

# ECSE-6600: Internet Protocols

## Informal Quiz

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# Routing: general

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- Forwarding works in the control plane whereas routing works in the data plane
- A routing protocol summarizes global information to setup a local next-hop entry in the forwarding table
- The distance-vector protocol involves checking neighbors' distance vectors and updating its own distance vector.
- The poisoned reverse modification of DV algorithm is less effective in cases where the cost of a remote link (not the first or second) in a path increases.
- The link state method does not face the count-to-infinity problem because it has complete global information (a map in terms of link-states).
- Both the distance-vector and link-state approaches could lead to transient routing loops because the information maintained could be incomplete.
- Hierarchical addressing, and proper address assignment allows entire subnets to be viewed by interior routers as “virtual nodes”, leading to routing scalability

# Routing II: Protocols

- □ RIP uses a 16-bit weight field to indicate the weight of each link
- □ RIP has convergence problems because of issues like count-to-infinity, whereas the complexity in OSPF is in distributing the link states efficiently
- □ A distance vector approach has a complete network map at every node.
- □ Diffusing computations (eg: DUAL) works because inconsistent information is not accepted while the routing tables are “frozen”.
- □ OSPFv2 uses the lollipop sequence number space
- □ A low value of the age field and a high value of the sequence number field indicates a stable routing entry
- □ On a point-to-point link, OSPFv2 performs database synchronization by exchanging its entire database between neighbors
- □ The database synchronization operation is done upon discovering a new neighbor
- □ On a broadcast LAN subnet, OSPFv2 prescribes the sole use of Router-LSAs due to its efficiency in encoding
- □ A broadcast LAN subnet is viewed by the Dijkstra algorithm as a full mesh of links
- □ A NBMA subnet is viewed by the Dijkstra algorithm as a full mesh of links
- □ A pt-mpt subnet is viewed by the Dijkstra algorithm as a full mesh of links
- □ The DR/BDR concept is required on pt-mpt subnets.

# Routing II: Protocols

- □ Hellos and LSAs are multicast in broadcast LANs.
- □ LSA-acks are sent only to the DR and BDR, but Hello-Acks are piggybacked onto Hello multicasts on broadcast LAN subnets
- □ A routing adjacency is equivalent to a separate physical link
- □ The neighbor relationship is a unidirectional relationship
- □ Hellos are sent periodically, whereas LSAs are sent only when a link state changes.
- □ The pt-mpt subnet model violates the IP subnet model assumption that nodes on the same subnet should be able to directly communicate with each other
- □ A network-LSA is generated by any random router on the broadcast LAN subnet.
- □ An NBMA subnet allows cheap broadcast capability.
- □ The NBMA model requires a (costly) VC between any pair of routers on the subnet.
- □ Neighbor discovery on an NBMA is automatic: just multicast a Hello message to AllSPFRouters multicast address.
- □ The pt-mpt model allows OSPF to operate efficiently over partial meshed non-broadcast networks, even if some IP subnet assumptions are broken
- □ Address abstraction is equivalent to topology abstraction in a hierarchical network like IP.

# Routing II: Protocols

- □ OSPF supports arbitrary number of levels in its hierarchy
- □ An area ID can be encoded into an IP address, and hence areas can be auto-configured.
- □ AS-BRs operate at borders of areas and send summary information in and out of an area.
- □ ABRs generate external LSAs, which is summary information from other areas in the same routing domain.
- □ The metric field in a summary-LSA advertised by an ABR is the cost of the longest path from the ABR to any node within the area.
- □ Stubby areas filter all external LSAs, but may allow summary-LSAs to be optionally flooded within the area
- □ The difference between an “area” and a “domain” is that different routing protocols operate beyond the boundaries of domains.
- □ NSSA areas allow partial filtering of external LSAs.
- □ Filtering of external-LSAs is a big concern because external BGP routes may number more than 100,000!
- □ IS-IS operates over IP whereas OSPF operates over the link layer directly
- □ IS-IS provides highly extensible TLV encoding, but OSPF focuses on optimization and alignment of fields.
- □ PNNI is a source-routed protocol and supports the QoS signaling in ATM
- □ The entire route in PNNI is encoded as a DTL and is processed at every hop.
- □ In general, signaled protocols can afford to be wasteful in terms of encoding and complexity during the signaling phase and efficient in the packet-transfer phase.
- □ PNNI is limited to only 2 levels of hierarchy.

# Routing III: BGP

- □ Path-vector based distance vector algorithms have a full map of the network like Link state algorithms
- □ The Bellman-Ford algorithm is used in policy-based distance-vector routing for BGP.
- □ EGP is restricted to a tree topology because it is incapable of comparing paths and therefore would lead to stable loops otherwise.
- □ Currently core routers have about 100000 routes, which suggests poor address aggregation
- □ A stub AS could have traffic neither originating or terminating at the AS.
- □ An ORIGIN attribute of “INCOMPLETE” indicates that the routes were injected dynamically into BGP by IGPs.
- □ The routes in Adj-RIB-Out are likely to be different from Adj-RIB-In because BGP does policy-based route filtering
- □ One of the steps of the BGP “tie-breaker” algorithm prefers the lowest ORIGIN attribute because statically injected routes are likely to be more stable than dynamically injected routes.
- □ The AS path length attribute cannot be used by IBGP for loop-detection because the IBGP operates within a single AS
- □ Default routing works because there exists a set of “core” routers which do not use default routing.
- □ BGP uses a fixed tree structure to propagate reachability information from AS to the core.
- □ CIDR solves the router-table size explosion problem by allocating only contiguous blocks of addresses which are summarizable.
- □ The MED and LOCAL\_PREF attributes in BGP can be used for load-balancing.

# Routing III: BGP

- □ The neighbor reachability algorithm in EGP is same as that of OSPF, I.e., send a hello and wait for a DeadInterval for a response.
- □ Like RIP, EGP and BGP send out full routing tables to their neighbors periodically
- □ Today's inter-AS topology is more complex, but it still has a roughly hierarchical structure embedded in its complexity
- □ An AS number can be encoded into an IP address just like a network ID
- □ BGP finds inter-AS routes, and then resolves it to find the physical next-hop.
- □ All default-free routers on the Internet speak BGP
- □ An AS can be internally disconnected, and use an inter-AS route to reach a destination within the AS
- □ A public ASN assignment to an AS means that it can formulate its own routing policy
- □ A transit-AS differs from a peer-AS primarily in the fact that one party necessarily pays in a transit relationship
- □ Recursive lookup in BGP guarantees loop-free paths
- □ Policy routing essentially allows an arbitrary choice between available set of paths
- □ The CIDR part of BGP-4 allows address aggregation
- □ Link-state based policy routing is less preferred to vectoring protocols (like BGP) because local policies need to be announced globally, and convergence of the flooding protocol is problematic in link-state.
- □ The route-reflector concept converts a full-mesh of iBGP sessions to a tree-structure of iBGP sessions.
- □ BGP NEXT-HOP is the same as the IP notion of next-hop

# Routing III: BGP

- □ MED allows outbound load-balancing
- □ LOCAL-PREF allows inbound load-balancing
- □ AS-path Padding is used as a rough way to control inbound load, but it may not work, if the AS is providing the only path to the destination prefix
- □ Hot-potato routing refers to carrying traffic in the same AS as far as possible before letting it cross AS boundaries.
- □ Multi-homed ASes have exactly one outbound link to the external Internet.
- □ An AS may be multi-homed to a single transit provider, and MED is useful in this situation
- □ Deaggregation or punching of holes in an address prefix essentially subverts the CIDR address aggregation process and may lead to larger routing tables in the Internet
- □ Since the MED field is sometimes the IGP routing metric, it could lead to route-flapping and a lot of eBGP update traffic.
- □ Subverting the CIDR aggregation by punching a hole and advertising it to a different ISP may lead to some inbound load-balancing benefit, at the expense of the entire Internet
- □ A community attribute allows arbitrary coloring and processing of routes. But the community values (colors) have to be agreed upon by the set of ASes involved.
- □ The first 16 bits of the community attribute is just the AS number.
- □ The BGP decision process is a simple tie-breaker set of rules, with the recursive lookup and local-pref rules being the highest priority
- □ A stateful route flap dampening algorithm has been used to dramatically reduce the average number of updates sent by BGP
- □ BGP often takes a long time to converge after route changes. Shivkumar Kalyanaraman

# TCP

- □ TCP can re-assemble IP fragments
- □ Path-MTU refers to the procedure of finding the minimum MTU of the path to reduce the probability of fragmentation.
- □ The IP header checksum field is the 16-bit two's complement of the one's complement sum of all 16-bit words in the header.
- □ TCP provides reliability only at a packet-level.
- □ The TOS byte semantics is inconsistent with the IP model of providing only best-effort service.
- □ Transport protocols are minimally required because IP does not provide application multiplexing support
- □ The Nagle algorithm in TCP is intended to allow the ack and echo data to be combined.
- □ TCP is called “self-clocking” because the source sends traffic whenever it likes
- □ TCP by default uses a selective retransmission policy
- □ The RFC 793 RTT estimator could only tolerate variances of upto 30%
- □ The TCP congestion control algorithm is stable because it detects congestion reliably and its rate of window decrease is faster than its rate of window increase
- □ TCP's use of cumulative acks reduces the need for any timeout/retransmission of acks
- □ Karn's algorithm would be triggered often on a wireless or radio link which is very lossy
- □ Delayed-acks are good for bulk traffic, but bad for interactive traffic.
- □ A two-way handshake is sufficient for the robust setup of a half-duplex connection, but a three-way handshake is necessary for the robust setup of a full-duplex connection

# TCP

- □ If timeouts are not used, in general, packet or ack-losses cannot be recovered from
- □ A duplicate ack gives the same information as a NAK, but it presumes the notion of a sequence number
- □ Sequence numbers allow the detection of duplicate packets, but the sequence number space must be sized sufficiently large compared to the window size depending upon the retransmission algorithm (go-back-N or selective-repeat) used.
- □ In a lossless network, window-based transmission can achieve full utilization
- □ TCP sets its RTO to an average RTT measure + 4\*mean deviation of RTT, based upon Chebyshev's theorem
- □ Retransmission ambiguity would not occur if timestamps were used on packets.
- □ Self-clocking of TCP can be a liability in asymmetric networks where the reverse path can artificially constrain the forward path.
- □ Self-clocking can also lead to burstiness if the reverse path is congested, and/or the receiver uses a delay-ack time to suppress ACKs.
- □ The end-to-end congestion control model is the only one that can guarantee avoidance of congestion collapse.
- □ The notions of efficiency and fairness define an equilibrium point to which congestion control algorithms attempt to converge.
- □ A stable congestion control algorithm converges to its equilibrium point.
- □ In the  $(w, \alpha)$  notion of fairness,  $\alpha = 1$  leads to max-min fairness.
- □ In equilibrium, TCP attempts to conserve packets and operate at high utilization.
- □ TCP does not guarantee low queueing delays because it depends upon packet loss for congestion detection

# TCP/Congestion Control

- □ Fast retransmit refers to the procedure of using three duplicate acks to infer packet loss
- □ TCP Tahoe sets its window to 1 after every loss detection
- □ TCP Reno may timeout quickly in a multiple packet loss scenario
- □ TCP SACK uses selective retransmit, and like NewReno, it does not reduce its window more than once per window of packets
- □ With a 28kbps reverse link, 1500 byte packets are regular TCP behavior, the forward link throughput is at most around 2 Mbps
- □ Header compression and link level ack suppression/regeneration could help in asymmetric bandwidth scenarios
- □ Scheduling refers to the control of which packet is dropped from buffers
- □ FIFO+droptail provides service isolation among the participating TCP flows
- □ Synchronization occurs because DropTail leads to bursty and correlated packet losses amongst flows; and flows react to same events
- □ Dropping packets early has the risk that transient burstiness may be mistaken for true overload (demand > capacity)
- □ Marking packets instead of dropping them avoids nonlinearities caused by loss detection and retransmission mechanisms
- □ RED determines random drop probability by comparing the average queue size to a max and min thresholds
- □ FRED protects fragile flows and isolates effects of mis-behaving flows, but incurs per-flow state maintenance cost.
- □ Random dropping/marking with a bias in RED helps break synchronization

# Routing: general (SOLNS)

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