

Computer Networks: Architecture and Protocols

Lecture 11 Intra-domain Routing: Deep Dive





Goals for Today's Lecture

- Continue learning about Routing Protocols
 - Link State (Global view, Local computation)—done
 - Distance Vector (Local view, Local computation)—more today
- Maintain sanity: its one of the "harder" lectures
 - I'll try to make it -less- hard, but ...
 - Pay attention
 - Review again tomorrow
 - Work out a few examples

Recap from last few lectures

Recap: Spanning Tree Protocol ...

- Used in switched Ethernet to avoid broadcast storm
- Can be used for routing on the Internet (via "flooding" on spanning tree)
- Three fundamental issues:
 - Unnecessary processing at end hosts (that are not the destination)
 - Higher latency
 - Lower available bandwidth

Recap: Routing Tables

- Routing table:
 - Each switch: the next hop for each destination in the network
- Routing state: collection of routing tables across all nodes
- Two questions:
 - How can we **verify** given routing state is valid?
 - How can we **produce** valid routing state?
- Global routing state valid if and only if:
 - There are no **dead ends** (other than destination)
 - There are no "persistent" loops

Recap: The right way to think about Routing Tables

- Routing tables are nothing but
 - A collection of (directed) spanning tree
 - One for each destination
- Routing Protocols
 - Mechanisms to producing valid routing tables
 - What we will see:
 - "n" spanning tree protocols running in parallel

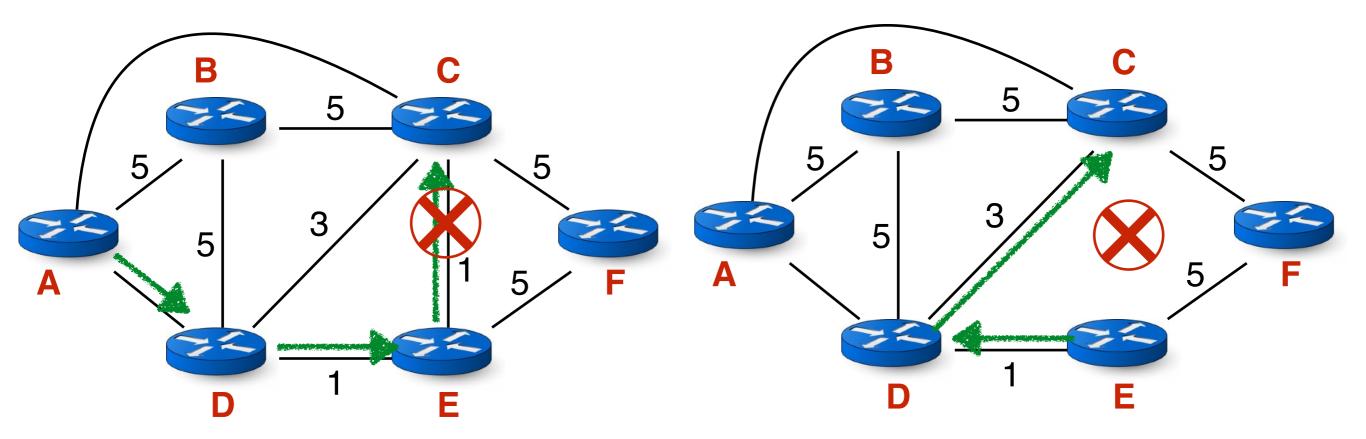
Recap: Three flavors of protocols for producing valid routing state

- Create Tree, route on tree
 - E.g., Spanning tree protocol (switched Ethernet)
 - Good: easy, no (persistent) loops, no dead ends
 - Not-so-good: unnecessary processing, high latency, low bandwidth
- Obtain a global view:
 - E.g., Link state (last lecture)
- Distributed route computation:
 - E.g., Distance vector
 - E.g., Border Gateway Protocol

Recap: Where to create global view?

- One option: Central server
 - Collects a global view
 - Computes the routing table for each node
 - "Installs" routing tables at each node
 - Software-defined Networks: later in course
- Second option: At each router
 - Each router collects a global view
 - Computes its own routing table using Link-state protocol
- Link-state routing protocol
 - OSPF is a specific implementation of link-state protocol
 - IETF RFC 2328 (IPv4) or 5340 (IPv6)

Recap: Are Loops Still Possible?



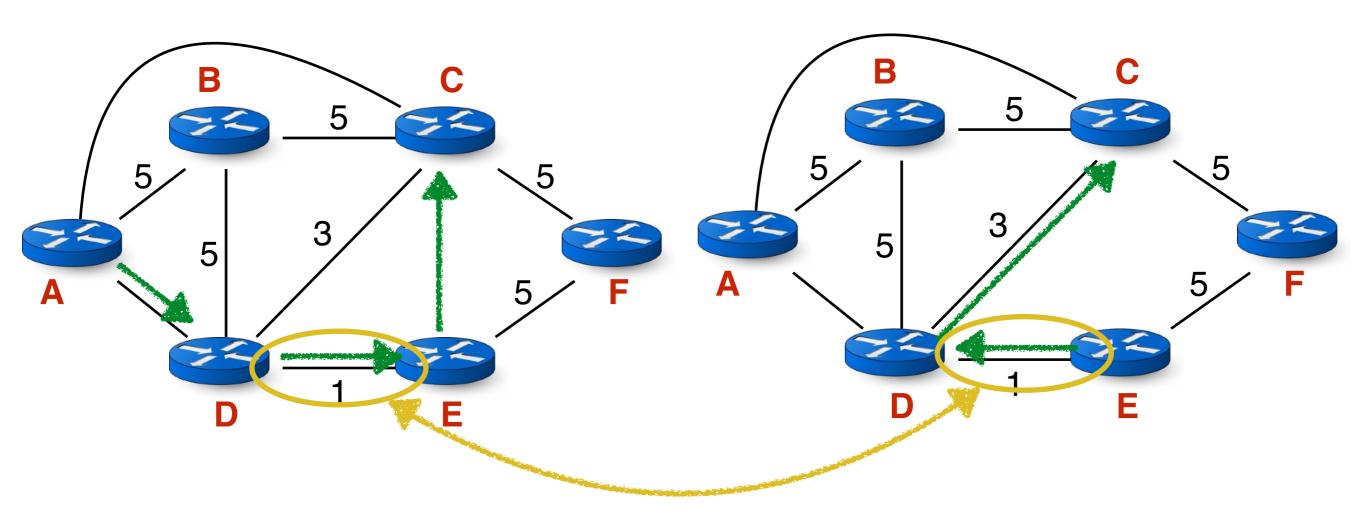
A and D think this is the path to C

E-C link fails, but D doesn't know yet

E thinks that this the path to C

E reaches C via D, D reaches C via E Loop!

Recap: Transient Disruptions



- Inconsistent link-state views
 - Some routers know about failure before others
 - The shortest paths are no longer consistent
 - Can cause transient forwarding loops
 - Transient loops are still a problem!

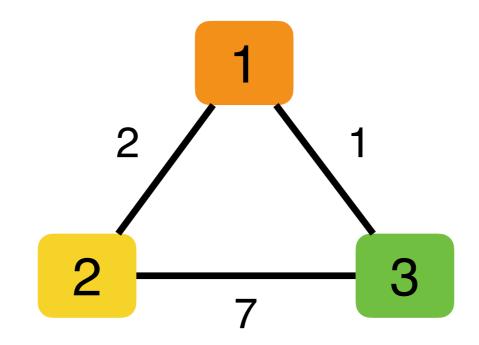
Questions?

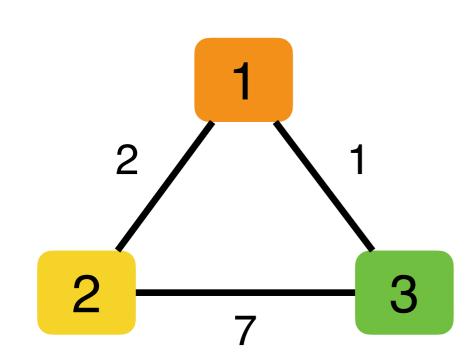
Distributed Route Computation

Recap: Distance-vector protocol with next-hops (no failures)

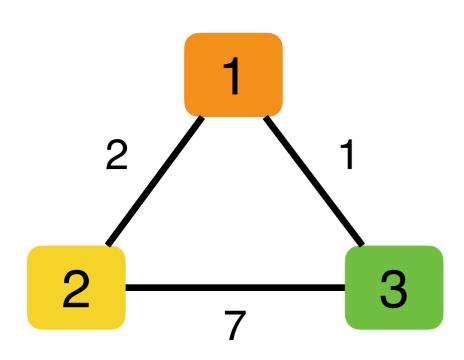
- Messages (Y,d,X): For root Y; From node X; advertising a distance d to Y
- Initially each switch X announces (X,0,X) to its neighbors
- Each switch X updates its view upon receiving each message
 - Upon receiving message (Y,d,Z) from Z, check Y's id
 - If Y's id < current root: set root destination = Y
- Switch X computes its shortest distance from the root destination
 - If current_distance_to_Y > d + cost of link to Z:
 - update current_distance_to_Y = d + cost of link to Z
 - update next_hop_to_destination = Z
- If root changed OR shortest distance to the root destination changed, send all neighbors updated message (Y, current_distance_to_Y, X)

Lets run the Protocol on this example (with next-hops)





	Receive	Send	Next-hops
1		(1, 0, 1)	[-]
2		(2, 0, 2)	[-]
3		(3, 0, 3)	[-]



	Receive	Send	Next-hops
1 (1, 0, 1)	(2, 0, 2), (3, 0, 3)	(2, 2, 1), (3, 1, 1)	[-, 2, 3]
2 (2, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 1), (3, 0, 3)	(1, 2, 2), (3, 7, 2)	[1, -, 3]
3 (3, 0, 3)	(1, 0, 1), (2, 0, 2)	(1, 1, 3), (2, 7, 3)	[1, 2, -]

 $2 \qquad 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 7 \qquad 3$

	Receive	Send	Next-hops
1 (1, 0, 1) (2, 2, 1), (3, 1, 1)	(1, 2, 2), (3, 7, 2), (1, 1, 3), (2, 7, 3)		[-, 2, 3]
2 (1, 2, 2), (2, 0, 2), (3, 7, 2)	(2, 2, 1), (3, 1, 1), (1, 1, 3), (2, 7, 3)	(3, 3, 2)	[1, -, 1]
3 (1, 1, 3), (2, 7, 3), (3, 0, 3)	(2, 2, 1), (3, 1, 1), (1, 2, 2), (3, 7, 2)	(2, 3, 3)	[1, 1 , -]

 $2 \qquad 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \\ 7 \qquad 3$

	Receive	Send	Next-hops
1 (1, 0, 1) (2, 2, 1), (3, 1, 1)	(3, 3, 2), (2, 3, 3)		[-, 2, 3]
2 (1, 2, 2), (2, 0, 2), (3, 3, 2)	(2, 3, 3)		[1, -, 1]
3 (1, 1, 3), (2, 3, 3), (3, 0, 3)	(3, 3, 2)		[1, 1, -]

Why not Spanning Tree Protocol? Why Distance "Vector"?

- The same algorithm applies to all destinations
- Each node announces distance to **each** dest
 - I am distance d_A away from node A
 - I am distance d_B away from node B
 - I am distance d_C away from node C

• ...

• Nodes are exchanging a **vector** of distances

Distance Vector Protocol

- Messages (Y,d,X): For root Y; From node X; advertising a distance d to Y
- Initially each switch X initializes its routing table to (X,0,-) and distance infinity to all other destinations
- Switches announce their entire distance vectors (routing table w/0 next hops)
- Upon receiving a routing table from a node (say Z), each node X does:
 - For each destination Y in the announcement (distance(Y, Z) = d):
 - If current_distance_to_Y > d + cost of link to Z:
 - update current_distance_to_Y = d + cost of link to Z
 - update next_hop_to_destination = Z
- If shortest distance to any destination changed, send all neighbors your distance vectors

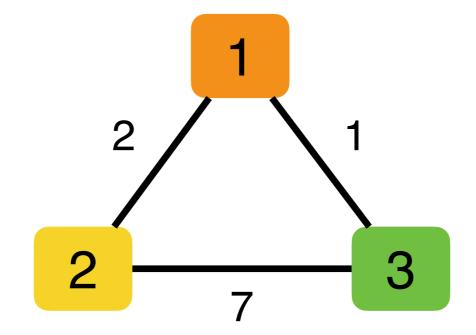
Two Aspects to This Approach

- Protocol:
 - Exchanging that routing information with neighbors
 - What and when for exchanges
 - RIP is a protocol that implements DV (IETF RFC 2080)
- Algorithm:
 - How to use the information from your neighbors to update your own routing tables?

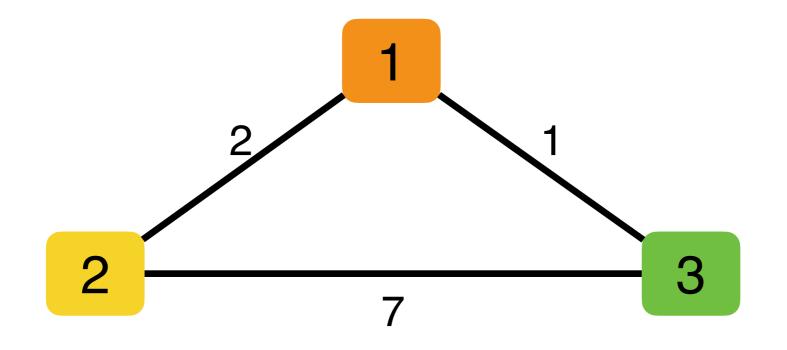


Lets run the Protocol again on this example

(this time with distance vectors)



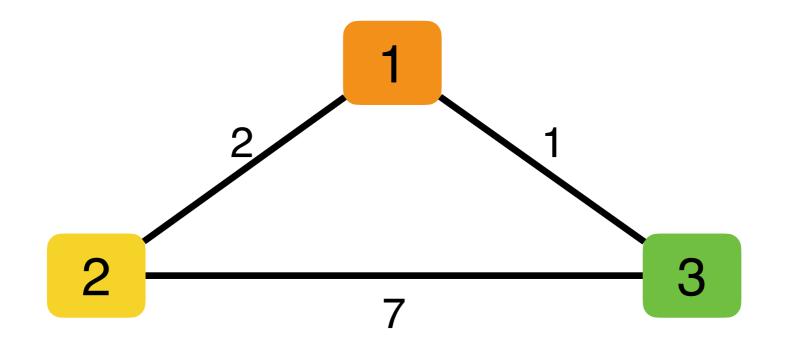
	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	infinity	
3	infinity	



	distance	next-hop
1	infinity	
2	0	-
3	infinity	

	distance	next-hop
1	infinity	
2	infinity	
3	0	-

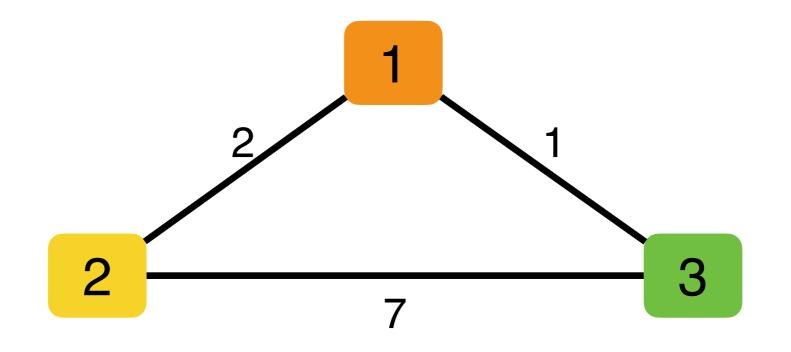
	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	2	2
3	1	3



	distance	next-hop
1	2	1
2	0	-
3	7	3

	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	7	2
3	0	-

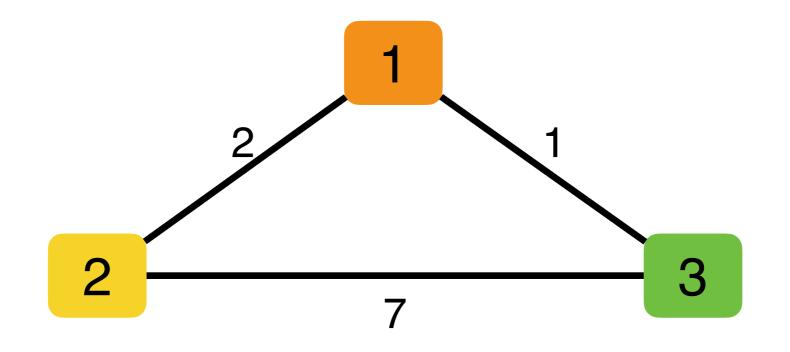
	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	2	2
3	1	3



	distance	next-hop
1	2	1
2	0	-
3	3	1

	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	3	1
3	0	-

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	2	2
3	1	3



	distance	next-hop
1	2	1
2	0	-
3	3	1

	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	3	1
3	0	-

From Algorithm to Protocol

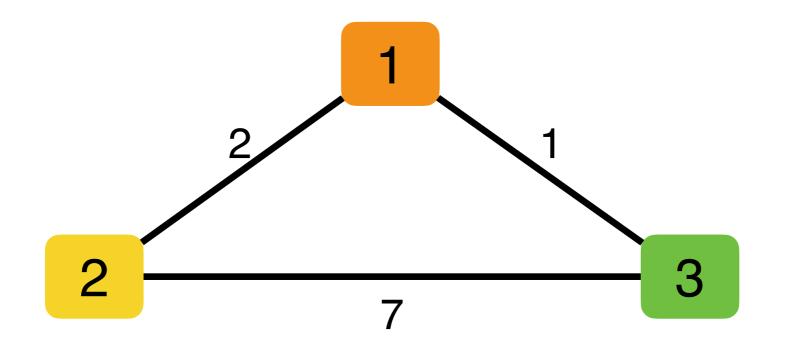
- Algorithm:
 - Nodes use Bellman-Ford to compute distances
- Protocol
 - Nodes exchange distance vectors
 - Update their own routing tables
 - And exchange again...
 - Details: when to exchange, what to exchange, etc....

Other Aspects of Protocol

- When do you send messages?
 - When any of the distance changes
 - What about when the cost of a link changes?
 - Periodically, to ensure consistency between neighbors
- What information do you send?
 - Could send entire vector
 - Or just updated entries
- Do you send everyone the same information
 - Consider the following slides

Three node network

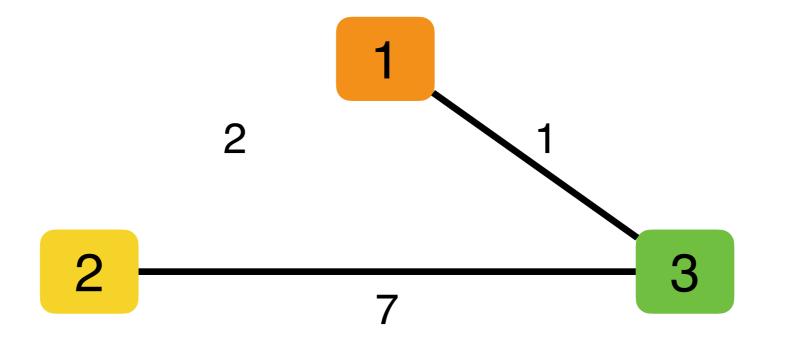
	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	2	2
3	1	3



	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	3	1
3	0	-

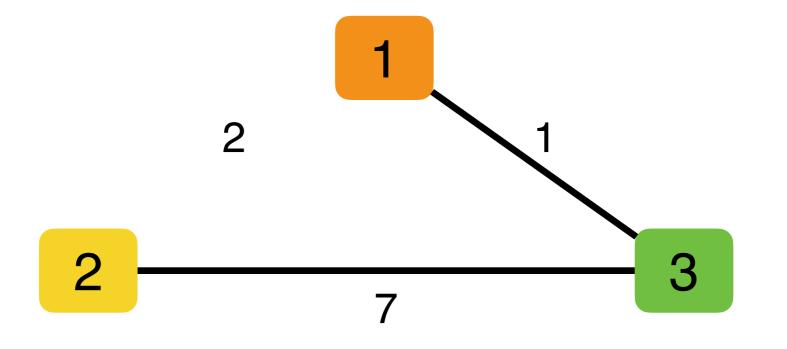
Three node network

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	infinity	
3	1	3



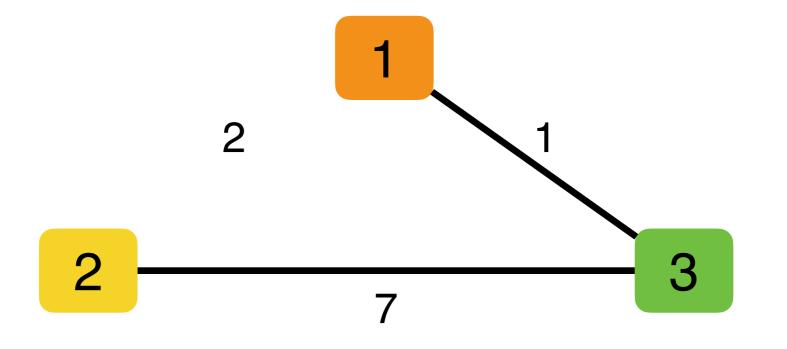
	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	3	1
3	0	-

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	4	3
3	1	3



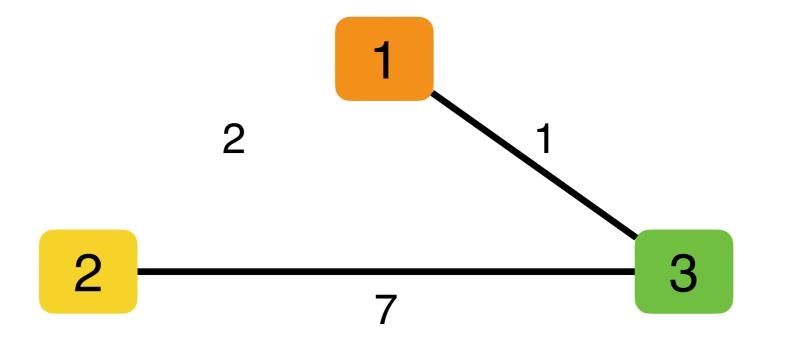
	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	3	1
3	0	-

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	4	3
3	1	3



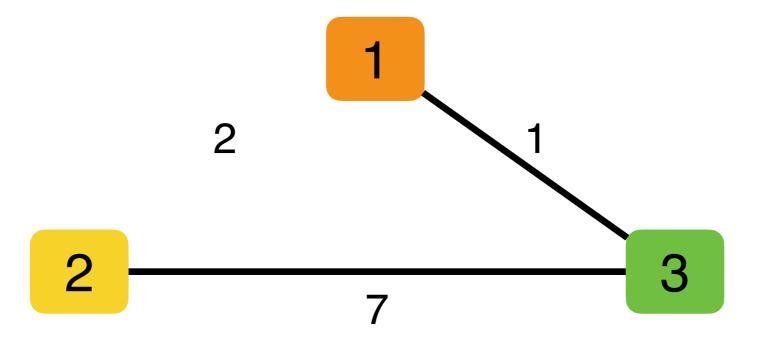
	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	5	1
3	0	-

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	6	3
3	1	3



	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	5	1
3	0	-

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	6	3
3	1	3

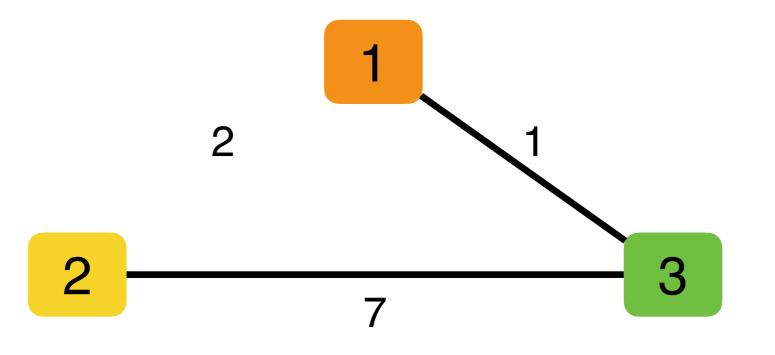


COUNT-TO-INFINITY problem!!!!

	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	7	1
3	0	-

Count-to-infinity problem

	distance	next-hop
1	0	-
2	6	3
3	1	3



Not just due to failures: Can happen with changes in cost!

	distance	next-hop
1	1	1
2	7	1
3	0	-

How Can You Fix This?

- Do not advertise a path back to the node that is the next hop on the path
 - Called "split horizon"
 - Telling them about your entry going through them
 - Doesn't tell them anything new
 - Perhaps misleads them that you have an independent path
- Another solution: if you are using a next-hop's path, then:
 - Tell them not to use your path (by telling them cost of infinity)
 - Called "poisoned reverse"

Convergence

- Distance vector protocols can converge slowly
 - While these corner cases are rare
 - The resulting convergence delays can be significant

Comparison of Scalability

- Link-State:
 - Global flood: each router's link-state (#ports)
 - Send it once per link event, or periodically
- Distance Vector:
 - Send longer vector (#dest) just to neighbors
 - But might end up triggering their updates
 - Send it every time DV changes (which can be often)
- Tradeoff:
 - LS: Send it everywhere and be done in predictable time
 - DV: Send locally, and perhaps iterate until convergence

End of Distance-vector Routing

Internet Addressing

Addressing so far

- Each node has a "name"
 - We have so far worked only with names
 - Assumed that forwarding/routing etc. done on names
- Today:
 - Why do we need addresses?
 - Why do we assign addresses the way we assign addresses?

Three requirements for addressing

- Scalable routing
 - How must state must be stored to forward packets?
 - How much state needs to be updated upon host arrival/departure?
- Efficient forwarding
 - How quickly can one locate items in routing table?
- Host must be able to recognize packet is for them

Layer 2 (link layer): "Flat" Addressing

- Uses MAC address
 - "Names", remember? Used as identifier
- Unique identifiers hardcoded in the hardware
 - No location information
- Local area networks route on these "flat" addresses
 - Spanning Tree Protocol runs on switches and hosts
 - Each switch stores a separate routing entry for each host
 - End-hosts store nothing
- Upon receiving a packet, an end-host:
 - Puts destination's and its own MAC address in the header
 - Forwards it to the switch it is connected to
- Destination is able to recognize the packet is for them using address

How does this meet our requirements?

- Scalable routing
 - How much state to forward packets?
 - One entry per host per switch
 - How much state updated for each arrival/departure?
 - One entry per host per switch
- Efficient forwarding
 - Exact match lookup on MAC addresses (exact match is easy!)
- Host must be able to recognize the packet is for them
 - MAC address does this perfectly

Conclusion: L2 addressing does not enable scalable routing

How would you scale L2?

- Suppose we want to design a much larger L2 network
- Must use MAC address as part of the address
 - Only way host knows that the packet is for them
- But how would you enable scalable routing?
 - Small #routing entries (less than one entry per host per switch)
 - Small #updates (less than one update per switch per host change)

One possible Solution: Towards Internet-scale addressing

- Assign each end-host an addresses of the form Switch:MAC
- Spanning Tree Protocol runs only on switches
 - So, each switch has one entry per switch (rather than per host)
- Upon receiving a packet, an end-host:
 - Puts destination's and its own Switch:MAC address in the header
 - Forwards it to the switch it is connected to
- Switches forward the packet using first part of the address
- Destination is able to recognize the packet is for them using second part of the address

Layer 3: Hierarchical addressing

- Routing tables cannot have entry for each switch in the Internet
- Use addresses of the form Network:Host
- Routers know how to reach all networks in the world
 - Routing algorithms only announce "Network" part of the addresses
 - Routing tables now store a next-hop for each "network"
- Forwarding:
 - Routers ignore host part of the address
 - When the packet reaches the right network
 - Packet forwarded using Host part of the address
 - Using Layer 2
- This was the original IP addressing scheme

What do I mean by "network"

- In the original IP addressing scheme ...
 - Network meant an L2 network
 - Often referred to as a "subnet"
 - There are too many of them now to scale

Aggregation

- Aggregation: single forwarding entry used for many individual hosts
- Example:
 - In our scalable L2 solution: aggregate was switch
 - In our scalable L3 solution: aggregate was network
- Advantages:
 - Fewer entries and more stable
 - Change of hosts do not change tables
 - Don't need to keep state on individual hosts

Hierarchical Structure

- The Internet is an "inter-network"
 - Used to connect networks together, not hosts
- Forms a natural two-way hierarchy
 - Wide Area Network (WAN) delivers to the right "network"
 - Local Area Network (LAN) delivers to the right host

Hierarchical Addressing

- Can you think of an example?
- Addressing in the US mail
 - Country
 - City, Zip code
 - Street
 - House Number
 - Occupant "Name"

???	

IP addresses

- Unique 32 bit numbers associated with a host
- Use dotted-quad notation, e.g., 128.84.139.5

Country	City, State	Street, Number	Occupant
(8 bits)	(8 bits)	(8 bits)	(8 bits)
1000000	0-1010100	10001011	00000-101
128	84	139	5
Network	Host		

Original Addressing mechanism

- First eight bits: network address (/8)
 - Slash notation indicates network address
- Last 24 bits: host address
- Assumed 256 networks were more than enough!!!
 - Now we have millions!

Suppose we want to accommodate more networks

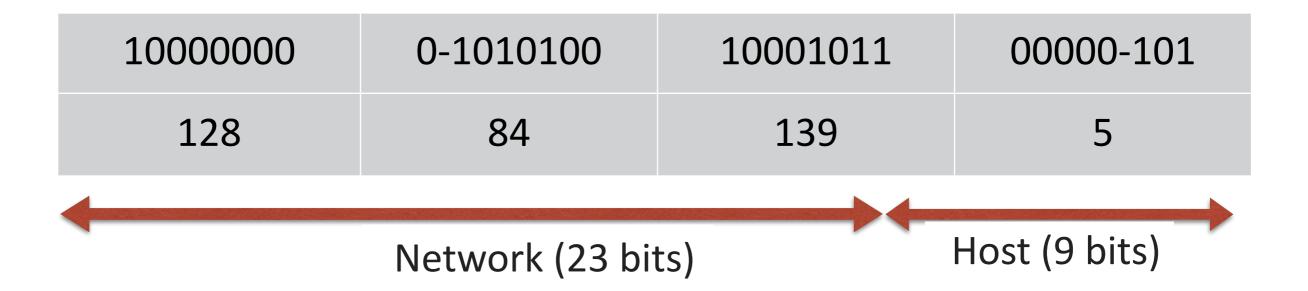
- We can allocate more bits to network address
- Problem?
 - Fewer bits for host names
 - What if some networks need more hosts?

Today's Addressing: CIDR

- Classless Inter-domain Routing
- Idea: Flexible division between network and host addresses
- Prefix is **network address**
- Suffix is host address
- Example:
 - 128.84.139.5/23 is a 23 bit prefix with:
 - First 23 bits for network address
 - Next 9 bits for host addresses: maximum 2^9 hosts
- Terminology: "Slash 23"

Example for CIDR Addressing

• 128.84.139.5/23 is a 23 bit prefix with 2^9 host addresses



Allocating addresses

- Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN) ...
- Allocates large blocks of addresses to Regional Internet Registries
 - E.g., American Registry for Internet Names (ARIN) ...
- That allocates blocks of addresses to Large Internet Service Providers (ISP)
- That allocate addresses to individuals and smaller institutions
- Fake example:
 - ICANN -> ARIN -> AT&T -> Cornell -> CS -> Me

Allocating addresses: Fake example

- ICANN gives ARIN several /8s
- ARIN given AT&T one /8, 128.0/8
 - Network prefix: 1000000
- AT&T gives Cornell one /16, 128.84/16
 - Network prefix: 1000000 01010100
- Cornell gives CS one /24, **128.84.139/24**
 - Network prefix: 1000000 01010100 10001011
- CS given me a specific address **128.84.139.5**
 - Network prefix: 1000000 01010100 10001011 00000101

How does this meet our requirements?

- To understand this, we need to understand the routing on the Internet
- And to understand that, we need to understand the Internet

More next lecture!