CSEP 561 – Routing

David Wetherall djw@cs.washington.edu

Routing

- Focus:
 - How to find and set up paths through networks
- Distance-vector and link-state
- Shortest path routing
- Key properties of schemes
- Multicast

Application

Transport

Network

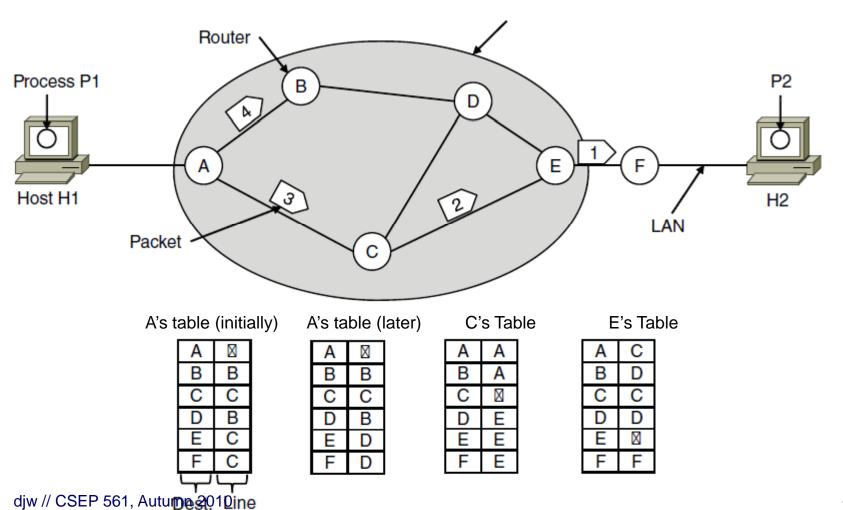
Link

Physical

Routing versus Forwarding

- Routing is the process by which all nodes exchange control messages to calculate the *routes* packets will follow
 - Distributed process with global goals; emphasis is correctness
 - Nodes build a routing table that models the global network
- Forwarding is the process by which a node examines packets and sends them along their *paths* through the network
 - Involves *local* decisions; emphasis is *efficiency*
 - Nodes distill a forwarding table from their routing table (keyed by packet attributes, e.g., address) that gives the *next hop*

Datagram Forwarding



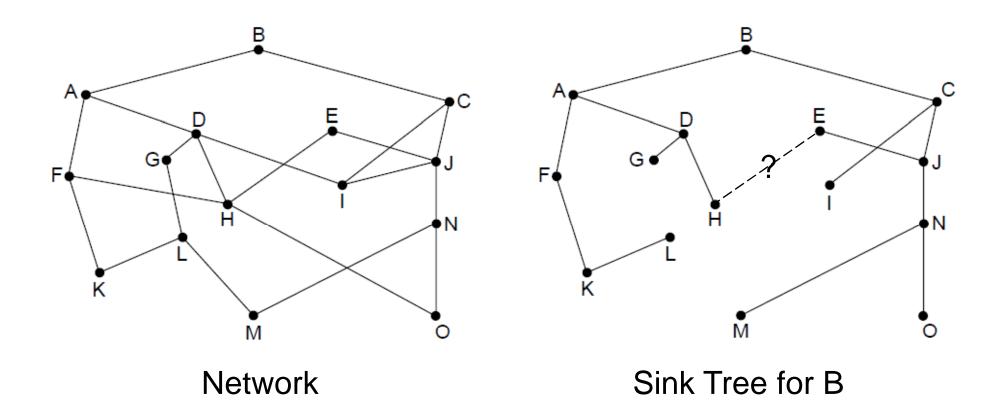
What is a "best" path anyhow?

- Ideally paths that:
 - Are as direct as possible (low latency)
 - Carry as much traffic as the network will fit (high bandwidth)
 - Carry traffic well for all of the nodes (fairness)
- This is a resource allocation problem with multiple constraints. Depends on topology and who sends how much traffic to who, which changes over time. Yikes!
- We want a simple, distributed solution

Lowest cost ("shortest path") routes

- Compute paths independently for different node pairs
 - Assign a cost or weight to each link
 - Find lowest total weight path between source/dest
- Typically costs are fixed
 - Does not take hotspots into account
 - Has simple subset optimality properties
- Costs usually set as a function of bandwidth and delay
 - Can tweak (traffic engineering) to match traffic to topology
 - More direct paths help with low latency and high bandwidth, so does a reasonable overall job

Sink trees



Equal-cost multi-path (ECMP)

- Generalization for load balancing
 - Allow multiple paths if they have the same lowest cost
- Single path lowest cost routing produces a spanning tree
- ECMP produces a directed acyclic graph
 - Still no possibility of loops
 - Simple for nodes: just keep a list of next hops
- Q: How to map traffic to the multiple paths?

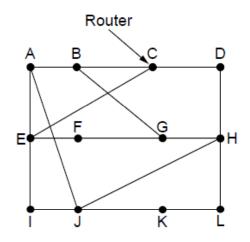
Two datagram routing methods

- Distance-vector and Link-state
- Scenario:
 - You're driving from Seattle to Boston.
 - Gas station attendants in each city will tell you which way to go next to head towards your destination. But how do they know?
- Link-state method:
 - Every attendant shares their local cities with all others, makes their own map of the US, and consults it to direct you
- Distance-vector method:
 - Every attendant tells their neighbors the mileage to all cities and keeps the best directions to direct you

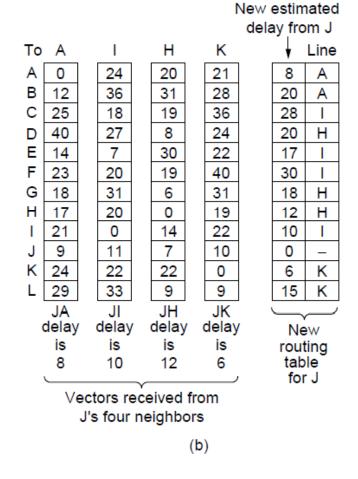
Distance Vector Algorithm

- Each router maintains a vector of costs to all destinations as well as routing table giving next hops
 - Initialize neighbors with known cost, others with infinity
- Periodically send copy of distance vector to neighbors
- On reception of a vector, if your neighbor's path to a destination plus cost to that neighbor cost is better
 - Update the cost and next-hop in your outgoing vectors
- Assuming no changes, will converge to shortest paths

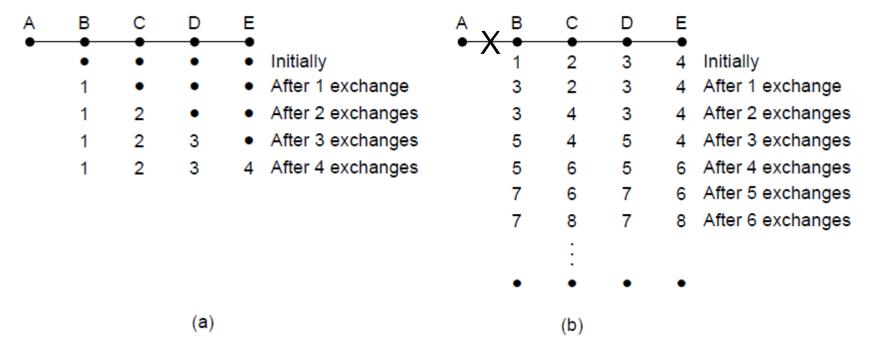
DV Example



(a)



DV problem -- dynamics



Desired convergence

"Count to infinity scenario"

DV problem -- dynamics

- Good news (better routes) propagate quickly
- Bad news (failures) propagate slowly
 - inferred by exploration
- Leads to "count to infinity" loops
 - Many heuristics (split horizon, poison reverse)
 - Takes ordered updates to eliminate (e.g., EGIRP uses diffusing computations) that are complicated and slow convergence
 - No great solutions
- No longer widely used except for resource constrained or legacy networks.

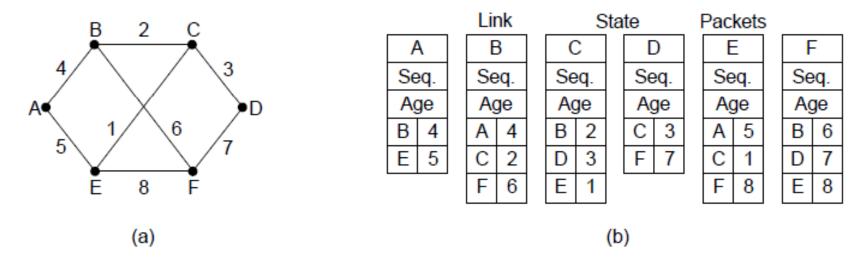
Routing Information Protocol (RIP)

- DV protocol with hop count as metric
 - Infinity value is 16 hops; limits network size
 - Includes split horizon with poison reverse
- Routers send vectors every 30 seconds
 - With triggered updates for link failures
 - Time-out in 180 seconds to detect failures
- RIPv1 specified in RFC1058
 - www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc1058.txt
- RIPv2 (adds authentication etc.) in RFC1388
 - www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc1388.txt

Link State Routing

- Same assumptions/goals, but different idea than DV:
 - Tell all routers the topology and have each compute best paths
 - Two phases:
 - 1. Topology dissemination (flooding)
 - 2. Shortest-path calculation (Dijkstra's algorithm)
- Why?
 - In DV, routers hide their computation, making it difficult to decide what to use when there are changes
 - With LS, faster convergence and hopefully better stability
 - It is more complex though ...

LS example database



- Q: what is the flooding rule to build the database?
- Q: how are shortest paths computed from the database?

Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)

- Widely-used Link State protocol today; see also ISIS
- Basic link state algorithms plus many features:
 - Authentication of routing messages
 - Extra hierarchy: partition into routing areas
 - Load balancing: multiple equal cost routes

Routing – desirable properties

- Correctness
- Network efficiency
- Network fairness
- Rapid convergence
 - To correct routes that are stable after changes, with minimal transient loss
- Scalability
 - Of messages and router state
 - Particularly an issue for large, mobile, or multicast networks

Example

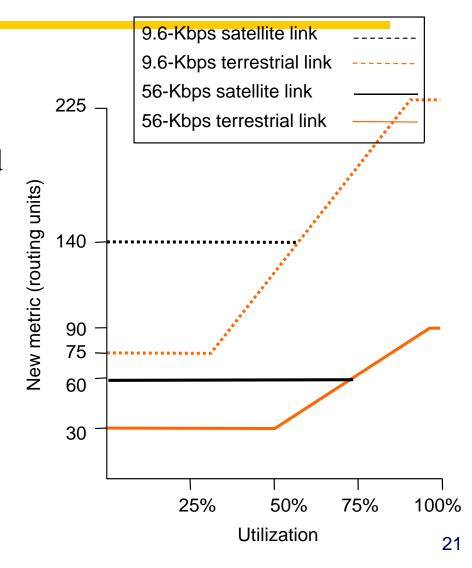
Property	Distance Vector	Link State
Correctness	Yes - Distributed Bellman Ford	Yes - Replicated shortest path
Efficiency	Approx- Least cost paths	Approx - Least cost paths
Fairness	Approx - Least cost paths	Approx - Least cost paths
Convergence	Slow – many exchanges	Fast – prop plus compute
Scalability	Good – O(1) per node/link	Moderate – at least O(edges)

Resource allocation timescales today

- From fast (very reactive) to slow (carefully planned)
 - Use of different timescales largely decouples mechanisms
- Congestion control
 - Adapts to packet loss; slows source
- Routing
 - Adapts to failures; finds paths with connectivity
- Traffic engineering
 - Typically manual route adjustments for cost/performance
- Provisioning
 - Build out network to match traffic workload

What didn't work: Revised ARPANET Cost Metric

- Based on load and link
- Variation limited (3:1) and change damped
- Capacity dominates at low load; we only try to move traffic if high load
- Early attempt to use routing for congestion control – not stable



Delivery models

- Unicast
 - single sender to single receiver
- Broadcast
 - Single sender to all receivers
- Multicast
 - Single sender to multiple (but not all) receivers (in a group)
- Anycast
 - Single sender to nearest receiver in a set

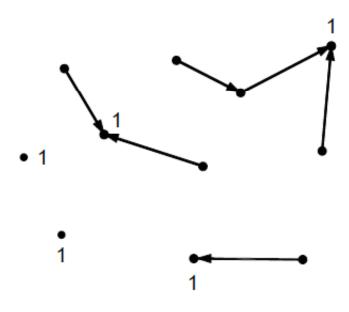
Broadcast with RPF

- Reverse Path Forwarding (RPF)
 - Simplest broadcast using unicast tables
- Given broadcast from source S. At each router:
 - Look up outgoing interface O to reach S.
 - If packet arrives on O then forward to all other interfaces
- Q: What assumptions does this make?
- Q: How does this compare to flooding?
- Alternative is construction of per-source broadcast trees
 - Often done in practice; not a big deal

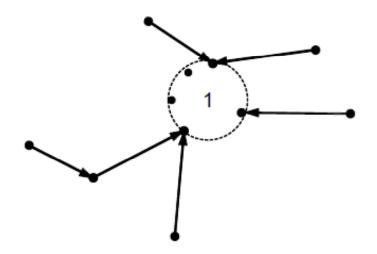
Anycast

- Simple extension for DV and LS algorithms
- Same destination "appears" at multiple places
 - Each router chooses the next hop with the lowest cost to the destination as before
- Used in the Internet for root nameservers
 - This is BGP routing across ISPs though, not within an ISP

Anycast example



Route to closest instance of "1"



Same thing viewed as a sink tree

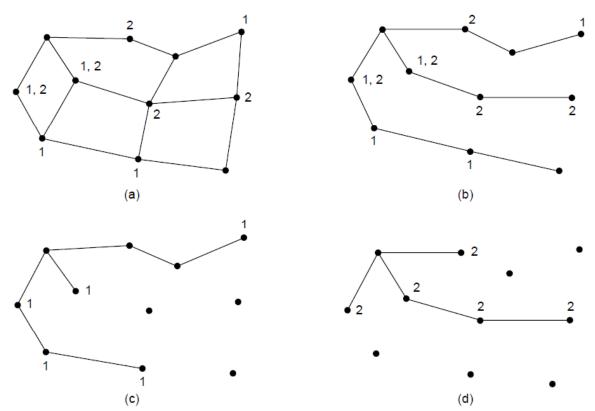
Multicast

- A long and checkered history:
 - Multicast is simple on LANs (just broadcast) and useful for service discovery ("Oi! Who is the printer here?")
 - Brilliant idea let's add it to the Interent
 - But it turned out to be complex, motivated by bandwidth efficiency, and lacking a killer application
 - Finally happening, given simpler schemes and apps like IPTV for an ISP and datacenter distribution

Multicast components

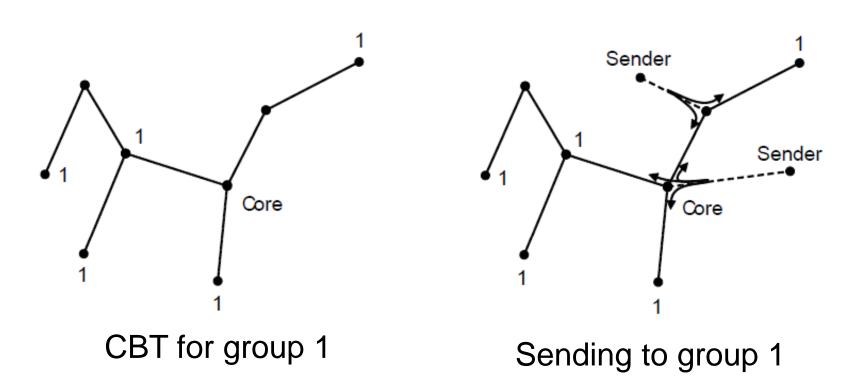
- Requires group membership management
 - To decide who is in the group of receivers
 - IGMP is used; hosts subscribe via routers
- Requires spanning trees to be computed
 - Key challenges are scalability and cross-ISP deployment
 - Handle dense and sparse cases separately
 - Dense: start with broadcast and prune a little
 - Sparse: make a tree just for nodes who need to know

Multicast – per sender, per group trees



(a) A network. (b) A spanning tree for the leftmost router. (c) A multicast tree for group 1. (d) A multicast tree for group 2.

Multicast – core-based trees (CBT)



• Only a single tree per group, and only nodes on CBT need to know about the group

RPF – question on multicast

- RPF is 1) simple, and 2) not bandwidth optimal.
 - Suitable for multicast where benefit 1 matters more than cost 2
- Adequate for low-bandwidth multicast (e.g., service discovery) to a good portion of the network
- Inadequate for high-bandwidth multicast (e.g., video) to a small portion of the network
- In practice, separate multicast routing preferred for efficiency and security

RPF – question on reliability

- Sources of packet loss:
 - Routing changes
 - Congestion
 - Transmission errors (rare except for wireless)
- Unicast versus broadcast
 - Above factors apply to unicast as well as broadcast
 - Broadcast seen at a single receiver not necessarily less reliable
 - Reliability added at higher levels for both, e.g., TCP
- Reliable broadcast
 - Significantly harder than reliable unicast (TCP)
 - Specialized protocols and techniques (NACKs, FEC, ...)

RPF – question on tradeoffs

- RPF is 1) simple, and 2) not bandwidth optimal.
 - Suitable for broadcast where benefit 1 matters more than cost 2
 - That is, low-bandwidth uses in simple networks
 - Not good for high-bandwidth uses
 - Not a big deal to use per-sender spanning tree in practice
- RPF provides unreliable broadcast
 - Specialized transport protocols needed for reliable broadcast