



CCIE Professional Development Routing TCP/IP

Volume II Second Edition

ciscopress.com

Jeff Doyle, CCIE No. 1919

Contents

Introduction xxi

Chapter 1 Inter-Domain Routing Concepts 1 Early Inter-Domain Routing: The Exterior Gateway Protocol (EGP) 1 Origins of EGP 2 Operation of EGP 3 EGP Topology Issues 3 EGP Functions 5 Neighbor Acquisition Protocol 6 Neighbor Reachability Protocol 8 Network Reachability Protocol 10 Shortcomings of EGP 15 The Advent of BGP 16 BGP Basics 17 Autonomous System Types 21 External and Internal BGP 22 Multihoming 29 Transit AS Multihoming 30 Stub AS Multihoming 31 Multihoming and Routing Policies 36 Multihoming Issues: Load Sharing and Load Balancing 36 Multihoming Issues: Traffic Control 37 Multihoming Issues: Provider-Assigned Addressing 40 Classless Inter-Domain Routing 41 A Summarization Summary 41 Classless Routing 43 Summarization: The Good, the Bad, and the Asymmetric 47 CIDR: Reducing Class B Address Space Depletion 50 CIDR: Reducing Routing Table Explosion 50 Managing and Assigning IPv4 Address Blocks 54 CIDR Issues: Multihoming and Provider-Assigned Addresses 56 CIDR Issues: Address Portability 58 CIDR Issues: Provider-Independent Addresses 59 CIDR Issues: Traffic Engineering 60 CIDR Approaches Its Limits 62

IPv6 Comes of Age 66 Routing Table Explosion, Again 66 Looking Ahead 68 Review Questions 69 Chapter 2 Introduction to BGP 71 Who Needs BGP? 71 Connecting to Untrusted Domains 71 Connecting to Multiple External Neighbors 74 Setting Routing Policy 79 BGP Hazards 82 Operation of BGP 84 BGP Message Types 85 Open Message 85 Keepalive Message 86 Update Message 86 Notification Message 87 BGP Finite State Machine 87 Idle State 88 Connect State 89 Active State 89 **OpenSent** State 89 OpenConfirm State Established State 90 Path Attributes 90 **ORIGIN Attribute** 92 AS PATH Attribute 92 NEXT_HOP Attribute 97 Weight 100 BGP Decision Process 100 BGP Message Formats 103 Open Message 104 Update Message 105 Keepalive Message 108 Notification Message 108

Configuring and Troubleshooting BGP Peering 110 Case Study: EBGP Peering 110 Case Study: EBGP Peering over IPv6 114 Case Study: IBGP Peering 118 Case Study: Connected Check and EBGP Multihop 127 Case Study: Managing and Securing BGP Connections 136 Looking Ahead 142 Review Questions 143 Configuration Exercises 144 Troubleshooting Exercises 145

Chapter 3 BGP and NLRI 155

Configuring and Troubleshooting NLRI in BGP 155 Injecting Prefixes with the network Statement 156 Using the network mask Statement 160 Injecting Prefixes with Redistribution 162 NLRI and IBGP 167 Managing Prefixes in an IBGP Topology 168 IBGP and IGP Synchronization 179 182 Advertising BGP NLRI into the Local AS Redistributing BGP NLRI into the IGP 182 Case Study: Distributing NLRI in a Stub AS with IBGP 184 Distributing NLRI in a Stub AS with Static Routes 193 Advertising a Default Route to a Neighboring AS 196 Advertising Aggregate Routes with BGP 198 Case Study: Aggregation Using Static Routes 199 Aggregation Using the aggregate-address Statement 201 ATOMIC AGGREGATE and AGGREGATOR Attributes 207 Using AS SET with Aggregates 210 Looking Ahead 218 Review Questions 218 Configuration Exercises 219 Troubleshooting Exercises 223 Chapter 4 BGP and Routing Policies 237

> Policy and the BGP Database 238 IOS BGP Implementation 249 InQ and OutQ 249

IOS BGP Processes 251 NHT, Event, and the Open Processes 256 Table Versions 258 Managing Policy Changes 267 Clearing BGP Sessions 268 Soft Reconfiguration 269 Route Refresh 274 Route Filtering Techniques 279 Filtering Routes by NLRI 280 Case Study: Using Distribute Lists 280 Route Filtering with Extended ACLs 292 Case Study: Using Prefix Lists 293 Filtering Routes by AS PATH 304 Regular Expressions 304 Literals and Metacharacters 305 Delineation: Matching the Start and End of Lines 306 Bracketing: Matching a Set of Characters 306 Negating: Matching Everything Except a Set of Characters 306 Wildcard: Matching Any Single Character 307 Alternation: Matching One of a Set of Characters 307 Optional Characters: Matching a Character That May or May Not Be There 307 Repetition: Matching a Number of Repeating Characters 307 Boundaries: Delineating Literals 308 Putting It All Together: A Complex Example 308 Case Study: Using AS-Path Filters 309 Case Study: Setting Policy with Route Maps 314 Filter Processing 322 Influencing the BGP Decision Process 323 Case Study: Administrative Weights 325 Case Study: Using the LOCAL PREF Attribute 334 Case Study: Using the MULTI EXIT DISC Attribute 343 Case Study: Prepending the AS PATH 366 Case Study: Administrative Distances and Backdoor Routes 372 Controlling Complex Route Maps 379 Continue Clauses 380 Policy Lists 383

Looking Ahead 386 Review Questions 386 Configuration Exercises 388 Troubleshooting Exercises 392

Chapter 5 Scaling BGP 401

Scaling the Configuration 402 Peer Groups 403 Peer Templates 413 Session Templates 414 Policy Templates 419 Communities 425 Well-Known Communities 426 Arbitrary Communities 434 Using the AA:NN Format 443 Expanded Community Lists 445 Adding and Deleting Communities 460 Extended Community Lists 472 Scaling BGP Functions 478 Route Flap Dampening 479 Outbound Route Filters (ORF) 486 Next-Hop Tracking 496 Fast External Fallover 509 Bidirectional Forwarding Detection (BFD) 512 BGP Prefix Independent Convergence (PIC) 523 ADD-PATHS Capability 528 Graceful Restart 538 Maximum Prefixes 540 Tuning BGP CPU 552 Tuning BGP Memory 556 BGP Transport Optimization 563 Optimizing TCP 563 Optimizing BGP Update Generation 568 Optimizing TCP ACK Message Receipt 568 Scaling the BGP Network 569 Private AS Numbers 569 4-Byte AS Numbers 574

IBGP and the N-Squared Problem 575 Confederations 576 Route Reflectors 592 Looking Ahead 606 Review Questions 607 Configuration Exercises 608 Troubleshooting Exercises 612 Multiprotocol BGP 615 **Chapter 6** Multiprotocol Extensions to BGP 616 MBGP Support for the IPv6 Address Family 618 Configuring MBGP for IPv6 619 IPv4 and IPv6 Prefixes over an IPv4 TCP Session 620 Upgrading IPv4 BGP Configurations to the Address Family Format 629 IPv4 and IPv6 over an IPv6 TCP Connection 631 Dual Stack MBGP Connection 642 Multihop Dual Stack MBGP Connection Mixed IPv4 and IPv6 Sessions 650 Multiprotocol IBGP 654 Case Study: Multiprotocol Policy Configuration 666 Looking Ahead 705 Review Questions 705 Configuration Exercises Question 1: 707 Troubleshooting Exercises 709 Introduction to IP Multicast Routing 713 **Chapter 7** Requirements for IP Multicast 716 IPv4 Multicast Addresses 717 IPv6 Multicast Addresses 721 Group Membership Concepts 724 Joining and Leaving a Group 726 Join Latency 726 Leave Latency 727 Group Maintenance 728 Multiple Routers on a Network 728

Internet Group Management Protocol (IGMP) 729 IGMPv2 Host Functions 730 IGMPv2 Router Functions 731 IGMPv1 = 733IGMPv3 735 IGMP Message Format 736 Multicast Listener Discovery (MLD) 742 IGMP/MLD Snooping 745 Cisco Group Management Protocol (CGMP) 749 Multicast Routing Issues 753 Multicast Forwarding 754 Multicast Routing 756 Sparse Versus Dense Topologies 757 Implicit Joins Versus Explicit Joins 758 Source-Based Trees Versus Shared Trees 760 Source-Specific Multicast (SSM) 761 Multicast Scoping 763 TTL Scoping 763 Administrative Scoping 765 Looking Ahead 766 Recommended Reading 766 Review Questions 766 Configuration Exercises 768 Protocol Independent Multicast 771 Chapter 8 Introduction to Protocol Independent Multicast (PIM) 771 Operation of Protocol Independent Multicast-Dense Mode (PIM-DM) 773 PIM-DM Basics 773 Prune Overrides 779 Unicast Route Changes 782 PIM-DM Designated Routers 782 PIM Forwarder Election 782 Operation of Protocol Independent Multicast-Sparse Mode (PIM-SM) 785 PIM-SM Basics 786

Finding the Rendezvous Point 787 Bootstrap Protocol 787 Auto-RP Protocol 789 Embedded RP Addresses 790 PIM-SM and Shared Trees 793 Source Registration 796 PIM-SM and Shortest Path Trees 803 PIMv2 Message Formats 808 PIMv2 Message Header Format 809 PIMv2 Hello Message Format 810 PIMv2 Register Message Format 811 PIMv2 Register Stop Message Format 812 PIMv2 Join/Prune Message Format 812 PIMv2 Bootstrap Message Format 814 PIMv2 Assert Message Format 815 PIMv2 Graft Message Format 816 PIMv2 Graft-Ack Message Format 816 Candidate-RP-Advertisement Message Format 817 Configuring IP Multicast Routing 817 Case Study: Configuring Protocol Independent Multicast-Dense Mode (PIM-DM) 819 Configuring Protocol Independent Multicast-Sparse Mode (PIM-SM) 828 Case Study: Statically Configuring the RP 829 Case Study: Configuring Auto-RP 837 Case Study: Configuring Sparse-Dense Mode 845 Case Study: Configuring the Bootstrap Protocol 849 Case Study: Multicast Load Sharing 856 Troubleshooting IP Multicast Routing 863 Using mrinfo 865 Using mtrace and mstat 867 Looking Ahead 872 Recommended Reading 872 Review Questions 873 Configuration Exercises 873 Troubleshooting Exercises 876

Chapter 9 Scaling IP Multicast Routing 881 Multicast Scoping 881 Case Study: Multicasting Across Non-Multicast Domains 885 Connecting to DVMRP Networks 888 Inter-AS Multicasting 891 Multiprotocol Extensions for BGP (MBGP) 894 Operation of Multicast Source Discovery Protocol (MSDP) 896 MSDP Message Formats 898 Source Active TLV 898 Source Active Request TLV 899 Source Active Response TLV 900 Keepalive TLV 900 Notification TLV 900 Case Study: Configuring MBGP 902 Case Study: Configuring MSDP 908 Case Study: MSDP Mesh Groups 913 Case Study: Anycast RP 917 Case Study: MSDP Default Peers 923 Looking Ahead 926 Review Questions 926 Configuration Exercise 927 IPv4 to IPv4 Network Address Translation (NAT44) 931 Chapter 10 Operation of NAT44 932 Basic NAT Concepts 932 NAT and IP Address Conservation 934 NAT and ISP Migration 937 NAT and Multihomed Autonomous Systems 938 Port Address Translation (PAT) 940 NAT and TCP Load Distribution 942 NAT and Virtual Servers 944 NAT Issues 944 Header Checksums 945 Fragmentation 945 Encryption 945 Security 946

Protocol-Specific Issues 946 ICMP 947 DNS 948 FTP 951 SMTP 953 SNMP 953 Routing Protocols 953 Traceroute 953 Configuring NAT44 955 Case Study: Static NAT 955 NAT44 and DNS 962 Case Study: Dynamic NAT 964 Case Study: A Network Merger 969 Case Study: ISP Multihoming with NAT Port Address Translation 980 Case Study: TCP Load Balancing 982 Case Study: Service Distribution 984 Troubleshooting NAT44 986 Looking Ahead 988 Review Questions 989 Configuration Exercises 989 Troubleshooting Exercises 991 IPv6 to IPv4 Network Address Translation (NAT64) 995 Chapter 11 Stateless IP/ICMP Translation (SIIT) 997 IPv4/IPv6 Header Translation 999 ICMP/ICMPv6 Translation 1002 Fragmentation and PMTU 1005 Upper-Layer Header Translation 1006 Network Address Translation with Port Translation (NAT-PT) 1007 Operation of NAT-PT 1008 Configuring NAT-PT 1010 Why Is NAT-PT Obsolete? 1029 Stateless NAT64 1031 Operation of Stateless NAT64 1031 Configuration of Stateless NAT64 1036 Limitations of NAT64 1038

Stateful NAT64 1038 Operation of Stateful NAT64 1038 Configuration of Stateful NAT64 1041 Limitations of Stateful NAT64 1043 Looking Ahead 1043 Review Questions 1044 Configuration Exercise 1044 Configuration Exercise Premise 1045

Appendix A Answers to Review Questions 1047

Index 1079

Appendix B (online) Answers to Configuration Exercises

Appendix C (online) Answers to Troubleshooting Exercises

samplepages

Chapter 2

Introduction to BGP

Now that you have a firm understanding of the key issues surrounding inter-domain routing from Chapter 1, "Inter-Domain Routing Concepts," it is time to begin tackling BGP. This chapter covers the basic operation of BGP, including its message types, how the messages are used, and the format of the messages. You also learn about the various basic attributes BGP can associate with a route and how it uses these attributes to choose a best path. Finally, this chapter shows you how to configure and troubleshoot BGP peering sessions.

Who Needs BGP?

If you answer "yes" to all four of the following questions, you need BGP:

- Are you connecting to another routing domain?
- Are you connecting to a domain under a separate administrative authority?
- Is your domain multihomed?
- Is a routing policy required?

The answer to the first question—are you connecting to another routing domain? is obvious; BGP is an inter-domain routing protocol. But as the subsequent sections explain, BGP is not the only means of routing between separate domains.

Connecting to Untrusted Domains

An underlying assumption of an IGP is that, by definition, its neighbors are all under the same administrative authority, and therefore the neighbors can be trusted: Trusted to not be malicious, trusted to be correctly configured, and trusted to not send bad route information. All these things can still happen occasionally within an IGP domain, but they are

rare. An IGP is designed to freely exchange route information, focusing more on performance and easy configuration than on tight control of the information.

BGP, however, is designed to connect to neighbors in domains out of the control of its own administration. Those neighbors cannot be trusted, and the information you exchange with those neighbors is (if BGP is configured properly) carefully controlled with route policies.

But if connection to an external domain is your only requirement—particularly if there is only one connection—BGP is probably not called for. Static routes serve you better in this case; you don't have to worry about false information being exchanged because no information at all is being exchanged. Static routes are the ultimate means of controlling what packets are routed into and out of your network.

Figure 2-1 shows a subscriber attached by a single connection to an ISP. BGP, or any other type of routing protocol, is unnecessary in this topology. If the single link fails, no routing decision needs to be made because no alternative route exists. A routing protocol accomplishes nothing. In this topology, the subscriber adds a static default route to the border router and redistributes the route into his AS.



Figure 2-1 Static Routes Are All That Is Needed in This Single-Homed Topology

The ISP similarly adds a static route pointing to the subscriber's address range and advertises that route into its AS. Of course, if the subscriber's address space is a part of the ISP's larger address space, the route advertised by the ISP's router goes no farther than the ISP's own AS. "The rest of the world" can reach the subscriber by routing to the ISP's advertised address space, and the more-specific route to the subscriber can be picked up only within the ISP's AS. An important principle to remember when working with inter-AS traffic is that each physical link actually represents two logical links: one for incoming traffic, and one for outgoing traffic, as shown in Figure 2-2.



Figure 2-2 Each Physical Link Between Autonomous Systems Represents Two Logical Links, Carrying Incoming and Outgoing Packets

The routes you advertise in each direction influence the traffic separately. Avi Freedman, who has written many excellent articles on ISP issues, calls a route advertisement a promise to carry packets to the address space represented in the route. In Figure 2-1, the subscriber's router is advertising a default route into the local AS—a promise to deliver packets to any destination. And the ISP's router, advertising a route to 205.110.32.0/20, promises to deliver traffic to the subscriber's AS. The outgoing traffic from the subscriber's AS is the result of the default route, and the incoming traffic to the subscriber's AS is the result of the route advertised by the ISP's router. This concept may seem trivial and obvious at this point, but it is important to keep in mind as more complex topologies are examined and as we begin establishing policies for advertised and accepted routes.

The vulnerability of the topology in Figure 2-1 is that the entire connection consists of single points of failure. If the single data link fails, if a router or one of its interfaces fails, if the configuration of one of the routers fails, if a process within the router fails, or if one of the routers' all-too-human administrators makes a mistake, the subscriber's entire Internet connectivity can be lost. What is lacking in this picture is *redundancy*.

Connecting to Multiple External Neighbors

Figure 2-3 shows an improved topology, with redundant links to the same provider. How the incoming and outgoing traffic is manipulated across these links depends upon how the two links are used. For example, a frequent setup when multihoming to a single provider is for one of the links to be a primary, dedicated Internet access link and for the other link to be used only for backup.



Figure 2-3 When Multihoming You Must Consider the Incoming and Outgoing Advertisements and Resulting Traffic on Each Link

When the redundant link is used only for backup, there is again no call for BGP. The routes can be advertised just as they were in the single-homed scenario, except that the routes associated with the backup link have the metrics set high so that they can be used only if the primary link fails.

Example 2-1 shows what the configurations of the routers carrying the primary and secondary links might look like.

Example 2-1 Primary and Secondary Link Configurations for Multiboming to a Single Autonomous System

```
Primary Router:
router ospf 100
network 205.110.32.0 0.0.15.255 area 0
default-information originate metric 10
!
```

```
ip route 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0 205.110.168.108
```

Backup Router: router ospf 100 network 205.110.32.0 0.0.15.255 area 0 default-information originate metric 100 ! ip route 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0 205.110.168.113 150

In this configuration, the backup router has a default route whose administrative distance is set to 150 so that it will be only in the routing table if the default route from the primary router is unavailable. Also, the backup default is advertised with a higher metric than the primary default route to ensure that the other routers in the OSPF domain prefer the primary default route. The OSPF metric type of both routes is E2, so the advertised metrics remain the same throughout the OSPF domain. This ensures that the metric of the primary default route remains lower than the metric of the backup default route in every router, regardless of the internal cost to each border router. Example 2-2 shows the default routes in a router internal to the subscriber's OPSF domain.

Example 2-2 The First Display Shows the Primary External Route; the Second Display Shows the Backup Route Being Used After the Primary Route Has Failed

Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0						
Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet						
Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 10, candidate default path						
Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64						
Redistributing via ospf 1						
Last update from 205.110.36.1 on Serial0, 00:01:24 ago						
Routing Descriptor Blocks:						
* 205.110.36.1, from 205.110.36.1, 00:01:24 ago, via Serial0						
Route metric is 10, traffic share count is 1						
Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0						
Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet						
Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path						
Phoenix# show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64						
<pre>Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64 Redistributing via ospf 1</pre>						
<pre>Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64 Redistributing via ospf 1 Last update from 205.110.38.1 on Serial1, 00:00:15 ago</pre>						
<pre>Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64 Redistributing via ospf 1 Last update from 205.110.38.1 on Serial1, 00:00:15 ago Routing Descriptor Blocks:</pre>						
<pre>Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64 Redistributing via ospf 1 Last update from 205.110.38.1 on Serial1, 00:00:15 ago Routing Descriptor Blocks: * 205.110.38.1, from 205.110.38.1, 00:00:15 ago, via Serial1</pre>						
<pre>Phoenix#show ip route 0.0.0.0 Routing entry for 0.0.0.0 0.0.0, supernet Known via "ospf 1", distance 110, metric 100, candidate default path Tag 1, type extern 2, forward metric 64 Redistributing via ospf 1 Last update from 205.110.38.1 on Serial1, 00:00:15 ago Routing Descriptor Blocks: * 205.110.38.1, from 205.110.38.1, 00:00:15 ago, via Serial1 Route metric is 100, traffic share count is 1</pre>						

Although a primary/backup design satisfies the need for redundancy, it does not efficiently use the available bandwidth. A better design would be to use both paths, with each providing backup for the other if a link or router failure occurs. In this case, the configuration used in both routers is indicated in Example 2-3.

Example 2-3 When Load Sharing to the Same AS, the Configuration of Both Routers Can Be the Same

```
router ospf 100
network 205.110.32.0 0.0.15.255 area 0
default-information originate metric 10 metric-type 1
!
ip route 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0 205.110.168.108
```

Note A key difference between building the simple peering of Figure 2-3 as a primary/ backup configuration and as a load-sharing configuration is the consideration of bandwidth. If one link is a primary and one is a backup, the bandwidth of both links should be equal; if the primary fails, the load can be fully rerouted to the backup with no congestion. In some configurations, the backup link has considerably lower bandwidth, under the assumption that if the primary fails, the backup provides only enough bandwidth for critical applications to survive rather than full network functionality.

When a load-sharing configuration is used, the bandwidth of each of the two links should carry the total traffic load normally carried over both links. If one of the links fails, the other can then carry the full traffic load without packet loss.

The static routes in both routers have equal administrative distances, and the default routes are advertised with equal metrics (10). The default routes are now advertised with an OSPF metric type of E1. With this metric type, each of the routers in the OSPF domain takes into account the internal cost of the route to the border routers in addition to the cost of the default routes. As a result, every router chooses the closest exit point when choosing a default route, as shown by Figure 2-4.

In most cases advertising default routes into the AS from multiple exit points, and summarizing address space out of the AS at the same exit points, is sufficient for good internetwork performance. The one consideration is whether asymmetric traffic patterns will become a concern, as discussed in Chapter 1. If the geographical separation between the two (or more) exit points is large enough for delay variations to become significant, you might have a need for better control of the routing. BGP may now be a consideration.

For example, suppose the two exit routers in Figure 2-3 are located in Los Angeles and London. You might want all your exit traffic destined for the Eastern Hemisphere to use the London router, and all your exit traffic for the Western Hemisphere to use the Los Angeles router. Remember that the incoming route advertisements influence your

outgoing traffic. If the provider advertises routes into your AS via BGP, your internal routers has more accurate information about external destinations.





Similarly, outgoing route advertisements influence your incoming traffic. If internal routes are advertised to the provider via BGP, you have influence over what routes are advertised at what exit point, and also tools for influencing (to some degree) the choices the provider makes when sending traffic into your AS.

When considering whether to use BGP, weigh the benefits gained against the cost of added routing complexity. BGP should be preferred over static routes only when an advantage in traffic control can be realized. Consider the incoming and outgoing traffic separately. If it is only important to control your incoming traffic, use BGP to advertise routes to your provider while still advertising only a default route into your AS.

However, if it is only important to control your outgoing traffic, use BGP just to receive routes from your provider. Consider the ramifications of accepting routes from your provider. "Taking full BGP routes" means that your provider advertises to you the entire Internet routing table. As of this writing, that is more than 500,000 IPv4 route entries,

as shown in Example 2-4. The IPv6 Internet table is growing rapidly. You need a reasonably powerful router CPU to process the routes and enough router memory to store the entries. You also need sufficient TCAM or other forwarding plane memory to hold forwarding information. Example 2-4 shows that just the BGP routes require almost 155.7MB; the memory that BGP requires to process these routes, as shown in Example 2-5, is approximately 4.1GB. A simple default-routing scheme, however, can be implemented easily with a low-end router and a moderate amount of memory.

Example 2-4 This Summary of the Full Internet Routing Table Shows 540,809 BGP Entries¹

route-views>show ip route summary									
IP routing table name is default (0x0)									
IP routing table maximum-paths is 32									
Route Source	Networks	Subnets	Replicates	Overhead	Memory (bytes)				
connected	0	2	0	192	576				
static	1	57	0	5568	16704				
application	0	0	0	0	0				
bgp 6447	174172	366637	0	51917664	155752992				
External: 540	809 Internal	: 0 Local: 0							
internal	7847				42922856				
Total	182020	366696	0	51923424	198693128				
route-views>									

Example 2-5 BGP Requires Approximately 4.1GB of Memory to Process the Routes Shown in Example 2-4

route-views> show processes memory include BGP								
117	0	0	232	41864	644	644	BGP	Scheduler
176	0 1	1505234352	262528	370120	14362638	14362638	BGP	I/O
299	0	0	10068312	41864	0	0	BGP	Scanner
314	0	0	0	29864	0	0	BGP	HA SSO
338	0 2	27589889144	2170064712 4	102896864	3946	3946	5 BGI	P Router
350	0	0	0	29864	0	0	XC E	BGP SIG RIB H
383	0	0	0	41864	0	0	BGP	Consistency
415	0	0	0	41864	0	0	BGP	Event
445	0	0	0	29864	0	0	BGP	VA
450	0	3224	0	33160	1	0	BGP	Open
562	0	328104	262528	107440	0	0	BGP	Task
574	0	3248	0	33160	1	0	BGP	Open

¹ This display was taken in 2014 from the public route server at University of Oregon (AS6447). The corresponding example in the first edition of this book, taken from an AT&T route server in 1999, showed 88,269 BGP entries.

575	0	3120	0	33088	1	0 BGP Open		
577	0	3120	0	33040	1	0 BGP Open		
578	0	3120	0	33072	1	0 BGP Open		
route-views>								

Note The routing table summary in Example 2-4 and the related processes shown in Example 2-5 are taken from a route server at route-views.oregon-ix.net. By the time you read this chapter, the numbers shown in these two examples will have changed; telnet to the server, and see what they are now. There are a number of such publicly accessible route servers; for a good list, go to www.netdigix.com/servers.html.

Another consideration is that when running BGP, a subscriber's routing domain must be identified with an autonomous system (AS) number. Like IPv4 addresses, AS numbers are limited and are assigned only by the regional address registries when there is a justifiable need. And like IPv4 addresses, a range of AS numbers is reserved for private use: the AS numbers 64512 to 65534. As with private IPv4 addresses (RFC 1918), these AS numbers are not globally unique and must not be included in the AS_PATH of any route advertised into the public Internet. With few exceptions, subscribers that are connected to a single service provider (either single or multihomed) use an AS number out of the reserved range. The service provider filters the private AS number out of the advertised BGP path. Configuring and filtering private AS numbers is covered in Chapter 5, "Scaling BGP."

Although the topology in Figure 2-3 is an improvement over the topology in Figure 2-2 because redundant routers and data links have been added, it still entails a single point of failure. That point of failure is the ISP. If the ISP loses connectivity to the rest of the Internet, so does the subscriber. And if the ISP suffers a major internal outage, the single-homed subscriber also suffers.

Setting Routing Policy

Figure 2-5 shows a topology in which a subscriber has homed to more than one service provider. In addition to the advantages of multihoming already described, this subscriber is protected from losing Internet connectivity as the result of a single ISP failure. And with this topology BGP begins to become a better choice, in most cases, than static routes.

The subscriber in Figure 2-5 could still forego BGP. One option is to use one ISP as a primary Internet connection and the other as a backup only; another option is to default route to both providers and let the routing chips fall where they may. But if a subscriber has gone to the expense of multihoming and contracting with multiple providers, neither of these solutions is likely to be acceptable. BGP is the preferred option in this scenario.



Figure 2-5 Multihoming to Multiple Autonomous Systems

Again, incoming and outgoing traffic should be considered separately. For incoming traffic, the most reliability is realized if all internal routes are advertised to both providers. This setup ensures that all destinations within the subscriber's AS are completely reachable via either ISP. Even though both providers are advertising the same routes, there are cases in which incoming traffic should prefer one path over another; such situations are discussed in the multihoming sections of Chapter 1. BGP provides the tools for communicating these preferences.

For outgoing traffic, the routes accepted from the providers should be carefully considered. If full routes are accepted from both providers, the best route for every Internet destination is chosen. In some cases, however, one provider might be preferred for full Internet connectivity, whereas the other provider is preferred for only some destinations. In this case, full routes can be taken from the preferred provider and partial routes can be taken from the other provider. For example, you might want to use the secondary provider only to reach its other subscribers and for backup to your primary Internet provider (see Figure 2-6). The secondary provider sends its customer routes, and the subscriber configures a default route to the secondary ISP to be used if the connection to the primary ISP fails.

The full routes sent by ISP1 probably include the customer routes of ISP2, learned from the Internet or perhaps from a direct peering connection. Because the same routes are received from ISP2, however, the subscriber's routers normally prefer the shorter path through ISP2. If the link to ISP2 fails, the subscriber uses the longer paths through ISP1 and the rest of the Internet to reach ISP2's customers.



Figure 2-6 ISP1 Is the Preferred Provider for Most Internet Connectivity; ISP2 Is Used Only to Reach Its Other Customers' Networks and for Backup Internet Connectivity

Similarly, the subscriber normally uses ISP1 to reach all destinations other than ISP2's customers. If some or all of those more-specific routes from ISP1 are lost, however, the subscriber uses the default route through ISP2.

If router CPU and memory limitations prohibit taking full routes,² partial routes from both providers are an option. Each provider might send its own customer routes, and the subscriber points default routes to both providers. In this scenario, some routing accuracy is traded for a savings in router resources.

In yet another partial-routes scenario, each ISP might send its customer routes and also the customer routes of its upstream provider (which typically is a national or global backbone carrier such as Level 3 Communications, Sprint, NTT, or Deutsche Telekom). In Figure 2-7, for example, ISP1 is connected to Carrier1, and ISP2 is connected to Carrier2. The partial routes sent to the subscriber by ISP1 consist of all ISP1's customer routes and all Carrier1's customer routes. The partial routes sent by ISP2 consist of all ISP2's customer routes and all Carrier2's customer routes. The subscriber points to default routes at both providers. Because of the size of the two backbone carrier providers, the subscriber has enough routes to make efficient routing decisions on a large number of destinations. At the same time, the partial routes are still significantly smaller than a full Internet routing table.

² Taking full BGP routes from two sources doubles the number of BGP entries in all routers and consequently doubles the memory demand.



Figure 2-7 The Subscriber Is Taking Partial Routes from Both ISPs, Consisting of All ISP's Customer Routes and the Customer Routes from Their Respective Upstream Providers

All the examples here have shown a stub AS connected to one or more ISPs. Figures 2-5 through 2-7 begin introducing enough complexity that BGP and routing policy are probably called for. As the complexity of multihoming and its related policy issues grow, as illustrated in the transit AS examples in the previous chapter, the need for BGP becomes increasingly sure.

BGP Hazards

Creating a BGP peering relationship involves an interesting combination of trust and mistrust. The BGP peer is in another AS, so you must trust the network administrator on that end to know what she is doing. At the same time, if you are smart, you will take every practical measure to protect yourself if a mistake is made on the other end. When you implement a BGP peering connection, paranoia is your friend.

At the same time, you should be a good neighbor by taking practical measures to ensure that a mistake in your AS does not affect your BGP peers.

Recall the earlier description of a route advertisement as a promise to deliver packets to the advertised destination. The routes you advertise directly influence the packets you receive, and the routes you receive directly influence the packets you transmit. In a good

BGP peering arrangement, both parties should have a complete understanding of what routes are to be advertised in each direction. Again, incoming and outgoing traffic must be considered separately. Each peer should ensure that he is transmitting only the correct routes and should use route filters or other policy tools such as AS_PATH filters, described in Chapter 4, "BGP and Routing Policies," to ensure that he receives only the correct routes.

Your ISP might show little patience with you if you make mistakes in your BGP configuration, but the worst problems can be attributed to a failure on both sides of the peering arrangement. Suppose, for example, that through some misconfiguration you advertise 207.46.0.0/16 to your ISP. On the receiving side, the ISP does not filter out this incorrect route, allowing it to be advertised to the rest of the Internet. This particular CIDR block belongs to Microsoft, and you have just claimed to have a route to that destination. A significant portion of the Internet community could decide that the best path to Microsoft is through your domain. You will receive a flood of unwanted packets across your Internet connection and, more important, you will have black-holed traffic that should have gone to Microsoft. It will be neither amused nor understanding.

This kind of thing happens frequently: Not long ago, Yahoo experienced a brief outage due to a company in Seoul mistakenly advertising a /14 prefix that included addresses belonging to Yahoo.

Figure 2-8 shows another example of a BGP routing mistake. This same internetwork was shown in Figure 2-6, but here the customer routes that the subscriber learned from ISP2 have been inadvertently advertised to ISP1.



Figure 2-8 This Subscriber Is Advertising Routes Learned from ISP2 into ISP1, Inviting Packets Destined for ISP2 and Its Customers to Transit His Domain

Unless ISP1 and ISP2 have a direct peering connection, ISP1 and its customers probably see the subscriber's domain as the best path to ISP2 and its customers. In this case, the traffic is not black-holed because the subscriber does indeed have a route to ISP2. The subscriber has become a transit domain for packets from ISP1 to ISP2, to the detriment of its own traffic. And because the routes from ISP2 to ISP1 still point through the Internet, the subscriber has caused asymmetric routing for ISP2.

The point of this section is that BGP, by its nature, is designed to allow communication between autonomously controlled systems. A successful and reliable BGP peering arrangement requires an in-depth understanding of not only the routes to be advertised in each direction, but also the routing policies of each of the involved parties.

The remainder of this chapter introduces the technical basics of BGP and demonstrates how to configure and troubleshoot simple BGP sessions. With that foundation experience, you then get a good taste of configuring and troubleshooting policies in Chapter 4.

Operation of BGP

The section "BGP Basics" in Chapter 1 introduced you to the fundamental facts about BGP. To recap

- Unique among the common IP routing protocols, BGP sends only unicast messages and forms a separate point-to-point connection with each of its peers.
- BGP is an application layer protocol using TCP (port 179) for this point-to-point connection and relies on the inherent properties of TCP for session maintenance functions such as acknowledgment, retransmission, and sequencing.
- BGP is a vector protocol, although called a path vector rather than distance vector because it sees the route to a destination as a path through a series of autonomous systems rather than as a series of routers hops.
- A BGP route describes the path vector using a route attribute called the AS_PATH, which sequentially lists the autonomous system numbers comprising the path to the destination.
- The AS_PATH attribute is a shortest path determinant. Given multiple routes to the same destination, the route with an AS_PATH listing the fewest AS numbers is assumed to be the shortest path.
- The AS numbers on the AS_PATH list are used for loop detection; a router receiving a BGP route with its own AS number in the AS_PATH assumes a loop and discards the route.
- If a router has a BGP session to a neighbor with a different AS number, the session is called *external BGP (EBGP)*; if the neighbor has the same AS number as the router, the session is called *internal BGP (IBGP)*. The neighbors are called, respectively, *external* or *internal* neighbors.

This chapter builds on these basic facts to describe the operation of BGP.

BGP Message Types

Before establishing a BGP peer connection, the two neighbors must perform the standard TCP three-way handshake and open a TCP connection to port 179. TCP provides the fragmentation, retransmission, acknowledgment, and sequencing functions necessary for a reliable connection, relieving BGP of those duties. All BGP messages are unicast to the one neighbor over the TCP connection.

BGP uses four basic message types:

- Open
- Keepalive
- Update
- Notification

Note There is a fifth BGP message type: Route Refresh. But unlike the four presented here, this fifth message type is not a part of basic BGP functionality and might not be supported by all BGP routers. The Route Refresh message and its use are described in Chapter 4.

This section describes how these messages are used; for a complete description of the message formats and the variables of each message field, see the section "BGP Message Formats."

Open Message

After the TCP session is established, both neighbors send Open messages. Each neighbor uses this message to identify itself and to specify its BGP operational parameters. The Open message includes the following information:

- BGP version number: This specifies the version (2, 3, or 4) of BGP that the originator is running; the IOS default is BGP-4. Prior to IOS 12.0(6)T, IOS would autonegotiate the version: If a neighbor is running an earlier version of BGP, it rejects the Open message specifying version 4; the BGP-4 router then changes to BGP-3 and sends another Open message specifying this version. If the neighbor rejects that message, an Open specifying version 2 is sent. BGP-4 has now become so prevalent that as of 12.0(6)T IOS no longer autonegotiates, but you can still configure a session to speak to a neighbor running version 2 or 3 with neighbor version.
- Autonomous system number: This is the AS number of the originating router. It determines whether the BGP session is EBGP (if the AS numbers of the neighbors differ) or IBGP (if the AS numbers are the same).