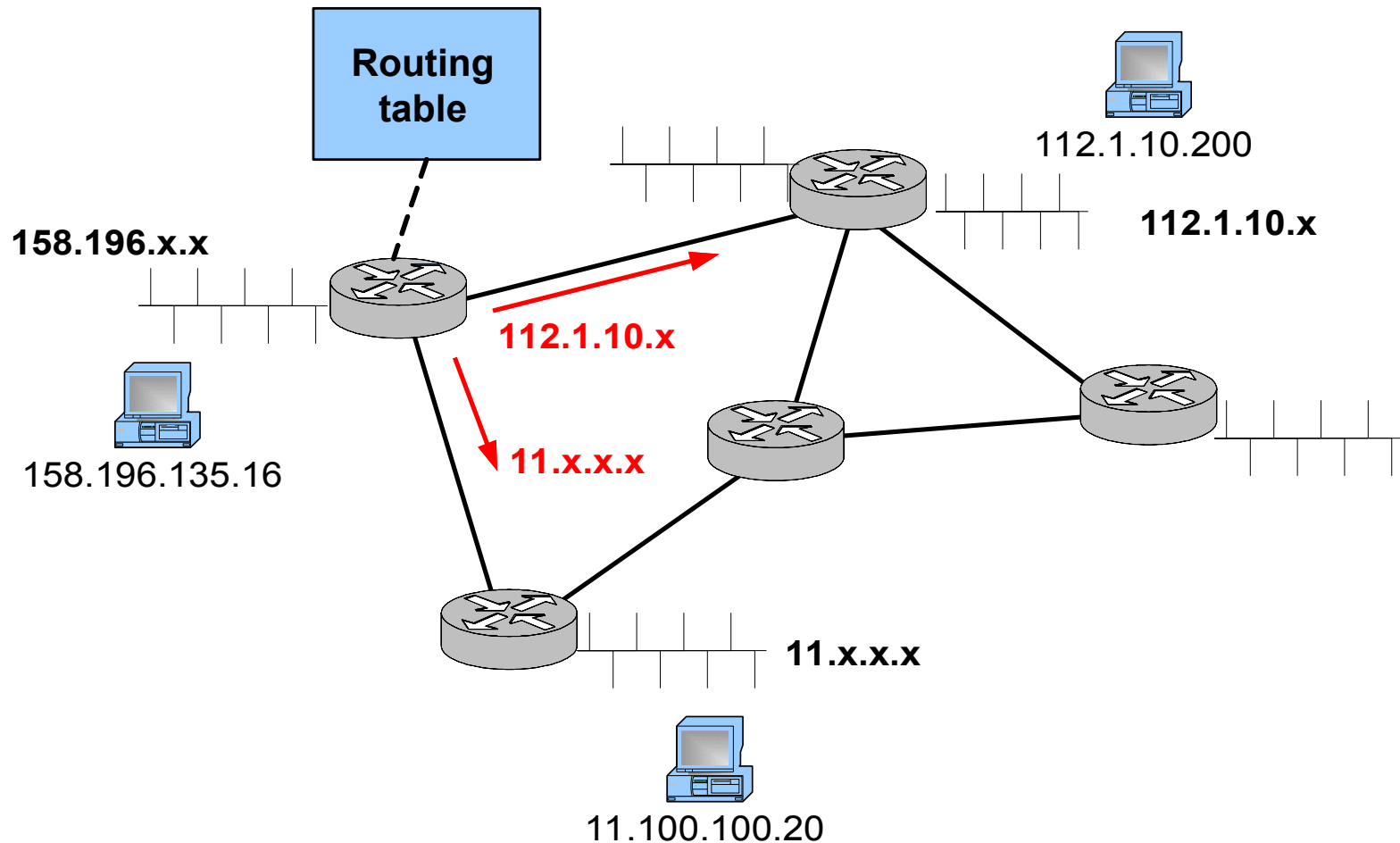
- A logical channel created on a packet-switched network infrastructure
  - A compromise between circuit switching and packet switching
- Created and abolished on the user node request
- Finding of path across the network takes place just during the creation of the virtual channel
  - A channel ID is allocated in each switching element and stored in a switching table
  - The ingress router provides a channel ID to the user node
  - User node places the channel ID into each packet
- All packets travel along the same path, so they cannot arrive out-of order

# Routing

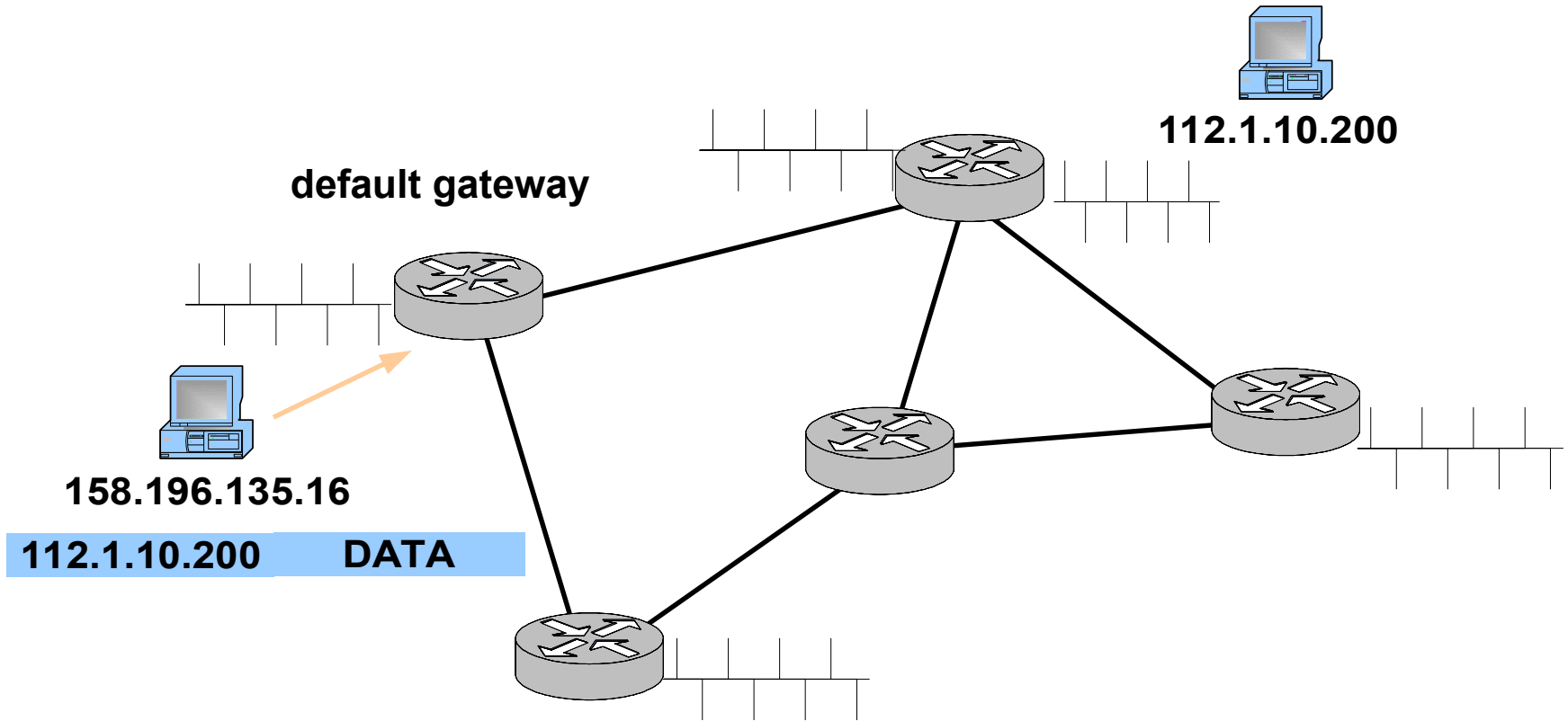
- Finding a path across the network
- Takes place
  - During the circuit setup in connection-oriented networks
    - Setup of switching circuitry of COs along the path of the physical circuit
    - Creation of entries of switching tables of switching elements along the path of the virtual circuit
  - During processing of individual packets in packet switched networks



# Routing in Packet-Switched Network (1)

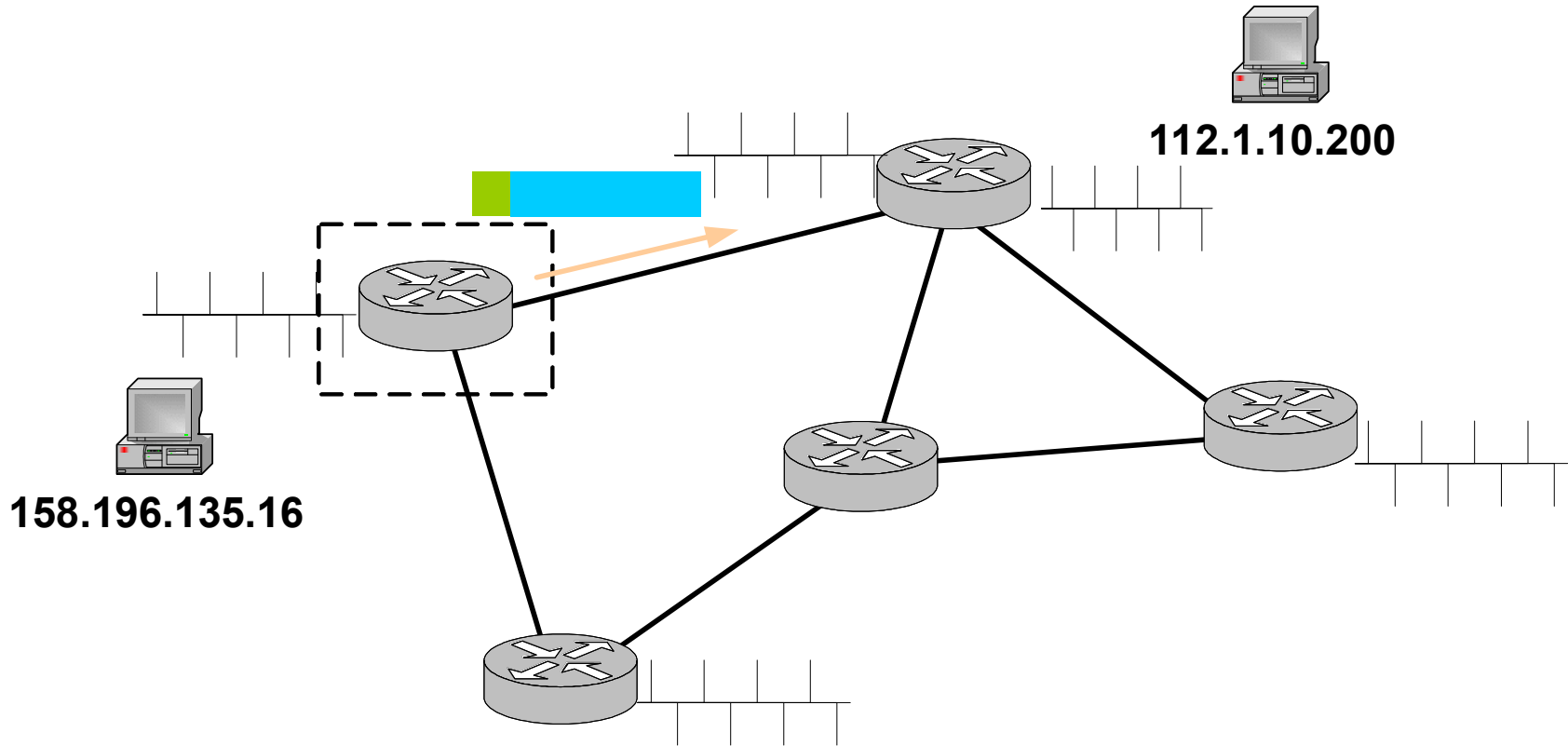


# Routing in Packet Switched Network (2)

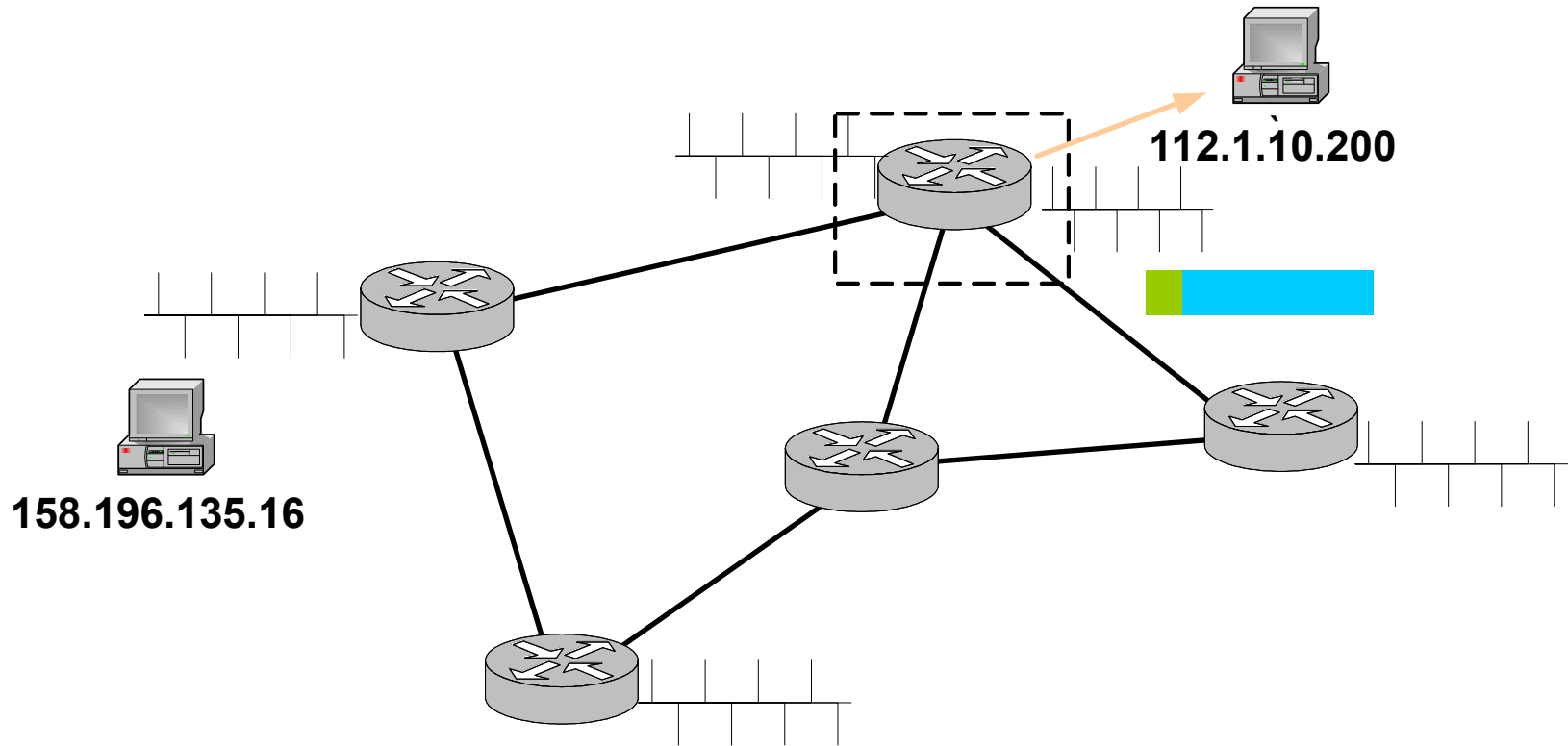




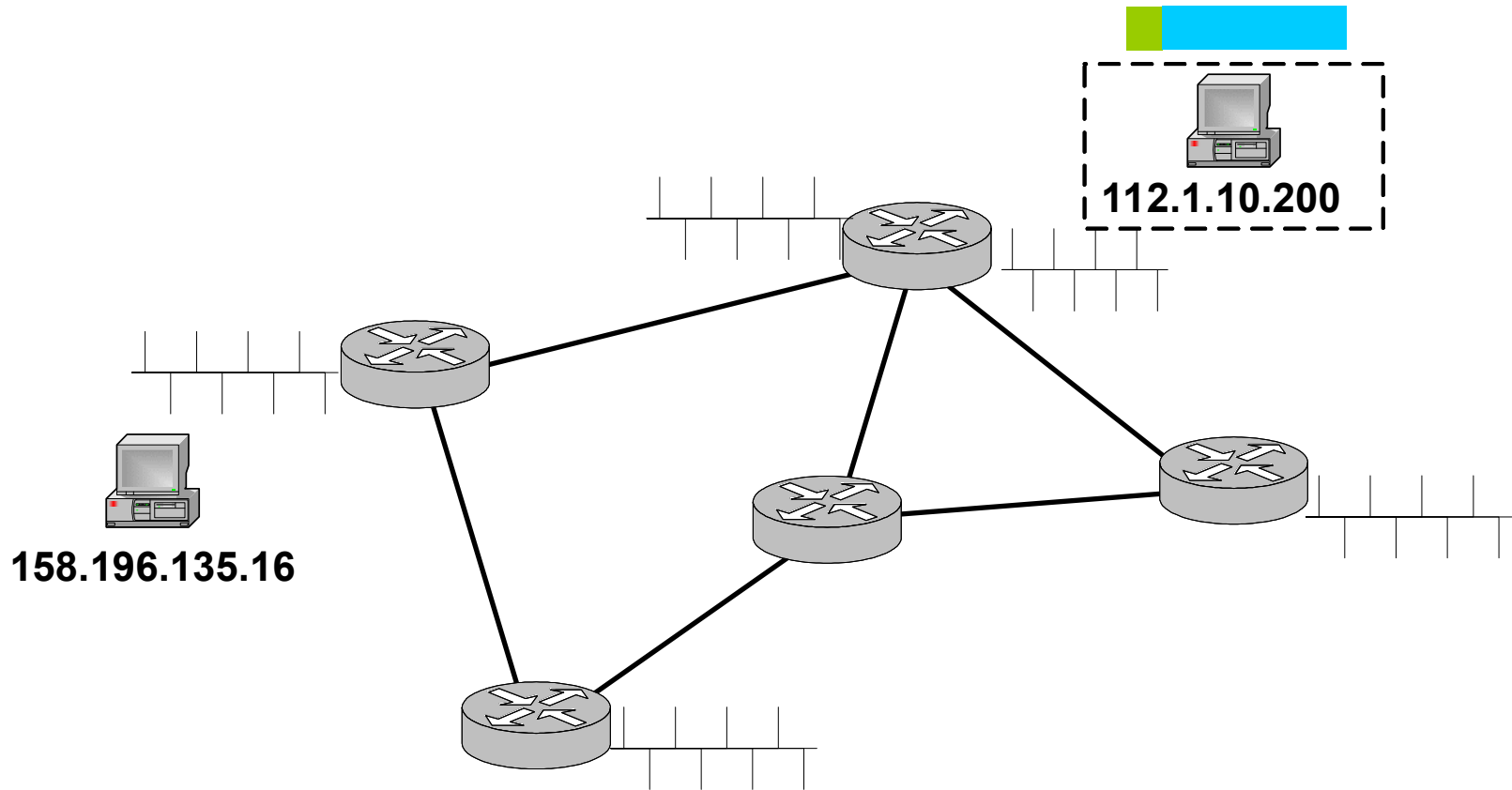
# Routing in Packet Switched Network (3)



# Routing in Packet Switched Network (4)



# Routing in Packet Switched Network (5)



# Routing Algorithms

# Routing Algorithm

- A part of the OSI RM Layer 3 software that decide which interface to send an incoming packet from or to what neighboring switching device should (a virtual) circuit be routed
- Makes decisions based on the information pre-configured manually or obtained from a **routing protocol**
- Most commonly implemented using a **routing table**
  - Creation and maintenance of the routing table using a routing protocol may take place at the same time as actual data forwarding

# Required Properties of the Routing Algorithm

- simplicity
- robustness
- stability
- fairness
- optimality

*Some of the properties are in contradiction, so we need to decide what ones will be preferred*

# Routing Table

- Maintains records with the following format:
  - $\langle \textit{Destination}(\textit{network} + \textit{mask}), \textit{outgoing-interface/next\_hop}, \textit{metric} \rangle$
- A particular node or a network prefix network may be used as a destination
  - In IP environment we may use address prefixes of various lengths
- In IP networks, a record that matches as much bits of the destination address as possible is used to route a packet
  - **→ all records of the routing table have to be checked for each packet → time consuming process**

# Default Route

- Typically used for networks connected by a single interface to a network of a higher hierarchy level
- All packets that do not match any routing table record are routed via the default route
- The purpose is to limit a number of records in a routing table
- Denoted as 0.0.0.0/0 in IP networks
  - The number of bits of the destination address that have to match is 0



# Approaches to the Routing Problem

- Centralized
- Distributed
- (Isolated)
  
- *Nonadaptive* – static
- *Adaptive (dynamic)* – reacts on
  - The current network topology
  - The current load of the network
    - Implemented rarely as there is a danger of the routing instability

# Centralized and Distributed Routing

# Centralized Routing

- A central Routing Control Center (RCC) collects information about all routers' neighborhoods, combines together the network topology, calculates and distributes routing tables for all routers
- All routers periodically report their neighborhood states to the RCC
  - List of alive neighbors, interface queue lengths, total processed load, ...
- A distribution of routing tables to individual routers is problematic
  - inconsistent routing information during the distribution of the new routing tables version

*Not used in practice today*

# Distributed Routing

- Every router knows its neighborhood
  - List of active neighbor routers
  - State of all connected links
    - Dynamic: operational status, current load
    - Static: Bandwidth, configured cost, MTU
- Every router exchanges its routing information with other routers
  - Using directly connected neighbors
- Every router independently constructs its routing table according to the obtained routing information

*Used today in both in the Internet and intranets*

# Static and Dynamic Routing

# Static Routing

- Routing tables are configured manually
  - requires a lot of administrator's work
- Incurs No routing protocol overhead
  - Consumed bandwidth, CPU utilization
- Safer
  - Avoids forging of the fake routing information and network topology eavesdropping
- Non-adaptive
  - Administrator's action is necessary in case of a router or link outage
- May be applied if the topology does not change too much
  - because of outages or the network modification

*Used rather often in small intranets*

# Dynamic Routing

- Automatically adapts to the current network topology (and sometimes to the current traffic)
- Routing protocols must be applied
- Inevitable in networks with frequent changes and/or with the unknown topology
  - typically in the Internet

In practice, a combination of static and dynamic routing is applied

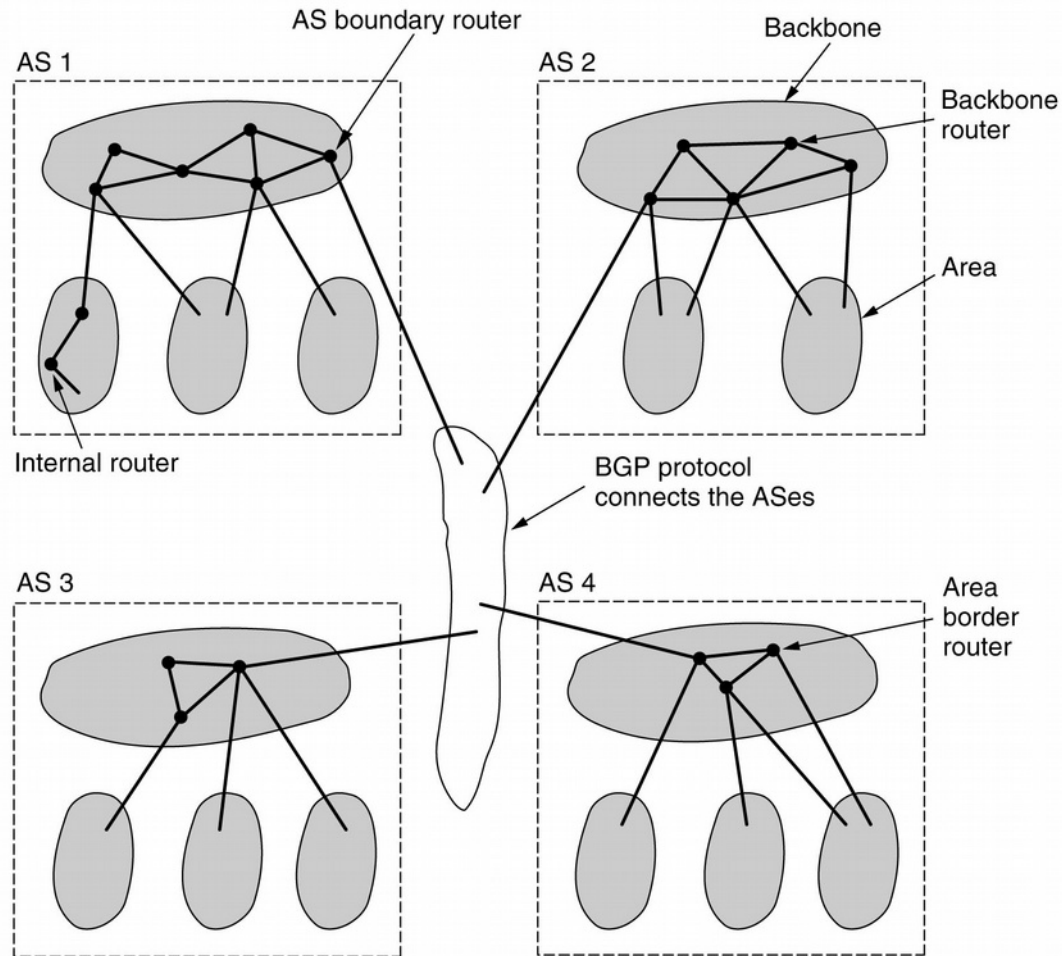
- routers typically prefer static routes over the dynamic ones

# Hierarchical Routing – the Principle

- Organizes (a large) network into hierarchical parts
  - Also advantageous for division of competences of the network administration
- Routers in individual parts know just the topology of the part, a route into the higher hierarchy level and a list of networks in parts of a lower hierarchy level
  - But not the topology of the parts at the lower hierarchy levels
  - The aim is to limit number of routes in routing tables
  - Route aggregation and default route



# Hierarchical Routing – Example



# **Routing Algorithms (Routing Protocols)**

# What are the Differences between Routing Protocols ?

- Utilized metric
- Level of routers' knowledge of the network topology
- Scheme of the propagation of the routing information
  - exchange between neighbors, flooding to all routers, diffusion algorithm, ...
- Technical implementation of sending of the routing information
  - broadcasting/multicasting, update period
- The aim is to reach a fast convergence
  - = a time between topology change and stabilization of routing tables of all routers

# Classes of the Routing Protocols

- **Distance Vector**

- Older
- Easier implementation

- **Link State**

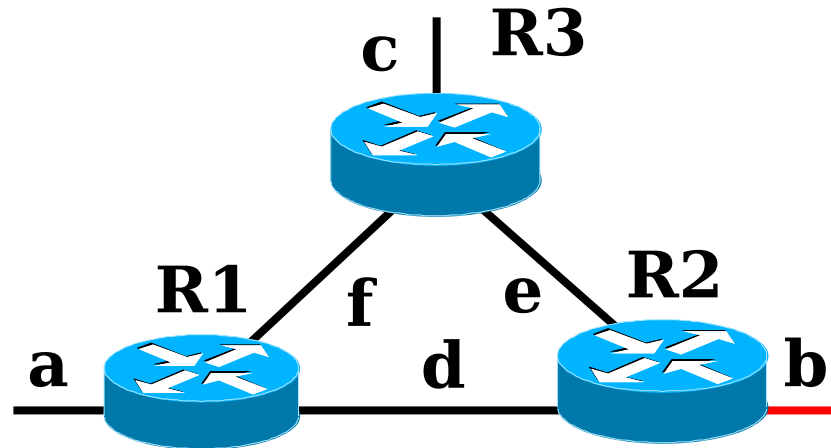
- More complex implementation
- Faster convergence
- More deterministic behavior in „special cases“

# Distance Vector Algorithms (DVA)

# DVA Basic Principle

- Routers do not know the network topology, just the outgoing interfaces for individual destination networks + distances to those networks (distance vectors)
  - in practice, we need a next-hop address
- The routing table originally contains just the directly connected networks
  - Manually pre-configured by administrator
- The routing table is periodically broadcasted to all neighbors
- A router combines/adapts its routing table from distance vectors propagated by its neighbors
  - If a route fails to be advertised by the neighbor, it is removed from the routing table

# An Example: Propagation of network b (1)



Pre-configured information:

R1 :

-----

a 0 -

f 0 -

d 0 -

R2 :

-----

b 0 -

d 0 -

e 0 -

R3 :

-----

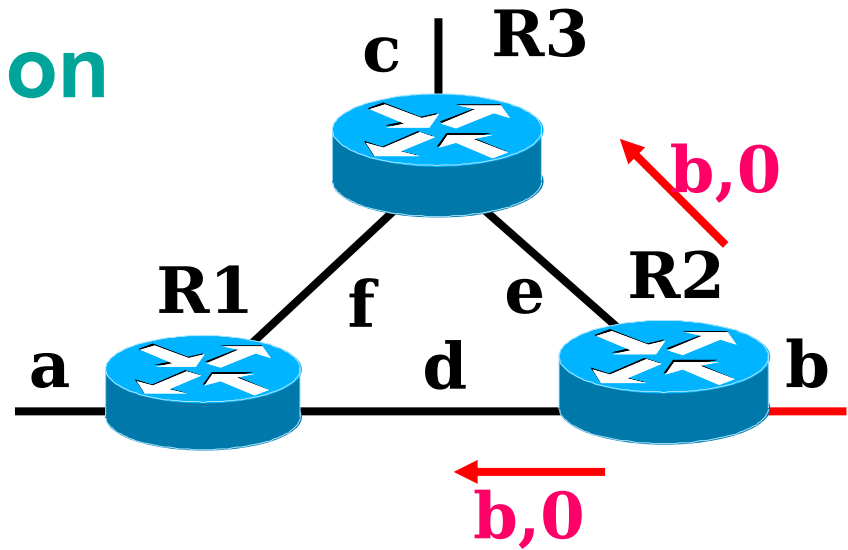
c 0 -

e 0 -

f 0 -

## An Example: Propagation of network b (2)

Routing tables after reception of an update from R2



R1 :

-----

a 0 -

f 0 -

d 0 -

b 1 R2

R2 :

-----

b 0 -

d 0 -

e 0 -

R3 :

-----

c 0 -

e 0 -

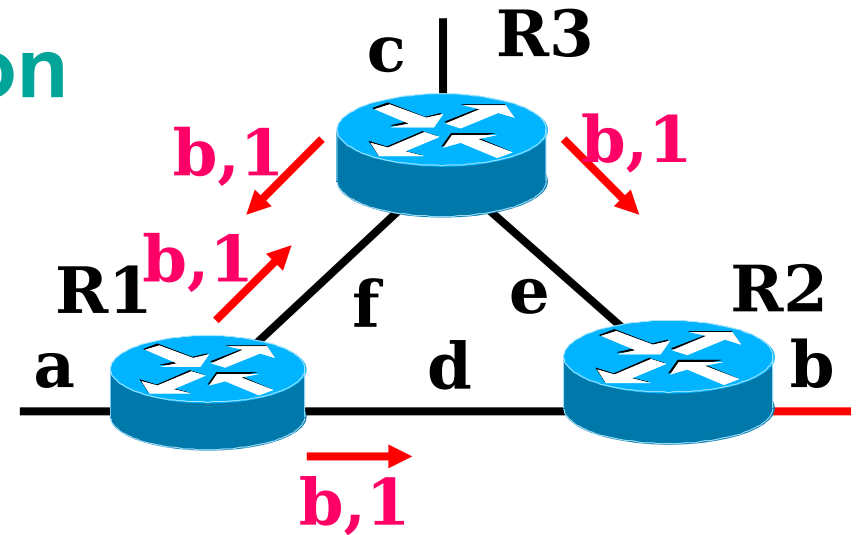
f 0 -

b 1 R2



# An Example: Propagation of network b (3)

Routing tables after reception of an update from R1 and R3



R1 :

-----

a 0 -

f 0 -

d 0 -

b 1 R2

~~b 2 R3~~

R2 :

-----

b 0 -

d 0 -

e 0 -

R3 :

-----

c 0 -

e 0 -

f 0 -

b 1 R2

~~b 2 R1~~

**I already have  
a better route**

**I already have  
a better route**

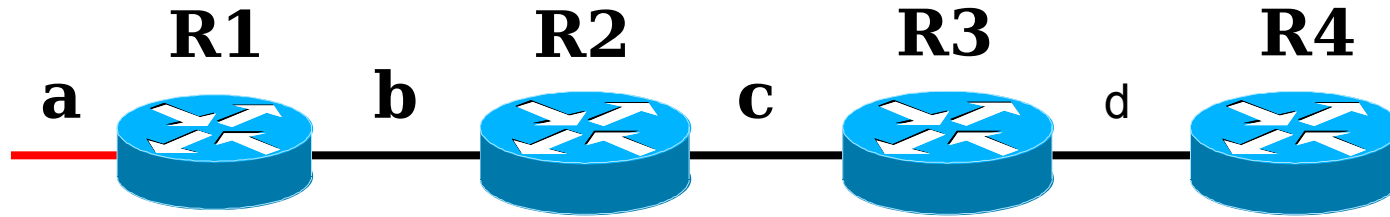
# Building of Routing Tables from the Received Routing Information

- If a router receives a route to yet unknown network, it install it into the routing table
- If (an alternative) route with a better metric to already known network is received, it replaces the current route
  - A route with the same metric will be either ignored or used for load balancing
- If a route's metric becomes worse but there is no better route, the router has to change route's metric in the routing table

# Properties of DVA

- The hop count (number of routers on the path) is used as a metric
  - Does not take link parameters into account
    - e.g. link bandwidth, delay, load, ...
    - suitable in the early days of Internet with equal links
- Slow convergence after a topology change
  - The change advertisement has to wait until the next routing table broadcast
- Periodic routing table broadcasts incur a substantial network load
- Too "optimistic"
  - router learns new routes quickly, but forgets routes that became unusable slowly
  - after the expiration of the invalidation timer when the route is not advertised anymore

# DVA Convergence



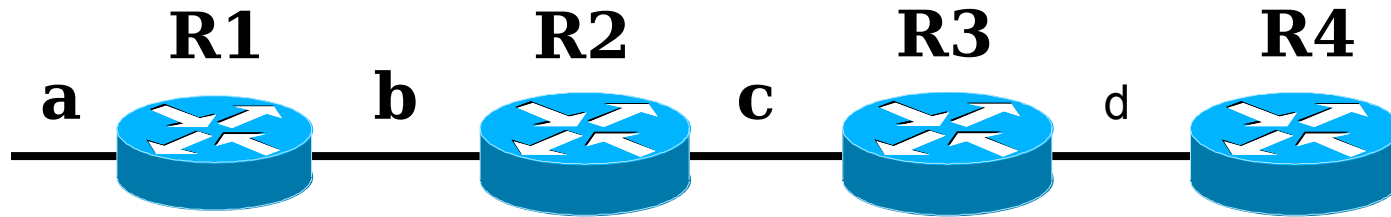
Network a goes up.

Consider the update period of 30s (RIP):

- R2 gets to know about a after 30s (max)
- R3 gets to know about a after 60s (max)
- R4 gets to know about a after 90s = 1.5 min (max)

# Count-to-Infinity Problem(1)

If a route fails to be advertised and a router hears the alternative route, it does not know that the alternative route back to it:



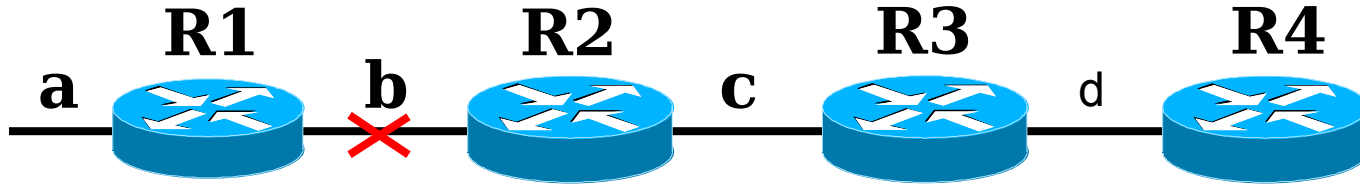
Consider the routing table entries for network **a**:

**R2: 1,R1**

**R3: 2,R2**

**R4: 3, R3**

# Count-to-Infinity Problem (2a)

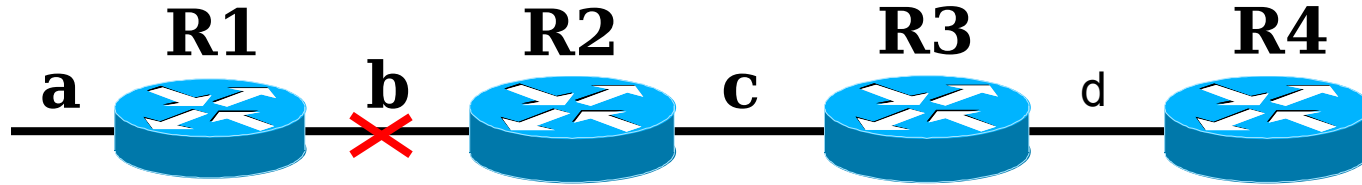


Now consider the link between R1 and R2 fails

R2:  $\infty$ , -

R3: 2, R2

# Count-to-Infinity Problem (2b)



Now consider the link between R1 and R2 fails

R2:  $\infty$ , -

R3: 2, R2

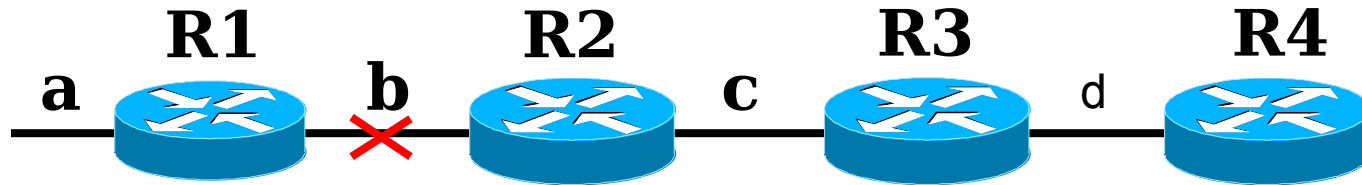
R3 advertises to R2 that it can reach a with 2 hops

(but does not tell that the route goes via R2 ;-)

R2: **3, R3**

R3: 2, R2

# Count-to-Infinity Problem (2c)



Now consider the link between R1 and R2 fails

R2:  $\infty$ , -

R3: 2, R2

R3 advertises to R2 that it can reach a with 2 hops

(but does not tell that the route goes via R2 ;-)

R2: 3, R3

R3: 2, R2

R2 informs R3 that it can reach a with 3 hops

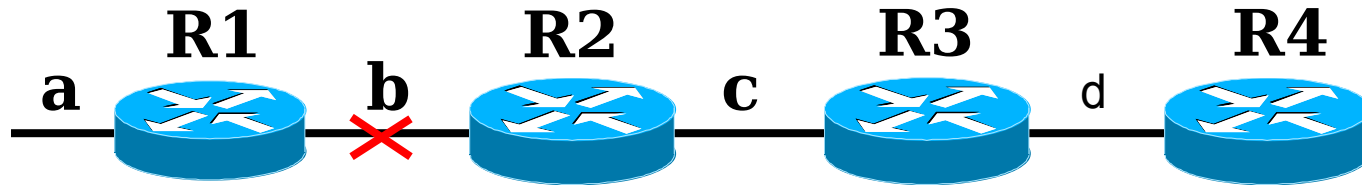
(R3 had a route through R2 with metric 2, but R2 is announcing different value → original value is overwritten)

R2: 3, R3

R3: 4, R2



# Count-to-Infinity Problem (2d)



Now consider the link between R1 and R2 fails

R2:  $\infty, -$

R3: 2, R2

R3 advertises to R2 that it can reach **a** with 2 hops

(but does not tell that the route goes via R2 ;-)

R2: 3, R3

R3: 2, R2

R2 informs R3 that it can reach **a** with 3 hops

(R3 had a route through R2 with metric 2, but R2 is announcing different value → original value is overwritten)

R2: 3, R3

R3: 4, R2

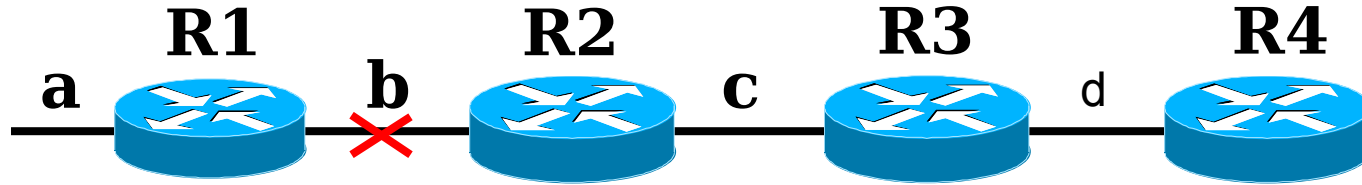
R3 informs R2 that it can reach **a** with 4 hops

R2 had a route via R3 with 3 hops, but R3 now advertises 4 hops, so R2 has to update it to 5 hops

R2: 5, R3

R3: 4, R2

# Count-to-Infinity Problem (3)



→ The metric of network a still increases on R2 and R3 (up to the infinity)



# Solution of the Count-to-Infinity Problem (1)

- We limit the maximum value of a route's metric
  - a finite value that represents infinity
  - diameter of a network topology graph + 1
- Routes with metric equal to „infinity“ are not used

# Solution of the Count-to-Infinity Problem (2)

- **Split horizon rule**
  - routes are not advertised out of the interface from that they have been learned

The first solution also solves loops over multiple routers that cannot be broken with a Split horizon rule

→ In practice, both solutions are implemented together

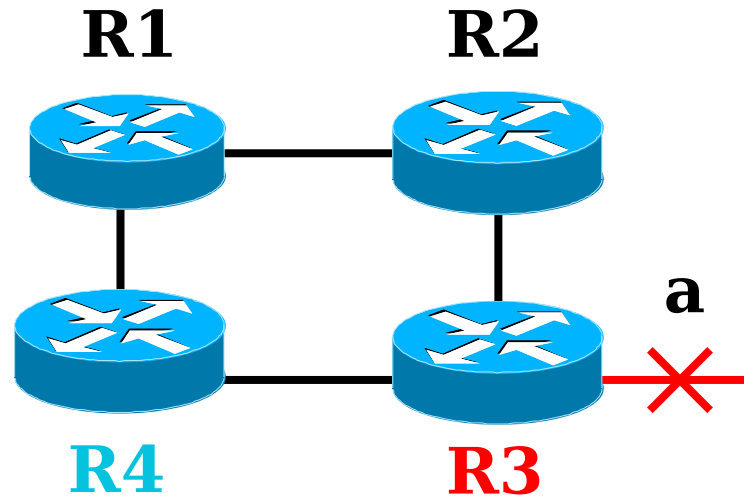
# Improvements of DVA Routing Protocols (1)

- **Triggered update** – the router broadcasts (a new) routing table just after it detects a change, i.e. Without waiting to the update timer
  - Interface goes up or down
  - A new route is learned from the neighbor
- **Poisson reverse**
  - Improvements of the split horizon
  - advertises routes out of the interface they came from with an infinite metric

# Improvements of DVA Routing Protocols (2)

- **Hold down** – after a route is lost, the router does not accept advertisements of the same route from other routers for a duration of a hold down interval
  - avoids learning of routes that really do not exist, but the other routers did not mention their unavailability yet

# Hold down – An Example



Hold-down technique applied on R4

- R3 informs about network **a** unavailability (triggered update)
- R1 offers a route to **a** with 3 hops
  - **R4 will ignore that route for a hold down period**
  - as R1 probably did not note that the route it advertises is unavailable

# Examples of DVA Protocols

- Routing information protocol (RIP)
  - Old, but still used in small networks
    - Uses 16 to represent infinite metric
  - Easy to implement
  - No special requirements on administrator's knowledge
- Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (IGRP)
  - Cisco proprietary
  - Composite metric
    - bandwidth, delay, (reliability, load)
  - Not limited to 16 hops (increased to 255)
- ...



# Link State Algorithms (LSA)

# Properties of LSA

- Calculates shortest paths with the global knowledge of states of all links
  - operational state, cost
- Routers (graph vertices) know the topology of the whole network (a graph) and costs of individual links (edge labels). They maintain that information in a topology database
  - all routers have the same content of the topology database
- Every router calculates shortest paths tree to all other routers (and networks connected to them) using Dijkstra algorithm
  - in contrast to DVA, all routers calculate routing tables from the same information

# Operation of LSA Protocols

- Every router continually checks status of all directly connected links
  - Checks the availability of neighboring routers using Hello protocol
- If a change is detected, the updated information about router's neighborhood is immediately flooded to other routers that updates it in their topological database
  - No periodic routing table broadcasts, only the information about topology changes is sent

**Instant reaction on link state changes + recalculation of SPF → fast convergence**

# Topological Database

- Consists of records containing:
  - Router ID
  - List of alive neighboring routers (IDs)  
+ costs and network addresses related to corresponding links
  - List and network addresses of stub networks connected to the router

The network address is always appended to the link
- Records are generated by individual routers after any topology change and flooded to the whole network
- The topology graph may be constructed using topology database records

# Examples of LSA Protocols

- Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)
  - open standard
  - Router first calculates the shortest paths tree and transforms it to the routing table
  - Supports the hierarchical routing (areas)
  - Very popular in today's networks
- IS-IS
  - ISO standard
  - similar principle as OSPF

# **Algorithms of Graph Theory used by Routing Protocols**

# Basic Algorithms used in Routing Protocols

- Dijkstra
  - Calculates a shortest paths tree from a given vertex to all other vertices of a edge-labeled graph
  - Used in OSPF (a little bit modified)
- Floyd
  - Calculates routing tables for individual routers from a cost matrix of the network topology graph
- Ford-Fulkerson
  - Calculates distances from all nodes to a given node
  - In distributed version used as a basis of RIP

# Routing in TCP/IP Networks



# TCP/IP Routing Protocols

## Interior routing protocols (IGP)

- Used to route inside autonomous systems
- Open Standards
  - RIP (Routing Information Protocol)
  - OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)
- Proprietary
  - IGRP, EIGRP - Cisco
  - NLSP – Novell

## Exterior routing protocols (EGP):

- Used to route between autonomous systems
  - BGP (Border Gateway Protocol) - path vector protocol

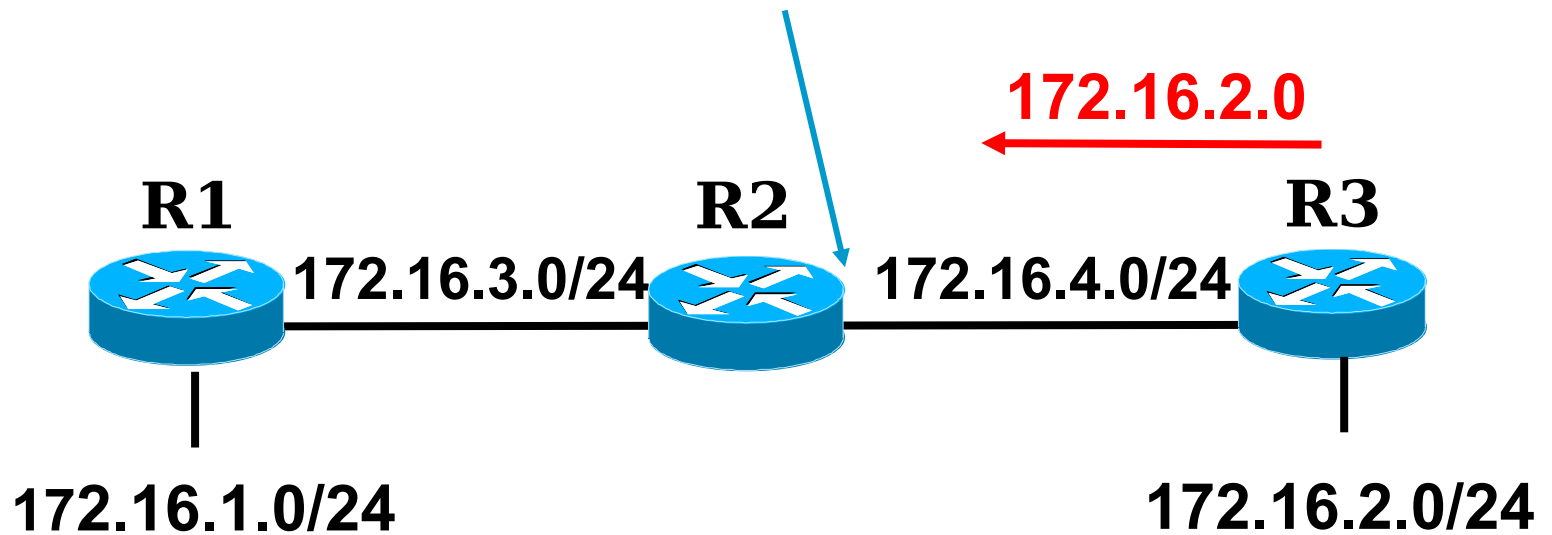
# Classful Routing Protocols

- Do not propagate subnet masks but rely on IP address classes
- Require a common (constant) subnet mask for all subnets of the single major network
- Require subnet continuity
  - Subnets of the same major network may not be separated by other networks
  - As the subnets are aggregated to a classful address on the major network boundary
- Old DV protocols (RIP v.1, IGRP)
  - As a result not of much use nowadays

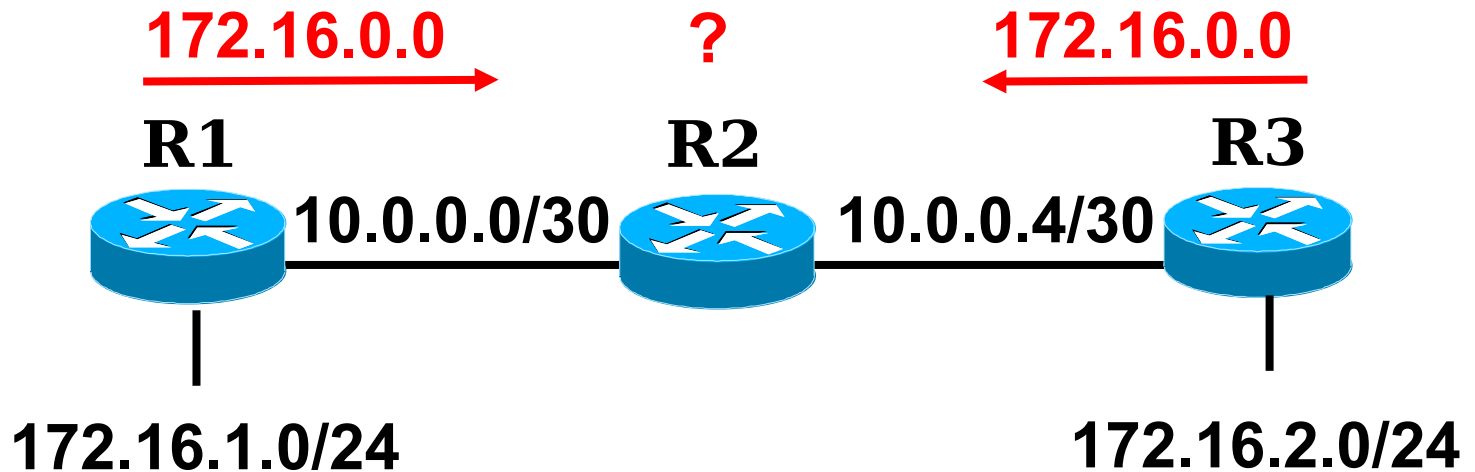
# Classful Addressing and Constant Length Subnet Mask

172.16.2.0, but with what ?

I will take the mask of the interface from which the routing information arrived !



# Problem of Discontinuous Networks with Classful Addressing



# VLSM:

## Variable-Length Subnet Mask

- The constant subnet mask is inefficient if we have very different number of nodes on individual segments
  - e.g. 2 stations on P2P links and tens of stations on the Ethernet LAN segment
- VLSM (RFC 1009) allows to have different subnet masks on subnets of the same network
  - addresses still have to be unique
- May be used only with routing protocols that propagate subnet masks together with network addresses (OSPF, ISIS, RIP v.2).
  - Network addresses are stored in routing tables together with subnet masks