Tutorial on Network Layers 2 and 3

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Why?

• Demystify this portion of networking, so people don’t drown in the alphabet soup
• Think about these things critically
• N-party protocols are “the most interesting”
• Lots of issues are common to other layers
• You can’t design layer n without understanding layers n-1 and n+1
What can we do in 1 ½ hours?

- Understand the concepts
- Understand various approaches, and tradeoffs, and where to go to learn more
- A little of the history: without this, it’s hard to really “grok” why things are the way they are
Outline

• layer 2 issues: addresses, multiplexing, bridges, spanning tree algorithm
• layer 3: addresses, neighbor discovery, connectionless vs connection-oriented
  – Routing protocols
    • Distance vector
    • Link state
    • Path vector
• Layer 2 ½ ... as if 2 vs 3 weren’t confusing enough
Why this whole layer 2/3 thing?

- Myth: bridges/switches simpler devices, designed before routers
- OSI Layers
  - 1: physical
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  - 1: physical
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  - 3: network (create entire path, e.g., IP)
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- OSI Layers
  - 1: physical
  - 2: data link (nbr-nbr, e.g., Ethernet)
  - 3: network (create entire path, e.g., IP)
  - 4 end-to-end (e.g., TCP, UDP)
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• OSI Layers
  – 1: physical
  – 2: data link (nbr-nbr, e.g., Ethernet)
  – 3: network (create entire path, e.g., IP)
  – 4 end-to-end (e.g., TCP, UDP)
  – 5 and above: boring
Definitions

- Repeater: layer 1 relay
Definitions

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- Bridge: layer 2 relay
Definitions

• Repeater: layer 1 relay
• Bridge: layer 2 relay
• Router: layer 3 relay
Definitions

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- Bridge: layer 2 relay
- Router: layer 3 relay
- OK: What is layer 2 vs layer 3?
Definitions

- **Repeater**: layer 1 relay
- **Bridge**: layer 2 relay
- **Router**: layer 3 relay
- **OK**: What is layer 2 vs layer 3?
  - The “right” definition: layer 2 is neighbor-neighbor. “Relays” should only be in layer 3!
Definitions

- Repeater: layer 1 relay
- Bridge: layer 2 relay
- Router: layer 3 relay
- OK: What is layer 2 vs layer 3?
- True definition of a layer n protocol:
  Anything designed by a committee whose charter is to design a layer n protocol
Layer 3 (e.g., IPv4, IPv6, DECnet, Appletalk, IPX, etc.)

- Put source, destination, hop count on packet
- Addresses are assigned so that a bunch of addresses can be summarized with a prefix
- Just like postal addresses:
  - Country
  - State
  - City
Layer 3 packet

Layer 3 header
Ethernet packet

source | dest | data

Ethernet header
Ethernet (802) addresses

- Assigned in blocks of $2^{24}$
- Given 23-bit constant (OUI) plus g/i bit
- All 1’s intended to mean “broadcast”
Ethernet addresses are “flat”

- Which means that Ethernet addresses have nothing to do with where a device is
- It looks like there is structure there, but the whole point of the OUI is to assign a fixed address at time of manufacture
Ethernet “religion” was autoconfiguration

- Assigning addresses are the manufacturer’s problem
- Then the customer just plugs things together and they work
It’s easy to confuse “Ethernet” with “network”

• Both are multiaccess clouds
• But Ethernet does not scale. It can’t replace IP as the Internet Protocol
  – Flat addresses
  – No hop count
  – Missing additional protocols (such as neighbor discovery)
  – Perhaps missing features (such as fragmentation, error messages, congestion feedback)
Original Ethernet Design

• CSMA/CD
  – CS: “carrier sense” listen before talking so you don’t interrupt
  – MA: “multiple access” shared medium
  – CD: “collision detect” listen even while talking in case someone else started talking at “the same time”
  – Do exponential random backoff if collision
CSMA/CD pretty much dead

• So what is Ethernet today?
So where did bridges come from?
So where did bridges come from?

- Early 1980’s…Ethernet new and highly hyped
- People thought it was “the new way to do networking”
- People built applications directly on Ethernet (leaving out layer 3)
Problem Statement

Need something that will sit between two Ethernets, and let a station on one Ethernet talk to another
Basic idea

- Listen promiscuously
- Learn location of source address based on source address in packet and port from which packet received
- Forward based on learned location of destination
What’s different between this and a repeater?

- no collisions
- with learning, can use more aggregate bandwidth than on any one link
- no artifacts of LAN technology (# of stations in ring, distance of CSMA/CD)
But loops are a disaster

- No hop count
- Exponential proliferation
But loops are a disaster

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- No hop count
- Exponential proliferation
But loops are a disaster

• No hop count
• Exponential proliferation
What to do about loops?

• Just say “don’t do that”
• Or, spanning tree algorithm
  – Bridges gossip amongst themselves
  – Compute loop-free subset
  – Forward data on the spanning tree
  – Other links are backups
Algorhyme

I think that I shall never see
   A graph more lovely than a tree.
A tree whose crucial property
   Is loop-free connectivity.
A tree which must be sure to span
   So packets can reach every LAN.
First the Root must be selected
   By ID it is elected.
Least cost paths from Root are traced
   In the tree these paths are placed.
A mesh is made by folks like me.
   Then bridges find a spanning tree.

Radia Perlman
Bother with spanning tree?

• Maybe just tell customers “don’t do loops”
• First bridge sold...
First Bridge Sold
Suboptimal routes
So Bridges were a kludge, digging out of a bad decision

• Why are they so popular?
  – plug and play
  – simplicity
  – high performance

• Will they go away?
  – because of idiosyncracy of IP, need it for lower layer.
Note some things about bridges

• Certainly don’t get optimal source/destination paths

• Temporary loops are a disaster
  – No hop count
  – Exponential proliferation

• But they are wonderfully plug-and-play
Switches

• Ethernet used to be bus
• Easier to wire, more robust if star (one huge multiport repeater with pt-to-pt links)
• If store and forward rather than repeater, and with learning, more aggregate bandwidth
• Can cascade devices...do spanning tree
• We’re reinvented the bridge!
Basic idea of a packet

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination address</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source address</td>
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</table>

| data |
Hdrs inside hdrs

As transmitted by S? (L2 hdr, L3 hdr)
As transmitted by R1?
As received by D?
Hdrs inside hdrs

S:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Dest=β</th>
<th>Dest=D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source=α</td>
<td></td>
<td>Source=S</td>
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Layer 2 hdr  Layer 3 hdr
Hdrs inside hdrs

R1:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Dest=δ</th>
<th>Dest=D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source=χ</td>
<td>Source=S</td>
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Layer 2 hdr     Layer 3 hdr
Hdrs inside hdrs

R2:

<table>
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<th>Destination (Dest) = D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source (Source) = S</td>
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Layer 2 hdr  | Layer 3 hdr
Hdrs inside hdrs

R3:

- Dest=\(\phi\)
- Source=\(\epsilon\)

<table>
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<th>Layer 3 hdr</th>
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<td>Source=(\epsilon)</td>
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What designing “layer 3” meant

• Layer 3 addresses
• Layer 3 packet format (IP, DECnet)
  – Source, destination, hop count, …
• A routing algorithm
  – Exchange information with your neighbors
  – Collectively compute routes with all rtrs
  – Compute a forwarding table
Network Layer

- connectionless fans designed IPv4, IPv6, CLNP, IPX, AppleTalk, DECnet
- Connection-oriented reliable fans designed X.25
- Connection-oriented datagram fans designed ATM, MPLS
Pieces of network layer

• interface to network: addressing, packet formats, fragmentation and reassembly, error reports
• routing protocols
• autoconfiguring addresses/nbr discovery/finding routers
Connection-oriented Nets

VC=8, 92, 8, 6
Connection-oriented networks

• X.25: also have sequence number and ack number in packets (like TCP), and layer 3 guarantees delivery

• ATM: datagram, but fixed size packets (48 bytes data, 5 bytes header)
MPLS (multiprotocol label switching)

• Connectionless, like MPLS, but arbitrary sized packets
• Add 32-bit hdr on top of IP pkt
  – 20 bit “label”
  – Hop count (hooray!)
Hierarchical connections (stacks of MPLS labels)

Routers in backbone only need to know about one flow: R1-R2
MPLS

• Originally for faster forwarding than parsing IP header
• later “traffic engineering”
• classify pkts based on more than destination address
Connectionless Network Layers

• Destination, source, hop count

• Maybe other stuff
  – fragmentation
  – options (e.g., source routing)
  – error reports
  – special service requests (priority, custom routes)
  – congestion indication

• Real diff: size of addresses
Addresses

- 802 address “flat”, though assigned with OUI/rest. No topological significance
- layer 3 addresses: locator/node: topologically hierarchical address
- interesting difference:
  - IPv4, IPv6, IPX, AppleTalk: locator specific to a link
  - CLNP, DECnet: locator “area”, whole campus
Hierarchy

One prefix per link

One prefix per campus
Hierarchy within Locator

- Assume addresses assigned so that within a circle everything shares a prefix
- Can summarize lots of circles with a shorter prefix
New topic: Routing Algorithms
Distributed Routing Protocols

• Rtrs exchange control info
• Use it to calculate forwarding table
• Two basic types
  – distance vector
  – link state
Distance Vector

• Know
  – your own ID
  – how many cables hanging off your box
  – cost, for each cable, of getting to nbr

![Diagram showing costs between nodes]

- I am “4”
- j: cost 3
- k: cost 2
- m: cost 2
- n: cost 7
distance vector rcv’d from cable j

| 12 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 3 | 18 | 0 | 7 | 15 |

cost 3

distance vector rcv’d from cable k

| 5 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 20 | 5 | 0 | 15 |

cost 2

distance vector rcv’d from cable m

| 0 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 7 |

cost 2

distance vector rcv’d from cable n

| 6 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 2 |

cost 7

your own calculated distance vector

| 2 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 19 | 3 | ? | ? |

your own calculated forwarding table

| m | j | m | 0 | k | j | k/j | n | j | ? | ? |
I am “4”

distance vector rcv’d from cable j

| cost 3 | 12 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 3 | 18 | 0 | 7 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable k

| cost 2 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 20 | 5 | 0 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable m

| cost 2 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 7 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable n

| cost 7 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 2 |

your own calculated distance vector

| 2 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 19 | 3 | ? | ? |

your own calculated forwarding table

| m | j | m | 0 | k | j | k/j | n | j | ? | ? |
distance vector rcv’d from cable j

|   | 12 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 3 | 18 | 0 | 7 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable k

|   | 5 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 20 | 5 | 0 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable m

|   | 0 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 7 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable n

|   | 6 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 2 |

your own calculated distance vector

|   | 2 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 19 | 3 | ? | ? |

your own calculated forwarding table

|   | m | j | m | 0 | k | j | k/j | n | j | ? | ? |
distance vector rcv'd from cable j

| 12 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 3 | 18 | 0 | 7 | 15 |

distance vector rcv'd from cable k

| 5  | 8 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 20 | 5 | 0 | 15 |

distance vector rcv'd from cable m

| 0  | 5 | 3 | 2 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 7 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable n

| 6  | 2 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 2 |

your own calculated distance vector

| 2  | 6 | 5 | 0 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 19 | 3 | ? | ? |

your own calculated forwarding table

| m  | j  | m  | 0  | k  | j  | k/j | n  | j  | ?  | ? |
The image contains a diagram and a table related to network routing. Here is the text in a plain text representation:

**Distance Vectors Received from Cables:**

- **Cable j**
  - Cost 3:
    - Distance Vector: 12 3 15 3 12 5 3 18 0 7 15

- **Cable k**
  - Cost 2:
    - Distance Vector: 5 8 3 2 10 7 4 20 5 0 15

- **Cable m**
  - Cost 2:
    - Distance Vector: 0 5 3 2 19 9 5 22 2 4 7

- **Cable n**
  - Cost 7:
    - Distance Vector: 6 2 0 7 8 5 8 12 11 3 2

**Your Own Calculated Distance Vector:**

- Cost 3:
  - Distance Vector: 2 6 5 0 12 8 6 19 3 ? ?

**Your Own Calculated Forwarding Table:**

- m j m 0 k j k/j n j ? ?
distance vector rcv’d from cable j

| cost 3 | 12 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 12 | 5 | 3 | 18 | 0 | 7 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable k

| cost 2 | 5 | 8 | 3 | 2 | 10 | 7 | 4 | 20 | 5 | 0 | 15 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable m

| cost 2 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 19 | 9 | 5 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 7 |

distance vector rcv’d from cable n

| cost 7 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 8 | 12 | 11 | 3 | 2 |

your own calculated distance vector

|    | 2 | 6 | 5 | 0 | 12 | 8 | 6 | 19 | 3 | ? | ? |

your own calculated forwarding table

|    | m | j | m | 0 | k | j | k/j | n | j | ? | ? |
Looping Problem

A -- B -- C
Looping Problem

A → B → C

2 → 1 → 0

Cost to C
Looping Problem

direction towards C
direction towards C

A  B  C

2  1  0  Cost to C
Looping Problem

What is B’s cost to C now?
Looping Problem

A

2

1

3

B

C

0

Cost to C
Looping Problem

direction towards C
direction towards C

A

2

B

3

C

Cost to C
Looping Problem

direction towards C
direction towards C

A

B

C

Cost to C

2

4

1

3

0
Looping Problem

direction towards C  direction towards C

A  B  C

Cost to C

2
4

1
3
5

0
Looping Problem
worse with high connectivity
Split Horizon: one of several optimizations

Don’t tell neighbor N you can reach D if you’d forward to D through N

A ——— B ——— C
Split Horizon: …but it won’t work with loops of more than 2 nodes
Link State Routing

- meet nprs
- Construct Link State Packet (LSP)
  - who you are
  - list of (nbr, cost) pairs
- Broadcast LSPs to all rtrs (“a miracle occurs”)
- Store latest LSP from each rtr
- Compute Routes (breadth first, i.e., “shortest path” first—well known and efficient algorithm)
Computing Routes

• Edsger Dijkstra’s algorithm:
  – calculate tree of shortest paths from self to each
  – also calculate cost from self to each
  – Algorithm:
    • step 0: put (SELF, 0) on tree
    • step 1: look at LSP of node (N,c) just put on tree. If for any nbr K, this is best path so far to K, put (K, c +dist(N,K)) on tree, child of N, with dotted line
    • step 2: make dotted line with smallest cost solid, go to step 1
Look at LSP of new tree node

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
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</table>

C(0) → B(2) → F(2) → G(5)
Make shortest TENT solid

A  B  C  D  E  F  G
B/6 A/6 B/2 A/2 B/1 C/2 C/5
D/2 C/2 F/2 E/2 D/2 E/4 F/1
E/1 G/5 F/4 G/1

C(0)

B(2) F(2) G(5)
Look at LSP of newest tree node

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C(0) ---- B(2) ---- F(2) ---- G(5)

E(4) ---- G(3)
Make shortest TENT solid

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C(0)

B(2) -- F(2) -- E(4) --- G(3)
Look at LSP of newest tree node

- A
  - B/6
  - D/2
  - E/1
- B
  - A/6
  - C/2
  - F/2
  - G/5
- C
  - B/2
  - F/2
  - E/2
  - G/5
- D
  - A/2
  - E/2
- E
  - B/1
  - D/2
  - F/4
- F
  - C/2
  - E/4
  - G/1
- G
  - C/5
  - F/1
Make shortest TENT solid

A
B/6
D/2

B
A/6
C/2
E/1

C
B/2
F/2
G/5

D
A/2
E/2

E
B/1
D/2
F/4
G/1

F
C/2
E/4

G
C/5
F/1

C(0)

B(2) F(2)

A(8) E(3) G(3)
Look at LSP of newest tree node

A
B/6
D/2

B
A/6
C/2
E/1

C
B/2
F/2
C/2

D
A/2
E/2

E
B/1
D/2
E/4

F
C/2
E/4
G/1

G
C/5
F/1
Make shortest TENT solid

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C(0)               
                  /   
               /     
        B(2)    F(2)   
               /     
        /       
   A(8)       E(3)    G(3)    
               /       
          /           
         /             
D(5)        E(3)      G(3)    
```
Look at newest tree node’s LSP

A
B/6
D/2

B
A/6
C/2
E/1

C
B/2
F/2
G/5

D
A/2
E/2

E
B/1
D/2
F/4
G/1

F
C/2
E/4
G/1

G
C/5
F/1
Make shortest TENT solid

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A(8)  B(2)  C(0)  D(5)  E(3)  F(2)  G(3)
Look at newest node’s LSP

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
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<th>G</th>
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<td>C/5</td>
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<td>F/2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>G/5</td>
<td>G/2</td>
<td>F/4</td>
<td>F/1</td>
<td>G/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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```

C(0) → B(2) → F(2) → E(3) → D(5) → A(7) → A(8)
Make shortest TENT solid

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
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<td>C/2</td>
<td>C/5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>C/2</td>
<td>F/2</td>
<td>E/2</td>
<td>D/2</td>
<td>E/4</td>
<td>F/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E/1</td>
<td>G/5</td>
<td>E/2</td>
<td>F/4</td>
<td>E/4</td>
<td>G/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C(0) — B(2) — F(2) — E(3) — D(5) — A(7)

G(3) — E(3)
We’re done!
Another interesting detail of link state

- Pseudonodes
- Since routing algorithm is proportional to the number of links
- If an Ethernet with 100s of nodes were considered fully connected, the link state database would be too large
Pseudonodes

Instead of:  

Use pseudonode
Designated Routers

• Elect a router to be the master of the link
• It names the pseudonode
  – In IS-IS, a node’s ID is 7 bytes: 6 bytes of system ID (usually the MAC address of one of its ports), plus an extra byte. E.G., R1 is DR, names link R1.25
• All routers (including R1) claim a link to R1.25
• R1 (pretending to be the pseudonode), claims connectivity to each of the routers on the link
Distance vector vs link state

- Memory: distance vector wins (but memory is cheap)
- Computation: debatable
- Simplicity of coding: simple distance vector wins. Complex new-fangled distance vector, no
- Convergence speed: link state
- Functionality: link state; custom routes, mapping the net, troubleshooting, sabotage-proof routing
Specific Routing Protocols

- Interdomain vs Intradomain
- Intradomain:
  - link state (OSPF, IS-IS)
  - distance vector (RIP)
- Interdomain
  - BGP
BGP (Border Gateway Protocol)

- “Policies”, not just minimize path
- “Path vector”: given reported paths to D from each nbr, and configured preferences, choose your path to D
  - don’t ever route through domain X, or not to D, or only as last resort
- Other policies: don’t tell nbr about D, or lie to nbr about D making path look worse
Interesting use of BGP

• Lifeguard: Locating Internet Failures WEfficiently and Generating Usable Alternative Routes Dynamically

• Work at University of Washington:
  – Ethan Katz-Bassett, David Choffnes, Colin Scott, Arvind Krishnamurthy, Tom Anderson

• If want others to avoid ASx, claim ASx is already in the path!
Path vector/Distance vector

• Distance vector
  – Each router reports to its neighbors \{(D,\text{cost})\}
  – Each router chooses best path based on \text{min}
    (reported cost to D+link cost to nbr)

• Path vector
  – Each rtr R reports \{(D,\text{list of AS’s in R’s}
    chosen path to D)\,…\}
  – Each rtr chooses best path based on configured
    policies
BGP Configuration

• path preference rules
• which nbr to tell about which destinations
• how to “edit” the path when telling nbr N about prefix P (add fake hops to discourage N from using you to get to P)
So, world is confusing, what with layer 2 and layer 3
So, world is confusing, what with layer 2 and layer 3

- So let’s invent layer 2 ½!
What’s wrong with bridges?

- Suboptimal routing
- Traffic concentration
- Temporary loops real dangerous (no hop count, exponential proliferation)
- Fragile
  - If lose packets (congestion?), turn on port
Why not replace bridges with IP routers?

• Subtle reason: IP needs address per link.
• Layer 3 doesn’t have to work that way
  – CLNP / DECnet
    • Bottom level of routing is a whole cloud with the same prefix
    • Routing is to endnodes inside the cloud
    • Enabled by “ES-IS” protocol, where endnodes periodically announce themselves to the routers
    • Also in ES-IS: routers announce themselves to endnodes…
Hierarchy

One prefix per link

One prefix per campus
A bit of history

• 1992…Internet could have adopted CLNP
• Easier to move to a new layer 3 back then
  – Internet smaller
  – Not so mission critical
  – IP hadn’t yet (out of necessity) invented DHCP, NAT,
    so CLNP gave understandable advantages
• CLNP still has advantages over IPv6 (e.g., large
  multilink level 1 clouds)
TRILL working group in IETF

- TRILL = TRansparent Interconnection of Lots of Links
- Use layer 3 routing, and encapsulate with a civilized header
- But still look like a bridge from the outside
Goal

• Design so that change can be incremental
• With TRILL, replace any subset of bridges with RBridges
  – still looks to IP like one giant Ethernet
  – the more bridges you replace with RBridges, better bandwidth utilization, more stability
Run link state protocol

• So all the RBridges know how to reach all the other RBridges
• But don’t know anything about endnodes
Why link state?

- Since all switches know the complete topology, easy to compute lots of trees deterministically (we’ll get to that later)
- Easy to piggyback “nickname allocation protocol” (we’ll get to that later)
Routing inside campus

• First RB encapsulates to last RB
  – So header is “safe” (has hop count)
  – Inner RBridges only need to know how to reach destination RBridge

• Still need tree for unknown/multicast
  – But don’t need spanning tree protocol –
    compute tree(s) deterministically from the link state database
Rbridging

R1
R2
R3
R4
R5
R6
R7

a

c
Details

- What the encapsulated packet looks like
- How R1 knows that R2 is the correct “last RBridge”
Encapsulated Frame

(Ethernet) outer header

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dest (nexthop)</th>
<th>TRILL header</th>
<th>original frame</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>srcce (Xmitter)</td>
<td>first RBridge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethertype=TRILL</td>
<td>last RBridge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TRILL header specifies RBridges with 2-byte nicknames
2-byte Nicknames

- Saves hdr room, faster fwd’ing
- Dynamically acquired
- Choose unused #, announce in LSP
- If collision, IDs and priorities break tie
- Loser chooses another nickname
- Configured nicknames higher priority
How does R1 know that R2 is the correct “last RBridge”? 

• If R1 doesn’t, R1 sends packet through a tree 
• When R2 decapsulates, it remembers (ingress RBridge, source MAC)
How does R1 know that R2 is the correct “last RBridge”?

• Original design
  – R1 responsible for learning its attached endnodes, and advertising to the other RBs
How does R1 know that R2 is the correct “last RBridge”? 

• Original design
  – R1 responsible for learning its attached endnodes, and advertising to the other RBs

• People more familiar with layer 2 wanted
  – R2 (decapsulating RB) sees “first RB=R1, source MAC =a” and learns that “a” is attached to R1
Compromise

- Mandatory for last RB to learn from data
- Optional for an RB to advertise its endnodes
- Optional to learn from advertisements
- Advertised info “more definitive” than seeing source address in data packets
- Reasoning
  - In some cases learning local endnodes is more definitive
What if R1 doesn’t know that R2 is the correct “last RBridge”?

- If R1 doesn’t, R1 sends packet through a tree
- When R2 decapsulates, it remembers (ingress RBridge, source MAC)
Trees

- Calculate based on link state database (not by running the spanning tree protocol)
- Original design: One tree
- WG wanted to multipath multidestination frames
- So TRILL calculates some # of trees, and ingress RB selects which tree
Use of “first” and “last” RBridge in TRILL header

• For Unicast, obvious
  – Route towards “last” RBridge
  – Learn location of source from “first” RBridge

• For Multicast/unknown destination
  – Use of “first”
    • to learn location of source endnode
    • to do “RPF check” on multicast
  – Use of “last”
    • To allow first RB to specify a tree
    • Campus calculates some number of trees
Multiple trees

R1 specifies which tree (yellow, red, or blue)
RPF check

• RPF=reverse path forwarding
• For safety on multidestination frames…do sanity check: Could this frame have arrived on this tree, on this port, from this ingress RB?
Filtering of Multidestination Frames

• Sometimes a frame need not be “spanning”, i.e., it need not be delivered everywhere

• Filtering is optional

• Two things that can help limit the spread (no RBs along a branch of the tree need to see the pkt)
  – VLAN
  – IP multicast group
Summary Tree distribution

- Each RB, say RB1, calculates which ports are in tree X (for each of the several trees)
- For tree X, for each port in tree X
  - RPF info: Which ingress RBs on that port
  - Filtering info: Which VLANs, which IP multicast addresses, that this port leads to
- If RPF=true, and that branch leads to receivers, transmit on that port
Some of the Future Work

• Taming various types of broadcast traffic (ARP, NETBIOS)
  – Cache ARP replies and negative responses
  – Query a directory which stores (IP, MAC, switch nickname)
    • Could be ingress switch, hypervisor, or end node
• Pseudonode nickname
• OAM
• Increasing the number of VLANs
I hope that we shall one day see
   A graph more lovely than a tree.
A graph to boost efficiency
   While still configuration-free.
A network where R Bridges can
   Route packets to their target LAN.
The paths they find, to our elation,
   Are least cost paths to destination.
With packet hop counts we now see,
   The network need not be loop-free.
R Bridges work transparently.
   Without a common spanning tree.

Ray Perlner
Wrap-up

• folklore of protocol design
• things too obvious to say, but everyone gets them wrong
Forward Compatibility

• Reserved fields
  – spare bits
  – ignore them on receipt, set them to zero. Can maybe be used for something in the future

• TLV encoding
  – type, length, value
  – so can skip new TLVs
  – maybe have range of T’s to ignore if unknown, others to drop packet
Forward Compatibility

• Make fields large enough
  – IP address, packet identifier, TCP sequence #

• Version number
  – what is “new version” vs “new protocol”?  
    • same lower layer multiplex info
  – therefore, must always be in same place!
  – drop if version # bigger
Fancy version # variants

- Might be security threat to trick two Vn nodes into talk V(n-1)
- So maybe have “highest version I support” in addition to “version of this packet”
- Or just a bit “I can support higher” (we did this for IKEv2)
- Maybe have “minor version #”, for compatible changes. Old node ignores it
Version #

- Nobody seems to do this right
- IP, IKEv1, SSL unspecified what to do if version # different. Most implementations ignore it.
- SSL v3 moved version field!
  - v2 sets it to 0.2. v3 sets (different field) to 3.0.
  - v2 node will ignore version number field, and happily parse the rest of the packet
Avoid “flag days”

- Want to be able to migrate a running network
- ARPANET routing: ran both routing algorithms (but they had to compute the same forwarding table)
  - initially forward based on old, compute both
  - one by one: forward based on new
  - one-by-one: delete old
Parameters

• Minimize these:
  – someone has to document it
  – customer has to read documentation and understand it

• How to avoid
  – architectural constants if possible
  – automatically configure if possible
Settable Parameters

• Make sure they can’t be set incompatibly across nodes, across layers, etc. (e.g., hello time and dead timer)

• Make sure they can be set at nodes one at a time and the net can stay running
Parameter tricks

• IS-IS
  – pairwise parameters reported in “hellos”
  – area-wide parameters reported in LSPs
• Bridges
  – Use Root’s values, sent in spanning tree msgs
Summary

• If things aren’t simple, they won’t work
• Good engineering requires understanding tradeoffs and previous approaches.
• It’s never a “waste of time” to answer “why is something that way”
• Don’t believe everything you hear
• Know the problem you’re solving before you try to solve it!