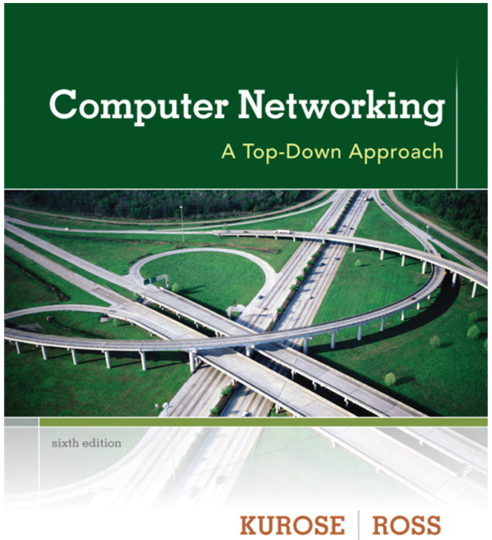
Capítulo 4
Camada de Rede



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Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach
6th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Addison-Wesley
March 2012

Capítulo 4: camada de rede

Objetivos do capítulo:

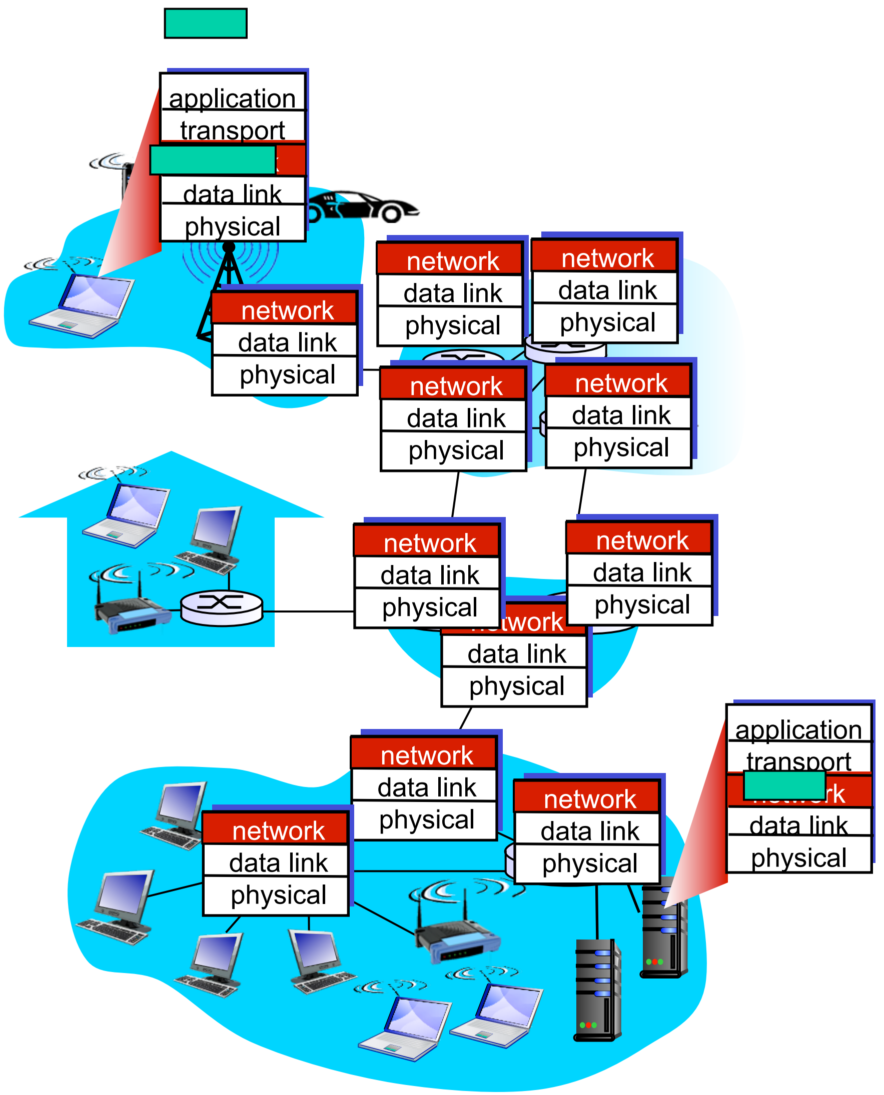
- Entender os princípios dos serviços da camada de rede:
  - Modelos de serviço da camada de rede
  - Repasse e roteamento
  - Como um roteador trabalha
  - Roteamento (seleção de caminho)
  - broadcast, multicast
- Implementação na Internet

Capítulo 4

- Introdução

Camada de Rede

- Transporte de segmentos de um hospedeiro origem ao destino
- No lado de origem, encapsula segmentos em datagramas
- No lado destinatário, entrega segmentos para a camada de transporte
- Roteador examina campos de cabeçalho em todos os datagramas IP que passam por ele



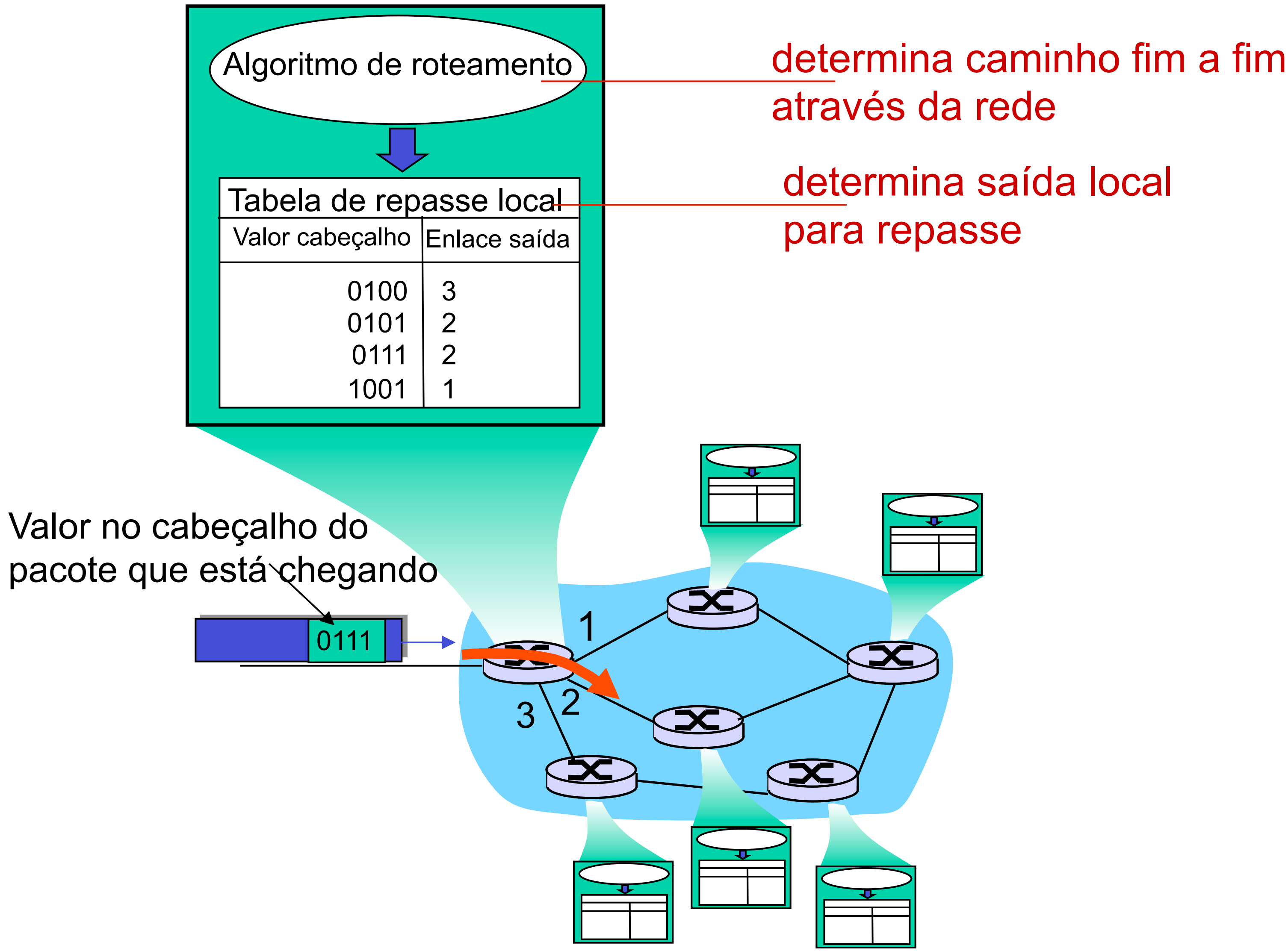
Duas funções chave

- *Repasse:* move pacotes da entrada do roteador para o roteador apropriado de saída
- *Routeamento:* determina a rota tomada pelos pacotes da origem ao destino.
  - *Algoritmos de roteamento*

analogia:

- *Roteamento:* processo de planejamento de uma viagem da origem ao destino
- *Repasse:* processo de cruzar um meio

Relação entre roteamento e repasse



Configuração de conexão

- É uma função importante em algumas arquiteturas de rede:
  - ATM, frame relay, X.25
- Antes do fluxo de datagramas, dois hospedeiros finais e roteadores estabelecem uma conexão virtual
  - Roteadores são envolvidos na conexão
- Serviço de conexão da camada de transporte versus rede:
  - *rede:* entre dois hospedeiros (podendo envolver roteadores no caso de circuitos virtuais)
  - *transporte:* entre dois processos

Modelo de serviço de rede

Q: Qual *modelo de serviço* usar para transportar datagramas entre remetente e receptor?

Exemplo de serviços para datagramas individuais:

- Entrega garantida
- Entrega garantida com menos de 40 msec de atraso

Exemplo de serviços para um fluxo de datagramas:

- Entrega de datagramas em ordem
- Garantia de banda mínima para o fluxo
- Jitter máximo garantido

Modelos de serviço da rede:

Arquitetura de rede	Modelo de serviço	Garantias? Banda	Perda	Ordem	Tempo	Indicação congestiona
Internet	Melhor esforço	nenhuma	não	não	não	Não
ATM	CBR	taxa constante	sim	sim	sim	sem congestiona
ATM	VBR	taxa garantida	sim	sim	sim	sem congestiona
ATM	ABR	mínima garantida	não	sim	não	sim
ATM	UBR	nenhuma	não	sim	não	não

Capítulo 4

- Redes de circuitos virtuais e de datagramas

Serviços com e sem conexão

- Rede de datagramas provê um serviço não orientado para conexão
- Rede de circuitos virtuais provê um serviço orientado para conexão
- Semelhante ao TCP/UDP da camada de transporte, mas:
  - *serviço:* hospedeiro a hospedeiro, ao invés de processo a processo
  - *sem escolha:* rede provê um ou o outro
  - *implementação:* nos roteadores no núcleo da rede

Circuitos Virtuais

"caminho de origem-destino é semelhante a um circuito telefônico"

- em termos de desempenho
- em ações de rede ao longo do caminho origem-destino

- Configuração de cada chamada antes do fluxo de dados
- Cada pacote carrega o identificador de CV (e não o endereço do hospedeiro destino)
- Cada roteador no caminho origem-destino mantém o estado de cada conexão passando por ele
- Recursos do enlace e do roteador (banda, buffers) podem ser alocados para o CV (recursos dedicados)

Implementação de CV

Um CV consiste de:

1. *Caminho* de origem a destino
2. *Números de CV*, um número para cada circuito ao longo do caminho
3. *Entradas em tabelas de repasse* em roteadores

- Pacote pertecente a CV carrega o número do CV
- Número de CV pode mudar em cada enlace.
  - Novo número de CV é encontrado na tabela de repasse

Redes de datagramas

- Sem estabelecimento de chamada na camada de rede
- roteadores: não guardam estado da conexão
  - Não há conceito de "conexão" na camada de rede
- Pacotes são repassados usando o endereço destino

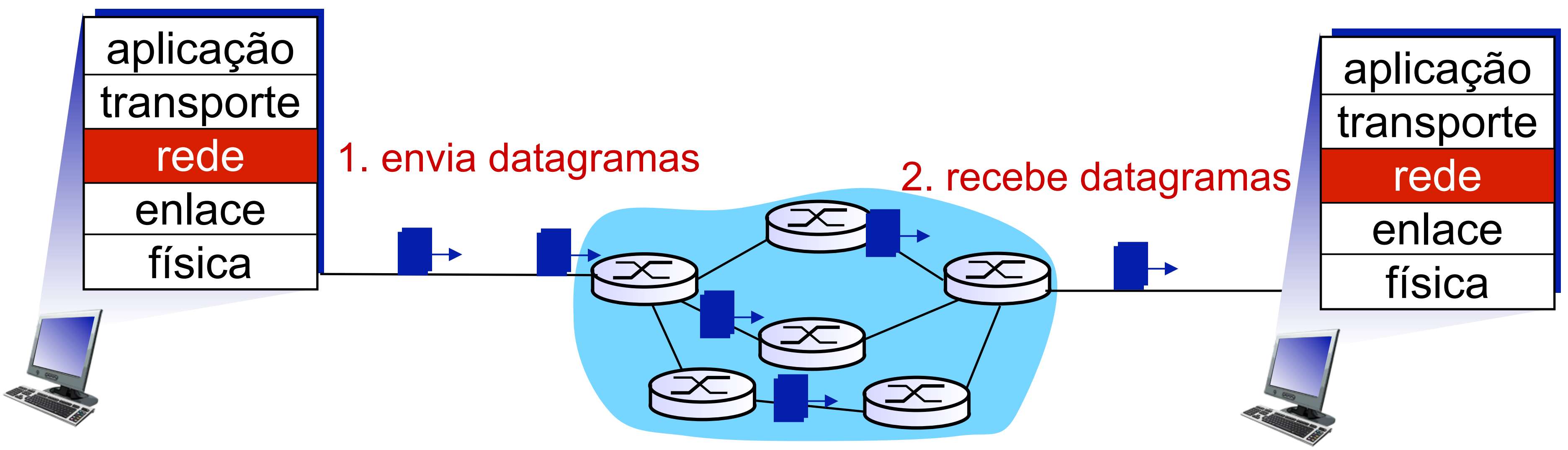


Tabela de repasse de datagrama

4 bilhões de endereços IP. Ao invés de listar endereços de destino individuais, lista-se um agregado deles

End. destino	Enlace saída
address-range 1	3
address-range 2	2
address-range 3	2
address-range 4	1

Tabela de repasse de datagrama

Faixa de Endereços Destino	Enlace
11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000 até 11001000 00010111 00010111 11111111	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 00000000 até 11001000 00010111 00011000 11111111	1
11001000 00010111 00011001 00000000 até 11001000 00010111 00011111 11111111	2
senão	3

Q: O que acontece se não há uma boa divisão de endereços?

Prefixo mais longo

Regra da concordância do prefixo mais longo

Quando se olha para uma entrada de tabela de repasse para um dado endereço de destino, usa-se o prefixo de endereço mais longo que bate com endereço de destino.

Faixa de endereços de destino	Enlace
11001000 00010111 00010*** *********	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *********	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *********	2
senão	3

exercício:

Dest.: 11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001 Qual enlace?

Dest.: 11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 Qual enlace?

Rede de datagrama ou CV: por quê?

Internet (datagrama)

- Troca de dados entre computadores
  - Serviço "elástico", sem requisitos de temporização estreitos
- Muitos tipos de enlaces
  - Características diferentes
  - Serviço uniforme raro
- Sistemas finais "inteligentes" (computador)
  - Pode adaptar, controlar desempenho, recuperação de erro
  - ***Núcleo de rede simples, mas complexidade na borda***

ATM (CV)

- Evoluiu da telefonia
- Conversação humana:
  - Temporização rigorosa, requisitos de confiança
  - Necessário para garantia de serviço
- Terminais "burros"
  - Telefones
  - ***Complexidade no núcleo da rede***

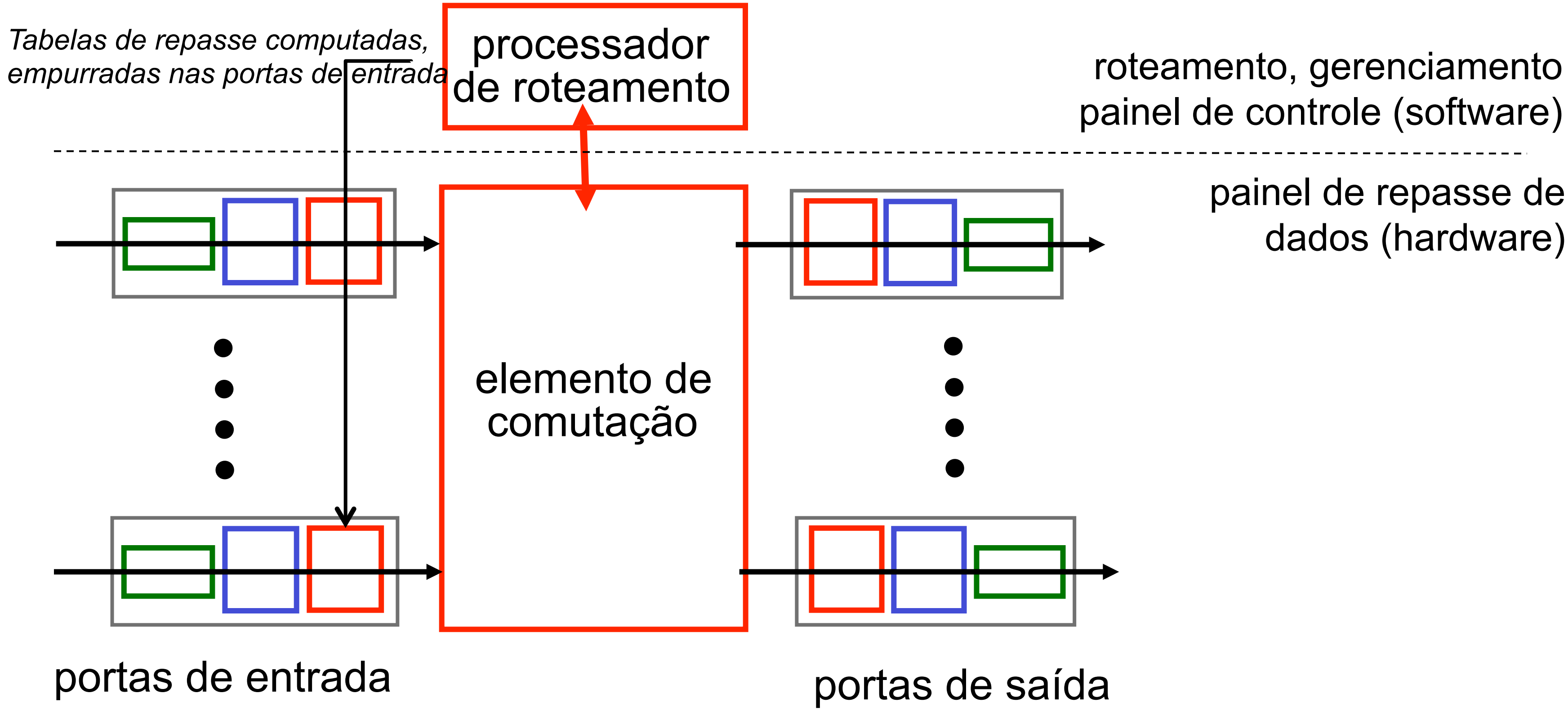
Capítulo 4

- O que há dentro de um roteador?

Visão da arquitetura de um roteador

Duas funções chave do roteador:

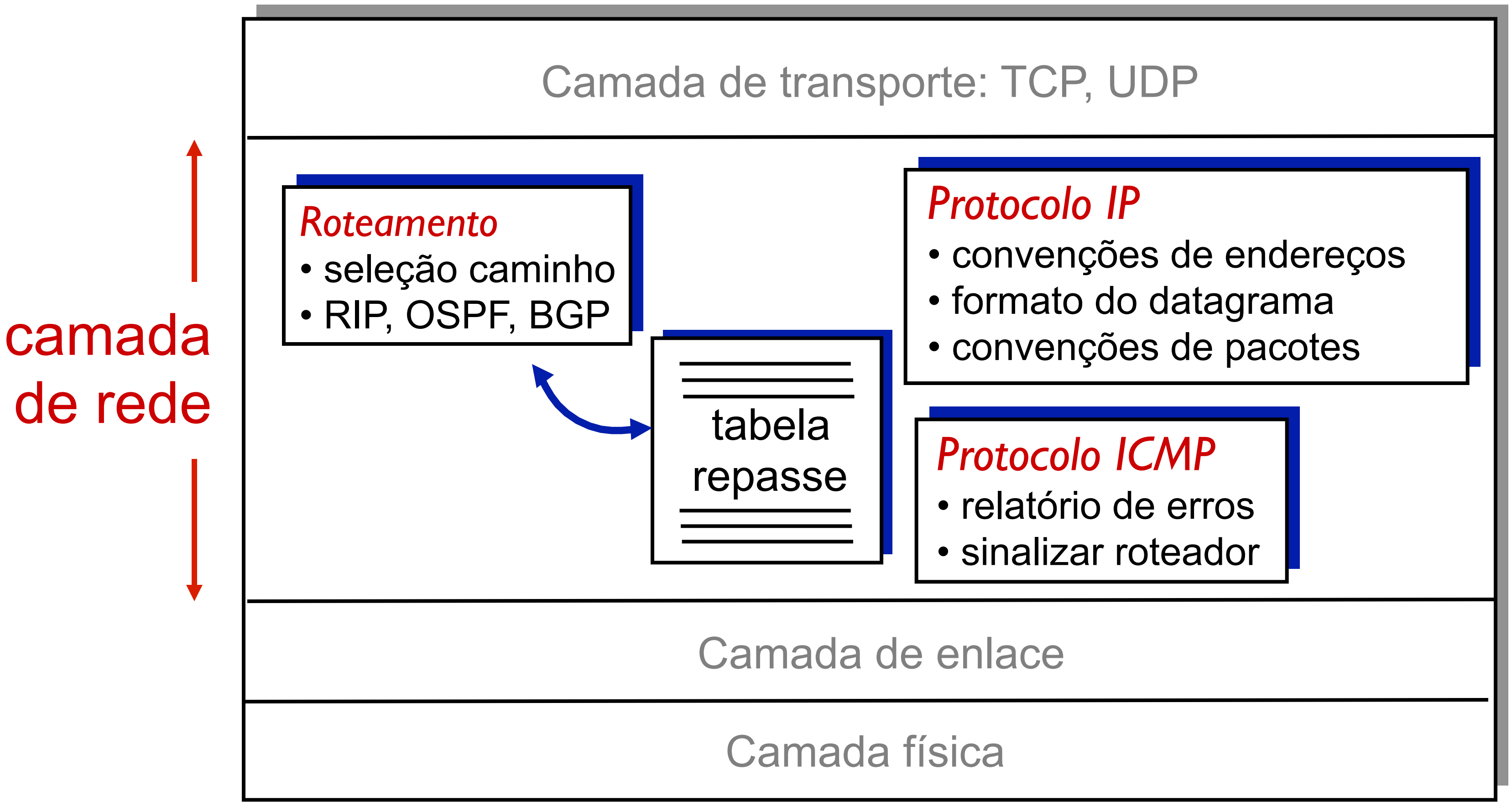
- Roda algoritmos/protocolos de roteamento (RIP, OSPF, BGP)
- *Repasse de datagramas* do enlace de entrada para saída



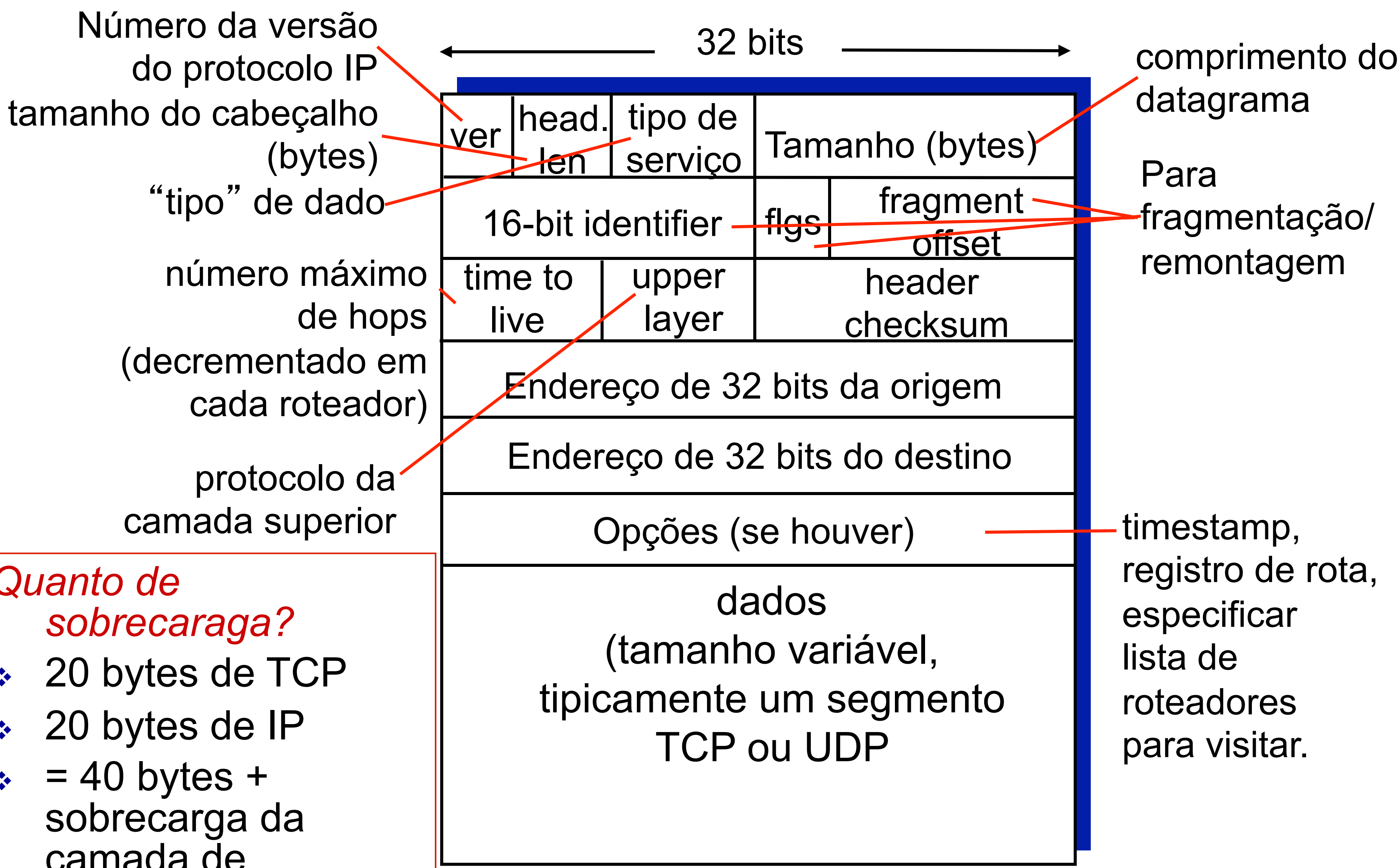
Capítulo 4

- IP: Internet Protocol

A camada de rede da Internet



Formato do datagrama IP



Quanto de sobrecaraga?

- 20 bytes de TCP
- 20 bytes de IP
- = 40 bytes + sobrecarga da camada de aplicação

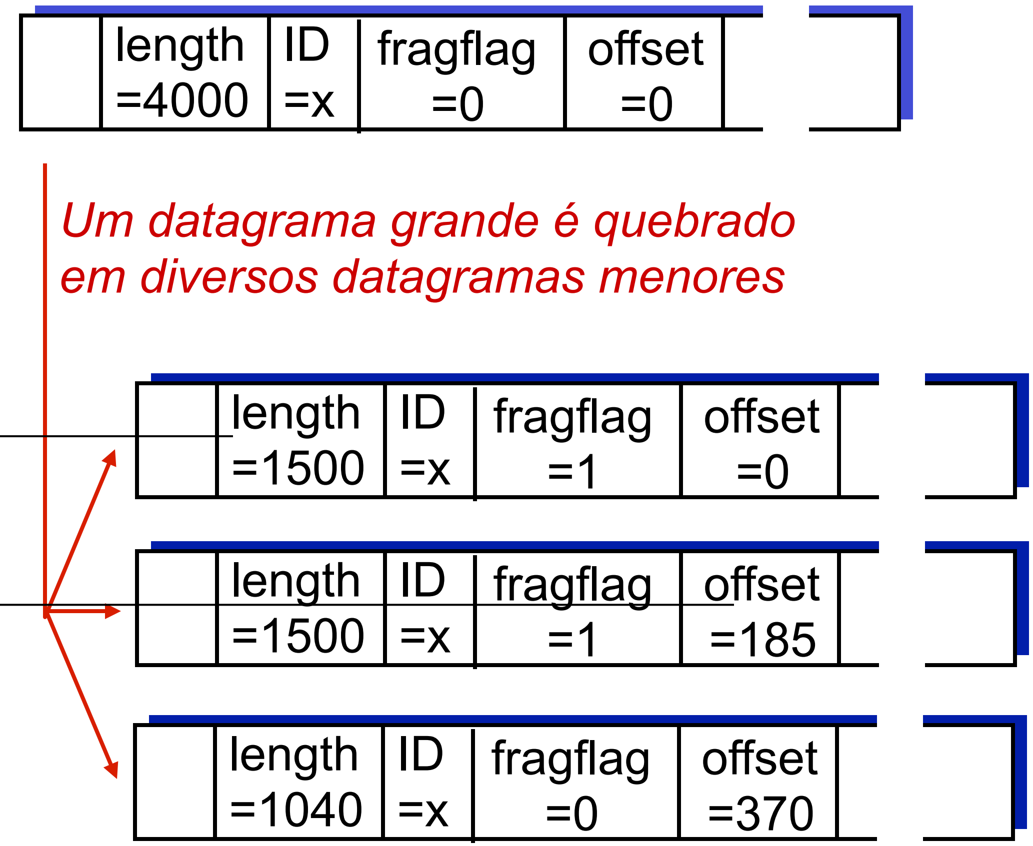
Fragmentação IP, reconstrução

exemplo:

- Datagrama de 4000 bytes
- MTU = 1500 bytes

1480 bytes no campo de dados

offset (deslocamento) = 1480/8

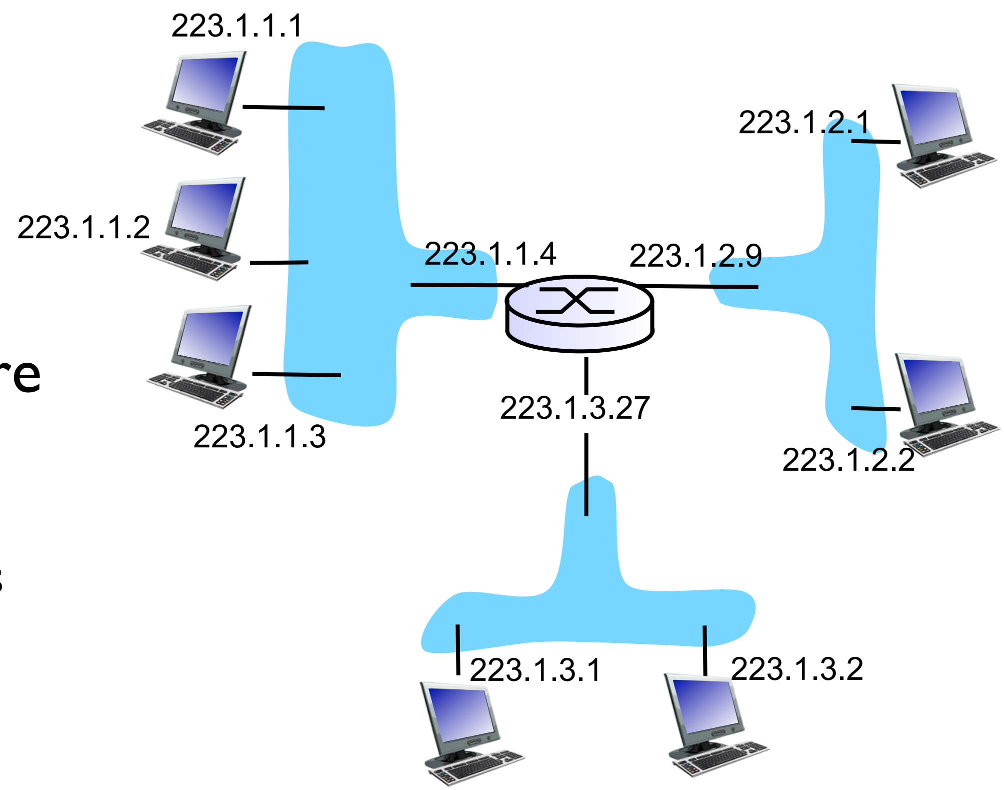


Capítulo 4

- IP: Internet Protocol
  - Endereçamento IPv4

Endereçamento IP: introdução

- *Endereço IP:* identificador de 32-bit para interface de host, roteador
- *interface:* conexão entre host/roteador e a camada física
  - Tipicamente, roteadores possuem diversas interfaces
  - Tipicamente, hosts possuem uma inteface ativa (ex., Ethernet cabeada, wireless 802.11)
- *Um endereço IP associado a cada interface*

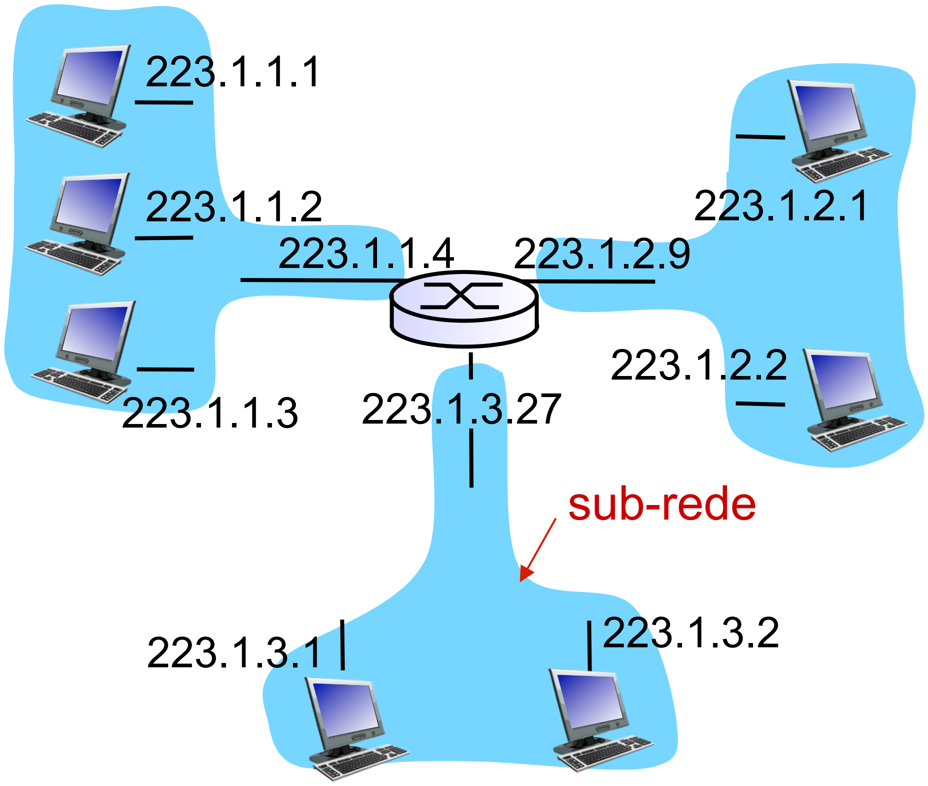


223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223	1	1	1

Sub-rede

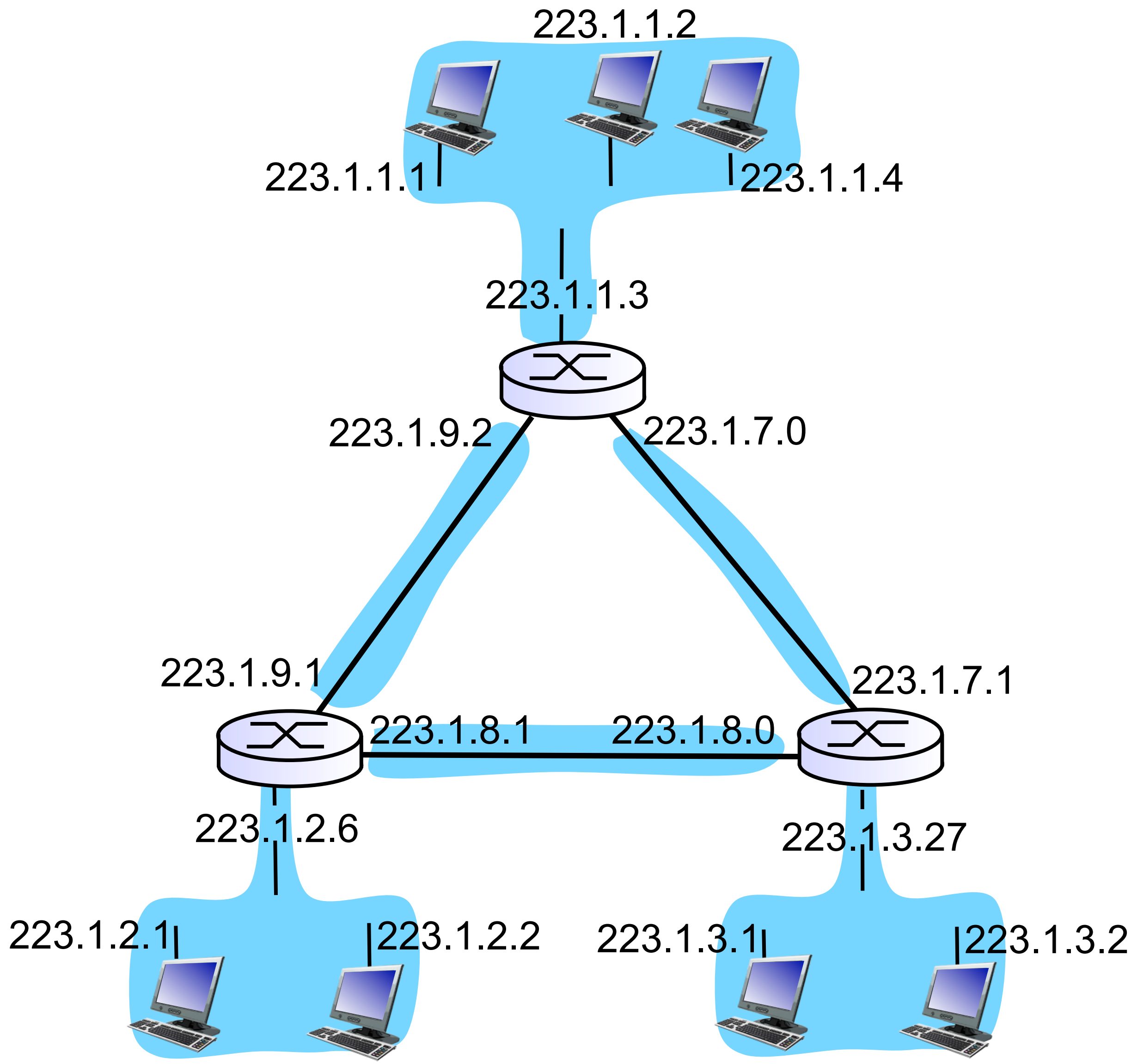
- Endereço IP:
  - Parte sub-rede (prefixo) - bits mais significativos
  - Parte do host – bits menos significativos
- *O que é uma sub-rede?*
  - Interfaces de dispositivos com a mesma parte de sub-rede de um endereço IP
  - Pode fisicamente alcançar outros dispositivos *sem passar por roteador*



Rede com 3 sub-redes

Sub-redes

Quantas?



Endereçamento IP: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

- Parte do endereço de sub-rede de tamanho arbitrário
- Formato do endereço: a.b.c.d/x, onde x é # bits na parte de endereço da sub-rede

parte sub-rede — parte host

11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000

200.23.16.0/23

Obtenção de endereços IP

Um ISP pode dividir um bloco de endereços e entregar para seus clientes

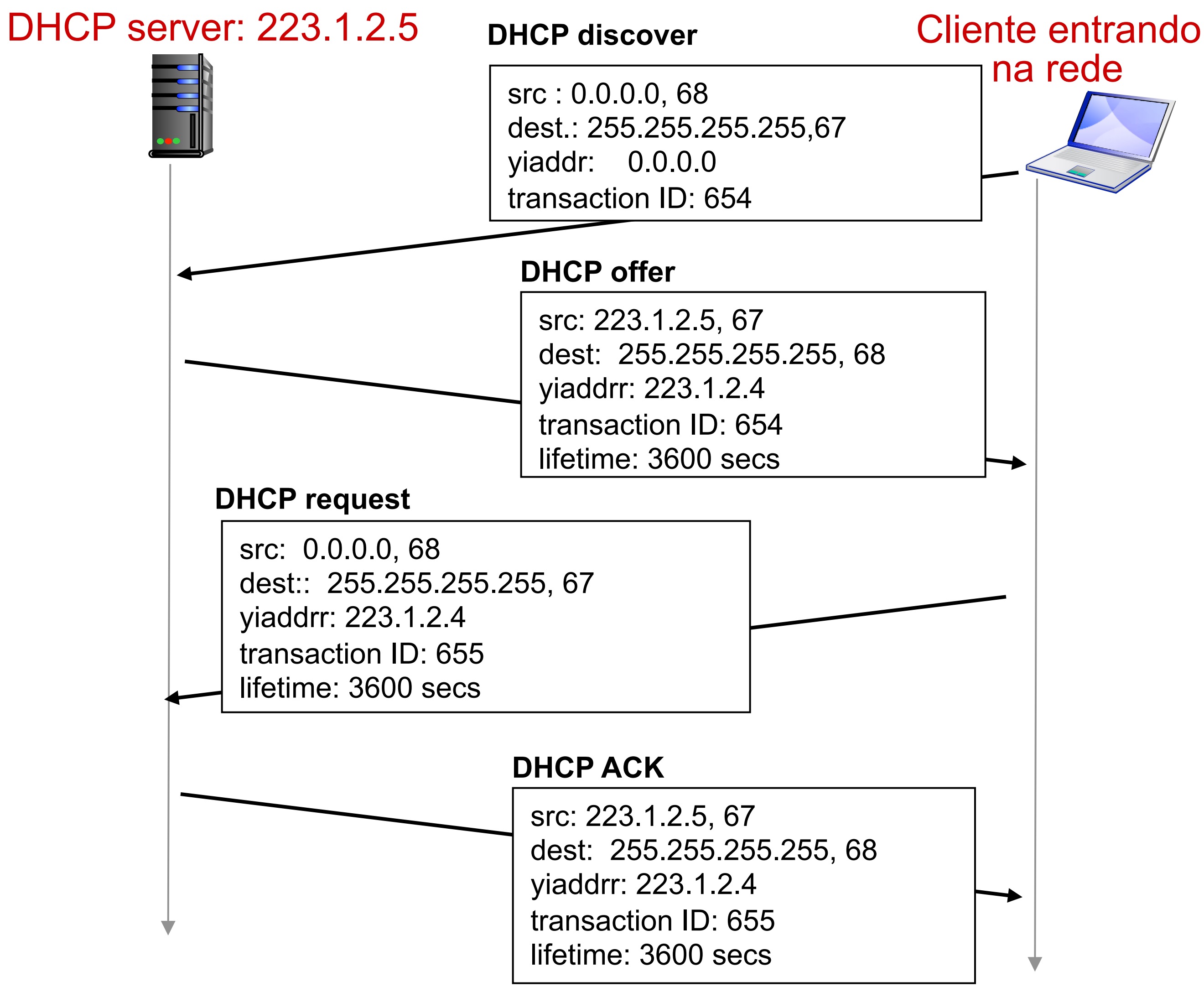
Bloco do ISO	<u>11001000 00010111 0001</u>0000 00000000		200.23.16.0/20
Organização 0	<u>11001000 00010111 0001000</u>0 00000000		200.23.16.0/23
Organização 1	<u>11001000 00010111 0001001</u>0 00000000		200.23.18.0/23
Organização 2	<u>11001000 00010111 0001010</u>0 00000000		200.23.20.0/23
...	…..	….	….
Organização 7	<u>11001000 00010111 0001111</u>0 00000000		200.23.30.0/23

Como obter um IP na rede?

Q: Como um *host* consegue um endereço IP?

- Configuração estática dos sistemas operacionais
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol - Protocolo de Configuração Dinâmica de Hospedeiros: obter dinamicamente um endereço de um servidor
  - "plug-and-play"

DHCP cenário cliente-servidor

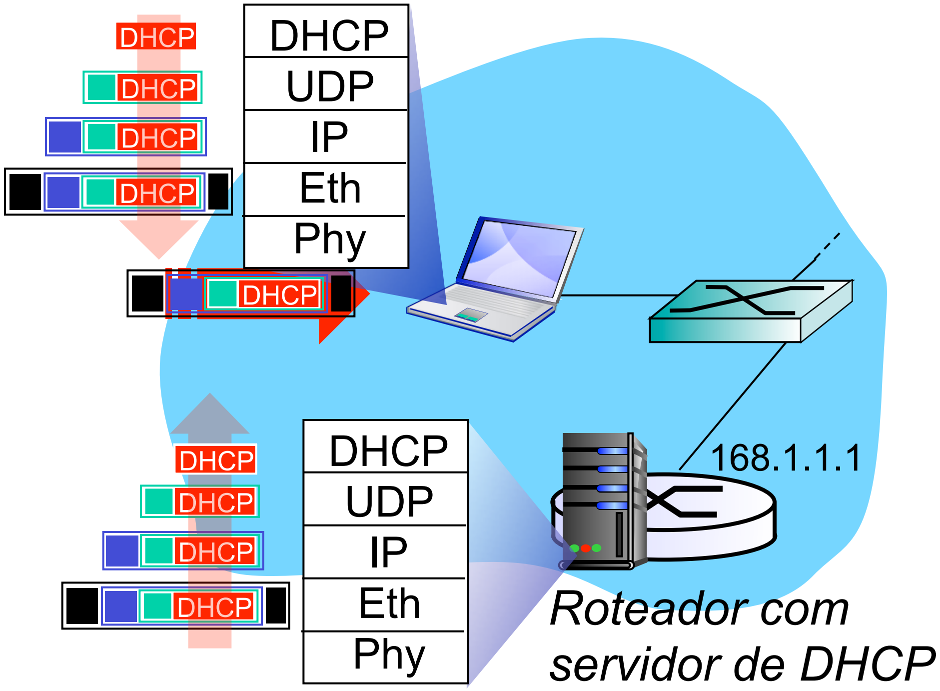


DHCP: mais do que endereço IP

DHCP returna:

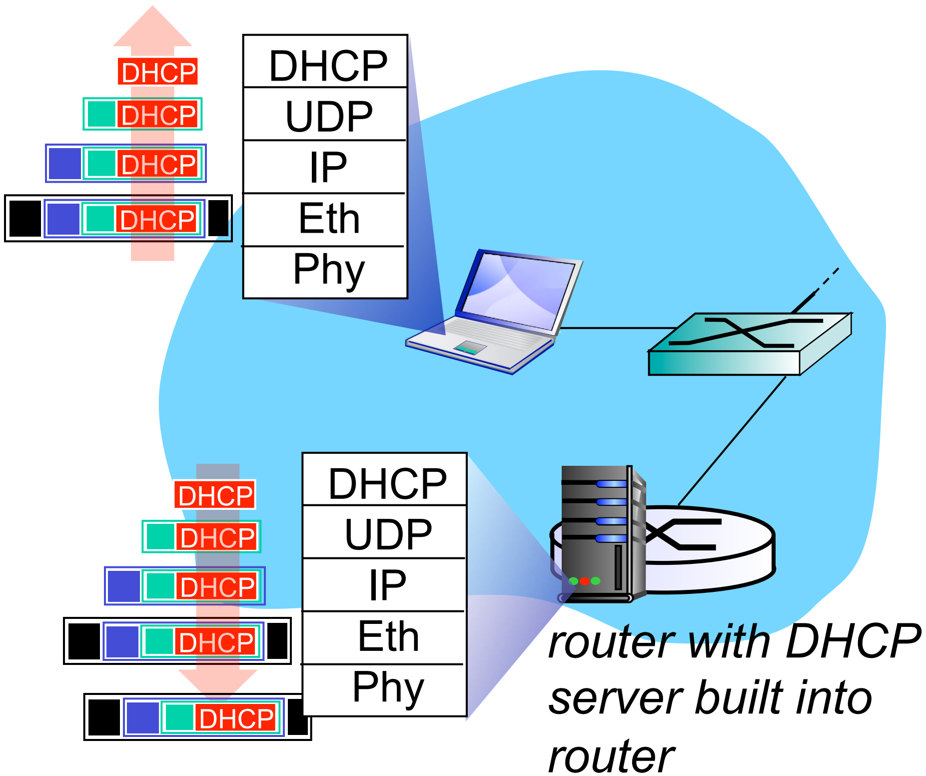
- Endereço IP
- Endereço de gateway para o cliente
- Nome e endereço IP do servidor de DNS
- Máscara de rede (indicando a rede versus parte de endereço de host)

DHCP: exemplo



- laptop conectando necessita de seu endereço IP, gateway, DNS: usa DHCP
- Pedido DHCP encapsulado em UDP, encapsulado em IP, encapsulado em 802.3 Ethernet
- Quadro Ethernet broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) na LAN, recebido no roteador rodando o servidor DHCP
- Ethernet demultiplexado para IP demultiplexado, UDP demultiplexado para DHCP

DHCP: exemplo



- Servidor DHCP formula o DHCP ACK contendo o IP do cliente, o IP do gateway, nome & IP do servidor de DNS
- encapsulamento do servidor de DHCP, quadro mandado para o cliente, demultiplexado pelo DHCP do cliente
- cliente agora sabe seu IP, nonme e IP do servidor de DNS, IP do seu gateway (roteador)

DHCP: saída Wireshark

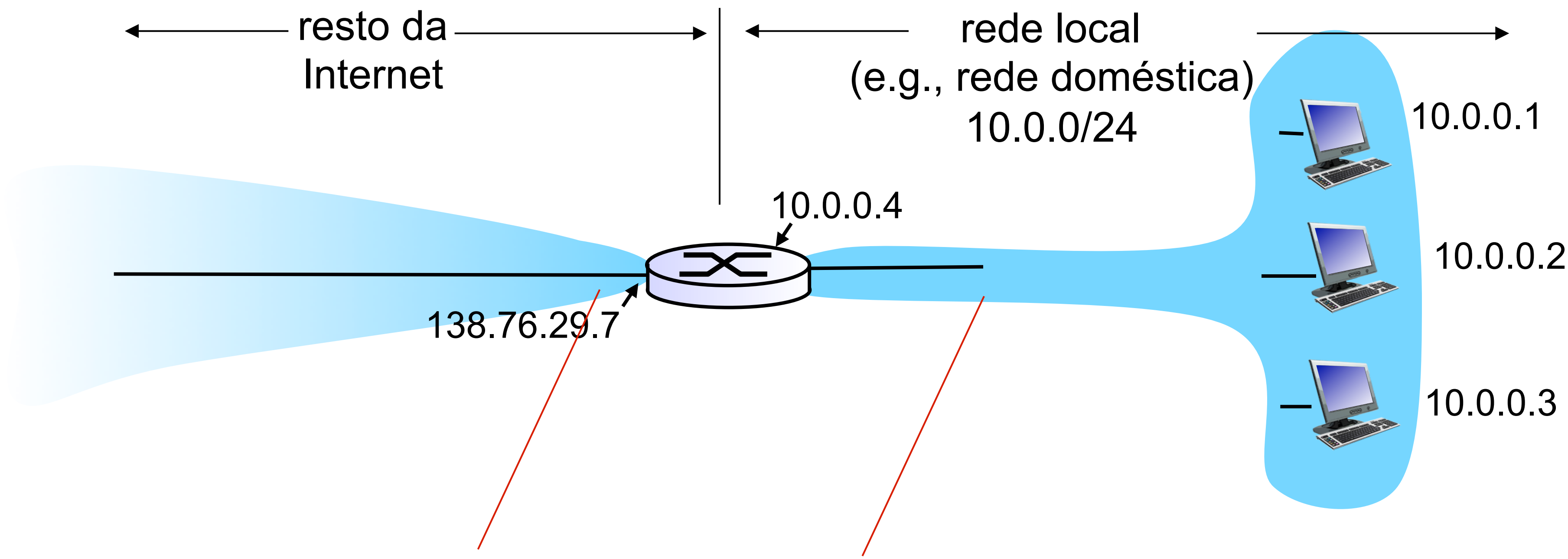
pedido

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
Magic cookie: (OK)
Option: (t=53,l=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,l=4) Requested IP Address = 192.168.1.101
Option: (t=12,l=5) Host Name = "nomad"
Option: (55) Parameter Request List
    Length: 11; Value: 010F03062C2E2F1F21F92B
    1 = Subnet Mask; 15 = Domain Name
    3 = Router; 6 = Domain Name Server
    44 = NetBIOS over TCP/IP Name Server
    ……

resposta

Message type: **Boot Reply (2)**
Hardware type: Ethernet
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: 0.0.0.0 (0.0.0.0)
Next server IP address: 192.168.1.1 (192.168.1.1)
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
Magic cookie: (OK)
Option: (t=53,l=1) DHCP Message Type = DHCP ACK
Option: (t=54,l=4) Server Identifier = 192.168.1.1
Option: (t=1,l=4) Subnet Mask = 255.255.255.0
Option: (t=3,l=4) Router = 192.168.1.1
Option: (6) Domain Name Server
    Length: 12; Value: 445747E2445749F244574092;
    IP Address: 68.87.71.226;
    IP Address: 68.87.73.242;
    IP Address: 68.87.64.146
Option: (t=15,l=20) Domain Name = "hsd1.ma.comcast.net."

NAT: network address translation



Todos os datagramas *saindo* da rede local têm o *mesmo* endereço NAT IP de origem: 138.76.29.7, diferentes números de portas de origem

datagramas com origem ou destino na própria rede tem endereço 10.0.0/24 para origem, destino (como sempre)

NAT: network address translation

motivação: rede local usa somente um IP, mas é preciso pensar na rede mundial:

- Não é necessária uma faixa de endereços do ISP: somente um IP para todos os dispositivos
- Pode mudar o IP dos dispositivos locais sem a necessidade de comunicar o mundo externo
- Pode mudar de ISP sem necessidade de mudar os IPs dos dispositivos locais
- Dispositivos na rede local não precisam ficar explicitamente expostos, visíveis para a rede mundial

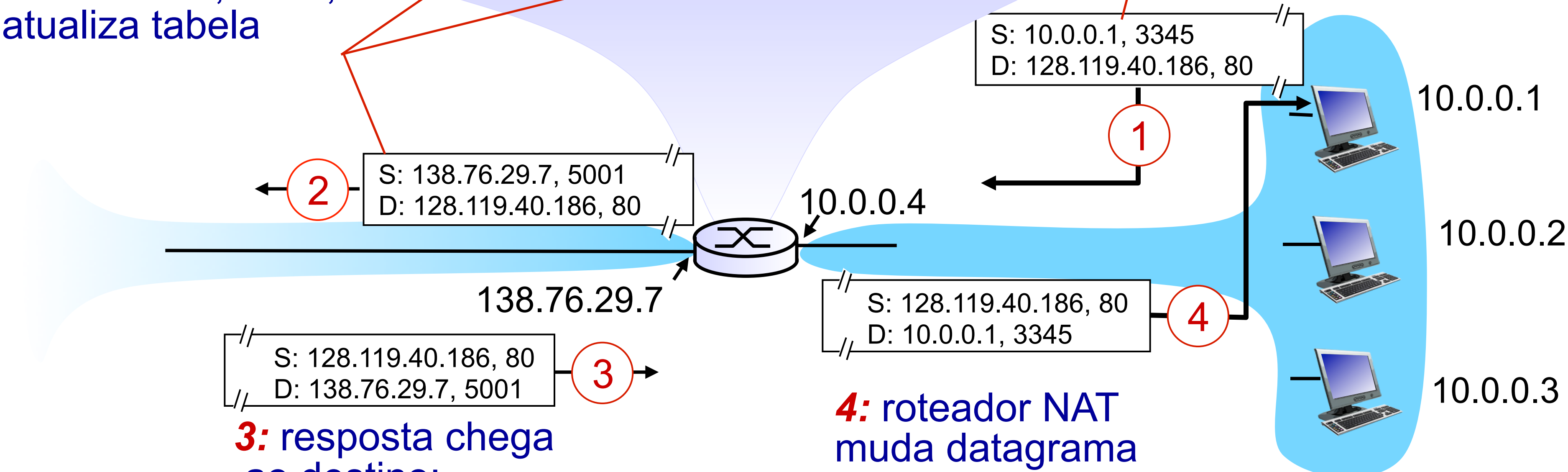
NAT: network address translation

Tabela de tradução NAT

Endereço WAN	Endereço LAN
138.76.29.7, 5001	10.0.0.1, 3345
……	……

2: roteador NAT muda datagrama de end. origem de 10.0.0.1, 3345 para 138.76.29.7, 5001, atualiza tabela

1: host 10.0.0.1 envia datagrama para 128.119.40.186, 80



3: resposta chega ao destino: 138.76.29.7, 5001

4: roteador NAT muda datagrama de destino de 138.76.29.7, 5001 para 10.0.0.1, 3345

Capítulo 4

IP: Internet Protocol

- ICMP
- IPv6

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

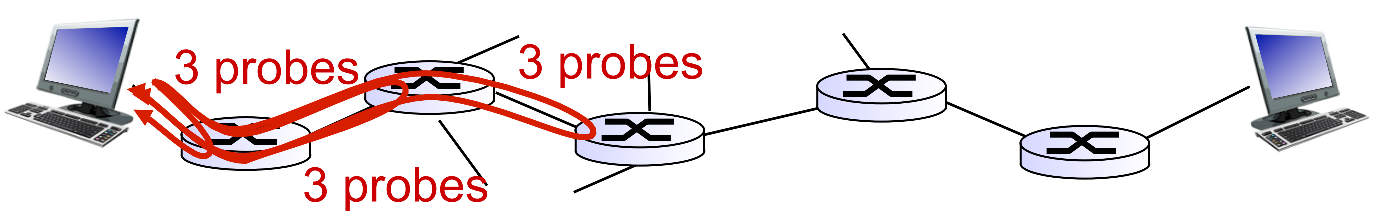
Type	Code	description
0	0	echo reply (ping)
3	0	dest. network unreachable
3	1	dest host unreachable
3	2	dest protocol unreachable
3	3	dest port unreachable
3	6	dest network unknown
3	7	dest host unknown
4	0	source quench (congestion control - not used)
8	0	echo request (ping)
9	0	route advertisement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

Traceroute and ICMP

- source sends series of UDP segments to dest
  - first set has TTL =1
  - second set has TTL=2, etc.
  - unlikely port number
- when *n*th set of datagrams arrives to nth router:
  - router discards datagrams
  - and sends source ICMP messages (type 11, code 0)
  - ICMP messages includes name of router & IP address
- when ICMP messages arrives, source records RTTs

stopping criteria:

- UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- destination returns ICMP "port unreachable" message (type 3, code 3)
- source stops



IPv6: motivation

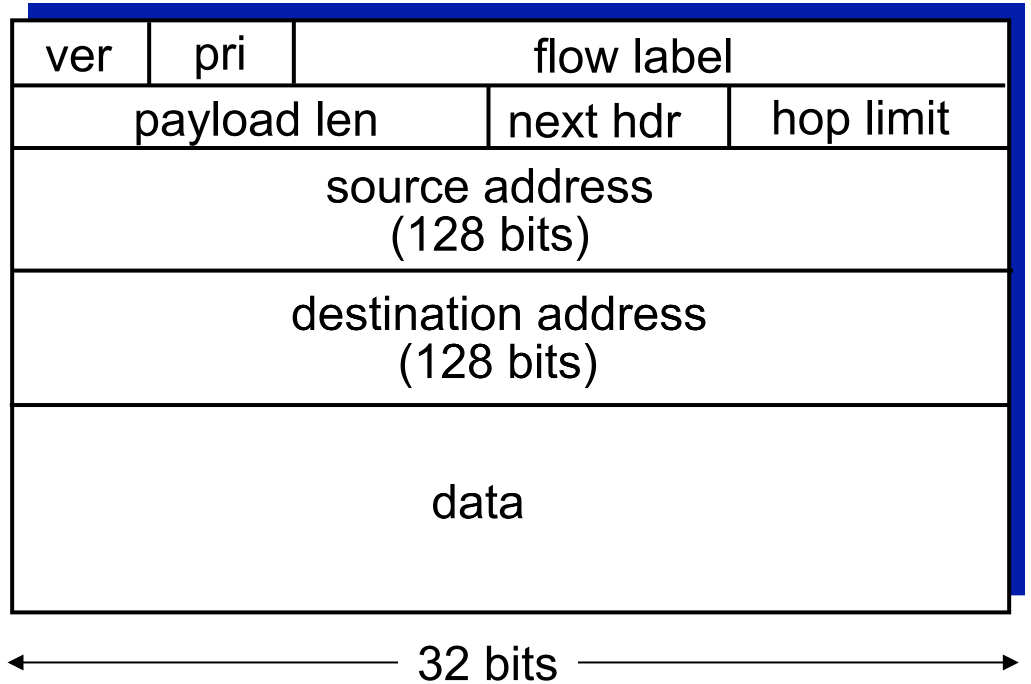
- *initial motivation:* 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- additional motivation:
  - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
  - header changes to facilitate QoS

IPv6 datagram format:

- fixed-length 40 byte header
- no fragmentation allowed

IPv6 datagram format

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

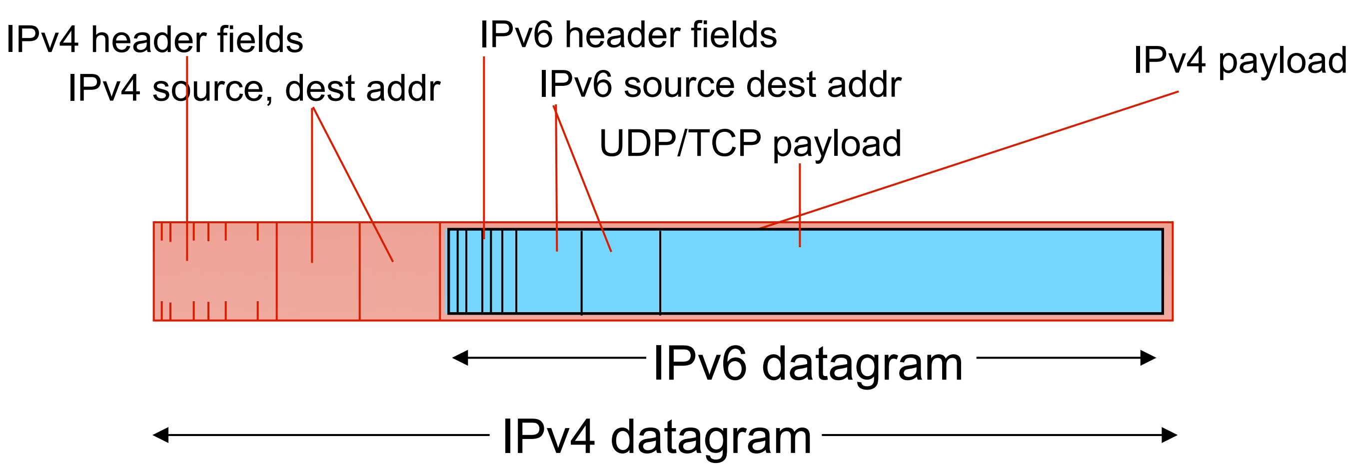


Other changes from IPv4

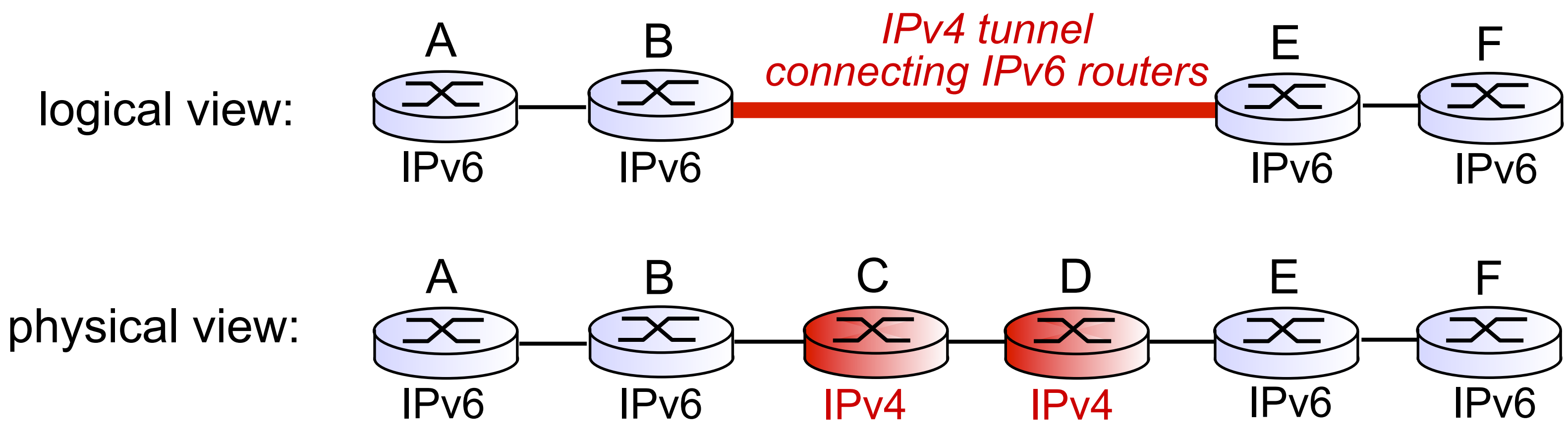
- *checksum:* removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- *options:* allowed, but outside of header, indicated by "Next Header" field
- *ICMPv6:* new version of ICMP
  - additional message types, e.g. "Packet Too Big"
  - multicast group management functions

Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
  - no "flag days"
  - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- *tunneling:* IPv6 datagram carried as *payload* in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers

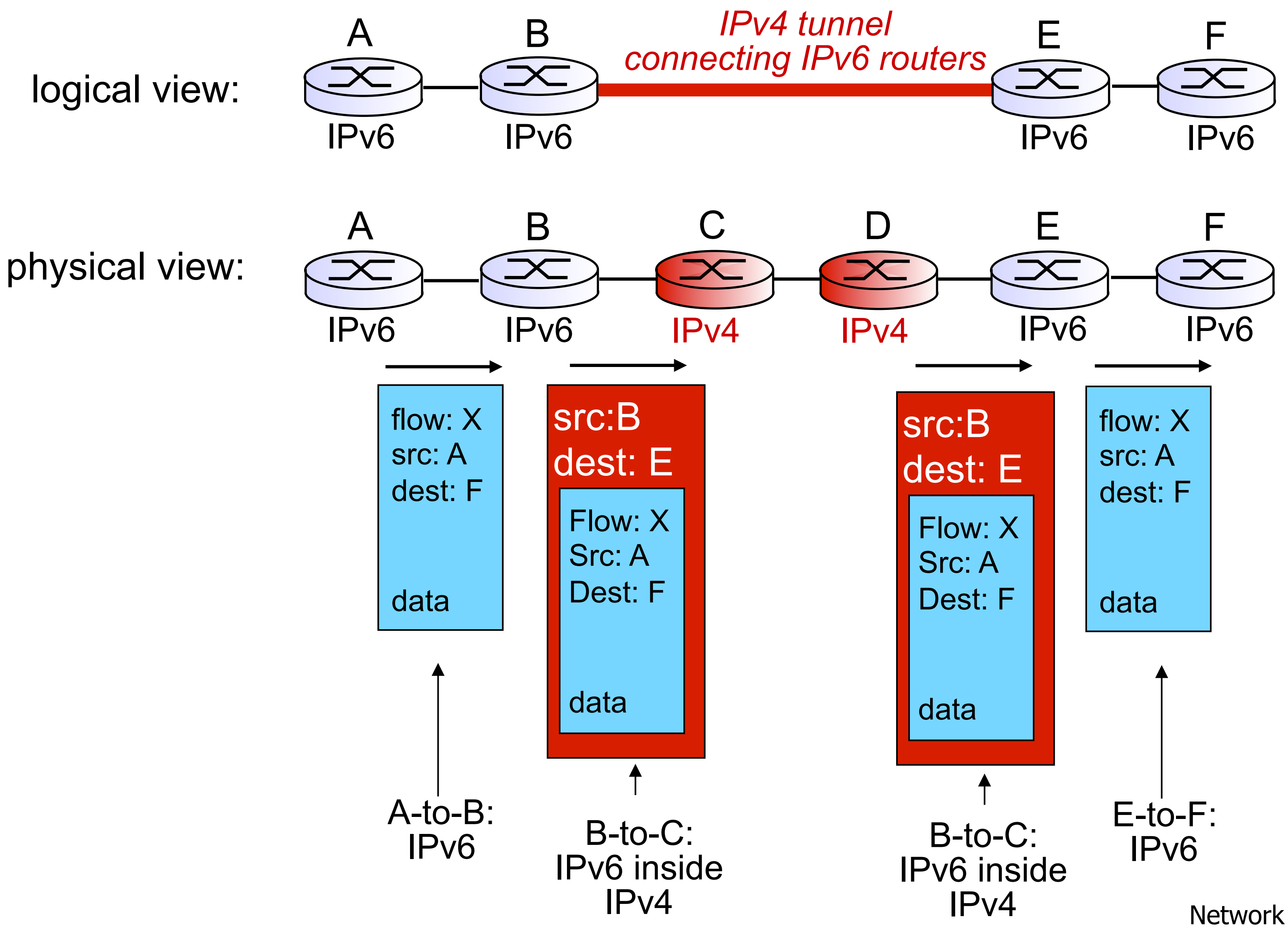


Tunneling



logical view:
A
B
IPv4 tunnel
connecting IPv6 routers
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
physical view:
A
B
C
D
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv4
IPv4
IPv6
IPv6

Tunneling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IPv6
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C
D
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IPv6
IPv6
IPv4
IPv4
IPv6
IPv6
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
A-to-B:
IPv6
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
E-to-F:
IPv6

Chapter 4: outline

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

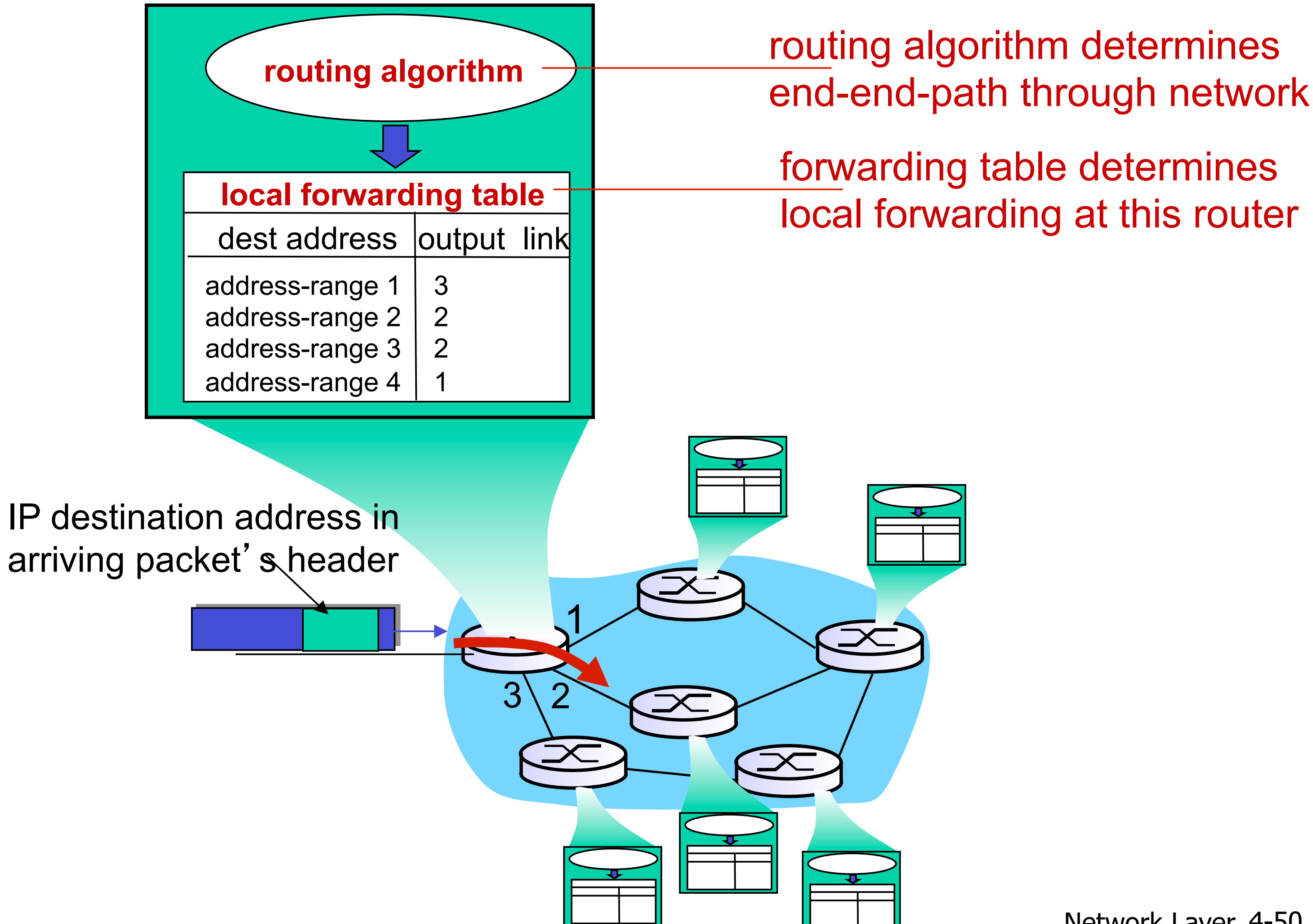
- link state
- distance vector
- hierarchical routing

4.6 routing in the Internet

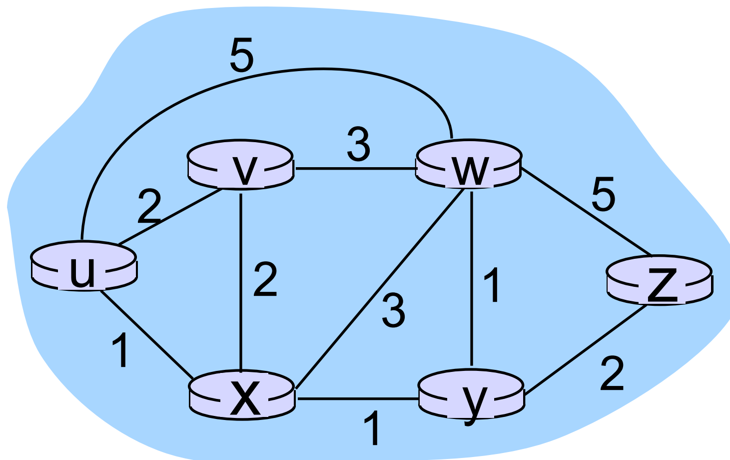
- RIP
- OSPF
- BGP

4.7 broadcast and multicast routing

Interplay between routing, forwarding



Graph abstraction



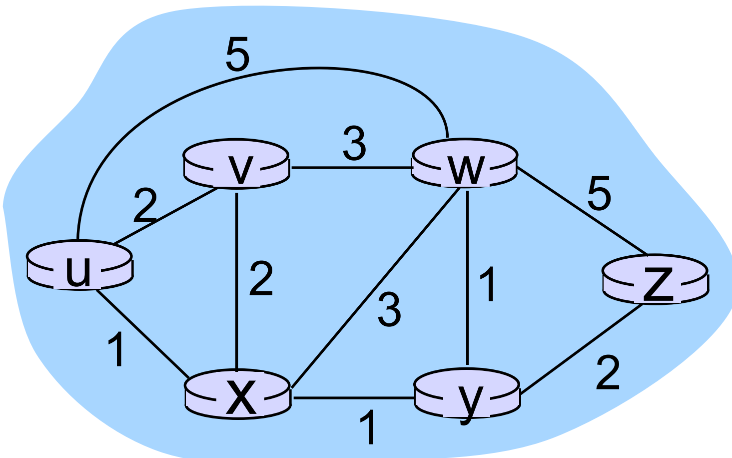
graph: G = (N,E)

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

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

aside: graph abstraction is useful in other network contexts, e.g., P2P, where *N* is set of peers and *E* is set of TCP connections

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 $(x_1, x_2, x_3,\ldots, x_p) = c(x_1,x_2) + c(x_2,x_3) + \ldots + c(x_{p-1},x_p)$

key question: what is the least-cost path between u and z ?
routing algorithm: algorithm that finds that least cost path

Routing algorithm classification

Q: global or decentralized information?

global:

- all routers have complete topology, link cost info
- "link state" algorithms

decentralized:

- router knows physically-connected neighbors, link costs to neighbors
- iterative process of computation, exchange of info with neighbors
- "distance vector" algorithms

Q: static or dynamic?

static:

- routes change slowly over time

dynamic:

- routes change more quickly
  - periodic update
  - in response to link cost changes

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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 destinations

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

Dijsktra's Algorithm

```
Initialization:
  N' = {u}
  for all nodes v
    if v adjacent to u
        then D(v) = c(u,v)
    else D(v) = ∞

 Loop
   find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
    add w to N'
    update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N' :
        D(v) = min( D(v), D(w) + c(w,v) )
    /* new cost to v is either old cost to v or known
     shortest path cost to w plus cost from w to v */
 until all nodes in N'
```

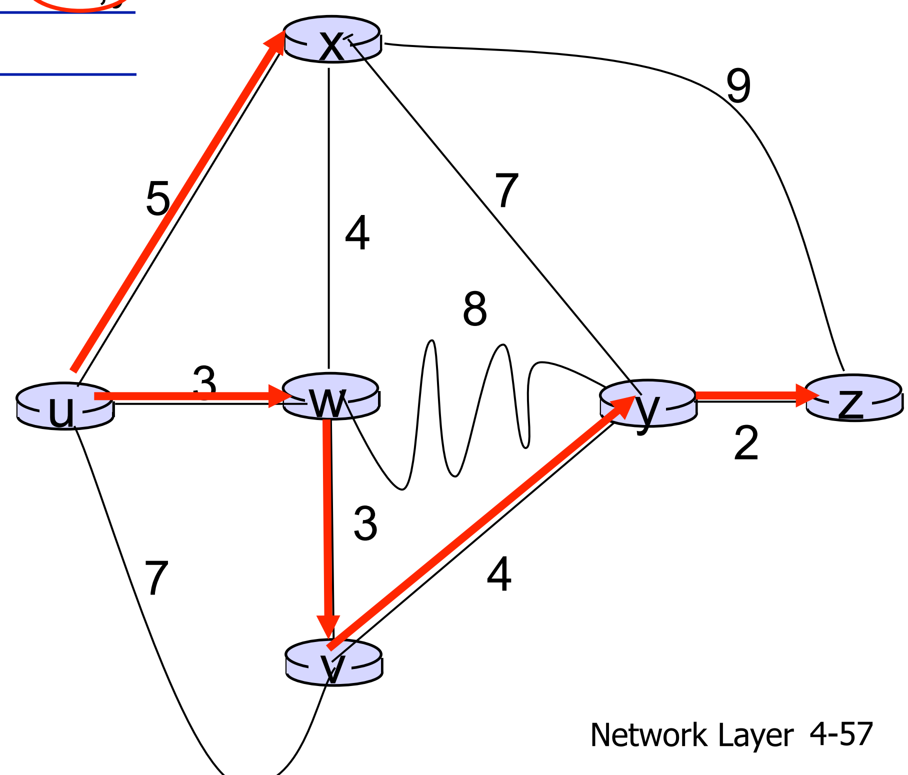
Dijkstra's algorithm: example

Step	N'	D(v) p(v)	D(w) p(w)	D(x) p(x)	D(y) p(y)	D(z) p(z)
0	u	7,u	3,u	5,u	∞	∞
1	uw	6,w		5,u	11,w	∞
2	uwx	6,w			11,w	14,x
3	uwxv				10,v	14,x
4	uwxvy					12,y
5	uwxvyz					

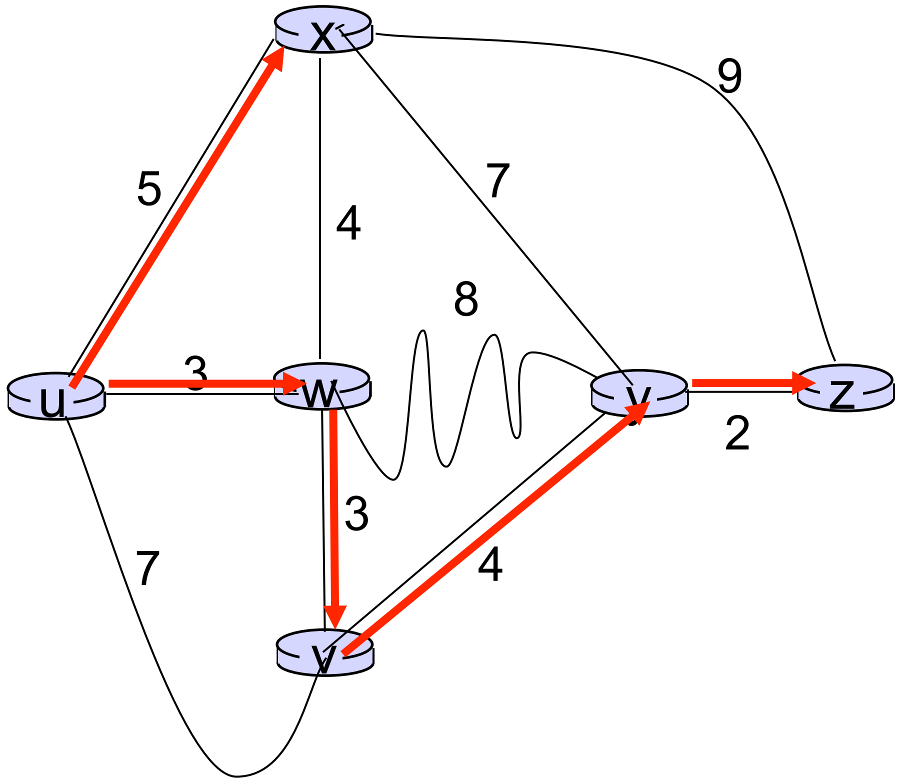
$$e.g.,\ D(v) = \min(D(v), D(w) + c(w,v))$$
$$= \min\{7, 3+3\} = 6$$

notes:

- construct shortest path tree by tracing predecessor nodes
- ties can exist (can be broken arbitrarily)



Dijkstra's algorithm: example



resulting forwarding table in u:

destination	link
v	(u,w)
x	(u,x)
y	(u,w)
w	(u,w)
z	(u,w)

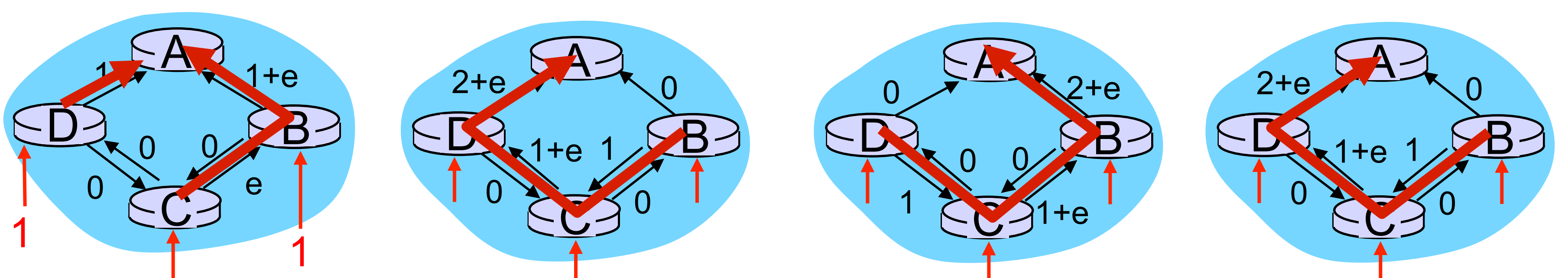
Dijkstra's algorithm, discussion

algorithm complexity: n nodes

- each iteration: need to check all nodes, w, not in N
- n(n+1)/2 comparisons: $O(n^2)$
- more efficient implementations possible: O(nlogn)

oscillations possible:

- e.g., support link cost equals amount of carried traffic:



initially | given these costs, find new routing…. resulting in new costs | given these costs, find new routing…. resulting in new costs | given these costs, find new routing…. resulting in new costs

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Distance vector algorithm

Bellman-Ford equation (dynamic programming)

let

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

then

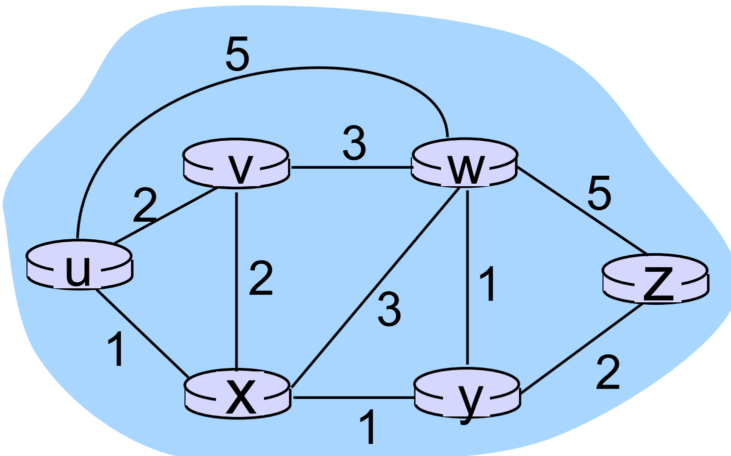
$$d_x(y) = \min_v \{c(x,v) + d_v(y)\}$$

cost from neighbor v to destination y

cost to neighbor v

min 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:

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_u(z) &= \min \{ c(u,v) + d_v(z), \\
&\qquad c(u,x) + d_x(z), \\
&\qquad c(u,w) + d_w(z) \} \\
&= \min \{2 + 5, \\
&\qquad 1 + 3, \\
&\qquad 5 + 3\} = 4
\end{aligned}
$$

node achieving minimum is next
hop in shortest path, used in forwarding table

Distance vector algorithm

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

Distance vector algorithm

key 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:

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

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

Distance vector algorithm

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:

wait for (change in local link cost or msg from neighbor)

recompute estimates

if DV to any dest has changed, *notify* neighbors

$D_x(y) = \min\{c(x,y) + D_y(y), c(x,z) + D_z(y)\}$
$= \min\{2+0 , 7+1\} = 2$

$D_x(z) = \min\{c(x,y) + D_y(z), c(x,z) + D_z(z)\}$
$= \min\{2+1 , 7+0\} = 3$

node x table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	7
y	∞	∞	∞
z	∞	∞	∞

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	3
y	2	0	1
z	7	1	0

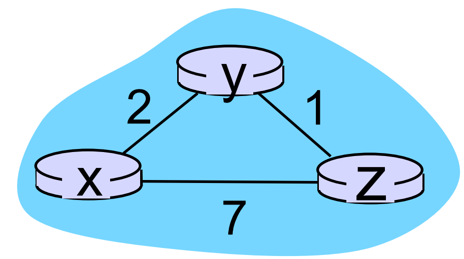
node y table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	∞	∞	∞
y	2	0	1
z	∞	∞	∞

node z table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	∞	∞	∞
y	∞	∞	∞
z	7	1	0

time



$$D_x(y) = \min\{c(x,y) + D_y(y),\ c(x,z) + D_z(y)\} = \min\{2+0\ ,\ 7+1\} = 2$$

$$D_x(z) = \min\{c(x,y) + D_y(z),\ c(x,z) + D_z(z)\} = \min\{2+1\ ,\ 7+0\} = 3$$

node x table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	7
y	∞	∞	∞
z	∞	∞	∞

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	3
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z	7	1	0

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	3
y	2	0	1
z	3	1	0

node y table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	∞	∞	∞
y	2	0	1
z	∞	∞	∞

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	7
y	2	0	1
z	7	1	0

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	3
y	2	0	1
z	3	1	0

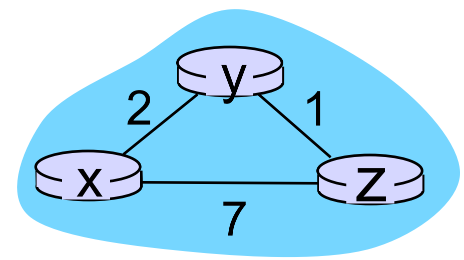
node z table

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	∞	∞	∞
y	∞	∞	∞
z	7	1	0

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	7
y	2	0	1
z	3	1	0

from \ cost to	x	y	z
x	0	2	3
y	2	0	1
z	3	1	0

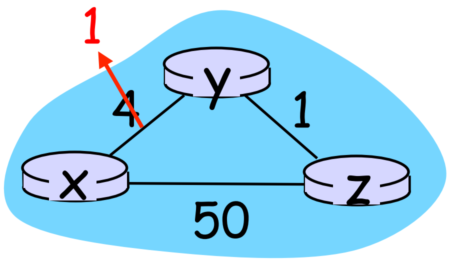
time →



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"

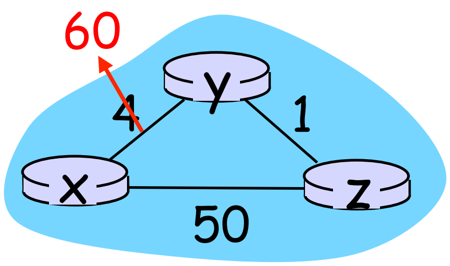
t_0 : *y* detects link-cost change, updates its DV, informs its neighbors.

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 *z*'s update, updates its distance table. *y*'s least costs do *not* change, so *y* does *not* send a message to *z*.

Distance vector: link cost changes

link cost changes:



- node detects local link cost change
- *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
- ***DV:*** exchange between neighbors only
  - convergence time varies

speed of convergence

- ***LS:*** $O(n^2)$ 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

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Hierarchical routing

our routing study thus far - idealization

- all routers identical
- network "flat"

… *not* true in practice

scale: with 600 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

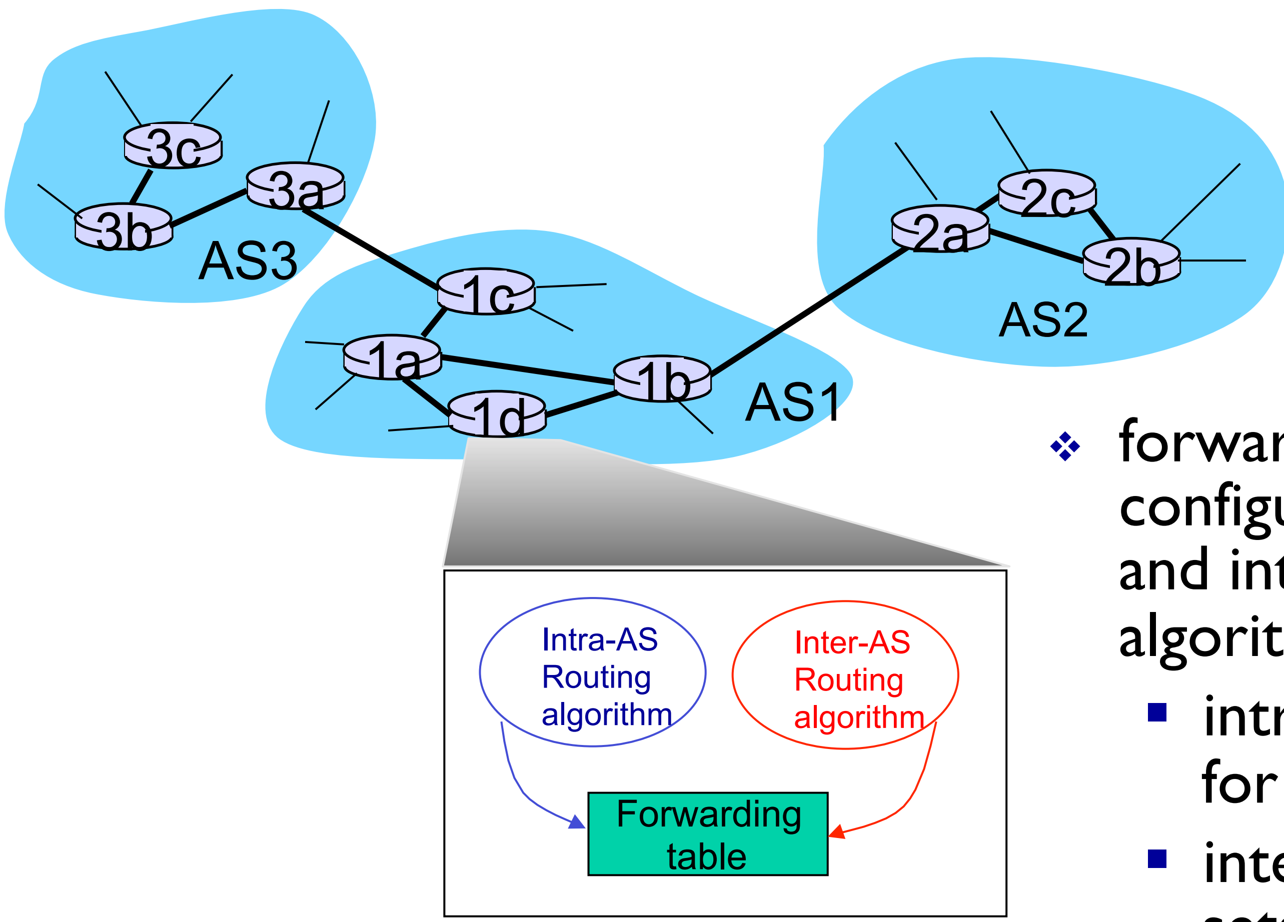
Hierarchical routing

- collect routers into regions, "autonomous systems" (AS)
- Each AS within an ISP
  - ISP may consist of one or more ASes
- 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

Interconnected ASes



- forwarding table configured by both intra- and inter-AS routing algorithm
  - intra-AS sets entries for internal dests
  - inter-AS & intra-AS sets entries for external dests

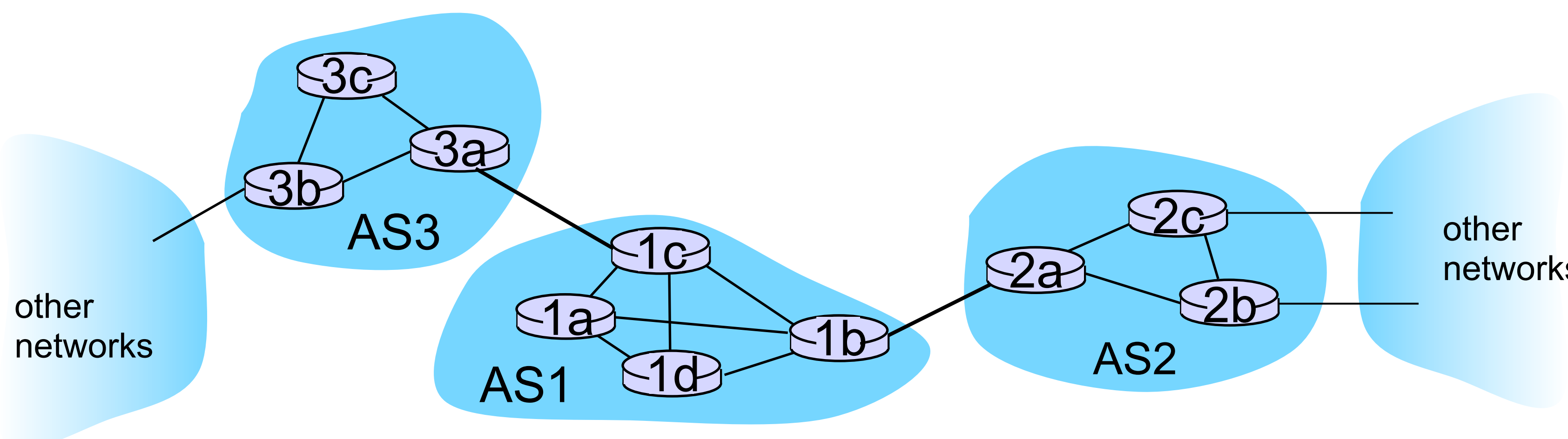
Inter-AS tasks

- suppose router in AS1 receives datagram destined outside of AS1:
  - router should forward packet to gateway router, but which one?

AS1 must:

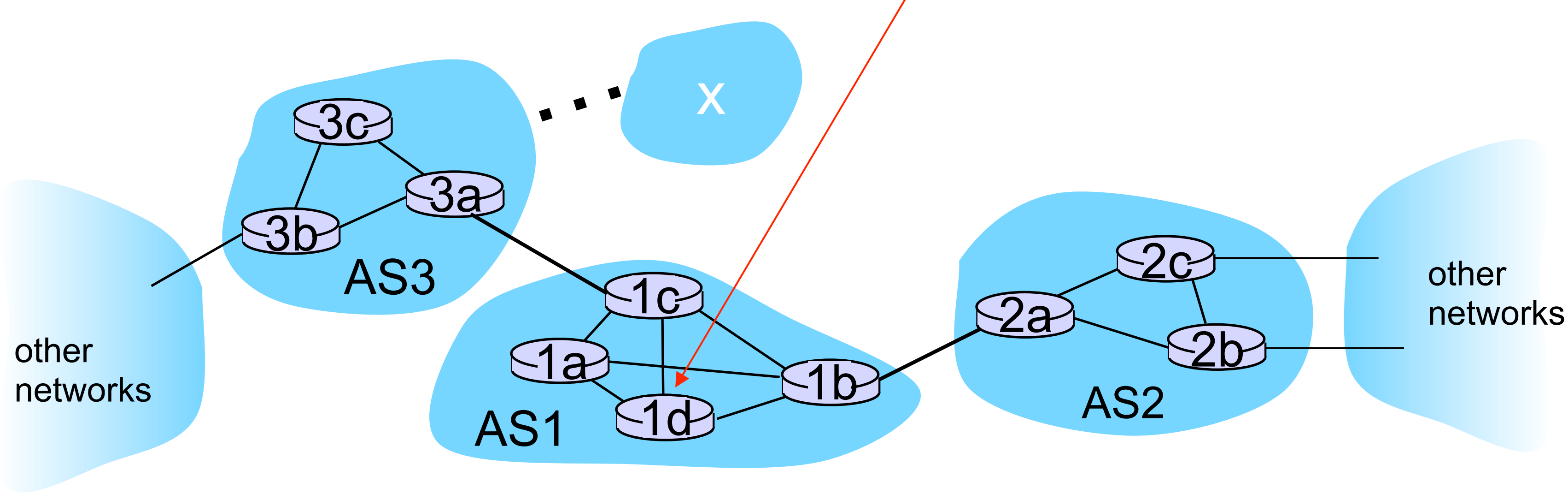
1. learn which dests are reachable through AS2, which through AS3
2. propagate this reachability info to all routers in AS1

job of inter-AS routing!



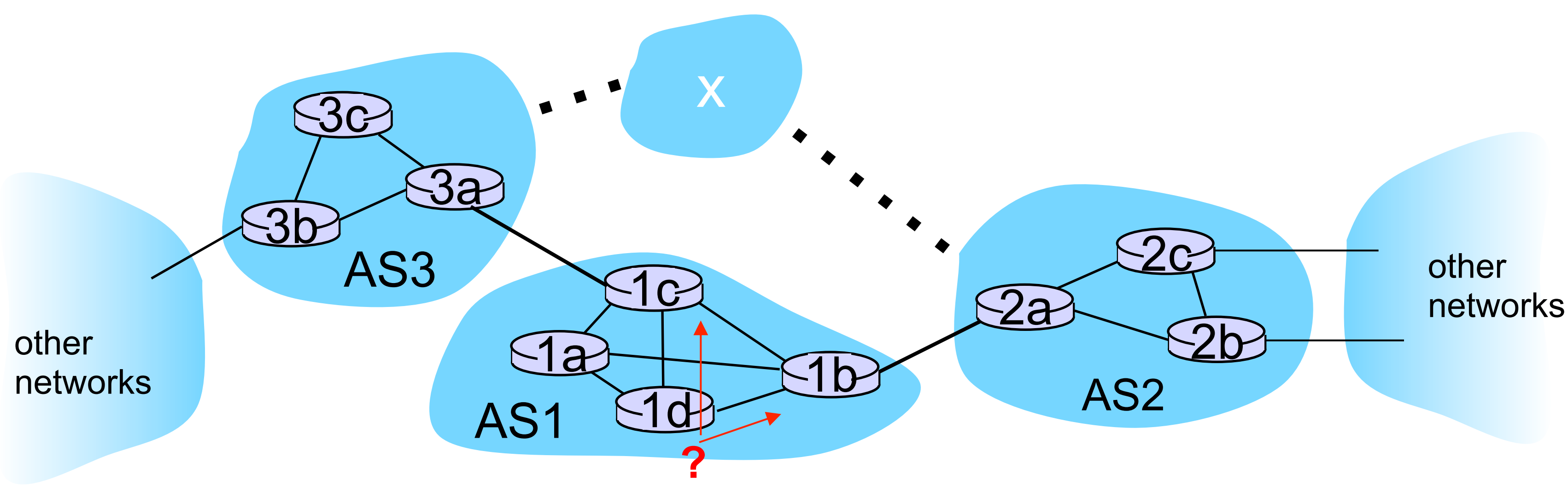
Example: setting forwarding table in router 1d

- suppose AS1 learns (via inter-AS protocol) that subnet *x* 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)*



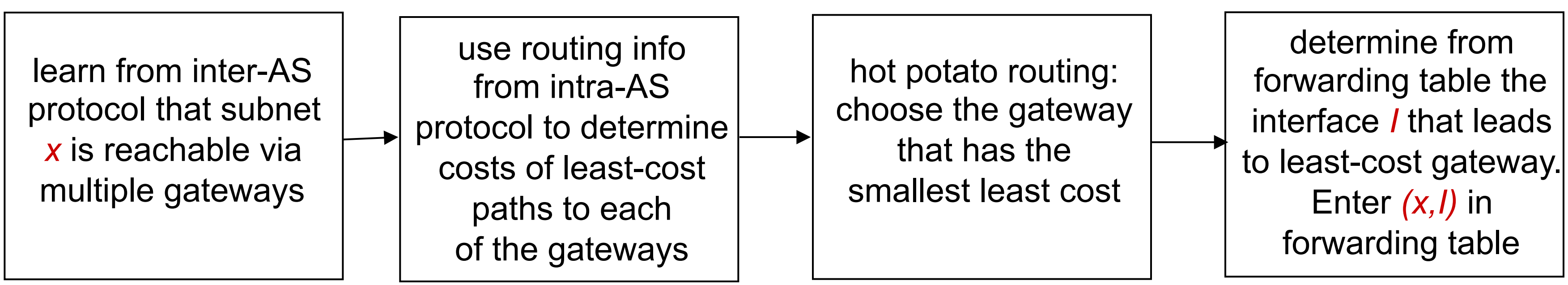
Example: choosing among multiple ASes

- 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 towards which gateway it should forward packets 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.



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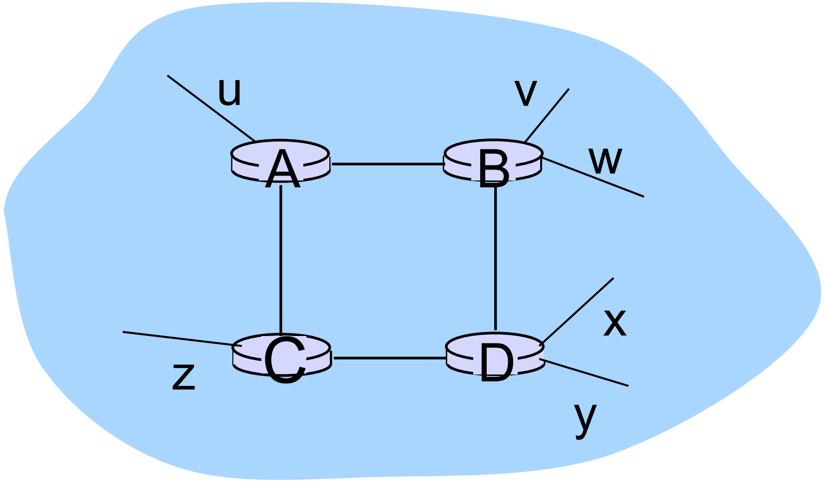
Intra-AS Routing

- 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)

RIP (Routing Information Protocol)

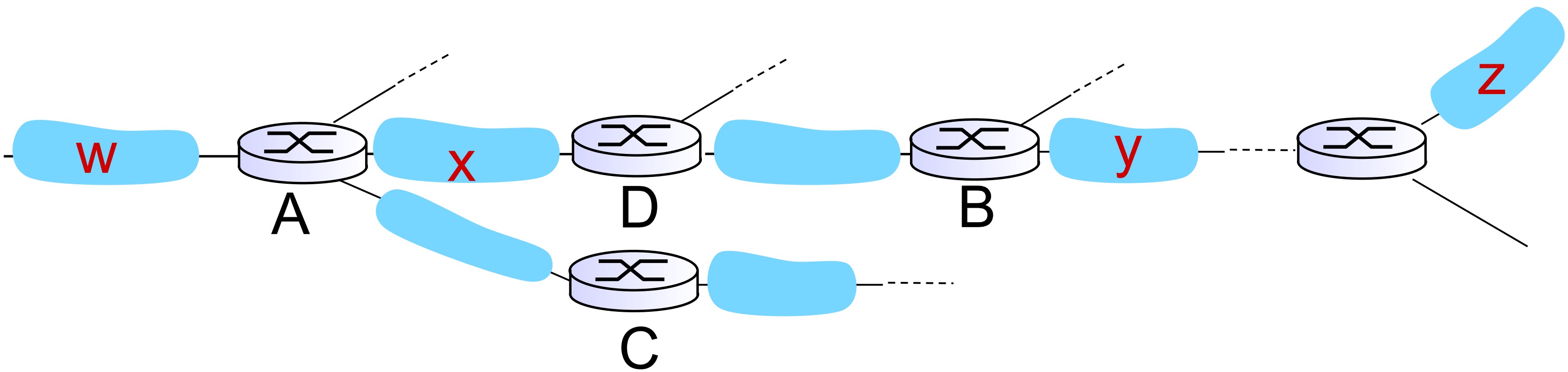
- included in BSD-UNIX distribution in 1982
- distance vector algorithm
  - distance metric: # hops (max = 15 hops), each link has cost 1
  - DVs exchanged with neighbors every 30 sec in response message (aka advertisement)
  - each advertisement: list of up to 25 destination *subnets* *(in IP addressing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



from router A to destination *subnets:*

subnet	hops
u	1
v	2
w	2
x	3
y	3
z	2

RIP: example



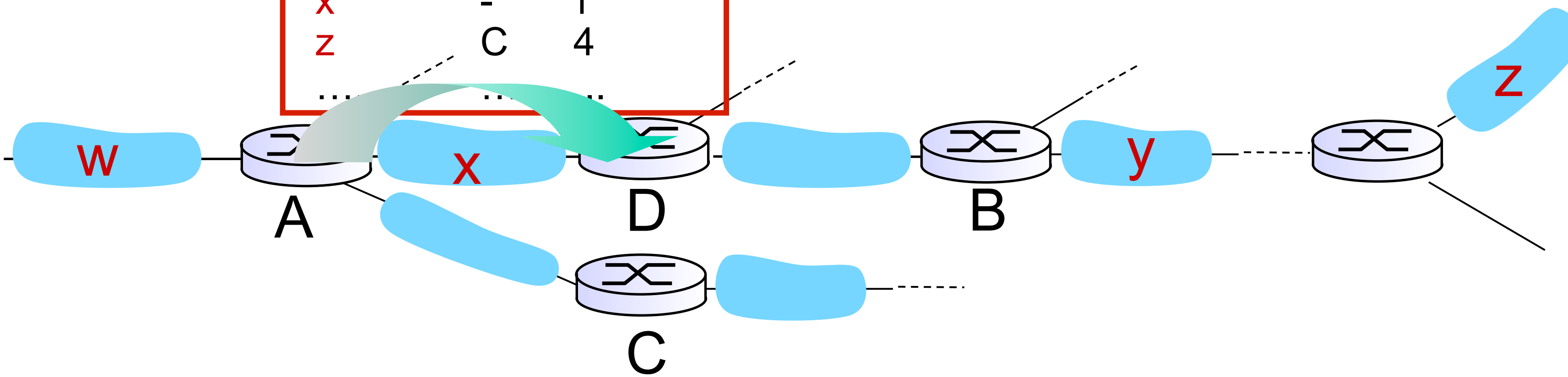
routing table in router D

destination subnet	next router	# hops to dest
w	A	2
y	B	2
z	B	7
x	--	1
….	….	….

RIP: example

A-to-D advertisement

dest	next	hops
w	-	1
x	-	1
z	C	4
….	….	..



routing table in router D

destination subnet	next router	# hops to dest
w	A	2
y	B	2
z	~~B~~ A	~~7~~ 5
x	--	1
….	….	….

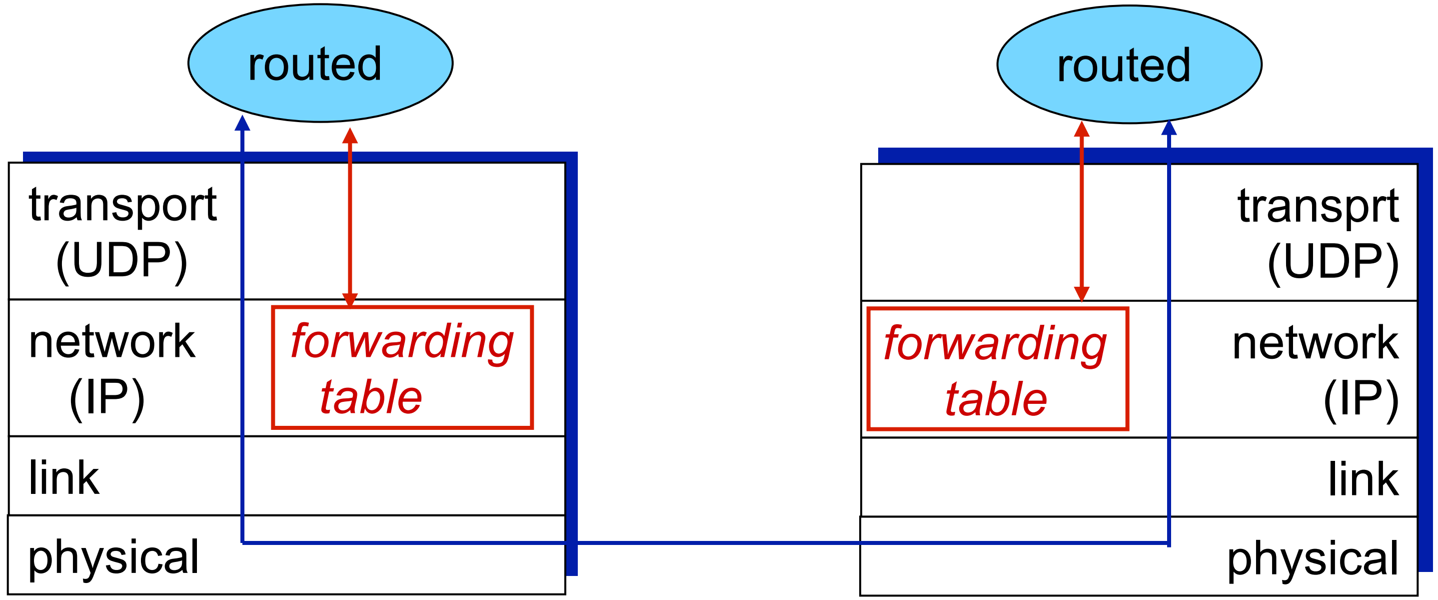
RIP: link failure, recovery

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)

RIP table processing

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



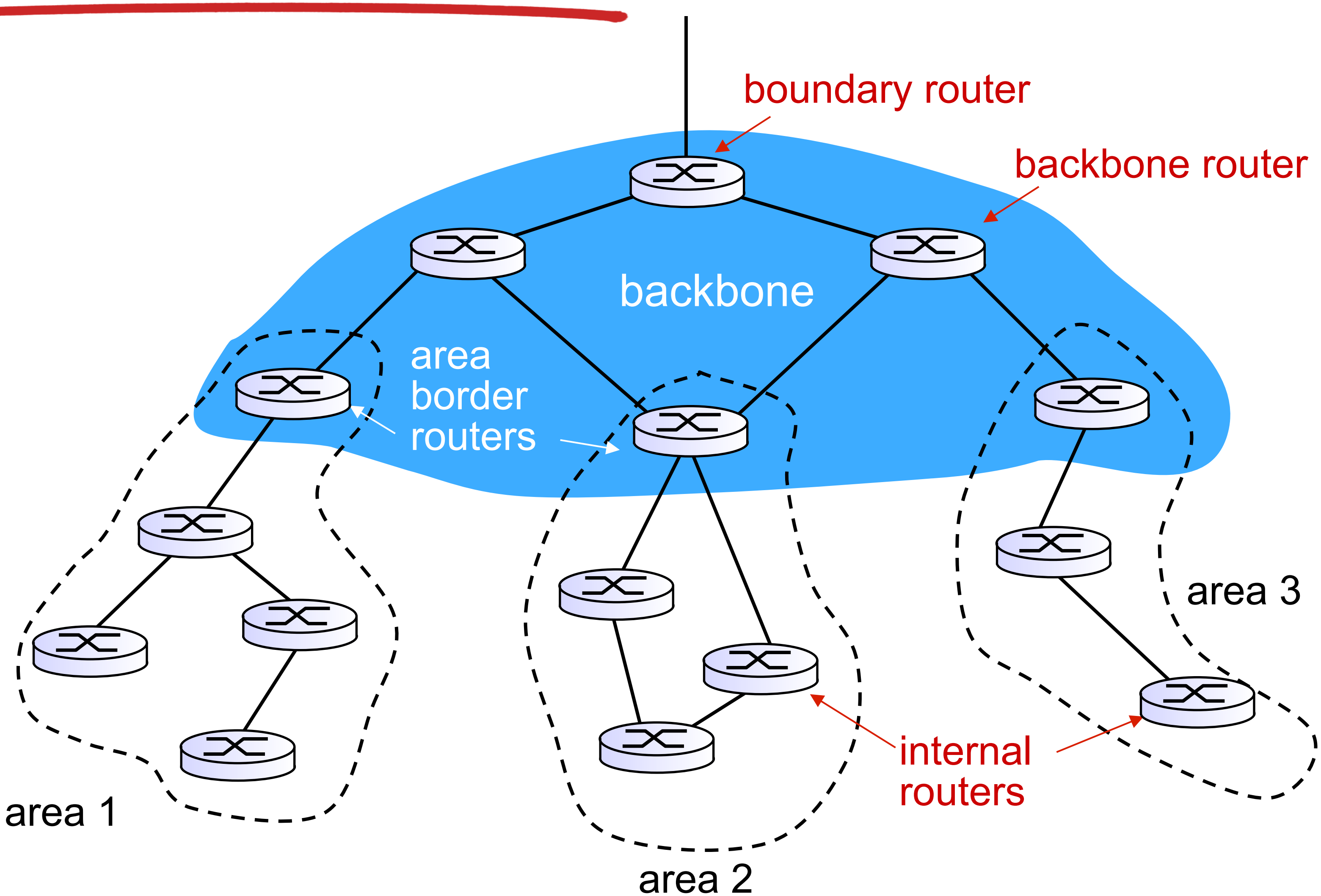
OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)

- "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
- advertisements flooded to *entire* AS
  - carried in OSPF messages directly over IP (rather than TCP or UDP)
- *IS-IS routing* protocol: nearly identical to OSPF

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



Hierarchical OSPF

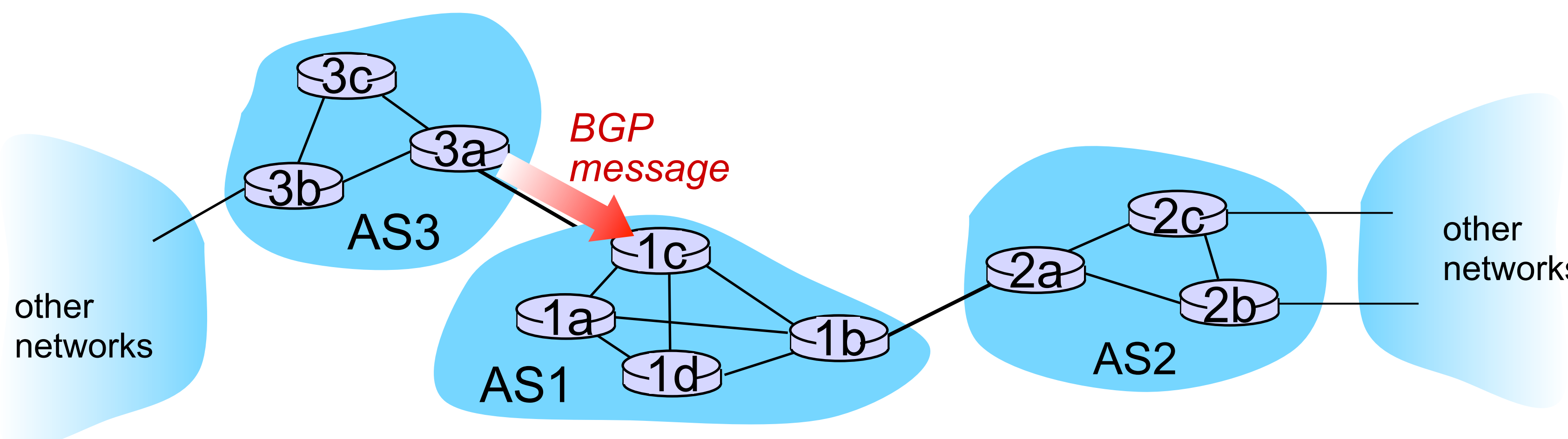
- *two-level hierarchy:* local area, backbone.
  - link-state advertisements only in area
  - each nodes has detailed area topology; only know direction (shortest path) to nets in other areas.
- *area border routers:* "summarize" distances to nets in own area, advertise to other Area Border routers.
- *backbone routers:* 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:
  - obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring AS's: eBGP
  - propagate reachability information to all AS-internal routers: iBGP
  - 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"*

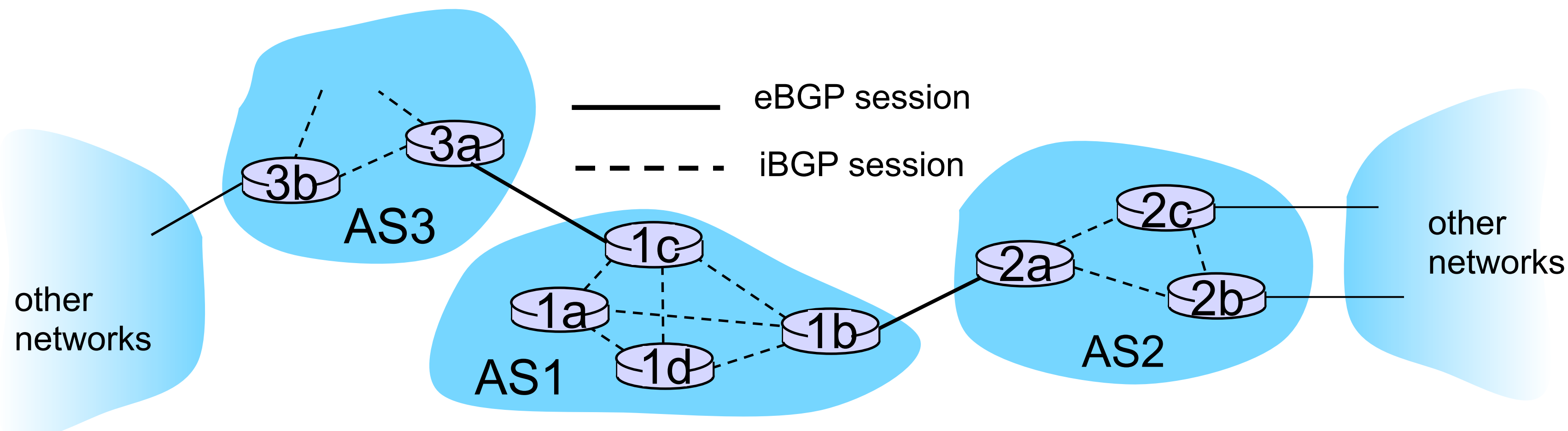
BGP basics

- 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 and 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: the IP address of the router interface that begins the AS PATH.
- 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 one route to destination AS, selects route based on:
  1. local preference value attribute: policy decision
  2. shortest AS-PATH
  3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
  4. additional criteria

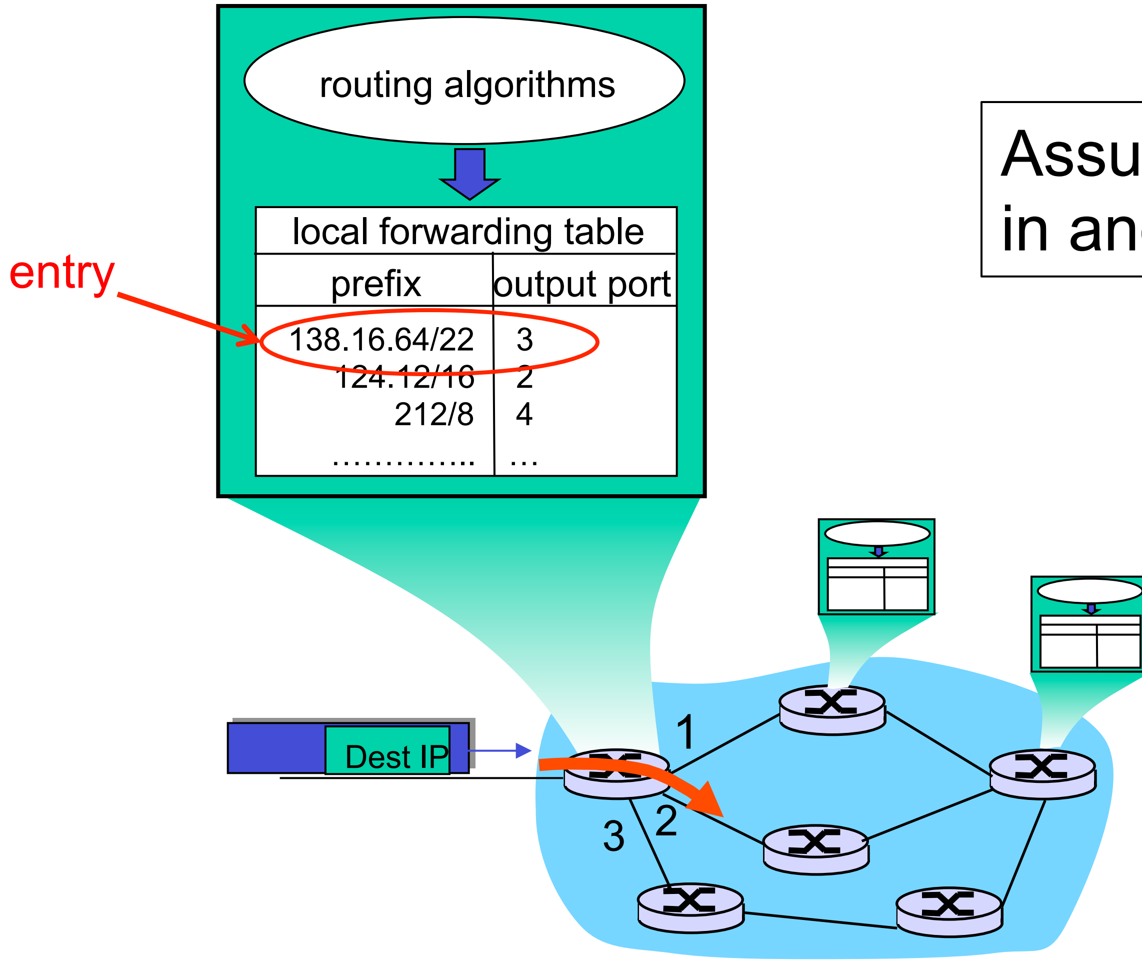
BGP messages

- 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

Putting it Altogether: *How Does an Entry Get Into a Router's Forwarding Table?*

- Answer is complicated!
- Ties together hierarchical routing (Section 4.5.3) with BGP (4.6.3) and OSPF (4.6.2).
- Provides nice overview of BGP!

How does entry get in forwarding table?



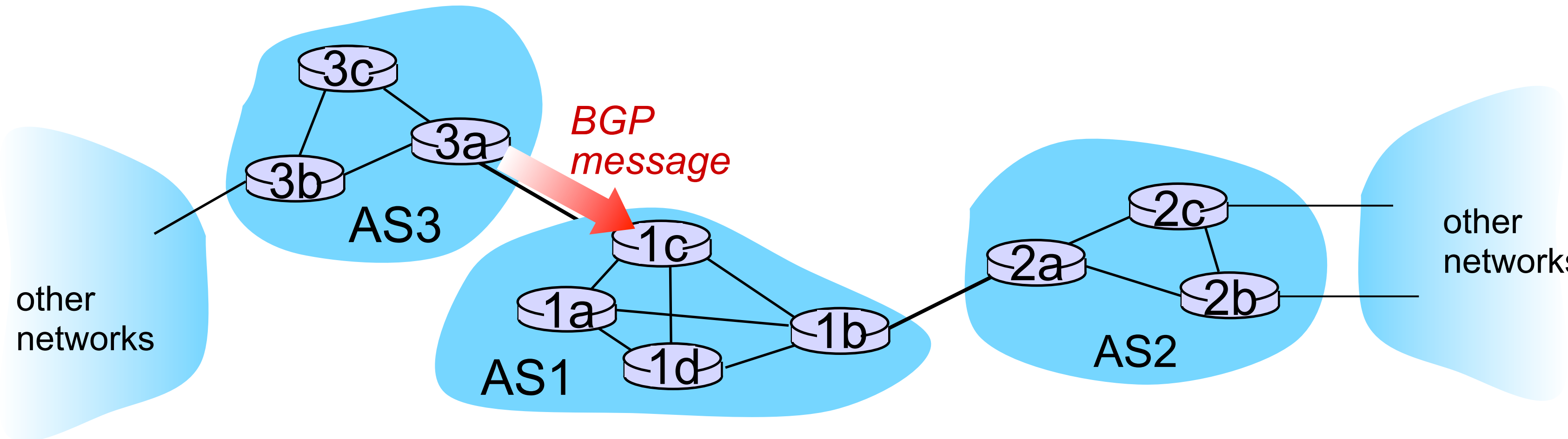
Assume prefix is in another AS.

How does entry get in forwarding table?

High-level overview

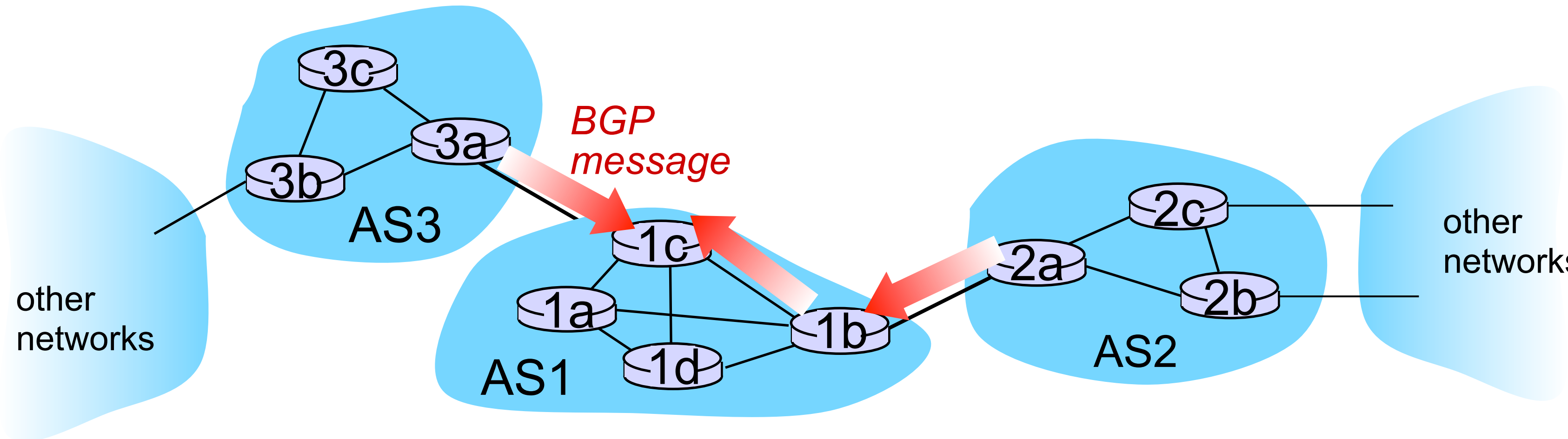
1. Router becomes aware of prefix
2. Router determines output port for prefix
3. Router enters prefix-port in forwarding table

Router becomes aware of prefix



- BGP message contains "routes"
- "route" is a prefix and attributes: AS-PATH, NEXT-HOP, …
- Example: route:
  - Prefix:138.16.64/22 ; AS-PATH: AS3 AS131 ; NEXT-HOP: 201.44.13.125

Router may receive multiple routes



- Router may receive multiple routes for <u>same</u> prefix
- Has to select one route

Select best BGP route to prefix

- Router selects route based on shortest AS-PATH

- Example:

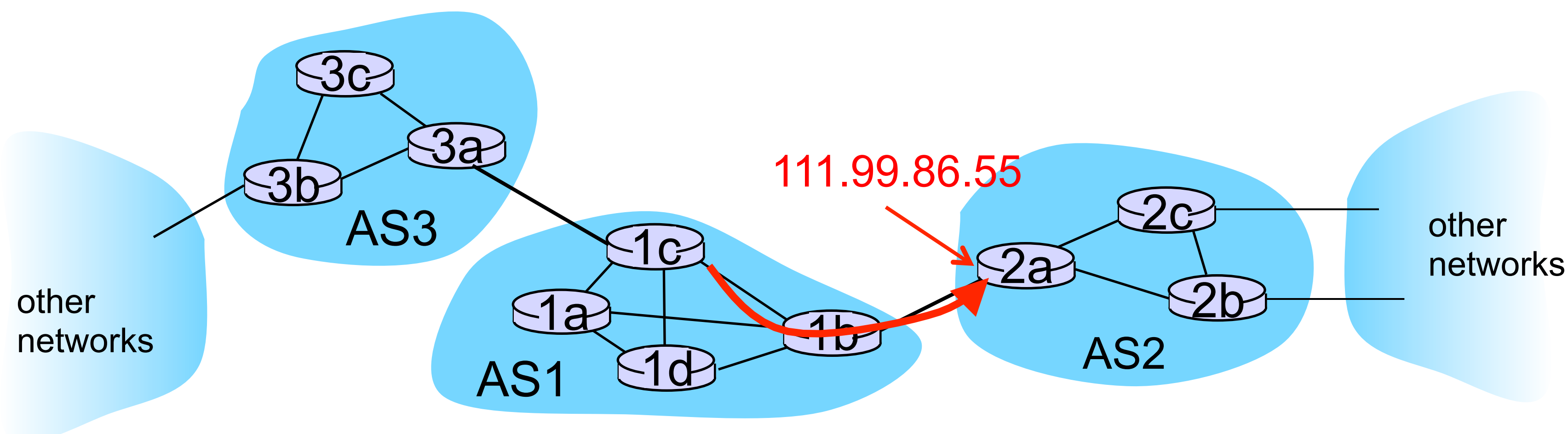
  select

  - AS2 AS17 to 138.16.64/22
  - AS3 AS131 AS201 to 138.16.64/22

- What if there is a tie? We'll come back to that!

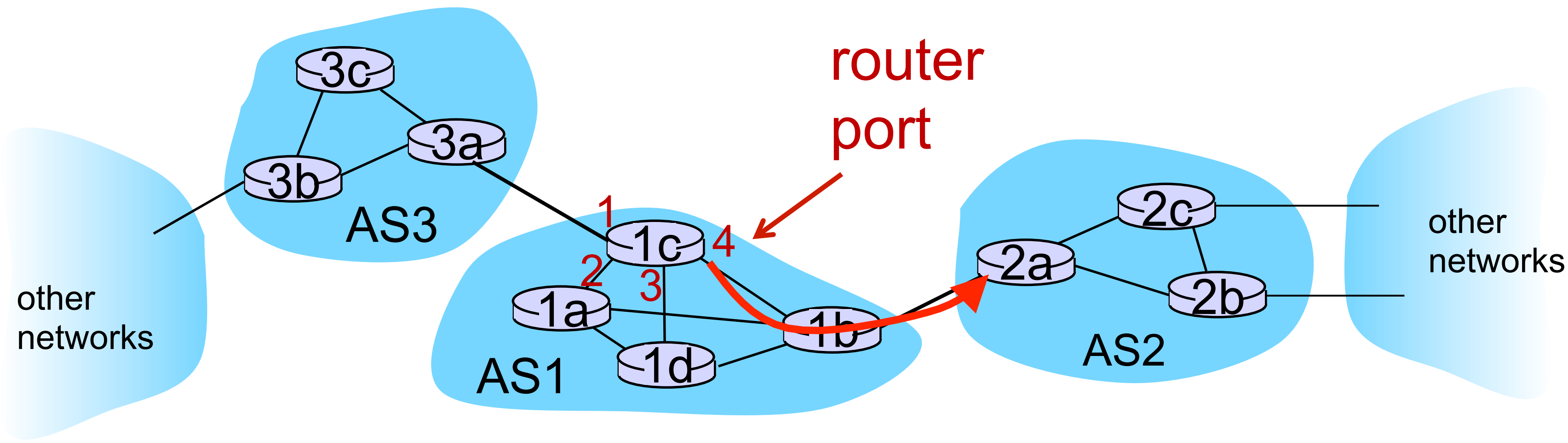
Find best intra-route to BGP route

- Use selected route's NEXT-HOP attribute
  - Route's NEXT-HOP attribute is the IP address of the router interface that begins the AS PATH.
- Example:
  - AS-PATH: AS2 AS17 ; NEXT-HOP: 111.99.86.55
- Router uses OSPF to find shortest path from 1c to 111.99.86.55



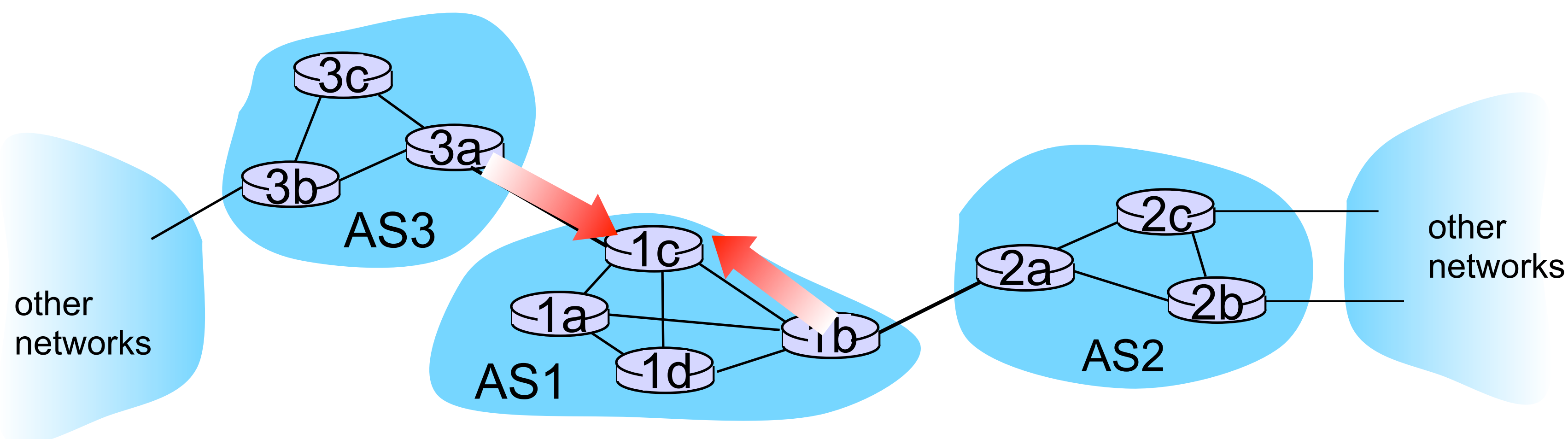
Router identifies port for route

- Identifies port along the OSPF shortest path
- Adds prefix-port entry to its forwarding table:
  - (138.16.64/22 , port 4)



Hot Potato Routing

- Suppose there two or more best inter-routes.
- Then choose route with closest NEXT-HOP
  - Use OSPF to determine which gateway is closest
  - Q: From 1c, chose AS3 AS131 or AS2 AS17?
  - A: route AS3 AS201 since it is closer

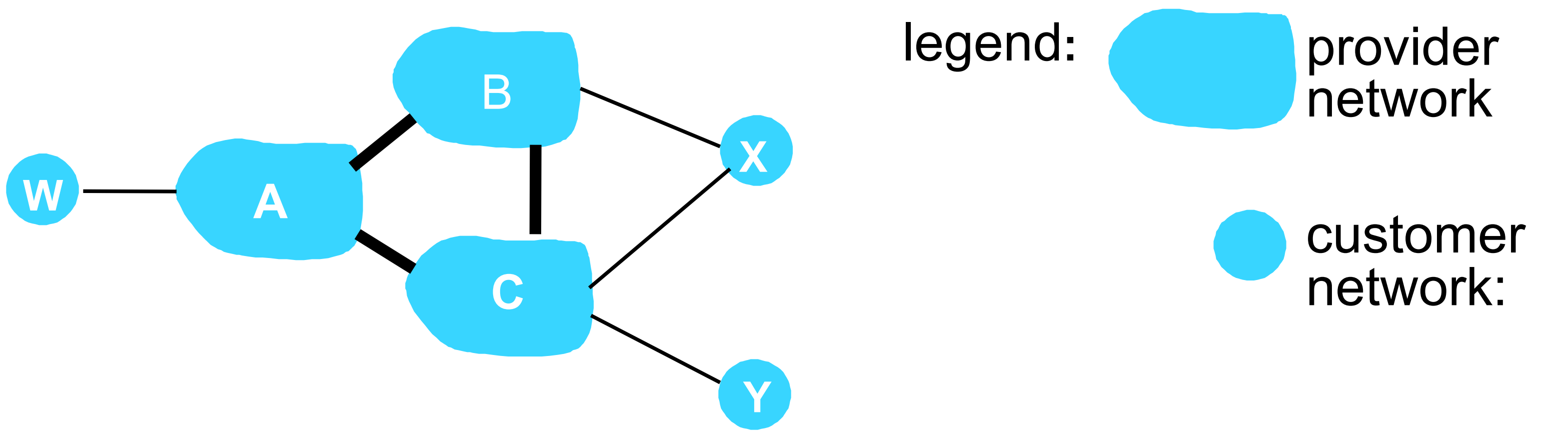


How does entry get in forwarding table?

Summary

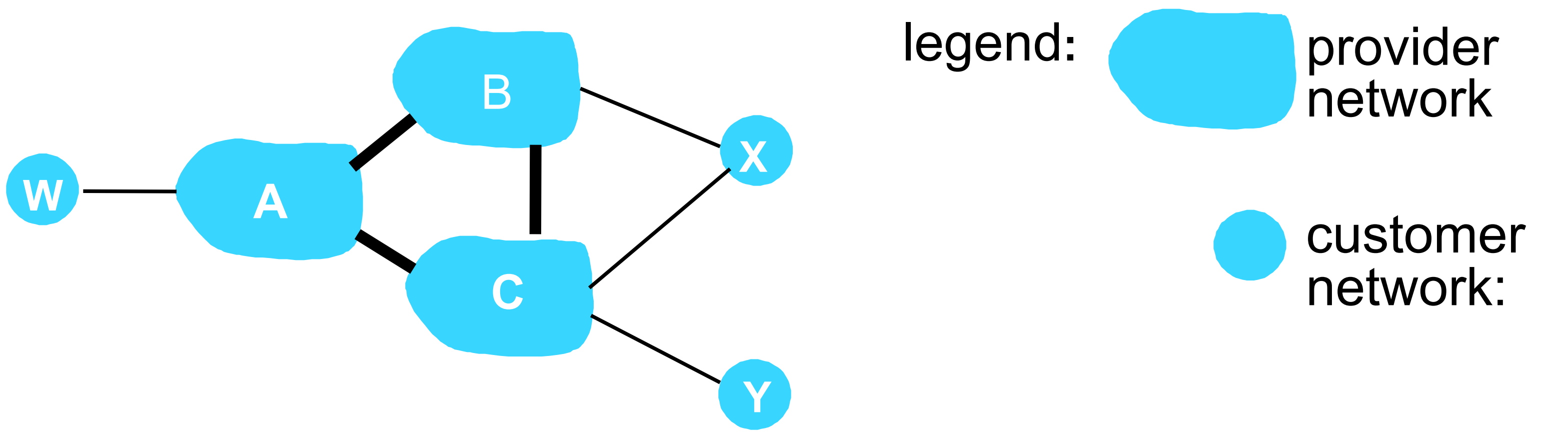
1. Router becomes aware of prefix
   - via BGP route advertisements from other routers
2. Determine router output port for prefix
   - Use BGP route selection to find best inter-AS route
   - Use OSPF to find best intra-AS route leading to best inter-AS route
   - Router identifies router port for that best route
3. Enter prefix-port entry in forwarding table

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

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-, 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

Chapter 4: outline

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

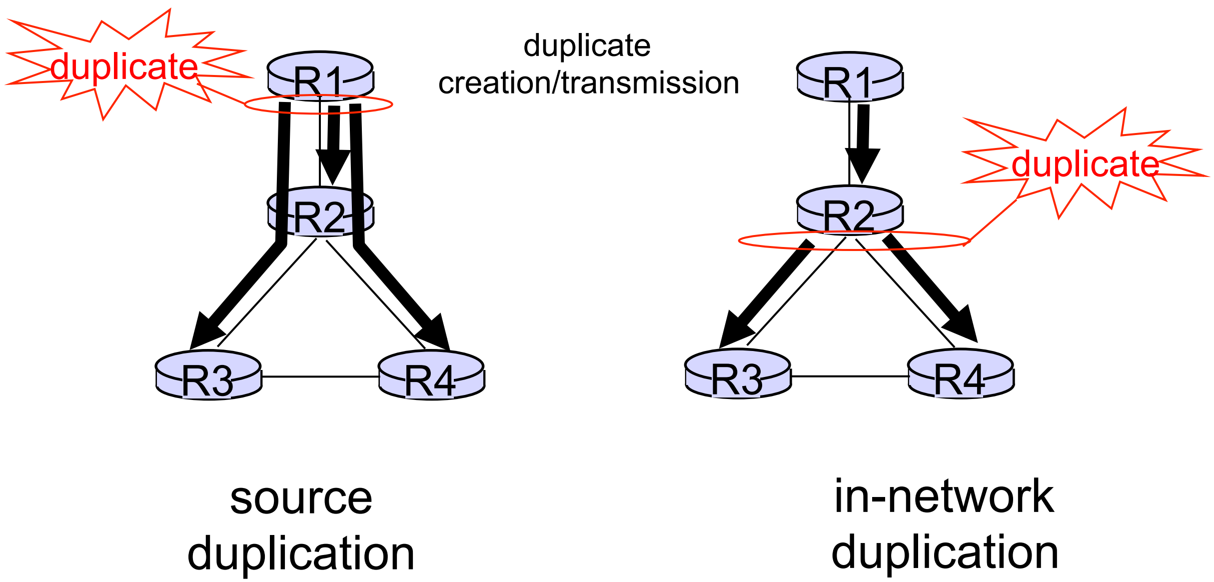
4.5 routing algorithms
- link state
- distance vector
- hierarchical routing

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:



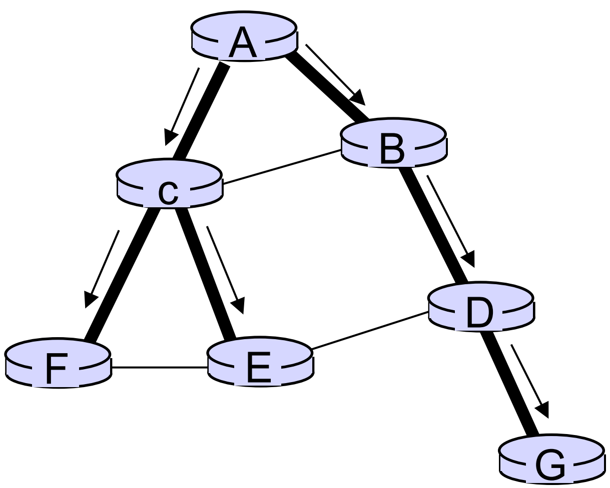
- source duplication: how does source determine recipient addresses?

In-network duplication

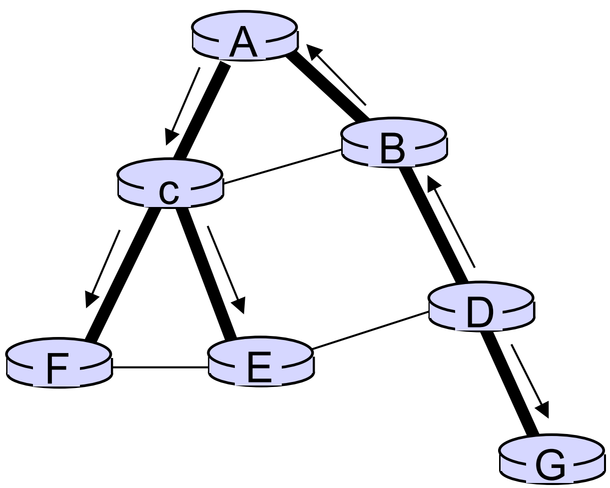
- *flooding:* when node receives broadcast packet, sends copy to all neighbors
  - problems: cycles & broadcast storm
- *controlled flooding:* node only broadcasts pkt if it hasn't broadcast same packet before
  - node keeps track of packet ids already broadacsted
  - or reverse path forwarding (RPF): 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 then forward/make copies only along spanning tree



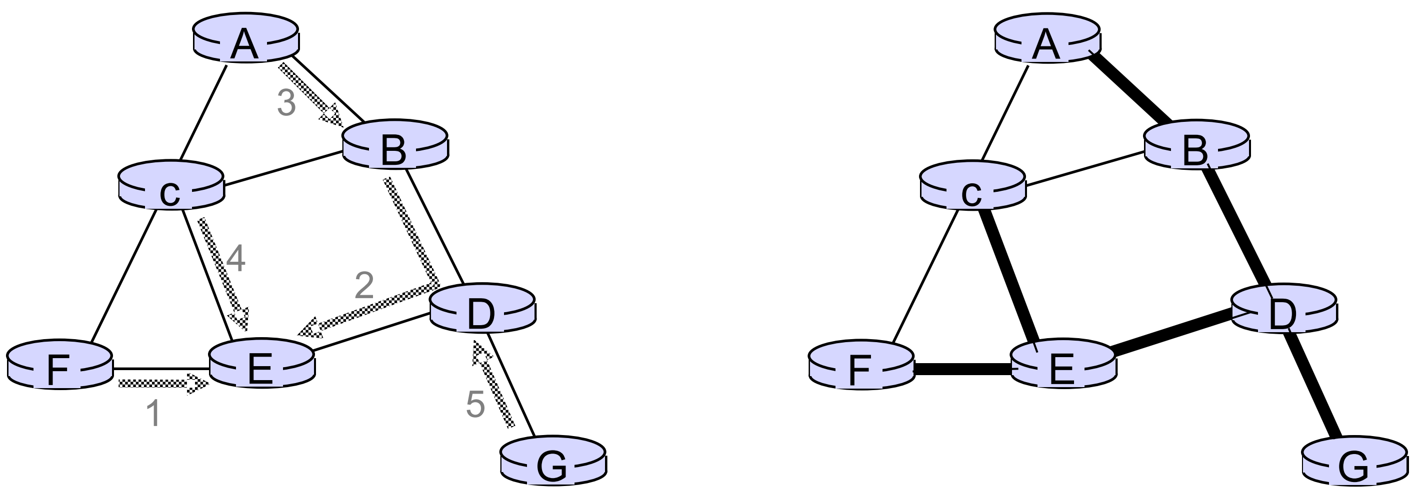
(a) broadcast initiated at A



(b) broadcast initiated at D

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



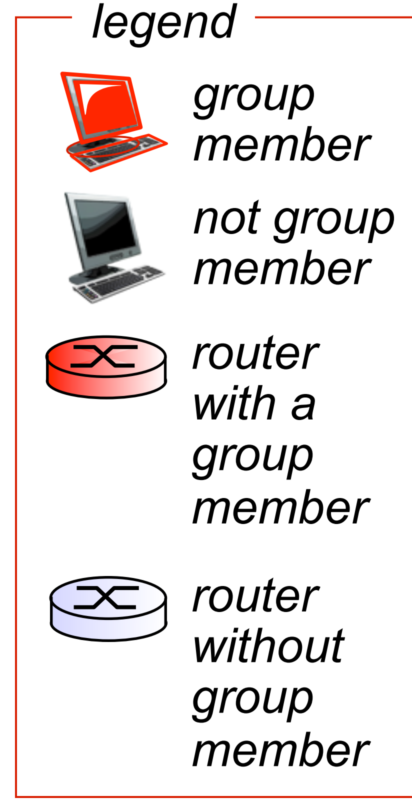
(a) stepwise construction of spanning tree (center: E)

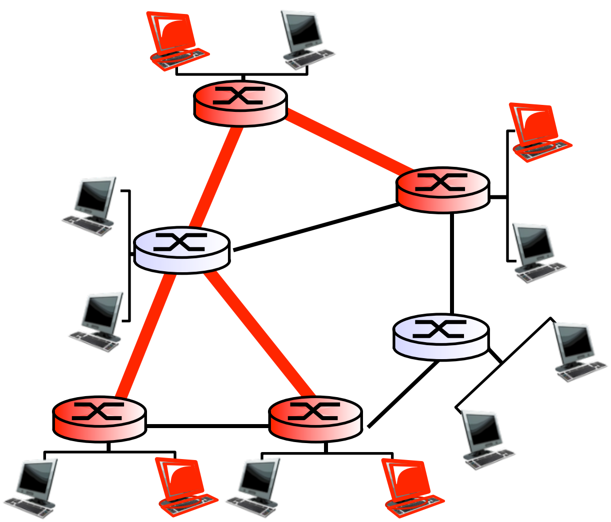
(b) constructed spanning tree

Multicast routing: problem statement

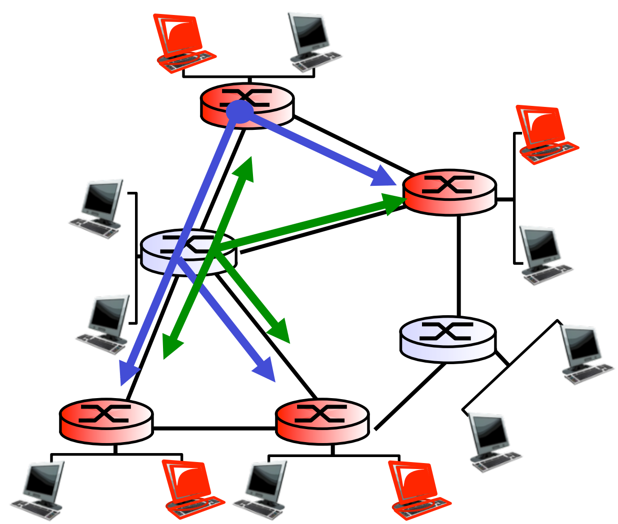
goal: find a tree (or trees) connecting routers having local mcast group members

- *tree:* not all paths between routers used
- *shared-tree:* same tree used by all group members
- *source-based:* different tree from each sender to rcvrs





shared tree



source-based trees

Approaches for building mcast trees

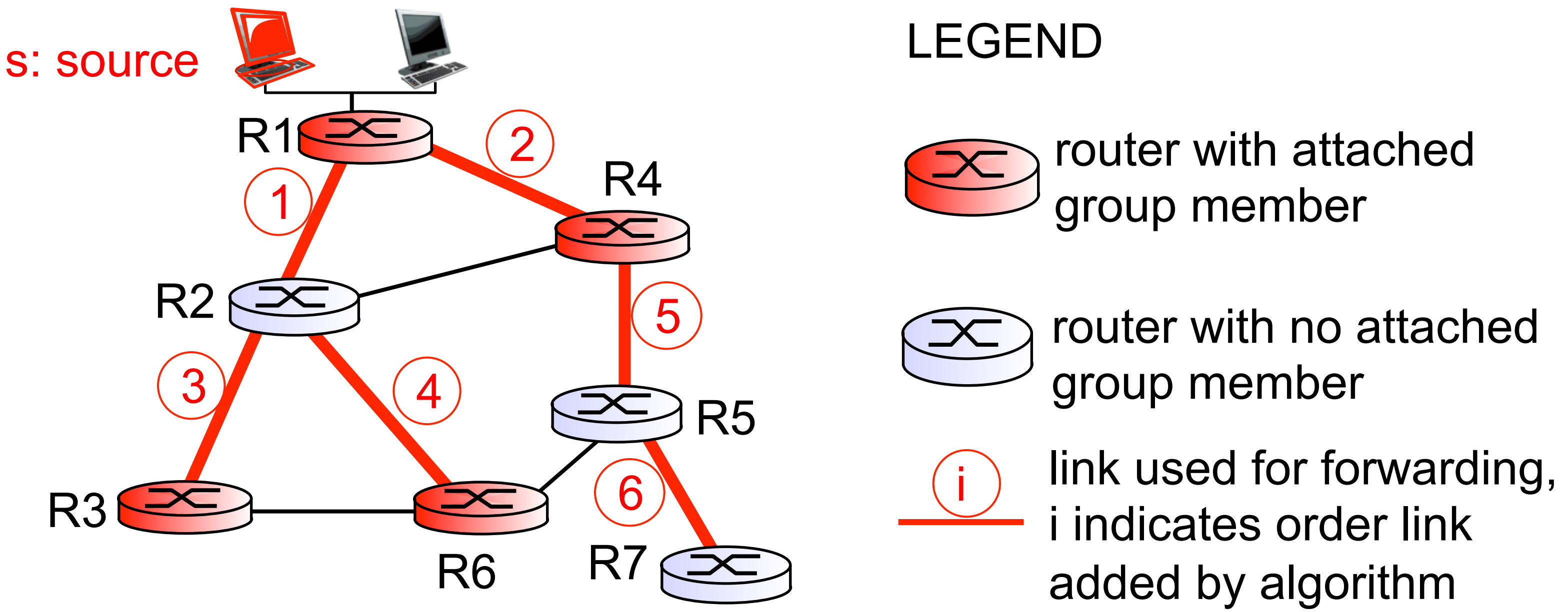
approaches:

- *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

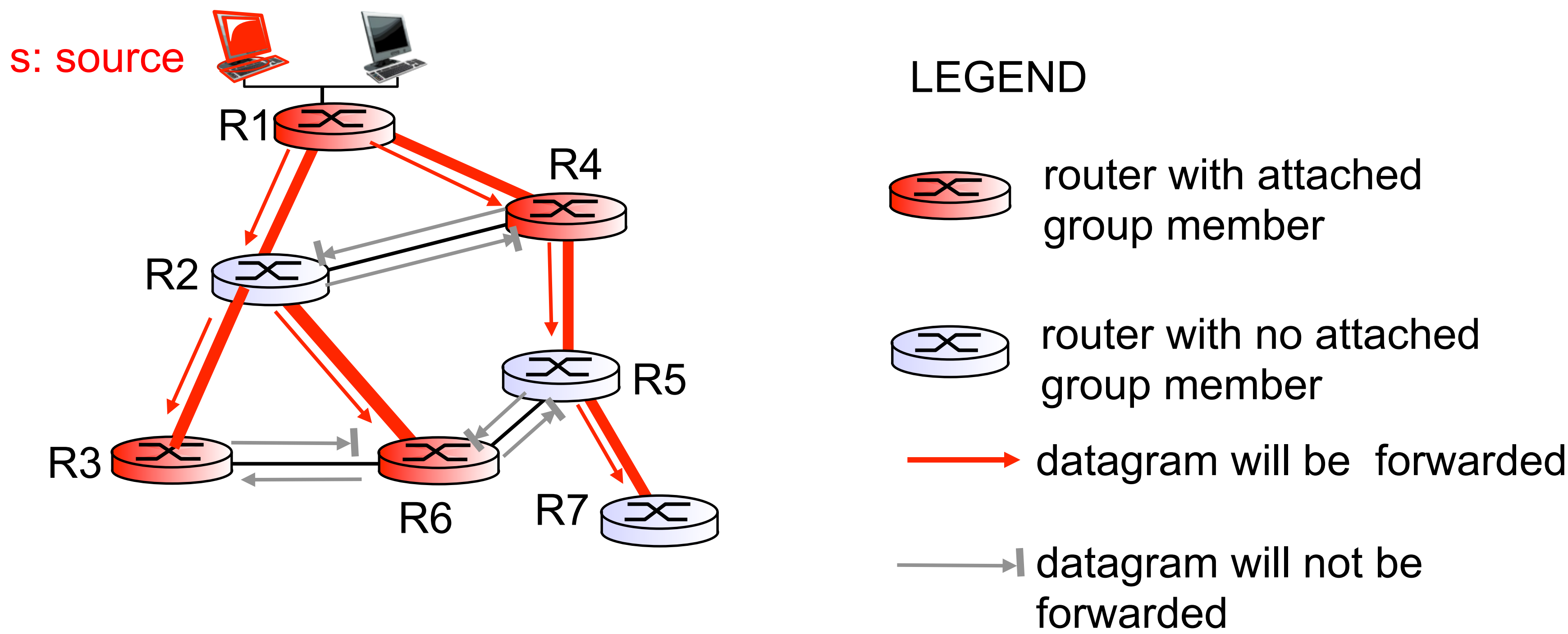


Reverse path forwarding

- 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

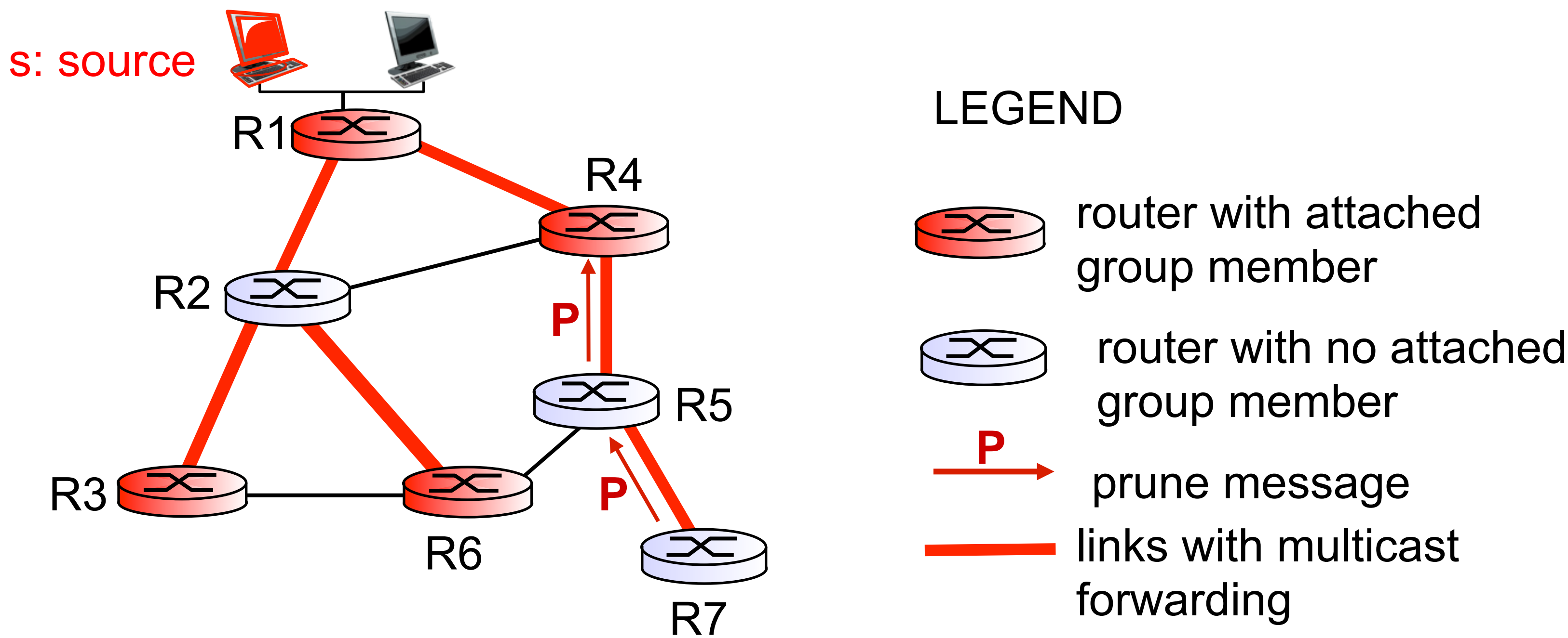
Reverse path forwarding: example



- 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

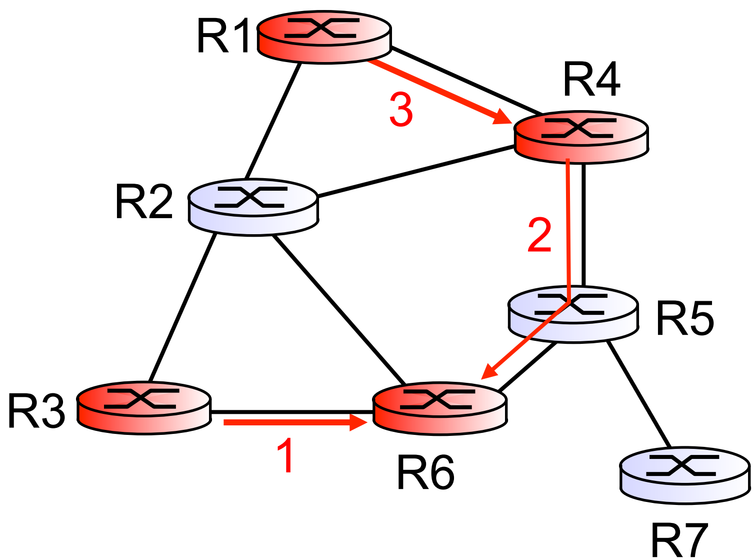
- *steiner tree:* minimum cost tree connecting all routers with attached group members
- problem is NP-complete
- excellent heuristics exists
- not used in practice:
  - computational complexity
  - information about entire network needed
  - monolithic: rerun whenever a router needs to join/ leave

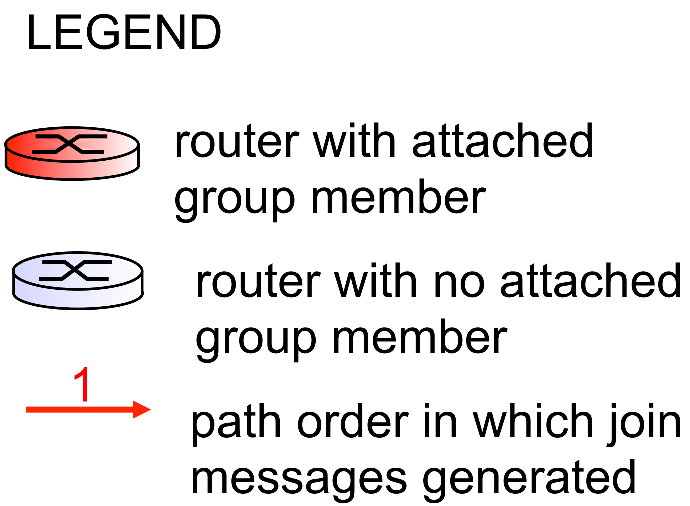
Center-based trees

- 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: example

suppose R6 chosen as center:





Internet Multicasting Routing: DVMRP

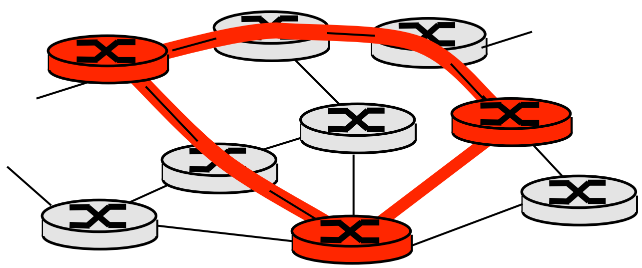
- DVMRP: distance vector multicast routing protocol, RFC1075
- *flood and prune:* reverse path forwarding, source-based tree
  - RPF tree based on DVMRP's own routing tables constructed by communicating DVMRP routers
  - no assumptions about underlying unicast
  - initial datagram to mcast group flooded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

DVMRP: continued…

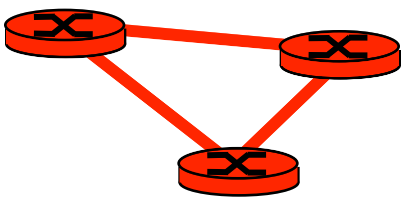
- *soft state:* DVMRP router periodically (1 min.) "forgets" branches are pruned:
  - mcast data again flows down unpruned branch
  - downstream router: reprune or else continue to receive data
- routers can quickly regraft to tree
  - following IGMP join at leaf
- odds and ends
  - commonly implemented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

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-multicast-addressed) datagram
- normal IP datagram sent thru "tunnel" via regular IP unicast to receiving mcast router (recall IPv6 inside IPv4 tunneling)
- 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
- *data-driven* construction on mcast tree (e.g., RPF)
- bandwidth and non-group-router processing *profligate*

sparse:

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

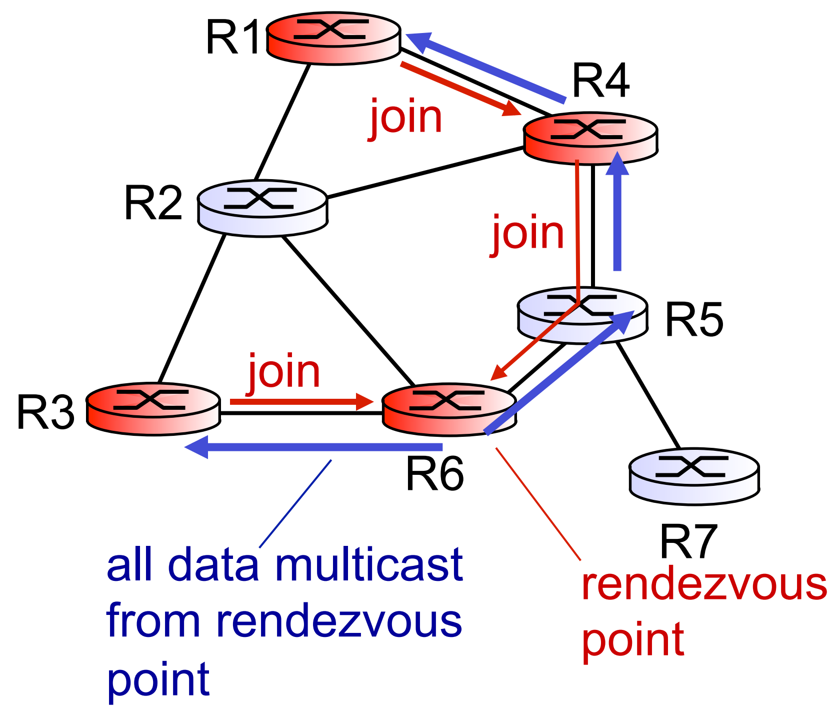
PIM- dense mode

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

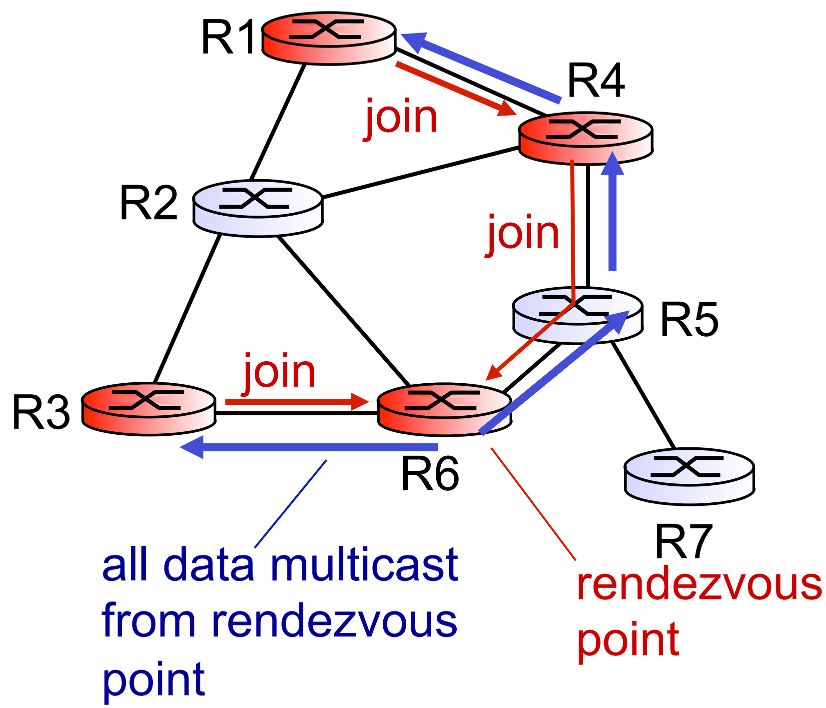
- center-based approach
- router sends *join* msg to rendezvous point (RP)
  - intermediate routers update state and forward *join*
- after joining via RP, router can switch to source-specific tree
  - increased performance: less concentration, shorter paths



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!"



Chapter 4: *done!*

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

- 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