

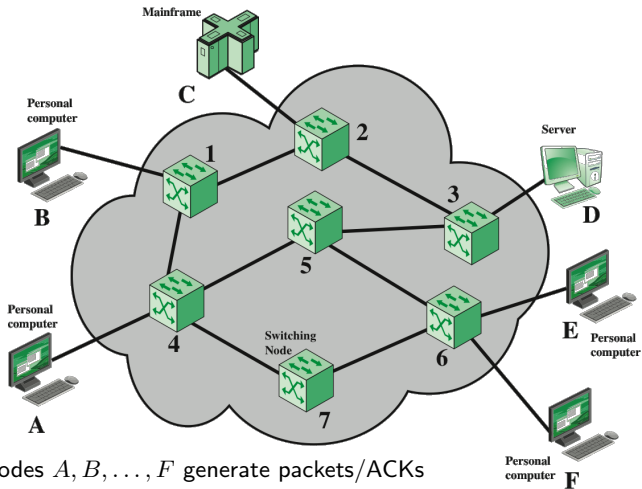
# Communication and Networking

## Routing Basics

D. Richard Brown III

(selected figures from Stallings Data and Computer Communications 10th edition)

# Routing



- ▶ Edge nodes  $A, B, \dots, F$  generate packets/ACKs
- ▶ Network nodes  $1, \dots, 7$  route packets/ACKs
- ▶ Goal is to correctly/efficiently transfer packets between edge nodes

# Terminology and Notation

- ▶ Edge nodes  $A, B, \dots, F$
- ▶ Network nodes  $1, \dots, 7$
- ▶ Hops: number of links between network nodes
  - ▶ Usually edge↔network links are not counted as hops
  - ▶  $A \leftrightarrow 4$  is not a hop
  - ▶  $4 \leftrightarrow 5$  is a hop
- ▶  $N_i$  is the set of network nodes directly connected to network node  $i$ 
  - ▶  $N_1 = \{2, 4\}$
  - ▶  $N_5 = \{3, 6, 4\}$
  - ▶ ...
- ▶  $E_i$  the set of edge nodes directly connected to network node  $i$ 
  - ▶  $E_1 = \{B\}$
  - ▶  $E_5 = \emptyset$
  - ▶  $E_6 = \{E, F\}$
  - ▶ ...

# Elements of Routing for Packet Switched Networks

We want our routing strategy to be simple, robust, fair, efficient, . . . .  
 These criteria must be traded off, however.

Elements of a routing strategy:

<p><b>Performance Criteria</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Number of hops</li> <li>Cost</li> <li>Delay</li> <li>Throughput</li> </ul> <p><b>Decision Time</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Packet (datagram)</li> <li>Session (virtual circuit)</li> </ul> <p><b>Decision Place</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Each node (distributed)</li> <li>Central node (centralized)</li> <li>Originating node (source)</li> </ul>	<p><b>Network Information Source</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>None</li> <li>Local</li> <li>Adjacent node</li> <li>Nodes along route</li> <li>All nodes</li> </ul> <p><b>Network Information Update Timing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Continuous</li> <li>Periodic</li> <li>Major load change</li> <li>Topology change</li> </ul>
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

# Routing Strategies

We will discuss:

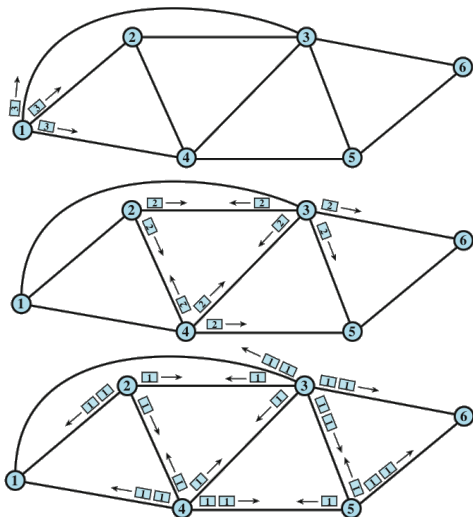
1. Flooding
2. Random routing
3. Fixed routing
4. Adaptive routing

Each has various tradeoffs among the performance criteria.

# Flooding

Basic idea:

1. Network node  $i$  receives a packet from edge/network node  $j$
2. Network node  $i$  checks if destination is in  $E_i$ 
  - ▶ Yes? Packet is forwarded to destination node and done
  - ▶ No? Packet is forwarded to **all** nodes in  $N_i$  except node  $j$  (this is the node that sent the packet to node  $i$ )



# Flooding Advantages and Disadvantages

## Advantages:

- ▶ Guaranteed minimum delay delivery!
- ▶ Robust since packet travels all routes
- ▶ Very simple: network nodes don't need to know anything except  $N_i$  and  $E_i$
- ▶ Could be used to set up a virtual circuit (call setup)
- ▶ Might be useful for broadcast messages

## Problems/Disadvantages:

- ▶ Packets never die
  - ▶ Fix 1: Have nodes recognize and not forward duplicate packets
  - ▶ Fix 2: Add maximum hop count to each packet. Each network node decrements the maximum hop counter until it is zero (like TTL) and then the packet is dropped
- ▶ Destination will likely receive several copies of the packet
  - ▶ Fix: use a unique sequence number and discard duplicates
- ▶ Very inefficient due to large amounts of redundant traffic.

# Random Forwarding

## Basic idea:

1. Network node  $i$  receives a packet from edge/network node  $j$
2. Network node  $i$  checks if destination is in  $E_i$ 
  - ▶ Yes? Packet is forwarded to destination node and done
  - ▶ No? Packet is forwarded to **one randomly chosen node** in  $N_i$  except node  $j$  (this is the node that sent the packet to node  $i$ )

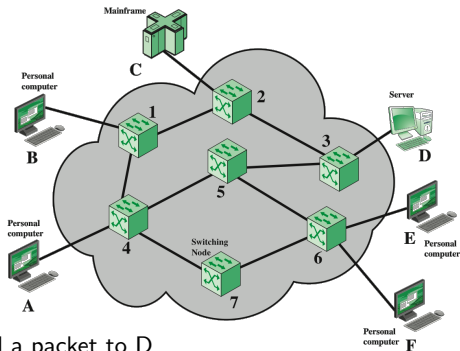
Note that the forwarding probabilities can be non-uniform.

## Advantages/Disadvantages/Problems:

1. Very simple: network nodes don't need to know anything except  $N_i$  and  $E_i$
2. Potentially robust
3. Much less redundant traffic than flooding
4. Better fairness than flooding
5. Packet may take a long time to deliver
6. Packet may travel more hops than necessary



# Random Forwarding Example

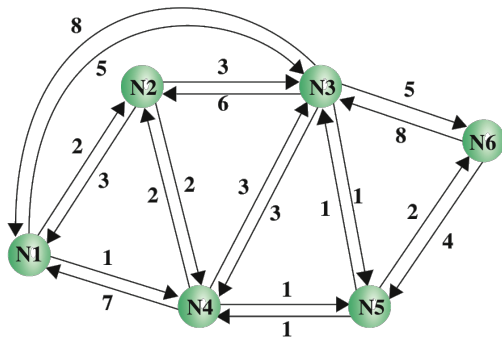


- ▶ A wants to send a packet to D
- ▶  $A \rightarrow 4$
- ▶ 4 randomly chooses between 1, 5, and 7:  $4 \rightarrow 7$
- ▶ 7 can only forward to 6:  $7 \rightarrow 6$
- ▶ 6 can only forward to 5:  $6 \rightarrow 5$
- ▶ 5 randomly chooses between 3 and 4:  $5 \rightarrow 4$
- ▶ ...

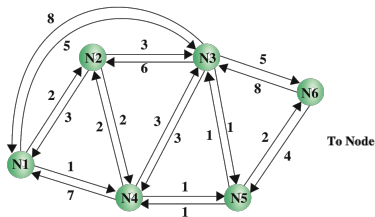
# Fixed Routing

## Basic idea:

- ▶ Each link is assigned a “cost”, typically proportional to delay and inversely proportional to throughput
- ▶ Prior to forwarding any packets, the network builds a table of optimum (lowest cost) routes between each pair of network nodes
- ▶ The lowest cost route may not be the same as the minimum hop route
- ▶ These routes are permanent



## Fixed Routing: Routing Table Example



CENTRAL ROUTING DIRECTORY

	From Node					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	—	1	5	2	4	5
2	2	—	5	2	4	5
3	4	3	—	5	3	5
4	4	4	5	—	4	5
5	4	4	5	5	—	5
6	4	4	5	5	6	—

Node 1 Directory

Destination	Next Node
2	2
3	4
4	4
5	4
6	4

Node 2 Directory

Destination	Next Node
1	1
3	3
4	4
5	4
6	4

Node 3 Directory

Destination	Next Node
1	5
2	5
4	5
5	5
6	5

Node 4 Directory

Destination	Next Node
1	2
2	2
3	5
5	5
6	5

Node 5 Directory

Destination	Next Node
1	4
2	4
3	3
4	4
6	6

Node 6 Directory

Destination	Next Node
1	5
2	5
3	5
4	5
5	5

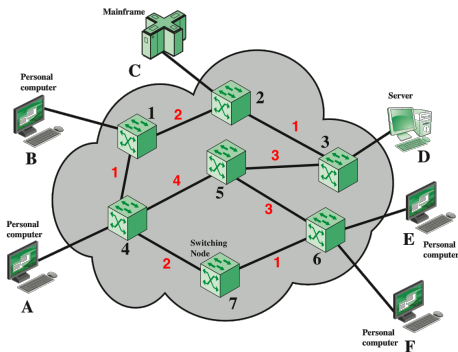
# Fixed Routing: Key Concepts

- ▶ Each network node  $k = 1, \dots, N$  only keeps the relevant part of the central routing table in its memory. This can be thought of as a “next node” vector indexed by destination:

$$S_k = \begin{bmatrix} s_{k,1} \\ \vdots \\ s_{k,N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{next node if destination is } 1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{next node if destination is } N \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ Given a destination node, each network node knows the next node for the minimum cost route
- ▶ Network nodes may also need to know all  $E_i$  to determine which network node is the correct destination for a given edge node

# Fixed Routing Example (Symmetric Link Costs)



- ▶ First build  $7 \times 7$  centralized routing table (on board) and  $E_1, \dots, E_7$
- ▶ A wants to send a packet to D
- ▶  $A \rightarrow 4$  with destination address  $D$
- ▶ 4 knows  $D \in E_3$ , looks at routing table, and routes  $4 \rightarrow 1$
- ▶ 1 knows  $D \in E_3$ , looks at routing table, and routes  $1 \rightarrow 2$
- ▶ 2 knows  $D \in E_3$ , looks at routing table, and routes  $2 \rightarrow 3$
- ▶ 3 knows  $D$  is a connected edge node and delivers the packet

# Fixed Routing: Advantages/Disadvantages

## Advantages:

- ▶ If cost=delay, then messages are delivered with minimum delay
- ▶ No redundant traffic
- ▶ Fairly simple (not as simple as flooding or random forwarding)

## Disadvantages/Problems:

- ▶ Establishes virtual circuits:
  - ▶ less robust to network problems
  - ▶ may not react to congestion
- ▶ Overhead from setting up routing tables
- ▶ How to find the minimum cost routes? (Section 19.4: Dijkstra's Algorithm, Bellman-Ford Algorithm)
- ▶ More knowledge needed by network nodes than flooding/random forwarding
- ▶ Lack of flexibility

# Adaptive Routing

## Basic idea:

- ▶ Routing decisions are dynamic and are based on the current network conditions
- ▶ Routes updated when network state changes, e.g.,
  - ▶ Node failure detected
  - ▶ New nodes added to the network
  - ▶ Congestion detected
- ▶ Used in almost all packet switching networks
- ▶ Can be very complex to implement

Three classes of adaptive routing schemes:

1. Use only local information (isolated adaptive routing)
2. Use information from adjacent nodes
  - ▶ Distributed or centralized
3. Use information from all other nodes
  - ▶ Distributed or centralized

# Adaptive Routing Example: Distance Vector Routing

Used in first-generation ARPANET. Basic idea:

- ▶  $N$  is the number of network nodes
- ▶ Like fixed routing, each node  $k = 1, \dots, N$  has a “next node” vector indexed by destination

$$S_k[n] = \begin{bmatrix} s_{k,1}[n] \\ \vdots \\ s_{k,N}[n] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{next node if destination is } 1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{next node if destination is } N \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ Each network node  $k = 1, \dots, N$  also has a “distance vector”

$$D_k[n] = \begin{bmatrix} d_{k,1}[n] \\ \vdots \\ d_{k,N}[n] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{least known delay to node } 1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{least known delay to node } N \end{bmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Periodically, nodes exchange distance vectors with neighbors
- ▶ Each node  $k = 1, \dots, N$  then updates its “next node” and distance vectors



# Distance Vector Routing: How to Update $S_k[n]$ and $D_k[n]$

Recall  $N_k$  is the set of neighbors for network node  $k$ .

After the distance vector exchange, node  $k$  has  $D_i[n]$  from all  $i \in N_k$ .

Node  $k$  then updates all of its least known delays and next nodes. For  $j = 1, \dots, N$  but  $j \neq k$  we compute

$$d_{k,j}[n+1] = \min_{i \in N_k} (d_{k,i}[n] + d_{i,j}[n])$$

$$s_{k,j}[n] = \arg \min_{i \in N_k} (d_{k,i}[n] + d_{i,j}[n])$$

Intuition:

- ▶  $d_{k,i}[n]$  is the least known delay  $k \rightarrow i$  where  $i$  is a neighbor of  $k$ .
- ▶  $d_{i,j}[n]$  is the least known delay  $i \rightarrow j$ .
- ▶ Node  $k$  searches through all of its neighbors ( $i \in N_k$ ) to find the new least known delay to each destination node  $j = 1, \dots, N$ .

# Distance Vector Routing Example (part 1 of 2)

Suppose  $N = 6$ ,  $k = 1$ , and  $N_k = \{2, 3, 4\}$ . The current state at node  $k$  is

$$S_k[n] = \begin{bmatrix} - \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D_k[n] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0.02 \\ 0.05 \\ 0.01 \\ 0.06 \\ 0.08 \end{bmatrix}$$

After the distance vector exchange, node  $k$  receives the distance vectors

$$D_2[n] = \begin{bmatrix} 0.03 \\ 0 \\ 0.03 \\ 0.02 \\ 0.03 \\ 0.05 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D_3[n] = \begin{bmatrix} 0.07 \\ 0.04 \\ 0 \\ 0.02 \\ 0.01 \\ 0.03 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad D_4[n] = \begin{bmatrix} 0.05 \\ 0.02 \\ 0.02 \\ 0 \\ 0.01 \\ 0.03 \end{bmatrix}$$

Node  $k$  must now update its distance vector and next node vector...

# Distance Vector Routing Example (part 2 of 2)

Updating elements of the distance and next node vectors at network node  $k = 1$ :

$j = 1$  : skip

$$j = 2 : d_{1,2}[n+1] = \min_{i \in \{2,3,4\}} (d_{1,i}[n] + d_{i,2}[n]) = 0.02 \quad \Rightarrow s_{1,2}[n+1] = 2$$

$$j = 3 : d_{1,3}[n+1] = \min_{i \in \{2,3,4\}} (d_{1,i}[n] + d_{i,3}[n]) = 0.03 \quad \Rightarrow s_{1,3}[n+1] = 4$$

$$j = 4 : d_{1,4}[n+1] = \min_{i \in \{2,3,4\}} (d_{1,i}[n] + d_{i,4}[n]) = 0.01 \quad \Rightarrow s_{1,3}[n+1] = 4$$

$$j = 5 : d_{1,5}[n+1] = \min_{i \in \{2,3,4\}} (d_{1,i}[n] + d_{i,5}[n]) = 0.02 \quad \Rightarrow s_{1,3}[n+1] = 4$$

$$j = 6 : d_{1,6}[n+1] = \min_{i \in \{2,3,4\}} (d_{1,i}[n] + d_{i,6}[n]) = 0.04 \quad \Rightarrow s_{1,3}[n+1] = 4$$

These values then are used to populate the vectors  $D_1[n+1]$  and  $S_1[n+1]$ .

Note this procedure is performed at all network nodes  $k = 1, \dots, N$ .

# Final Remarks

- ▶ Four types of routing covered:
  1. Flooding
  2. Random forwarding
  3. Fixed routing
  4. Adaptive routing
- ▶ Adaptive routing is the most common method (but can be very complex)
  - ▶ Distance vector routing
  - ▶ Link-state routing
  - ▶ ...
- ▶ Exterior/interior routing protocols used in large-scale networks, e.g., the border gateway protocol (BGP) and open shortest path first (OSPF) (see section 19.3)
- ▶ Efficient algorithms for finding least-cost routes (see section 19.4):
  - ▶ Dijkstra's algorithm
  - ▶ Bellman-Ford algorithm