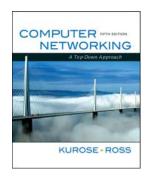
Chapter 4 Network Layer



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Network Layer 4-1

Chapter 4: Network Layer

Chapter goals:

- understand principles behind network layer services:
 - network layer service models
 - forwarding versus routing
 - how a router works
 - routing (path selection)
 - broadcast, multicast
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet

Chapter 4: Network Layer

4. 1 Introduction

- 4.2 Virtual circuit and datagram networks
- 4.3 What's inside a router
- 4.4 IP: Internet Protocol
 - Datagram format
 - IPv4 addressing
 - ICMP
 - IPv6

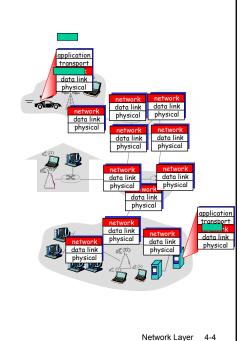
4.5 Routing algorithms

- Link state
- Distance Vector
- Hierarchical routing
- 4.6 Routing in the Internet
 - RIP
 - OSPF
 - BGP
- 4.7 Broadcast and multicast routing

Network Layer 4-3

Network layer

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
- on sending side encapsulates segments into datagrams
- on rcving side, delivers segments to transport layer
- network layer protocols in every host, router
- * router examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it



Two Key Network-Layer Functions

- forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- routing: determine route taken by packets from source to dest.
 - routing algorithms

analogy:

- routing: process of planning trip from source to dest
- forwarding: process of getting through single interchange

Network Layer 4-5

Interplay between routing and forwarding

routing algorithm

local forwarding table
header value output link

0100 3
0101 2
0111 2
1001 1

value in arriving
packet's header

Network Layer 4-6

Connection setup

- 3rd important function in some network architectures:
 - ATM, frame relay, X.25
- before datagrams flow, two end hosts and intervening routers establish virtual connection
 - routers get involved
- network vs transport layer connection service:
 - network: between two hosts (may also involve intervening routers in case of VCs)
 - transport: between two processes

Network Layer 4-7

Network service model

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

<u>example services for</u> individual datagrams:

- guaranteed delivery
- guaranteed delivery with less than 40 msec delay

<u>example services for a</u> <u>flow of datagrams:</u>

- in-order datagram delivery
- guaranteed minimum bandwidth to flow
- restrictions on changes in interpacket spacing

Network layer service models:

	Network rchitecture	Service Model	Guarantees ?				Congestion
Ar			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

Network Layer 4-9

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RIP

- OSPF
- BGP
- 4.7 Broadcast and multicast routing

Network layer connection and connection-less service

- datagram network provides network-layer connectionless service
- VC network provides network-layer connection service
- analogous to the transport-layer services, but:
 - service: host-to-host
 - no choice: network provides one or the other
 - implementation: in network core

Network Layer 4-11

Virtual circuits

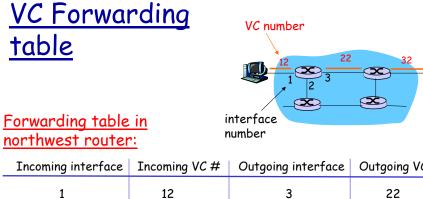
- "source-to-dest path behaves much like telephone circuit"
 - performance-wise
 - network actions along source-to-dest path
- call setup, teardown for each call before data can flow
- each packet carries VC identifier (not destination host address)
- every router on source-dest path maintains "state" for each passing connection
- link, router resources (bandwidth, buffers) may be allocated to VC (dedicated resources = predictable service)

VC implementation

a VC consists of:

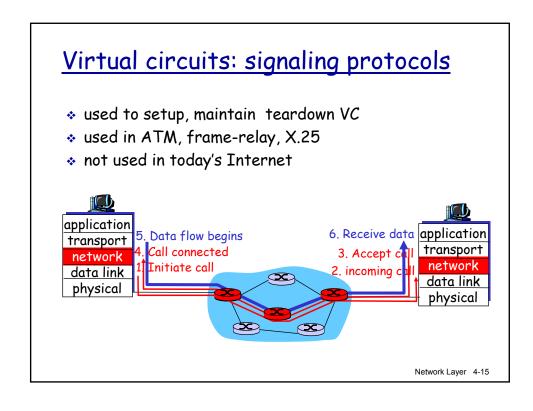
- 1. path from source to destination
- 2. VC numbers, one number for each link along path
- 3. entries in forwarding tables in routers along path
- packet belonging to VC carries VC number (rather than dest address)
- VC number can be changed on each link.
 - New VC number comes from forwarding table

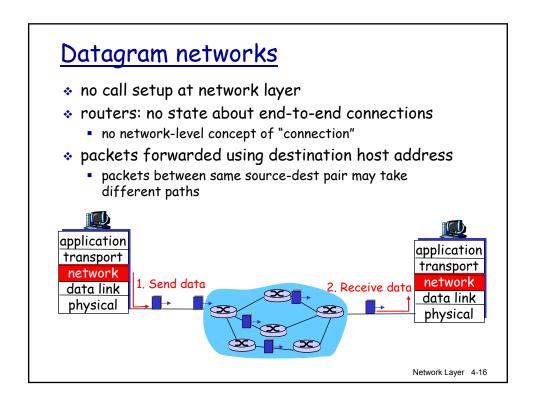
Network Layer 4-13

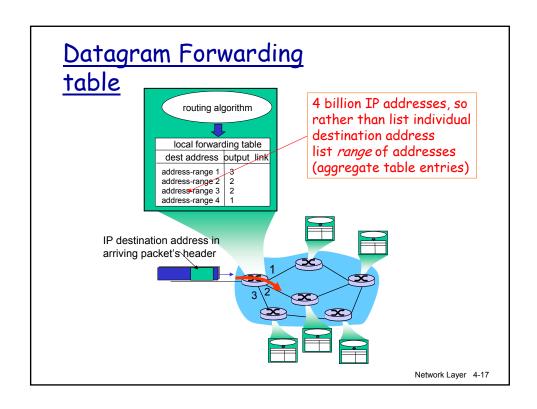


Incoming interface	Incoming VC #	Outgoing interface	Outgoing VC #
1 2	12 63	3 1	22 18
3	7	2	17
1	97	3	87

Routers maintain connection state information!







Datagram Forwarding table

Destination Address Range			Link Interface	
11001000 through	00010111	00010000	0000000	0
_	00010111	00010111	11111111	U
	00010111	00011000	0000000	_
through 11001000	00010111	00011000	11111111	1
	00010111	00011001	0000000	
through 11001000	00010111	00011111	11111111	2
otherwise				3

Q: but what happens if ranges don't divide up so nicely?

Longest prefix matching

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 0001<mark>0110 10100001</mark>
DA: 11001000 00010111 0001<mark>1000 10101010</mark>

Which interface? Which interface?

Network Layer 4-19

Datagram or VC network: why?

Internet (datagram)

- 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 (VC)

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

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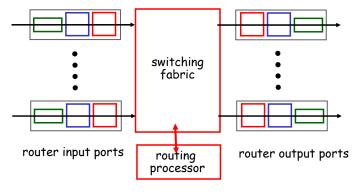
- RIP
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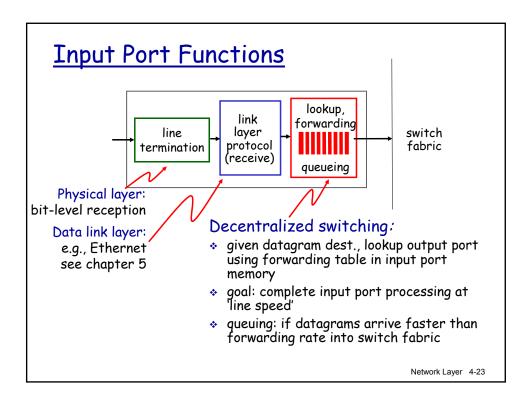
Network Layer 4-21

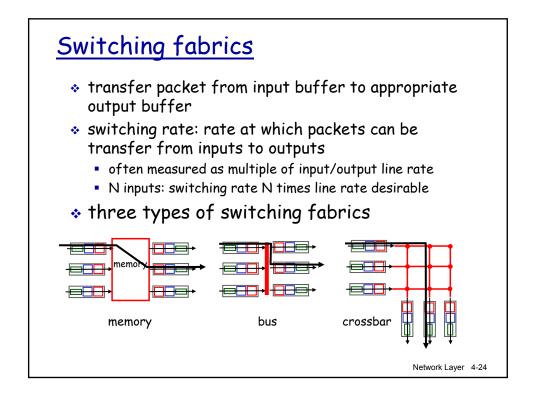
Router Architecture Overview

two key router functions:

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

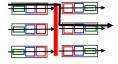






Switching Via Memory First generation routers: traditional computers with switching under direct control of CPU *packet copied to system's memory * speed limited by memory bandwidth (2 bus crossings per datagram) input output port port memory (e.g., (e.g., Ethernet) Ethernet) system bus Network Layer 4-25

Switching Via a Bus

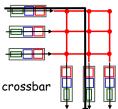


bus

- datagram from input port memory to output port memory via a shared bus
- bus contention: switching speed limited by bus bandwidth
- 32 Gbps bus, Cisco 5600: sufficient speed for access and enterprise routers

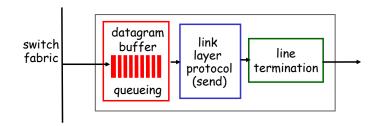
Switching Via An Interconnection Network

- * overcome bus bandwidth limitations
- Banyan networks, crossbar, 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 60 Gbps through the interconnection network



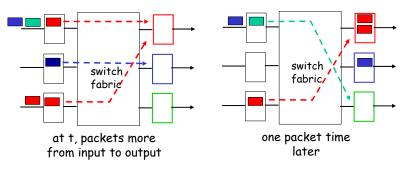
Network Layer 4-27

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!

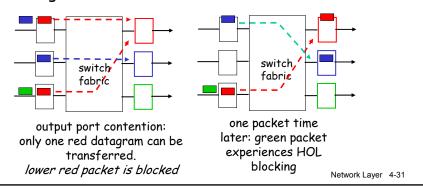
Network Layer 4-29

How much buffering?

- RFC 3439 rule of thumb: average buffering equal to "typical" RTT (say 250 msec) times link capacity C
 - e.g., C = 10 Gpbs link: 2.5 Gbit buffer
- * recent recommendation: with N flows, buffering equal to $RTT \cdot C$

Input Port Queuing

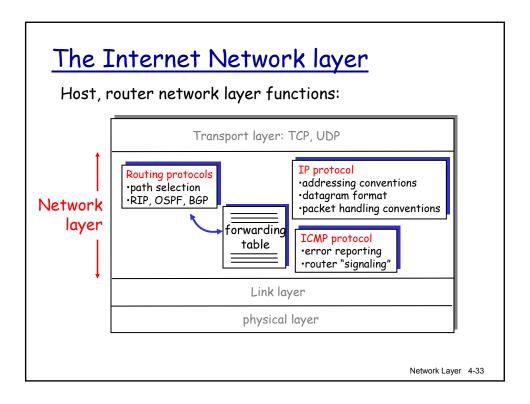
- fabric slower than input ports combined -> queueing may occur at input queues
 - queueing delay and loss due to input buffer overflow!
- Head-of-the-Line (HOL) blocking: queued datagram at front of queue prevents others in queue from moving forward



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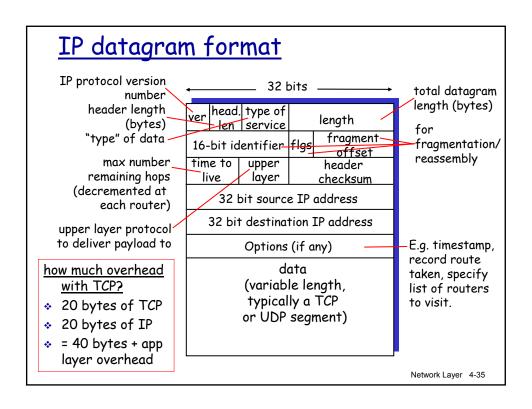
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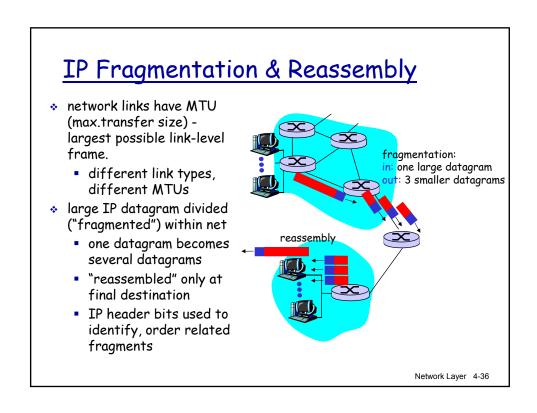


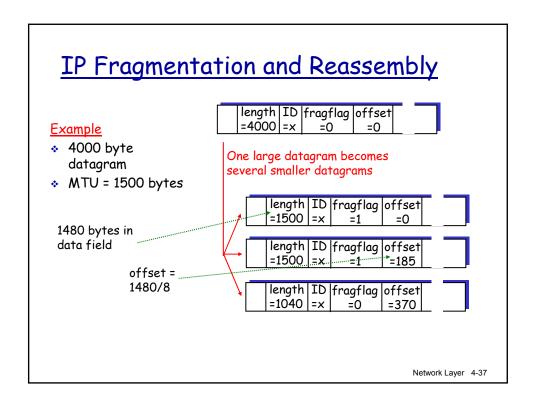
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IPv4 Addressing old days

- 32-bit address
- Theoretically, up to 4G address, practically much less than that because of the way the address is structured
- * 5 different classes

IPv	4 addressing old days
Class A	0 Prefix 7 Suffix
Class B	10 Prefix 14
Class C	110 Prefix 21
Class D	1110 Multicast address
Class E	1111 Reserved for future use
	Network Layer 4-40

IPv4 Addressing old days

- The prefix (together with the bits identifying the class) identifies the network
- The suffix identifies a node in the network
- Routing is performed on the network part only.
- Dotted decimal notation is used to represent the IP address
- ❖ For example 130.63.95.218 What class?

Network Layer 4-41

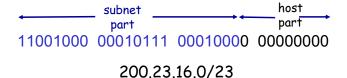
IPv4 Addressing old days

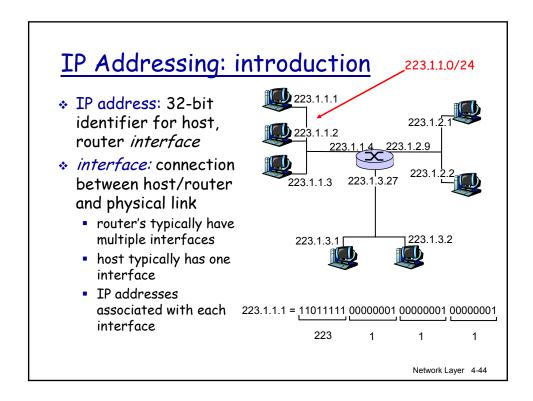
- A suffix of all zeros means network own address, so 132.187.0.0 means network 132.187, why?
- Suffix of all 1's means broadcast to this network.
- * Computer own address (all 0's) when the computer does not know its own address (when starting and does not know its own address)
- Loopback address 127.0.0.1

IP addressing: CIDR

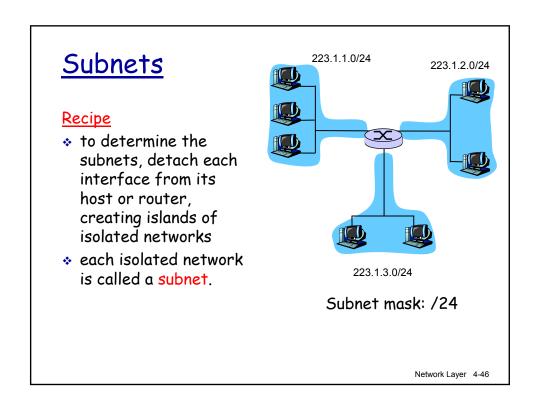
CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

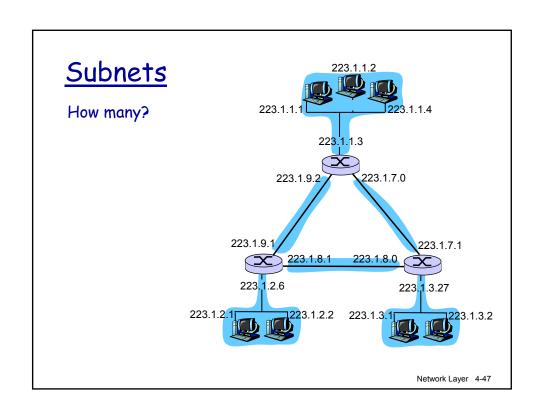
- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address

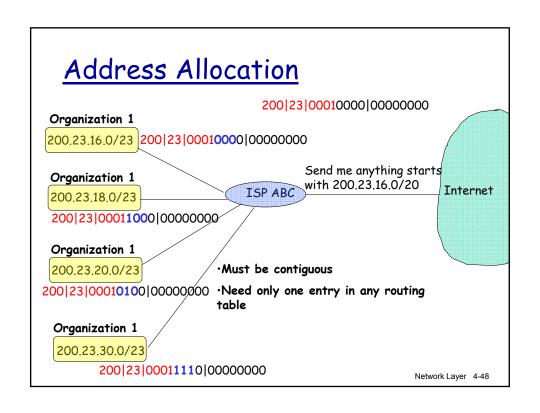




Subnets 223.1.1.1 IP address: subnet part (high order bits) host part (low order bits) 223.1.1.3 223.1.3.27 What's a subnet? subnet device interfaces with same subnet part of IP 223.1.3.2 223.1.3.1 address can physically reach each other without network consisting of 3 subnets intervening router







IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: How does a host get IP address?

- Once the organization obtained a chunk of addresses, they can configure it anyway they want
- Hard-coded by system admin in a file
 - Windows: control-panel->network->configuration->tcp/ip->properties
 - UNIX: /etc/rc.config
- * DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address from as server
 - "plug-and-play"

Network Layer 4-49

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

<u>Goal:</u> allow host to <u>dynamically</u> obtain its IP address from network server when it joins network

- Can renew its lease on address in use
- Especially mobile users come and go, not practical (or even possible) to hardwire (reserve) an IP address for each user.
- Allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected an "on")
- Support for mobile users who want to join network (more shortly)

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

DHCP overview [RFC2131]:

- DCHP is a client server protocol
- Ideally, each subnet has a server (or relays messages, by an HDCP agent or router, to the server).
- Host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg [optional]
- DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg [optional]
- Host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
- DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msq

Network Layer 4-51

DHCP details

- A host wants to join, sends a DHCP Discover message. It uses UDP, port 67. But to whom?
 - Sends to IP 255.255.255.255 (broadcast) and this host 0.0.0.0. as source address
- DHCP responds with DHCP offer msg containing the transaction ID, a proposed IP, network mask, and lease time. Then broadcasts it to 255.255.255.255. Client may receive more than one offer

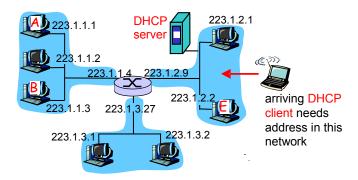
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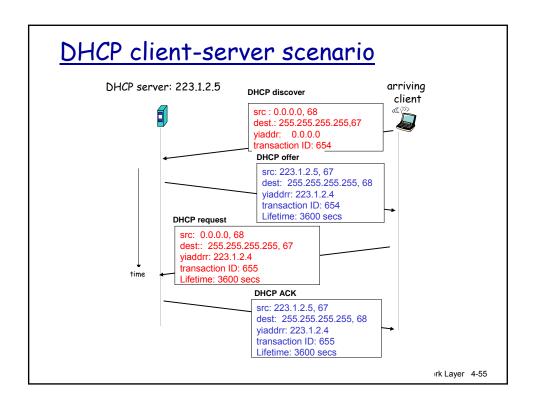
DHCP details

- The client chooses one offer, and sends DHCP request msg.
- * The server responds with DHCP ACK msg.
- Now the transaction is complete, and the client knows its IP, and network mask.

Network Layer 4-53

DHCP client-server scenario



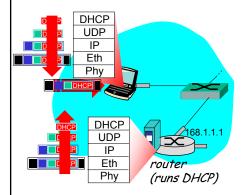


DHCP: more than IP address

DHCP can return more than just allocated IP address on subnet:

- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

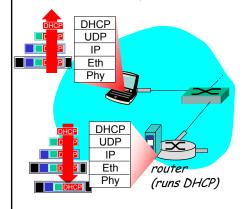
DHCP: example



- connecting laptop needs its IP address, addr of firsthop router, addr of DNS server: use DHCP
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.1 Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

Network Layer 4-57

DHCP: example



- DCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulation of DHCP server, frame forwarded to client, demuxing up to DHCP at client
- client now knows its IP address, name and IP address of DSN server, IP address of its first-hop router

DHCP: Wireshark output (home LAN)

Message type: Boot Request (1)
Hardware type: Ethernet
Hardware address length: 6
Hops: 0
Transaction ID: 0x6b3a11b7
Seconds elapsed: 0
Bootp flags: 0x0000 (Unicast)
Client IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Your (client) IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Next server IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Relay agent IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68:8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)
Server host name not given
Boot file name not given
Boot file name not given
Magic cookie: (OK)
Option: (t=53,|=1) DHCP Message Type = DHCP Request
Option: (61) Client identifier
Length: 7; Value: 010016D323688A;
Hardware type: Ethernet
Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68:8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)
Option: (t=50,|=4) Requested IP Address = 192.168.1.101
Option: (55) Parameter Request List
Length: 11; Value: 010F03062C2E2F1F21F92B

1 = Subnet Mask; 15 = Domain Name

44 = NetBIOS over TCP/IP Name Server

```
Message type: Boot Reply (2)
Hardware type: Ethermet
Hardware address length: 6
Hops: 0
Transaction ID: 0x6b3a11b7
Seconds elapsed: 0
Bootp flags: 0x0000 (Unicast)
Client IP address: 192.168.1.101 (192.168.1.101)
Your (client) IP address: 192.168.1.101 (192.168.1.1)
Relay agent IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Next server IP address: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Client MAC address: Wistron_23:68.8a (00:16:d3:23:68:8a)
Server host name not given
Boot file name not given
Magic cookie: (OK)
Option: (t=54,I=4) Server Identifier = 192.168.1.1
Option: (t=54,I=4) Subnet Mask = 255.255.255.0
Option: (t=51,I=4) Router = 192.168.1.1
Option: (6) Domain Name Server
Length: 12; Value: 445747E2445749F244574092;
IP Address: 68.87.73.242;
IP Address: 68.87.73.242;
IP Address: 68.87.64.146
Option: (t=15,I=20) Domain Name = "hsd1.ma.comcast.net."
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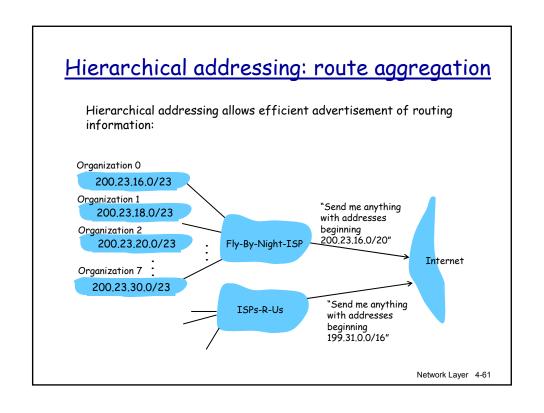
Network Layer 4-59

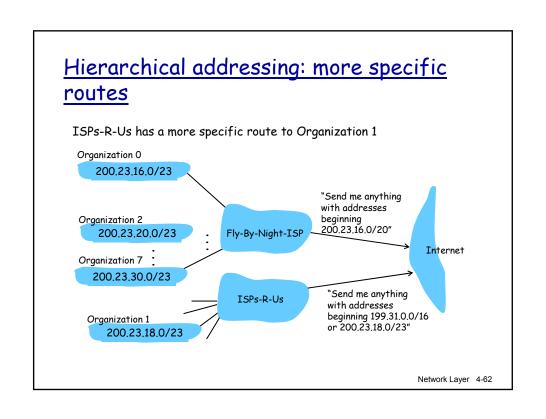
IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: How does *network* get subnet part of IP addr?

<u>A:</u> gets allocated portion of its provider ISP's address space

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



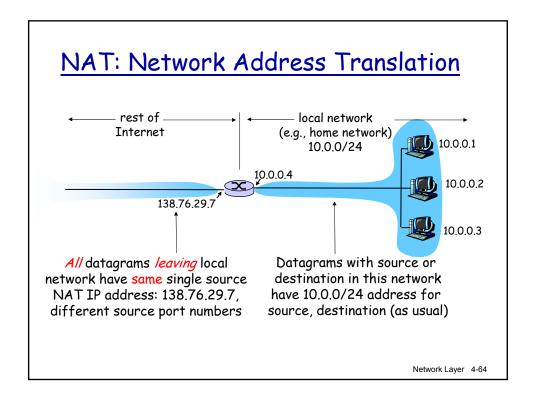


IP addressing: the last word...

Q: How does an ISP get block of addresses?

A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers

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



NAT: Network Address Translation

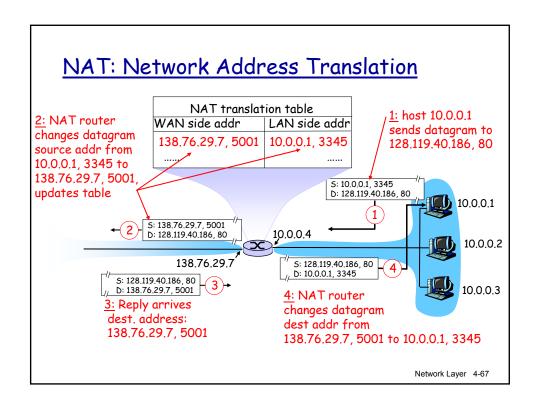
- Motivation: local network uses just one IP address as far as outside world is concerned:
 - range of addresses not needed from ISP: just one IP address for all devices
 - can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
 - can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
 - devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus).

Network Layer 4-65

NAT: Network Address Translation

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

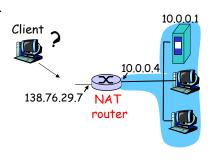


NAT: Network Address Translation

- ❖ 16-bit port-number field:
 - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
 - 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 IPv6

NAT traversal problem

- client wants to connect to server with address 10.0.0.1
 - server address 10.0.0.1 local to LAN (client can't use it as destination addr)
 - only one externally visible NATed address: 138.76.29.7
- solution 1: statically configure NAT to forward incoming connection requests at given port to server
 - e.g., (123.76.29.7, port 2500) always forwarded to 10.0.0.1 port 25000

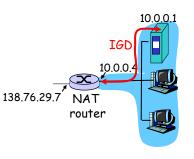


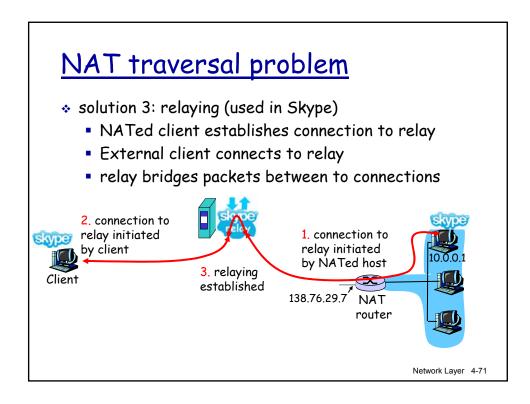
Network Layer 4-69

NAT traversal problem

- solution 2: Universal Plug and Play (UPnP) Internet Gateway Device (IGD) Protocol. Allows NATed host to:
 - learn public IP address (138.76.29.7)
 - add/remove port mappings (with lease times)

i.e., automate static NAT port map configuration





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ICMP: Internet Control Message Protocol

- used by hosts & routers to communicate network-level information
 - error reporting: unreachable host, network, port, protocol
 - echo request/reply (used by ping)
- network-layer "above" IP:
 - ICMP msgs carried in IP datagrams
- ICMP message: type, code plus first 8 bytes of IP datagram causing error

Type	Code	<u>description</u>
0	0	echo reply (ping)
3	0	dest. network unreachable
3	1	dest host unreachable
3	2	dest protocol unreachable
3	3	dest port unreachable
3	6	dest network unknown
3	7	dest host unknown
4	0	source quench (congestion
		control - not used)
8	0	echo request (ping)
9	0	route advertisement
10	0	router discovery
11	0	TTL expired
12	0	bad IP header

Network Layer 4-73

Traceroute and ICMP

- Source sends series of UDP segments to dest
 - first has TTL =1
 - second has TTL=2, etc.
 - unlikely port number
- When nth datagram arrives to nth router:
 - router discards datagram
 - and sends to source an ICMP message (type 11, code 0)
 - ICMP message includes name of router & IP address

- when ICMP message arrives, source calculates RTT
- traceroute does this 3 times

Stopping criterion

- UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- destination returns ICMP "port unreachable" packet (type 3, code 3)
- when source gets this ICMP, stops.

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Network Layer 4-75

IPv6

- Initial motivation: 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- Additional motivation:
 - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
 - header changes to facilitate QoS

IPv6 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

von	nni		flam laba	ı		
ver	er pri flow label					
payload le		llen	next hdr	hop limit		
	source address (128 bits)					
destination address (128 bits)						
	data					
32 bits —						

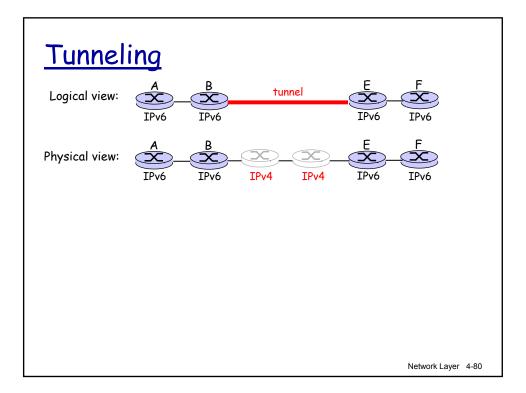
Network Layer 4-77

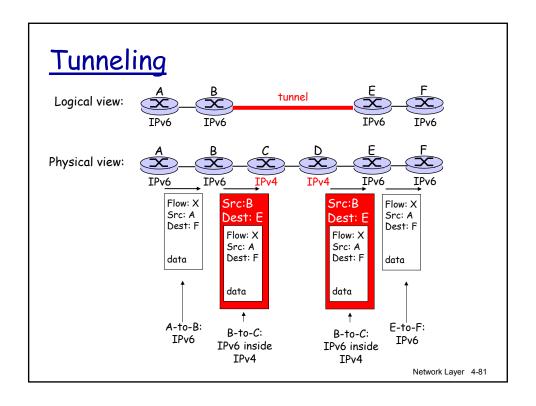
Other Changes from IPv4

- Checksum: removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- Options: allowed, but outside of header, indicated by "Next Header" field
- * ICMPv6: new version of ICMP
 - additional message types, e.g. "Packet Too Big"
 - multicast group management functions

Transition From IPv4 To IPv6

- Not all routers can be upgraded simultaneous
 - no "flag days"
 - How will the network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- Tunneling: IPv6 carried as payload in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers





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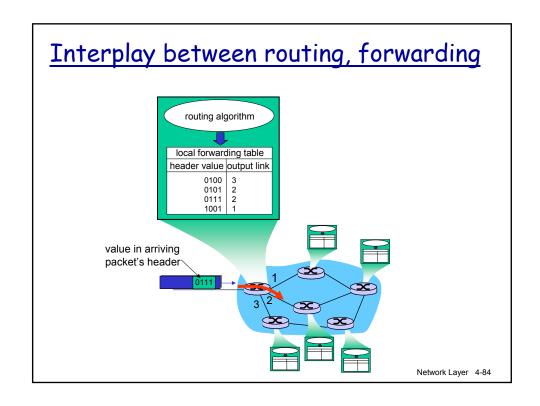
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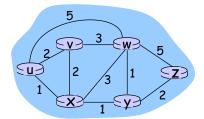
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Graph abstraction



Graph: G = (N,E)

 $N = set of routers = \{ u, v, w, x, y, z \}$

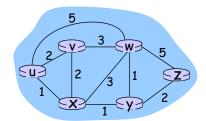
 $E = \text{set of links} = \{ (u,v), (u,x), (v,x), (v,w), (x,w), (x,y), (w,y), (w,z), (y,z) \}$

Remark: Graph abstraction is useful in other network contexts

Example: P2P, where N is set of peers and E is set of TCP connections

Network Layer 4-85

Graph abstraction: costs



- c(x,x') = cost of link(x,x')
 - e.g., c(w,z) = 5
- cost could always be 1, or inversely related to bandwidth, or inversely related to congestion

Cost of path
$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_p) = c(x_1, x_2) + c(x_2, x_3) + ... + c(x_{p-1}, x_p)$$

Question: What's the least-cost path between u and z?

Routing algorithm: algorithm that finds least-cost path

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

Network Layer 4-87

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

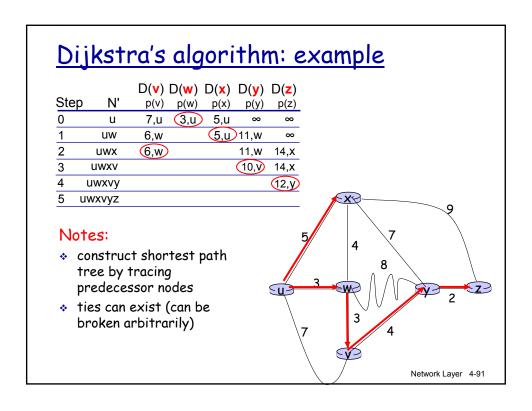
Notation:

- C(X,y): link cost from node x to y; = ∞ 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
- N': set of nodes whose least cost path definitively known

Network Layer 4-89

Dijsktra's Algorithm

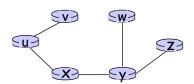
```
1 Initialization:
2 N' = \{u\}
3 for all nodes v
4
     if v adjacent to u
5
       then D(v) = c(u,v)
6
     else D(v) = \infty
8 Loop
9
    find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
10 add w to N'
11 update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N':
       D(v) = \min(D(v), D(w) + c(w,v))
13 /* 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'
```



Dijkstra's algorithm: another example Step N' D(v),p(v) D(w),p(w)D(x),p(x)D(y),p(y)0 u 2,u 5,u 1,u ∞ 2,u 4,x 2,x ux • 4,y 2,u 3,y uxy• 4,y 3 3,y uxyv 4 4,y 4 uxyvw • uxyvwz • Network Layer 4-92

Dijkstra's algorithm: example (2)

Resulting shortest-path tree from u:



Resulting forwarding table in u:

destination	link
٧	(u,v)
X	(u,x)
У	(u,x)
w	(u,x)
Z	(u,x)

Network Layer 4-93

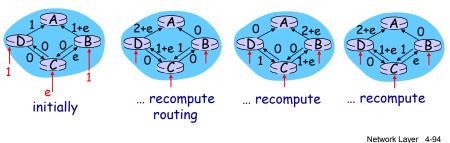
Dijkstra's algorithm, discussion

Algorithm complexity: n nodes

- * each iteration: need to check all nodes, w, not in N
- \bullet 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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Network Layer 4-95

Distance Vector Algorithm

Bellman-Ford Equation (dynamic programming)

Define

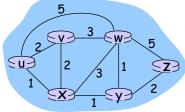
 $d_x(y) := cost of least-cost path from x to y$

Then

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

where min is taken over all neighbors v of x

Bellman-Ford example



Clearly,
$$d_v(z) = 5$$
, $d_x(z) = 3$, $d_w(z) = 3$

B-F equation says:

$$d_{u}(z) = \min \{ c(u,v) + d_{v}(z), c(u,x) + d_{x}(z), c(u,w) + d_{w}(z) \}$$

$$= \min \{ 2 + 5, 1 + 3, 5 + 3 \} = 4$$

Node that achieves minimum is next hop in shortest path forwarding table

Network Layer 4-97

Distance Vector Algorithm

- $D_{x}(y)$ = estimate of least cost from x to y
 - x maintains distance vector $\mathbf{D}_{x} = [\mathbf{D}_{x}(y): y \in \mathbf{N}]$
- * node x:
 - knows cost to each neighbor v: c(x,v)
 - maintains its neighbors' distance vectors.
 For each neighbor v, x maintains

 $\mathbf{D}_{\mathsf{v}} = [\mathsf{D}_{\mathsf{v}}(\mathsf{y}): \mathsf{y} \in \mathsf{N}]$

Distance vector algorithm (4)

Basic idea:

- 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:

$$D_x(y) \leftarrow \min_{x} \{c(x, v) + D_y(y)\}$$
 for each node $y \in N$

* under minor, natural conditions, the estimate $D_x(y)$ converge to the actual least cost $d_x(y)$

Network Layer 4-99

<u>Distance Vector Algorithm (5)</u>

Iterative, asynchronous:

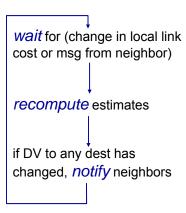
each local iteration caused by:

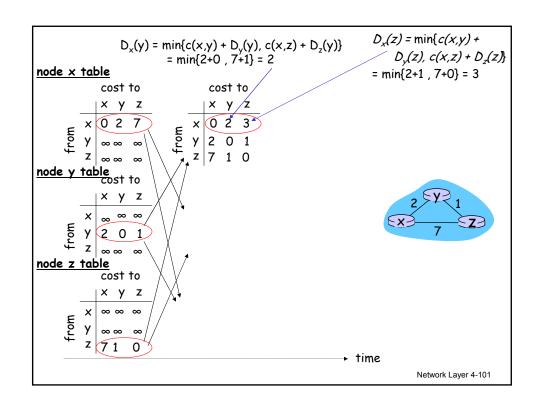
- local link cost change
- DV update message from neighbor

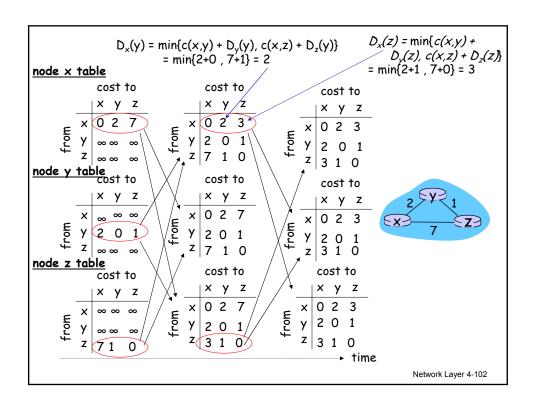
Distributed:

- each node notifies neighbors only when its DV changes
 - neighbors then notify their neighbors if necessary

Each node:



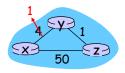




Distance Vector: link cost changes

Link cost changes:

- node detects local link cost change
- updates routing info, recalculates distance vector
- if DV changes, notify neighbors



"good news travels fast" t_o : y detects link-cost change, updates its DV, informs its neighbors.

 t_1 : z receives update from y, updates its table, computes new least cost to x, sends its neighbors its DV.

 t_2 : y receives Zs update, updates its distance table. Ys least costs do *not* change, so y does *not* send a message to z.

Network Layer 4-103

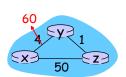
Distance Vector: link cost changes

Link cost changes:

- good news travels fast
- bad news travels slow -"count to infinity" problem!
- 44 iterations before algorithm stabilizes: see text

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?



Comparison of LS and DV algorithms

Message complexity

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

Speed of Convergence

- LS: O(n²) 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

DV:

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

Network Layer 4-105

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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

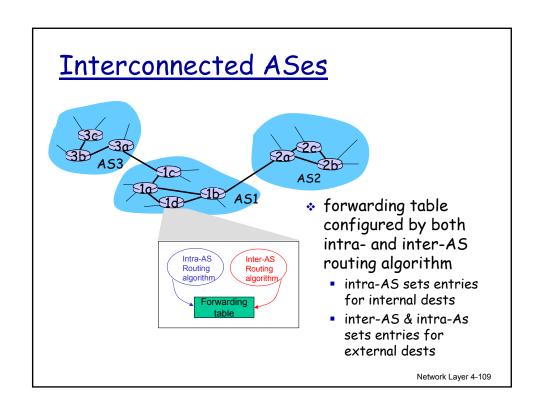
Network Layer 4-107

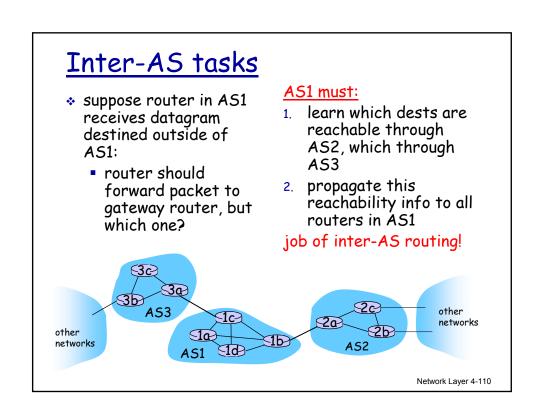
Hierarchical Routing

- 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 router

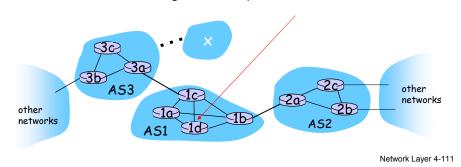
- * at "edge" of its own AS
- has link to router in another AS





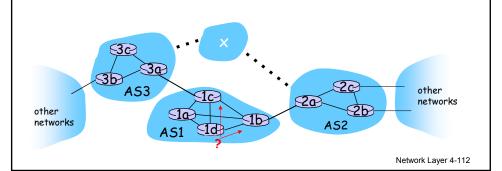
Example: Setting forwarding table in router 1d

- suppose AS1 learns (via inter-AS protocol) that subnet
 reachable via AS3 (gateway 1c) but not via AS2.
 - inter-AS protocol propagates reachability info to all internal routers
- * router 1d determines from intra-AS routing info that its interface I is on the least cost path to 1c.
 - installs forwarding table entry (x,I)



Example: Choosing among multiple ASes

- now suppose AS1 learns from inter-AS protocol that subnet x is reachable from AS3 and from AS2.
- to configure forwarding table, router 1d must determine which gateway it should forward packets towards for dest x
 - this is also job of inter-AS routing protocol!



Example: Choosing among multiple ASes

- now suppose AS1 learns from inter-AS protocol that subnet x is reachable from AS3 and from AS2.
- to configure forwarding table, router 1d must determine towards which gateway it should forward packets for dest x.
 - this is also job of inter-AS routing protocol!
- hot potato routing: send packet towards closest of two routers.

Learn from inter-AS protocol that subnet x is reachable via multiple gateways

Use routing info from intra-AS protocol to determine costs of least-cost paths to each of the gateways

Hot potato routing: Choose the gateway that has the smallest least cost Determine from forwarding table the interface I that leads to least-cost gateway. Enter (x,I) in forwarding table

Network Layer 4-113

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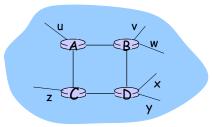
Intra-AS Routing

- also known as Interior Gateway Protocols (IGP)
- most common Intra-AS routing protocols:
 - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
 - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First
 - IGRP: Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (Cisco proprietary)

Network Layer 4-115

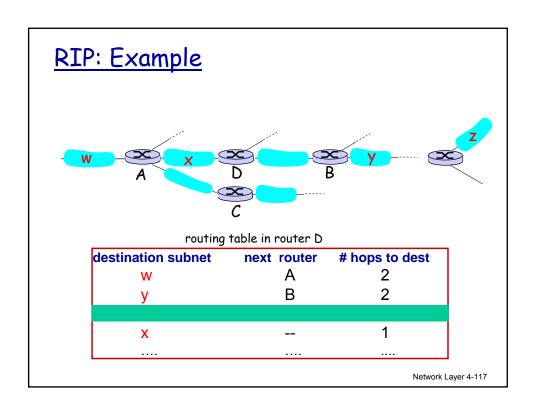
RIP (Routing Information Protocol)

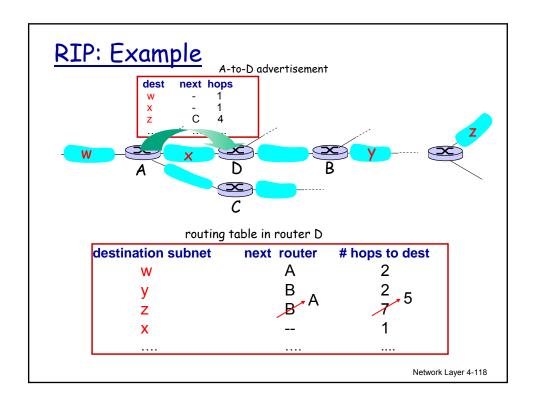
- included in BSD-UNIX distribution in 1982
- distance vector algorithm
 - distance metric: # hops (max = 15 hops), each link has cost 1
 - DVs exchanged with neighbors every 30 sec in response message (aka advertisement)
 - each advertisement: list of up to 25 destination subnets (in IP addressing sense)



from router A to destination subnets:

<u>subnet</u>	hop:
u	1
V	2
W	2
×	3
У	3
Z	2





RIP: Link Failure and Recovery

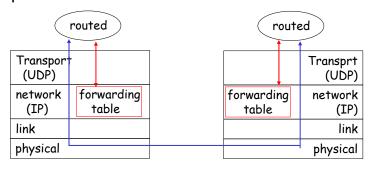
If no advertisement heard after 180 sec --> neighbor/link declared dead

- 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)

Network Layer 4-119

RIP Table processing

- RIP routing tables managed by application-level process called route-d (daemon)
- advertisements sent in UDP packets, periodically repeated



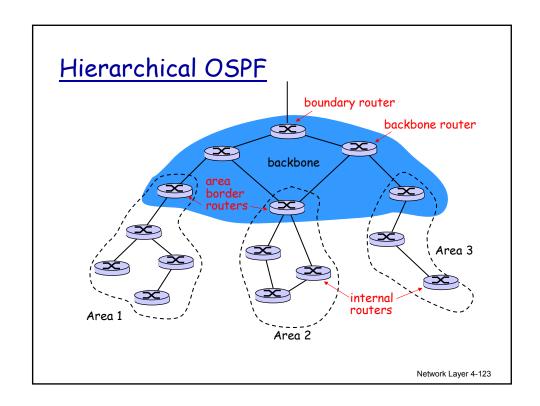
OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)

- "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

Network Layer 4-121

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



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.
- * <u>area border routers:</u> "summarize" distances to nets in own area, advertise to other Area Border routers.
- <u>backbone routers</u>: run OSPF routing limited to backbone.
- * boundary routers: connect to other AS's.

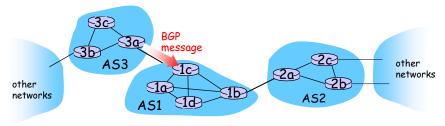
Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol): the de facto inter-domain routing protocol
 - "glue that holds the Internet together"
- BGP provides each AS a means to:
 - eBGP: obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring ASs.
 - iBGP: propagate reachability information to all ASinternal routers.
 - determine "good" routes to other networks based on reachability information and policy.
- allows subnet to advertise its existence to rest of Internet: "I am here"

Network Layer 4-125

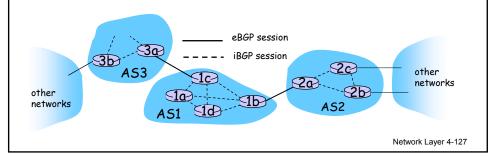
BGP basics

- * BGP session: two BGP routers ("peers") exchange BGP messages:
 - advertising paths to different destination network prefixes ("path vector" protocol)
 - exchanged over semi-permanent TCP connections
- when AS3 advertises a prefix to AS1:
 - AS3 promises it will forward datagrams towards that prefix
 - AS3 can aggregate prefixes in its advertisement



BGP basics: distributing path information

- using eBGP session between 3a and 1c, AS3 sends prefix reachability info to AS1.
 - 1c can then use iBGP do distribute new prefix info to all routers in AS1
 - 1b can then re-advertise new reachability info to AS2 over 1b-to-2a eBGP session
- when router learns of new prefix, it creates entry for prefix in its forwarding table.



Path attributes & BGP routes

- advertised prefix includes BGP attributes
 - prefix + attributes = "route"
- two important attributes:
 - AS-PATH: contains ASs through which prefix advertisement has passed: e.g., AS 67, AS 17
 - NEXT-HOP: indicates specific internal-AS router to next-hop AS. (may be multiple links from current AS to next-hop-AS)
- gateway router receiving route advertisement uses import policy to accept/decline
 - e.g., never route through AS x
 - policy-based routing

BGP route selection

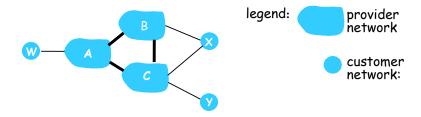
- router may learn about more than 1 route to destination AS, selects route based on:
 - local preference value attribute: policy decision
 - 2. shortest AS-PATH
 - 3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
 - 4. additional criteria

Network Layer 4-129

BGP messages

- BGP messages exchanged between peers over TCP connection
- BGP messages:
 - OPEN: opens TCP connection to peer and authenticates sender
 - UPDATE: advertises new path (or withdraws old)
 - KEEPALIVE: keeps connection alive in absence of UPDATES; also ACKS OPEN request
 - NOTIFICATION: reports errors in previous msg; also used to close connection

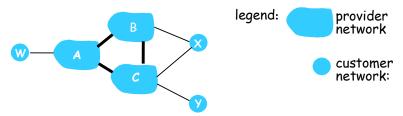
BGP routing policy



- * 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

Network Layer 4-131

BGP routing policy (2)



- * A advertises path AW to B
- ❖ B advertises path BAW to X
- Should B advertise path BAW to C?
 - 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!

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

Network Layer 4-133

Chapter 4: Network Layer

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Virtual circuit and datagram networks
- 4.3 What's inside a router
- 4.4 IP: Internet Protocol
 - Datagram format
 - IPv4 addressing
 - ICMP
 - IPv6

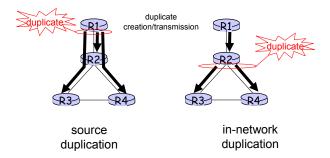
- 4.5 Routing algorithms
 - Link state
 - Distance Vector
 - Hierarchical routing
- 4.6 Routing in the

Internet

- RIP
- OSPF
- BGP
- 4.7 Broadcast and multicast routing

Broadcast Routing

- deliver packets from source to all other nodes
- source duplication is inefficient:



source duplication: how does source determine recipient addresses?

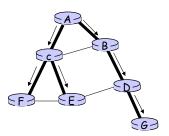
Network Layer 4-135

In-network duplication

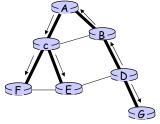
- flooding: when node receives broadcast packet, sends copy to all neighbors
 - problems: cycles & broadcast storm
- controlled flooding: node only broadcasts pkt if it hasn't broadcast same packet before
 - node keeps track of packet ids already broadacsted
 - or reverse path forwarding (RPF): only forward packet if it arrived on shortest path between node and source
- spanning tree
 - No redundant packets received by any node

Spanning Tree

- First construct a spanning tree
- Nodes forward copies only along spanning tree



(a) Broadcast initiated at A

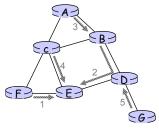


(b) Broadcast initiated at D

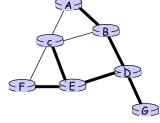
Network Layer 4-137

Spanning Tree: Creation

- center node
- each node sends unicast join message to center node
 - message forwarded until it arrives at a node already belonging to spanning tree



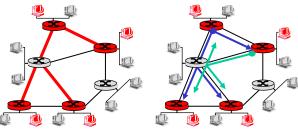
(a) Stepwise construction of spanning tree



(b) Constructed spanning tree

Multicast Routing: Problem Statement

- <u>Goal:</u> find a tree (or trees) connecting routers having local meast group members
 - tree: not all paths between routers used
 - <u>source-based</u>: different tree from each sender to rcvrs
 - shared-tree: same tree used by all group members



Shared tree

Source-based trees

Approaches for building meast trees

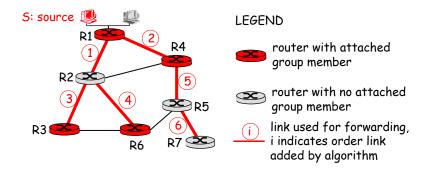
Approaches:

- * source-based tree: one tree per source
 - shortest path trees
 - reverse path forwarding
- * group-shared tree: group uses one tree
 - minimal spanning (Steiner)
 - center-based trees

...we first look at basic approaches, then specific protocols adopting these approaches

Shortest Path Tree

- mcast forwarding tree: tree of shortest path routes from source to all receivers
 - Dijkstra's algorithm

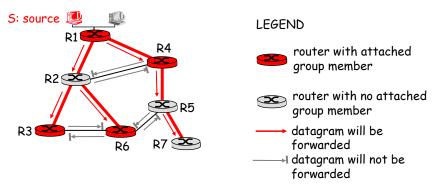


Reverse Path Forwarding

- rely on router's knowledge of unicast shortest path from it to sender
- * each router has simple forwarding behavior:

if (mcast datagram received on incoming link on shortest path back to center)then flood datagram onto all outgoing links else ignore datagram

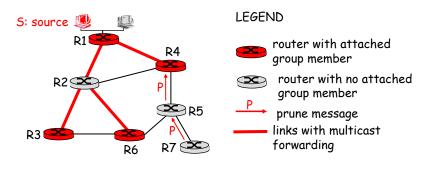
Reverse Path Forwarding: example



- result is a source-specific reverse SPT
 - may be a bad choice with asymmetric links

Reverse Path Forwarding: pruning

- forwarding tree contains subtrees with no mcast group members
 - no need to forward datagrams down subtree
 - "prune" msgs sent upstream by router with no downstream group members



Shared-Tree: Steiner Tree

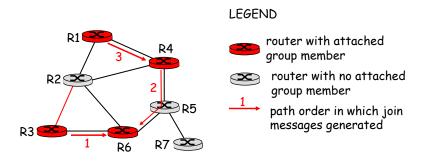
- Steiner Tree: minimum cost tree connecting all routers with attached group members
- * problem is NP-complete
- * excellent heuristics exists
- not used in practice:
 - computational complexity
 - information about entire network needed
 - monolithic: rerun whenever a router needs to join/leave

Center-based trees

- * single delivery tree shared by all
- * one router identified as "center" of tree
- * to join:
 - edge router sends unicast join-msg addressed to center router
 - join-msg "processed" by intermediate routers and forwarded towards center
 - join-msg either hits existing tree branch for this center, or arrives at center
 - path taken by join-msg becomes new branch of tree for this router

Center-based trees: an example

Suppose R6 chosen as center:



Internet Multicasting Routing: DVMRP

- DVMRP: distance vector multicast routing protocol, RFC1075
- * flood and prune: reverse path forwarding, source-based tree
 - RPF tree based on DVMRP's own routing tables constructed by communicating DVMRP routers
 - no assumptions about underlying unicast
 - initial datagram to mcast group flooded everywhere via RPF
 - routers not wanting group: send upstream prune msgs

DVMRP: continued...

- soft state: DVMRP router periodically (1 min.)
 "forgets" branches are pruned:
 - mcast data again flows down unpruned branch
 - downstream router: reprune or else continue to receive data
- * routers can quickly regraft to tree
 - following IGMP join at leaf
- · odds and ends
 - commonly implemented in commercial routers
 - Mbone routing done using DVMRP

Tunneling

Q: How to connect "islands" of multicast routers in a "sea" of unicast routers?





physical topology

logical topology

- mcast datagram encapsulated inside "normal" (non-multicastaddressed) datagram
- normal IP datagram sent thru "tunnel" via regular IP unicast to receiving mcast router
- receiving mcast router unencapsulates to get mcast datagram

PIM: Protocol Independent Multicast

- not dependent on any specific underlying unicast routing algorithm (works with all)
- two different multicast distribution scenarios:

Dense:

- group members densely packed, in "close" proximity.
- bandwidth more plentiful

Sparse:

- # networks with group members small wrt # interconnected networks
- group members "widely dispersed"
- bandwidth not plentiful

Consequences of Sparse-Dense Dichotomy:

Dense

- group membership by routers assumed until routers explicitly prune * receiver-driven
- data-driven construction on mcast tree (e.g., RPF)
- bandwidth and nongroup-router processing profligate

Sparse:

- no membership until routers explicitly join
- construction of mcast tree (e.g., center-based)
- bandwidth and non-grouprouter processing conservative

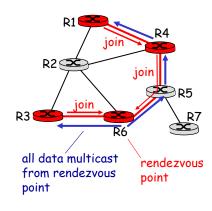
PIM- Dense Mode

flood-and-prune RPF, similar to DVMRP but

- underlying unicast protocol provides RPF info for incoming datagram
- less complicated (less efficient) downstream flood than DVMRP reduces reliance on underlying routing algorithm
- has protocol mechanism for router to detect it is a leaf-node router

PIM - Sparse Mode

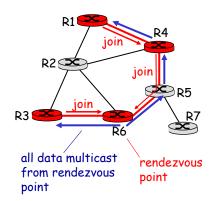
- center-based approach
- router sends join msg to rendezvous point (RP)
 - intermediate routers update state and forward join
- after joining via RP, router can switch to source-specific tree
 - increased performance: less concentration, shorter paths



PIM - Sparse Mode

sender(s):

- unicast data to RP, which distributes down RP-rooted tree
- RP can extend mcast tree upstream to source
- RP can send stop msg if no attached receivers
 - "no one is listening!"



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