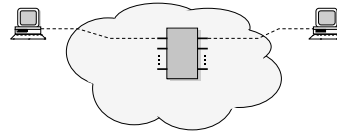


# CS 268: Lecture 10 Router Design and Packet Lookup

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## IP Router



- A router consists
  - A set of input interfaces at which packets arrive
  - A set of output interfaces from which packets depart
- Router implements two main functions
  - Forward packet to corresponding output interface
  - Manage congestion

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## Overview

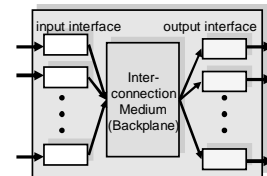
- > Router Architecture
  - Longest Prefix Matching

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## Generic Router Architecture

- Input and output interfaces are connected through a backplane
- A backplane can be implemented by
  - Shared memory
    - Low capacity routers (e.g., PC-based routers)
  - Shared bus
    - Medium capacity routers
  - Point-to-point (switched) bus
    - High capacity routers

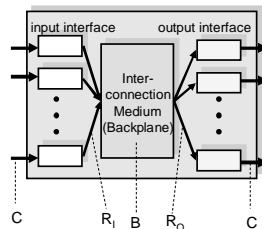


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## Speedup

- $C$  – input/output link capacity
- $R_i$  – maximum rate at which an input interface can send data into backplane
- $R_o$  – maximum rate at which an output can read data from backplane
- $B$  – maximum aggregate backplane transfer rate
- Back-plane speedup:  $B/C$
- Input speedup:  $R_i/C$
- Output speedup:  $R_o/C$

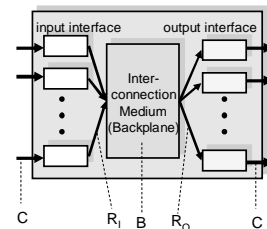


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## Function division

- Input interfaces:
  - Must perform packet forwarding – need to know to which output interface to send packets
  - May enqueue packets and perform scheduling
- Output interfaces:
  - May enqueue packets and perform scheduling



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## Three Router Architectures

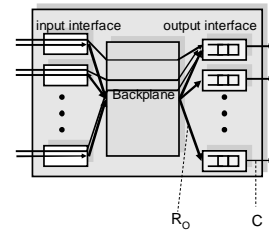
- Output queued
- Input queued
- Combined Input-Output queued

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## Output Queued (OQ) Routers

- Only output interfaces store packets
- Advantages
  - Easy to design algorithms: only one congestion point
- Disadvantages
  - Requires an output speedup of  $N$ , where  $N$  is the number of interfaces  $\rightarrow$  not feasible

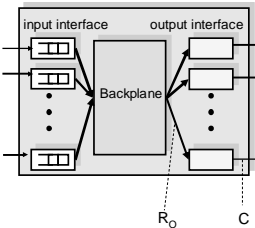


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## Input Queueing (IQ) Routers

- Only input interfaces store packets
- Advantages
  - Easy to built
    - Store packets at inputs if contention at outputs
  - Relatively easy to design algorithms
    - Only one congestion point, but not output...
    - need to implement backpressure
- Disadvantages
  - In general, hard to achieve high utilization
  - However, theoretical and simulation results show that for realistic traffic an input/output speedup of 2 is enough to achieve utilizations close to 1

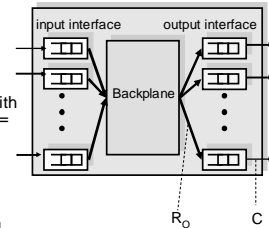


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## Combined Input-Output Queueing (CIOQ) Routers

- Both input and output interfaces store packets
- Advantages
  - Easy to built
  - Utilization 1 can be achieved with limited input/output speedup ( $\leq 2$ )
- Disadvantages
  - Harder to design algorithms
    - Two congestion points
    - Need to design flow control
  - An input/output speedup of 2, a CIOQ can emulate any work-conserving OQ [G+98,SZ98]



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## Generic Architecture of a High Speed Router Today

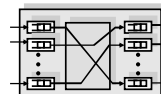
- Combined Input-Output Queued Architecture
  - Input/output speedup  $\leq 2$
- Input interface
  - Perform packet forwarding (and classification)
- Output interface
  - Perform packet (classification and) scheduling
- Backplane
  - Point-to-point (switched) bus; speedup  $N$
  - Schedule packet transfer from input to output

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## Backplane

- Point-to-point switch allows to simultaneously transfer a packet between any two disjoint pairs of input-output interfaces
- Goal: come-up with a schedule that
  - Meet flow QoS requirements
  - Maximize router throughput
- Challenges:
  - Address head-of-line blocking at inputs
  - Resolve input/output speedups contention
  - Avoid packet dropping at output if possible
- Note: packets are fragmented in fix sized cells (why?) at inputs and reassembled at outputs
  - In Partridge et al, a cell is 64 B (what are the trade-offs?)

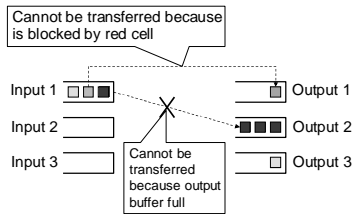


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## Head-of-line Blocking

- The cell at the head of an input queue cannot be transferred, thus blocking the following cells

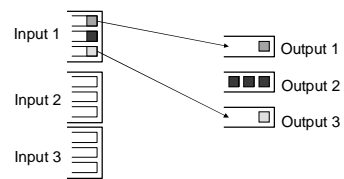


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## Solution to Avoid Head-of-line Blocking

- Maintain at each input  $N$  virtual queues, i.e., one per output



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## Cell transfer

- Schedule: ideally, find the maximum number of input-output pairs such that:
  - Resolve input/output contentions
  - Avoid packet drops at outputs
  - Packets meet their time constraints (e.g., deadlines), if any
- Example:
  - Use stable matching
  - Try to emulate an OQ switch

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## Stable Marriage Problem

- Consider  $N$  women and  $N$  men
- Each woman/man ranks each man/woman in the order of their preferences
- Stable matching, a matching with no blocking pairs
- Blocking pair; let  $p(i)$  denote the pair of  $i$ 
  - There are matched pairs  $(k, p(k))$  and  $(j, p(j))$  such that  $k$  prefers  $p(j)$  to  $p(k)$ , and  $p(j)$  prefers  $k$  to  $j$

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## Gale Shapely Algorithm (GSA)

- As long as there is a free man  $m$ 
  - $m$  proposes to highest ranked women  $w$  in his list he hasn't proposed yet
  - If  $w$  is free,  $m$  and  $w$  are engaged
  - If  $w$  is engaged to  $m'$  and  $w$  prefers  $m$  to  $m'$ ,  $w$  releases  $m'$ 
    - Otherwise  $m$  remains free
- A stable matching exists for every set of preference lists
- Complexity: worst-case  $O(N^2)$

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## Example

man	pref. list	women	pref. list
1	2 4 3 1	1	1 4 3 2
2	1 4 3 2	2	3 1 4 2
3	4 3 2 1	3	1 2 3 4
4	1 2 4 3	4	2 1 4 3

- If men propose to women, the stable matching is
  - $(1,2), (2,4), (3,3), (2,4)$
- What is the stable matching if women propose to men?

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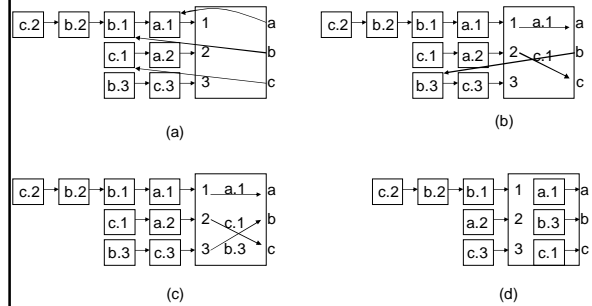
## OQ Emulation with a Speedup of 2

- Each input and output maintains a preference list
- Input preference list: list of cells at that input ordered in the **inverse** order of their arrival
- Output preference list: list of all input cells to be forwarded to that output ordered by the times they would be served in an Output Queueing schedule
- Use GSA to match inputs to outputs
  - Outputs initiate the matching
- Can emulate all work-conserving schedulers

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## Example



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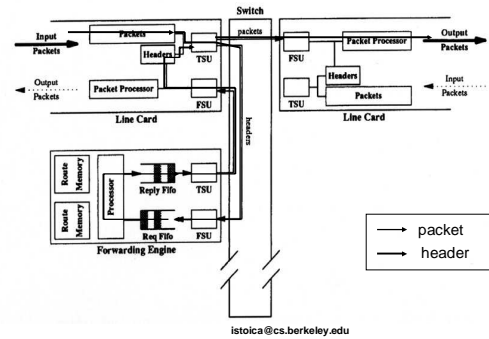
## A Case Study [Partridge et al '98]

- Goal: show that routers can keep pace with improvements of transmission link bandwidths
- Architecture
  - A CIOQ router
  - 15 (input/output) line cards:  $C = 2.4$  Gbps (3.3 Gbps including packet headers)
    - Each input card can handle up to 16 (input/output) interfaces
    - Separate forward engines (FEs) to perform routing
  - Backplane: Point-to-point (switched) bus, capacity  $B = 50$  Gbps (32 MPPS)
    - $B/C = 50/2.4 = 20$

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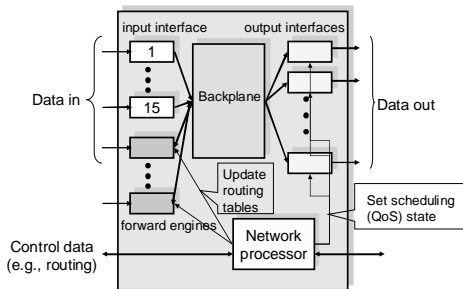
## Router Architecture



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## Router Architecture



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## Router Architecture: Data Plane

- Line cards
  - Input processing: can handle input links up to 2.4 Gbps
  - Output processing: use a 52 MHz FPGA; implements QoS
- Forward engine:
  - 415-MHz DEC Alpha 21164 processor, three level cache to store recent routes
    - Up to 12,000 routes in second level cache (96 kB); ~ 95% hit rate
  - Entire routing table in tertiary cache (16 MB divided in two banks)

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## Router Architecture: Control Plane

- Network processor: 233-MHz 21064 Alpha running NetBSD 1.1
  - Update routing
  - Manage link status
  - Implement reservation
- Backplane Allocator: implemented by an FPGA
  - Schedule transfers between input/output interfaces

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## Data Plane Details: Checksum

- Takes too much time to verify checksum
  - Increases forwarding time by 21%
- Take an optimistic approach: just incrementally update it
  - Safe operation: if checksum was correct it remains correct
  - If checksum bad, it will be anyway caught by end-host
- Note: IPv6 does not include a header checksum anyway!

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## Data Plane Details: Slow Path Processing

1. Headers whose destination misses in the cache
2. Headers with errors
3. Headers with IP options
4. Datagrams that require fragmentation
5. Multicast datagrams
  - Requires multicast routing which is based on source address and inbound link as well
  - Requires multiple copies of header to be sent to different line cards

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## Control Plane: Backplane Allocator

- Time divided in epochs
  - An epoch consists of 16 ticks of data clock (8 allocation clocks)
- Transfer unit: 64 B (8 data clock ticks)
- During one epoch, up to 15 simultaneous transfers in an epoch
  - One transfer: two transfer units (128 B of data + 176 auxiliary bits)
- Minimum of 4 epochs to schedule and complete a transfer but scheduling is pipelined.
  1. Source card signals that it has data to send to the destination card
  2. Switch allocator schedules transfer
  3. Source and destination cards are notified and told to configure themselves
  4. Transfer takes place
- Flow control through inhibit pins

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## The Switch Allocator Card

- Takes connection requests from function cards
- Takes inhibit requests from destination cards
- Computes a transfer configuration for each epoch
- $15 \times 15 = 225$  possible pairings with  $15!$  patterns

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## Allocation Algorithm

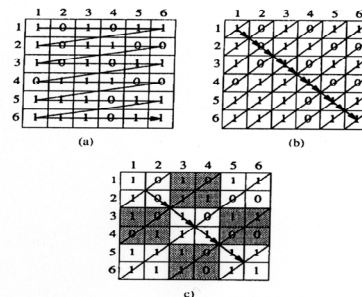


Fig. 4. Simple and wavefront allocators. (a) Simple. (b) Wavefront. (c) Group wavefront.

## The Switch Allocator

- Disadvantages of the simple allocator
  - Unfair: there is a preference for low-numbered sources
  - Requires evaluating 225 positions per epoch, which is too fast for an FPGA
- Solution to unfairness problem: random shuffling of sources and destinations
- Solution to timing problem: parallel evaluation of multiple locations
- Priority to requests from forwarding engines over line cards to avoid *header contention* on line cards

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## Summary: Design Decisions (Innovations)

- Each FE has a complete set of routing tables
- A switched fabric is used instead of the traditional shared bus
- FEs are on boards distinct from the line cards
- Use of an abstract link layer header
- Include QoS processing in the router

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## Overview

- Router Architecture
  - Longest Prefix Matching

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## Lookup Problem

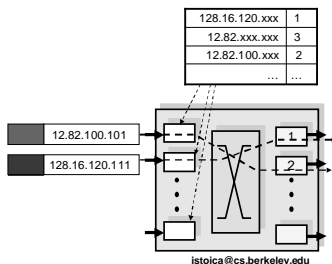
- Identify the output interface to forward an incoming packet based on packet's destination address
- Forwarding tables summarize information by maintaining a mapping between IP address prefixes and output interfaces
- Route lookup → find the longest prefix in the table that matches the packet destination address

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## Example

- Packet with destination address 12.82.100.101 is sent to interface 2, as 12.82.100.xxx is the longest prefix matching packet's destination address

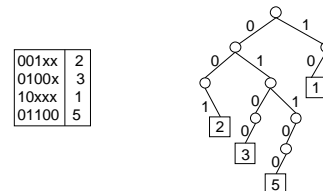


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## Patricia Tries

- Use binary tree paths to encode prefixes



- Advantage: simple to implement
- Disadvantage: one lookup may take  $O(m)$ , where  $m$  is number of bits (32 in the case of IPv4)

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## Lulea's Routing Lookup Algorithm (Sigcomm'97)

- Minimize number of memory accesses
- Minimize size of data structure (why?)
- Solution: use a three-level data structure

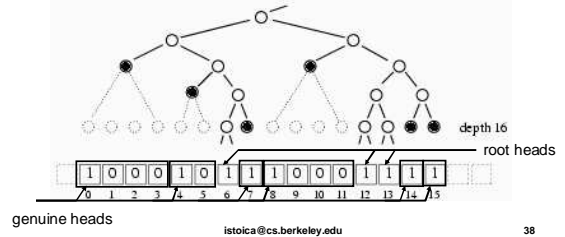


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## First Level: Bit-Vector

- Cover all prefixes down to depth 16
- Use one bit to encode each prefix
  - Memory requirements:  $2^{16} = 64 \text{ Kb} = 8 \text{ KB}$



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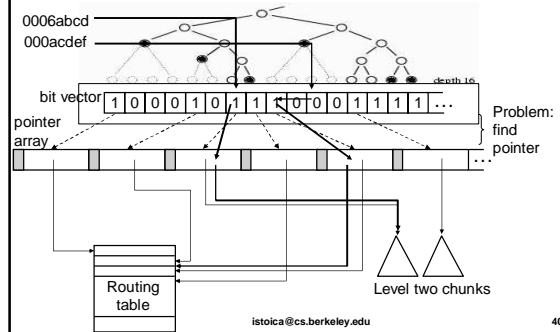
## First Level: Pointers

- Maintain 16-bit pointers to (1) next-hop (routing) table or (2) to two level chunks
  - 2 bits encode pointer type
  - 14 bits represent an index into routing table or into an array containing level two chunks
- Pointers are stored at consecutive memory addresses
- Problem: find the pointer

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## Example



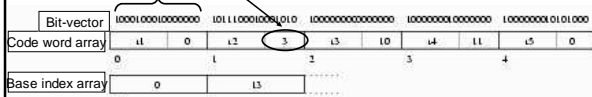
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## Code Word and Base Indexes Array

- Split the bit-vector in bit-masks (16 bits each)
- Find corresponding bit-mask
- How?
  - Maintain a 16-bit code word for each bit-mask (10-bit value; 6-bit offset)
  - Maintain a base index array (one 16-bit entry for each 4 code words)

number of previous ones in the bit-vector

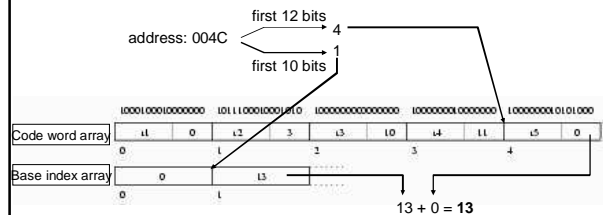


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## First Level: Finding Pointer Group

- Use first 12 bits to index into code word array
- Use first 10 bits to index into base index array



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## First Level: Encoding Bit-masks

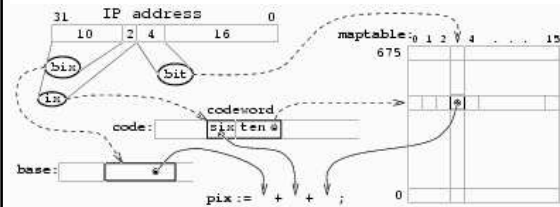
- Observation: not all 16-bit values are possible
  - Example: bit-mask 1001... is not possible (why not?)
- Let  $a(n)$  be number of non-zero bit-masks of length  $2^n$
- Compute  $a(n)$  using recurrence:
  - $a(0) = 1$
  - $a(n) = 1 + a(n-1)^2$
- For length 16, 678 possible values for bit-masks
- This can be encoded in 10 bits
  - Values  $r_i$  in code words
- Store all possible bit-masks in a table, called mactable

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## First Level: Finding Pointer Index

- Each entry in mactable is an offset of 4 bits:
  - Offset of pointer in the group
- Number of memory accesses: 3 (7 bytes accessed)



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## First Level: Memory Requirements

- Code word array: one code word per bit-mask
  - 64 Kb
- Based index array: one base index per four bit-mask
  - 16 Kb
- Mactable: 677x16 entries, 4 bits each
  - ~ 43.3 Kb
- Total: 123.3 Kb = 15.4 KB

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## First Level: Optimizations

- Reduce number of entries in Mactable by two:
  - Don't store bit-masks 0 and 1; instead encode pointers directly into code word
  - If  $r$  value in code word larger than 676 → direct encoding
  - For direct encoding use  $r$  value + 6-bit offset

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## Levels 2 and 3

- Levels 2 and 3 consists of chunks
- A chunk covers a sub-tree of height 8 → at most 256 heads
- Three types of chunks
  - Sparse: 1-8 heads
    - 8-bit indices, eight pointers (24 B)
  - Dense: 9-64 heads
    - Like level 1, but only one base index (< 162 B)
  - Very dense: 65-256 heads
    - Like level 1 (< 552 B)
- Only 7 bytes are accessed to search each of levels 2 and 3

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## Limitations

- Only  $2^{14}$  chunks of each kind
  - Can accommodate a growth factor of 16
- Only 16-bit base indices
  - Can accommodate a growth factor of 3-5
- Number of next hops  $\leq 2^{14}$

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## Notes

- This data structure trades the table construction time for lookup time (build time < 100 ms)
  - Good trade-off because routes are not supposed to change often
- Lookup performance:
  - Worst-case: 101 cycles
    - A 200 MHz Pentium Pro can do at least 2 millions lookups per second
  - On average: ~ 50 cycles
- Open question: how effective is this data structure in the case of IPv6 ?