CHAPTER 8: Switching

Solutions to Review Questions

Review Questions

- 1. **TSI** (time-slot interchange) is the most popular technology in a time-division switch. It used random access memory (RAM) with several memory locations. The RAM fills up with incoming data from time slots in the order received. Slots are then sent out in an order based on the decisions of a control unit.
- 2. In a *space-division* switch, the path from one device to another is spatially separate from other paths. The inputs and the outputs are connected using a grid of electronic microswitches. In a *time-division* switch, the inputs are divided in time using TDM. A control unit sends the input to the correct output device.
- 3. There are two approaches to packet switching: datagram approach and virtualcircuit approach.
- 4. In a *circuit-switched network*, data are not packetized; data flow is somehow a continuation of bits that travel the same channel during the data transfer phase. In a *packet-switched network* data are packetized; each packet is somehow an independent entity with its local or global addressing information.
- 5. The three traditional switching methods are circuit switching, packet switching, and message switching. The most common today are circuit switching and packet switching.
- 6. The address field defines the *virtual circuit number* (local) addressing.
- 7. The address field defines the *end-to-end* (source to destination) addressing.
- 8. **Switching** provides a practical solution to the problem of connecting multiple devices in a network. It is more practical than using a bus topology; it is more efficient than using a star topology and a central hub. Switches are devices capable of creating temporary connections between two or more devices linked to the switch.
- 9. In multistage switching, *blocking* refers to times when one input cannot be connected to an output because there is no path available between them—all the possible intermediate switches are occupied. One solution to blocking is to increase the number of intermediate switches based on the Clos criteria.

10. A packet switch has four components: input ports, output ports, the routing processor, and the switching fabric. An input port performs the physical and data link functions of the packet switch. The output port performs the same functions as the input port, but in the reverse order. The routing processor performs the function of table lookup in the network layer. The switching fabric is responsible for moving the packet from the input queue to the output queue.

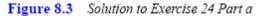
Exercises

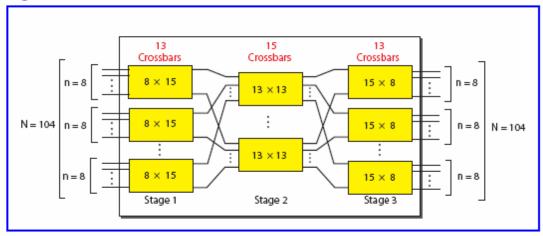
- 12. When a packet arrives at a router in a *datagram* network, the only information in the packet that can help the router in its routing is the *destination address* of the packet. The table then is sorted to make the searching faster. Today's routers use some sophisticated searching techniques. When a packet arrives at a switch in a *virtual-circuit* network, the pair (*input port, input VCI*) can uniquely determined how the packet is to be routed; the pair is the only two pieces of information in the packet that is used for routing. The table in the virtual-circuit switch is sorted based on the this pair. However, since the number of port numbers is normally much smaller than the number of virtual circuits assigned to each port, sorting is done in two steps: first according to the input port number and second according to the input VCI.
- 13. A *datagram* or *virtual-circuit* network handles packetized data. For each packet, the switch needs to consult its table to find the output port in the case of a datagram network, and to find the combination of the output port and the virtual circuit identifier in the case of a virtual-circuit network. In a *circuit-switched* network, data are not packetized; no routing information is carried with the data. The whole path is established during the setup phase.
- 14. According to Clos, $n = (N/2)_{1/2} = 7.07$. We can choose n = 8. The number of crossbars in the first stage can be 13 (to have similar crossbars). Some of the input lines can be left unused. We then have k = 2n 1 = 15. Figure 8.3 shows the configuration.

We can calculate the total number of crosspoints as

$$13(8 \times 15) + 15(13 \times 13) + 13(15 \times 8) = 5655$$

The number of crosspoints is still much less than the case with one crossbar (10,000). We can see that there is no blocking involved because each 8 input line has 15 intermediate crossbars. The total number of crosspoints here is a little greater than the minimum number of crosspoints according to Clos using the formula $4N[(2N)_{1/2}-1]$, which is 5257.





15.

- a. If n > k, an $n \times k$ crossbar is like a *multiplexer* that combines n inputs into k outputs. However, we need to know that a regular multiplexer discussed in Chapter 6 is $n \times 1$.
- b. If n < k, an $n \times k$ crossbar is like a *demultiplexer* that divides n inputs into k outputs. However, we need to know that a regular demultiplexer discussed in Chapter 6 is $1 \times n$.
- a. In a *circuit-switched* network, end-to-end addressing is needed during the setup and teardown phase to create a connection for the whole data transfer phase. After the connection is made, the data flow travels through the already-reserved resources. The switches remain connected for the entire duration of the data transfer; there is no need for further addressing.
- b. In a *datagram network*, each packet is independent. The routing of a packet is done for each individual packet. Each packet, therefore, needs to carry an endto-end address. There is no setup and teardown phases in a datagram network (connectionless transmission). The entries in the routing table are somehow permanent and made by other processes such as routing protocols.

First: $(3200 \text{ Km}) / (2 \times 10_8 \text{ m/s}) + (3 + 20 + 20) = 59.0 \text{ ms}$

Second: $(11700 \text{ Km}) / (2 \times 10_8 \text{ m/s}) + (3 + 10 + 20) = 91.5 \text{ ms}$

Third: $(12200 \text{ Km}) / (2 \times 10_8 \text{ m/s}) + (3 + 10 + 20 + 20) = 114.0 \text{ ms}$

Fourth: $(10200 \text{ Km}) / (2 \times 10_8 \text{ m/s}) + (3 + 7 + 20) = 81.0 \text{ ms}$

Fifth: $(10700 \text{ Km}) / (2 \times 108 \text{ m/s}) + (3 + 7 + 20 + 20) = 103.5 \text{ ms}$

c. In a *virtual-circuit* network, there is a need for end-to-end addressing during the setup and teardown phases to make the corresponding entry in the switching table. The entry is made for each request for connection. During the data transfer phase, each packet needs to carry a virtual-circuit identifier to show which virtual-circuit that particular packet follows.

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Packet 1: 2 Packet 2: 3 Packet 3: 3 Packet 4: 2

- 18. The switching or routing in a *datagram network* is based on the final destination address, which is global. The minimum number of entries is two; one for the final destination and one for the output port. Here the input port, from which the packet has arrived is irrelevant. The switching or routing in a *virtual-circuit* network is based on the virtual circuit identifier, which has a local jurisdiction. This means that two different input or output ports may use the same virtual circuit number. Therefore, four pieces of information are required: input port, input virtual circuit number, output port, and output virtual circuit number.
- 20. In *circuit-switched* and *virtual-circuit* networks, we are dealing with connections. A connection needs to be made before the data transfer can take place. In the case of a circuit-switched network, a physical connection is established during the setup phase and the is broken during the teardown phase. In the case of a virtual-circuit network, a virtual connection is made during setup and is broken during the teardown phase; the connection is virtual, because it is an entry in the table. These two types of networks are considered *connection-oriented*. In the case of a *datagram* network no connection is made. Any time a switch in this type of network receives a packet, it consults its table for routing information. This type of network is considered a *connectionless* network.

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- a. In a *datagram* network, the destination addresses are unique. They cannot be duplicated in the routing table.
- b. In a *virtual-circuit* network, the VCIs are local. A VCI is unique only in relationship to a port. In other words, the (port, VCI) combination is unique. This means that we can have two entries with the same input or output ports. We can have two entries with the same VCIs. However, we cannot have two entries with the same (port, VCI) pair.

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Packet 1: 2, 70 Packet 2: 1, 45 Packet 3: 3, 11 Packet 4: 4, 41