Routing

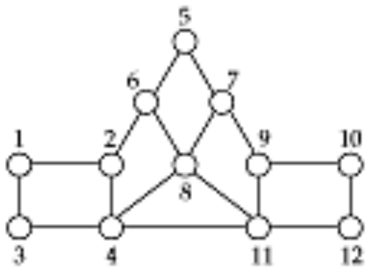
An Engineering Approach to Computer Networking

What is it?

- Process of finding a path from a source to every destination in the network
- Suppose you want to connect to Antarctica from your desktop
  - what route should you take?
  - does a shorter route exist?
  - what if a link along the route goes down?
  - what if you're on a mobile wireless link?
- Routing deals with these types of issues

Basics

- A *routing protocol* sets up a *routing table* in *routers* and *switch controllers*



ROUTING TABLE AT 1

Destination	Next hop	Destination	Next hop
1	—	7	2
2	2□	8□	2□
3	3□	9□	2□
4	3□	10□	2□
5	2□	11□	3□
6	2	12	3

- A node makes a *local* choice depending on *global* topology: this is the fundamental problem

Key problem

- How to make correct local decisions?
  - each router must know *something* about global state
- Global state
  - inherently large
  - dynamic
  - hard to collect
- *A routing protocol must intelligently summarize relevant information*

Requirements

- Minimize routing table space
  - fast to look up
  - less to exchange
- Minimize number and frequency of control messages
- Robustness: avoid
  - black holes
  - loops
  - oscillations
- Use optimal path

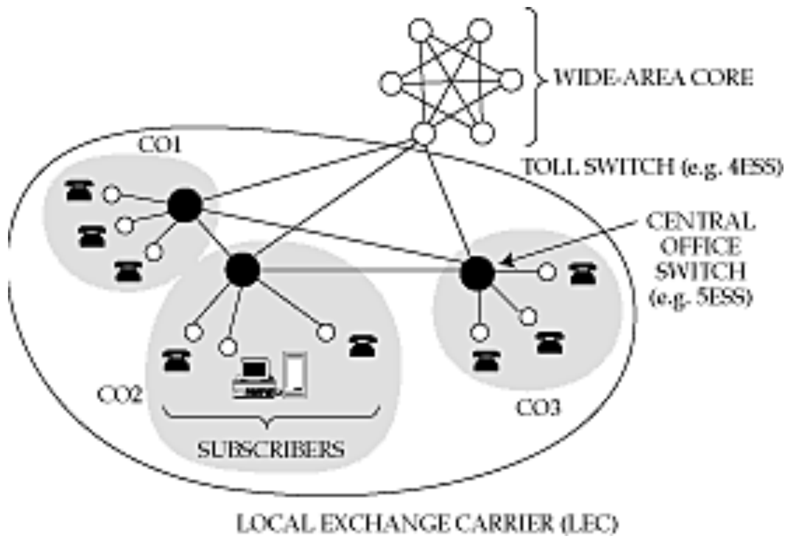
Choices

- Centralized vs. distributed routing
  - centralized is simpler, but prone to failure and congestion
- Source-based vs. hop-by-hop
  - how much is in packet header?
  - Intermediate: *loose source route*
- Stochastic vs. deterministic
  - stochastic spreads load, avoiding oscillations, but misorders
- Single vs. multiple path
  - primary and alternative paths (compare with stochastic)
- State-dependent vs. state-independent
  - do routes depend on current network state (e.g. delay)

Outline

- Routing in telephone networks
- Distance-vector routing
- Link-state routing
- Choosing link costs
- Hierarchical routing
- Internet routing protocols
- Routing within a broadcast LAN
- Multicast routing
- Routing with policy constraints
- Routing for mobile hosts

Telephone network topology



- 3-level hierarchy, with a fully-connected core
- AT&T: 135 core switches with nearly 5 million circuits
- LECs may connect to multiple cores

Routing algorithm

- If endpoints are within same CO, directly connect
- If call is between COs in same LEC, use one-hop path between COs
- Otherwise send call to one of the cores
- Only major decision is at toll switch
  - one-hop or two-hop path to the destination toll switch
  - (why don't we need longer paths?)
- Essence of problem
  - which two-hop path to use if one-hop path is full

Features of telephone network routing

- Stable load
  - can predict pairwise load throughout the day
  - can choose optimal routes in advance
- Extremely reliable switches
  - downtime is less than a few minutes per year
  - can assume that a chosen route is available
  - can't do this in the Internet
- Single organization controls entire core
  - can collect global statistics and implement global changes
- Very highly connected network
- Connections require resources (but all need the same)

Statistics

- Posson call arrival (independence assumption)
- Exponential call “holding” time (length!)
- Goal:- Minimise Call “Blocking” (aka “loss”) Probability subject to minimise cost of network

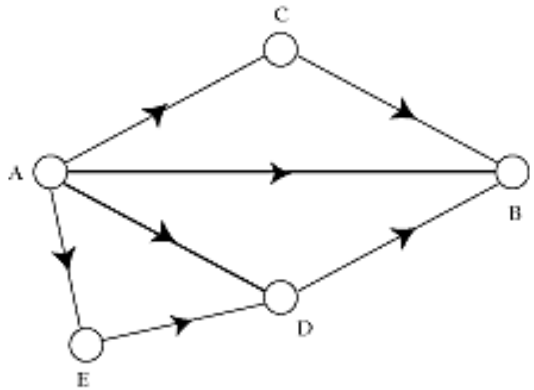
The cost of simplicity

- Simplicity of routing a historical necessity
- But requires
  - reliability in every component
  - logically fully-connected core
- Can we build an alternative that has same features as the telephone network, but is cheaper because it uses more sophisticated routing?
  - Yes: that is one of the motivations for ATM
  - But 80% of the cost is in the local loop
    - not affected by changes in core routing
  - Moreover, many of the software systems assume topology
    - too expensive to change them

Dynamic nonhierarchical routing (DNHR)

- Simplest core routing protocol
  - accept call if one-hop path is available, else drop
- DNHR
  - divides day into around 10-periods
  - in each period, each toll switch is assigned a primary one-hop path and a list of alternatives
  - can overflow to alternative if needed
  - drop only if all alternate paths are busy
    - *crankback*
- Problems
  - does not work well if actual traffic differs from prediction

Metastability



- Burst of activity can cause network to enter metastable state
  - high blocking probability even with a low load
- Removed by trunk reservation
  - prevents spilled traffic from taking over direct path

Trunk status map routing (TSMR)

- DNHR measures traffic once a week
- TSMR updates measurements once an hour or so
  - only if it changes “significantly”
- List of alternative paths is more up to date

Real-time network routing

- No centralized control
  - Each toll switch maintains a list of lightly loaded links
  - Intersection of source and destination lists gives set of lightly loaded paths
- Example
  - At A, list is C, D, E => links AC, AD, AE lightly loaded
  - At B, list is D, F, G => links BD, BF, BG lightly loaded
  - A asks B for its list
  - Intersection = D => AD and BD lightly loaded => ADB lightly loaded => it is a good alternative path
- Very effective in practice: only about a couple of calls blocked in core out of about 250 million calls attempted every day

Dynamic Alternative Routing

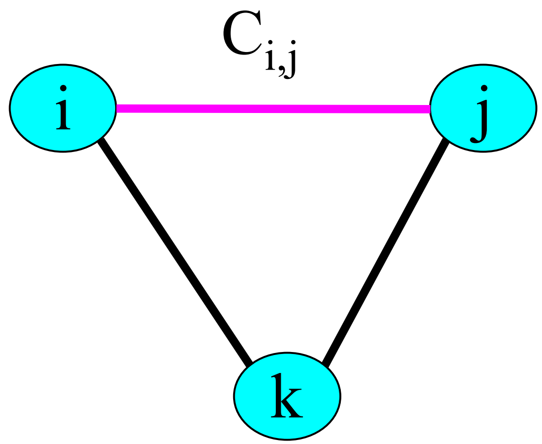
Very simple idea, but can be shown to provide optimal routes at very low complexity…

Underlying Network Properties

- Fully connected network
  - Underlying network is a trunk network
- Relatively small number of nodes
  - In 1986, the trunk network of British Telecom had only 50 nodes
  - Any algorithm with polynomial running time works fine
- Stochastic traffic
  - Low variance when the link is nearly saturated

Dynamic Alternative Routing

- Proposed by F.P. Kelly, R. Gibbens at British Telecom (well, Cambridge, Really:)
- Whenever the link (i, j) is saturated, use an alternative node (tandem)
- Q. How to choose tandem?



Fixed Tandem

- For any pair of nodes *(i, j)* we assign a fixed node *k* as tandem
- Needs careful traffic analysis and reprogramming
- Inflexible during breakdowns and unexpected traffic at tandem

Sticky Random Tandem

- If there is no free circuit along *(i, j)*, a new call is routed through a randomly chosen tandem *k*
- *k* is the tandem as long as it does not fail
- If *k* fails for a call, the call is lost and a new tandem is selected

Sticky Random Tandem

- Decentralized and flexible
- No fancy pre-analysis of traffic required
- Most of the time friendly tandems are used:
  - $p_k(i, j)$: proportion of calls between i and j which go through k
  - $q_k(i, j)$: proportion of calls that are blocked

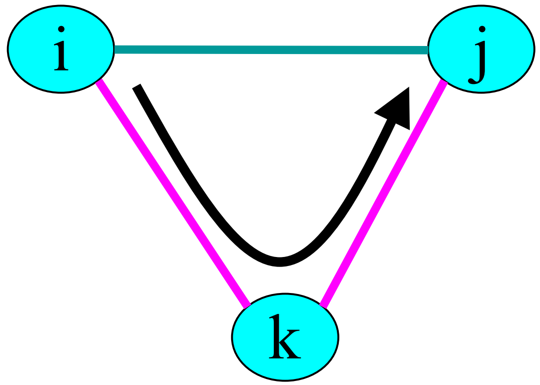
$$\Rightarrow \quad p_a(i, j)q_a(i, j) = p_b(i, j)q_b(i, j)$$

- We may assign different frequencies to different tandems

Trunk Reservation

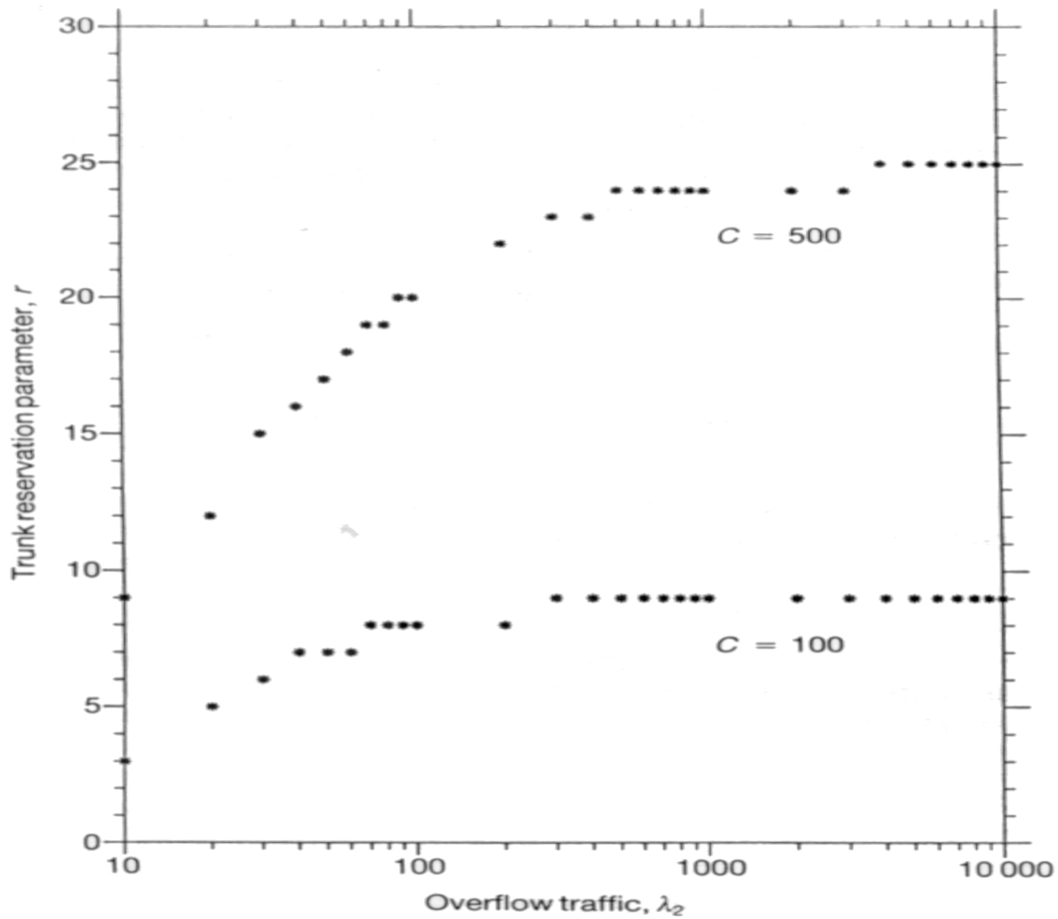
➢ Unselfishness towards one's friends is good up to a point!!!

➢ We need to penalize two link calls, at least when the lines are very busy!



A tandem *k* accepts to forward calls if it has free capacity more than *R*

Trunk Reservation



Bounds: Erlang's Bound

- A node connected to C circuits
- Arrival: Poisson with mean v
- The expected value of blocking:

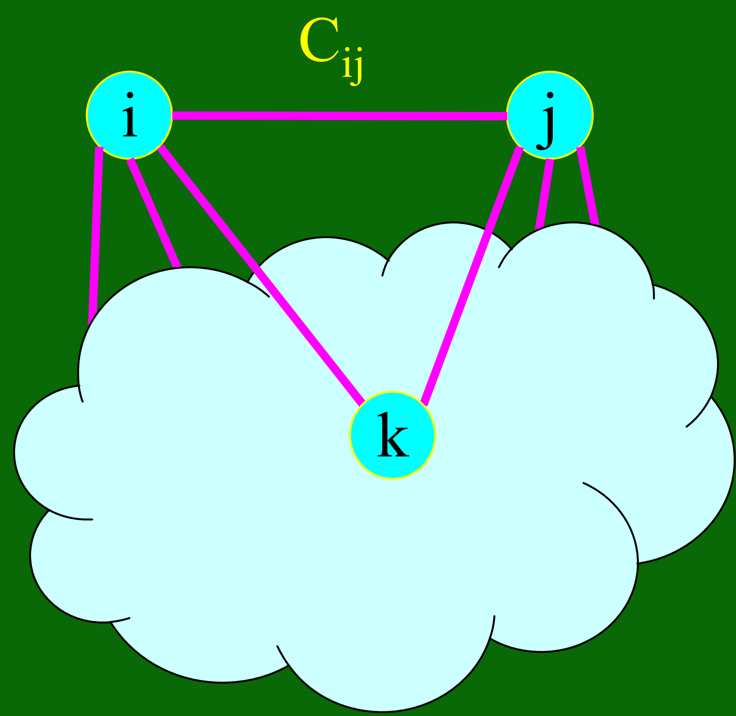
$$E(v,C) = \frac{v^c}{C!}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{C}\frac{v^i}{i!}\right]^{-1}$$

Max-flow Bound

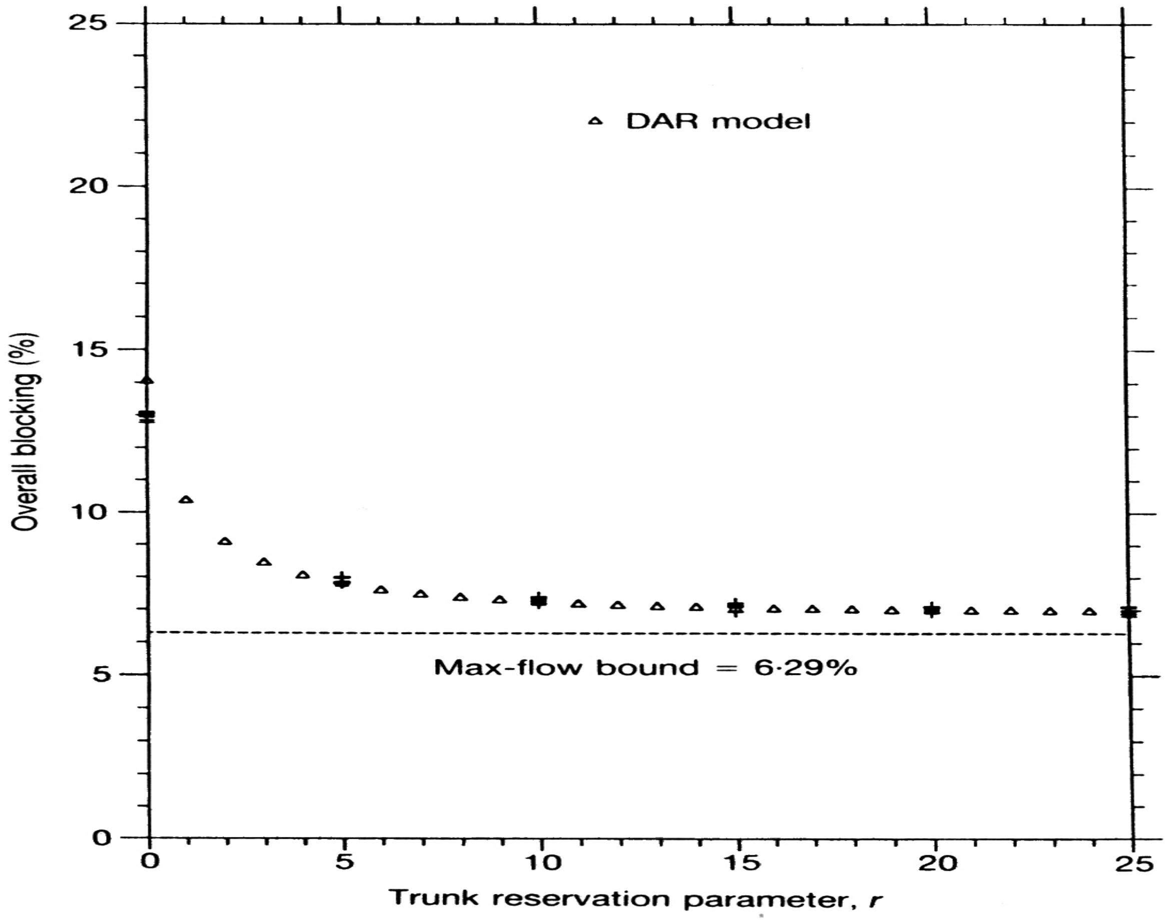
- Capacity of *(i, j)*: C_{ij}
- Mean load on *(i, j)*: v_{ij}

$$E\left[\sum_{i<j} n_{ij}(t)\right] \leq f(v(t))$$

$$\max \sum_{i<j}\left(x_{ij} + \sum_{k \neq i,j} x_{ikj} \right)$$

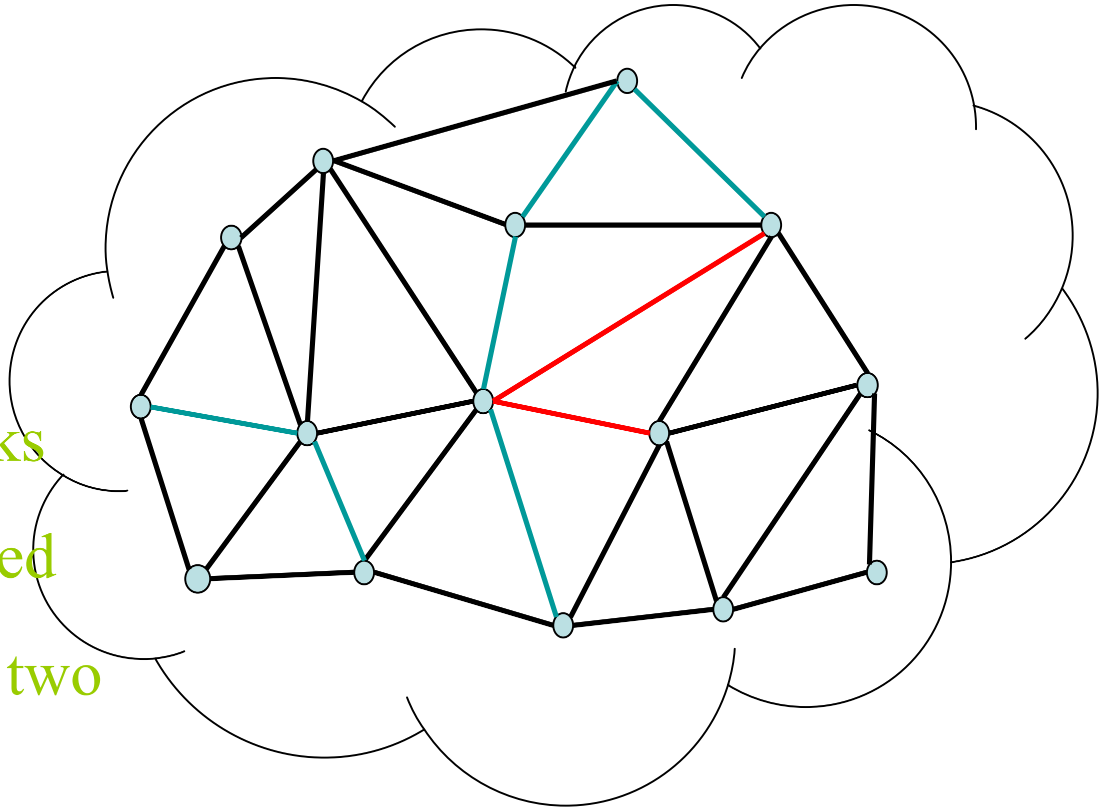


Trunk Reservation



Traffic, Capacity Mismatch

- Traffic > Capacity for some links
- Can we always find a feasible set of tandems?
- Red links: saturated links
- White links: not saturated
- Good triangle: one red, two white links



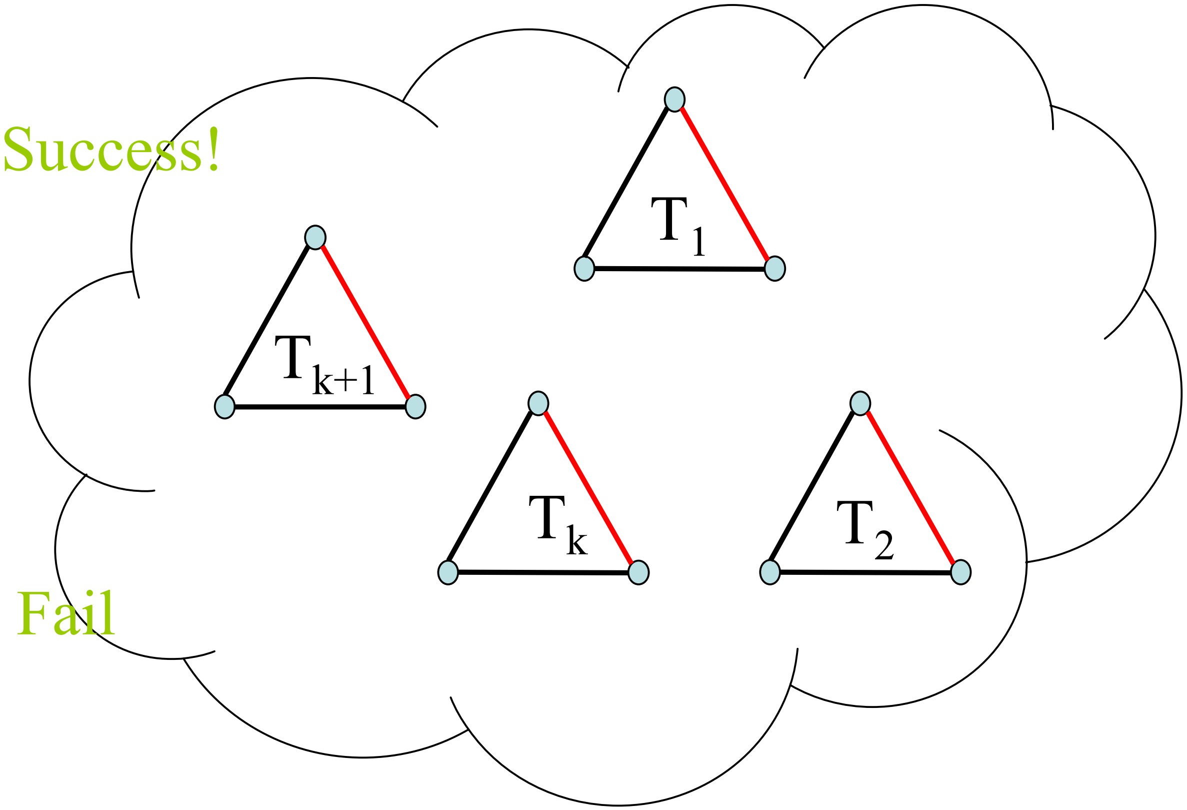
Greedy Algorithm

a. No *red links* ⇨ Success!

b. Red link and a *good* triangle ⇨ Success!

- Add good triangle to the list

c. Red link and no good triangle ⇨ Fail



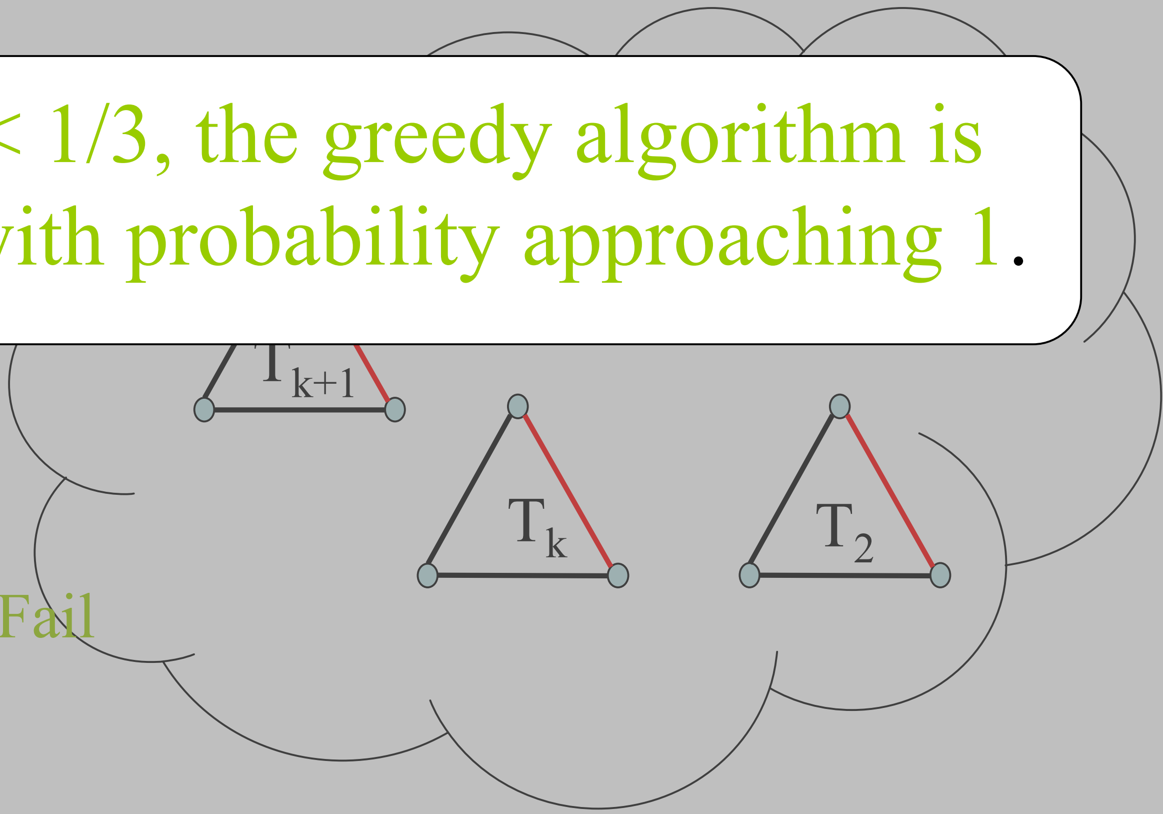
Greedy Algorithm

a. No *red links* ⇒ Success!

b. Re…
good…

• …
triangle to
the list

c. Red link and no
good triangle ⇒ Fail

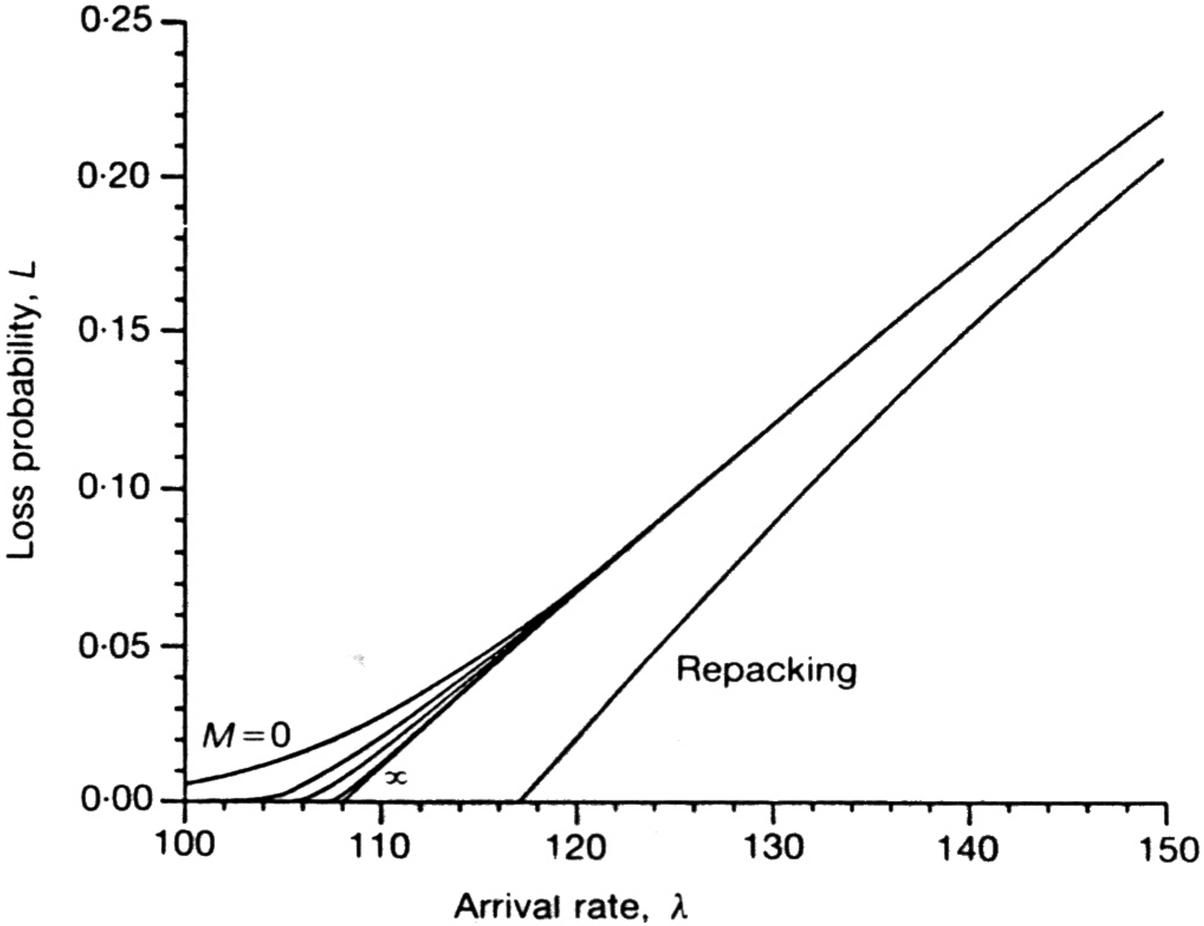


For any $p < 1/3$, the greedy algorithm is successful with probability approaching 1.

Extensions to DAR

- *n*-link paths
  - Too much resources consumed, little benefit
- Multiple alternatives
  - *M* attempts before rejecting a call
- Least-busy alternative
- Repacking
  - A call in progress can be rerouted

Comparison of Extensions



Features of Internet Routing

- Packets, not circuits!
  - E.g. timescales can be much shorter
- Topology complicated/heterogeneous
- Many (10,000 ++) providers
- Traffic sources bursty
- Traffic matrix unpredictable
  - E.g. Not distance constrained
- Goal: maximise throughput, subject to min delay and cost (and energy?)

Internet Routing Model

- 2 key features:
  - Dynamic routing
  - Intra- and Inter-AS routing, AS = locus of admin control
- Internet organized as *"autonomous systems" (AS).*
  - AS is internally connected
- Interior Gateway Protocols (IGPs) within AS.
  - Eg: RIP, OSPF, HELLO
- Exterior Gateway Protocols (EGPs) for AS to AS routing.
  - Eg: EGP, BGP-4

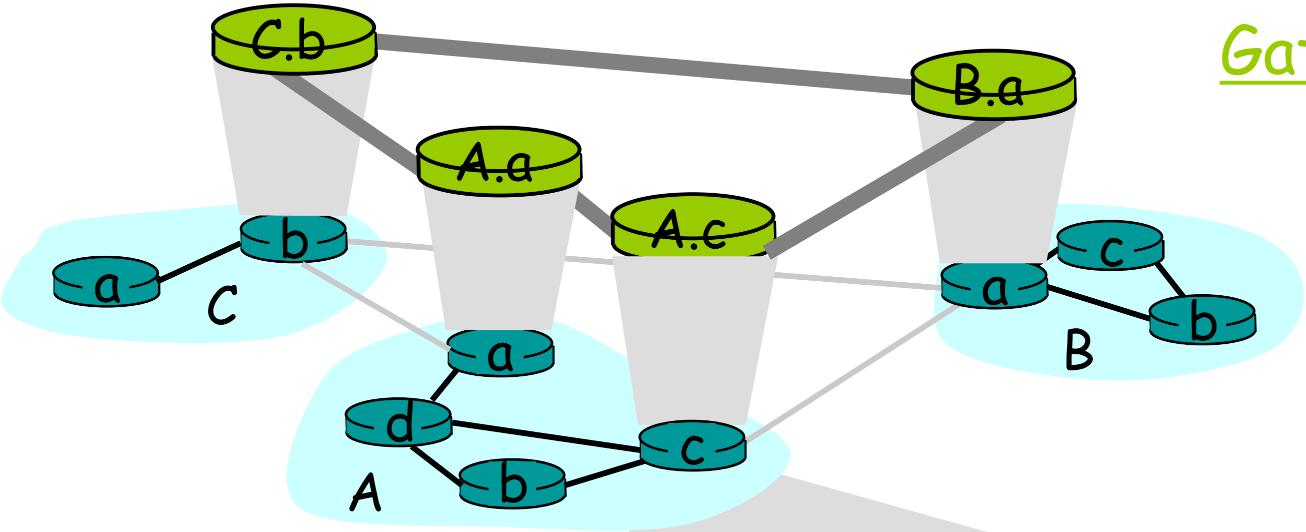
Requirements for Intra-AS Routing

- Should scale for the size of an AS.
  - Low end: 10s of routers (small enterprise)
  - High end: 1000s of routers (large ISP)
- Different requirements on routing convergence after topology changes
  - Low end: can tolerate some connectivity disruptions
  - High end: fast convergence essential to business (making money on transport)
- Operational/Admin/Management (OAM) Complexity
  - Low end: simple, self-configuring
  - High end: Self-configuring, but operator hooks for control
- Traffic engineering capabilities: high end only

Requirements for Inter-AS Routing

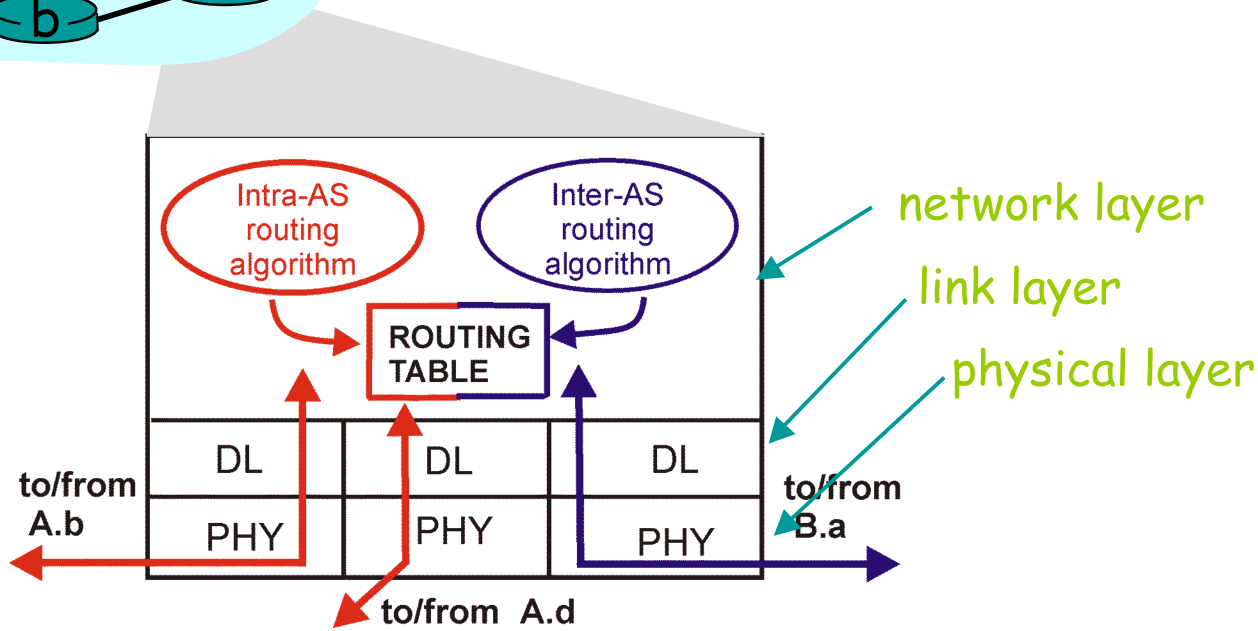
- Should scale for the size of the global Internet.
  - Focus on *reachability*, not optimality
  - Use *address aggregation* techniques to minimize core routing table sizes and associated control traffic
  - At the same time, it should allow *flexibility in topological structure* (eg: don't restrict to trees etc)
- Allow policy-based routing between autonomous systems
  - Policy refers to *arbitrary preference among a menu of available options* (based upon options' *attributes*)
  - In the case of routing, options include advertised AS-level routes to address prefixes
  - Fully distributed routing (as opposed to a signaled approach) is the only possibility.
  - Extensible to meet the demands for newer policies.

Intra-AS and Inter-AS routing



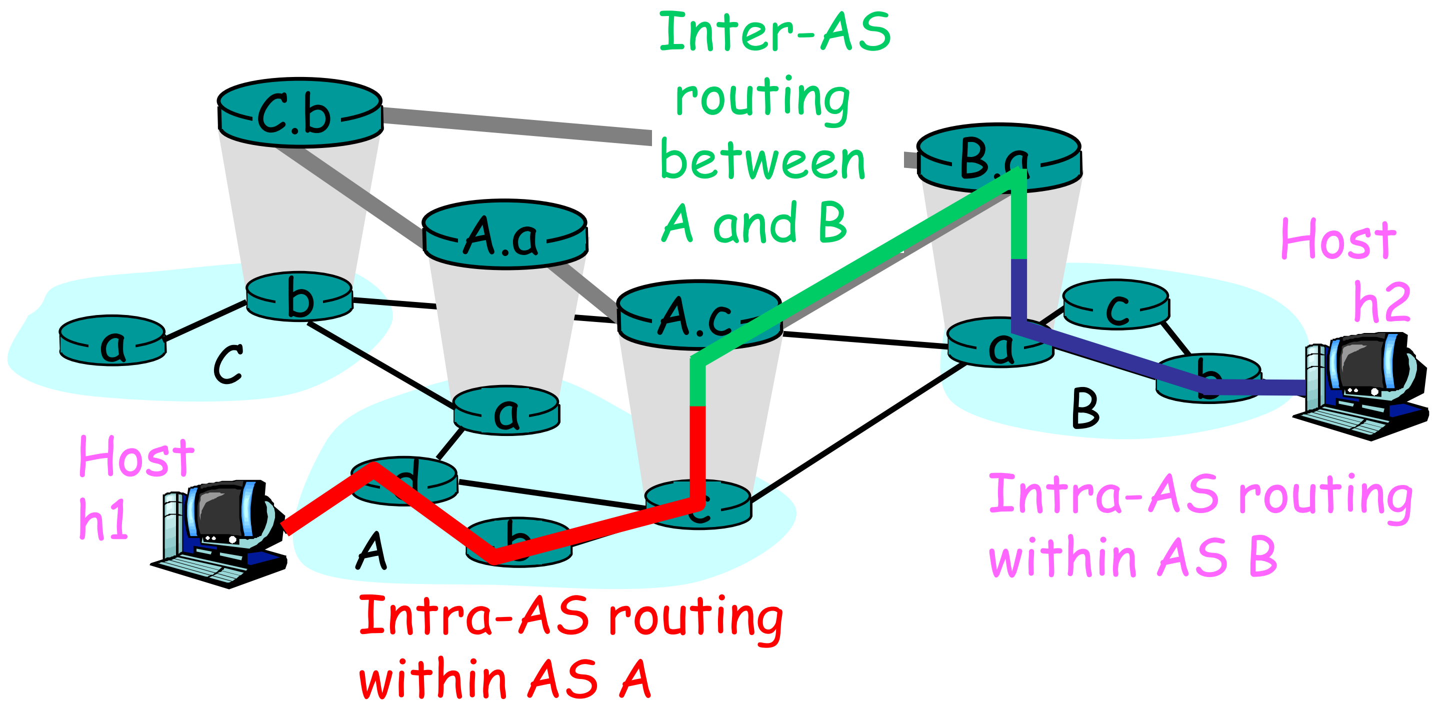
Gateways:

- perform **inter-AS** routing amongst themselves
- perform **intra-AS** routers with other routers in their AS



inter-AS, intra-AS routing in gateway A.c

Intra-AS and Inter-AS routing: Example



Basic Dynamic Routing Methods

- Source-based: source gets a map of the network,
  - source finds route, and either
  - signals the route-setup (eg: ATM approach)
  - encodes the route into packets (inefficient)
- Link state routing: *per-link* information
  - Get *map* of network (in terms of *link states*) at all nodes and find next-hops locally.
  - Maps consistent => next-hops consistent
- Distance vector: *per-node* information
  - At every node, set up *distance signposts* to destination nodes (a vector)
  - Setup this by peeking at neighbors' signposts.

Where are we?

- Routing vs Forwarding
- Forwarding table vs Forwarding in simple topologies
- Routers vs Bridges: review
- Routing Problem
- Telephony vs Internet Routing
- Source-based vs Fully distributed Routing

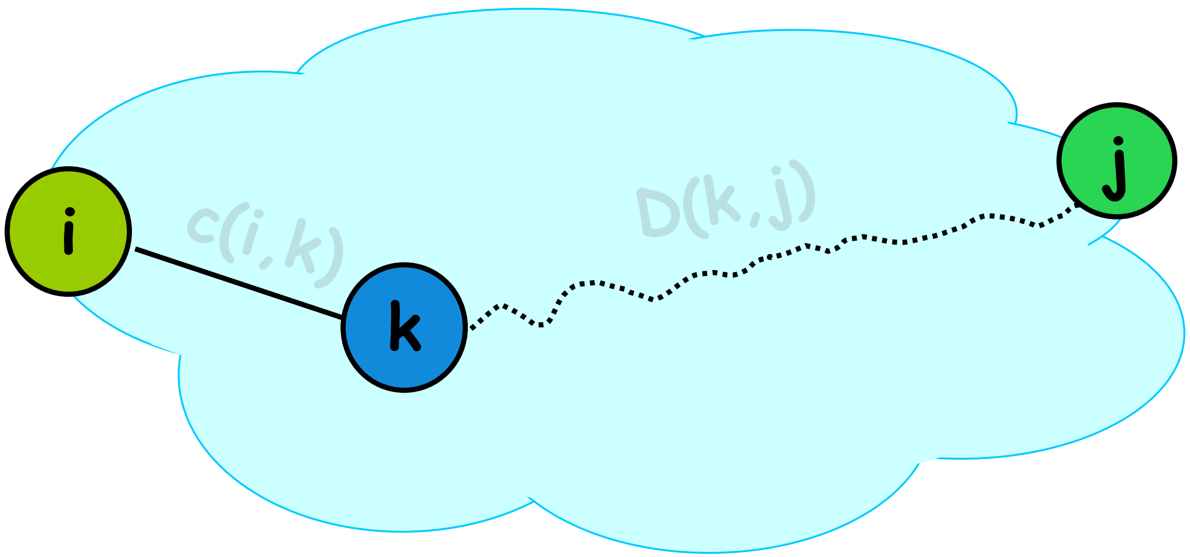
- **Distance vector vs Link state routing**
  - **Bellman Ford and Dijkstra Algorithms**

- Addressing and Routing: Scalability

DV & LS: consistency criterion

- *The <u>subset of a shortest path is also the shortest path</u> between the two intermediate nodes.*
- <u>Corollary:</u>
  - If the <u>shortest path</u> from node i to node j, with distance D(i,j) <u>passes through neighbor k</u>, with link cost c(i,k), then:

D(i,j) = c(i,k) + D(k,j)



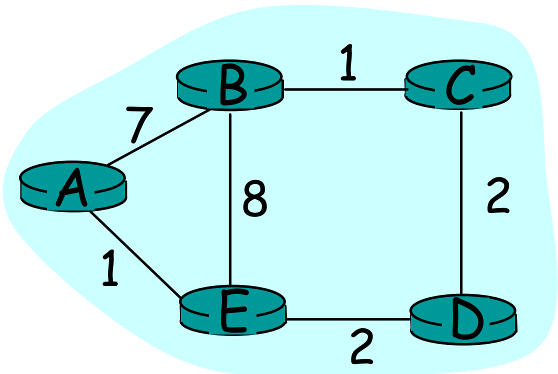
Distance Vector

Figure 12.2 Sign points the way, gives distance

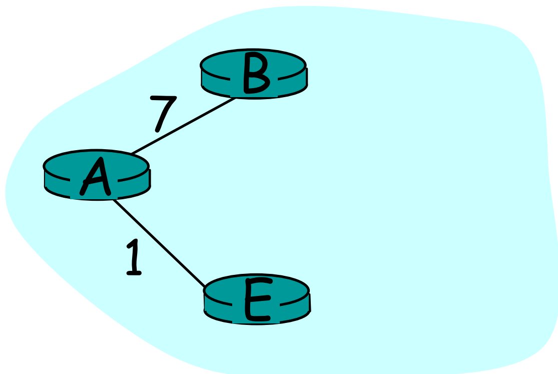
Distance Vector (DV) Approach

- Consistency Condition: **$D(i,j) = c(i,k) + D(k,j)$**

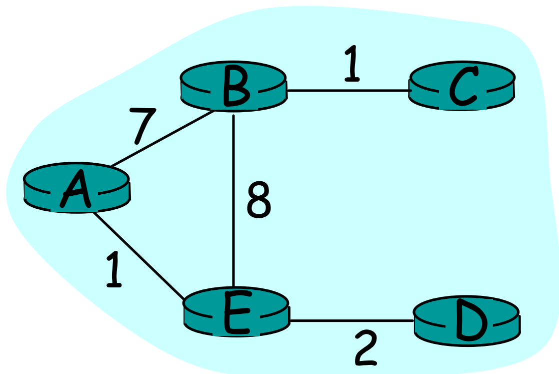
- The *DV (Bellman-Ford) algorithm* evaluates this recursion iteratively.
  - In the m^{th} iteration, the consistency criterion holds, assuming that each node sees all nodes and links m-hops (or smaller) away from it (i.e. an m-hop view)



Example network



A's 1-hop view (After 1^{st} iteration)



A's 2-hop view (After 2^{nd} Iteration)

Distance Vector (DV)…

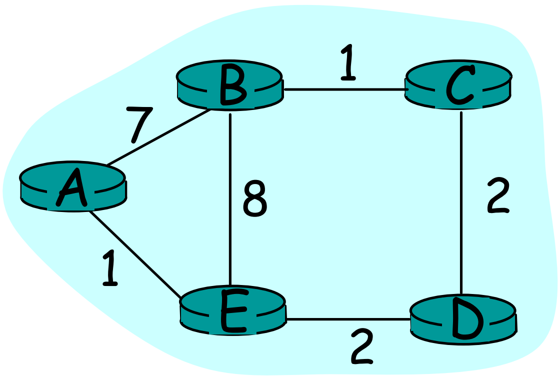
- Initial distance values (iteration 1):
  - **D(i,i) = 0 ;**
  - **D(i,k) = c(i,k)** if k is a neighbor (i.e. k is one-hop away); and
  - **D(i,j) = INFINITY** for all other non-neighbors j.
- Note that the set of values **D(i,*)** is a distance vector at node i.
- The algorithm also maintains a next-hop value (forwarding table) for every destination j, initialized as:
  - **next-hop(i) = i;**
  - **next-hop(k) = k** if k is a neighbor, and
  - **next-hop(j) = UNKNOWN** if j is a non-neighbor.

Distance Vector (DV)…

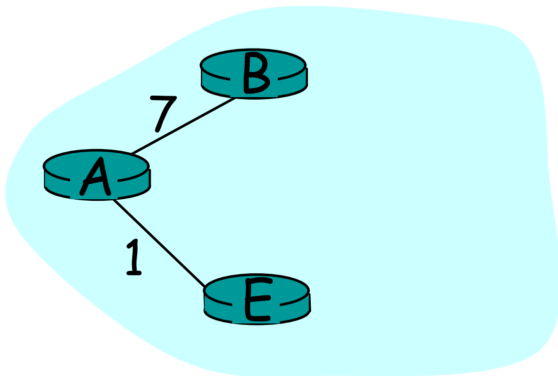
- After every iteration each node i exchanges its distance vectors D(i,*) with its immediate neighbors.
- For any neighbor k, if **c(i,k) + D(k,j) < D(i,j),** then:
  - **D(i,j) = c(i,k) + D(k,j)**
  - **next-hop(j) = k**
- After each iteration, the consistency criterion is met
  - After *m* iterations, each node knows the shortest path possible to any other node which is *m* hops or less.
  - I.e. each node has an m-hop view of the network.
  - The algorithm converges (self-terminating) in O(d) iterations: d is the maximum diameter of the network.

Distance Vector (DV) Example

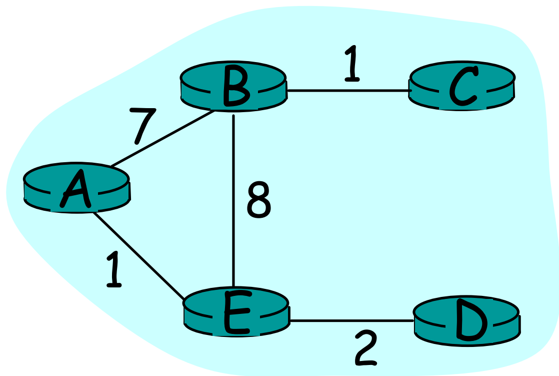
- A’s distance vector D(A,*):
  - After Iteration 1 is: [0, 7, INFINITY, INFINITY, 1]
  - After Iteration 2 is: [0, 7, 8, 3, 1]
  - After Iteration 3 is: [0, 7, 5, 3, 1]
  - After Iteration 4 is: [0, 6, 5, 3, 1]



Example network



A’s 1-hop view
(After 1st iteration)



A’s 2-hop view
(After 2nd Iteration)

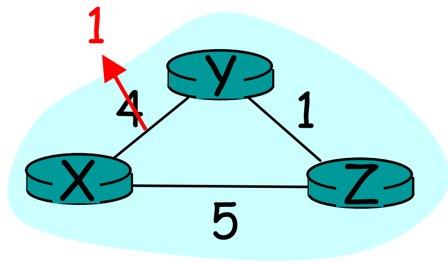
Distance Vector: *link cost changes*

Link cost changes:

node detects local link cost change

updates distance table

if cost change in least cost path, notify neighbors



"good news travels fast"

	Time 0	Iter. 1	Iter. 2
DV(Y)	[4 0 1]	[1 0 1]	[1 0 1]
DV(Z)	[5 1 0]	[5 1 0]	[2 1 0]

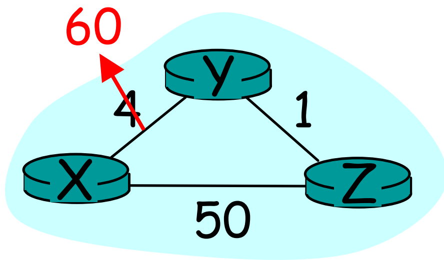
algorithm terminates

Distance Vector: *link cost changes*

Link cost changes:

good news travels fast

bad news travels slow - "count to infinity" problem!

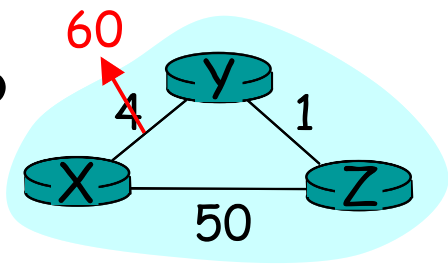


	Time 0	Iter 1	Iter 2	Iter 3	Iter 4
DV(Y)	[4 0 1]	[6 0 1]	[6 0 1]	[8 0 1]	[8 0 1]
DV(Z)	[5 1 0]	[5 1 0]	[7 1 0]	[7 1 0]	[9 1 0]

algo goes On til Reach 51!

Distance Vector: *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)
At Time 0, DV(Z) *as seen by Y* is **[INF INF 0]**, *not* **[5 1 0]** !

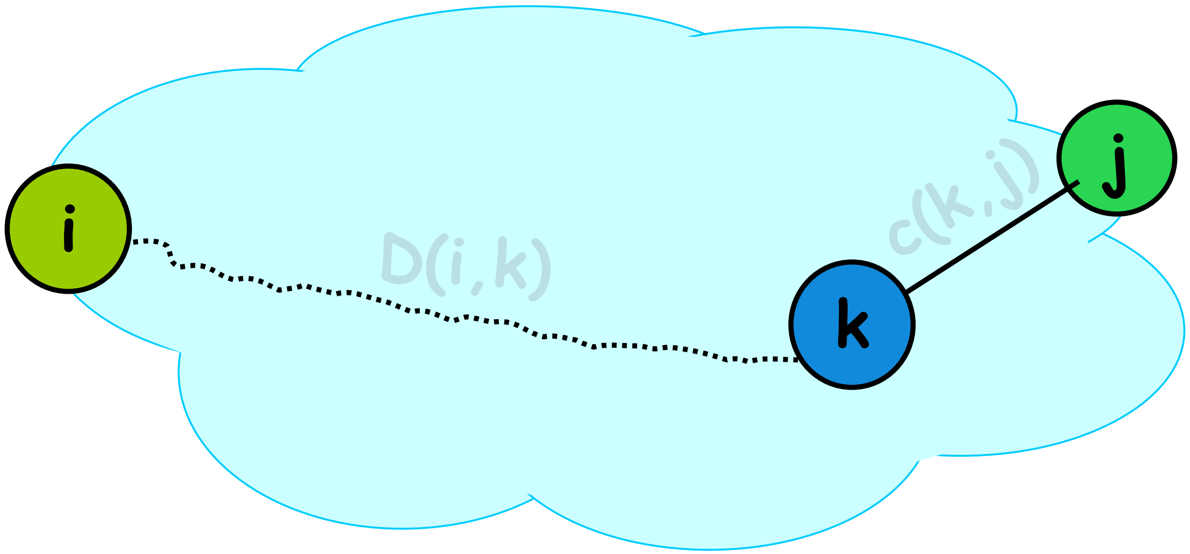


	Time 0	Iter 1	Iter 2	Iter 3
DV(Y)	[4 0 1]	[60 0 1]	[60 0 1]	[51 0 1]
DV(Z)	[5 1 0]	[5 1 0]	[50 1 0]	[7 1 0]

algorithm terminates

Link State (LS) Approach

- The *link state (Dijkstra) approach is iterative, but it* pivots around destinations j, and their predecessors k = p(j)
  - Observe that an alternative version of the consistency condition holds for this case: **D(i,j) = D(i,k) + c(k,j)**



- Each node i collects all link states **c(*,*)** first and runs the complete Dijkstra algorithm <u>locally</u>.

Link State (LS) Approach…

- After each iteration, the algorithm finds a new destination node j and a shortest path to it.
- After m iterations the algorithm has explored paths, which are m hops or smaller from node i.
  - It has an m-hop view of the network just like the distance-vector approach
- The Dijkstra algorithm at node i maintains two sets:
  - **set N** that contains nodes to which the shortest paths have been found so far, and
  - **set M** that contains all <u>other</u> nodes.
  - For all nodes k, two values are maintained:
    - **D(i,k):** current value of <u>distance</u> from i to k.
    - **p(k):** the <u>predecessor</u> node to k on the shortest known path from i

Dijkstra: Initialization

- **Initialization:**
  - **D(i,i) = 0 and p(i) = i;**
  - **D(i,k) = c(i,k) and p(k) = i** if k is a neighbor of I
  - **D(i,k) = INFINITY and p(k) = UNKNOWN** if k is *not* a neighbor of I
  - **Set N = { i },** and **next-hop (i) = I**
  - **Set M = { j I j is not i}**

- Initially set N has only the node i and set M has the rest of the nodes.
- At the end of the algorithm, the set N contains all the nodes, and set M is empty

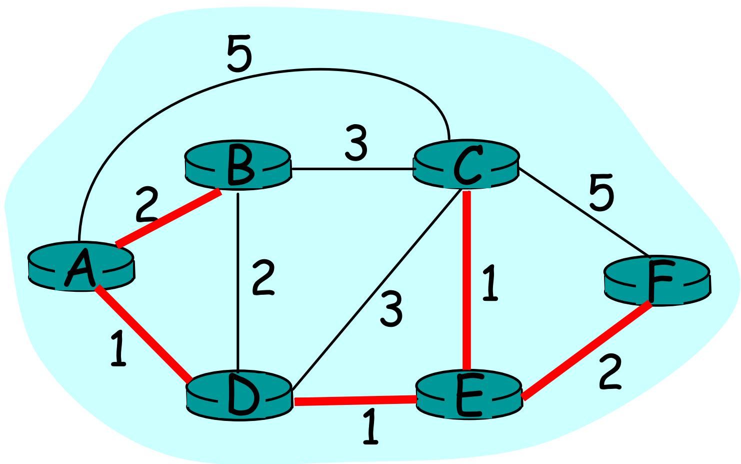
Dijkstra: Iteration

- In each iteration, a new node j is moved from set M into the set N.
  - Node j has the minimum distance among all current nodes in M, i.e. $D(i,j) = \min_{\{l \varepsilon M\}} D(i,l)$.
  - If multiple nodes have the same minimum distance, any one of them is chosen as j.
  - **Next-hop(j) =** the neighbor of i on the shortest path
    - **Next-hop(j) = next-hop(p(j))** if p(j) is not i
    - **Next-hop(j) = j** if p(j) = i
  - Now, in addition, the distance values of any neighbor k of j in set M is reset as:
    - **If $D(i,k) < D(i,j) + c(j,k)$, then**

    $D(i,k) = D(i,j) + c(j,k)$, and $p(k) = j$.
- This operation is called "*relaxing*" the edges of node j.

Dijkstra's algorithm: *example*

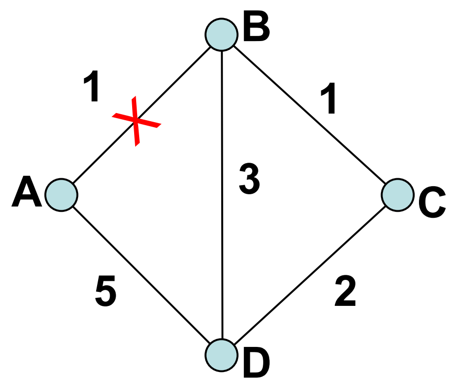
Step	set N	D(B),p(B)	D(C),p(C)	D(D),p(D)	D(E),p(E)	D(F),p(F)
0	A	2,A	5,A	1,A	infinity	infinity
1	AD	2,A	4,D		2,D	infinity
2	ADE	2,A	3,E			4,E
3	ADEB		3,E			4,E
4	ADEBC					4,E
5	ADEBCF					



The shortest-paths spanning tree rooted at A is called an SPF-tree

Misc Issues: Transient Loops

- With consistent LSDBs, all nodes compute consistent loop-free paths
- Limited by Dijkstra computation overhead, space requirements
- Can still have *transient loops*



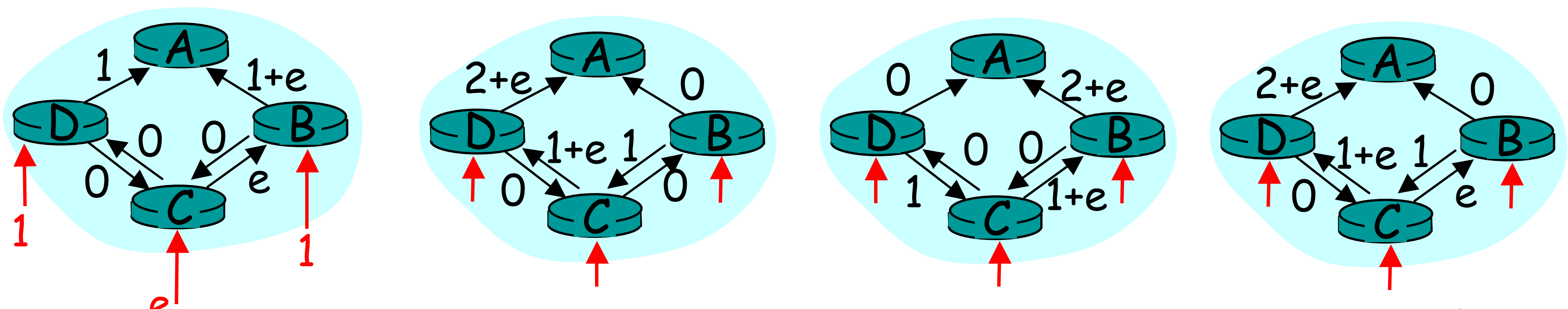
Packet from C→A
may loop around BDC
if B knows about failure
and C & D do not

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., link cost = amount of carried traffic



initially ... recompute routing ... recompute ... recompute

Misc: How to assign the Cost Metric?

- Choice of link cost defines traffic load
  - Low cost = high probability link belongs to SPT and will attract traffic
- Tradeoff: convergence vs load distribution
  - Avoid oscillations
  - Achieve good network utilization
- **Static metrics** (weighted hop count)
  - Does not take traffic load (demand) into account.
- **Dynamic metrics** (cost based upon queue or delay etc)
  - Highly oscillatory, very hard to dampen (DARPAnet experience)
- **Quasi-static metric**:
  - Reassign static metrics based upon overall network load (demand matrix), assumed to be quasi-stationary

Misc: Incremental SPF

- Dijkstra algorithm is invoked whenever a new LS update is received.
  - Most of the time, the change to the SPT is minimal, or even nothing
- If the node has visibility to a large number of prefixes, then it may see large number of updates.
  - Flooding bugs further exacerbate the problem
  - Solution: incremental SPF algorithms which use knowledge of current map and SPT, and process the delta change with lower computational complexity compared to Dijkstra
  - Avg case: O(logn) v. to O(nlogn) for Dijkstra

Ref: Alaettinoglu, Jacobson, Yu, "Towards Milli-Second IGP Convergence," Internet Draft.

Summary: Distributed Routing Techniques

Link State

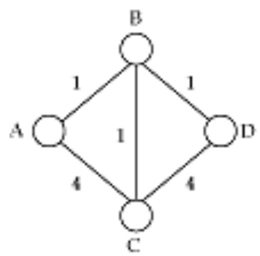
- Topology information is flooded within the routing domain
- Best end-to-end paths are computed locally at each router.
- Best end-to-end paths determine next-hops.
- Based on minimizing some notion of distance
- Works only if policy is shared and uniform
- Examples: OSPF, IS-IS

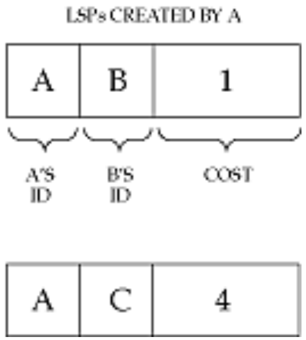
Vectoring

- Each router knows little about network topology
- Only best next-hops are chosen by each router for each destination network.
- Best end-to-end paths result from composition of all next-hop choices
- Does not require any notion of distance
- Does not require uniform policies at all routers
- Examples: RIP, BGP

Link state: topology dissemination

- A router describes its neighbors with a *link state packet (LSP)*





- Use *controlled flooding* to distribute this everywhere
  - store an LSP in an *LSP database*
  - if new, forward to every interface other than incoming one
  - a network with E edges will copy at most 2E times

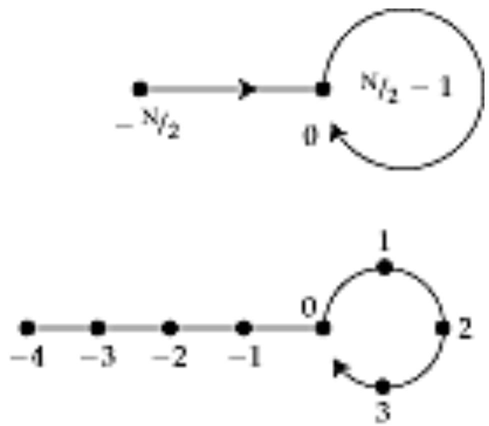
Sequence numbers

- How do we know an LSP is new?
- Use a sequence number in LSP header
- Greater sequence number is newer
- What if sequence number wraps around?
  - smaller sequence number is now newer!
  - (hint: use a large sequence space)
- On boot up, what should be the initial sequence number?
  - have to somehow purge old LSPs
  - two solutions
    - aging
    - lollipop sequence space

Aging

- Creator of LSP puts timeout value in the header
- Router removes LSP when it times out
  - also floods this information to the rest of the network (why?)
- So, on booting, router just has to wait for its old LSPs to be purged
- But what age to choose?
  - if too small
    - purged before fully flooded (why?)
    - needs frequent updates
  - if too large
    - router waits idle for a long time on rebooting

A better solution



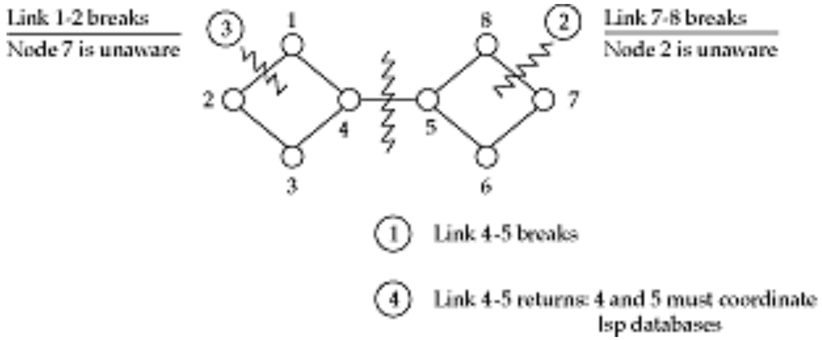
- Need a *unique* start sequence number
- a is older than b if:
  - a < 0 and a < b
  - a > o, a < b, and b-a < N/4
  - a > 0, b > 0, a > b, and a-b > N/4

More on lollipops

- If a router gets an older LSP, it tells the sender about the newer LSP
- So, newly booted router quickly finds out its most recent sequence number
- It jumps to one more than that
- -N/2 is a *trigger* to evoke a response from community memory

Recovering from a partition

- On partition, LSP databases can get out of synch



- Databases described by database descriptor records
- Routers on each side of a newly restored link talk to each other to update databases (determine missing and out-of-date LSPs)

Router failure

- How to detect?
  - HELLO protocol
- HELLO packet may be corrupted
  - so age anyway
  - on a timeout, flood the information

Securing LSP databases

- LSP databases *must* be consistent to avoid routing loops
- Malicious agent may inject spurious LSPs
- Routers must actively protect their databases
  - checksum LSPs
  - ack LSP exchanges
  - passwords

Outline

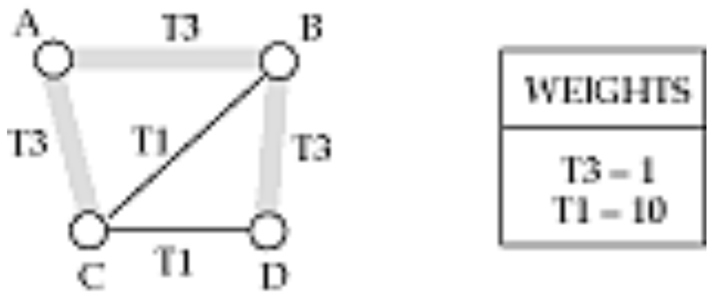
- Routing in telephone networks
- Distance-vector routing
- Link-state routing
- Choosing link costs
- Hierarchical routing
- Internet routing protocols
- Routing within a broadcast LAN
- Multicast routing
- Routing with policy constraints
- Routing for mobile hosts

Choosing link costs

- Shortest path uses link costs
- Can use either static of dynamic costs
- In both cases: cost determine amount of traffic on the link
  - lower the cost, more the expected traffic
  - if dynamic cost depends on load, can have oscillations (why?)

Static metrics

- Simplest: set all link costs to 1 => min hop routing
  - but 28.8 modem link is not the same as a T3!
- Give links weight proportional to capacity



Dynamic metrics

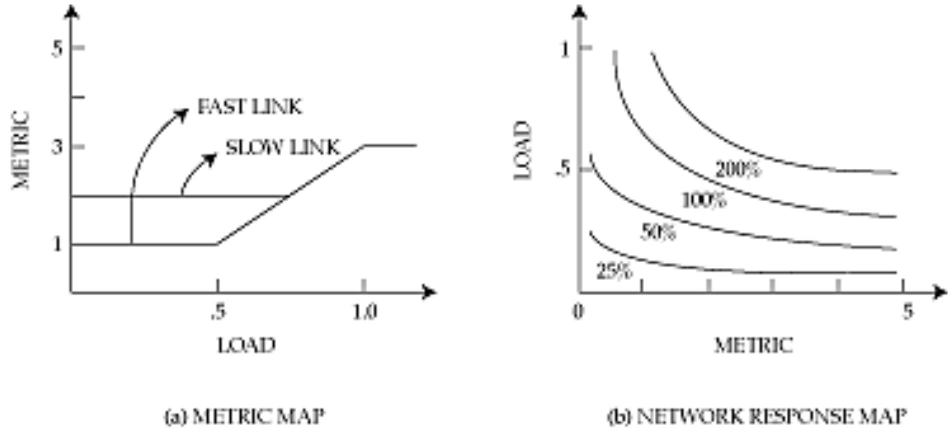
- A first cut (ARPAnet original)
- Cost proportional to length of router queue
  - independent of link capacity
- Many problems when network is loaded
  - queue length averaged over a small time => transient spikes caused major rerouting
  - wide dynamic range => network completely ignored paths with high costs
  - queue length assumed to predict future loads => opposite is true (why?)
  - no restriction on successively reported costs => oscillations
  - all tables computed simultaneously => low cost link flooded

Modified metrics

- queue length averaged over a small time
- wide dynamic range queue
- queue length assumed to predict future loads
- no restriction on successively reported costs
- all tables computed simultaneously

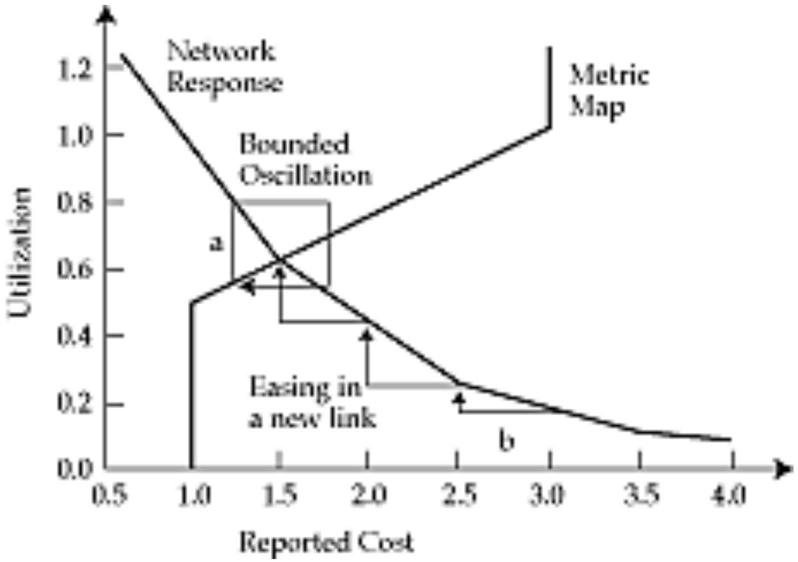
- queue length averaged over a longer time
- dynamic range restricted
- cost also depends on intrinsic link capacity
- restriction on successively reported costs
- attempt to stagger table computation

Routing dynamics



(a) METRIC MAP

(b) NETWORK RESPONSE MAP



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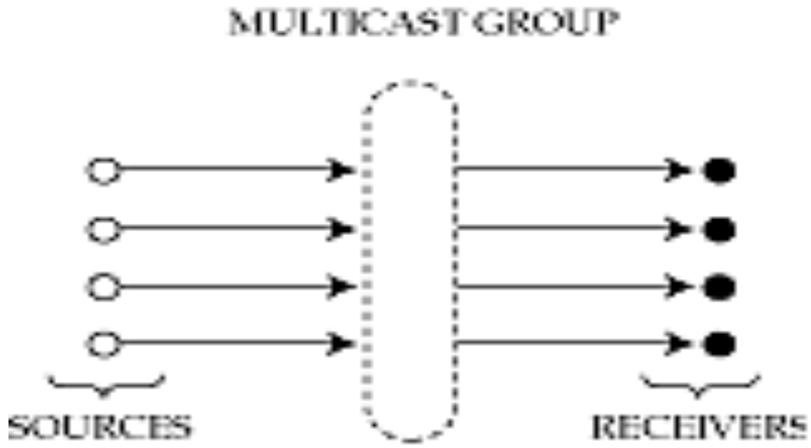
Multicast routing

- Unicast: single source sends to a single destination
- Multicast: hosts are part of a *multicast group*
  - packet sent by *any* member of a group are received by *all*
- Useful for
  - multiparty videoconference
  - distance learning
  - resource location

Multicast group



- Associates a set of senders and receivers with each other
  - but independent of them
  - created either when a sender starts sending from a group
  - or a receiver expresses interest in receiving
  - even if no one else is there!
- Sender does not need to know receivers' identities
  - *rendezvous point*

Addressing

- Multicast group in the Internet has its own Class D address
  - looks like a host address, but isn't
- Senders send to the address
- Receivers anywhere in the world request packets from that address
- "Magic" is in associating the two: *dynamic directory service*
- Four problems
  - which groups are currently active
  - how to express interest in joining a group
  - discovering the set of receivers in a group
  - delivering data to members of a group

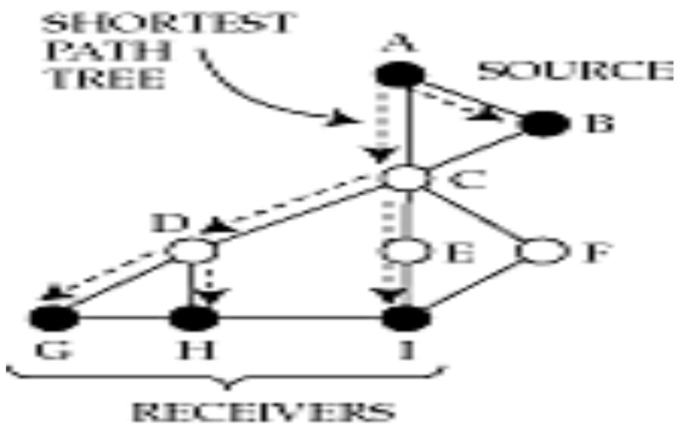
Expanding ring search

- A way to use multicast groups for resource discovery
- Routers decrement TTL when forwarding
- Sender sets TTL and multicasts
  - reaches all receivers <= TTL hops away
- Discovers local resources first
- Since heavily loaded servers can keep quiet, automatically distributes load

Multicast flavors

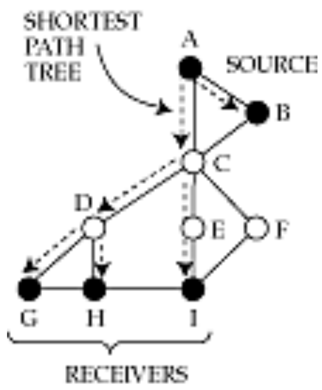
- Unicast: point to point
- Multicast:
  - point to multipoint
  - multipoint to multipoint
- Can simulate point to multipoint by a set of point to point unicasts
- Can simulate multipoint to multipoint by a set of point to multipoint multicasts
- The difference is efficiency

Example



- Suppose A wants to talk to B, G, H, I, B to A, G, H, I
- With unicast, 4 messages sent from each source
  - links AC, BC carry a packet in triplicate
- With point to multipoint multicast, 1 message sent from each source
  - but requires establishment of two separate multicast groups
- With multipoint to multipoint multicast, 1 message sent from each source,
  - single multicast group

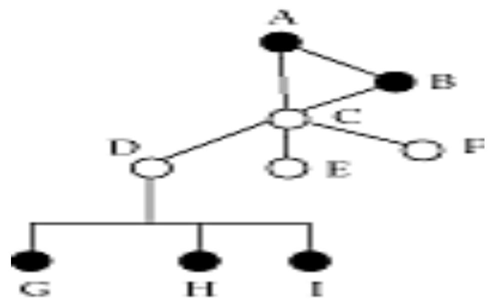
Shortest path tree



- Ideally, want to send exactly one multicast packet per link
  - forms a *multicast tree* rooted at sender
- Optimal multicast tree provides *shortest* path from sender to every receiver
  - *shortest-path* tree rooted at sender

Issues in wide-area multicast

- Difficult because
  - sources may join and leave dynamically
    - need to dynamically update shortest-path tree
  - leaves of tree are often members of broadcast LAN
    - would like to exploit LAN broadcast capability
  - would like a receiver to join or leave without explicitly notifying sender
    - otherwise it will not scale

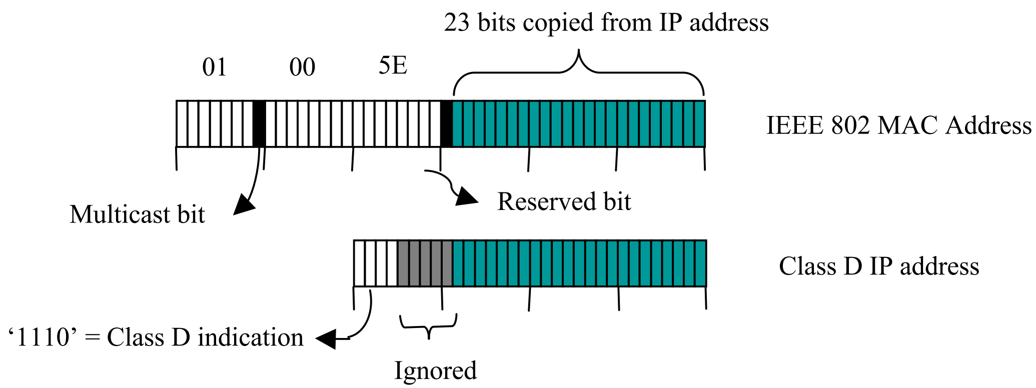


Multicast in a broadcast LAN

- Wide area multicast can exploit a LAN's broadcast capability
- E.g. Ethernet will multicast all packets with multicast bit set on destination address

- Two problems:
  - what multicast MAC address corresponds to a given Class D IP address?
  - does the LAN have contain any members for a given group (why do we need to know this?)

Class D to MAC translation



- Multiple Class D addresses map to the same MAC address
- Well-known translation algorithm => no need for a translation table

Group Management Protocol

- Detects if a LAN has any members for a particular group
  - If no members, then we can *prune* the shortest path tree for that group by telling parent
- Router periodically broadcasts a *query* message
- Hosts reply with the list of groups they are interested in
- To suppress traffic
  - reply after random timeout
  - broadcast reply
  - if someone else has expressed interest in a group, drop out
- To receive multicast packets:
  - translate from class D to MAC and configure adapter

Wide area multicast

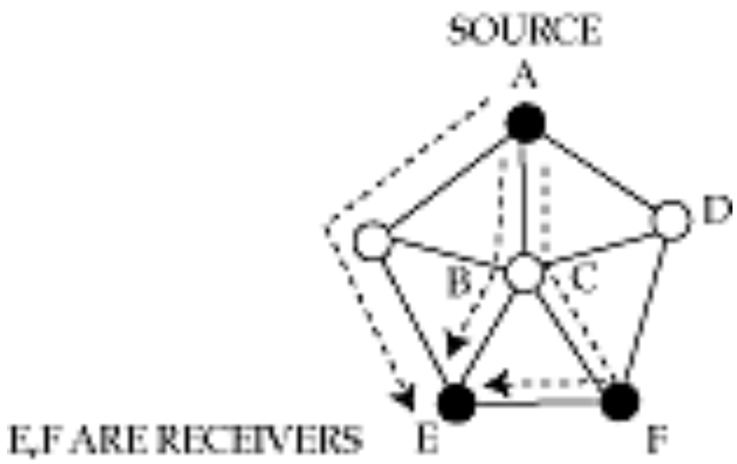
- Assume
  - each endpoint is a router
  - a router can use IGMP to discover all the members in its LAN that want to subscribe to each multicast group
- Goal
  - distribute packets coming from any sender directed to a given group to all routers on the path to a group member

Simplest solution

- Flood packets from a source to entire network
- If a router has not seen a packet before, forward it to all interfaces except the incoming one
- Pros
  - simple
  - always works!
- Cons
  - routers receive duplicate packets
  - detecting that a packet is a duplicate requires storage, which can be expensive for long multicast sessions

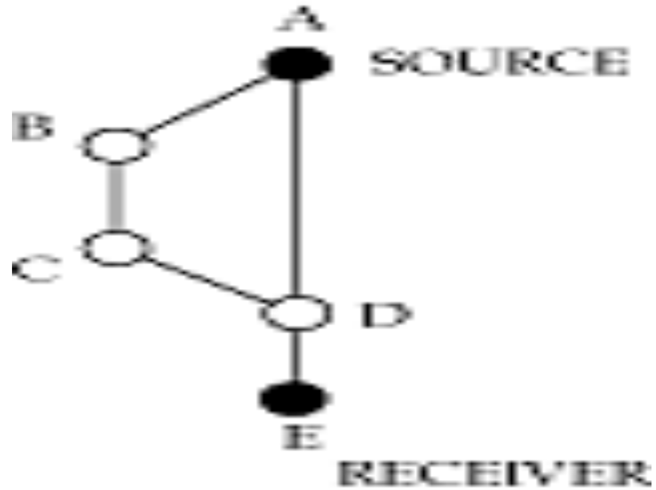
A clever solution

- *Reverse path forwarding*
- Rule
  - forward packet from S to all interfaces if and only if packet arrives on the interface that corresponds to the shortest path *to* S
  - no need to remember past packets
  - C need not forward packet received from D



Cleverer

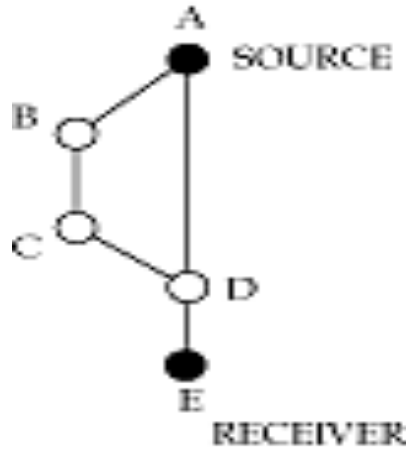
- Don't send a packet downstream if you are not on the shortest path from the downstream router to the source
- C need not forward packet from A to E



- Potential confusion if downstream router has a choice of shortest paths to source (see figure on previous slide)

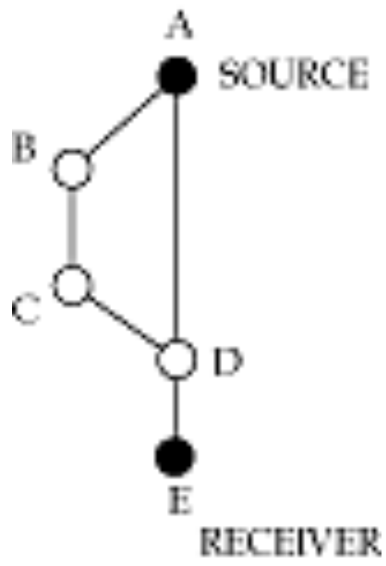
Pruning

- RPF does not completely eliminate unnecessary transmissions



- B and C get packets even though they do not need it
- Pruning => router tells parent in tree to stop forwarding
- Can be associated either with a multicast group or with a source *and* group
  - trades selectivity for router memory

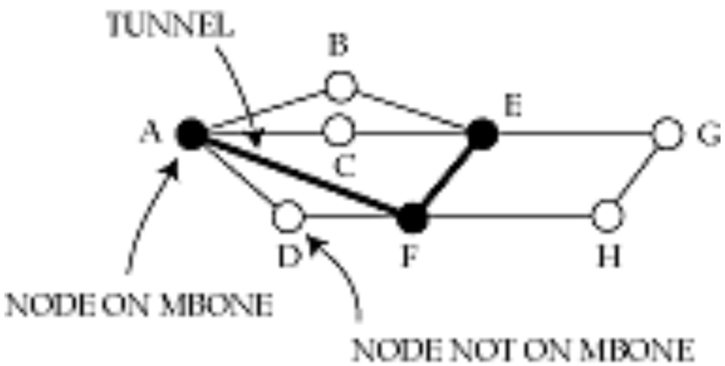
Rejoining



- What if host on C's LAN wants to receive messages from A after a previous prune by C?
  - IGMP lets C know of host's interest
  - C can send a *join(group, A)* message to B, which propagates it to A
  - or, periodically flood a message; C refrains from pruning

A problem

- Reverse path forwarding requires a router to know shortest path to a source
  - known from routing table
- Doesn't work if some routers do not support multicast
  - *virtual links* between multicast-capable routers
  - shortest path to A from E is not C, but F

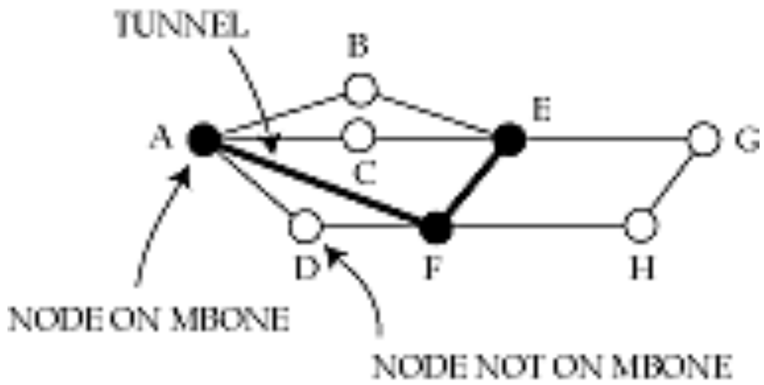


A problem (contd.)

- Two problems
  - how to build virtual links
  - how to construct routing table for a network with virtual links

Tunnels

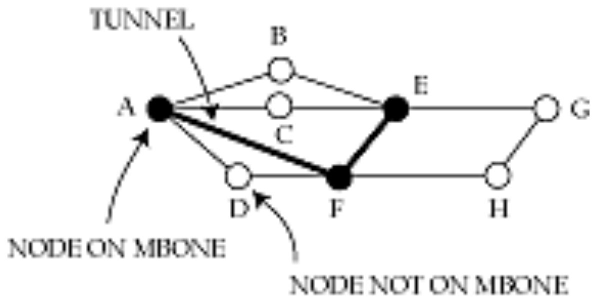
- Why do we need them?



- Consider packet sent from A to F via multicast-incapable D
- If packet's destination is Class D, D drops it
- If destination is F's address, F doesn't know multicast address!
- So, put packet destination as F, but carry multicast address internally
- Encapsulate IP in IP => set protocol type to IP-in-IP

Multicast routing protocol

- Interface on “shortest path” to source depends on whether path is real or virtual



- Shortest path from E
  - so packets from F will be flooded, but not from C
- Need to discover shortest paths only taking multicast-capable routers into account
  - DVMRP

DVMRP

- Distance-vector Multicast routing protocol
- Very similar to RIP
  - distance vector
  - hop count metric
- Used in conjunction with
  - flood-and-prune (to determine memberships)
    - prunes store per-source and per-group information
  - reverse-path forwarding (to decide where to forward a packet)
  - explicit join messages to reduce join latency (but no source info, so still need flooding)

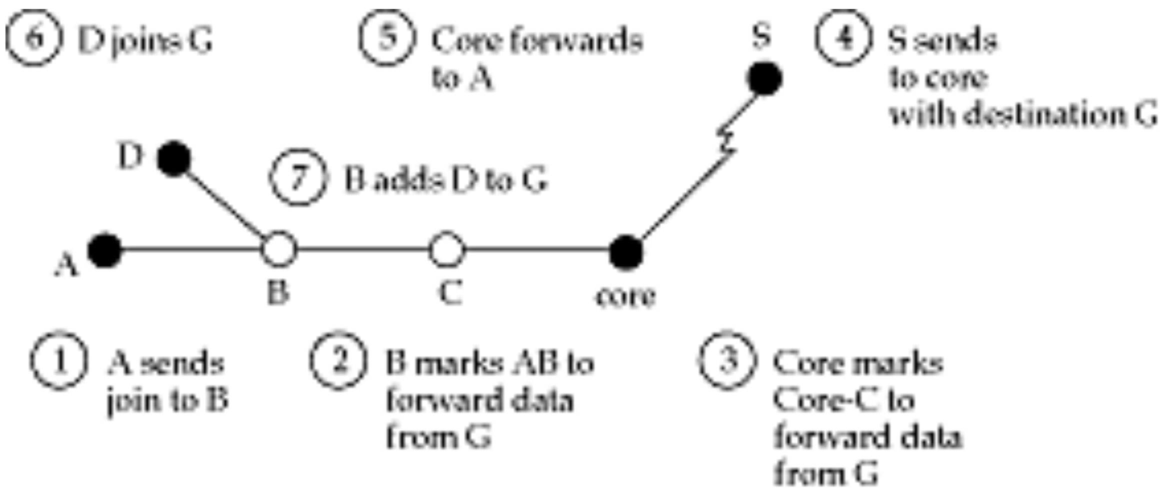
MOSPF

- Multicast extension to OSPF
- Routers flood group membership information with LSPs
- Each router independently computes shortest-path tree that only includes multicast-capable routers
  - no need to flood and prune
- Complex
  - interactions with external and summary records
  - need storage per group per link
  - need to compute shortest path tree per source and group

Core-based trees (CBT)

- Problems with DVMRP-oriented approach
  - need to periodically flood and prune to determine group members
  - need to source per-source and per-group prune records at each router
- Key idea with core-based tree
  - coordinate multicast with a *core* router
  - host sends a join request to core router
  - routers along path mark incoming interface for forwarding

Example

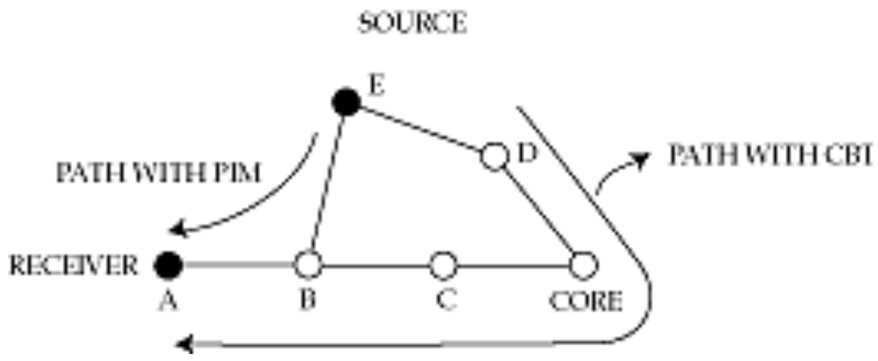


- Pros
  - routers not part of a group are not involved in pruning
  - explicit join/leave makes membership changes faster
  - router needs to store only one record per group
- Cons
  - all multicast traffic traverses core, which is a bottleneck
  - traffic travels on non-optimal paths

Protocol independent multicast (PIM)

- Tries to bring together best aspects of CBT and DVMRP
- Choose different strategies depending on whether multicast tree is *dense* or *sparse*
  - flood and prune good for dense groups
    - only need a few prunes
    - CBT needs explicit join per source/group
  - CBT good for sparse groups
- Dense mode PIM == DVMRP
- Sparse mode PIM is similar to CBT
  - but receivers can switch from CBT to a shortest-path tree

PIM (contd.)



- In CBT, E must send to core
- In PIM, B discovers shorter path to E (by looking at unicast routing table)
  - sends join message directly to E
  - sends prune message towards core
- Core no longer bottleneck
- Survives failure of core

More on core

- Renamed a *rendezvous point*
  - because it no longer carries all the traffic like a CBT core
- Rendezvous points periodically send “I am alive” messages downstream
- Leaf routers set timer on receipt
- If timer goes off, send a join request to alternative rendezvous point
- Problems
  - how to decide whether to use dense or sparse mode?
  - how to determine “best” rendezvous point?

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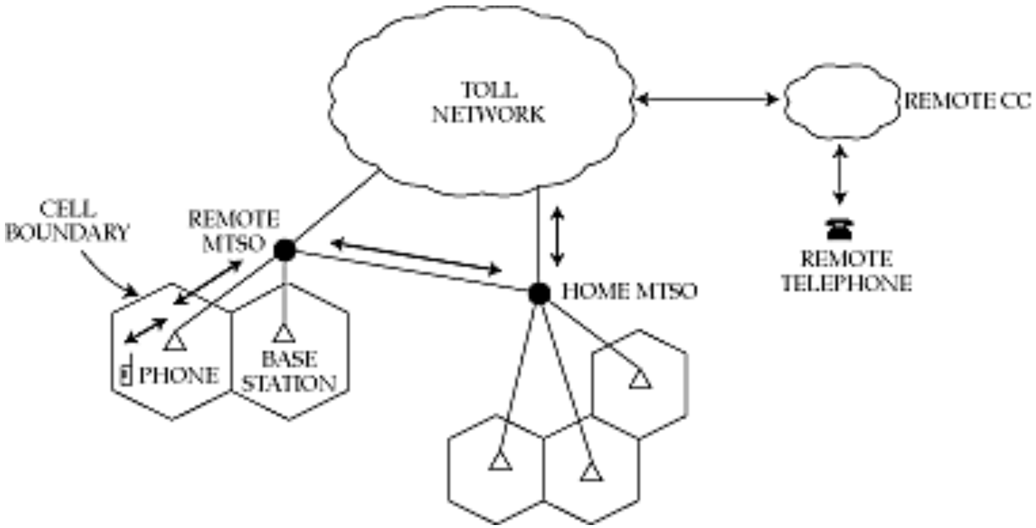
Mobile routing

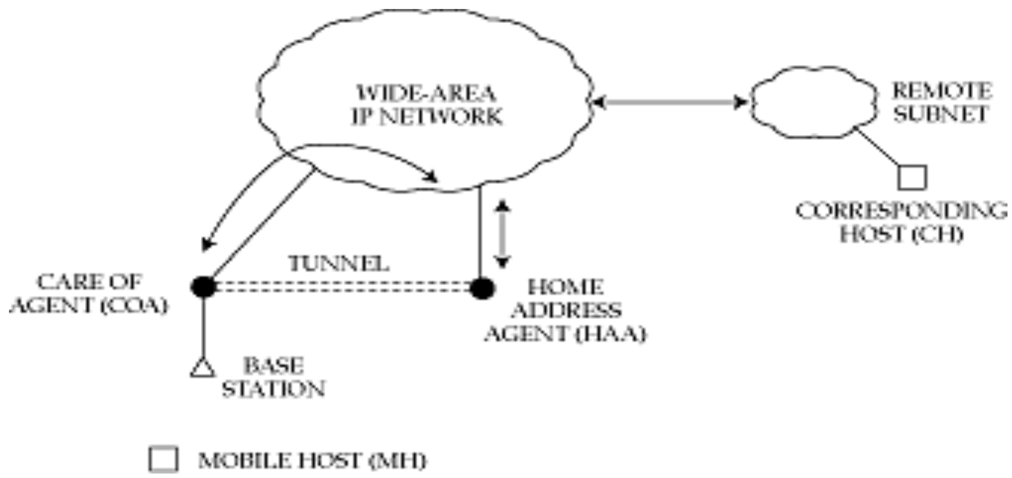
- How to find a mobile host?
- Two sub-problems
  - location (where is the host?)
  - routing (how to get packets to it?)
- We will study mobile routing in the Internet and in the telephone network

Mobile cellular routing



- Each cell phone has a global ID that it tells remote MTSO when turned on (using slotted ALOHA up channel)
- Remote MTSO tells home MTSO
- *To* phone: call forwarded to remote MTSO to closest base
- *From* phone: call forwarded to home MTSO from closest base
- New MTSOs can be added as load increases

Mobile routing in the Internet



- Very similar to mobile telephony
  - but outgoing traffic does not go through home
  - and need to use tunnels to forward data
- Use *registration* packets instead of slotted ALOHA
  - passed on to home address agent
- Old care-of-agent forwards packets to new care-of-agent until home address agent learns of change

Problems

- Security
  - mobile and home address agent share a common secret
  - checked before forwarding packets to COA
- Loops