Communication Networks Spring 2022



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Materials inspired from Scott Shenker & Jennifer Rexford



Communication Networks Part 2: Concepts



routing

reliable delivery

Communication Networks Part 2: Concepts





How do you guide IP packets from a source to destination?



How do you ensure reliable transport on top of best-effort delivery?



reliable delivery

How do you guide IP packets from a source to destination?

Think of IP packets as envelopes



Like an envelope, packets have a header



Like an envelope, packets have a payload



The header contains the metadata needed to forward the packet



The payload contains the data to be delivered

Payload

<html><head> <meta http-equiv="content-type" content="text/html; charset=UTF-8"> <title>Google</title>

- </head><body>
-
 <form action="/search" name=f>
- <input name=hl type=hidden value=en>
- <input name=q size=55 title="Google Search" value="">
- <input name=btnG type=submit value="Google Search">
 <input name=btnI type=submit value="I'm Feeling Lucky">
- </form>
- </body></html>





Routers forward IP packets hop-by-hop towards their destination















Let's zoom in on what is going on between two adjacent routers





Upon packet reception, routers locally look up their forwarding table to know where to send it next



Here, the packet should be directed to IF#4





Forwarding is repeated at each router, until the destination is reached









Forwarding decisions necessarily depend on the destination, but can also depend on other criteria

criteriadestinationmandatory (why?)sourcerequires n² stateinput porttraffic engineering+any other headertraffic engineering

- destination

- source

Let's compare these two

With source- & destination-based routing, paths from different sources can differ



With destination-based routing,

paths from different source coincide once they overlap



Once path to destination meet, they will *never* split

Set of paths to the destination

produce a spanning tree rooted at the destination:

- cover every router exactly once
- only one outgoing arrow at each router

Here is an example of a spanning tree for destination *X*



In the rest of the lecture, we'll consider destination-based routing

the default in the Internet

Where are these forwarding tables coming from?





In addition to a data-plane, routers are also equipped with a control-plane



Think of the control-plane as the router's brain

Roles

Routing

Configuration

Statistics

. . .
Routing is the control-plane process that computes and populates the forwarding tables



While forwarding is a *local* process, routing is inherently a *global* process

How can a router know where to direct packets if it does not know what the network looks like?

Forwarding vs Routing

summary

	forwarding	routing
goal	directing packet to an outgoing link	computing the paths packets will follow
scope	local	network-wide
implem.	hardware usually	software usually
timescale	nanoseconds	milliseconds (hopefully)

The goal of routing is to compute valid global forwarding state

Definition a global forwarding state is valid if

it always delivers packets to the correct destination

sufficient and necessary condition

Theorem

a global forwarding state is valid if and only if

there are no dead ends

no outgoing port defined in the table

there are no loops

packets going around the same set of nodes

A global forwarding state is valid if and only if there are no dead ends



A global forwarding state is valid if and only if there are no forwarding loops



question 1 How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

question 2 How do we compute valid forwarding state?

question 1 How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

How do we compute valid forwarding state?

Verifying that a routing state is valid is easy

simple algorithm

for one destination

Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow

Eliminate all links with no arrow

State is valid *iff* the remaining graph is a spanning-tree

Given a graph with the corresponding forwarding state



Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow



Eliminate all links with no arrow





The result is a spanning tree. This is a valid routing state



Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow



Eliminate all links with no arrow



The result is not a spanning-tree. The routing state is not valid



How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

question 2 How do we compute valid forwarding state?

Producing valid routing state is harder

prevent dead ends

easy

prevent loops

hard

Producing valid routing state is harder but doable

prevent dead ends easy prevent loops hard

This is the question you should focus on

Existing routing protocols differ in how they avoid loops

prevent loops hard

Essentially, there are three ways to compute valid routing state

	Intuition	Example
#1	Use tree-like topologies	Spanning-tree
#2	Rely on a global network view	Link-State SDN
#3	Rely on distributed computation	Distance-Vector BGP

Essentially, there are three ways to compute valid routing state

#1 Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

Rely on a global network view

Link-State SDN

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector BGP The easiest way to avoid loops is to route traffic on a loop-free topology

simple algorithm

Take an arbitrary topology

Build a spanning tree and ignore all other links

Done!

Why does it work?

Spanning-trees have only one path between any two nodes

In practice, there can be *many* spanning-trees for a given topology









Once we have a spanning tree, forwarding on it is easy

literally just flood the packets everywhere

When a packet arrives, simply send it on all ports



While flooding works, it is quite wasteful



The issue is that nodes do not know their respective locations

Nodes can learn how to reach nodes by remembering where packets came from

intuition

if

flood packet from node *A* entered switch *X* on port *4*

then

switch X can use port 4 to reach node A






All the green nodes learn how to reach A



All the green nodes learn how to reach A



B answers back to A

enabling the green nodes to also learn where B is



There is no need for flooding here as the position of A is already known by everybody



Learning is topology-dependent

The blue nodes only know how to reach A (not B)



Routing by flooding on a spanning-tree in a nutshell

Flood first packet to node you're trying to reach all switches learn where you are

When destination answers, some switches learn where it is some because packet to you is not flooded anymore

The decision to flood or not is done on each switch depending on who has communicated before

Spanning-Tree in practice

used in Ethernet

advantages

disadvantages

plug-and-play configuration-free

automatically adapts to moving host mandate a spanning-tree eliminate many links from the topology

slow to react to failures host movement

Essentially, there are three ways to compute valid routing state

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

#2	Rely on a global network view	Link-State
		SDN
	Rely on distributed computation	Distance-Vector
		BGP

If each router knows the entire graph, it can locally compute paths to all other nodes

Once a node *u* knows the entire topology, it can compute shortest-paths using Dijkstra's algorithm

InitializationLoop $S = \{u\}$ while not all nodes in S:for all nodes v:add w with the smallest D(w) to Sif (v is adjacent to u):update D(v) for all adjacent v not in S:D(v) = c(u,v) $D(v) = min\{D(v), D(w) + c(w,v)\}$ else: $D(v) = min\{D(v), D(w) + c(w,v)\}$

 $D(v) = \infty$

Dijkstra maintains two data structures: S and D

S the set of vertices whose successors shortest path is known

D(v) distances

the current estimate of the shortest path cost towards vertex v

The initialization phase defines the original data structures content

u is the node running the algorithm

S = {*u*}

for all nodes *v*:

if (*v* is adjacent to *u*):

 $D(v) = \frac{c(u,v)}{c(u,v)} - \frac{c(u,v)}{v}$ is the weight of the link connecting *u* and *v*

else:

$$\frac{\mathsf{D}(v)}{|} = \infty$$

D(v) is the smallest distance currently known by u to reach v Each iteration Dijkstra adds 1 node to S (the closest one) before updating the distances to reach the others nodes

Loop

while not all nodes in S: add w with the smallest D(w) to S update D(v) for all adjacent v not in S: $D(v) = \min\{D(v), D(w) + c(w, v)\}$

Let's compute the shortest-paths from *u*





Initialization

 $S = \{u\}$

for all nodes *v*: if (*v* is adjacent to *u*): D(v) = c(u, v)else:

$$D(v) = \infty$$

S only contains u itself and D is initialized based on u's weight



 $D(.) = S = \{u\}$ A = 3 $B = \infty$ $C = \infty$ $D = \infty$ E = 2 $F = \infty$ $G = \infty$



Loop

while *not* all nodes in S: add *w* with the smallest D(w) to S update D(*v*) for all adjacent *v* not in S: $D(v) = min\{D(v), D(w) + c(w, v)\}$



 $S = \{u\}$ D(.) = Α 3 В ∞ С ∞ D ∞ 2 smallest D(w) Е F ∞ G ∞



D(.) =

Α

В

С

D

Е

F

G

add E to S

 $S = \{u, E\}$ 3 ∞ ∞ ∞ 2 ∞ ∞





Now, do it by yourself



D(.) = $S = \{u, E\}$ A 3 B ∞ C 3 D ∞

2

 ∞

6

Ε

F

G

Here is the final state



D(.) =		$S = \{u, A, v\}$	
A	3	B, C, D, F,G}	
D C	3		
D	6		
Е	2		
F	8		
G	6		

Ε,

This algorithm has a $O(n^2)$ complexity where *n* is the number of nodes in the graph

iteration #1 search for minimum through *n* nodes

iteration #2 search for minimum through *n*-1 nodes

iteration *n* search for minimum through 1 node

 $\frac{n(n+1) \text{ operations } => O(n^2)}{2}$

This algorithm has a $O(n^2)$ complexity where *n* is the number of nodes in the graph

> Better implementations rely on a heap to find the next node to expand, bringing down the complexity to $O(n \log n)$

From the shortest-paths, *u* can directly compute its forwarding table



Forwarding table

destination	next-hop
А	А
В	А
С	Е
D	А
Е	Е
F	Е
G	Е

To build this global view

routers essentially solve a jigsaw puzzle

Initially, routers only know their ID and their neighbors



D only knows,

it is connected to B and C

along with the weights to reach them (by configuration)

Each routers builds a message (known as Link-State) and floods it (reliably) in the entire network



D's Advertisement

edge (D,B); cost: 1

edge (D,C); cost: 4

At the end of the flooding process,

everybody share the exact same view of the network

required for correctness see exercise



Dijkstra will always converge to a unique stable state when run on *static* weights

cf. exercice session for the dynamic case

Essentially, there are three ways to compute valid routing state

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

Rely on a global network view

Link-State SDN

#3

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector BGP Instead of locally compute paths based on the graph, paths can be computed in a distributed fashion

Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path known by x to reach y Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path known by x to reach y

Each node bundles these distances into one message (called a vector) that it repeatedly sends to all its neighbors

until convergence

Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path known by x to reach y

Each node bundles these distances into one message (called a vector) that it repeatedly sends to all its neighbors

until convergence

Each node updates its distances based on neighbors' vectors:

 $d_x(y) = \min\{c(x,v) + d_v(y)\}$ over all neighbors v
Let's compute the shortest-path from *u* to D



The values computed by a node *u* depends on what it learns from its neighbors (A and E)



 $d_{X}(y) = \min\{ c(x,v) + d_{V}(y) \}$ over all neighbors v \downarrow \downarrow $d_{U}(D) = \min\{ c(u,A) + d_{A}(D), c(u,E) + d_{E}(D) \}$ To unfold the recursion, let's start with the direct neighbor of D



$$d_{B}(D) = 1$$

d*C*(*D*) = 4

B and C announce their vector to their neighbors, enabling A to compute its shortest-path



$$d_{A}(D) = \min \{ 2 + d_{B}(D), \\ 1 + d_{C}(D) \}$$

As soon as a distance vector changes, each node propagates it to its neighbor



 $d_{E}(D) = \min \{ 1 + d_{C}(D),$ $4 + d_{G}(D),$ $2 + d_{U}(D) \}$ = 5 Eventually, the process converges to the shortest-path distance to each destination



 $d_{u}(D) = \min \{ 3 + d_{A}(D), 2 + d_{E}(D) \}$

= 6

As before, *u* can directly infer its forwarding table by directing the traffic to the best neighbor

the one which advertised the smallest cost

Evaluating the complexity of DV is harder, we'll get back to that in a couple of weeks

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