Computer Networking Technologies

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(11th and 12th Weeks)

6. The Link Layer and LANs

• • •

Link layer and LANs: our goals

- understand principles behind link layer services:
 - error detection, correction
 - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
 - link layer addressing
 - local area networks:
 Ethernet, VLANs
- datacenter networks

 instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



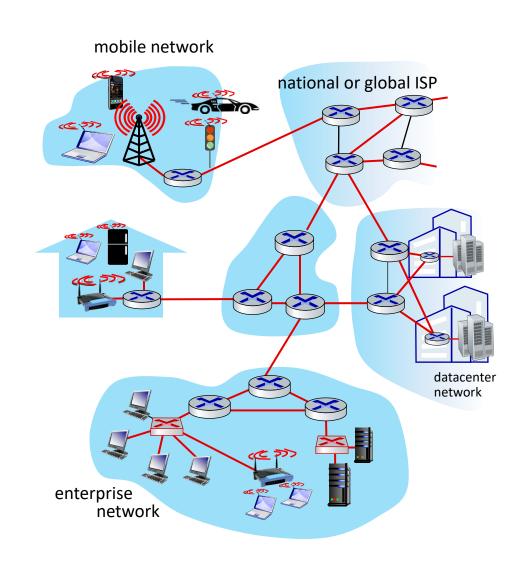
a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

- hosts and routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
 - wired
 - wireless
 - LANs
- layer-2 packet: frame, encapsulates datagram

link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to physically adjacent node over a link



Link layer: context

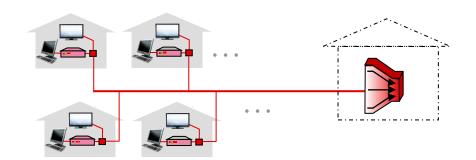
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
 - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
 - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link

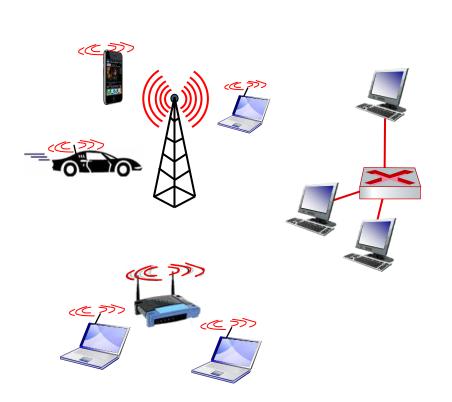
transportation analogy:

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
 - limo: Princeton to JFK
 - plane: JFK to Geneva
 - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link-layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

Link layer: services

- framing, link access:
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - channel access if shared medium
 - "MAC" addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
 - we already know how to do this!
 - seldom used on low bit-error links
 - wireless links: high error rates
 - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?





Link layer: services (more)

• flow control:

 pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

error detection:

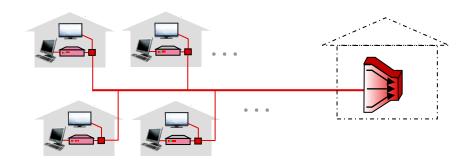
- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame

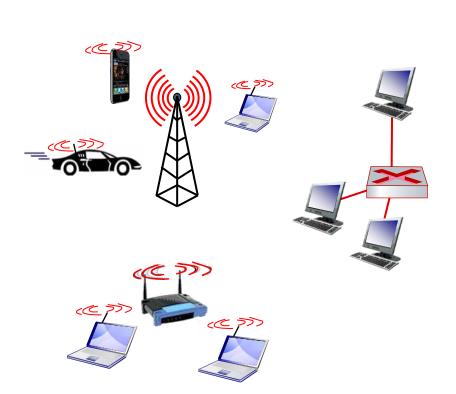
error correction:

receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without retransmission

half-duplex and full-duplex:

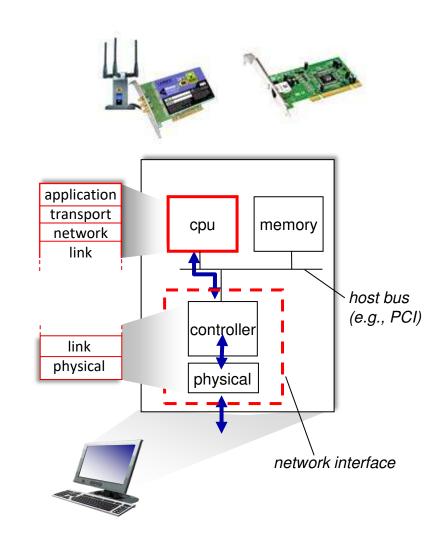
• with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time



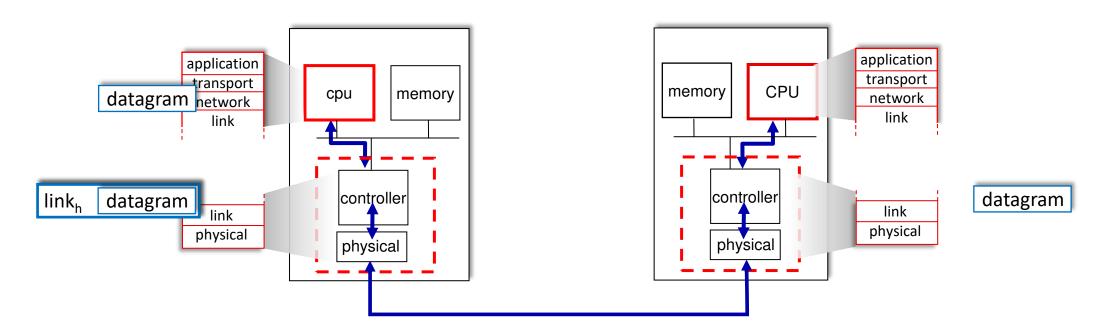


Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented in network interface card (NIC) or on a chip
 - Ethernet, WiFi card or chip
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Interfaces communicating



sending side:

- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.

receiving side:

- looks for errors, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

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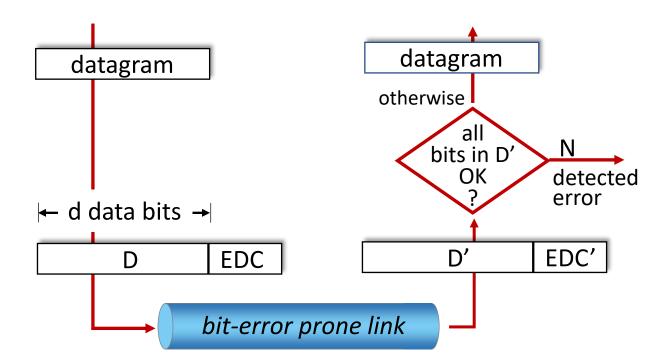


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Error detection

EDC: error detection and correction bits (e.g., redundancy)

D: data protected by error checking, may include header fields



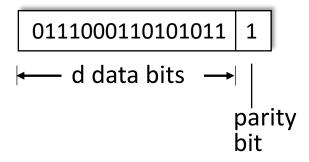
Error detection not 100% reliable!

- protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
- larger EDC field yields better detection and correction

Parity checking

single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



Even parity: set parity bit so there is an even number of 1's

two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors

detected and correctable single-bit error: 10101|1
10110|0 → parity error
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^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose ross/interactive/

Internet checksum (review)

Goal: detect errors (i.e., flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

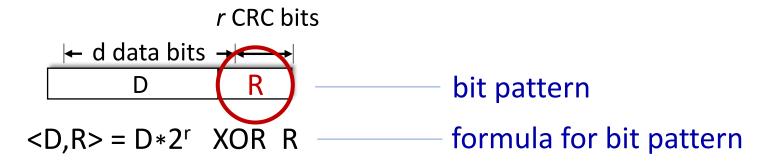
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - not equal error detected
 - equal no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless? More later

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- more powerful error-detection coding
- D: data bits (given, think of these as a binary number)
- G: bit pattern (generator), of *r+1* bits (given)



goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> exactly divisible by G (mod 2)

- receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
- can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

We want:

 $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$

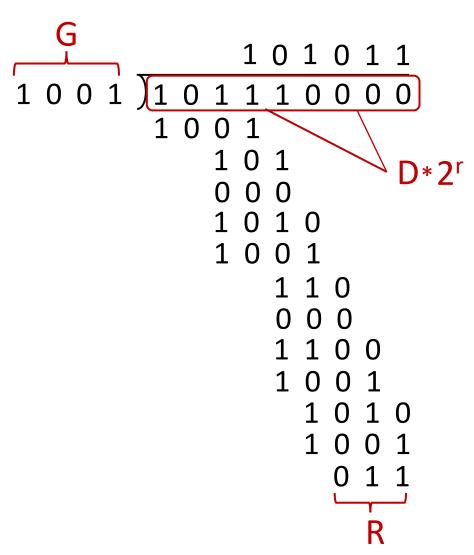
or equivalently:

 $D \cdot 2^r = nG XOR R$

or equivalently:

if we divide D.2^r by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

$$R = remainder \left[\frac{D \cdot 2^r}{G} \right]$$



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Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
 - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
 - old-fashioned Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G. satellite



shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: satellite



humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

Multiple access protocols

- single shared broadcast channel
- two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes: interference
 - collision if node receives two or more signals at the same time

multiple access protocol

- distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel,
 i.e., determine when node can transmit
- communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
 - no out-of-band channel for coordination

An ideal multiple access protocol

given: multiple access channel (MAC) of rate R bps desiderata:

- 1. when one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R.
- 2. when M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate R/M
- 3. fully decentralized:
 - no special node to coordinate transmissions
 - no synchronization of clocks, slots
- 4. simple

MAC protocols: taxonomy

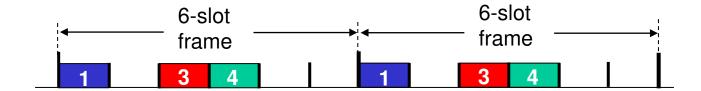
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
 - divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
 - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- random access
 - channel not divided, allow collisions
 - "recover" from collisions
- "taking turns"
 - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

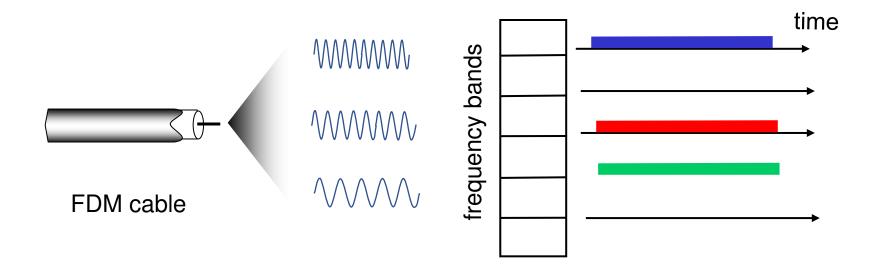
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random access protocols

- when node has packet to send
 - transmit at full channel data rate R.
 - no a priori coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes: "collision"
- random access MAC protocol specifies:
 - how to detect collisions
 - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- examples of random access MAC protocols:
 - ALOHA, slotted ALOHA
 - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

assumptions:

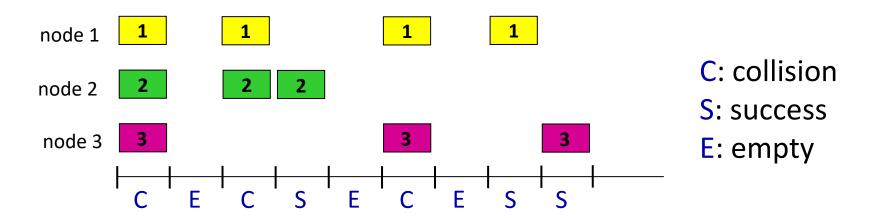
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
 - if no collision: node can send new frame in next slot
 - *if collision:* node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

randomization – why?

Slotted ALOHA



Pros:

- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

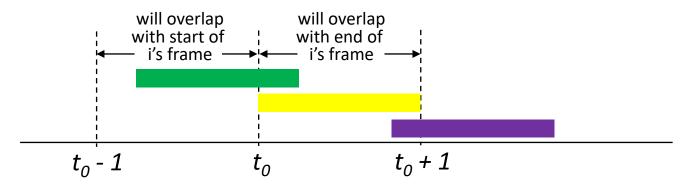
- suppose: N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
 - prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - prob that any node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

$$max\ efficiency = 1/e = .37$$

at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

Pure ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
 - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
 - frame sent at t₀ collides with other frames sent in [t₀-1,t₀+1]



pure Aloha efficiency: 18%!

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

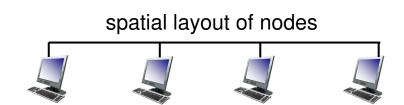
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA/CD: CSMA with collision detection

- collisions detected within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA: collisions

- collisions can still occur with carrier sensing:
 - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's juststarted transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
 - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability

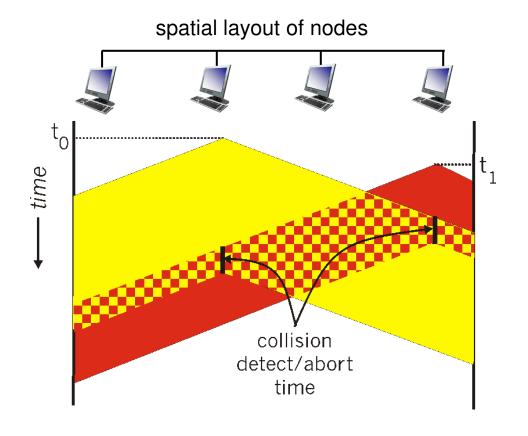




 $\mathsf{t}_{_{1}}$

CSMA/CD:

- CSMA/CS reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
 - transmission aborted on collision detection



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- 1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel:

if idle: start frame transmission.

if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit

- 3. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame!
- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from $\{0,1,2,...,2^m-1\}$. NIC waits K:512 bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval

CSMA/CD efficiency

- T_{prop} = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

$$efficiency = \frac{1}{1 + 5t_{prop}/t_{trans}}$$

- efficiency goes to 1
 - as t_{prop} goes to 0
 - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel efficiently and fairly at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 active node!

random access MAC protocols

- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

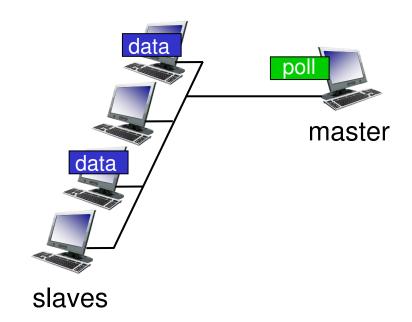
"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

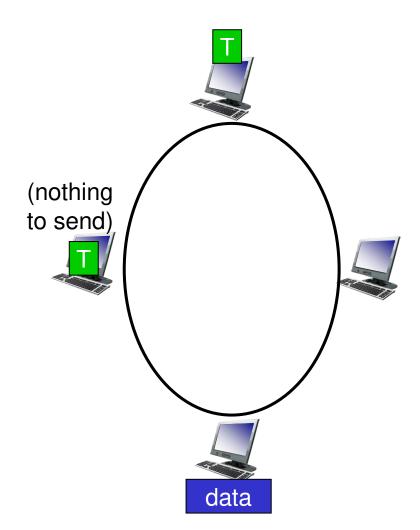
- master node "invites" other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



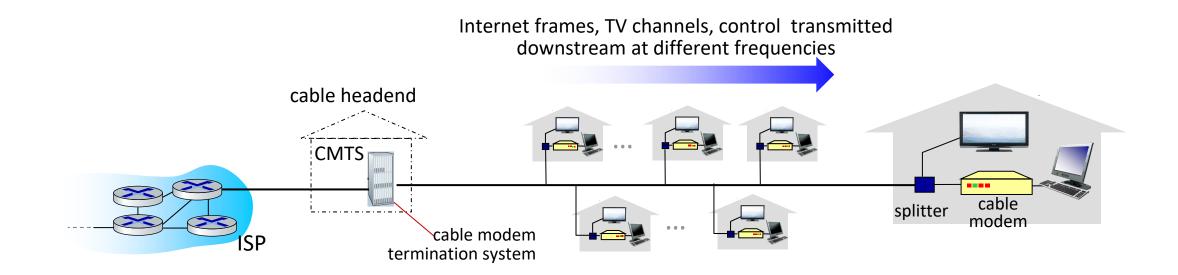
"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token passing:

- control token passed from one node to next sequentially.
- token message
- concerns:
 - token overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (token)

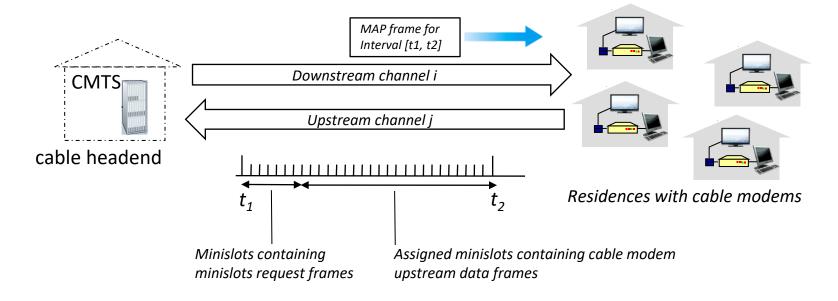


Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random access!



- multiple downstream (broadcast) FDM channels: up to 1.6 Gbps/channel
 - single CMTS transmits into channels
- multiple upstream channels (up to 1 Gbps/channel)
 - multiple access: all users contend (random access) for certain upstream channel time slots; others assigned TDM

Cable access network:



DOCSIS: data over cable service interface specificaiton

- FDM over upstream, downstream frequency channels
- TDM upstream: some slots assigned, some have contention
 - downstream MAP frame: assigns upstream slots
 - request for upstream slots (and data) transmitted random access (binary backoff) in selected slots

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MAC addresses

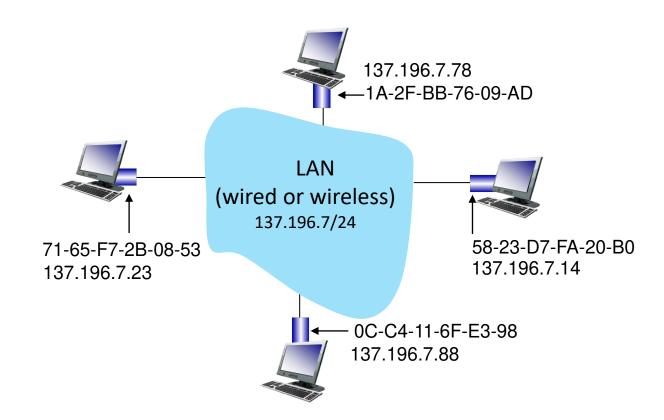
- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
 - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

hexadecimal (base 16) notation (each "numeral" represents 4 bits)

MAC addresses

each interface on LAN

- has unique 48-bit MAC address
- has a locally unique 32-bit IP address (as we've seen)

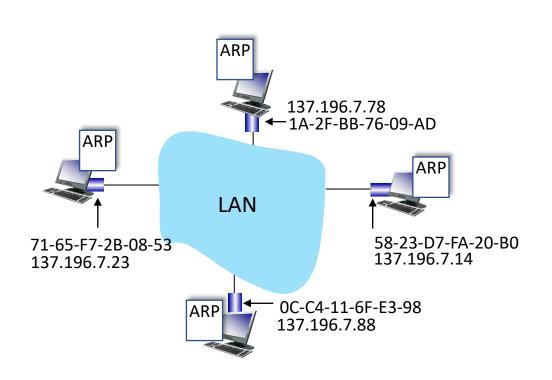


MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
 - MAC address: like Social Security Number
 - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
 - can move interface from one LAN to another
 - recall IP address not portable: depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: address resolution protocol

Question: how to determine interface's MAC address, knowing its IP address?



ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table

 IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:

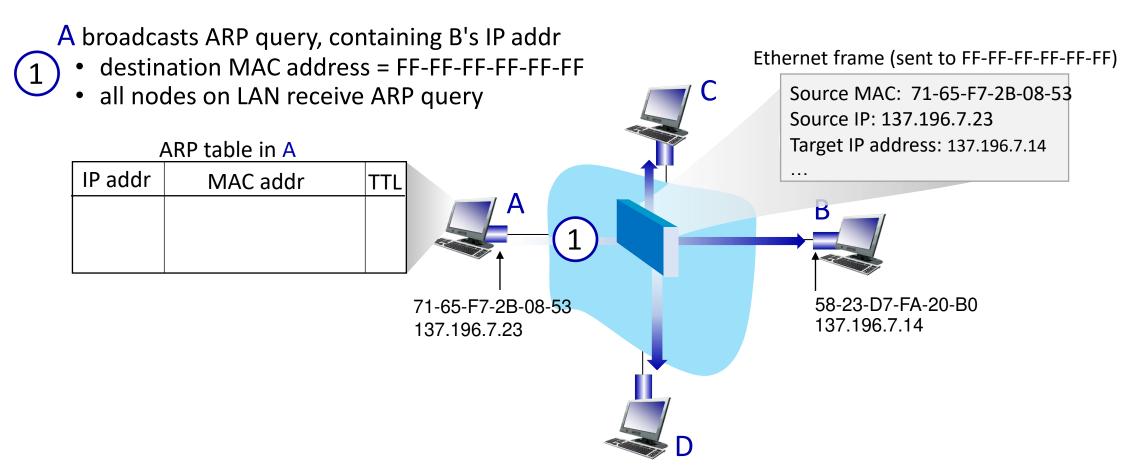
< IP address; MAC address; TTL>

 TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

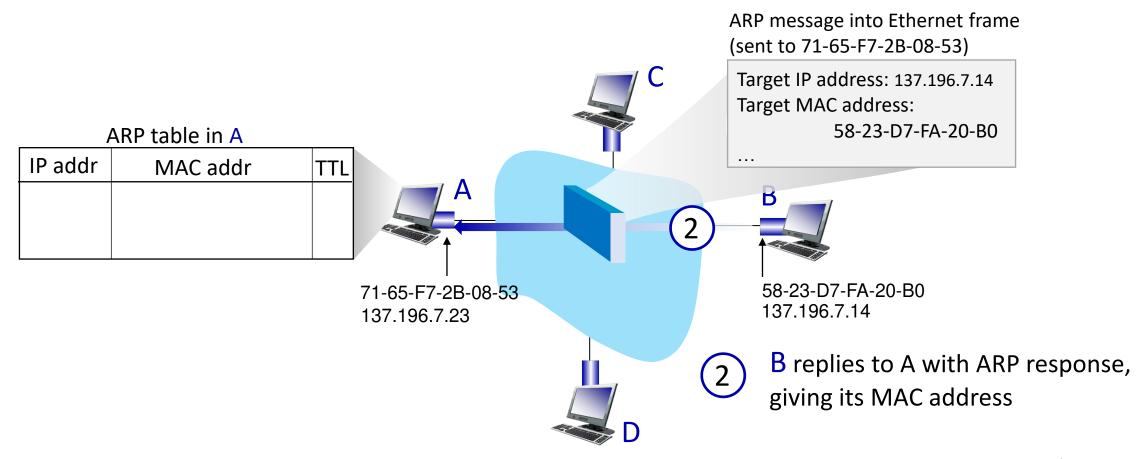
• B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

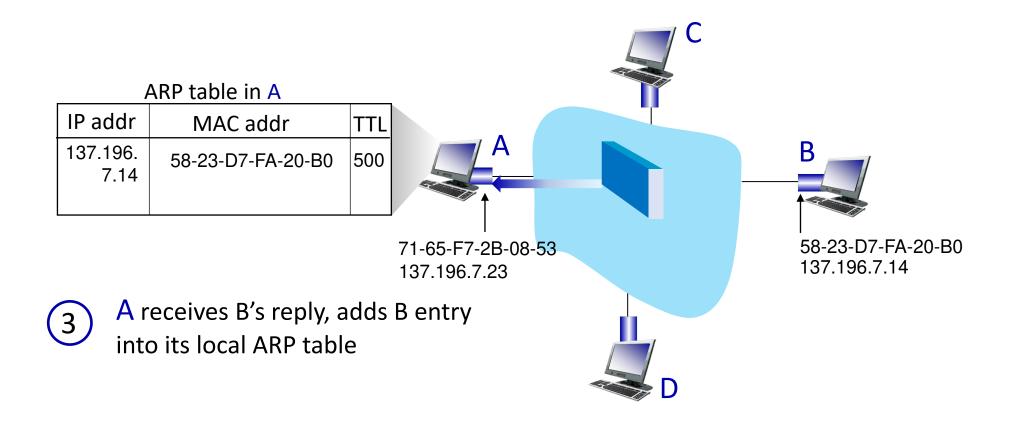
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ARP protocol in action

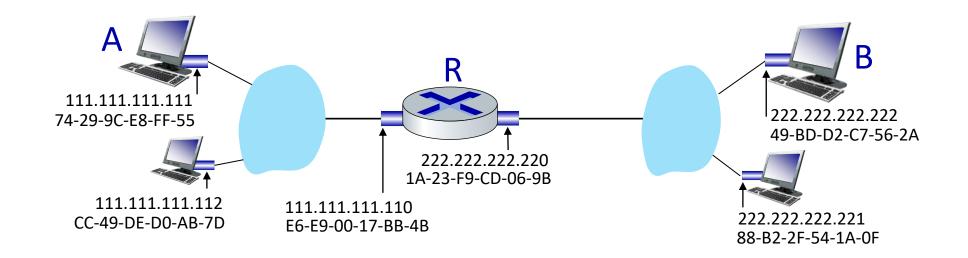
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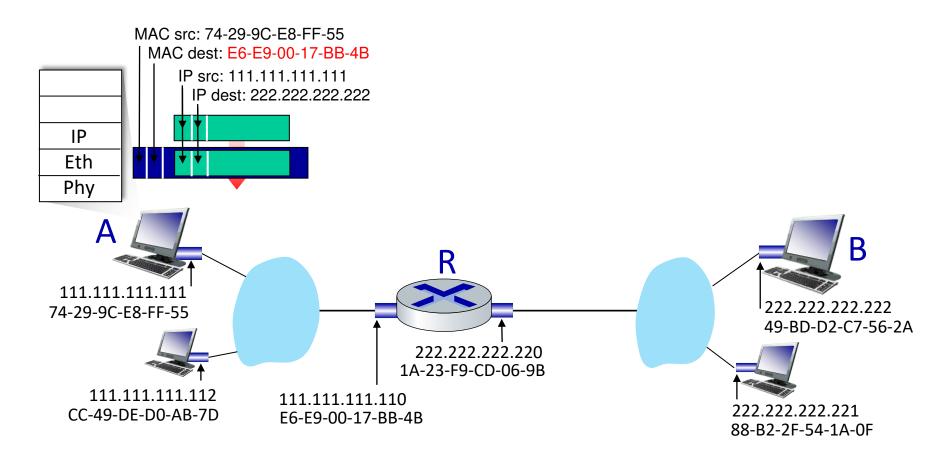


walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

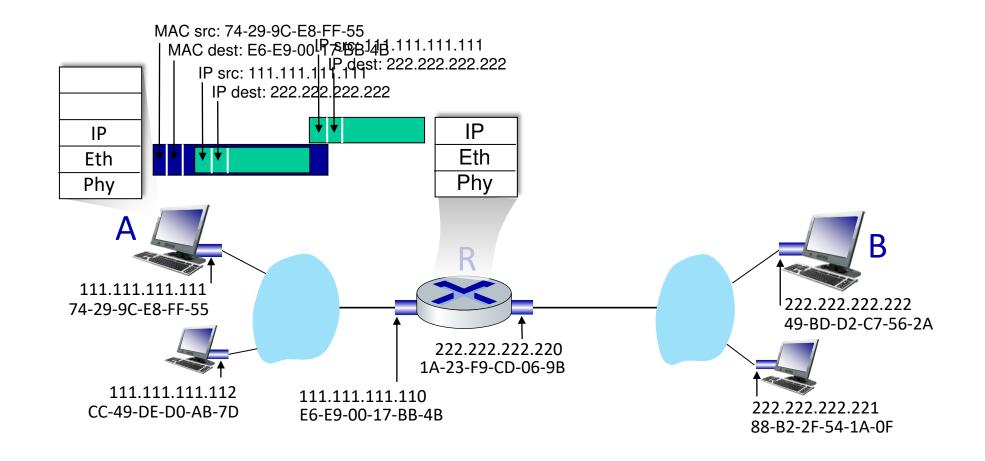
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
 - A knows B's IP address
 - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
 - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



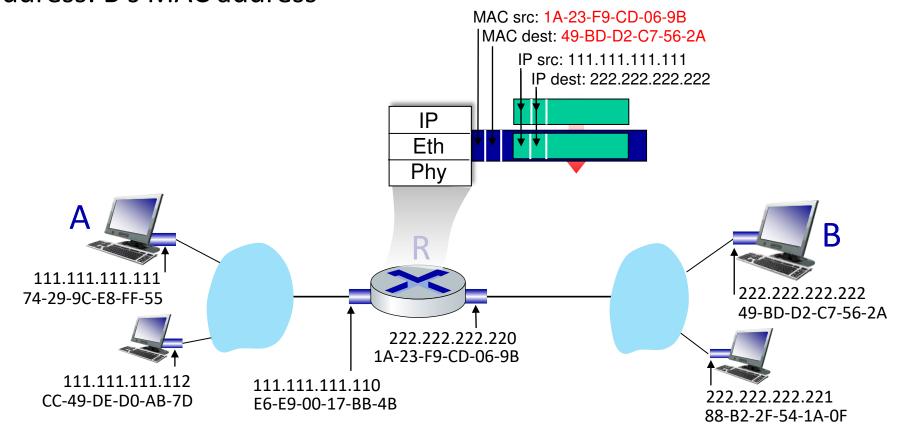
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
 - R's MAC address is frame's destination



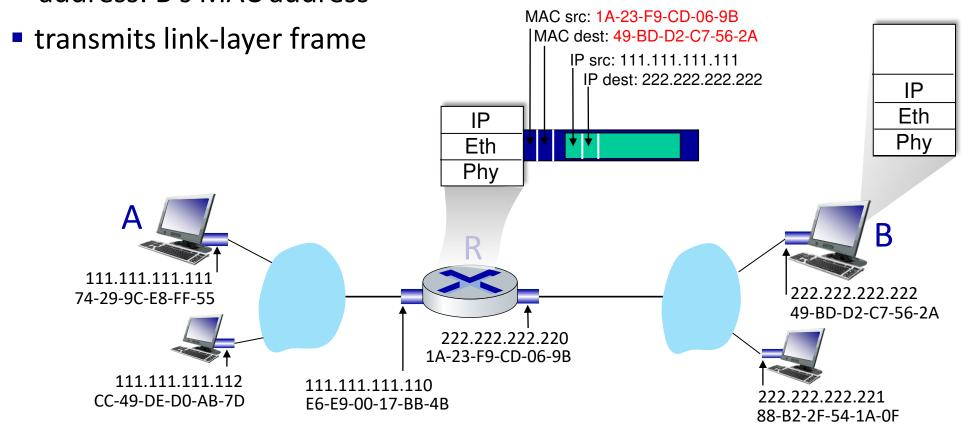
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



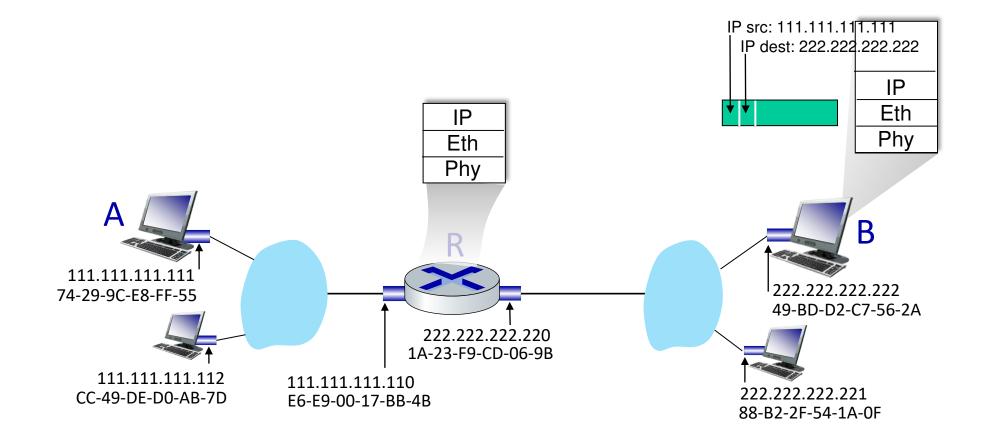
- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



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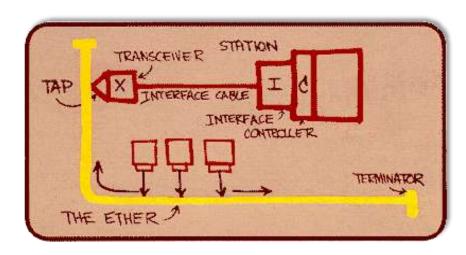


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Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

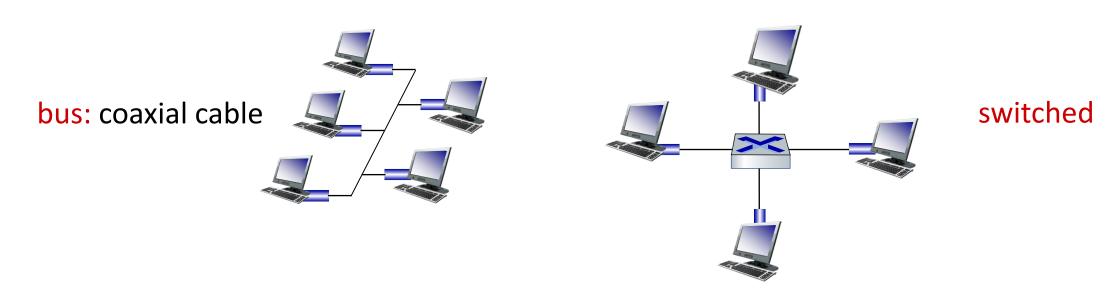
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 400 Gbps
- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

Ethernet: physical topology

- bus: popular through mid 90s
 - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- switched: prevails today
 - active link-layer 2 switch in center
 - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)



Ethernet frame structure

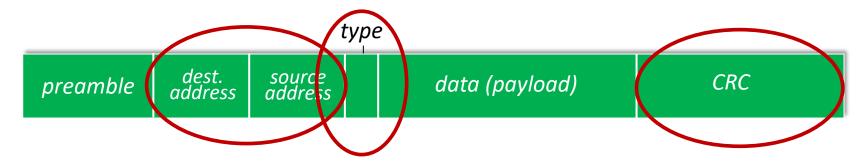
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



preamble:

- used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates
- 7 bytes of 10101010 followed by one byte of 10101011

Ethernet frame structure (more)



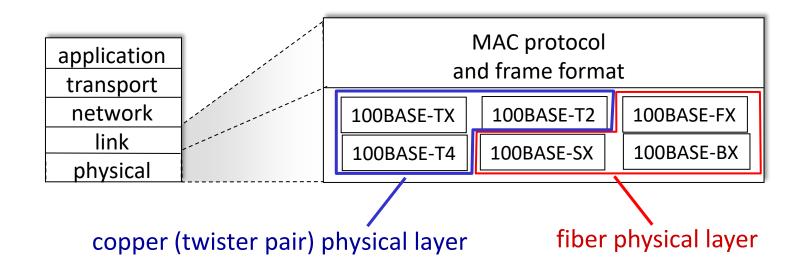
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
 - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
 - mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk
 - used to demultiplex up at receiver
- CRC: cyclic redundancy check at receiver
 - error detected: frame is dropped

Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- •unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't send ACKs or NAKs to sending NIC
 - data in dropped frames recovered only if initial sender uses higher layer rdt (e.g., TCP), otherwise dropped data lost
- Ethernet's MAC protocol: unslotted CSMA/CD with binary backoff

802.3 Ethernet standards: link & physical layers

- many different Ethernet standards
 - common MAC protocol and frame format
 - different speeds: 2 Mbps, 10 Mbps, 100 Mbps, 1Gbps, 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps
 - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



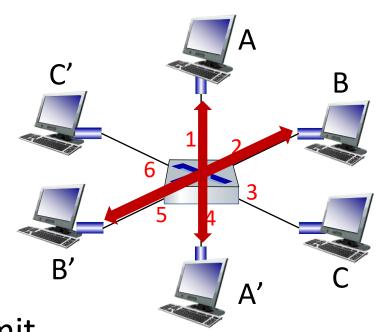
a day in the life of a web request

Ethernet switch

- Switch is a link-layer device: takes an active role
 - store, forward Ethernet frames
 - examine incoming frame's MAC address, selectively forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment
- transparent: hosts unaware of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
 - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

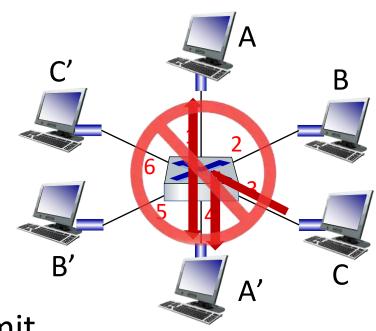
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on each incoming link, so:
 - no collisions; full duplex
 - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
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- Ethernet protocol used on each incoming link, so:
 - no collisions; full duplex
 - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions
 - but A-to-A' and C to A' can not happen simultaneously



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch forwarding table

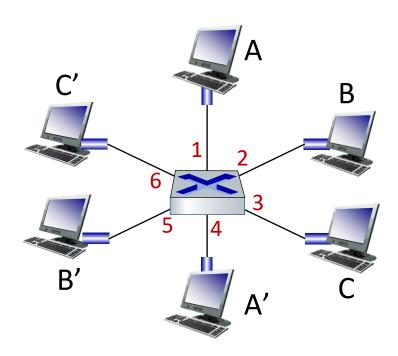
Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

<u>A:</u> each switch has a switch table, each entry:

- (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!

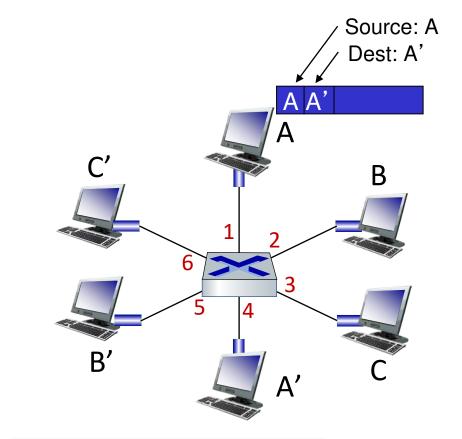
Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

something like a routing protocol?



Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
 - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
 - records sender/location pair in switch table



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60

Switch table (initially empty)

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

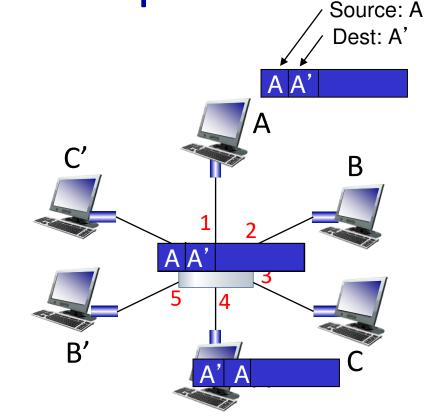
when frame received at switch:

```
1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination address
3. if entry found for destination
  then {
  if destination on segment from which frame arrived
     then drop frame
      else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
   else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface */
```

Self-learning, forwarding: example

- frame destination, A', location unknown: flood
- destination A location known: selectively send

on just one link

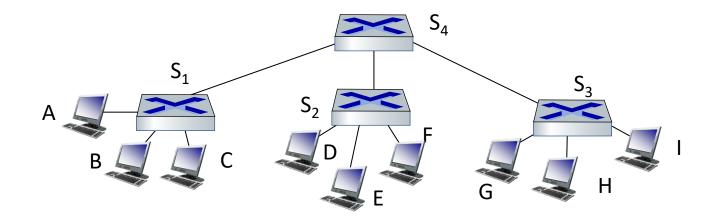


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60 60
A	4	60

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

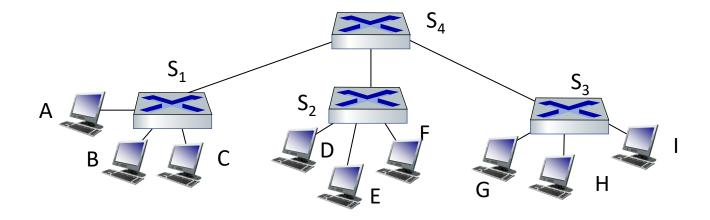


Q: sending from A to G - how does S₁ know to forward frame destined to G via S₄ and S₃?

• A: self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

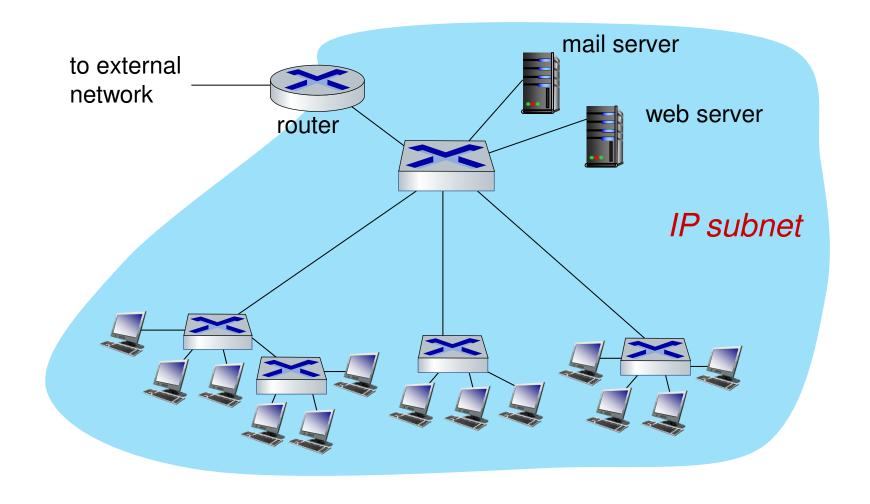
Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



 \underline{Q} : show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , S_4

Small institutional network



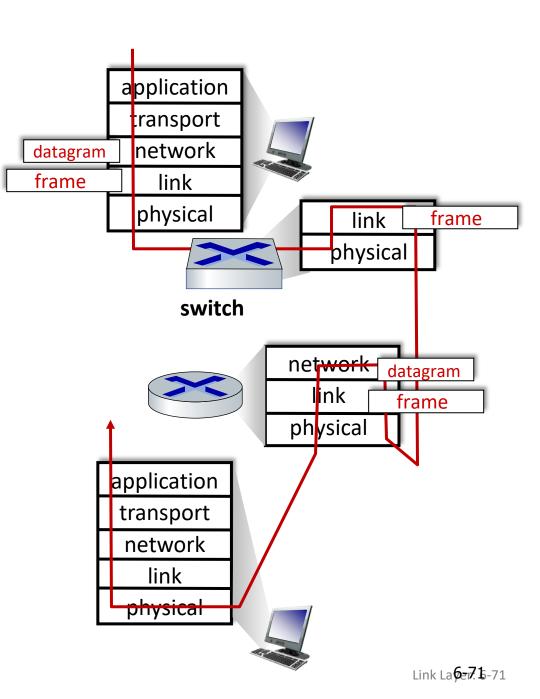
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

- routers: network-layer devices (examine network-layer headers)
- switches: link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

- routers: compute tables using routing algorithms, IP addresses
- switches: learn forwarding table using flooding, learning, MAC addresses



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

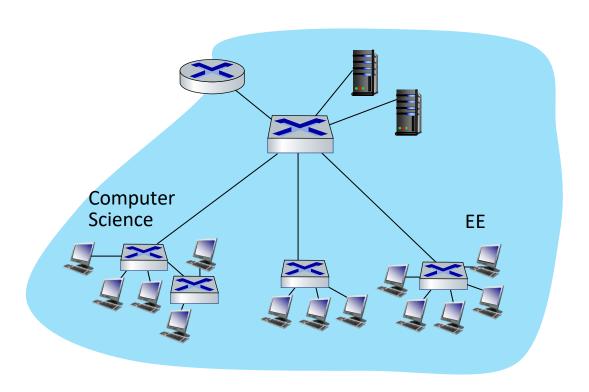
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a day in the life of a web request

Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

Q: what happens as LAN sizes scale, users change point of attachment?

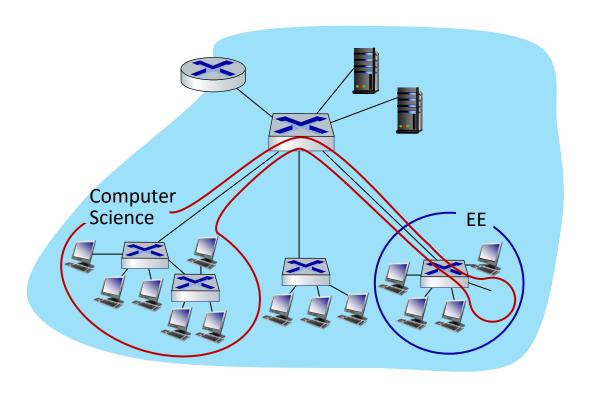


single broadcast domain:

- scaling: all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy issues

Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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single broadcast domain:

- scaling: all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy, efficiency issues

administrative issues:

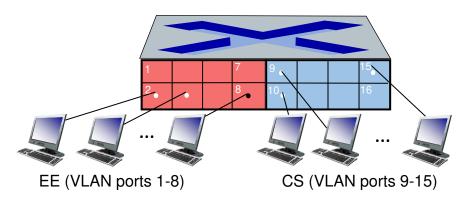
 CS user moves office to EE - physically attached to EE switch, but wants to remain logically attached to CS switch

Port-based VLANs

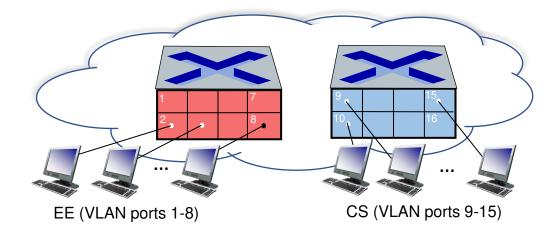
Virtual Local Area Network (VLAN)

switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple *virtual* LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure.

port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that single physical switch

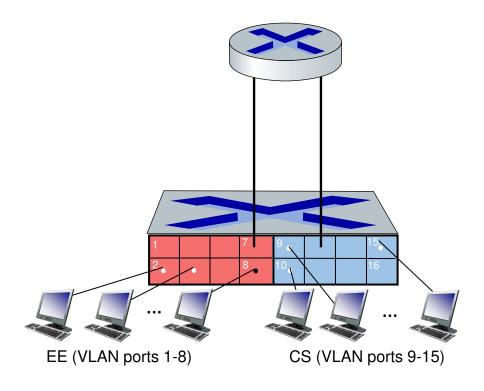


... operates as multiple virtual switches

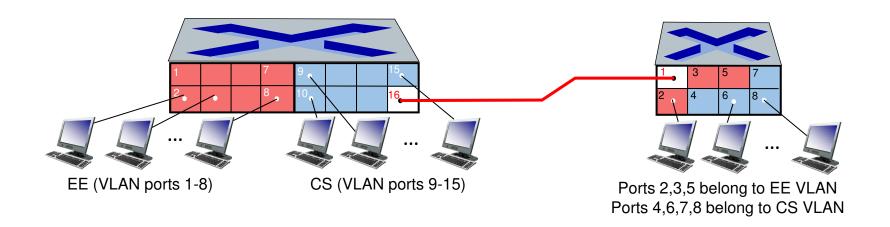


Port-based VLANs

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports1-8 can only reach ports 1-8
 - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
 - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers



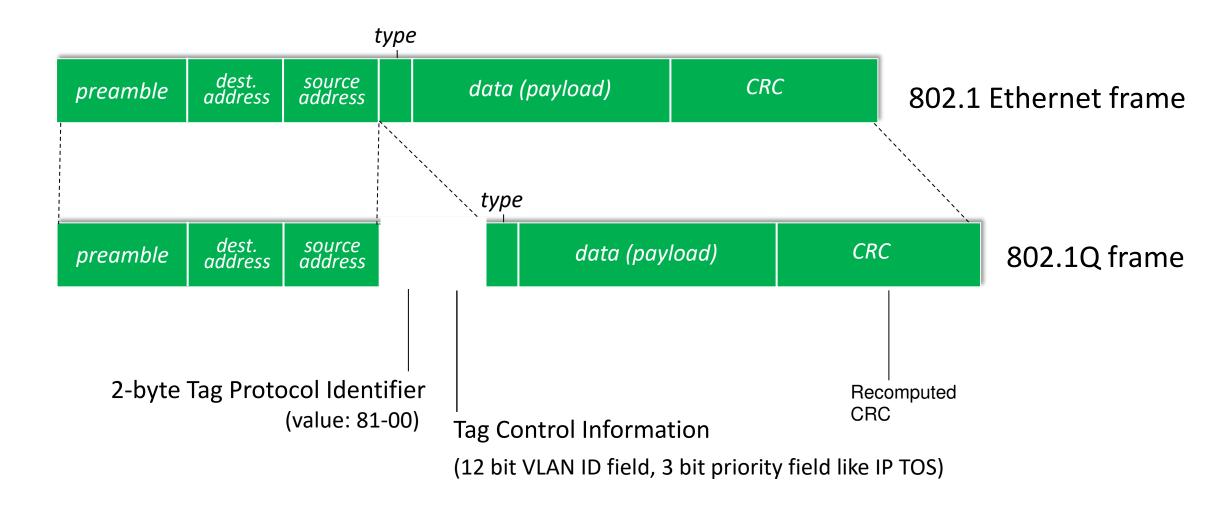
VLANS spanning multiple switches



trunk port: carries frames between VLANS defined over multiple physical switches

- frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
- 802.1q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

802.1Q VLAN frame format



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

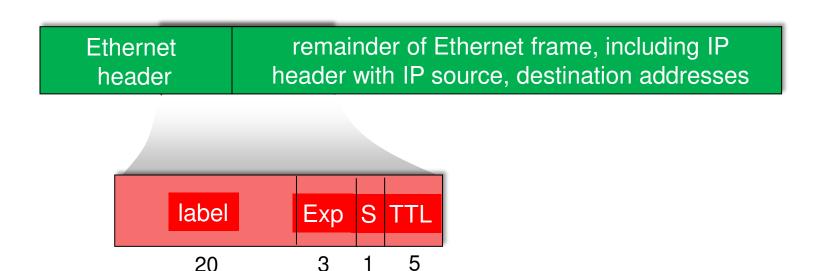
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Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

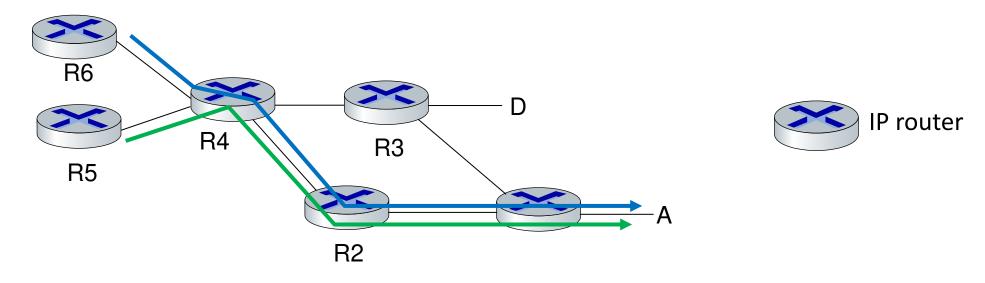
- goal: high-speed IP forwarding among network of MPLS-capable routers, using fixed length label (instead of shortest prefix matching)
 - faster lookup using fixed length identifier
 - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
 - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

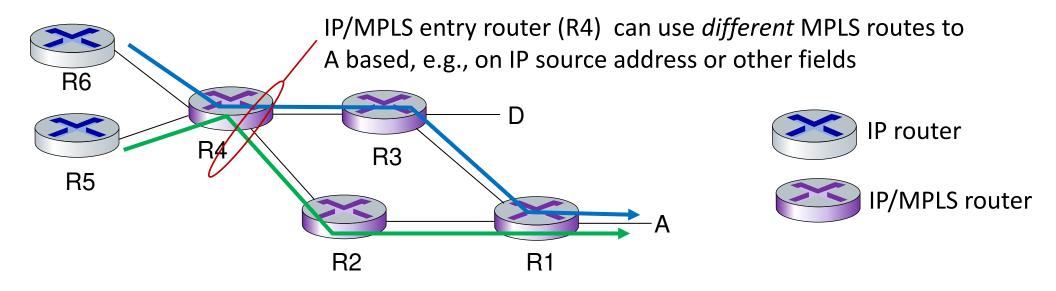
- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (don't inspect IP address)
 - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- flexibility: MPLS forwarding decisions can differ from those of IP
 - use destination and source addresses to route flows to same destination differently (traffic engineering)
 - re-route flows quickly if link fails: pre-computed backup paths

MPLS versus IP paths



• IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone

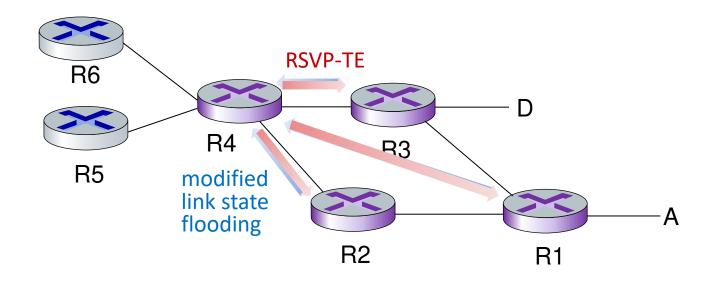
MPLS versus IP paths



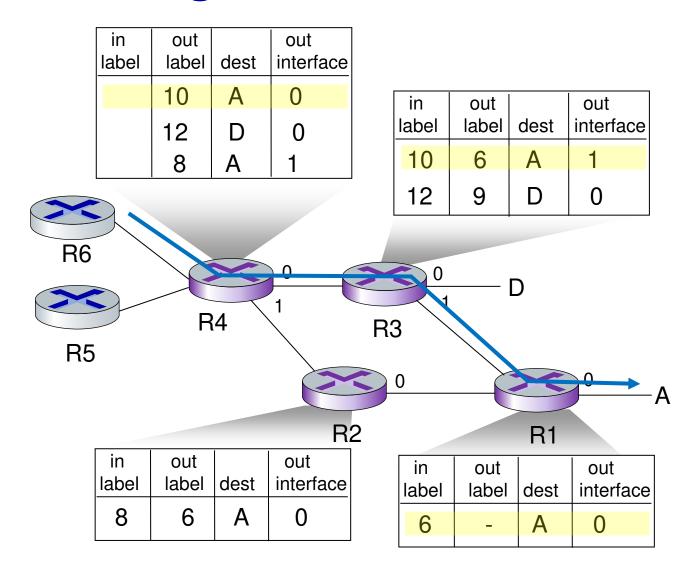
- IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone
- MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source and destination address
 - flavor of generalized forwarding (MPLS 10 years earlier)
 - fast reroute: precompute backup routes in case of link failure

MPLS signaling

- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry infoused by MPLS routing:
 - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of "reserved" link bandwidth
- entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers



MPLS forwarding tables



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Datacenter networks

10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:

- e-business (e.g. Amazon)
- content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
- search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)

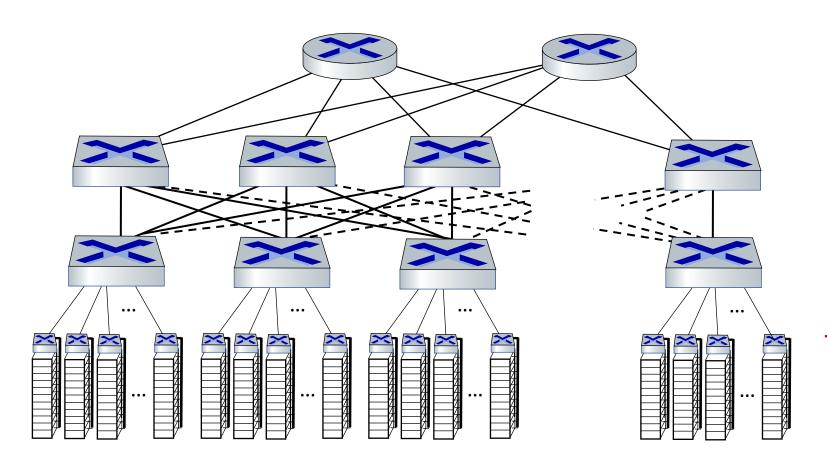
challenges:

- multiple applications, each serving massive numbers of clients
- reliability
- managing/balancing load, avoiding processing, networking, data bottlenecks



Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Datacenter networks: network elements



Border routers

connections outside datacenter

Tier-1 switches

connecting to ~16 T-2s below

Tier-2 switches

connecting to ~16 TORs below

Top of Rack (TOR) switch

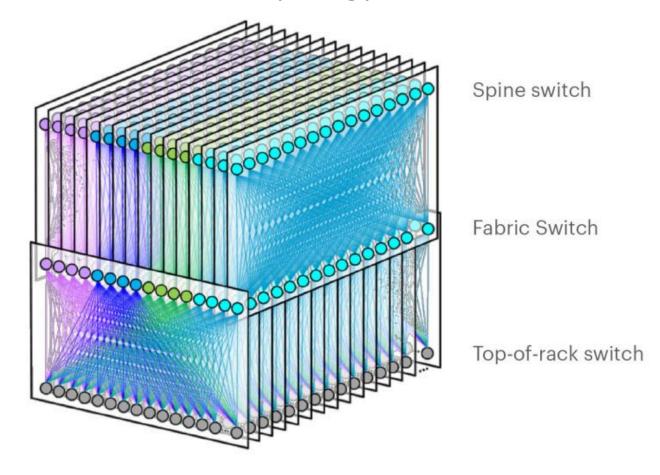
- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

Server racks

20- 40 server blades: hosts

Datacenter networks: network elements

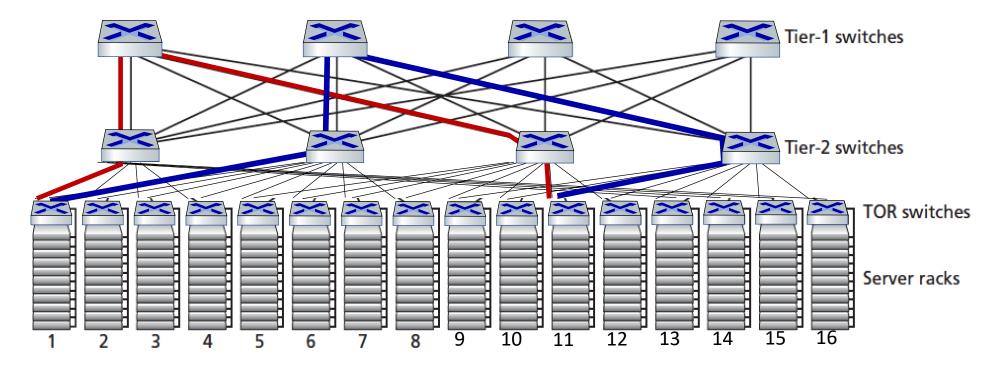
Facebook F16 data center network topology:



https://engineering.fb.com/data-center-engineering/f16-minipack/ (posted 3/2019)

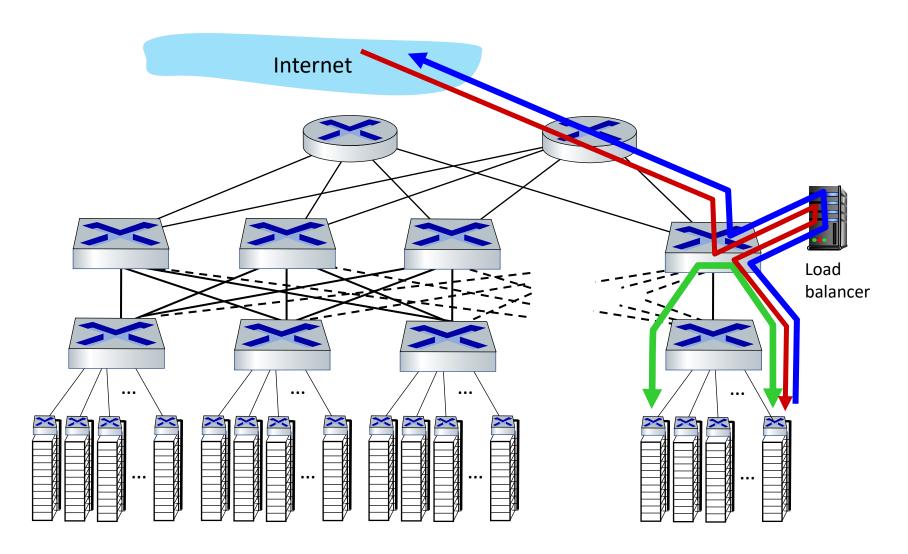
Datacenter networks: multipath

- rich interconnection among switches, racks:
 - increased throughput between racks (multiple routing paths possible)
 - increased reliability via redundancy



two disjoint paths highlighted between racks 1 and 11

Datacenter networks: application-layer routing



load balancer: application-layer routing

- receives external client requests
- directs workload within data center
- returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)

Datacenter networks: protocol innovations

link layer:

• RoCE: remote DMA (RDMA) over Converged Ethernet

transport layer:

- ECN (explicit congestion notification) used in transport-layer congestion control (DCTCP, DCQCN)
- experimentation with hop-by-hop (backpressure) congestion control

routing, management:

- SDN widely used within/among organizations' datacenters
- place related services, data as close as possible (e.g., in same rack or nearby rack) to minimize tier-2, tier-1 communication