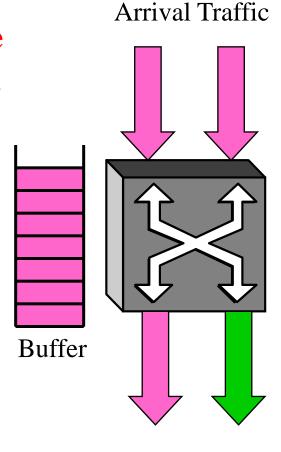
Chapter 3 Packet Switching

Circuit Switching & Packet Switching

- There are two limitations on the directly connected networks:
 - How many hosts can be attached?
 - How large of a geographic area a network can serve?
- To build networks that can be global in scale
 - To enable communication between hosts that are not directly connected
- Circuit switching: used for telephony
- Packet switching: used for computer networks
- A packet switch is a device with several inputs and outputs leading to and from the hosts that the switch interconnects
 - Takes packets that arrive on an input
 - Forwards them to the right outputs

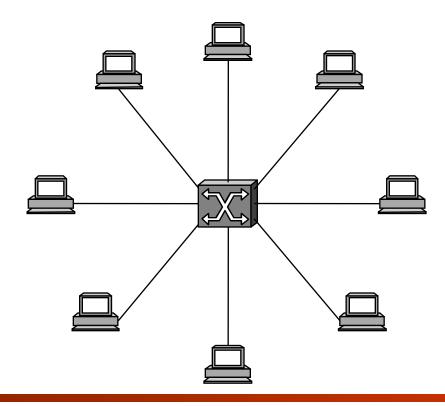
Packet Switching

- A key problem for a switch is
 - The bandwidth of its outputs is finite
- Contention: the arrival rate exceeds the capacity of the output
 - The switch queues packets until the contention subsides
- If the contention lasts too long
 - The switch will run out of buffer space and be forced to discard packets
- If packets are discarded too frequently
 - The switch is said to be congested

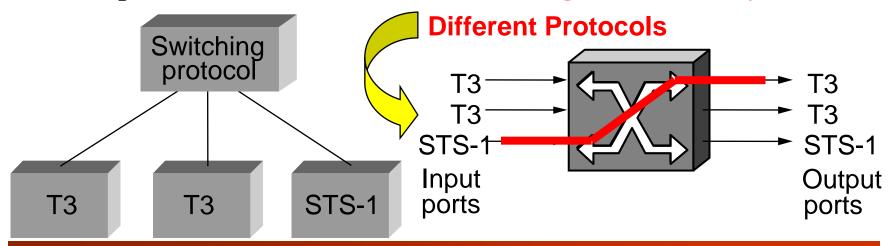


Output Traffic

- A switch is a multi-input, multi-output device
 - Transfers packets from an input to one or more outputs
 - Star topology



- A switch is connected to a set of links and, for each links, runs the appropriate **data link protocol**
- Switching and Forwarding is
 - To receive incoming packets on one link and to transmit them on some other link
 - From an input port to an output port
- Output determination is called Routing (Network layer)



- Switching: looks at the header of a packet for an identifier
- Three approaches for switching:
 - Datagram or connectionless approach
 - Virtual circuit (VC) or connection-oriented approach
 - Source routing (less common)

Address:

- Nodes are identified by MAC addresses on a network
- No two nodes on a network have the same address
- All Ethernet cards are assigned a globally unique identifier

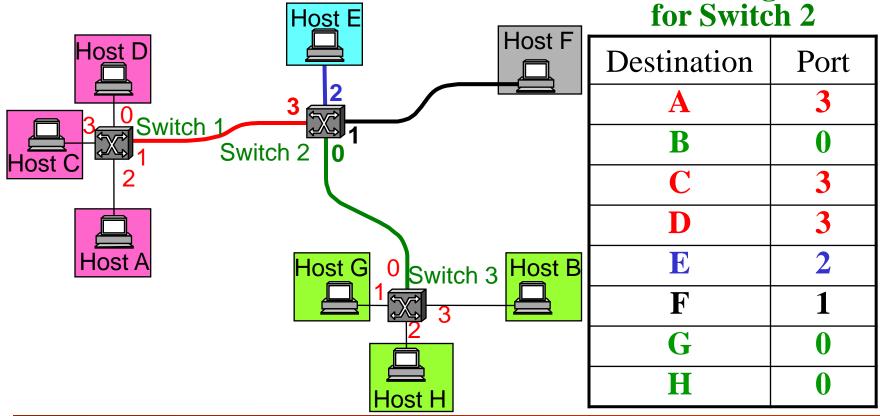
Datagram Approach

• Every packet contains the **complete** destination address

A switch consults a forwarding table (routing table) for

port determination

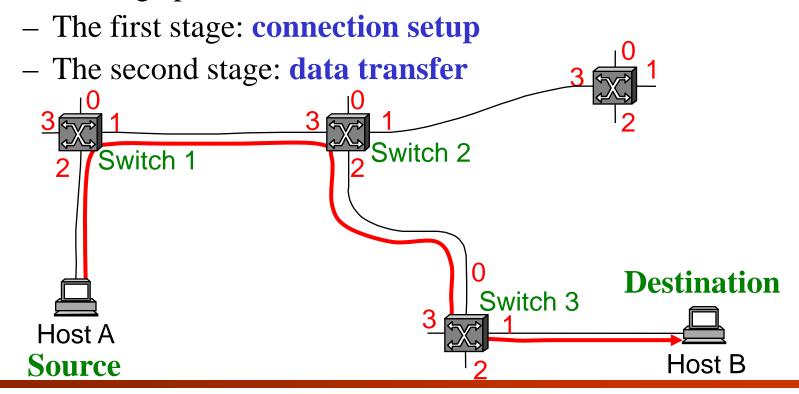
Forwarding table



Datagram Approach

- The table should be configured **statically**: it is hard for large networks with dynamically changing topologies
- Characteristics of connectionless (datagram) networks are
 - A host can send a packet anywhere at any time
 - When a host sends a packet, it has no way of knowing
 - If the network is capable of delivering it or
 - If the destination host is up and running
 - Each packet is forward independently
 - Two successive packets may follow different paths
 - A switch or link failure might not have any serious effect on communication
 - To find an alternate route and update the table

- A widely used technique for packet switching
 - Require to set up a virtual connection from the source host to the destination host before any data is sent
- A two-stage process:



Virtual Circuit (Connection Setup Phase)

- The connection setup phase:
 - To establish "connection state" in each of the switches between the source and destination hosts
- A single connection consists of an entry in a "VC table" in each switch. Each entry contains:
 - A virtual circuit identifier (VCI): uniquely identifies the connection at this switch
 - An incoming interface on which packets for this VC arrive at the switch
 - An outgoing interface in which packets for this VC leave the switch

Virtual Circuit (Connection Setup Phase)

- There are two ways to establish connection state:
 - Permanent virtual circuit (PVC): a network
 administrator configures or deletes the state
 - Switched (signaled) virtual circuit (SVC): a host can send messages into the network to establish the state (without the involvement of a network administrator)
- If a packet arrives on the designated incoming interface and that packet contains the designated VCI value in its header
 - The packet is sent out the specified outgoing interface
 - Inserts the specified outgoing VCI value in the packet header
- The VCI is **not** a globally significant identifier for the connection; it has significant only on a given link

• PVC: The administrator picks a VCI value that is currently unused on each link for the connection

Outgoing

Switch 3

Host B

For example: Host A ↔ Switch 1: VCI value 5
 Switch 1 ↔ Switch 2: VCI value 11

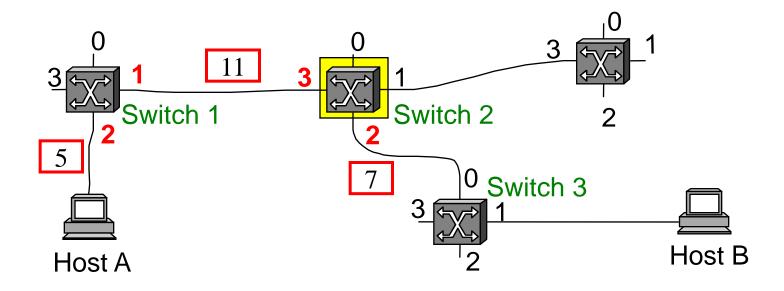
Incoming

Host A

Switch 1	witch 1 Interface Inc		Interface	Outgoing VCI	
	2	5	1	11	
3 5	1 11 Switch 1	3 1 2 Swit	cch 2	2	

• For example: Switch $2 \leftrightarrow$ Switch 3: VCI value 7

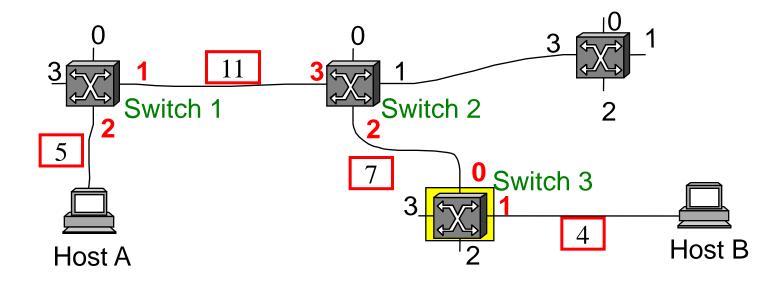
Switch 2	Incoming Interface	Incoming VCI	Outgoing Interface	Outgoing VCI	
	3	11	2	7	



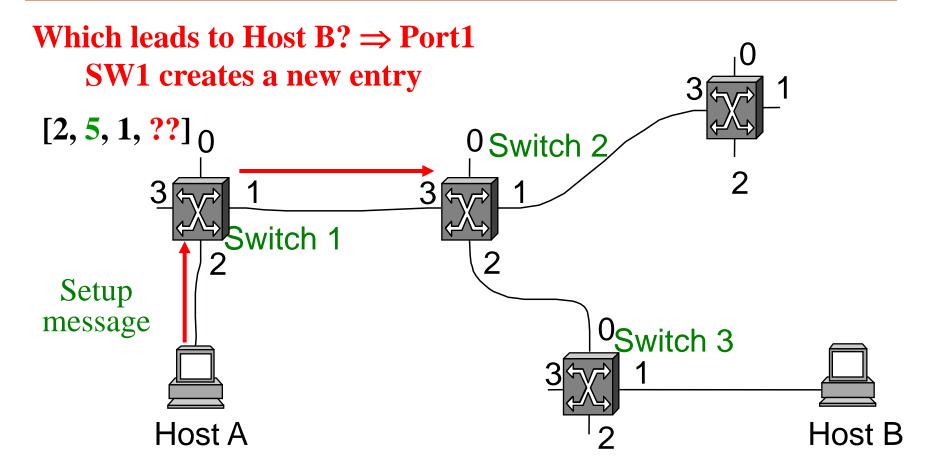
• For example: Switch $3 \leftrightarrow \text{Host B}$: VCI value 4

Switch 3

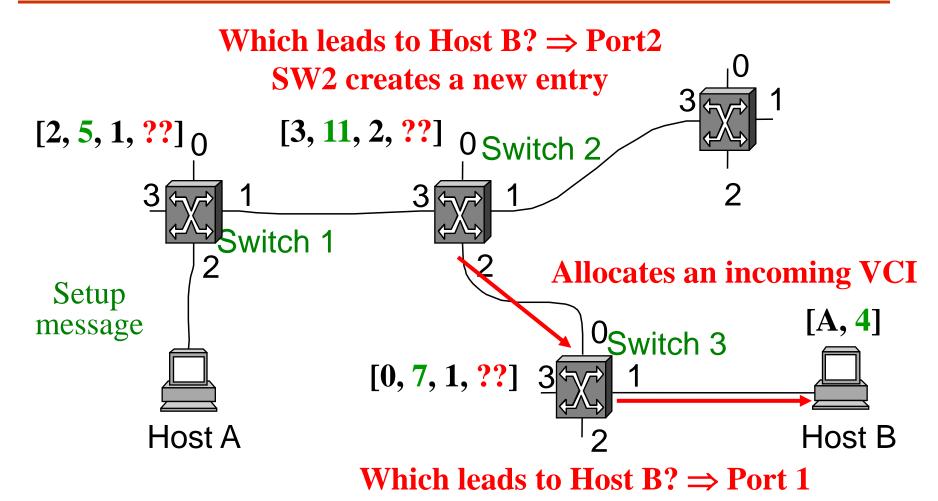
Incoming Interface	Incoming VCI	Outgoing Interface	Outgoing VCI
0	7	1	4



- In the case of PVCs, signaling is initiated by the **network** administrator
- In the case of SVCs, signaling is initiated by one of the hosts
- Host A sends a setup message into the network (to SW1)
 - Contains the complete destination address of host B
- Each SW has to know which output will lead to host B
 - Sends the setup message to the right output
- When SW1 receives the connection request
 - It sends the setup message to SW2
 - It creates a new entry in its virtual circuit table
 - The task of assigning an unused VCI value, e.g. VCI = 5, is performed by the SW



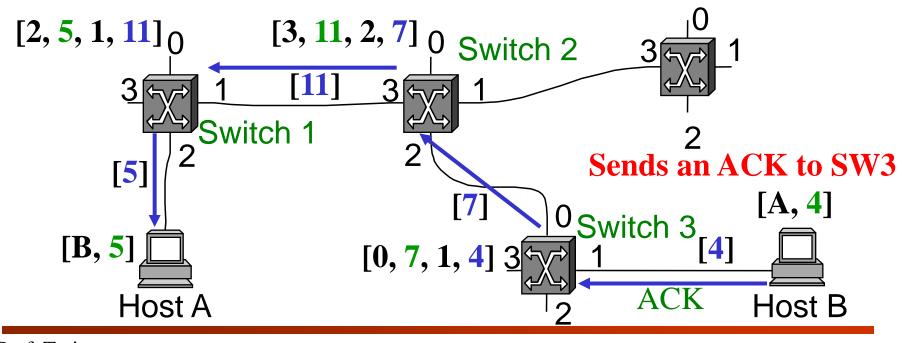
- When SW2 receives the setup message, it performs a similar process, e.g. VCI = 11
- When SW3 receives the setup message, it performs a similar process, e.g. VCI = 7
- Finally, the setup message arrives at host B, and assuming that B is healthy and willing to accept a connection from A
 - It allocates an incoming VCI value, e.g. VCI = 4, used to identify all packets coming from host A



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SW3 creates a new entry

- Host B sends an **acknowledgment** of the connection setup to SW3, including the VCI that it chose (i.e. 4)
- SW3 completes the virtual circuit table entry for this connection, and sends the acknowledgment on to SW2
- Finally, the acknowledgment is passed on to host A



• The outgoing VCI value at one switch is the incoming VCI value at the next switch

Switch 1	Incoming Interface	Incoming VCI	Outgoing Interface	Outgoing VCI	
	2	5	1	11	
Switch 2	Incoming Interface	Incoming VCI	Outgoing Interface	Outgoing VCI	
	3	11	2	7	
Switch 3	Incoming Interface	Incoming VCI	Outgoing Interface	Outgoing VCI	
	0	7	1	4	

For a packet that it wants to send to host B

Host A

- Host A puts the VCI value 5 in the header and sends to SW1
- SW1 uses the combination of the interface and the VCI in the packet header to find the appropriate VC table entry
- SW1 forwards the packet out of interface 1 and to put the VCI value 11 in the packet header

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Host B

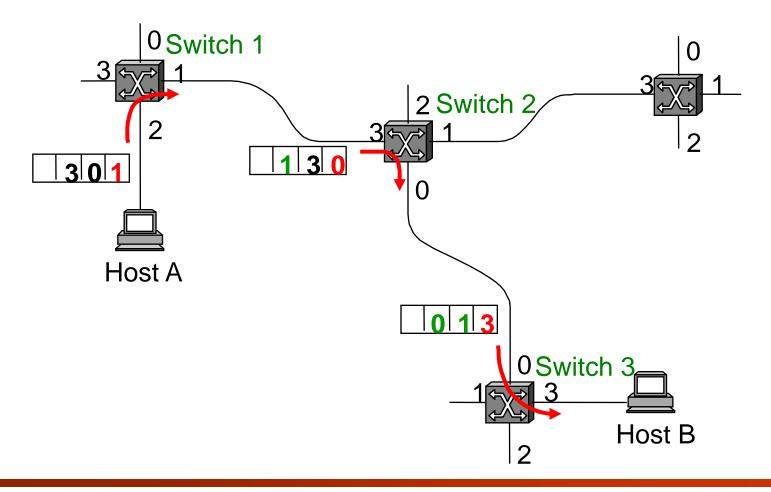
- When host A no longer wants to send data to host B
 - It tears down the connection by sending a teardown message to SW1
 - The SW removes the relevant entry from its table and forwards the message to the other SW in the path
- If host A send a packet with a VCI of 5 to SW1
 - Since the connection does not exist
 - The packet will be dropped

- Things about Virtual Circuit Switching:
 - There is at least one RTT (round-trip time) of delay before data is sent
 - The transmitter has to wait for the VC being set up
 - The per-packet overhead caused by the header is reduced relative to the datagram method
 - The connection request contains a global identifier
 - Each data packet contains only a small identifier
 - If a switch or a link in a connection fails, the connection is broken and needs to be torn down
 - A routing algorithm is required for the connection request

- For VCS, the transmitter knows quite a lot about the network
 - There is a route to the receiver
 - The receiver is willing and able to receive data
 - Resources have been allocated to the VC at the time it is established
- For example, X.25 network employs the three-part strategy:
 - Buffers are allocated to each VC when it is initialized
 - The sliding window protocol is run between each pair of nodes along the VC
 - If not enough buffers are available ⇒ the circuit is rejected

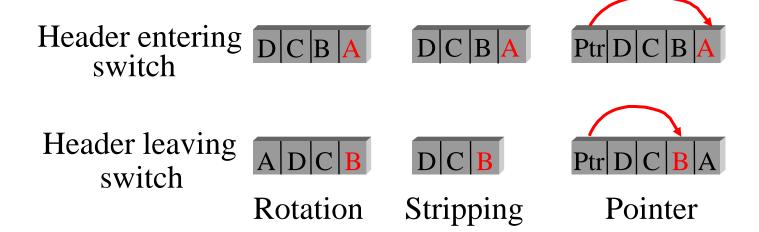
- All the information, about network topology that is required to switch a packet, is provided by the source host
- The output port of each SW is placed in the header of the packet
 - For each packet that arrives on an input, the SW reads the port number in the header and transmits the packet on that output
- The source will put an ordered list of SW ports in the packet header
- Each SW will **rotate** the list for each transmission
 - The next SW in the path is always at the front of the list

• Output port list: [1, 0, 3]



- Things about Source Routing:
 - It assumes that the sending host knows enough information of the right directions in each SW
 - Analogous to the problem of building the forwarding tables in a datagram network
 - The size of the packet header cannot be predicted
 - The headers are probably of **variable length** with no upper bound (depending on the number of SWs)
 - There are some variations on this approach
 - Rather than rotate the header, each SW could just
 strip the first element used in this SW
 - Another alternative is to have a **pointer** to the current "next port" entry

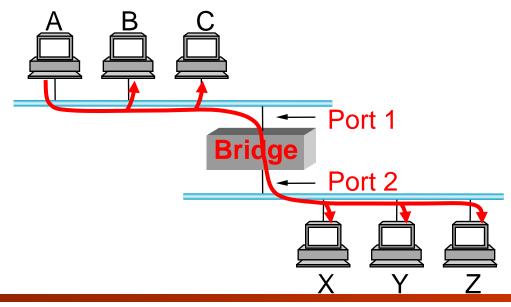
- Rotation has an advantage over stripping:
 - Host B gets a copy of the complete header → the way
 back to host A



Bridges and LAN Switches

Bridge

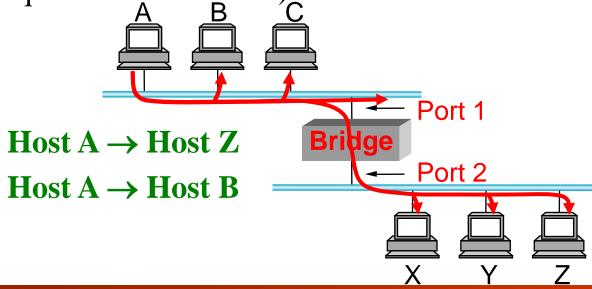
- Bridge: a node put between two Ethernets to interconnect these two networks
- Extended LAN: a collection of LANs connected by one or more bridges
 - Bridges simply accept LAN frames on their inputs and forward them out on all other outputs



Learning Bridges

- The bridge need not forward all frames that it receives
 - For example: the frames from host A to host B
- A bridge should learn on which port the various hosts reside?
 - One option: Manually download a table into the bridge

The datagram model should be applied (global identifier is required for all frames)



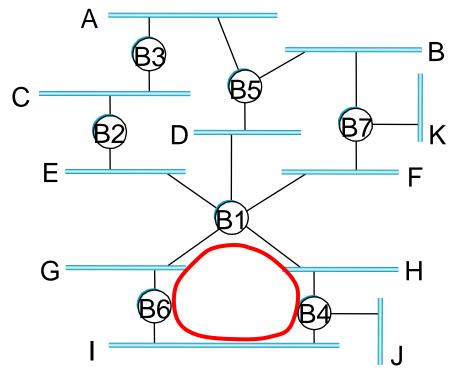
Learning Bridges

- Another option: a bridge learn this information automatically
 - Bridges inspect the **source address** in all received frames
- When host A sends a frame to a host on either side
 - The bridge receives this frame on port 1 and records the fact that host A resides on the side of port 1
 - Then the bridge can build a table
- A timeout is associated with each entry
 - In order to protect against the situation that a host is moved from one network to another
 - The bridge discards the entry after timeout occurs

Host	A	В	С	X	Y	Z
Port	1	1	1	2	2	2

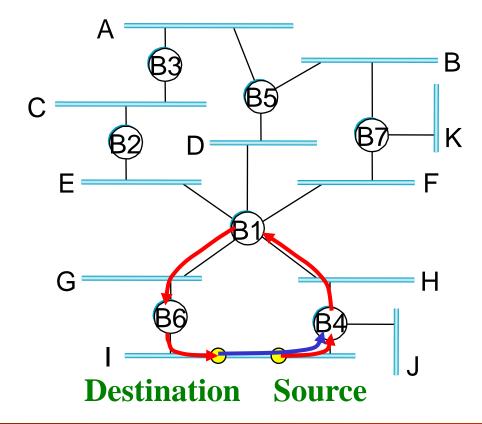
Spanning Tree Algorithm

- The network may be managed by more than one administrator
- No single person knows the entire configuration of the network → a loop might be added without anyone knowing
- Loops may be built into the network on purpose (redundancy)



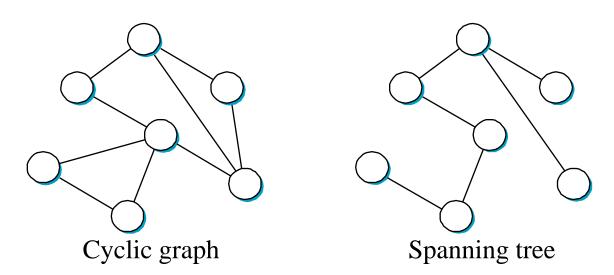
Spanning Tree Algorithm

- If the extended LAN has a loop in it
 - Frames potentially loop through the extended LAN forever

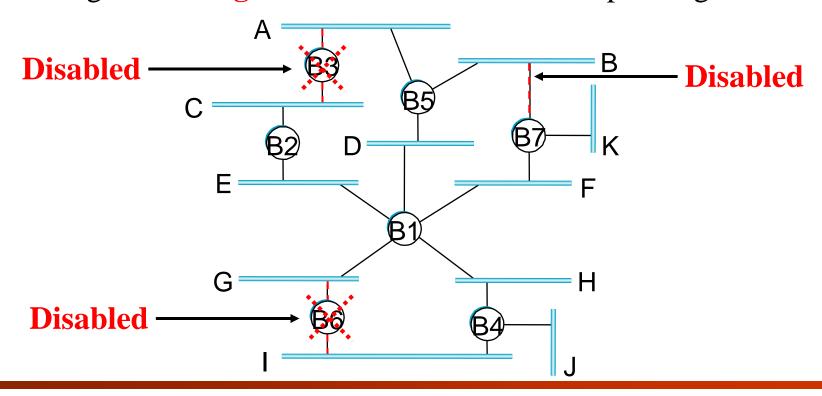


Spanning Tree Algorithm

- Bridges must be able to correctly handle loops
- The bridges must run a distributed spanning tree algorithm
 - A protocol used by a set of bridges to agree upon a particular extended LAN
- A spanning tree is a subgraph of the originally graph that covers (spans) all the vertices, but **contains no cycles**

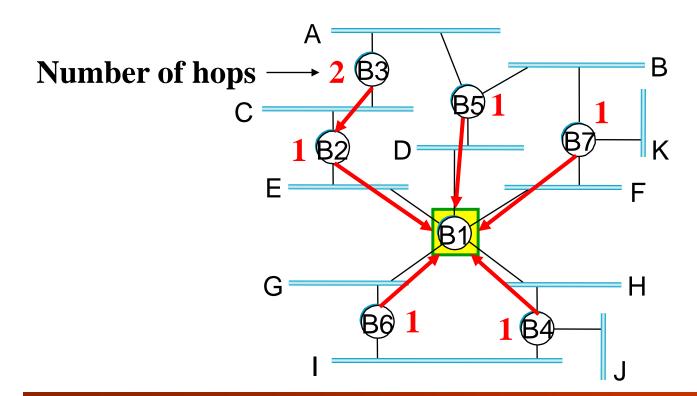


- In practice, this means that each bridge decides the ports over which it is and is not willing to forward frames
- The algorithm is **dynamic**: should some bridges fail, the bridges **reconfigure** themselves into a new spanning tree

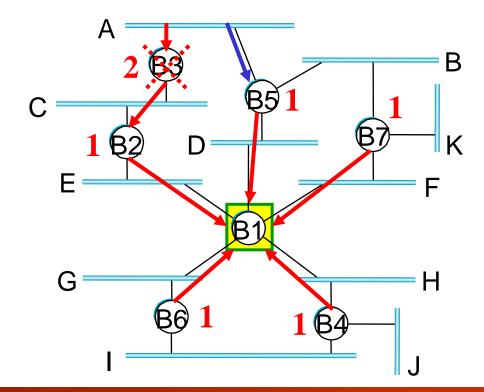


- The main purpose: for bridges to select the ports over which they will forward frames
- Each bridge has a unique identifier
- First elects the bridge with the **smallest ID** as the **root** of the spanning tree
 - The root bridge always forwards frames out over all ports
- Each bridge computes the **shortest path** to the root and notes which of its ports is on this path
- Each LAN select a single designated bridge that will be responsible for forwarding frames toward the root bridge
 - The one that is closest to the root
 - If ties occur, the one with smallest ID is selected

- B1 is the root bridge
- For all bridges, find the **shortest path** to the root

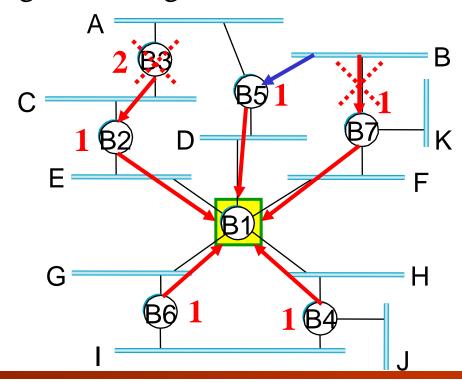


- For LAN A:
 - Two bridges are available: B3 and B5
 - The designated bridge is B5



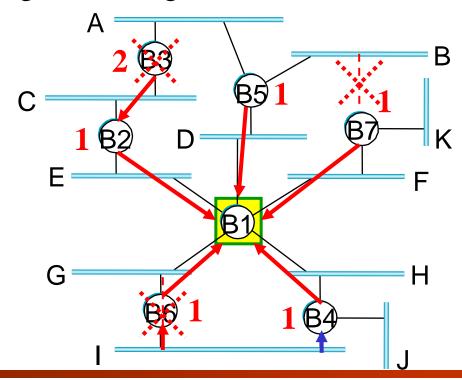
• For LAN B:

- Two bridges are available: B5 and B7
- The distances are Tie
- The designated bridge is B5



• For LAN I:

- Two bridges are available: B4 and B6
- The distances are Tie
- The designated bridge is B4



- The bridges have to exchange configuration messages
 - To decide whether or not they are the root or a designated bridge
- The information contained in the configuration messages is
 - The ID for the bridge that is sending the message
 - The ID for what the sending bridge believes to be the root bridge
 - The distance, measured in hops, from the sending bridge to the root bridge
- Each bridge records the current "best" configuration message it has seen on each of its ports

- Initially, each bridge thinks it is the root, and sends a configuration message identifying itself as the root
- Upon receiving a configuration message over a particular port
 - The bridge checks that if the new message is better than the current recorded best configuration message
- The new configuration message is considered "better" if
 - It identifies a root with a smaller ID, or
 - It identifies a root with an equal ID but with a shorter distance, or
 - The root ID and distance are equal, but the sending bridge has a smaller ID

- If the new message is **better**
 - The bridge discards the old information and saves the new information
 - The bridge adds 1 to the distance-to-root field
- When a bridge receives a configuration message indicating that it is not the root bridge (i.e. a message with a smaller ID)
 - Stops to generate the configuration message on its own
 - Forwards configuration messages from other bridges
- When the system stabilizes, only the **root bridge** is still generating configuration messages

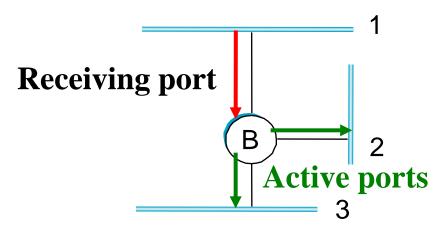
Broadcast and Multicast

Broadcast:

 Each bridge forwards a frame with a destination broadcast address out on each active port other than the one on which the frame was received

Multicast:

- Implemented in exactly the same way
- Each host decides whether or not to accept the message



Limitations of Bridges (Scale)

- Scale Limitation: it is not realistic to connect more than a few (tens of) LANs by means of bridges
 - The spanning tree algorithm scales linearly (bad efficiency)
 - Bridges forward all broadcast frames (heavy traffic load)

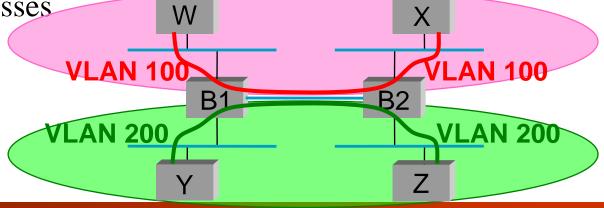
• Reality:

- The broadcast message should be seen only for all hosts
 within a limited setting (e.g. a department or a company)
- All the hosts in a larger environment (e.g. a university)
 will not want to be bothered by each other's broadcast
 messages
- Broadcast does not scale \Rightarrow extended LANs do not scale

Virtual LANs

- VLANs allow a single extended LAN to be partitioned into several seemingly (not practically) separate LANs
 - Each virtual LAN is assigned an identifier
- Packets can only travel from one segment to another if both segments have the same identifier
 - This limits the number of segments that will receive any given broadcast packet

• It can change the logical topology without moving wires or changing addresses



Limitations of Bridges (Heterogeneity)

- Heterogeneity Limitation: Bridges are fairly limited in the kinds of networks they can interconnect
 - Bridges make use of the network's frame header
 - Bridges can support only networks that have exactly the same address format
 - Bridges connect Ethernets to Ethernets, 802.5 to 802.5, and Ethernets to 802.5 rings \Rightarrow 48-bit address format
 - Bridges do not generalize to other kinds of networks,
 such as ATM

Limitations of Bridges

- Advantage of bridges: allow multiple LANs to be transparently connected
 - Networks can be connected without the end hosts having to run any additional protocols
- Disadvantage of bridges: this transparency can be dangerous
 - The application and transport protocol running on a host may be programmed under the assumption of running on a single LAN
 - If a bridge becomes congested, it may have to drop frames
 - It is rare that a single Ethernet drops a frame
 - The latency between any pair of hosts on an extended
 LAN becomes both larger and more highly variable

Cell Switching (ATM)

ATM

- ATM: Asynchronous Transfer Mode
- ATM is a connection-oriented, packet-switched technology
 - It uses virtual circuits
- The QoS capabilities of ATM are one of its greatest strengths
- The ATM packets are of fixed length
 - 53 bytes 5 bytes of header followed by 48 bytes of payload
 - These fixed-length packets are named "cells" ⇒ cell switching

Variable Packet Length

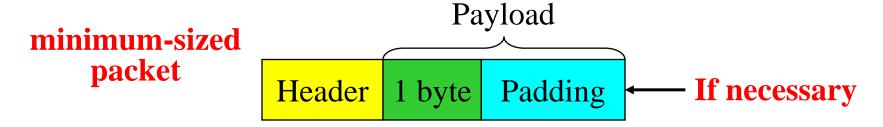
- All the packet-switching technologies have used variablelength packets
 - The variable-length is constrained within some bounds
- If a host only has 1 byte to send
 - Puts the data in a minimum-sized packet
 - Minimizes the extra padding
- If a host has a large file to send
 - Breaks it up into maximum-sized packets
 - Drives down the ratio of header to data bytes ⇒ increases bandwidth efficiency
 - Minimizes the total number of packets sent
- Cells, in contrast, are both fixed in length and small in size

Why fixed-length cells?

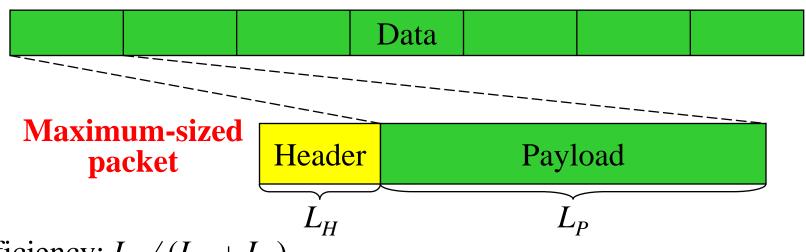
- High speed switching
- Easy and simple
- Parallelization
- Cut-through effect (smaller queueing time for store-and-forward networks)

Variable Packet Length

If a host only has 1 byte to send



• If a host only has a large file to send



Efficiency: $L_P/(L_H+L_P)$

- The reasons of using fixed-length packets are
 - Easy implementation of hardware switches
 - When the length of each packet is fixed and known, the job of processing packets is simpler
 - Enable parallelism, improves the scalability of switch designs
 - Cell switching eases the task of building hardware
 - If all packets are the same length, we can have lots of switching elements all doing the same thing in parallel

- The delay variation is important for some applications
- If the link speed is 100 Mbps and the packet-length is **4KB**
 - Transmission time: $4096 \times 8/100 = 327.68 \mu s$
 - A high-priority packet may need to wait for 327.68 μs
- If the packet-length is 53 byte
 - Transmission time: $53 \times 8/100 = 4.24 \mu s$ (much smaller)
- If the packet-length is too short
 - The amount of header information is fixed
 - The bandwidth efficiency goes down
- If the packet-length is too big
 - Need to pad transmitted data to fill a complete cell
 - Data: 1 byte; Payload size: 48 bytes ⇒ Padding: 47 bytes

- Voice services use 64 kbps PCM (Pulse-Code Modulation)
 - 8-bit samples taken at 8 KHz sampling rate
 - 8-bit: 256 levels are used
 - 8 KHz: voice signal bandwidth is 4 Khz
 - 1 byte is sampled for every 125 μs
- If a cells are **1000 bytes long**, it take 125 ms to collect a full cell before the start of transmission
 - Long latency is noticeable to a human listener
 - Long latency ⇒ Echo ⇒ can be eliminated by an echo
 canceller

Latency ≥ transmit time + propagation delay

• Use a large cell size or a small cell size?

- US telephone companies were pushing for a 64-byte cell size
 - US is a large enough country (large propagation distance ⇒ Long latency), the echo cancellers are needed anyway
 - Larger cell size will improve the header-to-payload ratio
- Europeans were advocating **32-byte** cells
 - Their countries are a small enough size
 - No echo cancellers are needed if the latency is small enough, i.e. the cell size is small enough
- Compromise: Averaging the cell size
 - -(64+32)/2 = 48 bytes

Cell Format

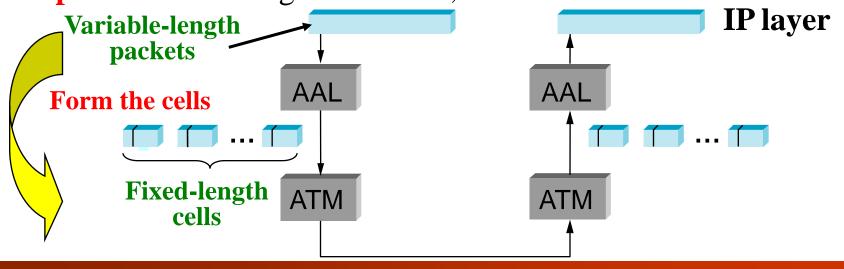
4	8	16	3	1	8	384 (48 bytes)
GFC	VPI	VCI	Туре	CLP	HEC (CRC-8)	Payload

• Two types of cell format:

- **UNI** cell format
- UNI (user-network interface) format: customer-operator
- NNI (network-network interface) format: pair of operators
- NNI format replace the GFC field with 4 extra bits of VPI
- GFC (generic flow control): have local significance at a site
- 8-bit VPI (virtual path identifier) and 16-bit VCI (virtual circuit identifier): 24-bit used to identify a virtual connection
- Type: When the first bit is set ("1") or clear ("0"), the cell relates to management functions or user data, respectively.
- CLP (cell loss priority): set this bit to indicate cells that ← QoS should be dropped preferentially in the event of overload

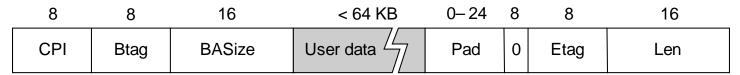
Segmentation and Reassembly (SAR)

- Segmentation (Fragmentation): fragments the high-level message into low-level packets at the source
- Reassembly: reassembles the fragments back together at the destination
- A protocol layer (ATM Adaptation Layer, AAL) was added between ATM and the variable-length packet protocols that might use ATM, such as IP



AAL 3/4

Convergence Sublayer Protocol Data Unit (CS-PDU)



- CPI: commerce part indicator (version field)
- Btag/Etag:beginning and ending tag
- BAsize: hint on amount of buffer space to allocate
- Length: size of whole PDU

Cell Format

 40
 2
 4
 10
 352 (44 bytes)
 6
 10

 ATM header
 Type
 SEQ
 MID
 Payload
 Length
 CRC-10

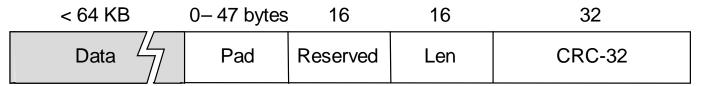
- Type
 - BOM: beginning of message
 - COM: continuation of message
 - EOM end of message
- SEQ: sequence of number
- MID: message id
- Length: number of bytes of PDU in this cell

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AAL5

CS-PDU Format



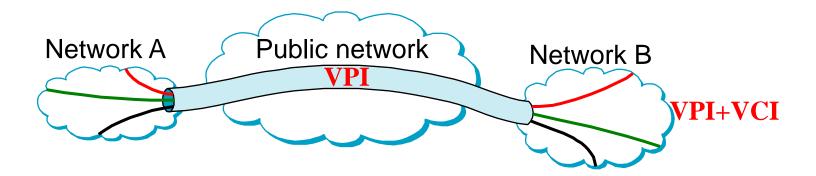
- pad so trailer always falls at end of ATM cell
- Length: size of PDU (data only)
- CRC-32 (detects missing or misordered cells)
- Cell Format
 - end-of-PDU bit in Type field of ATM header

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Virtual Paths

- The switch in the public network would use the VPI to make forwarding decisions
 - A virtual circuit network with 8-bit circuit identifiers
- The 16-bit VCI is of no interest to these public switches
 - Not used for switching in the public network
- The virtual path acts like a fat pipe that contains a bundle of virtual circuits



Physical Layers for ATM

- ATM can run over several different physical media and physical-layer protocols
 - ATM-over SONET
 - Wireless ATM

ATM in LAN

• ATM is a switching technology, whereas Ethernet and 802.5 are shared-media technologies

