

## Network Layer - Control plane -

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### Network-layer Functions

### Recall: two network-layer functions:

- forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- routing: determine route taken by packets from source to destination

data plane

control plane

Two approaches to structuring network control plane:

- per-router control (traditional)
- logically centralized control (software defined networking)





### Routing protocols

*Routing protocol goal:* determine "good" paths (equivalently, routes), from sending hosts to receiving host, through network of routers

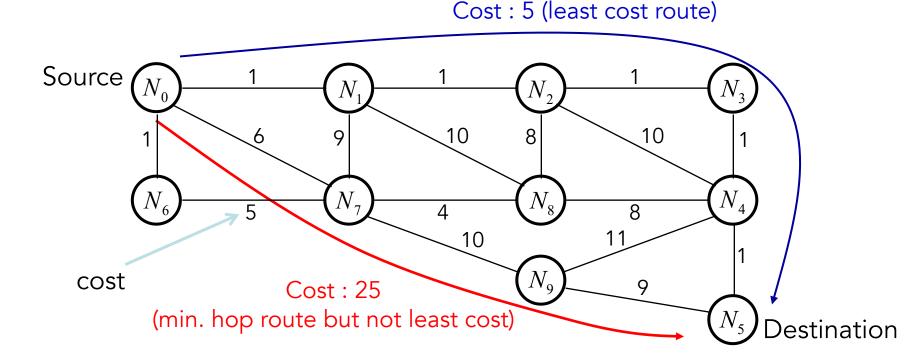
- path: sequence of routers packets will traverse in going from given initial source host to given final destination host
- good": least "cost", "fastest", "least congested"
- □ routing: a "top-10" networking challenge!





## Shortest Path Routing Problem

- $\Box$  The cost of a path = the sum of all the link costs on the path
- Find the path with the least cost between a pair of source and destination







### What is the Cost?

- □ Some fixed quantity:
  - Link length or hop count
  - Speed or bandwidth
  - Propagation delay
  - Some combination of the above
- Possibly, variable quantity:
  - Average traffic expected at a given time
  - Buffer occupancy (queueing)
  - Processing delay (e.g., DPI)
  - Error conditions





### User requirements

Different users prefer different routing paths

- File transfer -- high bandwidth path
- Interactive communication (e.g., VoIP) -- low delay path (avoid satellite links!)
- Important Information (e.g., money transfer) -- secure data 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





### Centralized vs. Decentralized

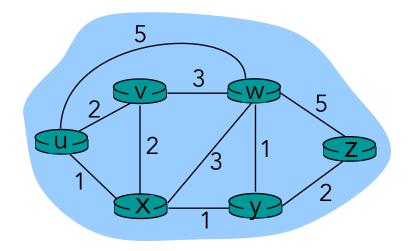
### □ Centralized Routing:

- A central entity calculates all paths between source and destination nodes, and
- Then, distributes routing information to all the nodes
- **Problems:** single point of failure, complexity, etc.
- Decentralized Routing:
  - Each node exchanges cost and routing information
    - Keep exchanging with its neighbors until routing table converges
  - **Problems:** Convergence and sub-optimality (due to delayed information).





## Graph abstraction of the network



graph: G = (N, E) where N: nodes, E: edges

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

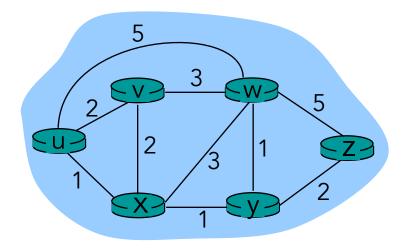
E = set of links ={ (u,v), (u,x), (v,x), (v,w), (x,w), (x,y), (w,y), (w,z), (y,z) }

*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,y) = cost of link (x,y)(e.g., c(w,z) = 5)

cost could always be 1, or inversely related to bandwidth, or inversely related to congestion

cost of path 
$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_p) = c(x_1, x_2) + c(x_2, x_3) + ... + c(x_{p-1}, x_p)$$

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

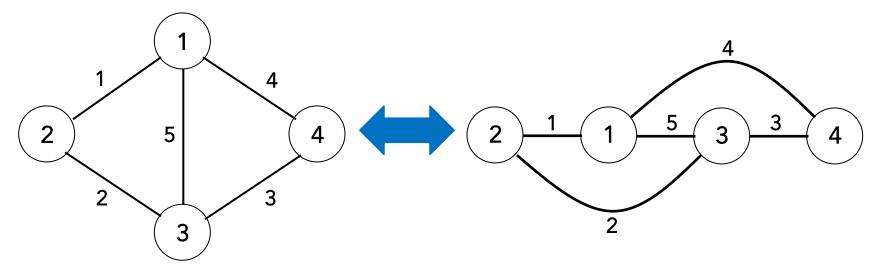




### Basic Graph Theoretic Notations

### Definitions:

- A graph (or undirected graph) G = (N, A) is defined to be a finite non-empty set N of nodes and a collection A of pairs of distinct nodes from N
- Each pair of nodes in A is called an arc (or link, edge)
- Same graph with very different pictorial representation:





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### Basic Graph Theoretic Notations

 $\Box$  Can the following be a graph G(N,A)?



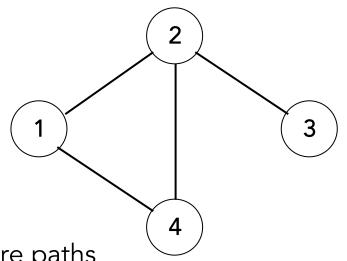
- Walk
  - A walk in a graph G is a sequence of nodes (n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>, ..., n<sub>L</sub>) such that the pairs (n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>), (n<sub>2</sub>, n<sub>3</sub>), ...., (n<sub>L-1</sub>, n<sub>L</sub>) are arcs of G
- Path
  - A walk with no repeated nodes is called a path
- Cycle
  - A walk  $(n_1, n_2, ..., n_L)$  with  $n_1 = n_L$ ,  $L \ge 4$ , and no repeated nodes other than  $n_1 = n_L$  is called a cycle.





### Examples

 Graph with a net of nodes N={1, 2, 3, 4}, and a set of arcs A={ (1,2), (2,3), (2,4), (4,1) }



- The sequence (1, 4, 2, 3) and (2) are paths
- The sequence (1, 4, 2, 1) is a cycle
- Sequences (1, 4, 2, 3), (1, 4, 2, 1), (1, 4, 2, 1, 4, 1), (2, 3, 2) and (2) are all walks

(Note : (2, 3, 2) and (2) are not considered cycles)

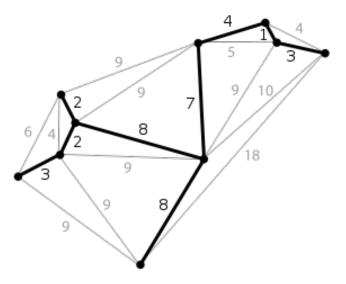




## Basic Graph Theoretic Notations

□ More definitions:

- A graph is *connected* if for each node i, there is a path (i = n<sub>1</sub>, n<sub>2</sub>, ..., n<sub>L</sub> = j) to every other node j
- A tree is a connected graph that contains no cycles
- A spanning tree of a connected graph G is a subgraph of G that contains all the nodes in G and is also a tree



**spanning tree** (figure from http://en.wikipedia.org)

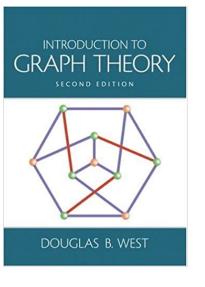




### Basic Graph Theoretic Notations

□ Proposition:

- Let G be a connected graph (N, A), then,
- 1) G contains a spanning tree
- 2)  $|A| \ge |N| 1$
- 3) G is a tree if and only if |A| = |N| 1
  - Proof can be done by induction.





## 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 dest.'s

#### Notation:

- □ C(x,y): link cost from node x to y; c(x,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:
- 2  $N' = \{u\}$
- 3 for all nodes v
- 4 if v adjacent to u 5

```
then D(v) = c(u,v)
```

```
else D(v) = \infty
6
```

```
Loop
8
```

7

- 9 find w not in N' such that D(w) is a minimum
- 10 add w to N'
- 11 update D(v) for all v adjacent to w and not in N' :
- 12 D(v) = min(D(v), D(w) + c(w,v))
- 13 /\* new cost to v is either old cost to v or known
- shortest path cost to w plus cost from w to v \*/ 14
- 15 until all nodes in N'



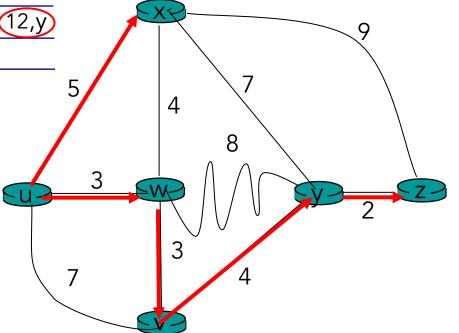


### Dijkstra's algorithm: example

		D( <b>v</b> ) [	)( <b>w</b> )	D(x)	D(y)	D(z)		
Step	5 N'	p(v)	p(w)	p(x)	p(y)	p(z)		
0	u	7,u (	3,u	5,u	$\infty$	$\infty$		
1	uw	6,w		(5,u	)11,w	$\infty$		
2	uwx	6,w			11,w	14,x		
3	UWXV				10,0	14,x		
4	uwxvy					(12,y)	X-2	
5	uwxvyz							

#### notes:

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

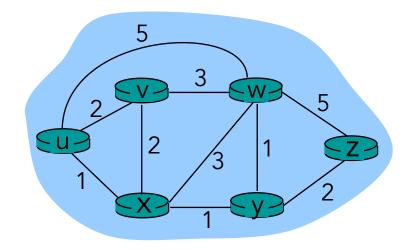






### Dijkstra's algorithm: another example

Step	N'	D(v),p(v)	D(w),p(w)	D(x),p(x)	D(y),p(y)	D(z),p(z)
0	u	2,u	5,u	1,u	$\infty$	$\infty$
1	UX 🔶	2,u	4,x		2,x	$\infty$
2	uxy₄	2,u	З,у			4,y
3	uxyv 🗸		З,у			4,y
4	uxyvw 🔶					4,y
5	uxyvwz ←					



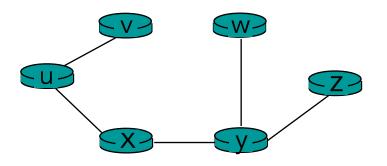


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### Dijkstra's algorithm: example (2)

resulting shortest-path tree from u:



resulting forwarding table in u:

destination	link		
V	(u,v)		
Х	(u,x)		
У	(u,x)		
W	(u,x)		
Z	(u,x)		





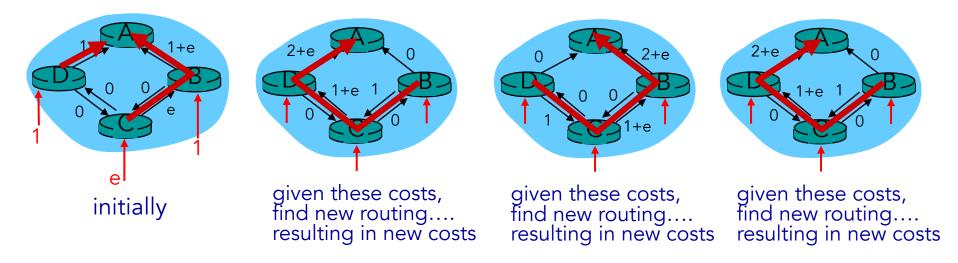
## Dijkstra's algorithm, discussion

### algorithm complexity: n nodes

- $\hfill\square$  each iteration: need to check all nodes, w, not in N
- $\Box$  n(n-1)/2 comparisons: O(n<sup>2</sup>)
- more efficient implementations possible: O(nlogn)

### oscillations possible:

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







Bellman-Ford equation (dynamic programming)

Let

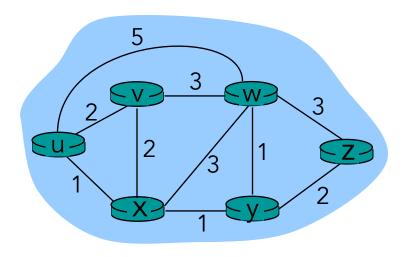
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d_x(y) := \text{cost of least-cost path from x to y} then
```

```
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:

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

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





- $\square$  D<sub>x</sub>(y) = estimate of least cost from x to y
  - x maintains distance vector  $D_x = [D_x(y): y \in N]$

### □ Node x:

- knows cost to each neighbor v: c(x,v)
- maintains its neighbors' distance vectors.
   For each neighbor v, x maintains
   D<sub>v</sub> = [D<sub>v</sub>(y): y ∈ N ]





### 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:

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

 under minor, natural conditions, the estimate D<sub>x</sub>(y) converge to the actual least cost d<sub>x</sub>(y)



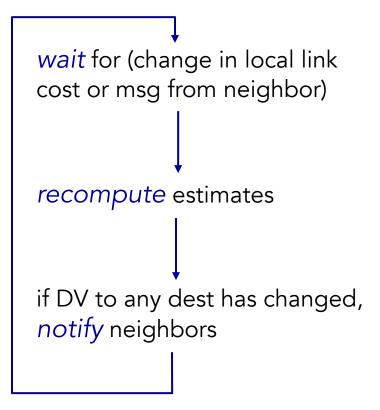


- *iterative, asynchronous:* each local iteration caused by:
- local link cost change
- DV update message from neighbor

### distributed:

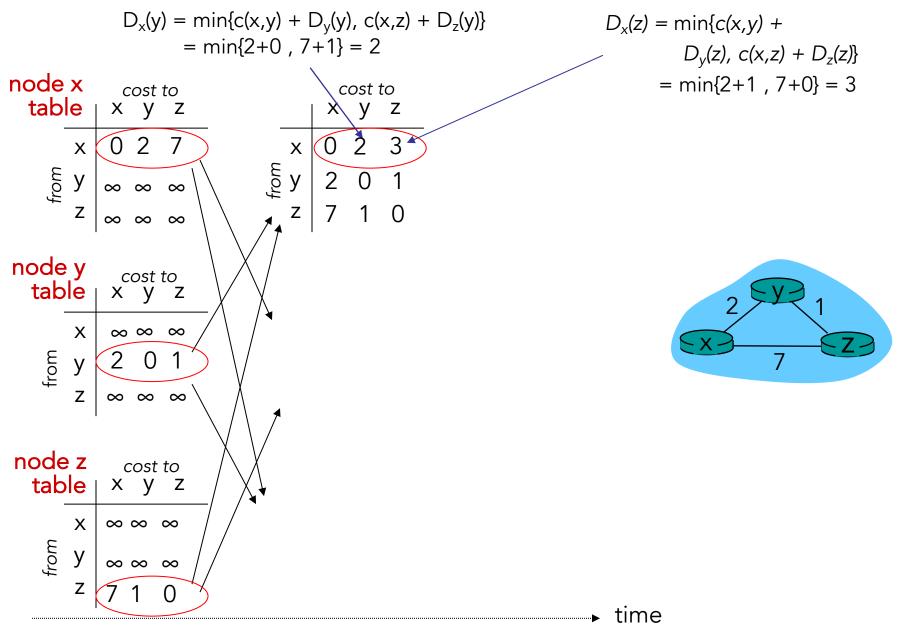
- each node notifies
   neighbors only when its DV
   changes
  - neighbors then notify their neighbors if necessary

each node:







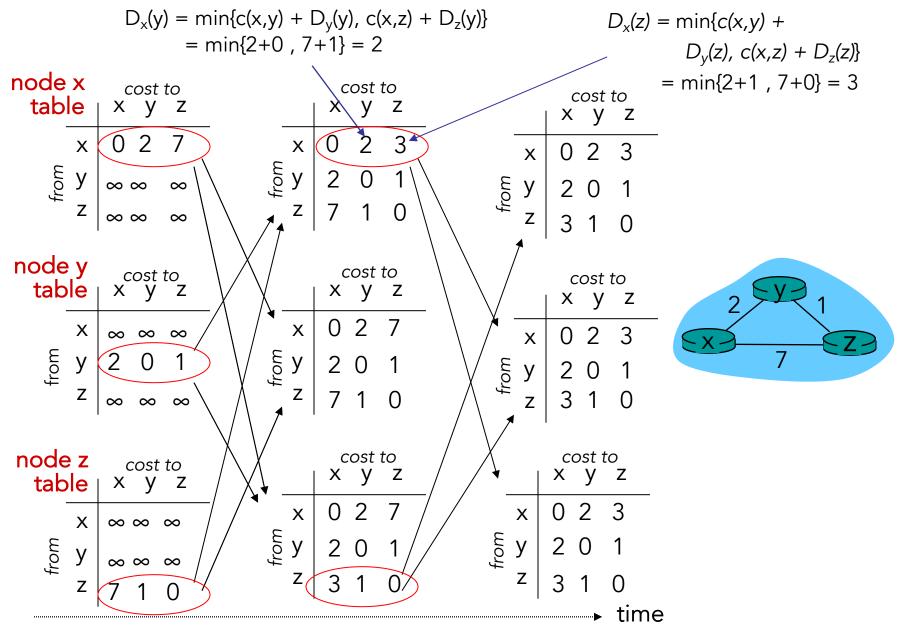




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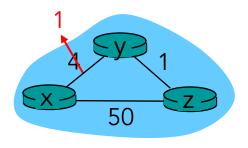


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### Distance vector: link cost changes

#### Link cost changes:

- node detects local link cost change
- updates routing info, recalculates distance vector
- if DV changes, notify neighbors



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

Good news travels fast

 $t_1$ : 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.

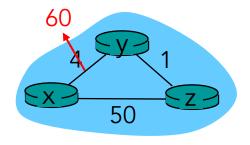




### Distance vector: link cost changes

#### 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:

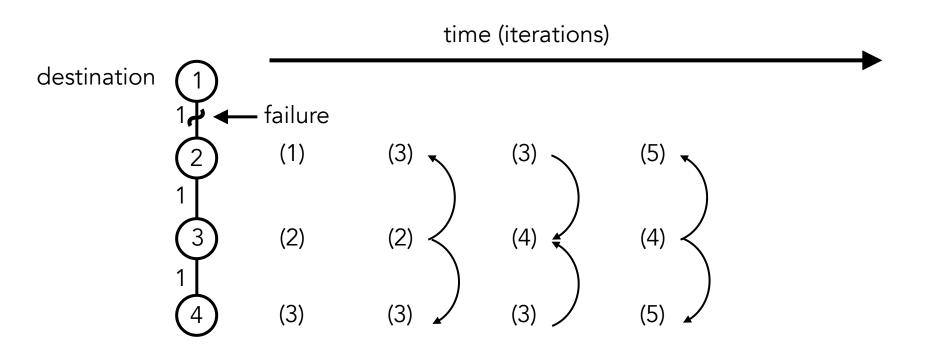
- If z routes through y to get to x :
  - z tells y its (z's) distance to x is infinite (so y won't route to x via z)
- will this completely solve count to infinity problem?





## Count-to-Infinity Problem

Slow convergence under topology change
 An example



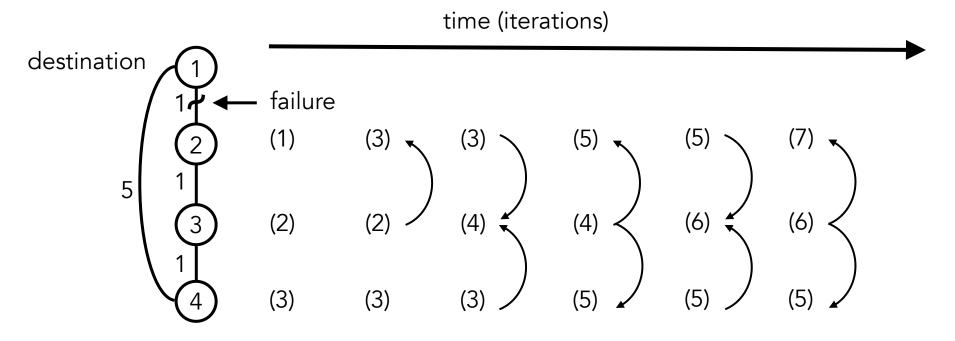
→ Need to set a maximum cost





## Count-to-Infinity Problem

 In general, the more unequal the link costs, the longer the convergence time is





- Bellman-Ford algorithm can be readily adapted for decentralized or distributed routing
  - Algorithm requires very little information to be stored at the network nodes
    - Nodes do not require information of network topology
  - At each node: it suffices to have

     the length (cost) of its outgoing links,
     the identity of every node, and
     the cost (shortest path) of its immediate neighbors to the destination.





- Each node maintains two tables
  - Distance table:
    - A vector of distances to all destinations, called a *distance vector*
    - Neighboring nodes exchange distance vectors
  - Routing table:
    - Based on the distance vector, compute (or load) the next-hop node to go to for all destinations and the associated costs





□ Initialization (at v to destination d)

- $D_v^{(0)} = \infty, v \neq d$
- $D_d^{(0)} = 0$

□ Iterative steps (at h-th step)

• 
$$D_d^{(h+1)} = 0$$
  
•  $D_v^{(h+1)} = \min_{w \in N(v)} [D_w^{(h)} + l(v, w)]$ , for each  $v \neq d$  (\*)  
where  $N(v)$  is the set of neighbors of node  $v$   
 $l(v, w) = \infty$ , if  $w$  is not a neighbor of  $v$ 

 Algorithm is well suited for distributed computing, since (\*) can be executed at each node v in parallel.





- □ Synchronous Case:
  - (\*) is executed at each node v in parallel (in lock steps), and simultaneously
  - Exchange their results of computation with their neighbors
  - Execute again with index h incremented by 1
- Pros
  - The algorithm terminates in at most *N*-1 iterations (*N*: # of all nodes)
- □ Cons:
  - How to make all the nodes to agree to start/stop each iteration (i.e., synchronization)
  - How to abort the algorithm and start a new version
    - For the case when a link status or cost changes, while it is running





## Asynchronous Distributed Algorithm

 Basic Idea: The algorithm operates by executing the iteration from time to time at each node v

$$D_{v} = \min_{w \in N(v)} [l(v, w) + D_{w}]$$
(+)

- Each node uses the latest " $D_w$ " received from its neighbors
- No need of synchronization at all nodes
- Only requirement is that a node v will
  - Eventually execute the B-F equation (+)
  - Eventually transmit this information to its neighbors.





## Asynchronous Distributed Algorithm

### Advantages

- No need for synchronization
- Need not start with the normal B-F initial condition  $(D_v^{(0)} = \infty)$
- Eliminates the need for an algorithm initialization or restart
- Question: Does this asynchronous algorithm converge to a shortest path solution?
  - Answer: Yes, provided that each node v executes (+) and  $D_v$  changes are eventually transmitted to its neighbors, etc.

\* It can be shown that if a number of link length (cost) changes occur up to some time  $t_0$  and then no other changes occur subsequently, then within a finite amount of time (from  $t_0$ ), the asynchronous algorithm will find the shortest distance for every node v (Bertsekas & Gallager).





## 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<sup>2</sup>) 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:

- node can advertise incorrect path cost
- each node's table used by others
  - error propagate thru network



