



4

Deploying IS-IS Networks

Now that you understand the IS-IS routing protocol and are familiar with the concepts of multi-area routing and routing domains, you are ready to deploy IS-IS on a network. This chapter provides information about deploying IS-IS within a network, and answers questions such as Where do you place routing domain boundaries? Why? And how do you deal with IP route summarization?

Domains and Hierarchical Network Design

One of the first questions you need to ask is “Where should I put the L1/L2 borders in a network?” In other words, how do IS-IS domains overlay onto a network’s hierarchical structure? Of course, before answering this question, we need to ask yet another—what sort of hierarchy is the network built on? Figure 4-1 illustrates the two most common types.

Traditionally, hierarchical network designs have three layers of intermediate systems: the core, distribution, and access layers. Each of these layers serves a specific purpose in the network, splitting network design into three smaller problems.

- The network *core layer* is tasked with forwarding packets between the different sections of the network as quickly as possible. Core intermediate systems are

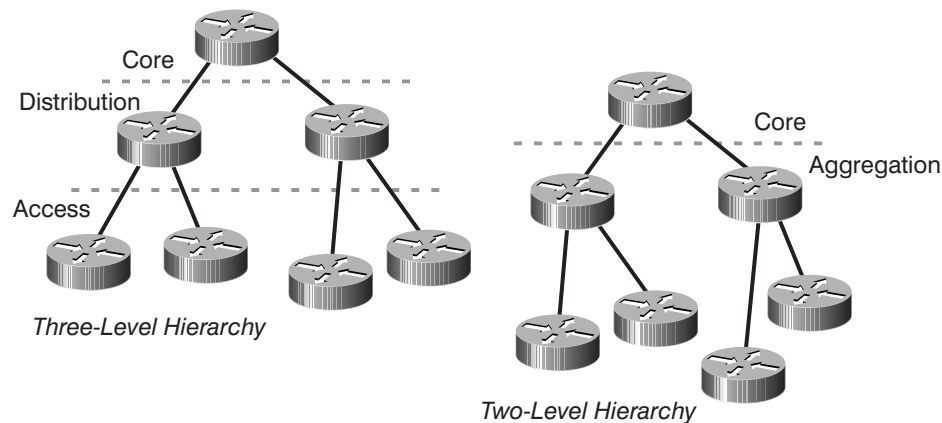


Figure 4-1 Two models of hierarchical networks

normally connected through a full-mesh, partial-mesh, or some sort of ring topology to other core intermediate systems throughout the network.

- The intermediate systems within the *distribution layer* act as a place to aggregate traffic and to summarize routes between the access and core layers of intermediate systems.
- The *access layer* is where customers (or end users) actually connect to the network.

Many very large networks are built using this three-level hierarchy, since it tends to scale well and is well understood. There is another model used in situations where latency through intermediate systems must be reduced (generally by using fast intermediate systems and by reducing the actual number of intermediate systems a packet must pass through to make it through the network), or in smaller networks. This alternate approach is the two-tier model, which is also illustrated in Figure 4-1.

- The core serves the same purpose in a two-layer design as it does in a three-layer design—it forwards packets

between the different sections of the network as quickly as possible (or gets the packets routed to a peer network as quickly as possible).

- The *aggregation layer* serves as a combined distribution and access layer: It sets policies for traffic entering the network, offers a summarization point for reachable destinations within the aggregation layer, and provides traffic aggregation.

With these two models of network hierarchy in mind, let's examine several different options for laying out domains within a network.

Putting the Network in One Routing Domain

One of the most common ways to design a large-scale IS-IS network is to place all the intermediate systems in one domain. Although this approach might not seem optimal at first glance, the following list includes some of the many reasons to design an IS-IS network this way.

- Configuring the intermediate systems in a single domain network is much simpler. All area addresses remain the same, and there is no need to consider which interfaces are in which level or domain.
- Designing a single domain network is much simpler. The network designer doesn't need to consider where IP address summarization will take place, for instance, or where domain borders should be.
- The network designer does not need to consider next hop reachability for BGP, tunnels, or any other applications. Since all the endpoints are in the same domain, and all the intermediate systems within a domain share the same topology databases and

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reachability information, there is no need to deploy route leaking or any other mechanism to ensure the next hops are always reachable.

In fact, most of the currently deployed large-scale IS-IS networks have been designed and configured as a single large level 1 or level 2 domain and have up to 1,000 intermediate systems. Single domain networks have some disadvantages as well.

- A flooding storm or other IS-IS problem can bring down the entire network, not just some small part of it.
- There is no border on which to summarize IP prefixes or otherwise hide information; all LSPs must be flooded throughout the network.

Before we go on, it is important to note that most of the existing IS-IS networks were built and deployed by service providers many years before the idea of route leaking was implemented. This is relevant because the network designers could only build a single domain network if they wanted to maintain reachability and optimal routing for destinations learned through BGP. In other words, a single domain was the only real option at the time. By taking advantage of the route leaking enhancement, many networks are now able to enjoy the benefits of separating the network into multiple domains.

If you do put all the intermediate systems in a single domain, what type of domain should it be? The network can be configured as a single level 1 routing domain, a single level 2 routing domain, or a single overlaid level 1/level 2 routing domain.

Configuring all the intermediate systems within a network to run both level 1 and level 2 routing causes all reachability and topology information to be flooded throughout the network twice—once as level 1 routing and topology information, and

once as level 2 routing and topology information. This result does not improve scalability, so we do not suggest running an overlaid level 1/level 2 routing domain.

It's also possible to configure all the intermediate systems in the same domain as level 1-only intermediate systems, so the entire network appears to be a single level 1 routing domain. All the reachability and topology information would be flooded once, as level 1 reachability information, rather than being flooded twice. This is the traditional way large-scale IS-IS networks were initially configured. The only problem with configuring all the intermediate systems as level 1-only intermediate systems is that if you ever decide to move to a two-level hierarchy, it can be difficult to move from a single level 1 domain to a level 1/level 2 design with a level 2 domain and level 1 domains connected to it.

Finally, you can configure all the intermediate systems to be within the level 2 routing domain—while all the intermediate systems would be in the same domain, they would be configured for only level 2 routing. Adding a second level of hierarchy would be easy with this sort of a design; since the level 2 domain is already contiguous, you can just add level 1 domains off the network or reassign nodes to them. The main problem with configuring a large network as a single level 2 domain is providing reachability to CLNS end systems. If there are any CLNS end systems within the network, there won't be a level 1 domain for them to reside in, so static CLNS routes will need to be configured to provide reachability to them.

The Pure Level 2 Core

If you have decided you don't want to place all the intermediate systems in your network into a single routing domain, then

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you need to decide where in the network the border between the level 2 domain and the level 1 domains is going to be. One option is to take a very structured view of the design, and divide the domains so the core of the network is contained within the level 2 routing domain. Figure 4-2 illustrates a level 2-only core.

This configuration is possible for a network with a well-defined core, such as a true three-tier network. Each level 1 routing domain could represent a different geographical domain, or a particular site, while the layer 2 core would represent a network-wide domain backbone that all of these geographic domains attach to.

Overlapping Routing Domains

The level 1 and level 2 routing domains, however, are not necessarily going to be so cleanly separated; overlapping domains tend to be the rule rather than the exception in IS-IS network designs. Figure 4-3 illustrates a network with the level 2 rout-

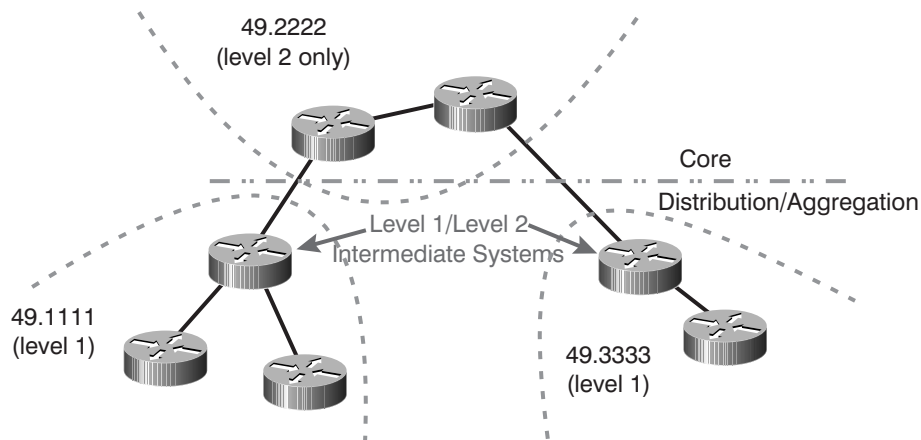


Figure 4-2 A level 2-only core

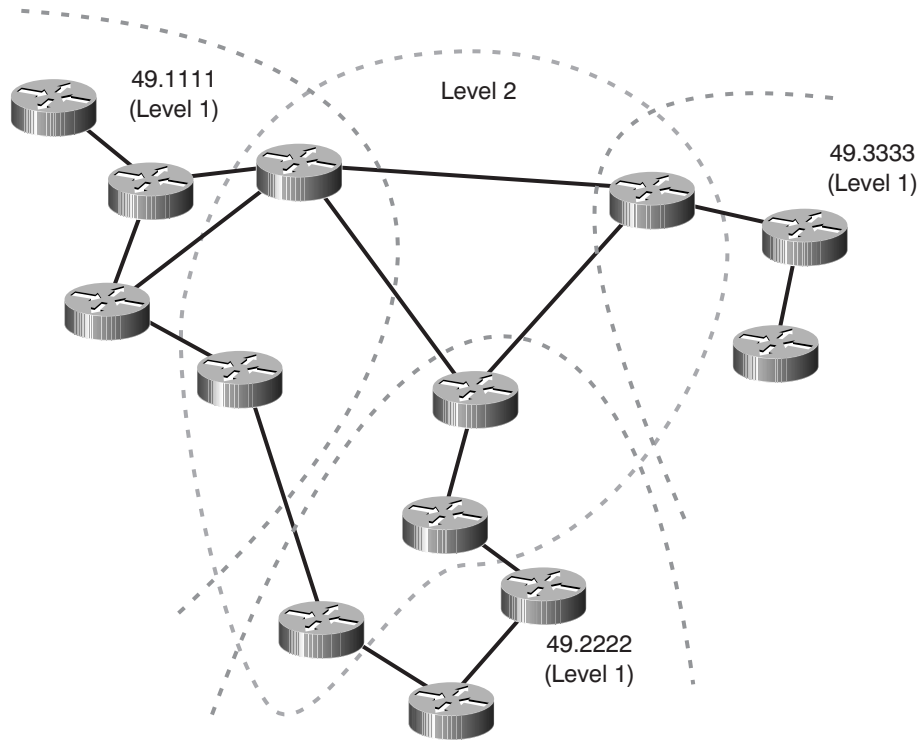


Figure 4-3 The level 1/level 2 border in the core

ing domain overlapping portions of several level 1 routing domains.

In this network, all of the intermediate systems are part of a level 1 domain, and some are configured to run both level 1 and level 2 routing. The contiguous set of level 2 intermediate systems overlaps with the contiguous set of level 1 intermediate systems within each level 1 area. The primary issue to be wary of when working through where to put the level 1/level 2 intermediate systems in this type of design is paying attention to where IP address summarization is going to take place, and configuring it correctly.

Domain Border Considerations

When deciding where to place the level 1/level 2 border, you need to consider the following factors.

- The physical topology of the network. If there is a natural place in which to create a pure level 2 routing domain, then you should probably consider creating one.
- Domain partitions. Consider the result of single- and double-link failures. If a single-link failure would cause a level 2 partition, you should carefully consider how to either increase or decrease the size of the level 2 routing domain to avoid this possibility.
- Domain sizes and flooding diameters. In Chapter 3 we noted that the primary reason for breaking a network up into smaller domains is to reduce the amount of information any given intermediate system must handle when a network topology change occurs, which also results in a reduction of the flooding scope. If your network has a number of large level 1 routing domains, and a “no intermediate system” level 2 routing domain (in other words, no L2-only nodes exist), it might be worth considering changing the location of the level 1/level 2 border to balance the flooding domains.
- IP address summarization. You should consider the IP addressing within the network, and where it can be best summarized. You can only summarize IP addresses at domain borders.
- Traffic flow. You should consider the paths that traffic will normally take through the network, and how domain borders will affect that traffic flow. For

instance, if there is a large data center that most traffic will flow to and from, it might make sense to place this data center entirely in the level 2 routing domain.

Other Design and Deployment Issues

Beyond deciding whether or not to divide an IS-IS network into multiple domains, and where the domain borders should be if you decide to separate the domain, what other issues should you look for when designing and deploying an IS-IS network? There are a few things that you should look at regardless of what routing protocol you are using, such as summarizing IP prefixes or dialer interfaces, while there are others, which are more specific to IS-IS, such as tuning the various IS-IS timers.

Summarizing IP Prefixes

One of the most important issues to address when designing or deploying an IP network is prefix summarization. Summarization is a very simple concept—the basic premise is to reduce the amount of information that intermediate systems must handle while computing the best paths through the network by hiding information about reachable destinations. For instance, in the network illustrated in Figure 4-4, each time intermediate systems B and C need to run SPF, they have to compute the best path to all 16 of the networks illustrated, even though they are all reachable only through Router A.

Since all of these networks are reachable through a single point, why not describe them with a single prefix (or advertisement), rather than 16? That is exactly what summarization does—rather than advertise a large number of destinations, they are summarized into a single prefix at intermediate system A, which then

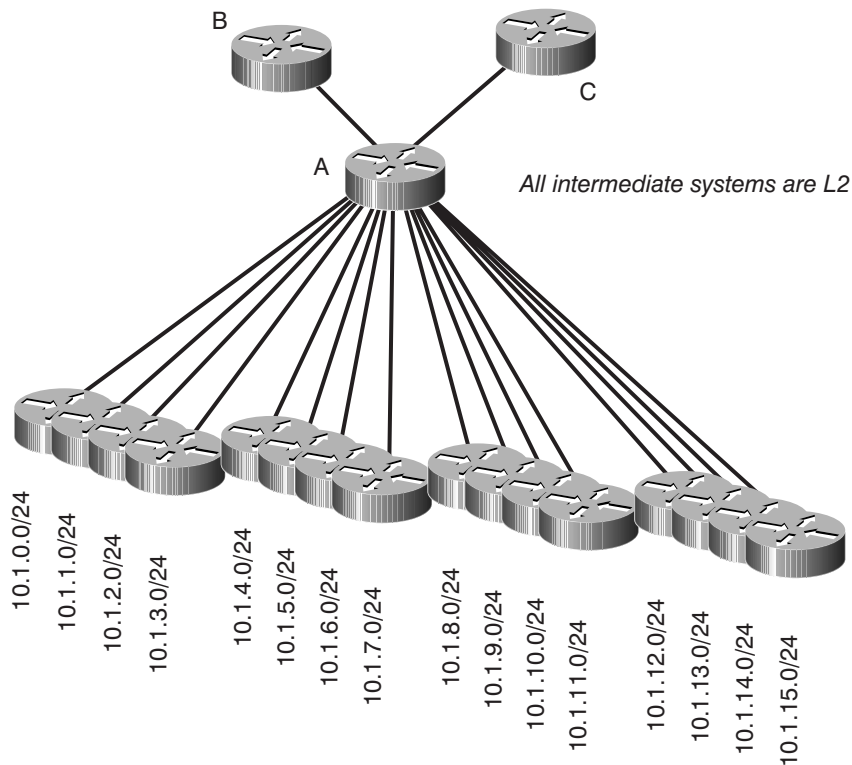
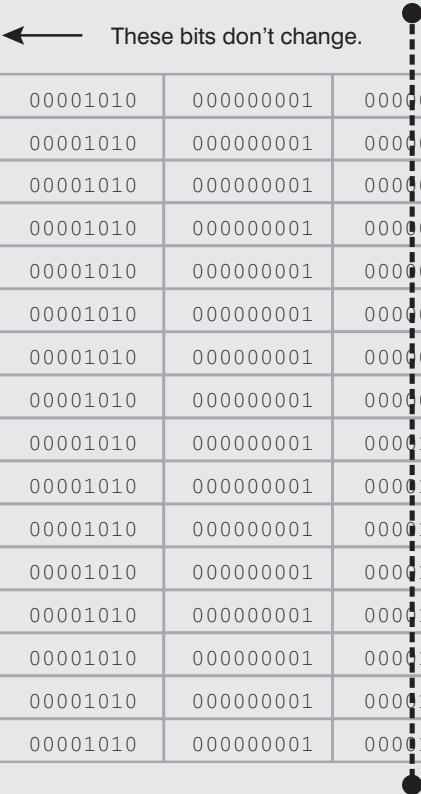


Figure 4-4 A highly summarizable address space

advertises it towards B and C. In this case, 10.1.0.0/21 would include all of the destinations from 10.1.0.0 through 10.1.15.255.

Calculating IP Summaries

IP summarization, although simple in principle, is a confusing topic to many people. The general idea is to shorten the prefix length (the number of bits set in the subnet mask) so a single advertisement covers, or represents, more address space. For instance, in the network illustrated in Figure 4-4, we begin with 16 different destinations, each with a 24-bit mask.



10.1.0.0	00001010	000000001	00000000	00000000
10.1.1.0	00001010	000000001	00000001	00000000
10.1.2.0	00001010	000000001	00000010	00000000
10.1.3.0	00001010	000000001	00000011	00000000
10.1.4.0	00001010	000000001	00000100	00000000
10.1.5.0	00001010	000000001	00000101	00000000
10.1.6.0	00001010	000000001	00000110	00000000
10.1.7.0	00001010	000000001	00000111	00000000
10.1.8.0	00001010	000000001	00001000	00000000
10.1.9.0	00001010	000000001	00001001	00000000
10.1.10.0	00001010	000000001	00001010	00000000
10.1.11.0	00001010	000000001	00001011	00000000
10.1.12.0	00001010	000000001	00001100	00000000
10.1.13.0	00001010	000000001	00001101	00000000
10.1.14.0	00001010	000000001	00001110	00000000
10.1.15.0	00001010	000000001	00001111	00000000

Figure 4-5 IP address summarization

What we want to do is to find a single destination we can advertise from intermediate system A that will represent all of the destinations covered by these 16 advertisements. The most straightforward way of finding the single prefix is to figure out the lowest and highest addresses represented by the range of addresses we would like to replace, and then try to find one prefix that will represent all of those addresses by itself. In this example, we would begin with the address 10.1.0.0, since that is the lowest address in the range, and end with the highest address of

(continued)

10.1.15.255. Is there any prefix we can use to represent this entire address range? If we were to lay all of these addresses out in binary, we would find that the top 20 bits of every address remain the same throughout the entire address range.

So, we can use a single prefix with 20 bits set in its subnet mask to represent all of the addresses covered by the 16 individual prefixes, each with 24 bits set in their subnet masks. This 20-bit prefix is called a *summary*.

Summarization in IS-IS can only be configured at the intermediate system that is injecting the IP destinations or at a domain border. For instance, in Figure 4-4, the specific routes are static routes in intermediate system A, so it is the only node that could summarize the routes into a single advertisement. To configure a summary on a Cisco router in IS-IS, use the **summary-address** command within the **router isis** submode.

```
!  
router isis  
  summary-address 10.1.0.0 255.255.240.0  
  redistribute static metric 10 level-2  
  net 49.0001.1111.1111.1111.00  
!
```

Once these commands are configured on A, its routing table will show the 16 individual 24-bit prefixes plus the single 21-bit summary prefix.

```
router-a#show ip route  
....  
    10.0.0.0/8 is variably subnetted, 16 subnets, 2 masks  
S       10.1.11.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.11.1, Serial11  
S       10.1.10.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.10.1, Serial10  
S       10.1.9.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.9.1, Serial9
```

```

S      10.1.8.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.8.1, Serial8
S      10.1.14.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.14.1, Serial14
S      10.1.13.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.13.1, Serial13
S      10.1.12.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.12.1, Serial12
S      10.1.3.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.3.1, Serial3
S      10.1.2.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.2.1, Serial2
S      10.1.1.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.1.1, Serial1
i su 10.1.0.0/20 [115/0] via 0.0.0.0, Null0
S      10.1.0.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.10.1, Serial0
S      10.1.7.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.7.1, Serial7
S      10.1.6.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.6.1, Serial6
S      10.1.5.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.5.1, Serial5
S      10.1.4.0/24 [115/10] via 10.1.4.1, Serial4

```

Note the summary route indicated in bold type in the output above; IS-IS automatically injects the route into the routing table when the summary is configured on A. On intermediate system B, issuing the **show ip route** command shows only the summary route; none of the components are shown.

```

router-b#show ip route
.... 10.0.0.0/20 is subnetted, 1 subnets
i L2  10.1.0.0 [115/20] via 208.0.2.5, Serial0/3

```

The summary route A is advertising to intermediate system B looks like any other L2 route B is receiving.

IP Summaries and Routing Black Holes

One issue to be careful of when summarizing destinations in a network with redundant level 1 and level 2 connections is routing black holes. Figure 4-6 illustrates a situation where a routing black hole can occur.

This network design appears to be perfectly reasonable when it's initially deployed, with redundancy provided for destinations within the 192.168.50.0/24 network. However, when the link

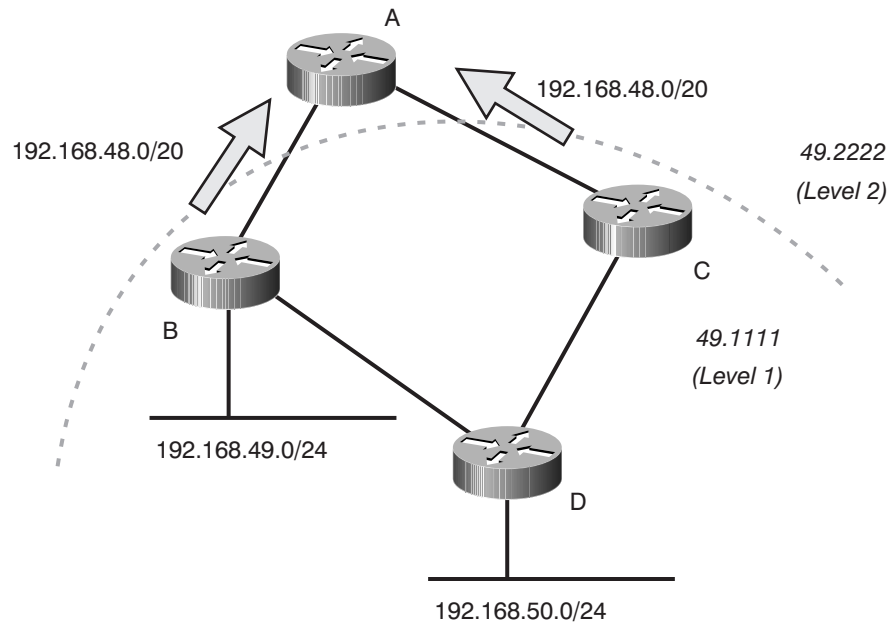


Figure 4-6 A routing black hole in the making

between B and D fails, the network administrators suddenly discover that 192.168.50.0/24 is no longer reachable. Why? Since both intermediate systems B and C are advertising the same route to A, A must choose between the two routes when calculating the best paths through the network. In this case, we will assume A chooses the path through the level 1/level 2 border B for all traffic destined to 192.168.48.0/20, which includes all the destinations on the 192.168.50.0/24 network. When the link between intermediate systems B and D fails, there is no reason for B to stop advertising the 192.169.48.0/20 IP summary, since it still has at least one component in the summary, 192.168.49.0/24, which is directly attached. In fact, neither B nor C will advertise any changes in this summary at all.

Router A will continue routing all traffic for any destination within 192.168.48.0/20 through intermediate system B, and B

will drop the traffic destined to 192.168.50.0/24, since it no longer has a route to that destination network. This result is a very common problem in network designs with redundant connections between L1 and L2 domains.

How can you resolve this problem? One option is to simply not have redundant paths between L1 and L2 domains. This is not a very good solution, because it results in single points of failure. Another option is to simply not summarize between L1 and L2. Again, this is not a very good option either, since it will likely limit the scaling of your network over the long haul.

Yet another option is to provide an alternate link between the redundant connecting intermediate systems between the domains, as illustrated in Figure 4-7.

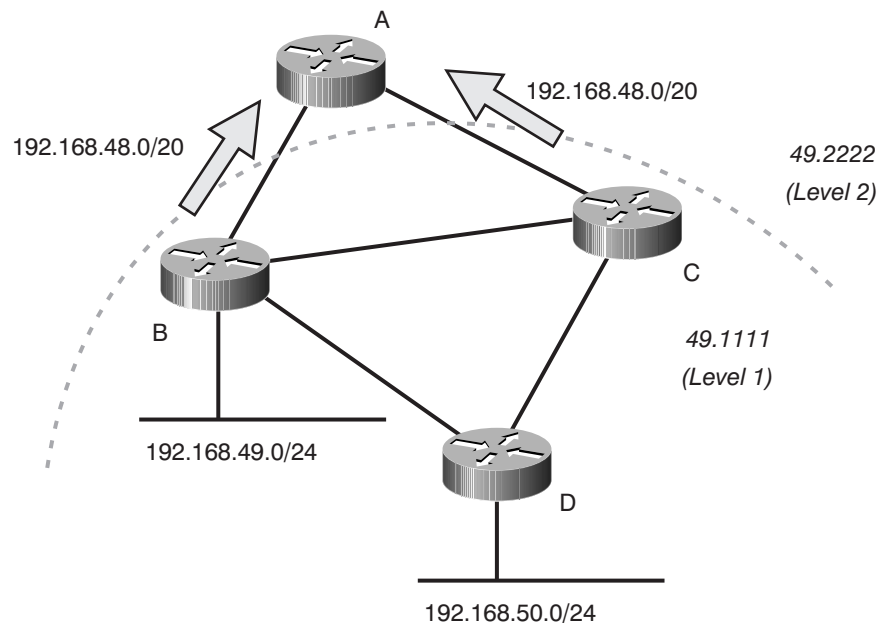


Figure 4-7 Resolving the routing black hole

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This solution provides intermediate system B with an alternate link to reach the 192.168.50.0/24 network should the link between B and D fail. Links of this type must be used with some caution, however, and their capacity must be carefully planned. Assuming that the link between B and C will only carry one remote site's worth of traffic probably is not a good idea. If there are, say, 200 remote sites dual-homed between Routers B and C, a single massive failure could redirect all of the traffic to and from these sites across this single link. Careful network traffic flow and capacity planning are required to make this solution work well.

Some IS-IS implementations offer still another solution: automatic deaggregation. The details of the operation might be rather involved in some cases. Both intermediate systems B and C are part of the same level 1 and level 2 domains. Before any failure, intermediate system B might notice that another node (C in this example) is advertising the same summary through the level 2 domain. At the same time, intermediate system B can verify that C is reachable through the level 1 domain when it runs SPF for the domain and C's LSP is part of the resulting tree. If the second condition changes (C is not reachable anymore through the level 1 domain), but the first one is maintained, then B can deaggregate the summary and advertise the more specific routes. Of course, C would follow a similar process and it would also advertise the specific routes it can reach. The result is that intermediate system A (and all the other nodes in the level 2 domain) now have specific knowledge of which prefixes are reachable through which entry into the level 1 domain. Once the partition is resolved, both intermediate systems will continue advertising just the summary.

Timer Tuning

Within the IS-IS protocol, there are many timers which may be configured or set to defaults, including the flooding timers, the

hello interval, the hold interval (or multiplier), shortest path first interval, and the link state packet generation interval. When you are designing a network with a particular goal in mind, such as minimum control traffic or very fast convergence times, it is sometimes advantageous to change these timers to better fit the network.

Routing protocols are deployed in many different situations that can be radically different from the circumstances their designers anticipated. Because of that, many of the default timers decided on when routing protocols were first designed can (and should) be reviewed against what the goals of any given intermediate system are for possible changes that might improve network performance.

IS-IS Flooding Timers

By default, IS-IS intermediate systems reflood the LSPs they created (self-originated LSPs) on a regular basis—about every 20 minutes. What is the purpose of this flooding? To guard against corrupted LSPs.

But isn't reflooding about every 20 minutes a little excessive? What are the odds that a mistake in the database, through packet corruption or other means, is going to surface in an IS-IS network? At one time, the odds were believed to be reasonably high, which is why the timers are set for such a relatively short interval.

With network infrastructure improving all the time, however, the chances of a packet being corrupted as it transits the network, or bad information getting into and staying in the LSP database on any one intermediate system for a long period of time, seems unlikely. This reliability, together with recent efforts at optimizing the use of network bandwidth (which typically means reducing the ratio of control to user traffic passed across a network), has resulted in some investigation into how the

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flooding of information through an IS-IS domain can be reduced.

Thus, one timer that can be considered for adjustment is the IS-IS reflooding interval. To configure the flooding interval in the Cisco IOS Software, use the **router isis** submode command **lsp-refresh-interval**:

```
router(config-router)#lsp-refresh-interval ?  
  <1-65535> LSP refresh time in seconds
```

When configuring the LSP refresh interval, you should remember to set the **max-lsp-lifetime** value, also within the **router isis** submode, to something a bit longer than the **lsp-refresh-interval** value.

```
router(config-router)#max-lsp-lifetime ?  
  <1-65535> Maximum LSP lifetime in seconds
```

A higher **max-lsp-lifetime** setting causes the intermediate system to generate LSP's that have a longer lifetime, which means that the LSPs will be considered valid longer by other intermediate systems in the network. Setting **lsp-refresh-interval** to a high value without changing the **max-lsp-lifetime** setting might cause other intermediate systems to time out the LSPs received before they have received a replacement (refreshed) LSP.

Many large-scale IS-IS networks are using the maximum time possible as their refresh rate—about 18.7 hours. Using this large a timer for the refresh **max-lsp-lifetime** value can significantly cut the amount of traffic that IS-IS generates on a very large network.

These two timers do not need to be set the same on all the intermediate systems in the network; each intermediate system can have different **lsp-refresh-interval** and **max-lsp-lifetime** values. If you decide to change the value in your network, make sure that **max-lsp-lifetime** is set to a number larger than the **lsp-refresh-interval**.

Hello and Hold Intervals

In the early days of the Internet, when IS-IS and the other routing protocols were first designed and deployed, many of the links in the Internet (and other networks) were slow links that frequently had high error rates on them. Furthermore, much of the traffic carried across networks was not anywhere close to real time in nature—that is, it didn't matter much if there was a delay of nine or ten seconds in delivering a given packet, or if it had to be retransmitted several times before it was finally delivered.

In this environment, when deciding how often intermediate systems would send hellos to each other (and how long they would wait since receiving a hello from a neighbor before timing out and assuming the neighbor had failed), slightly longer intervals of time seemed more appropriate than shorter intervals of time. Who cared if it took nine seconds for an IS-IS intermediate system to discover that its peers were down, and it needed to reroute traffic?

Today's networks are generally designed assuming much higher speeds and more reliable links, and today's traffic is much less tolerant of a nine-second delay in rerouting traffic. Therefore, it seems that these timers should be reconsidered, and possibly shortened. In fact, on most links over T1 speed (1.544Mb/s), there doesn't seem to be much of a reason not to set these timers to a much lower number than their default values, which are three seconds for the hello interval, and nine seconds for the hold interval.

In the Cisco IOS Software, to set the hello interval, use the **isis hello-interval** command in the **interface** submode.

```
router(config-if)#isis hello-interval ?  
  <1-65535> Hello interval value  
  minimal    Holdtime 1 second, interval depends on multiplier
```

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As the help string states for **isis hello-interval**, the hold interval depends on the hello multiplier, which is set using the **isis hello-multiplier** command under the **interface** submenu.

```
router(config-if)#isis hello-multiplier ?  
  <3-1000> Hello multiplier value
```

The hello interval is multiplied by the hello multiplier to determine the hold interval. Therefore, if the hello interval is two seconds, and the hello multiplier is four, the hold interval will be eight seconds. The Hello and Hold intervals do not need to match on all interfaces or with the settings of the neighbors, as each Hello packet carries its own timer.

Very Fast Hellos

While running very fast hellos with low hold intervals may seem like a very good solution for producing quick convergence times on first examination, further scrutiny indicates that this approach is not necessarily practical or scalable. First, fast hellos will most likely not improve the detection of neighbors which are no longer responding on point-to-point links, since the operating system running on most intermediate systems will notify IS-IS immediately of the loss of line protocol on point-to-point links.

For broadcast networks, the problem of scalability can come into play very quickly. For instance, if you have 101 intermediate systems attached to a single broadcast network, and each of them is expecting to receive a hello from every other intermediate system on the network every second, each intermediate system must be able to receive and process a hello every ten milliseconds. The same problem exists on the transmit side—an intermediate system attached to 100 networks, each with a hello timer of 330 milliseconds, must be able to transmit a hello packet every

three milliseconds or so. Due to limitations within the timers and other architectural issues beyond the scope of this book, these numbers are unrealistic.

An alternate mechanism, which uses protocol independent signaling at layer 2, has been developed and is supported in some implementations. This new mechanism allows for the subsecond detection of link failures in shared multi-access media while avoiding the scalability concerns mentioned above.

Shortest Path First Interval

It does not make a lot of sense, on first consideration, that a routing protocol would want to hold information for some time before processing it—and, in fact, no distance vector protocol, such as the routing information protocol (RIP) or the Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (EIGRP), ever holds routing information for any length of time before processing it. Why would IS-IS hold routing information before processing it, then? There are two reasons, one dealing with the flooding process, and the other dealing with the shortest path first algorithm.

First, let's deal with why holding onto SPF computations after receiving a link state packet is desirable for flooding. Link state protocols, generally, would prefer to flood information to all the intermediate systems in the network, and then let all of them compute their shortest paths through the network at the same time. This approach is not as reasonable as it sounds, since it would require some sort of synchronized timer running through the network, so IS-IS does the next best thing—it tries to make the SPF computation always run after any new information is flooded to the other neighbors of this intermediate system.

Why? Most implementations of routing protocols run on single processor devices; thus, the IS can only do one thing at a time. If

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the processor is busy running the shortest path first computation on some new data, it cannot also be flooding that new information to its neighbors. If an intermediate system always ran SPF across new information before flooding it, the propagation of information through the network would slow down dramatically; each IS would hold the information until it had finished running SPF. Thus, it is more efficient (in network terms) for an intermediate system to flood any link state information *before* it begins running SPF over the data. In this way, its neighbors can flood the same information and then begin running SPF in parallel.

The second reason most intermediate systems wait for some time after receiving a link state packet before running shortest path first is to reduce the overall load on the processor and memory. For instance, if a single link flaps, two intermediate systems will flood new network topology information—the two intermediate systems attached to either side of the link. So, assume an intermediate system runs SPF immediately upon receiving the changed information generated by the IS attached to one end of a link. While it is running SPF, it receives the second link state packet. It cannot stop running the SPF to take the second piece of information into account, nor can it insert the new information into the database SPF is currently being run over. Instead, it must wait until the current shortest path first computation is finished, flood the new information, and run SPF again. Intermediate systems batch information (or *SPF runs*) by delaying the SPF run for a period of time after receiving new link state packets.

There are actually three shortest path first interval timers in some implementations, rather than just one. In the Cisco IOS Software, the **spf-interval** command is used in the **router** submode.

```
router(config-router)#spf-interval ?  
  <1-120> Minimum interval between consecutive SPF's in seconds  
  
router(config-router)#spf-interval 1 ?
```

```
<1-10000> Initial wait before first SPF in milliseconds
router(config-router)#spf-interval 1 40 ?
<1-10000> Minimum wait between first and second SPF in milliseconds
<cr>
```

The first interval is the minimum time that should elapse between consecutive shortest path first computations. It is generally set in seconds, with the shortest interval being one second. Even though we call this time the minimum, it really represents the maximum time between SPF runs; this concept will be clearer a little later.

The second timer is the number of milliseconds between the receipt of new link state information and running SPF. While it can be set as low as one millisecond, really low settings may cause the intermediate system to run SPF before flooding new information. It's better to set it to a larger number that allows for the flooding to occur; you might want to start with something as high as 200 milliseconds and reduce it incrementally until you find the network converging slower. Generally, it should be set no lower than 40 or 50 milliseconds.

Finally, there is the minimum wait time between the first and subsequent SPF calculations, which is set in milliseconds. This timer addresses, in another way, the issue raised above—receiving new data while still running SPF. Generally, it is best to set this timer to the average (or maximum) length of a shortest path first computation in the network. In an intermediate system using Cisco IOS Software, this information can be obtained from the **show isis spf-log** command.

❖ **Note:** In the Cisco IOS Software implementation of IS-IS, the timers shown for the **spf-interval** command (and other commands in this section) interact to create a backoff algorithm, such that the interval between any two successive

operations will increase until a maximum is reached. After some time, the interval will be reset to the minimum configured. To make this concept clearer, let's use the following configuration command: **spf-interval 2 40 100**.

As explained above, the intermediate system will wait 40 milliseconds after an LSP is received before running SPF. If a second SPF run is needed, then the wait will be 100 ms (the third timer). If a third SPF run is needed, then the wait will be 200 ms (or two times the third timer). For subsequent SPF runs, the wait will keep increasing (twice the last wait) to 400 ms, 800 ms, 1,600 ms, and so on, until the limit set by the first option (or argument) included with the command: 2,000 ms. The wait timer will be reset to the original minimum value (40 ms, in this case) when no more triggers are present for two times the maximum value (four seconds, in this case).

It is easily observed that the effect of this algorithm is to react quickly to a change, but to slow down if the network is showing instability (changing too fast).

The partial route calculation (PRC) timers are similar in purpose, and should be set using the same sorts of parameters as the SPF timers above. The only difference might be in the setting of the maximum wait between the first and subsequent PRC runs. In this case, the timer can be set to a smaller number because the PRC involves only the calculation of the leaf routes of a particular LSP, so it takes a lot less time to execute. In the Cisco IOS Software, the **prc-interval** command is used in the IS-IS **router configuration** submode.

```
router(config-router)#prc-interval ?  
  <1-120> Minimum PRC interval in seconds  
  
router(config-router)#prc-interval 1 ?  
  <1-10000> Initial wait for PRC in milliseconds
```



```
<cr>
router(config-router)#prc-interval 1 40 ?
<1-10000> Minimum wait between first and second PRC in milliseconds
<cr>
```

Link State Packet Generation

Most implementations of IS-IS allow you to determine how long after a network topology change occurs the intermediate system should wait before building and flooding a link state packet. This wait is to prevent a constantly flapping link (or some other network situation which would normally generate constant updates) from causing an intermediate system to send a massive number of link state packets through the network. In Cisco IOS Software, the **lsp-gen-interval** command is used in the IS-IS **router configuration** submode.

```
router(config-router)#lsp-gen-interval ?
<1-120> Minimum interval in seconds
```

```
router(config-router)#lsp-gen-interval 1 ?
<1-10000> Initial wait in milliseconds
<cr>
```

```
router(config-router)#lsp-gen-interval 1 1 ?
<1-10000> Wait between first and second lsp generation in milliseconds
<cr>
```

There are, as with the SPF timers above, three timers: one for the minimum interval between generated link state packets, one for the minimum time between the first event and the first link state packet being generated, and one for the minimum interval between the first link state packet flooded in a series and subsequent LSPs. You would generally set these timers so the first change will immediately cause a link state packet to be generated and flooded, while link state packets generated for an immediate event are delayed a short time. The reason for these

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settings is that LSPs are generated, most often, when a change in the state of a link (up to down or down to up) occurs. By setting the first and third timers to the same value and the initial wait to a low number, no penalty is given to “good” or “bad” news in the network; both are treated equally.

Link State Packet Interval

Beyond the speed at which an intermediate system will generate link state packets in response to topology change events, IS-IS also limits the number of packets per second an intermediate system can transmit. The default value is one packet every 33 milliseconds, which allows about 360K of data to be flooded in any second (given the intermediate system is flooding maximum-sized packets on 1,500 byte links). With higher speed links, this is a rather conservative amount of information flow; in fact, pacing packets at this rate can slow down network convergence.

To configure the interval between packets (packet pacing) on an intermediate system running Cisco IOS Software, use the **interface** submode command **isis lsp-interval**.

Multiple Net Statements

Given the network illustrated in Figure 4-8, what would be the result of configuring multiple **net** commands in the **router isis** submode of router B with the Cisco IOS Software?

The problem here is that intermediate systems A and C are in different domains. How will intermediate system B treat these two different domains if we enter two **net** statements in the **router isis** submode? On B, we would have:

```
!  
router isis  
  net 49.2222.1111.1111.1112.00
```

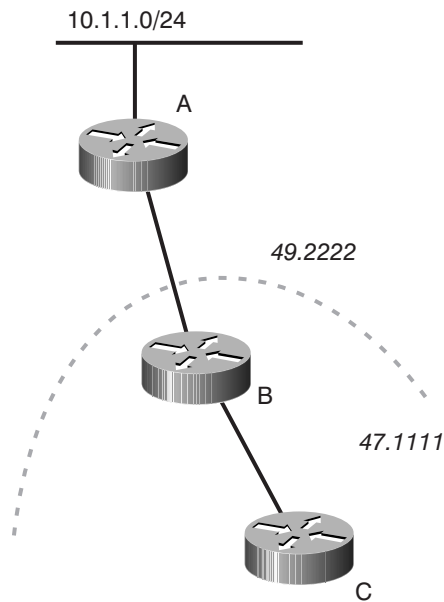


Figure 4–8 Multiple net statements in the Cisco IOS Software

```
net 47.1111.1111.1111.1112.00
!
```

Would intermediate system C learn about the 10.1.1.0/24 network? Let's look at C's routing table to find out.

```
router-c#show ip route
....
10.0.0.0/20 is subnetted, 1 subnets
i L2 10.1.0.0 [115/30] via 208.0.2.9, Serial0/3
```

It looks like it does. Intermediate system B shows both intermediate systems A and C as neighbors.

```
router-b#sho clns neighbor
```

System Id	Interface	SNPA	State	Holdtime	Type	Protocol
router-a	Se0/2	*HDLC*	Up	29	L2	IS-IS
router-c	Se0/3	*HDLC*	Up	21	L1L2	IS-IS

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In fact, the only odd thing we see is in the **show isis database detail** command.

```
router-c#show isis database detail
```

```
IS-IS Level-1 Link State Database:
LSPID          LSP Seq Num  LSP Checksum  LSP Holdtime
router-c.00-00 0x000000B2   0x210B        710
  Area Address: 47.1111
  Hostname: router-c
  Metric: 10      IS router-b.00
router-b.00-00 0x000000B6   0xC573        824
  Area Address: 49.2222
  Area Address: 47.1111
  Hostname: router-b
  Metric: 10      IS router-c.00
....
```

Intermediate system C's database appears normal—it shows a single connection to intermediate system B in domain 47.1111. However, B's LSP has two domains in it, since B has two domains configured. Intermediate system B essentially merges the two databases into one database, and treats the domain border as a level 1/level 2 domain border.

This mechanism is primarily defined for use while switching from one domain address to another; it's not designed to provide any advantages or a more conventional configuration, nor for long-term use in a large-scale network. There is no advantage to dividing a network into multiple domains and using multiple **net** statements on the connecting intermediate system to merge them.

A Case Study in Deploying IS-IS

Now that we've looked at the IS-IS protocol in detail and discussed some deployment options and questions, let's work through deploying IS-IS on a network to put some of this knowledge into use. The network we will implement IS-IS on is illustrated in Figure 4-9.

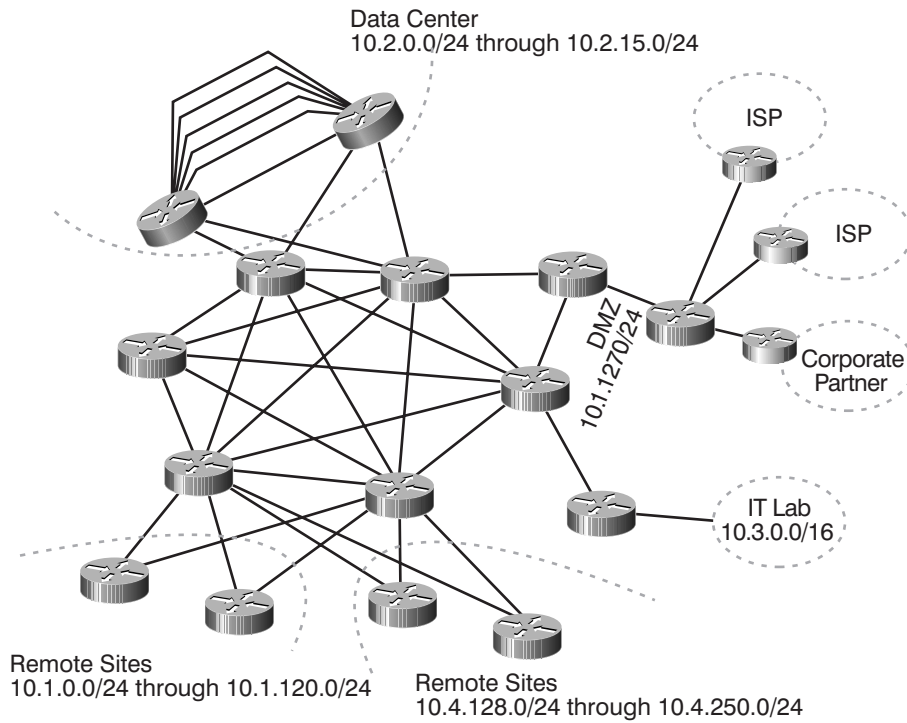


Figure 4-9 Network for IS-IS implementation case study

While this is a simple network in many respects—for instance, it's a two-layer design rather than a three-layer design—it will provide some interesting areas of consideration for implementing IS-IS. We'll first consider some fundamental questions, such as whether or not to divide the network into domains, and then we'll focus on each area of the network, and consider the design and problems we might face in each one.

To Divide or Not to Divide

The first question we need to answer when looking at implementing IS-IS on this network is whether to divide it into domains or leave it as one large area. Since this is a

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moderate-sized network (it is about 300 routers), it could easily be placed in a single routing domain. If we decided to place it in a single domain, would we place it in a single L2 domain or a single L1 domain? Our choice would be to place it in a single L2 domain, for the reasons we described in “Putting the Network in One Routing Domain,” earlier in this chapter.

However, there are a number of good reasons to break this network into separate level 1 and level 2 domains. For instance, the IT lab probably wants to be separated from the network in some way, so any experiments going on there have minimal (or no) impact on the rest of the network. At the same time, the IT lab would like to receive full routing information from the network, so this information can be recorded and fed into the test networks for various purposes (rather than relying entirely on network topology generators).

The most compelling reason to break the network into areas is, of course, so we can discuss the process of breaking the network into areas and describe how to handle the various issues that arise when doing so. Let's begin by determining that we should break the network into separate level 1 and level 2 routing domains.

Dividing the Network

Once we've decided to divide the network, where should the dividing lines be? Looking at Figure 4-9, there appear to be several areas of the network which naturally fall into domains.

- The remote sites could fall into a single L1 domain, or two L1 domains.
- The data center could be placed within an L1 domain.
- The IT lab could be placed in its own L1 routing domain.

- The DMZ and connection to the Internet and the corporate partner could be placed in a separate L1 domain.
- The remainder of the intermediate systems, the core of the network, could be placed in an L2 routing domain.

❖ **Note:** The term *DMZ*, or *Demilitarized Zone*, comes from the common practice of having an area between two countries which is demilitarized, or that no arms are allowed into, with checkpoints and other safeguards between the DMZ and the country proper. In networking, the DMZ is the area between an untrusted network and the internal (trusted) network where security is implemented, or where servers and other devices are located without compromising the integrity of the trusted (internal) network.

With this set of domains as our background, let's look at each section of the network and determine what design challenges we are going to face in each one.

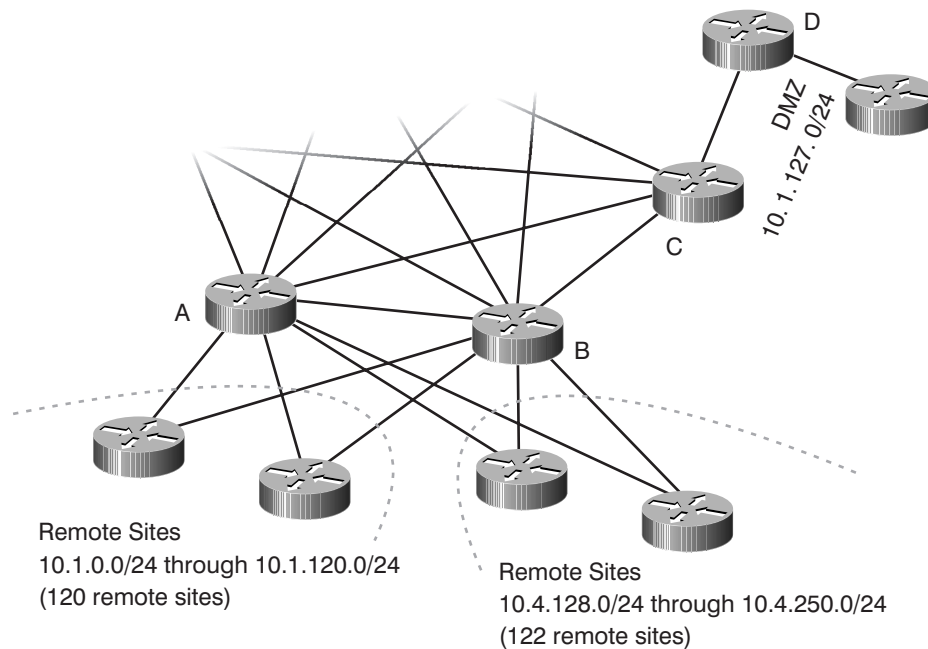
Remote Sites

We'll begin our tour of the network by examining several issues in handling the remote sites, beginning with IP address summarization.

Remote Site Summarization

Figure 4-10 illustrates just the remote sites with their connections to the network core for reference.

These two sets of remote sites fall within two natural IP address ranges, 10.1.0.0 through 10.1.120.0 and 10.4.128.0 through

**Figure 4-10** Remote sites

10.4.250.0. Since we are concerned with the ability to summarize IP address spaces, and summarization is possible only at an L1/L2 border, the best place to put this border is going to be at intermediate systems A and B in Figure 4-10, where the remote sites converge. One of the tasks entails configuring the links towards the remote site routers as level 1-only links, and configuring the links towards the remainder of the core as level 2-only links.

IP summaries of 10.1.0.0/17 and 10.4.128.0/17 seem to be the most natural summaries intermediate systems A and B could advertise: they would cover 10.1.0.0/24 through 10.1.127.0/24 and 10.4.128.0/24 through 10.4.255.0/24. There is an obvious problem with the lower of these two summaries, 10.1.0.0/17, since 10.1.127.0/24 is being used as the DMZ connecting this

network to external networks. Does the overlap mean that we can't summarize this address range?

No—remember that routers always make a forwarding decision based on the longest prefix match, which means a router switching a packet which could be switched based on two different learned paths will use the more specific one. Assume we go ahead and summarize at intermediate systems A and B, using the summaries indicated above. Intermediate system C would then receive the following paths:

- 10.4.128.0/17, reachable through intermediate systems A and B
- 10.1.0.0/17, reachable through intermediate systems A and B
- 10.1.127.0/24, reachable through intermediate system D.

If intermediate system C receives a packet destined to 10.1.1.1, for instance, it would switch it along the path available to 10.1.0.0/17, as this is the only match for the destination of the packet. If, however, intermediate system C receives a packet destined to 10.1.127.1, it will find that the packet's destination address matches both 10.1.0.0/17 and 10.1.127.0/24. Because 10.1.127.0/24 has a longer prefix length (is more specific), C will route the packet along that path towards that destination.

The next issues we must consider when summarizing two points in the network are routing black holes and suboptimal routing on link failure. Suppose that we've configured the 10.1.0.0/17 summary on both intermediate systems A and B, and we then lose the link between A and some remote site, say 10.1.0.0/24, as illustrated in Figure 4-11.

Even though this link fails, intermediate systems A and B will still be advertising the 10.1.0.0/17 summary to C and the rest of

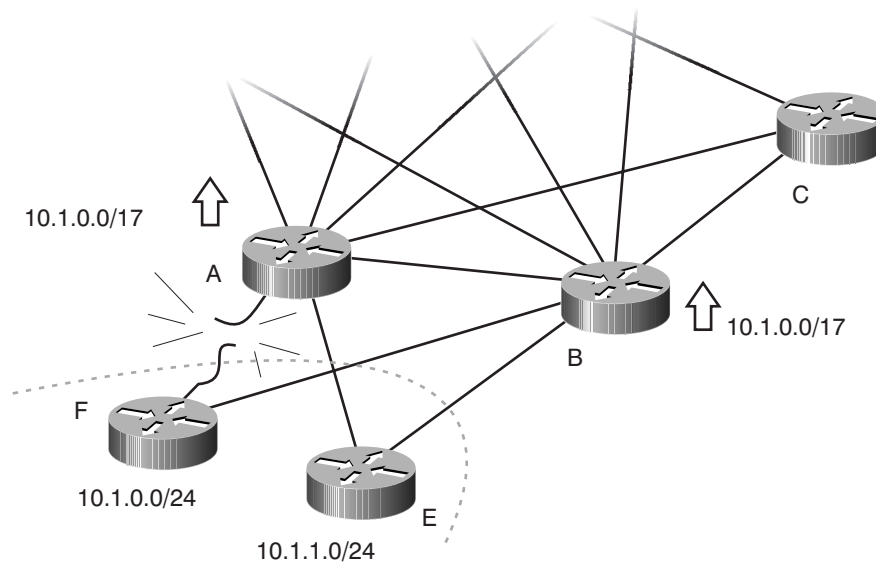


Figure 4-11 A routing black hole and suboptimal routing

the core. Suppose that C chooses the path through A instead of the path through B. If there is filtering of some type in place, A simply might not know about the path through E and will drop the packets (see the earlier section “Routing Black Holes”).

If A does know about this alternate path (which is generally the case in an IS-IS network), it will send the packets along to E, which will then forward the packets to B, which will then forward them to the intermediate system F. Of course, if these are truly remote sites, the links between these sites and the hubs will most likely not be sized to handle the traffic for two sites. For example, in this case the links between E and intermediate systems A and B will likely become overwhelmed and either fail or cause some traffic to be dropped.

The most common solution to routing black holes and suboptimal routing is to make certain that some other link, designed to

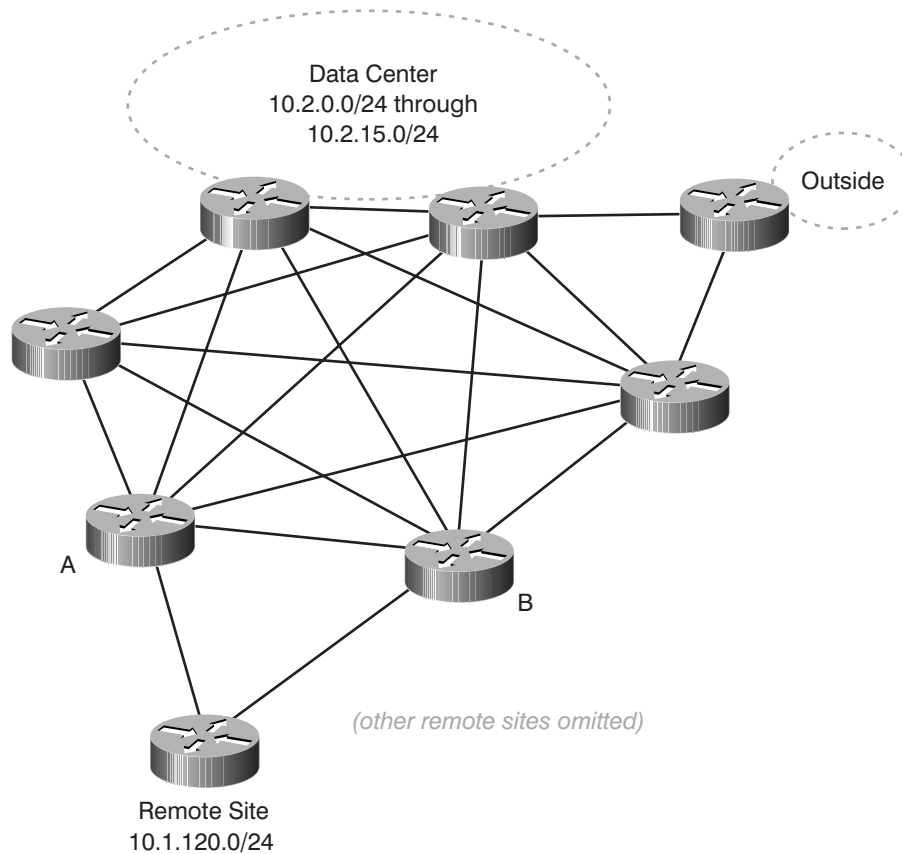
handle the traffic load, is available between intermediate systems A and B within the level 1 routing domain. Here the direct link between A and B should be placed in the level 1 routing domain, along with the remote sites. As a result, traffic received by A, and destined to the remote site, will traverse the link to B and then be routed to F.

Remote Site Optimal Routing

Finally, we need to consider suboptimal routing within the level 1 routing domain created for the remote sites. Figure 4-12 illustrates this scenario.

For clarity, only one remote site, 10.1.120.0/24, is shown in Figure 4-12. If intermediate systems A and B are setting their attached bits, each remote site IS will choose one of the two possible exit points, or it will decide to load share between the two exit points, depending on what the metrics of each link are within the routing domain. Let's assume the network administrator wants to direct the traffic towards the data center through intermediate system A.

We could accomplish the task with a number of techniques, including the use of static routes. However, we'd rather use something that relies entirely on the IS-IS protocol already deployed in the network and requires minimal configuration and maintenance. The most straightforward way to achieve the desired result is to leak the routes to the data center into the level 1 routing domain at intermediate system A, and not leak them at intermediate system B. The remote sites would now use the leaked routes to reach the data center, and the default routes, which result from the attached bit set on A and B, to reach all other destinations outside the level 1 domain.

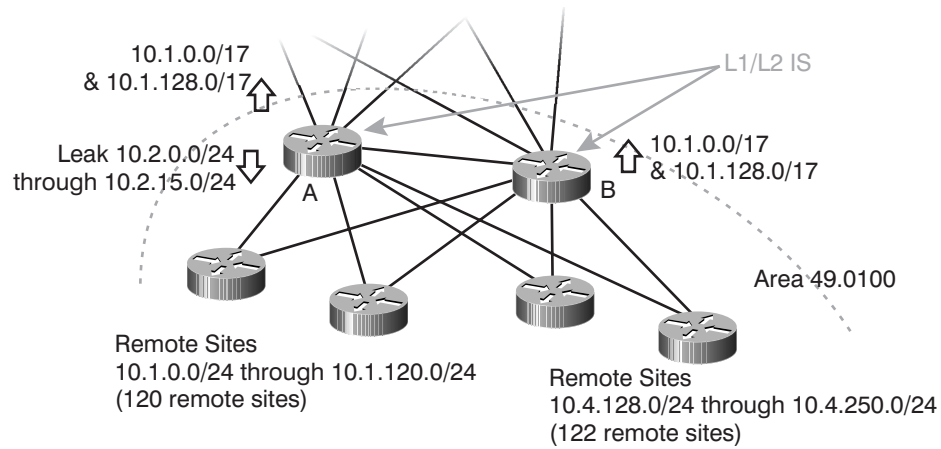
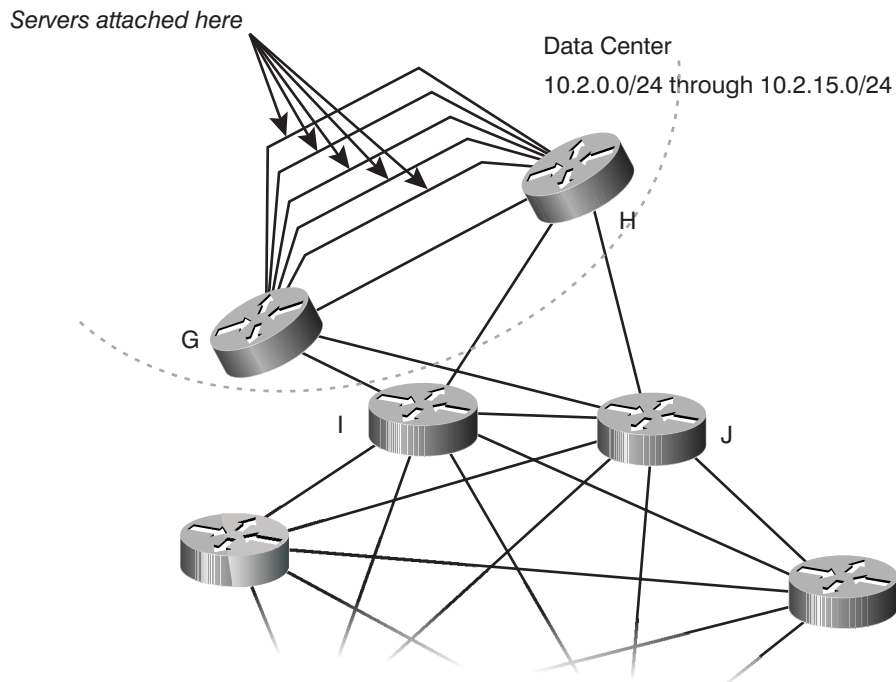
**Figure 4-12** Suboptimal routing within the remote sites level 1 domain

Remote Site Routing Domain

After considering each of the issues outlined in the section above, the best option for the remote site intermediate systems is to put them all in one domain, as illustrated in Figure 4-13.

The Data Center

Next, let's consider how to handle the data center—should it be a single level 1 routing domain? Figure 4-14 shows just this area of the network for closer examination.

**Figure 4-13** Remote site level 1 domain**Figure 4-14** The data center

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There are two primary considerations when we examine this small piece of the network. The first is those parallel links where all the servers are attached at the top, running between intermediate systems G and H. While it might not seem like a big deal, as the number of links increases, the number of duplicate LSPs flooded along these parallel links could become excessive. What can we do to cut down on the amount of flooding in this area of the network?

The first solution we want to explore is to mark the interfaces to which servers are connected as *passive interfaces*. This setting allows IS-IS to route to and from the server links, but not through them. Since these links probably were not sized with the idea of transiting traffic over them, the result is acceptable.

❖ **Note:** Marking an interface passive in the Cisco IOS Software instructs the routing protocol, in this case IS-IS, to include the interface in any reachability information it is transmitting to other intermediate systems, but not to run the protocol over the actual link connected to the interface. In practice, this means IS-IS will not transmit hello packets over an interface which is marked passive in the Cisco IOS Software.

Another option is to use a mesh group to prevent A and B from excessively flooding across these links. They will still route traffic across (through) each of these links, but they will not flood any information across them. For this network, we'll choose to configure all the server links as a mesh group, and only to forward information across the one direct link between these two intermediate systems with no servers attached. This last task is achieved by configuring a lower metric on that link.

Should we also worry about these links flooding into the rest of the network? No, because intermediate systems G and H will advertise only one link between them anyway. Intermediate

system G will recognize, from the information in the hello packets, that all of these parallel links are connected to H, so it will only include in its LSP one connection to H, rather than one for every link.

The second consideration for this area of the network is if part of it should be L1 only, or if this entire piece should be included in the L2 routing domain. The three primary options seem to be

- Making the entire set of intermediate systems, G, H, I and J, all part of the L2 routing domain.
- Making intermediate systems G and H a part of an L1 routing domain, while I and J are part of the L2 routing domain.
- Making all four intermediate systems, G, H, I and J, a part of an L1 routing domain.

Are there any major advantages or disadvantages to each of these approaches? In this case the decision comes down to at which point the summarization should occur. Since the data center appears to be a self-contained unit behind just two intermediate systems (G and H), we'll opt to place them in the L1 routing domain. We can then summarize the 10.2.0.0/24 through 10.2.15.0/24 routes into just one advertisement. In order to give the data center room to grow, we'll summarize 10.2.0.0/16 on intermediate systems G and H. Figure 4-15 illustrates the results of these decisions.

The first approach, placing all the intermediate systems in the level 2 domain, would prevent us from summarizing the information in the data center because it would be advertised towards the rest of the network. All four intermediate systems are not placed in the level 1 domain because the ideal summarization point is, in this situation, where the parallel links converge.

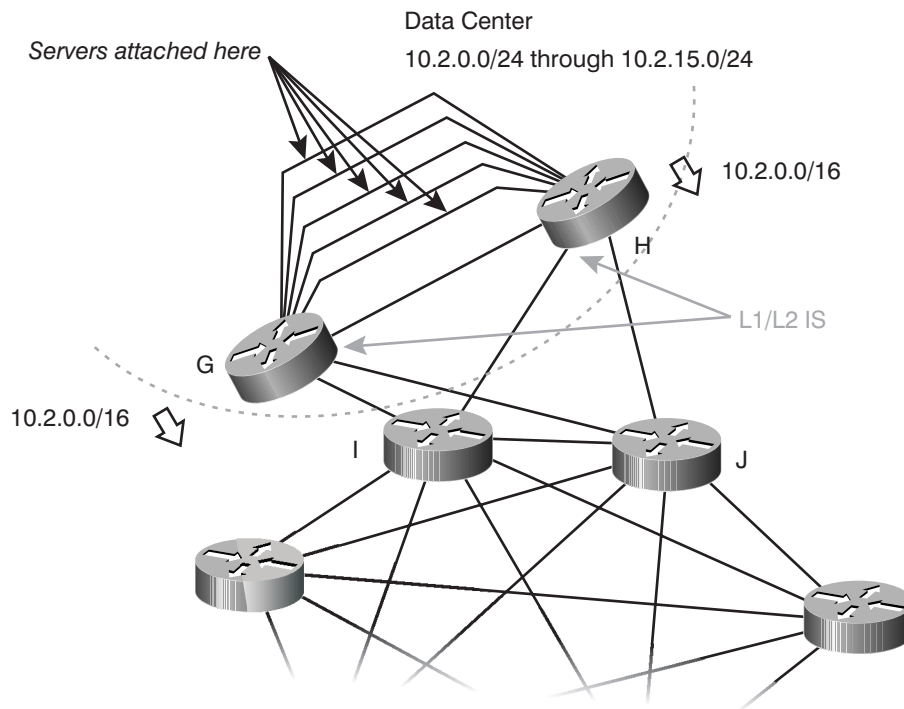


Figure 4-15 Summarization within the data center

Connections to the Outside

There are several connections to outside networks; Figure 4-16 illustrates this part of the network.

We've added a bit more detail in Figure 4-16 about the connections to outside networks, including routers that belong to the Internet Service Providers or partners and their routing protocol connections. Should this small group of intermediate systems be placed in their own level 1 routing domain?

At first glance, it looks like there will probably be a good number of destinations learned from these various outside connections. However, all those routes (potentially full Internet routing)

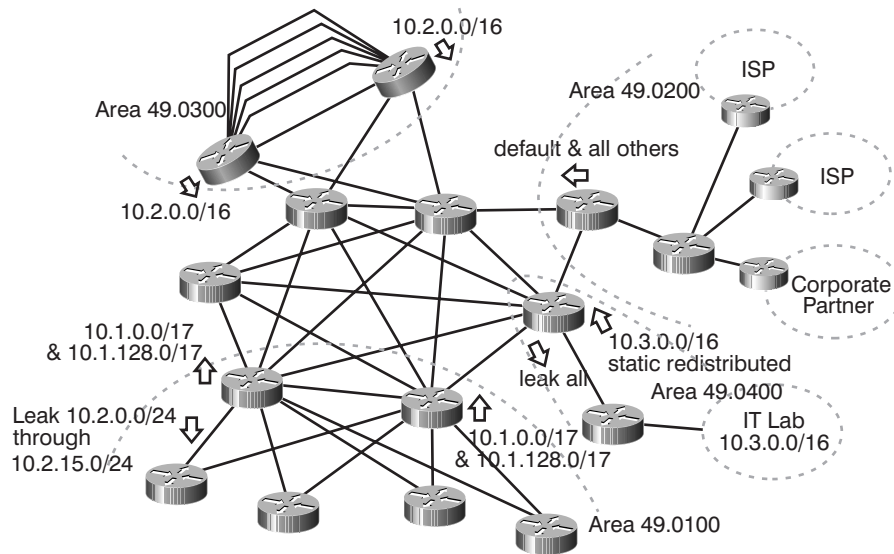


Figure 4-16 Connections to the outside of the network

are carried by BGP and are isolated only to the routers running that protocol. In any case, we still need to propagate, somehow, reachability information about the external prefixes to the rest of the network. To avoid overloading the IS-IS databases with that information, and because all the exits can be reached through intermediate system K, it is easier to just propagate a default route.

Where should the dividing point between this area and the level 2 routing domain within the core be? It could be either on intermediate systems D or K, or on intermediate systems C and J. The biggest advantage to including D in the level 1 routing domain, but not C or J, is that all the configuration required to block the external information within the level 1 area into the core of the network can be placed on a single intermediate system; we can also isolate the DMZ inside the level 1 domain.

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We'll follow this design—intermediate systems D and K in the level 1 routing domain, while C and J are not in it—for simplicity of configuration.

The primary information we want this area to provide to the level 2 routing domain is the default route, so that hosts and servers within the network can reach devices connected to the Internet and the corporate partner's network. We can do this using the ability to originate a 0.0.0.0/0 default route on a L1/L2 router into a level 2 routing domain.

There is also the issue of the DMZ itself, which is the 10.1.127.0/24 network. We summarized around this range when we were working on the design for the remote sites, so we need to be careful that we maintain reachability to this segment from the rest of the network. In this case, the reachability to the DMZ is maintained automatically through the advertisement of level 1 information to the level 2 domain by intermediate system D.

Finally, we need to consider the BGP connections, both internal and external. It might be good to use the IS-IS ability to set the overload bit while BGP is converging on the three border intermediate systems to avoid black holing traffic unnecessarily. Figure 4-17 illustrates the results of these design decisions.

Connecting to the Lab Network

Finally, let's consider how we should handle the connection of the lab to the production network. This small piece of the network is illustrated in Figure 4-18.

The primary issue when dealing with a network lab connected to a production network is to protect the production part of the network from mistakes and the constant changes propagating from the lab. To do this, it's best to isolate the lab network as

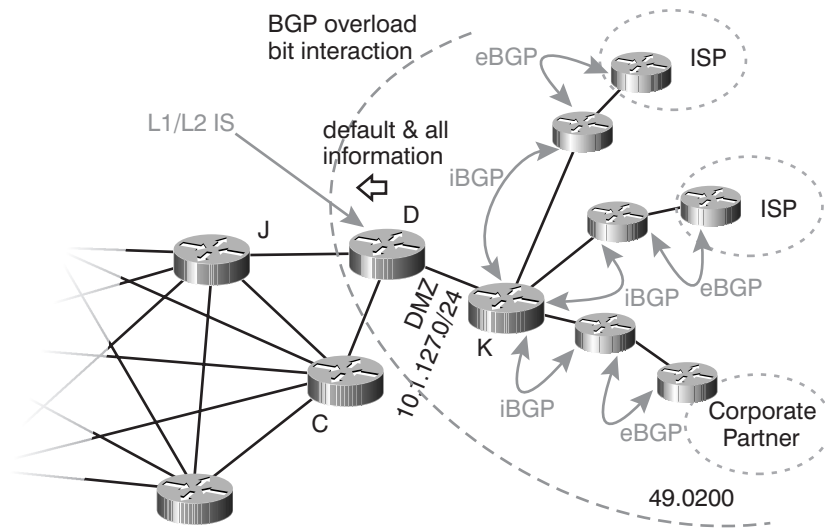


Figure 4-17 The design of the outside connections

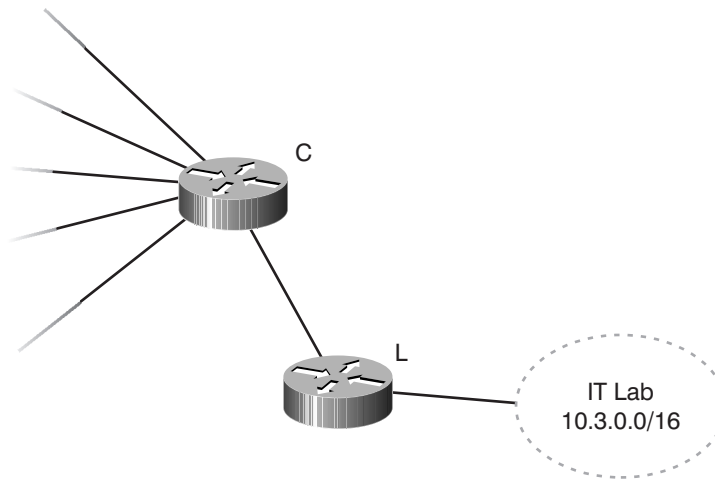


Figure 4-18 The IT lab

much as possible. Rather than summarizing at the connection point between the lab and the production network, we'll use a static route which is redistributed into IS-IS at the L1/L2 border.

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The redistribution will prevent any accidental inflows of information into the level 2 routing domain and isolate all routing changes from leaving the level 1 domain.

On the other hand, the IT lab is going to want access to the whole routing table information from the production network, so it can be used in testing and for monitoring. To do this, we need to configure the level 1/level 2 border with full route leaking, so the entire level 2 routing table is leaked into the lab network.

Where should the level 1/level 2 routing domain border be placed? The most logical place, at first glance, is on intermediate system L. However, giving the lab a little buffer intermediate system within the level 1 routing domain, where further filtering and access control can be placed, may not be a bad idea, so we'll place the level 1/level 2 border between intermediate system A and the remainder of the core.

Final Design

Figure 4-19 illustrates the final layout of the routing domains.

Sample Configurations

This section contains sample configurations for some of the intermediate systems in the case study. Only the L1/L2 router configurations are included, and only the relevant parts to the case study are shown.

```
hostname IS_A
!  
! Intermediate System A: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0100.  
! The routes from the Data Center are leaked through this node into the
```

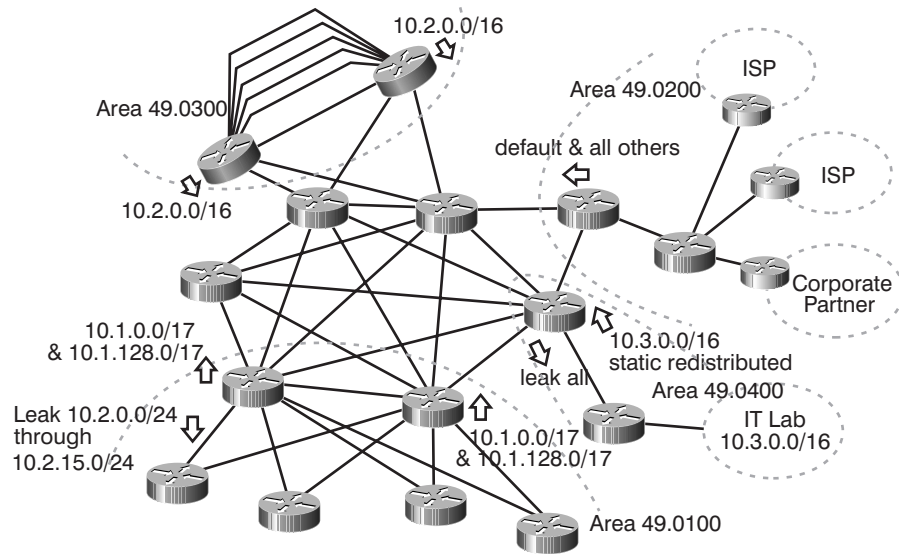


Figure 4-19 Routing domain and routing layout

! level 1 domain. The reachability information from the remote sites is
! summarized in two blocks.

!

```
interface POS1/0
description Template for interfaces facing the core.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-2-only
```

!

```
interface Serial3/1
description Template for interfaces facing the remotes.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-1
```

!

```
router isis
summary-address 10.1.0.0 255.255.128.0
summary-address 10.4.128.0 255.255.128.0
redistribute isis ip level-2 into level-1 distribute-list 101
net 49.0100.0000.0000.000a.00
metric-style wide
```

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```
log-adjacency-changes
!
! access-list that allows the leaking of only the Data Center routes.
!
access-list 101 permit ip 10.2.0.0 0.0.255.255 255.255.0.0 0.0.255.255
!

hostname IS_B
!
! Intermediate System B: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0100.
! The reachability information from the remote sites is summarized in
! two blocks.
!
interface POS1/0
description Template for interfaces facing the core.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-2-only
!
interface Serial3/1
description Template for interfaces facing the remotes.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-1
!
router isis
summary-address 10.1.0.0 255.255.128.0
summary-address 10.4.128.0 255.255.128.0
net 49.0100.0000.0000.000b.00
metric-style wide
log-adjacency-changes
!

hostname IS_C
!
! Intermediate System C: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0400.
! All routes are leaked into the level 1 domain, while all reachability
! information local to the domain is prevented from propagating into the
! core. Reachability to the IT Lab is maintained by redistributing a
! static route.
```

```
!  
interface POS1/0  
  description Template for interfaces facing the core.  
  ip router isis  
  isis circuit-type level-2-only  
!  
interface POS2/0  
  description Interface facing intermediate system L.  
  ip router isis  
  isis circuit-type level-1  
!  
! First off, the static route (10.3.0.0/16) is redistributed only into  
! level-2. All IP reachability is denied from propagating outside the  
! level 1 domain and all level 2 routes are leaked into level 1.  
!  
router isis  
  redistribute static ip level-2  
  redistribute isis ip level-1 into level-2 distribute-list 102  
  redistribute isis ip level-2 into level-1 distribute-list 103  
  net 49.0400.0000.0000.000c.00  
  metric-style wide  
  log-adjacency-changes  
!  
! The static route points to the Null0 interface because specific  
! information should be learned from intermediate system L. The route  
! prevents any type of instability from being propagated into the core.  
!  
ip route 10.3.0.0 255.255.0.0 Null0  
!  
! These access lists control the flow of information between level 1 and  
! level 2 (all denied by 102) and vice versa (all permitted by 103).  
!  
access-list 102 deny ip any any  
access-list 103 permit ip any any  
!  
  
hostname IS_D  
!
```

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```
! Intermediate System D: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0200. A
! default route is originated so that the whole network can reach the
! external destinations (ISPs and Corporate Partners).
!
interface FastEthernet0/0
  description DMZ
  ip address 10.1.127.1 255.255.255.0
  ip router isis
  isis circuit-type level-1
!
interface POS1/0
  description Template for interfaces facing the core.
  ip router isis
  isis circuit-type level-2-only
!
! The default-information originate command creates a default route into
! the level 2 domain; in this case, into the rest of the network.
!
router isis
  default-information originate
  net 49.0200.0000.0000.000d.00
  metric-style wide
  log-adjacency-changes
!
! IS_D is not running BGP, so it needs a default route itself to reach
! IS_K (10.1.127.2), which has full routing information.
!
ip route 0.0.0.0 0.0.0.0 10.1.127.2
!

hostname IS_G
!
! Intermediate System G: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0300.
! The Data Center routes are summarized and a mesh group is used to
! prevent excessive flooding.
!
interface FastEthernet0/0
  description Template for the server links.
```



```
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-1
isis mesh-group 1
!
interface POS1/0
description Template for interfaces facing the core.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-2-only
!
! The circuit type for the POS2/0 link is the default (level-1-2). The
! link is placed in the same mesh group as the other links to prevent
! excessive flooding. Only the level-1 metric needs to be lowered (it
! is 10 by default), as we only want to favor intra-domain traffic
! between the two intermediate systems.
!
interface POS2/0
description Link to IS_H with no servers, lower metric.
ip router isis
isis metric 5 level-1
isis mesh-group 1
!
router isis
summary-address 10.2.0.0 255.255.0.0
net 49.0300.0000.0000.0010.00
metric-style wide
log-adjacency-changes
!

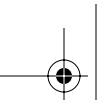
hostname IS_H
!
! Intermediate System H: L1/L2 intermediate system in domain 49.0300.
! The Data Center routes are summarized and a mesh group is used to
! prevent excessive flooding.
!
interface FastEthernet0/0
description Template for the server links.
ip router isis
isis circuit-type level-1
```

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```
isis mesh-group 1
!
interface POS1/0
  description Template for interfaces facing the core.
  ip router isis
  isis circuit-type level-2-only
!
! The circuit type for the POS2/0 link is the default (level-1-2). The
! link is placed in the same mesh group as the other links to prevent
! excessive flooding. Only the level-1 metric needs to be lowered (it
! is 10 by default), as we only want to favor intra-domain traffic
! between the two intermediate systems.
!
interface POS2/0
  description Link to IS_G with no servers, lower metric.
  ip router isis
  isis metric 5 level-1
  isis mesh-group 1
!
router isis
  summary-address 10.2.0.0 255.255.0.0
  net 49.0300.0000.0000.0011.00
  metric-style wide
  log-adjacency-changes
!
```

Review Questions

1. What layers is a network normally divided into in a three-layer design? A two-layer design?
2. Why does putting all of the intermediate systems in a single domain simplify the configuration of the devices in the network?



- 3.** How can you summarize IP addresses or hide information in a network consisting of a single large routing domain?
- 4.** Why should you consider the results of a domain partition when deciding how to build an IS-IS network with multiple domains?
- 5.** Why should you consider IP route summarization when dividing a network into multiple routing domains?
- 6.** What is the point of summarizing IP addresses?
- 7.** How does the setting of the different timers affect convergence in a network?

