

WAN TECHNOLOGIES AND ROUTING

Large Networks and Wide Areas

- In general, a network technology is classified into one of three broad categories
 - A Local Area Network (LAN)
 - * Can span a single building or campus (distance limitation)
 - * Can not handle an arbitrary number of computers (size limitation)
 - A Metropolitan Area Network (MAN)
 - * Can span a single city
 - A Wide Area Network (WAN)
 - * Can span sites in multiple cities, countries, or continents
 - * Can handle an arbitrary number of computers
- Although a bridged LAN can extend the distance of a LAN over an arbitrary distance, it is not considered a WAN, because bandwidth limitations prevent a bridged LAN from serving arbitrarily many computers at arbitrarily many sites

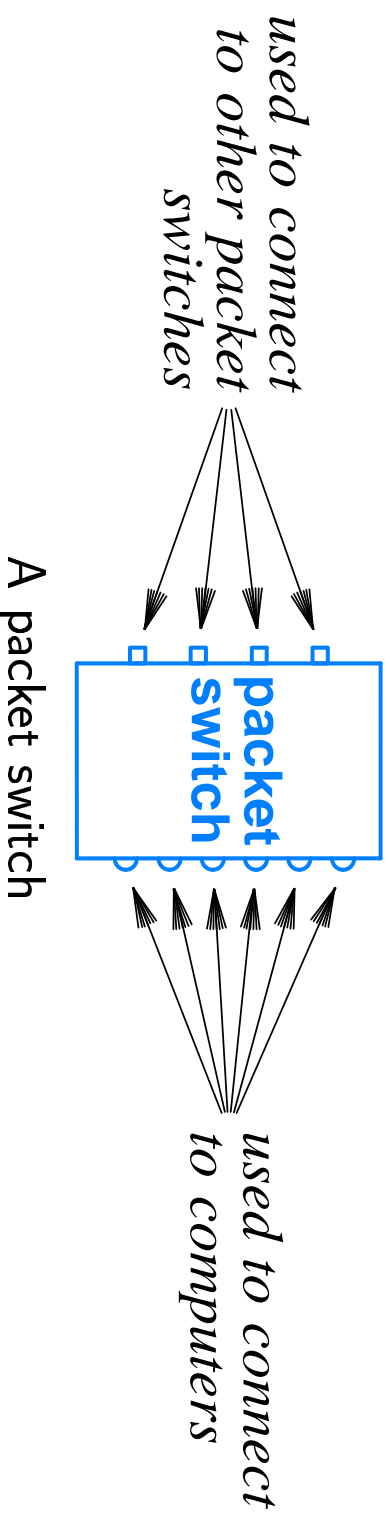
- A WAN not only connects many computers at many sites, but also it must provide sufficient capacity to permit these computers to communicate simultaneously
- WANs consist of two fundamental building blocks
 - Point-to-point long-distance connections
 - Switches to connect and route frames from source to destination, using these point-to-point connections

Point-to-point Long-distance Connections

- In most countries, laws prevent an organization from running a cable, or digging to lay a cable, between sites, unless the organization owns all the properties between the sites
- This problem may be overcome by
 - Using the existing telephone infrastructure
 - * Leased lines
 - Using the existing CATV infrastructure
 - * Sends/receives over CATV wiring
 - * Group of subscribers in neighborhood share bandwidth using both FDM and TDM as well

Packet Switches

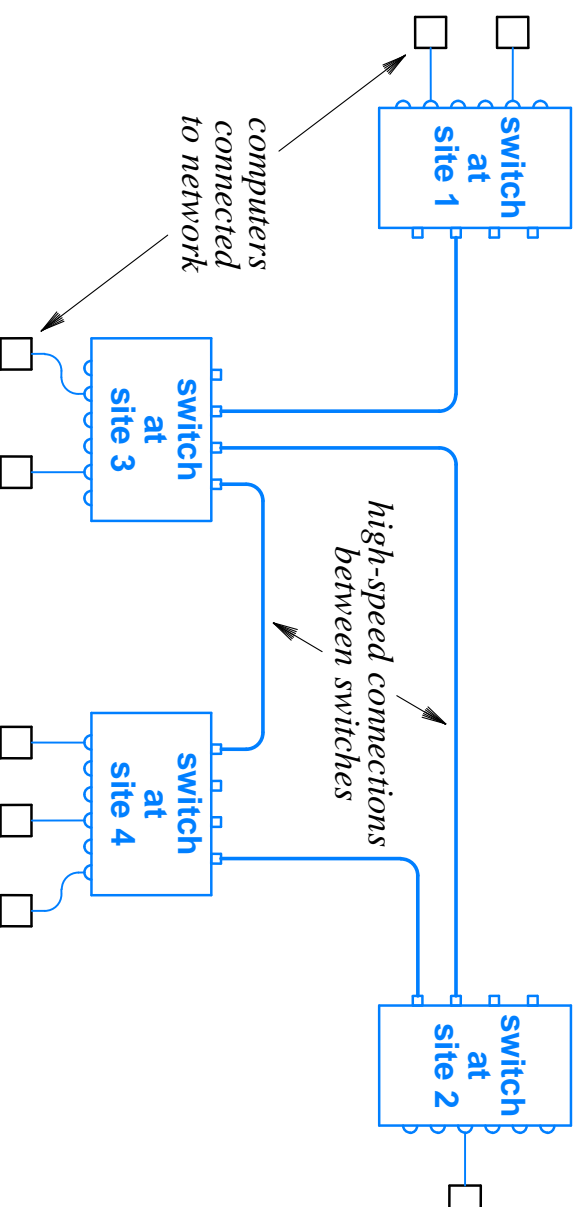
- A packet switch moves complete packets from one connection to another
- It is a special-purpose hardware that has a CPU, ROM, RAM, as well as I/O connectors
- These I/O connectors are used to send and receive packets
- A packet switch contains two types of I/O connectors
 - High-speed connectors: to connect the switch to another packet switch, via a point-to-point connection
 - Low-speed connectors: to connect the switch to an individual computer



- Note that: LAN switches and WAN switches are not the same (think of them as two different technologies)
 - In a switched-LAN, all connections are short (a few hundred meters); while in a WAN switch, some long-distance connections must also exist
 - A switch in a LAN usually uses flat addressing, while a switch in a WAN usually use hierarchical addressing
 - Both of their hardware and software are not the same

Building a WAN

- Place one or more packet switches at each site
- Interconnect these switches, where
 - Connection capacities are chosen to accommodate the expected traffic
 - The interconnections among switches are chosen to provide redundancy
- Additional switches or interconnections can be added as needed to increase the capacity of the WAN



A small WAN formed by interconnecting 4 packet switches and 8 computers

How Can a WAN Grow Up?

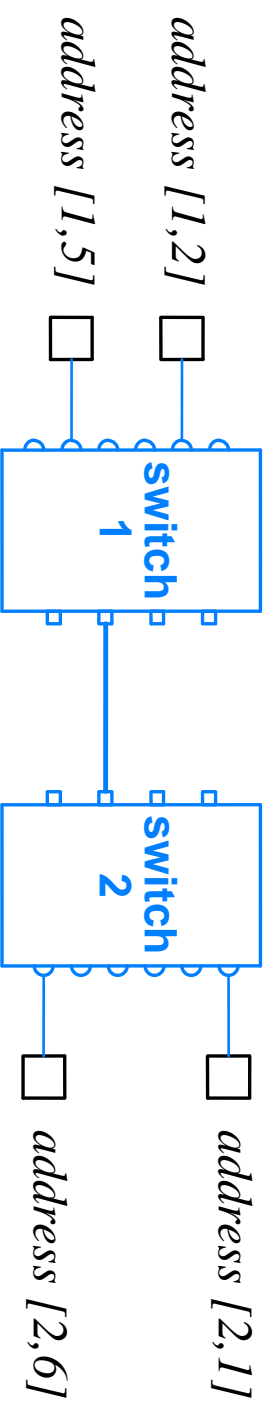
- By adding more computers to the existing switches
 - May lead to a small increase in network utilization
- By adding more switches
 - Interior switches to handle load
 - * Only connects switches together and has no computers attached to any of its ports
 - * Leads to better service and more reliability
 - exterior switches
 - * Connects switches together and has computers attached to its ports
 - * Leads to better service, more reliability, and a large increase in the network capacity
- By adding more connections
 - Leads to better service and more reliability

Store and Forward

- A basic paradigm used with WAN packet switching systems
 - A packet is sent from a source computer
 - It travels from switch to switch, where
 - * The switch's I/O hardware
 - Stores the arrived packets in the switch's memory
 - Informs the switch's processor that a packet has arrived
 - * The switch's processor
 - Examines packet's destination address
 - Places the packet in a queue associated with the I/O hardware that leads to the destination
 - * The switch's I/O hardware that leads to the destination
 - As soon as it becomes idle, it extracts and begins sending the next packet in its queue

WAN Physical Addressing

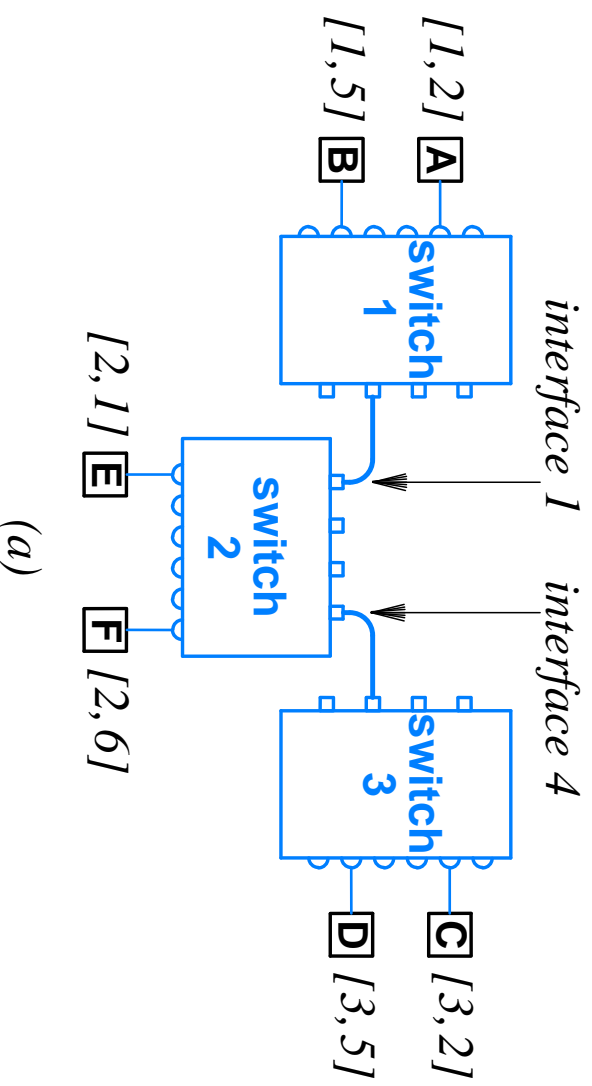
- Each computer attached to the WAN must have a unique physical address
- When sending a frame to another computer, the sender must supply the destination's address
- To make forwarding more efficient, many WAN use a hierarchical addressing scheme (e.g., two-part addressing)
- In the two-part addressing scheme, a physical address consists of two parts
 - The first part identifies a packet switch
 - The second part identifies a computer attached to that packet switch
- A two-part address is encoded as a single integer number



Example of hierarchical addresses in a WAN

Next-Hop Forwarding

- A packet switch must choose a path over which to forward each packet
- To make this choice, a switch uses the destination address stored in a packet, as well as next-hop forwarding information stored in the switch itself
- Next-hop forwarding information includes each possible destination and the next-hop used to reach that destination



(a)

(a) A network consisting of 3 switches

(b) The next-hop forwarding information found in switch 2

<u>destination</u>	<u>next hop</u>
[1,2]	interface 1
[1,5]	interface 1
[3,2]	interface 4
[3,5]	interface 4
[2,1]	computer E
[2,6]	computer F

(b)

- Next-hop forwarding information is organized in a table called a routing table
- The process of forwarding a packet to its next hop is known as routing
- Note that: only the first part of a hierarchical address is required to identify the next-hop; (shorter routing table)

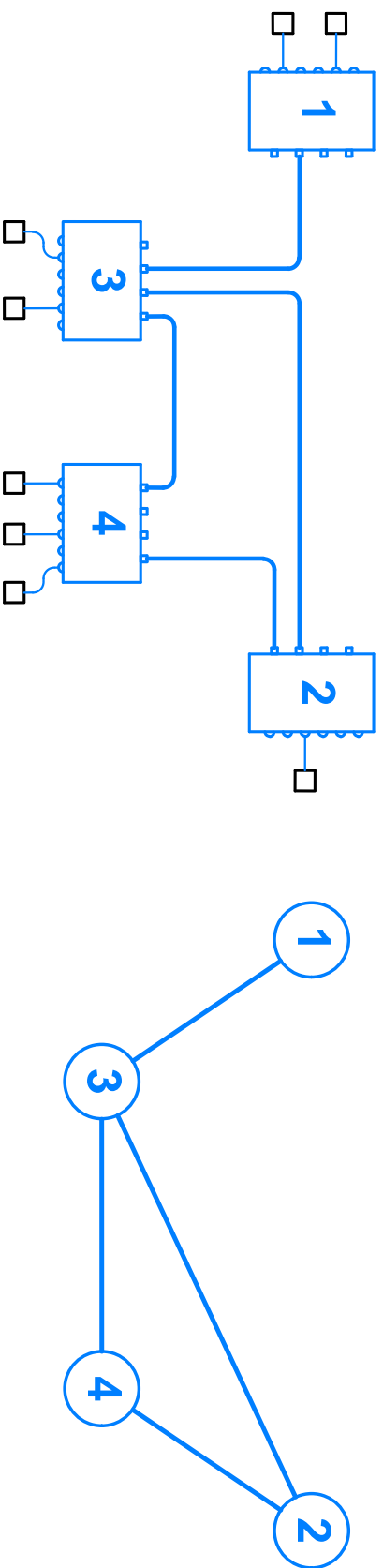
Destination	Next Hop
(1, anything)	interface 1
(3, anything)	interface 4
(2, anything)	local computer

An abbreviated version of switch 2 routing table

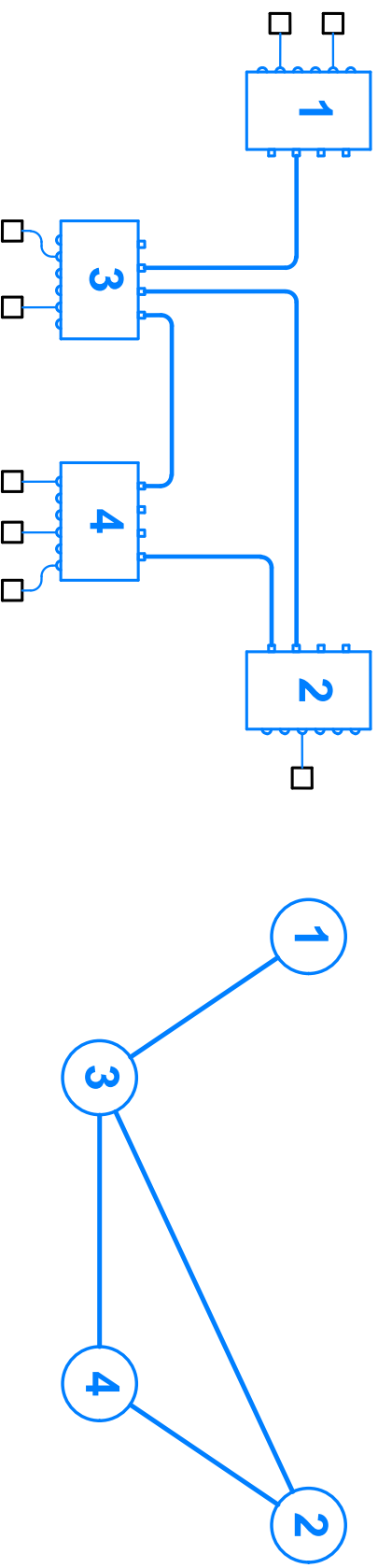
- The next-hop forwarding does not depend on the packet's original source or on the path the packet has taken before it arrives at a particular switch (source independence)
- When the packet reaches the switch to which the destination computer is attached, the switch examines the second part of the address to identify the appropriate local I/O port to use

From Routing to Graph Theory

- The easiest way to think about routing in a WAN is to model a network as a graph
 - Each switch is represented by a node in the graph
 - Each direct connection between two switches is represented by an edge, a.k.a. link, in the graph
- Note that: attached computers have no presence in the graph



An example of modeling a network as a graph



An example of modeling a network as a graph

node 1		node 2		node 3		node 4	
Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop
1	-	1	(2,3)	1	(3,1)	1	(4,3)
2	(1,3)	2	-	2	(3,2)	2	(4,2)
3	(1,3)	3	(2,3)	3	-	3	(4,3)
4	(1,3)	4	(2,4)	4	(3,4)	4	-

The routing table for each node

Default Routes

- A default entry is present only if more than one destination has the same next-hop value
- If the routing scheme does not find an explicit entry for a given destination, it uses the default entry

node 1		node 2		node 3		node 4	
Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop
1	-	1	(2,3)	1	(3,1)	1	(4,3)
2	(1,3)	2	-	2	(3,2)	2	(4,2)
3	(1,3)	3	(2,3)	3	-	3	(4,3)
4	(1,3)	4	(2,4)	4	(3,4)	4	-

The routing table for each node

node 1		node 2		node 3		node 4	
Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop	Destination	Next Hop
1	-	2	-	1	(3,1)	2	(4,2)
*	(1,3)	4	(2,4)	2	(3,2)	4	-
		*	(2,3)	3	-	*	(4,3)
				4	(3,4)		

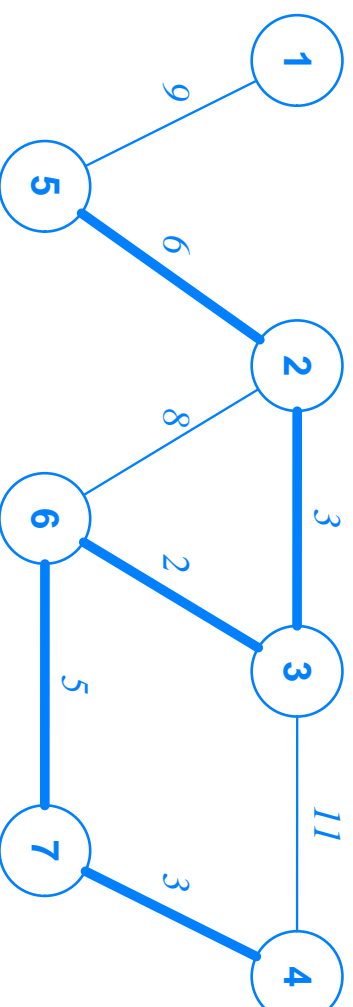
The routing table for each node

Routing Table Computation

- How is a routing table constructed?
 - Using manual computation
 - * Table created by hand
 - * Useful in small networks
 - * Useful if routes never change
 - * Impractical in large networks
 - Using automatic computation
 - * Static routing
 - A routing table is built and installed once a packet switch boots
 - The routing table is not changeable
 - * Dynamic routing
 - An initial routing table is built and installed once a packet switch boots
 - The routing table can be changed, if network conditions are changed, e.g., a failure occur

Shortest Path Between nodes

- A weight is assigned to each edge
- This weight, a.k.a. distance, may represent
 - Geographic distance
 - Economic cost
 - Inverse of capacity
- It is required to find the shortest path between each pair of nodes, where the distance along the path is the sum of the weights on the edges
- Note that: a path with the fewest number of edges may not be the path with least weight



A graph with weights assigned to edges

Dijkstra's Shortest Path Algorithm

- Basic idea
 - Start with the source node
 - Move outward
 - At each step
 - * Find node u such that it
 - Is the “*closest*” to source
 - Has not been considered before
 - * For each direct neighbor to u
 - Find the distance from u to its direct neighbor v
 - If this distance is shorter, make a path from the source node to v through u

Input

- A graph with weighted edges, $Weight(u, v)$
- A designated source node, n

Output

- A set of shortest paths from node n to each other node
- The cost of each path

Method

- Initialize set *Source* to contain all nodes except the source node
- Initialize array *Distance* so that $Distance[v]$ is the weight of the edge from source node n to node v , i.e., $Weight(n, v)$, if such a direct edge between n and v exist, o.w. infinity
- Initialize array *Route* so that $Route[v]$ is assigned v if an edge between n and v exist, o.w. zero

- While (set *Source* is not empty)
 - Choose a node *u* from *Source* such that *Distance[u]* is minimum
 - If (*Distance[u]* is infinity)
 - * Error: no path exists to nodes in *Source*
 - * Quit
 - Delete *u* from set *Source*
 - For each node *v* such that (*u,v*) is an edge
 - * If(*v* is still in *Source*)
 - $c = Distance[u] + Weight(u, v)$
 - If ($c < Distance[v]$)
 - $Route[v] = Route[u]$
 - $Distance[v] = c$

Source = $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

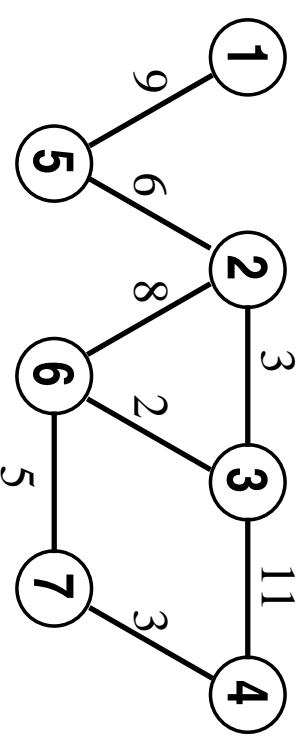
Distance =

∞	3	∞	11	∞	2	∞
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1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Route =

—	2	—	4	—	6	—
---	---	---	---	---	---	---



$u = 6$

Source = $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 7\}$

$v \in \{2, 3, 7\}$

$v = 2 \rightsquigarrow c = 2 + 8 > 3$

$v = 7 \rightsquigarrow c = 2 + 5 < \infty$

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Distance =

∞	3	∞	11	∞	2	7
----------	---	----------	----	----------	---	---

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Route =

—	2	—	4	—	6	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

$u = 2$

Source = $\{1, 4, 5, 7\}$

$v \in \{3, 5, 6\}$

$v = 5 \rightsquigarrow c = 3 + 6 < \infty$

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

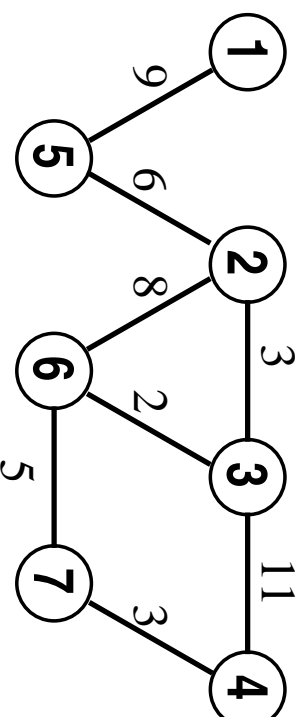
Distance =

∞	3	∞	11	9	2	7
----------	---	----------	----	---	---	---

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Route =

—	2	—	4	2	6	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---



$u = 7$

Source = $\{1, 4, 5\}$

$v \in \{4, 6\}$

$v = 4 \rightsquigarrow c = 7 + 3 < 11$

Distance =	∞	3	∞	10	9	2	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Route =	—	2	—	6	2	6	6

$u = 5$

Source = $\{1, 4\}$

$v \in \{1, 2\}$

$v = 1 \rightsquigarrow c = 9 + 9 < \infty$

Distance =	18	3	∞	10	9	2	7
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Route =	2	2	—	6	2	6	6

$u = 4$

Source = $\{1\}$

$v \in \{3, 7\}$

$u = 1$

Source = NULL

Shortest Path First (SPF)

- A.k.a. Link-status routing
 - Each switch multicast to all other switches the status of the links connected to it
 - Switches collect incoming status information and use them to build an updated graph of the network
 - Using the updated network graph, each switch re-apply Dijkstra algorithm to produce a routing table for itself.
- SPF can adapt itself to hardware failures
- Note that, all computation can be carried out simultaneously; i.e., after the status of a link changes, all packet switches receive a status message, and each switch begins computing its routing table

Distance Vector Routing

- One of the best-known algorithms for distributed route computation
- Switches only communicated with direct attached neighbor switches; They exchange information in their routing tables, i.e., (destination, distance) pairs
- When a switch receives this information, it
 - Compares each item in list to local routes
 - Changes routes, iff better path exists

Given

- A local routing table
- A weight for each link that directly connects to another switch
- An incoming routing message

Output

- An updated routing table

Method

- If the router is just rebooted:
 - Initialize routing table with a single entry that has
 - * *Distination* = local switch
 - * *Distance* = 0
 - * Next-hop unused

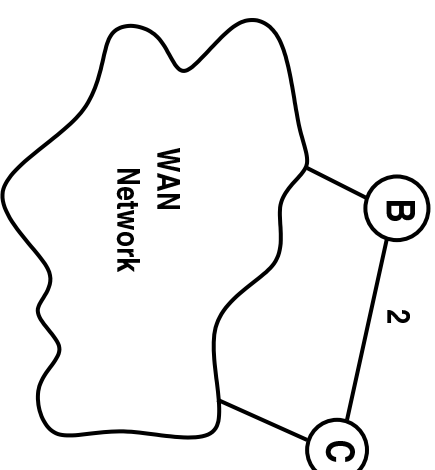
- Repeat forever
 - Wait for the next routing message to arrive over the network from a direct neighbor; let us call the sender switch N
 - For each entry in the message
 - * Let V be the destination in the entry and
Let D be the distance
 - * Let $C = D +$ the weight assigned to the link over which the message arrived
 - * If (no route exists to V)
 - Add an entry to the local routing table for destination V with next-hop N and distance C
 - * Else
 - If (a route exists that has next-hop N)
Replace the distance in existing route with C
 - Else
 - If (a route exists with distance greater than C)
Change the next-hop to N and *distance* to C

An advertised message from C

Destination	Distance
G	3
B	2
H	7
F	3
C	0
L	4

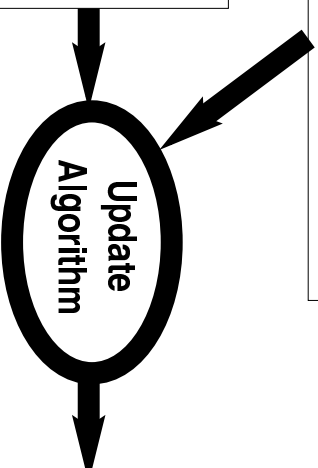
The advertised message from C
After incrementing the distance

Destination	Distance
G	5
B	4
H	9
F	5
C	2
L	6



The B's old routing table

Destination	Distance	Next Hop
A	7	A
G	2	C
B	0	-
F	8	F
C	2	C
L	4	F



The B's new routing table

Destination	Distance	Next Hop
A	7	A
G	5	C
B	0	-
H	9	C
F	5	C
C	2	C
L	4	F

A Distance Vector Example

WAN Examples

- *Advanced Research Projects Agency Network (ARPANET)*
- *X.25*
- *Frame Relay*
- *Switched Multi-megabit Data Service (SMDS)*
- *Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM)*