

链路层和局域网

Outline

- Introduction
- Error detection, correction
- Multiple access protocols
- LANs
- Link virtualization: MPLS
- Data center networking
- A day in the life of a web request



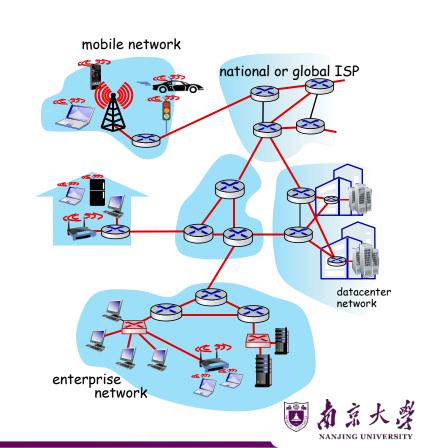


Link layer: introduction

terminology:

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

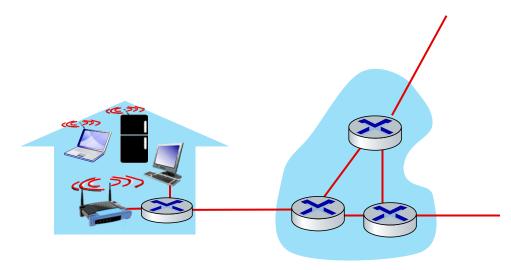
link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to physically adjacent node over a link





Link layer: context

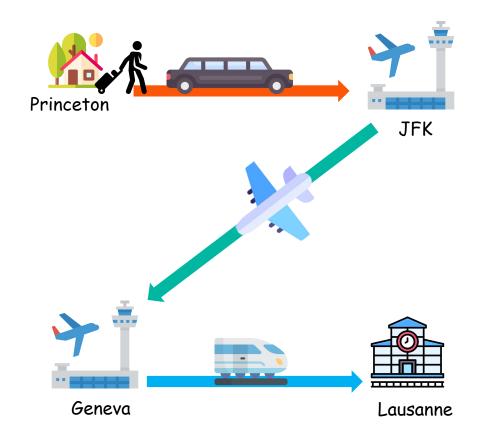
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
 - > e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
 - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link







Transportation analogy



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





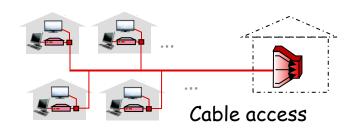
Link layer: services

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!)



- > 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?







Ethernet LANs







Link layer: services (more)

flow control:

pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

error detection:

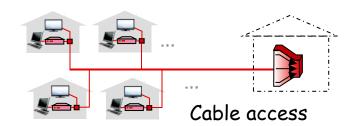
- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- > receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame

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







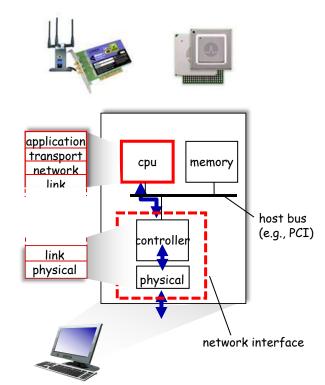






Host link-layer implementation

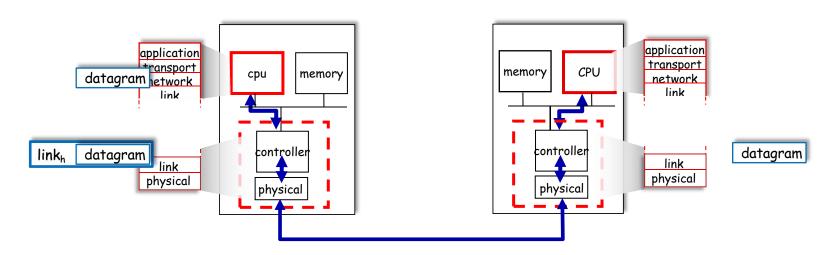
- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented on-chip or in network interface card (NIC)
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware







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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Outline

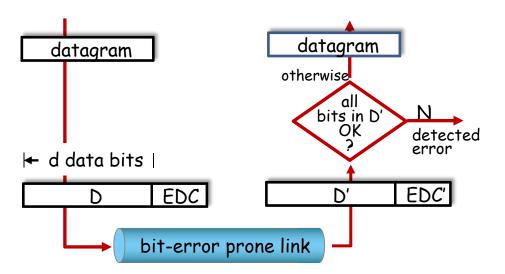
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Error detection

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

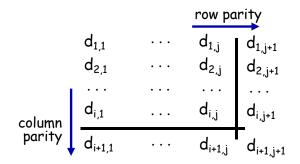
Even/odd parity: set parity bit so there is an even/odd number of 1's

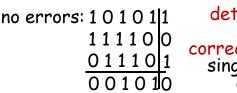
At receiver:

- compute parity of d received bits
- compare with received parity bit - if different than error detected

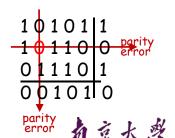
Can detect and correct errors (without retransmission!)

two-dimensional parity: detect and correct single bit errors





detected and correctable single-bit error:





Internet checksum (review, see section 3.3)

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:

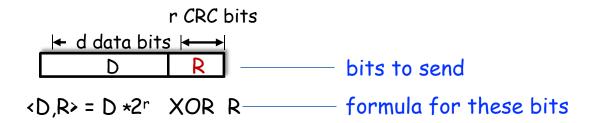
- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - > not equal error detected
 - equal no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless? More later





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, specified in CRC standard)



sender: compute r CRC bits, R, such that $\langle D, R \rangle$ 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

Sender wants to compute R such that:

 $D \cdot 2^r \times OR R = nG$

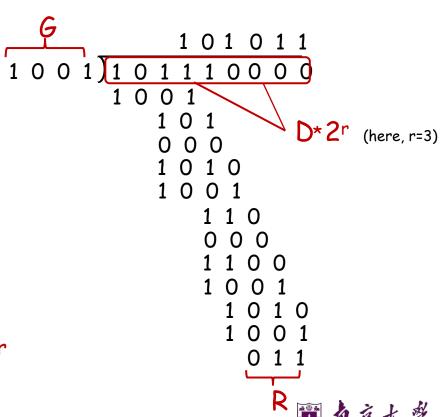
... or equivalently (XOR R both sides):

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

... which says:

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

R = remainder
$$\left[\begin{array}{c} D.2^{r} \\ \hline G \end{array}\right]$$
 algorithm for computing R



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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-school 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

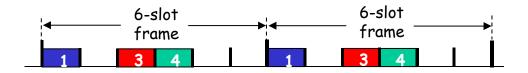




Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

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



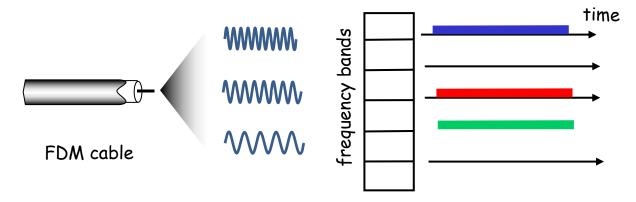




Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

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







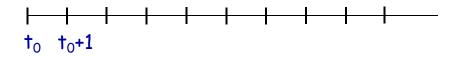
Random access protocols

- 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 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:

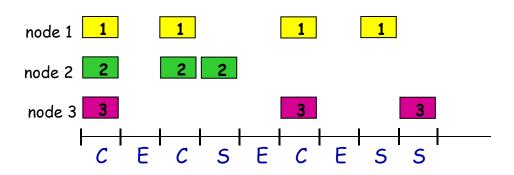
- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
 - if no collision: node can send new frame in next slot
 - retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability puntil success

randomization - why?





Slotted ALOHA



C: collision

5: success

E: empty

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!





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

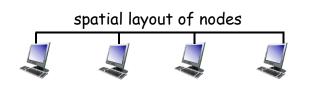
- > collisions detected within short time
- > colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- > collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist





CSMA: collisions

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

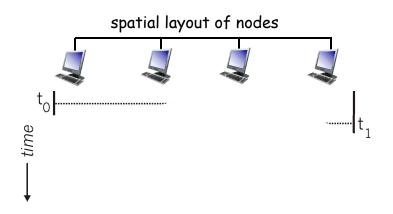








- CSMA/CD reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
 - transmission aborted on collision detection





Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- 1. Ethernet receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If Ethernet senses channel:
 - if idle: start frame transmission.
 - if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit
- 3. If entire frame transmitted without collision done!
- 4. If another transmission detected while sending: abort, send jam signal
- 5. After aborting, enter binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, chooses K at random from {0,1,2, ..., 2^m-1}.
 Ethernet waits K·512 bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval





"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!

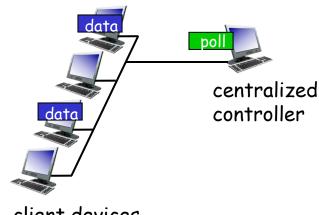




"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

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



client devices

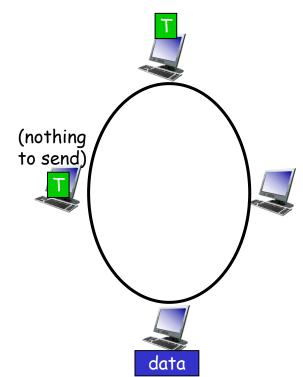




"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token passing:

- control token message explicitly passed from one node to next, sequentially
 - > transmit while holding token
- concerns:
 - token overhead
 - > latency
 - single point of failure (token)

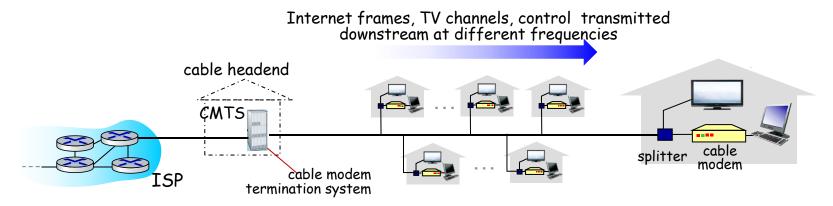






Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random

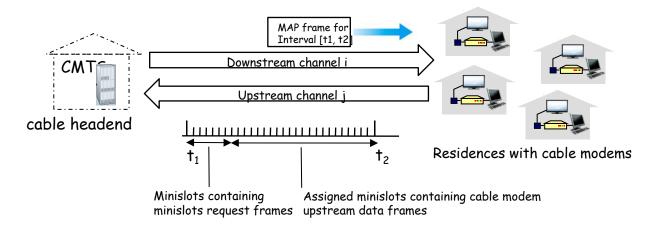
access



- 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 specification

- 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



Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code
 - > Time Division, Frequency Division
- random access (dynamic),
 - > ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
 - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
 - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
 - C5MA/CA used in 802.11
- taking turns
 - > polling from central site, token passing
 - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring



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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

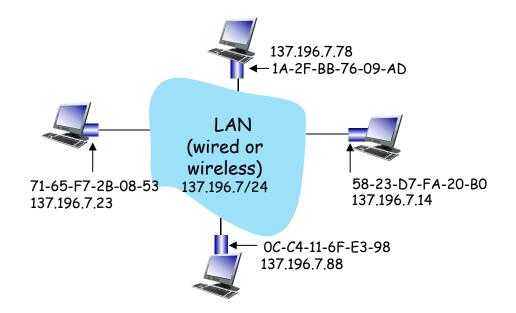
10n 4 bits) **资**有京大党



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

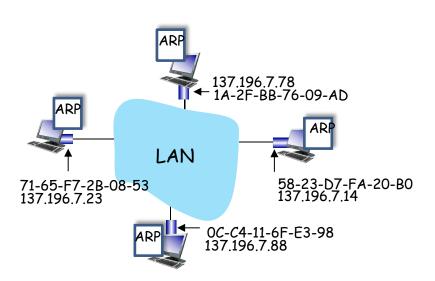
- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
 - MAC address: like Social Security Number
 - > IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
 - > can move interface from one LAN to another
 - > recall 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)

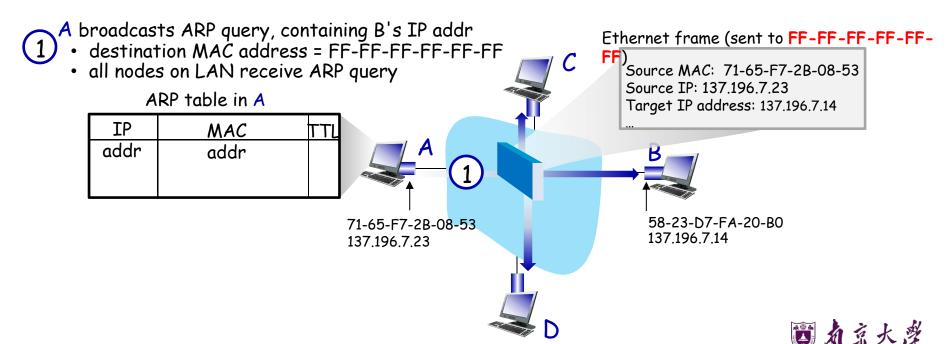




ARP protocol in action

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

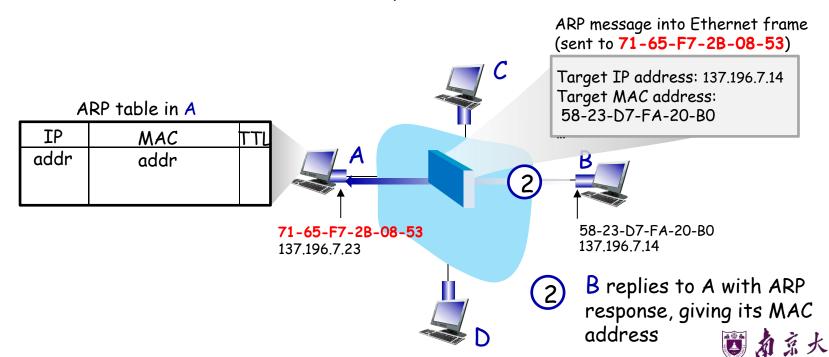




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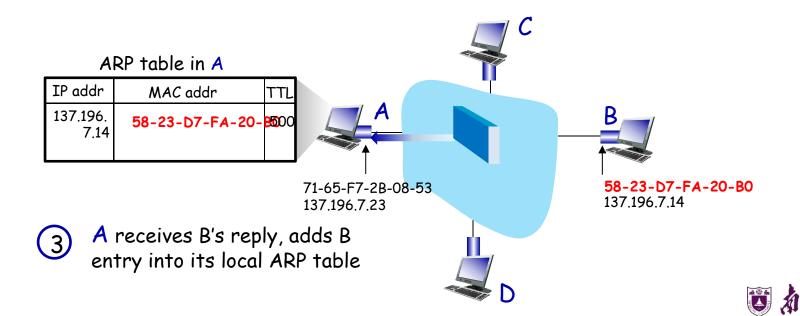




ARP protocol in action

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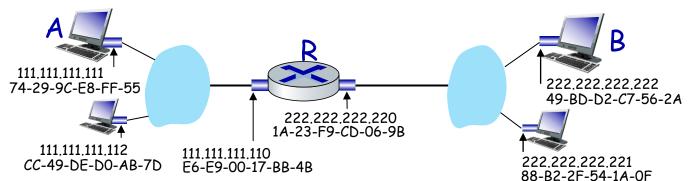
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walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

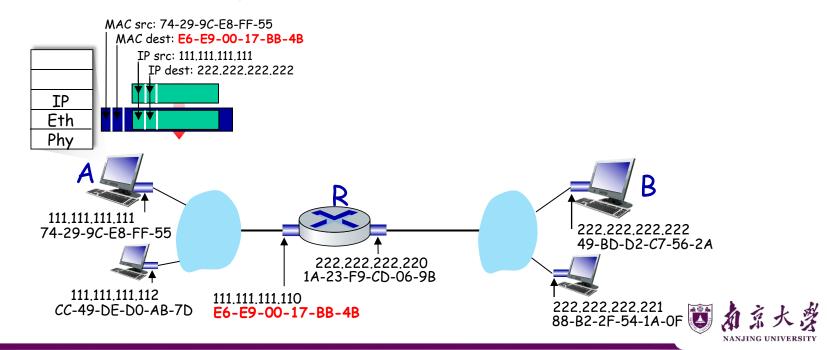
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
 - > A knows B's IP address
 - > A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
 - > A knows R's MAC address (how?)







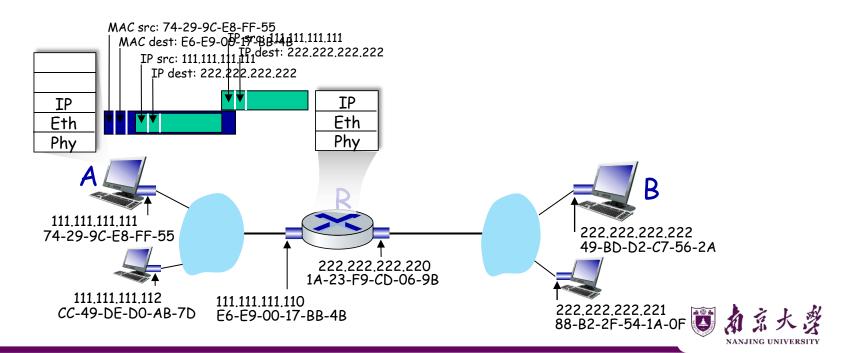
- · A create reason with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
 - R's MAC address is frame's destination





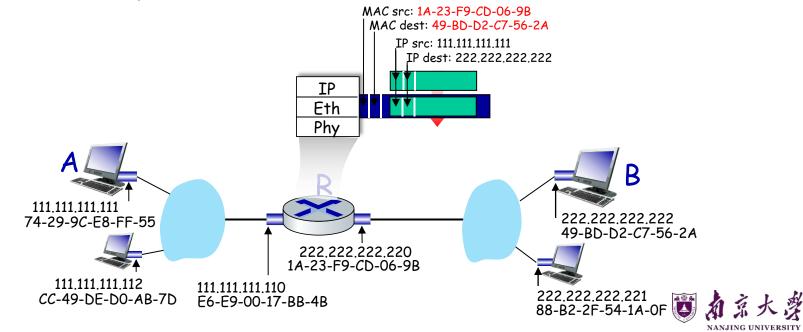
addressing frame sent from A to R

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



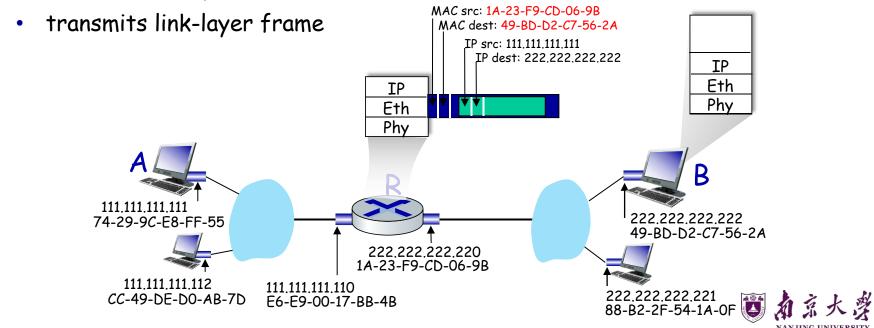


- R defending Station of the State of the St
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



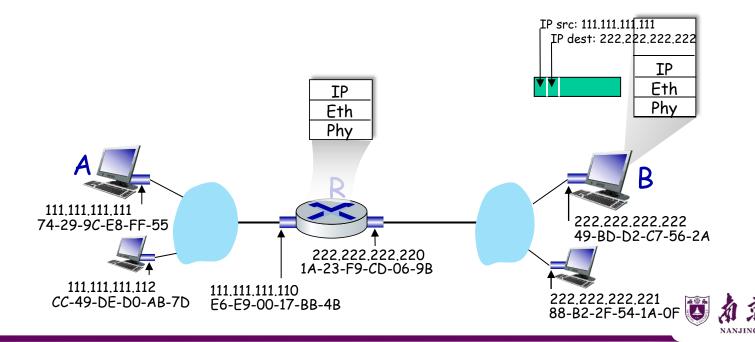


- R determines and in the source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address





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





Q & A

