



2. Modelling of telecommunication systems (part 1)

lect02.ppt

S-38.145 - Introduction to Teletraffic Theory - Fall 2000

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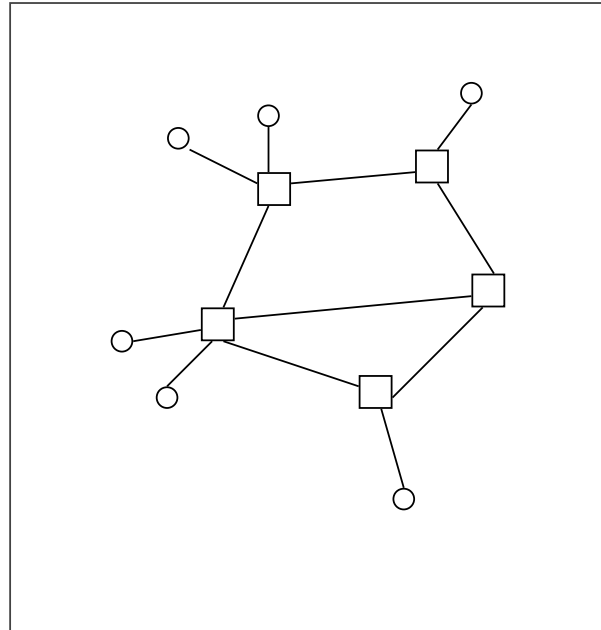
2. Modelling of telecommunication systems (part 1)

Contents

- Telecommunication networks
- Network level: switching and routing
- Link level: multiplexing and concentration
- Shared media: multiple access

Telecommunication network

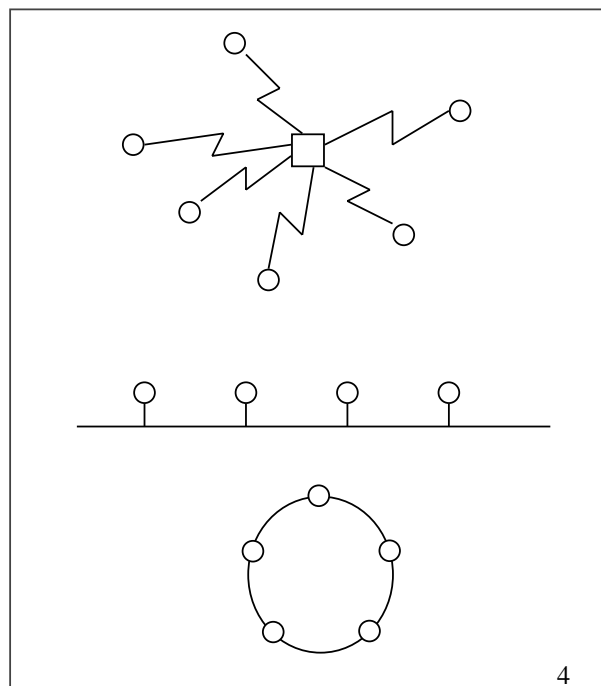
- A simple model of a telecommunication network consists of
 - **nodes**
 - terminals ○
 - network nodes □
 - **links** between nodes
- **Access network**
 - connects the terminals to the network nodes
- **Trunk network**
 - connects the network nodes to each other



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Shared medium as an access network

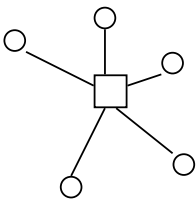
- In the previous model,
 - connections between terminals and network nodes are **point-to-point** type (\Rightarrow no resource sharing within the access netw.)
- In some cases, such as
 - mobile telephone network
 - local area network (LAN) connecting computers
 the access network consists of **shared medium**:
 - users have to **compete** for the resources of this shared medium
 - **multiple access (MA)** techniques are needed



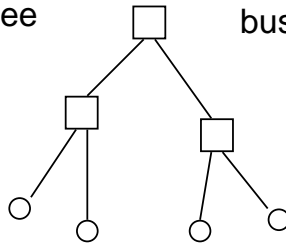
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Network topologies

star



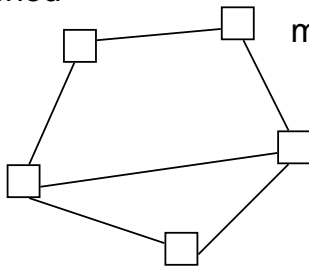
tree



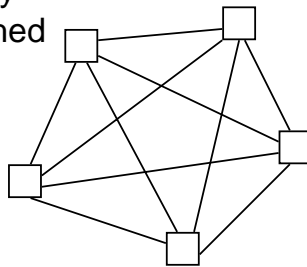
bus



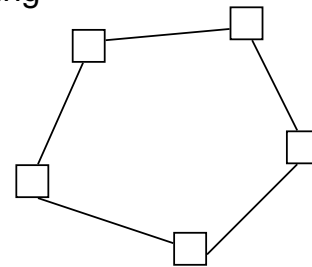
meshed



fully meshed



ring



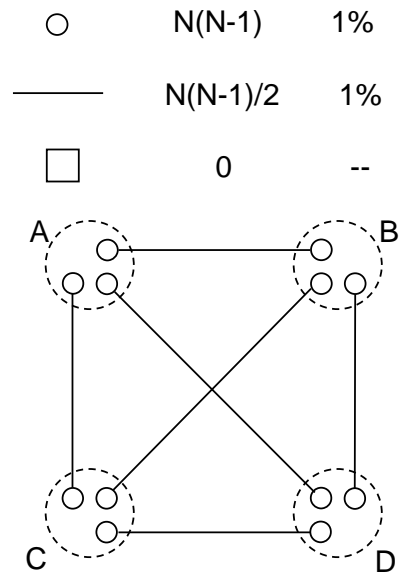
Network hierarchy

- Networks typically constructed level-by-level
- Relations to network topology
 - flat topologies (topology within one level)
 - hierarchial topologies
- One natural hierarchy:
 - access vs. trunk network
- Traditionally:
 - many hierarchial levels (5 in AT&T)
- Current tendency:
 - to reduce the number of levels in hierarchy
 - “We see future large national networks with only three levels.”

Example: Why networks? (1)

- Assume that
 - there are $N = 100$ persons who want to be connected with each other
- Solution 1:
 - **Separate networks**
 - point-to-point links with separate terminals for each user pair
 - no switches
 - no resource sharing
 - very low utilization

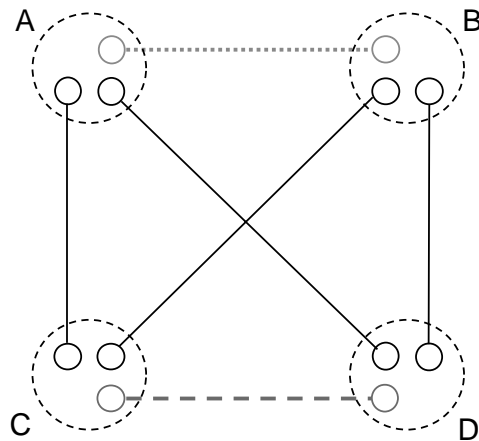
Resource	Number	Max. Util.
○	$N(N-1)$	1%
—	$N(N-1)/2$	1%
□	0	--



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Example: Why networks? (2)

- Simultaneous connections A-B and C-D in solution 1



Example: Why networks? (3)

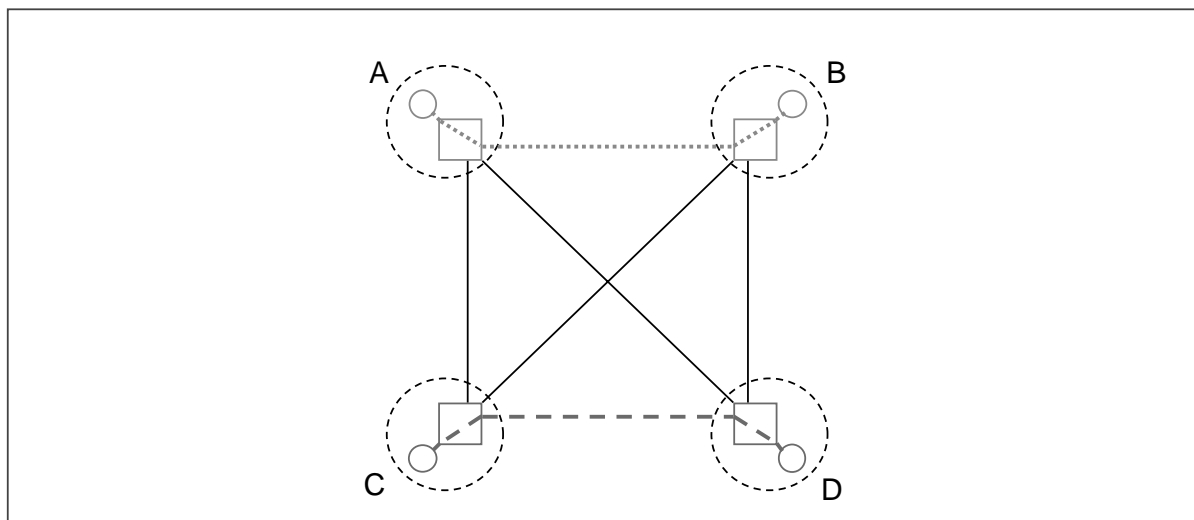
- Still assume that
 - there are $N = 100$ persons who want to be connected with each other
- Solution 2:
 - Fully meshed network**
 - one terminal per user
 - one $1 \times (N-1)$ switch per user
 - point-to-point links for each switch pair
 - partial resource sharing
 - better utilization

Resource	Number	Max. Util.
○	N	100%
—	$N(N-1)/2$	1%
□	N	100%

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Example: Why networks? (4)

- Simultaneous connections A-B and C-D in solution 2



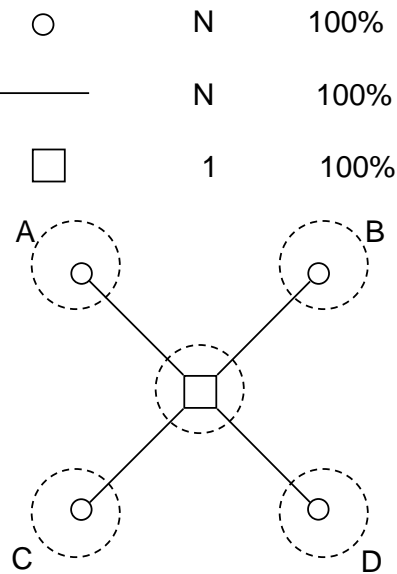
Example: Why networks? (5)

- Still assume that
 - there are $N = 100$ persons who want to be connected with each other
- Solution 3:

Star network

 - one terminal per user
 - just one $N \times N$ switch for the whole network
 - $N \times N$ switch can be implemented with $N/2$ parallel $N \times 1/1 \times N$ switch pairs
 - complete resource sharing
 - best utilization

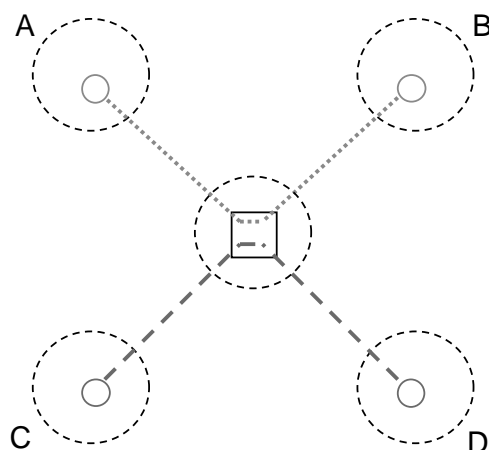
Resource	Number	Max. Util.
○	N	100%
—	N	100%
□	1	100%



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Example: Why networks? (6)

- Simultaneous connections A-B and C-D in solution 3



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Contents

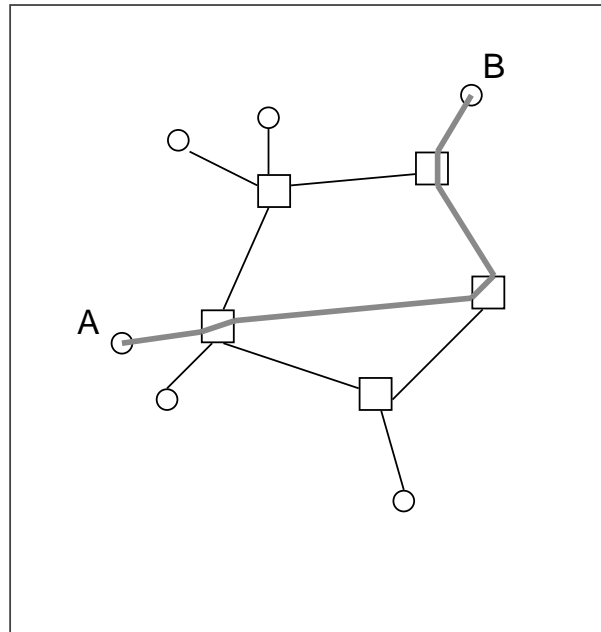
- Telecommunication networks
- Network level: switching and routing
- Link level: multiplexing and concentration
- Shared media: multiple access

Switching modes

- **Circuit switching**
 - telephone networks
 - mobile telephone networks
 - even applied to data networks
- **Packet switching**
 - data networks
 - two possibilities
 - **connection oriented**: e.g. X.25, Frame Relay
 - **connectionless**: e.g. Internet (IP), SS7 (MTP)
- **Cell switching**
 - fast packet switching with fixed length packets (cells): ATM
 - integration of different traffic types (voice, data, video)
⇒ multiservice networks

Circuit switching (1)

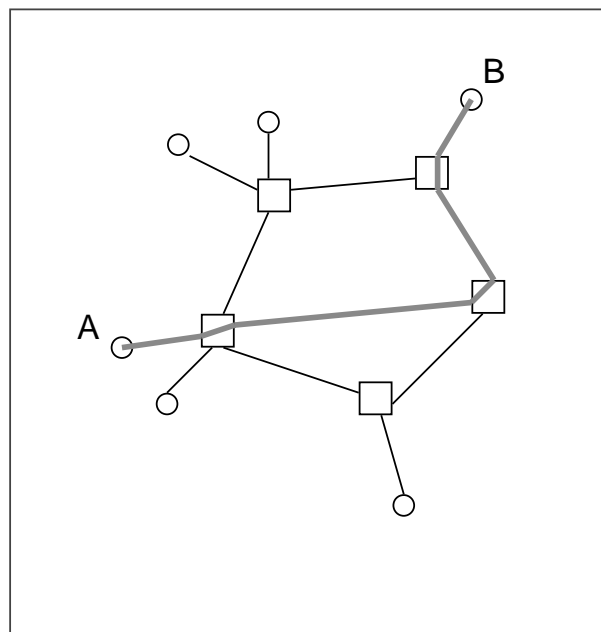
- **Connection oriented:**
 - connections **set up** end-to-end before information transfer
 - resources **reserved** for the whole duration of connection
- Information transfer as **continuous stream**



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Circuit switching (2)

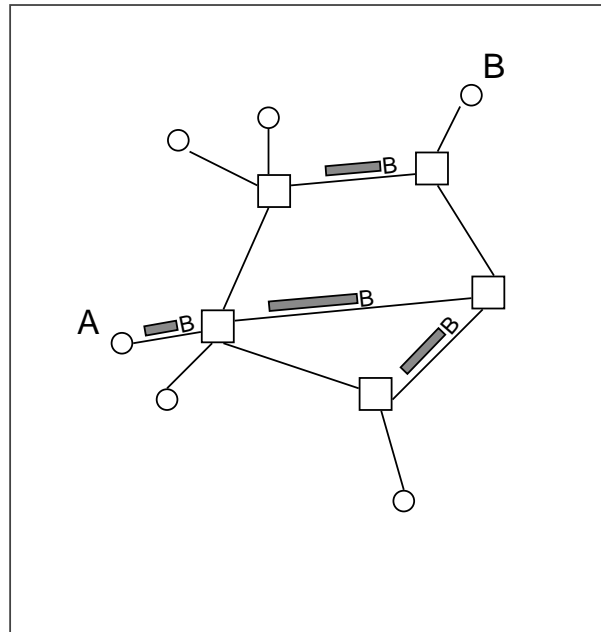
- Before information transfer
 - delay (to set up the connection)
- During information transfer
 - no overhead
 - no extra delays



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Connectionless packet switching (1)

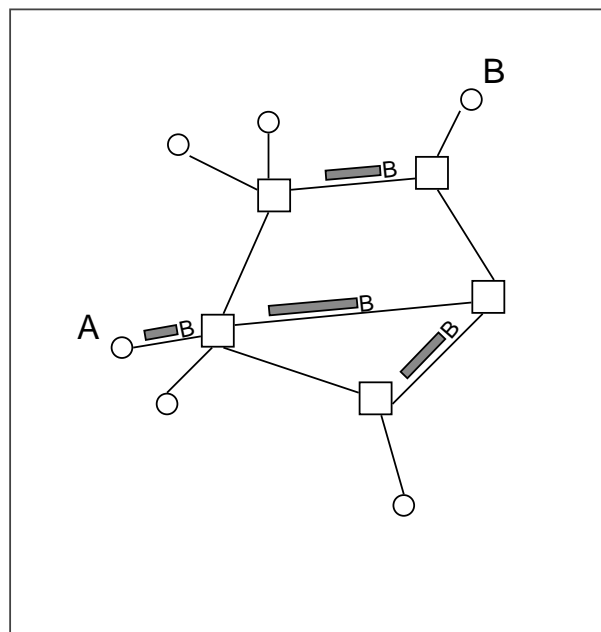
- **Connectionless:**
 - no connection set-up
 - no resource reservation
- Information transfer as **discrete packets**
 - varying length
 - global address (of the destination)



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Connectionless packet switching (2)

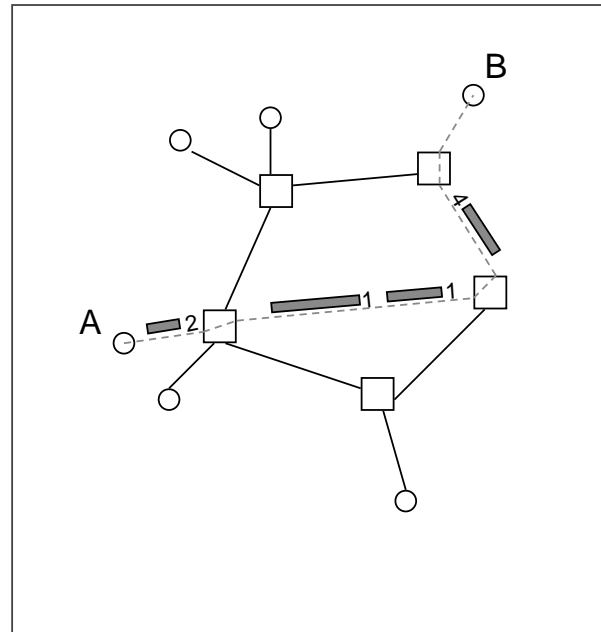
- Before information transfer
 - no delays
- During information transfer
 - overhead (header bytes)
 - packet processing delays
 - queueing delays (since packets compete for joint resources)



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Connection oriented packet switching (1)

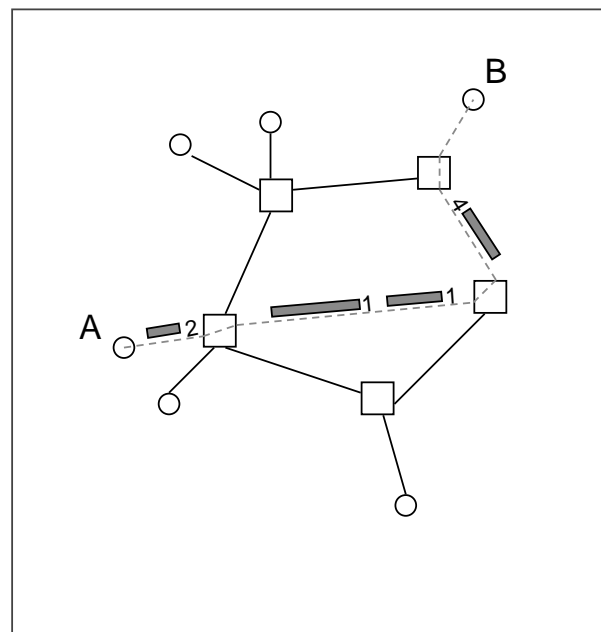
- **Connection oriented:**
 - virtual connections **set up** end-to-end before information transfer
 - no resource reservation
- Information transfer as **discrete packets**
 - varying length
 - local address (logical channel index)



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Connection oriented packet switching (2)

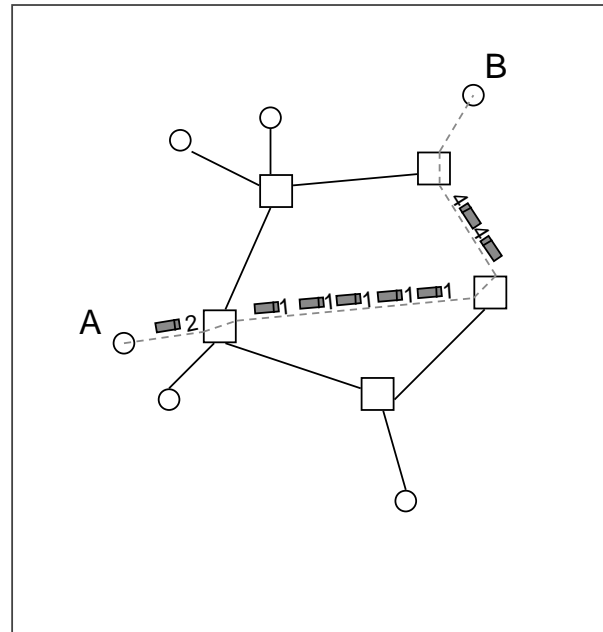
- Before information transfer
 - delay (to set up the virtual connection)
- During information transfer
 - overhead (however, less than in connectionless mode)
 - packet processing delays (less, due to the shorter address)
 - queueing delays (since packets compete for joint resources)



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Cell switching (1)

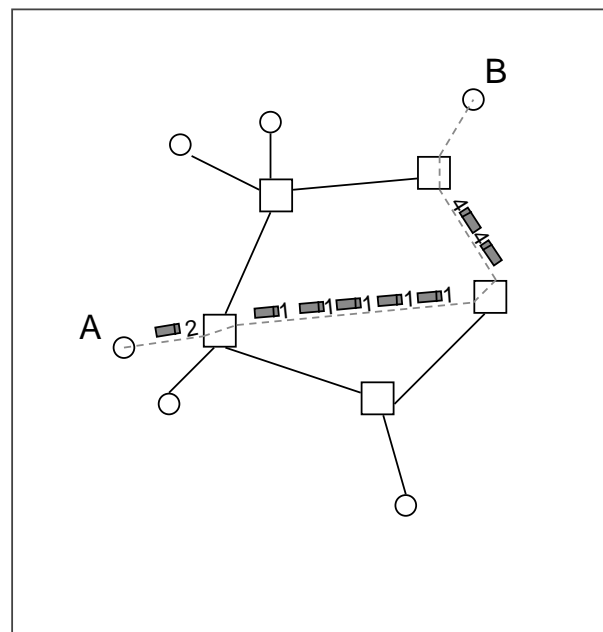
- **Connection oriented:**
 - virtual connections **set up** end-to-end before information transfer
 - resource reservation possible but not mandatory
- Information transfer as **discrete packets (cells)**
 - fixed (small) length
 - local address



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Cell switching (2)

- Before information transfer
 - delay (to set up the connection)
- During information transfer
 - overhead (per packet even more than in connectionless mode)
 - packet processing delays (less, due to the shorter address and the fixed length of cells)
 - queueing delays (if resources not reserved beforehand)



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Switching modes: summary

- **Circuit switching**
 - suitable for real-time traffic (voice, RT-video, ...)
 - inefficient for VBR traffic and data
 - transparent but inflexible
- **Cell switching**
 - quite flexible
 - efficient use of network resources
 - seq. integrity guaranteed
 - real-time guarantees possible
 - possible to integrate different traffic types
- **Connection oriented packet switching**
 - quite flexible
 - efficient use of network resources
 - seq. integrity guaranteed
 - no real-time guarantees
- **Connectionless packet switching**
 - flexible and fault tolerant
 - efficient use of network resources
 - seq. integrity not guaranteed
 - no real-time guarantees

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Routing methods in telephone networks

- **Fixed**
 - no alternative routes
- **Hierarchic**
 - traditionally used in telephone networks
 - alternative routes searched in a fixed order
- **Dynamic (non-hierarchic)**
 - time-dependent (dynamic) routing tables
 - AT&T has shown some 15% improvement with routing performance with DNHR (dynamic non-hierarchical routing)
- **Adaptive (non-hierarchic)**
 - state-dependent (adaptive) call-by-call routing decisions
 - AT&T's next generation: RTNR (real-time network routing)
 - Another adaptive method: DAR (dynamic alternative routing) by BT

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Analogue vs. digital systems (1)

- Originally telecommunication networks (i.e. telephone networks) were purely analogical
 - First: digital trunks between exchanges
 - Then: digital exchanges
 - In the current telephone network, the telephone itself and the access line are still based on the analogue technology
 - ISDN and GSM are the first completely digital telephone networks (including the terminals and the access part)
- Packet switched networks have always been completely digital
 - e.g. LANs
- Cell switched networks (ATM) are also completely digital

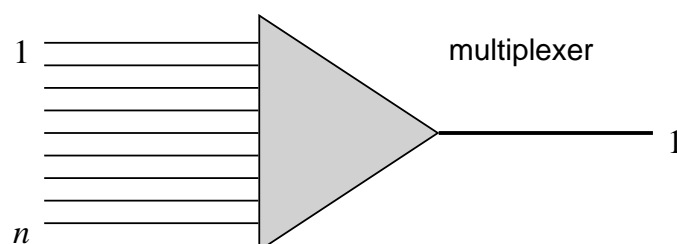
Analogue vs. digital systems (2)

- Analogue circuit switched system:
 - one connection occupies a single one or a multiple of channels
 - link capacity expressed in number of channels
- Digital circuit switched system:
 - one connection occupies a single one or a multiple of channels
 - channel capacity expressed in bits per second (bps, kbps, Mbps, ...)
 - typically: 64 kbps
 - link capacity expressed either in number of channels or in bits per second (being then a multiple of the channel capacity)
- Digital packet/cell switched system:
 - link capacity occupied dynamically on-demand
 - capacity demand (of a connection) expressed in bits per second
 - link capacity expressed in bits per second

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Transmission: multiplexing (1)

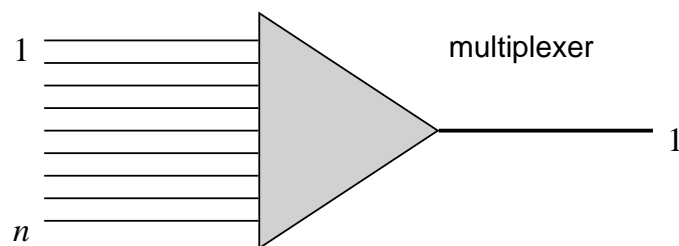
- Originally,
 - each connection in a telephone network required its own physical link
- By multiplexing,
 - the capacity of a single physical link is divided into multiple channels
 - each connection typically occupies one channel
 - thus, multiple connections can be conveyed by a single link
- The device implementing this is called a **multiplexer**



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Transmission: multiplexing (2)

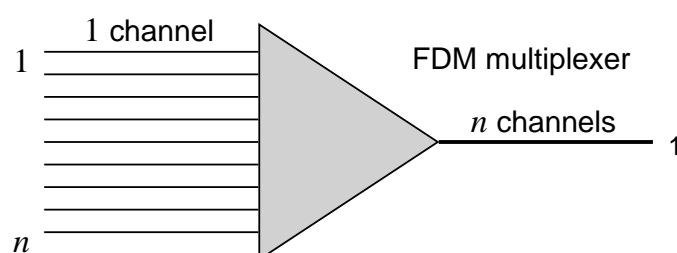
- In circuit switched networks, there are two different multiplexing techniques:
 - frequency division multiplexing (FDM)
 - time division multiplexing (TDM)
- In packet switched networks, there is just
 - statistical multiplexing



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Frequency division multiplexing (FDM)

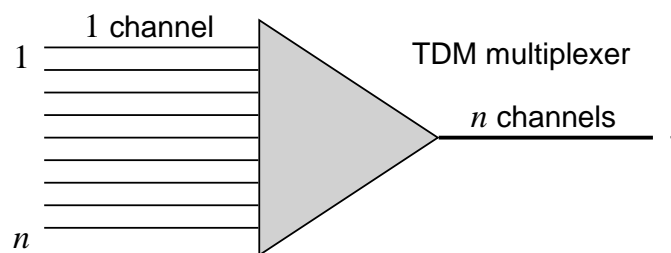
- FDM
 - oldest multiplexing technique
 - used in analogue circuit switched systems
 - fixed portion (frequency band) of the link bandwidth reserved for each channel
- FDM multiplexer is lossless
 - input: n 1-channel physical connections
 - output: 1 n -channel physical connection



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Time division multiplexing (TDM)

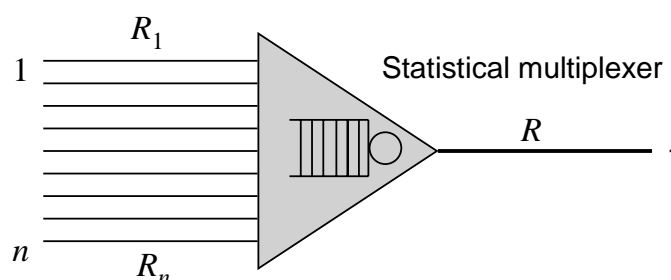
- TDM
 - used in digital circuit switched systems
 - information conveyed on a link transferred in **frames** of fixed length
 - fixed portion (time slot) of each frame reserved for each channel
- TDM multiplexer is lossless
 - input: n 1-channel physical connections
 - output: 1 n -channel physical connection



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Statistical multiplexing

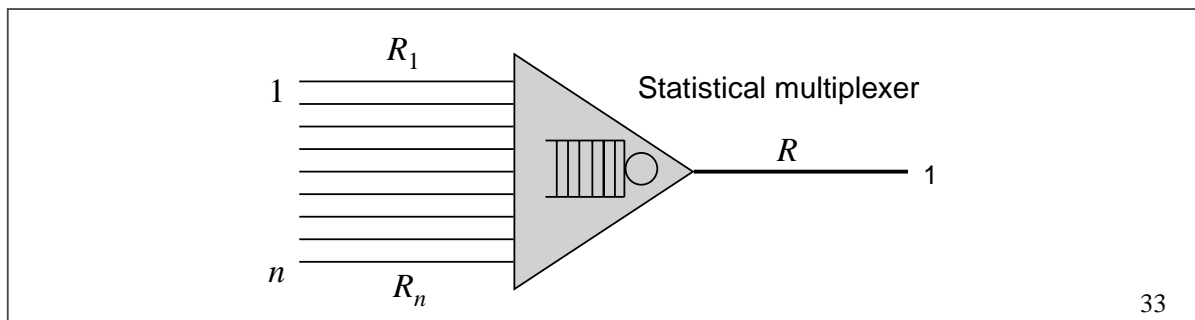
- Statistical multiplexing
 - used in digital packet/cell switched systems (e.g. Internet, ATM, ...)
 - information transferred in packets of varying or fixed length
 - each packet belongs to exactly one connection
 - packet header includes the connection identifier
 - link capacity reserved dynamically and asynchronously as packets arrive
⇒ need for buffering



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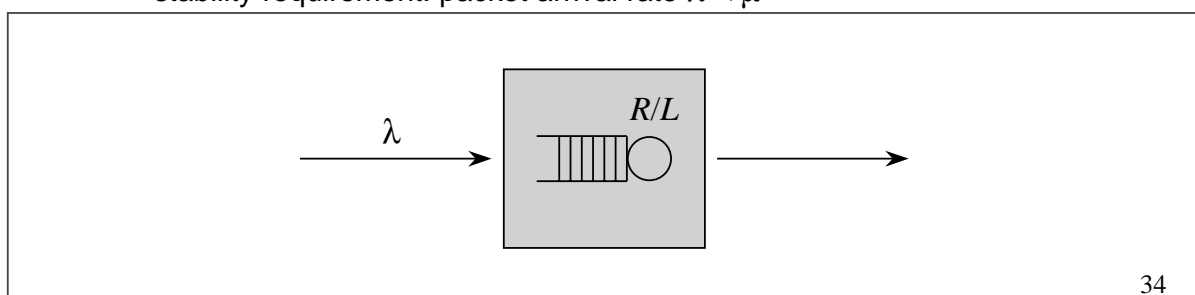
Statistical multiplexer

- Statistical multiplexer is (typically) lossy
 - input: n physical connections with link speeds R_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$)
 - output: 1 physical connection with link speed $R \leq R_1 + \dots + R_n$
- However, the loss probability can be decreased by enlarging the buffer
 - with an “infinite” buffer, it is enough that R exceeds the average aggregated input rate



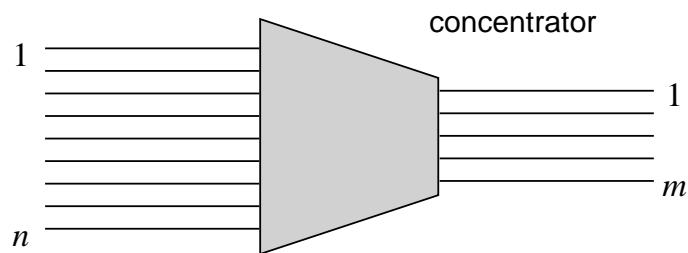
Teletraffic model for a statistical multiplexer

- Multiplexer can be modelled as
 - a pure waiting system (as below) if the buffer is large
 - a mixed system if the buffer is small
- Traffic consists of packets
 - each packet is transmitted with the full link speed R
 - let L denote the average packet length
 - packet service rate μ will be $\mu = R/L$
 - stability requirement: packet arrival rate $\lambda < \mu$



Transmission: concentration

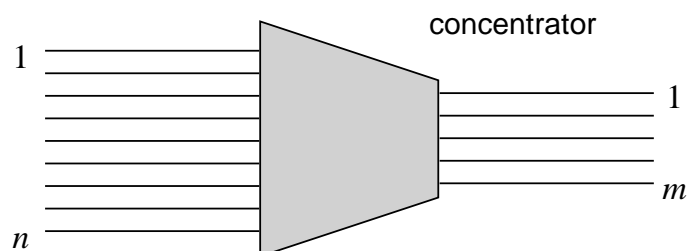
- Concentration
 - used in circuit switched systems (analogue/digital)
 - typically in the access network part for economical reasons
 - however, switches are also (implicitly) concentrators
- In concentration,
 - traffic (= connections) from n 1-channel links is concentrated on a single m -channel link, where $m < n$
 - Idea: the probability that all n connections are active is typically very small



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Concentrator

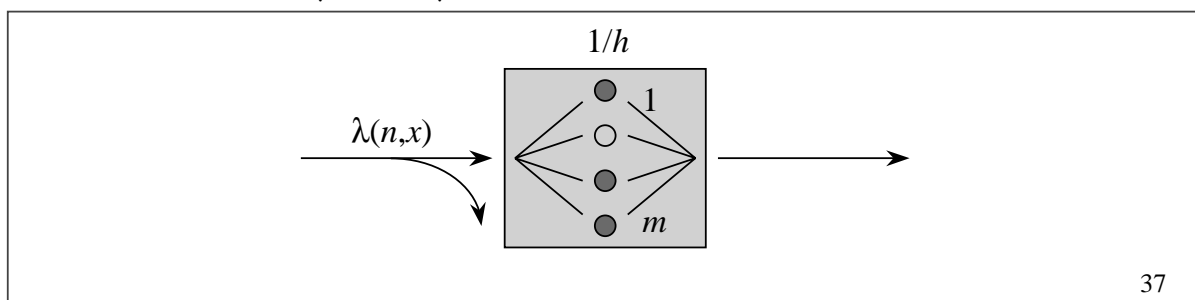
- Concentrator is lossy
 - input: n 1-channel physical connections
 - output: 1 m -channel physical connection with $m < n$
- Outgoing link should be dimensioned (i.e. m should be chosen) so that
 - the call blocking probability (that all m channels are occupied when a new call arrives) is small enough
 - In other words: the quality of service requirement should be fulfilled



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Teletraffic model for a concentrator

- Concentrator can be modelled as
 - a pure loss system (as below) with m parallel servers
- Traffic consists of connections
 - traffic generated by a **finite** number (n) of sources
 - ⇒ arrival rate λ is not constant but depends on the total number of sources (n) and the number of active sources (x): $\lambda = \lambda(n, x)$
 - let h denote the average connection holding time
 - service rate μ will be $\mu = 1/h$



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Multiple access techniques used in mobile telephone networks

- Mobile telephone networks are geographically divided into cells
 - Each cell has its own base station
- The radio frequency band reserved for the network access (within a cell) is divided into channels
 - The users (located in that cell) compete for these channels
- Dynamic channel assignment is made
 - **centralized** by the base station
- Various multiple access methods:
 - **frequency division multiple access (FDMA)**
 - **time division multiple access (TDMA)**
 - **code division multiple access (CDMA)**

FDMA and TDMA

- Frequency division multiple access (FDMA)
 - used in analogue mobile networks, e.g. NMT
 - radio frequency band reserved for the network divided into subbands (channels)
 - each connection occupies one channel
 - thus, simultaneous connections use separate frequency (sub)bands
- Time division multiple access (TDMA)
 - used in digital mobile networks, e.g. GSM
 - information transferred in frames of fixed length
 - fixed portion (time slot) of each frame reserved for each channel
 - each connection occupies one channel
 - thus, simultaneous connections use the same frequency band
 - utilization of the frequency band better than in FDMA

CDMA

- Code division multiple access (CDMA)
 - used in digital mobile networks, e.g. IS-95 (USA)
 - information coded before transfer in such a way that simultaneous transmissions do not interfere (too much)
 - each code corresponds to a channel
 - thus, simultaneous connections use the same frequency band
 - in general, the utilization of the frequency band is better than in TDMA
 - however, the notion “system capacity” in CDMA is elastic (contrary to FDMA and TDMA):
 - the more codes (channels), the greater the interference!

Teletraffic modelling of various multiple access techniques

- All multiple access techniques mentioned above (FDMA, TDMA and CDMA) can be modelled as a pure loss system
- Traffic consists of calls
 - calls either **fresh** or **handovers**
 - fresh calls may arrive according to a Poisson process, but is it so with the handovers?
 - due to handovers, call holding time is now different from conversation holding time
 - one more new feature: **mobility modelling**
- System capacity (that is, the number of parallel channels) depends on
 - the width of the frequency band reserved for the network
 - the multiple access technique used
- In CDMA, the system capacity depends additionally on
 - the allowed level of interference (that is, on the required quality of service)

Multiple access techniques in computer LANs

- A computer LAN (local area network) transfers packets between any stations connected to this LAN
 - The stations compete for this joint transmission medium
- Dynamic channel assignment is made
 - in a fully **distributed** manner by the stations themselves
- Various multiple access methods:
 - **Random Access**
 - ALOHA, Slotted ALOHA (originally in satellite links)
 - **Carrier Sense Multiple Access / Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)**
 - Ethernet, IEEE 802.3
 - **Token Bus**
 - IEEE 802.4
 - **Token Ring**
 - IEEE 802.5

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Random Access

- Stations transmit packets totally independently of each other as soon as new packets arrive
 - no prior actions to avoid collisions
 - theoretical maximum for the throughput is less than 20% of the LAN speed
- Assuming a fixed packet length,
 - a slotted system (slot = transmission time of a packet) doubles the theoretical maximum throughput

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Analysis of ALOHA (1)

- (1) Assume that
 - the stations generate fixed length packets according to a Poisson process with intensity ν
 - the packets are retransmitted until they reach without any collisions the destination
- Let T denote
 - the time needed to transmit a packet (stability requirement: $\nu < 1/T$)
- Two packets **collide** with each other
 - if and only if their interarrival time is $< T$
 - Collided packets are retransmitted after a random interval
- (2) Assume further that
 - the aggregate packet stream (including all the transmitted and retransmitted packets) still obeys a Poisson process (which is certainly not true) but with a higher intensity λ such that $\lambda < 1/T$

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Analysis of ALOHA (2)

- Consider a station where a new packet arrives at time 0
 - No collisions during the transmission $(0, +T)$ time if and only if no other packet arrivals (to any station) between time interval $(-T, +T)$
 - Due to assumption (2), this happens with probability $\exp(-2\lambda T)$
- Thus,
 - the throughput ν is $\nu = \lambda \cdot \exp(-2\lambda T)$
- This is maximized by $\lambda_{\max} = 1/(2T)$ corresponding to
 - an offered load of $\lambda_{\max} T = 1/2 = 50\%$
- The maximum throughput ν_{\max} is
 - $\nu_{\max} = \lambda_{\max} \cdot \exp(-2\lambda_{\max} T) = 1/(2eT) \approx 0.184/T \approx 20\% (1/T)$

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Analysis of Slotted ALOHA

- (3) Assume then that
 - the packets are transmitted in slots of length T
- In this system, two packets collide with each other
 - if and only if they arrived during the same slot
 - Due to assumption (2), no collisions with probability $\exp(-\lambda T)$
- Thus,
 - the throughput v is $v = \lambda \cdot \exp(-\lambda T)$
- This is maximized by $\lambda_{\max} = 1/T$ corresponding to
 - an offered load of $\lambda_{\max} T = 1 = 100\%$
- The maximum throughput v_{\max} is
 - $v_{\max} = \lambda_{\max} \cdot \exp(-\lambda_{\max} T) = 1/(eT) \approx 0.368/T \approx 40\% (1/T)$
- Note that this is **double** to that of a pure ALOHA system

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THE END



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