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## 2 **Controlling data flows in computer networks**

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8 **Abstract:** In computer networks, loss of data packets is inevitable, in particular, because of the  
9 buffer memory overflow of at least one of the nodes located on the path from the source to the  
10 receiver, including the latter. Such losses associated with overflows are hereinafter referred to as  
11 congestion of network nodes. There are many ways to prevent and eliminate overloads; these  
12 methods, in the majority, are based on the management of data flows. A special place is taken by  
13 the maintenance of packages, taking into account their priorities. The article considers a number of  
14 original technical solutions to improve the quality of control and reduce the required amount of  
15 buffer memory of network nodes. The ideas of these solutions are quite simple for their  
16 implementation in the development of appropriate software and hardware for telecommunication  
17 devices.

18

19 **Keywords:** data transmission, data stream, input output buffers, telecommunication devices, data  
20 packets, blocks of memory, switching matrix, high priority packets, bitstaffing.

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### 22 **1. Introduction**

23 One of the known ways to control the flow of data is explained in Fig. 1, on which a fragment of the  
24 computer network is shown and the trace of the data stream transmitted through it is indicated[1].  
25 The packets are transferred from the node A - the data source (transmitter) to the node B - the data  
26 receiver through the intermediate nodes, for example, switches and / or M1-M3 routers[2].

### 27 **2. Materials and Methods**

#### 28 **Method 1: Control the flow of data adjusting the length of pauses between packets**

##### 29 **Prototype Mode 1**

30 In this example, the node M2 is overloaded, its input buffer memory (in the following, for brevity,  
31 the input buffer) is completely or almost completely filled with incoming data packets. New  
32 packages, at least some of them, are lost due to lack of free space in the buffer[3].

33 During the data transfer, the receiver notices a persistent shortage of arriving packets (for example,  
34 by tracking their sequence numbers) and sends a control packet containing the XOFF command to  
35 suspend the data stream to the data source A. The address of the data source is known to the  
36 receiver, since the data packets coming to it contain information about the addresses (or directly  
37 addresses) of devices A and B[4]. Sending requests for retransmission of lost packets is also sent.

38 When the XOFF command is received, the data source completely stops sending packets and  
39 resumes it, either after some time specified in the data exchange protocol, or after receiving the  
40 renewal of transmission from the XON command receiver [1].

41 This method has several drawbacks.

42 First, data flow control is quite crude (the flow is either there or it is not). The delay in the execution  
43 of commands can lead to unjustified idle of the transmitter and the periodic occurrence of new  
44 overloads, in which some of the packets[5], including those belonging to other flows, will be lost[6].

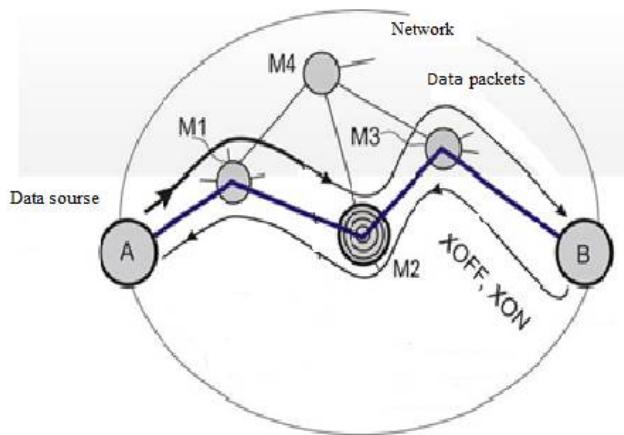
45 Secondly, with prolonged overload, the receiver sends the transmitter a series of identical stopping  
46 commands, which clogs the communication channel with a large number of repetitive service  
47 packets[7].

48 Thirdly, the commands for suspending the transmitter are generated by the receiver only if the  
49 number of packets rejected due to buffer overflows is large enough. Otherwise, if one responds to  
50 insignificant packet losses, the transmitter will receive and execute suspense commands without any  
51 special reason.

52 Fourth, the suspension of the transmitter increases the average and maximum packet delay on the  
53 route, which can reduce the quality of service (QoS) parameters specified in the contract between the  
54 user and the provider [8].

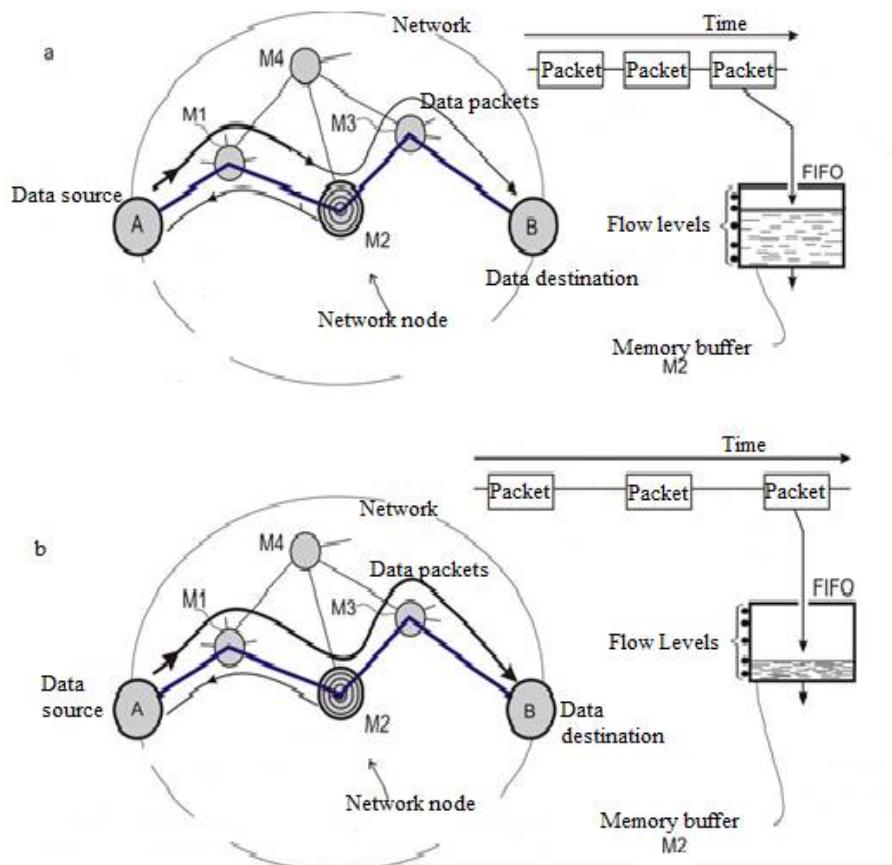
55 The idea of method 1

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57

58 **Figure 1.**Traditional way to control the flow of data



59

60 **Figure 2.** Improved way to control the flow of data: a - if there is a danger of overflow of the buffer  
 61 memory of the node M2; b - during normal operation

62

63 The proposed solution (Figure 2) largely eliminates these shortcomings due to a smooth and  
 64 "advanced event" adjustment of the data transmission rate by the source. The speed is controlled by  
 65 changing the length of pauses between packets: the longer the pause, the lower the data transfer rate,  
 66 and vice versa[9]. Note that the presence of a pause does not mean that there is no signal in the  
 67 communication line - the signal is present constantly, but there are no flag codes indicating the  
 68 beginning of the packet, or vice versa - a continuous stream of these codes is transmitted[10].

69 In the one shown in Fig. 2, and the pause situations between packets transmitted on the route A-B  
 70 are relatively small, or in other words, the data rate of the data placed in the packets is relatively  
 71 large, in the sense that the buffer memory level of the intermediate node M2 is steadily increasing,  
 72 which may result in buffer overflow[11]. Buffer memory for clarity is shown in the figure as a tank  
 73 with liquid replenished by the input stream of packets, while the output stream tends to reduce the  
 74 level of its filling[12].

75 In this case, the node M2 registers the operation of the second upper level sensor (the comparator of  
 76 read and write addresses of the buffer memory block). This means that the level of filling is close to  
 77 critical, therefore, it is necessary to reduce the rate of data flow to the buffer. To reduce the speed, the  
 78 node M2 sends to the node A a service packet, a command to increase the pauses between  
 79 packets[13].

80 In response to this command, node A increases the duration of pauses (Figure 2, b).  
 81 The degree of increase can be stipulated in the protocol of data exchange between nodes of the

82 network or in the explicit form indicated in the service package. After increasing the pauses, the  
83 buffer memory level of the M2 node starts to decrease, if there is no other reason for its increase[12].  
84 Upon reaching the central or lower mark, the node M2 sends to the node A the command to reduce  
85 the duration of the pauses, the level of the buffer filling again begins to increase, etc.

86 Thus, in an ideal case, the buffer memory of node M2 does not overflow and does not emptied, the  
87 speed of data output from the buffer memory remains constant, the rate of data arrival adapts to it,  
88 making slow fluctuations inherent in conventional automatic control systems[14].

89 If there are several data sources, then to prevent overload the work of the most active one, but not  
90 the most priority, is slowed down; if the sources are equally active, then the impact on those with  
91 low priorities is primarily affected[8].

92 In the development of the described method, it is proposed to take into account, not only the level of  
93 the buffer completion, but also the dynamics of its change when forming commands for decreasing  
94 or increasing the intensity of the flow[15]. This allows eliminating unnecessary flow control  
95 commands when the buffer fill level is high, but the history of the process is such that there is a  
96 steady tendency to stop its growth and the subsequent decrease (and vice versa). Essentially, along  
97 with absolute reference, the rate of change in the rate (acceleration) of the motion of the level of  
98 buffer memory filling is considered[16].

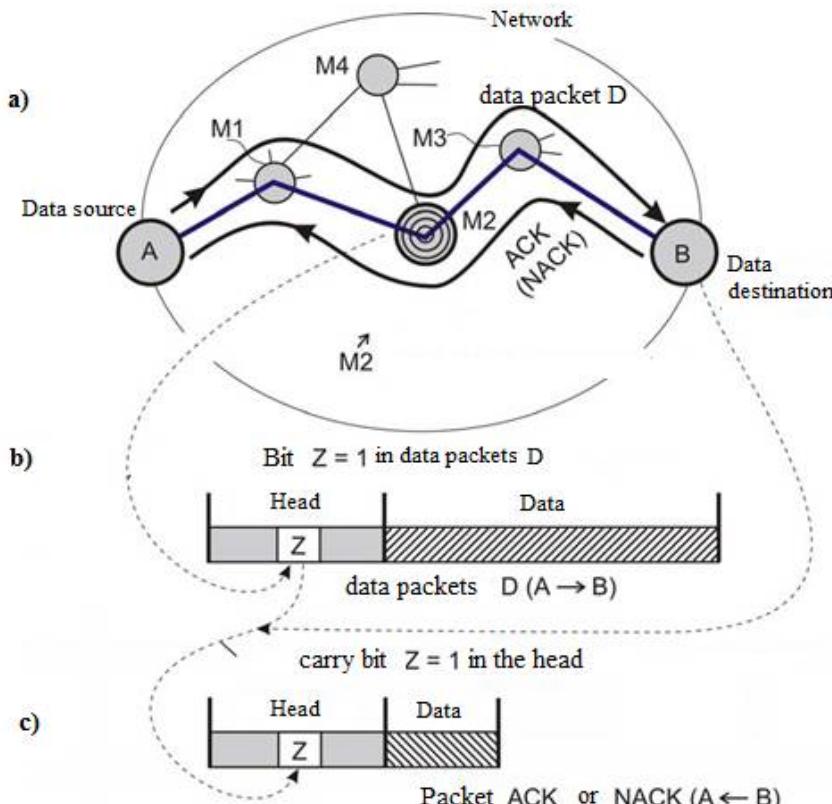
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100 **Method 2: Managing the flow of data by notifying the packet source of causes of overload**

101 **Prototypes of method 2**

102 Let's continue our consideration of the known methods of data flow control (Fig. 3) using the same  
103 network model as before (Figure 1, 2). The data source A transmits a series of data packets to the  
104 receiver B. In response to each packet or to a group of packets, the receiver B sends the ACK or  
105 NACK response packets to the source A. The ACK response acknowledges the successful reception;  
106 the NACK response is a request to retransmit a single packet or group of packets[14].

107 The first prototype of method 2. In principle, even such a simple feedback (using ACK or NACK  
108 response packets) allows detecting and eliminating network congestion on the A TO B path[17].  
109 Indeed, if the data source is increasing the packet rate or at some fixed rate starts to receive an  
110 excessive number of retransmission requests, then, most likely, at least one of the nodes of the route  
111 entered the overload mode[18].



112

113 **Figure 3.** Informing the data source A about the upcoming or available overload of the input buffer  
 114 of the M2 node of the network: a - packet propagation paths b, c - packet structure D and ACK  
 115 (NACK)

116

117 In this case, the data source drastically reduces the packet transmission rate or (and) increases their  
 118 length to reduce the share of the overhead bits that make up the headers in the data stream[19]. In  
 119 the future, the data source gradually either by random trial and error increases the data transmission  
 120 speed, moving to the permissible upper limit, taking into account some permitted speed increase  
 121 margin. Such a method is called a "slow start".

122 Of course, packet loss is possible, not related to the overload of network nodes, for example, due to  
 123 uncorrectable errors caused by interference in the communication line, but in this case we are not  
 124 interested in such losses[20].

125 The considered method of data flow control does not prevent the forthcoming loss of packets, but  
 126 allows reacting only to the accomplished fact of overloading of the intermediate node of the network  
 127 or the data receiver[21]. This is its main defect.

128 The second prototype of method 2. The idea is to warn in time the data source A about the threat of  
 129 overloading one or several nodes along the route A In the propagation of data packets D. This  
 130 warning is the bit Z included in the header of the ACK or NACK response packet[22] (Figure 3, c).

131 In the example shown in Fig. 3, the processor of node M2 anticipates overload, observing the  
 132 steadily increasing level of buffer filling, as it was shown on its model, shown in the right part of Fig.  
 133 2, a; (other events are possible, such as predecessors of congestion[23].

134 In packages passing through the node M2, more precisely, in the header of each of them, there is  
135 information sufficient for its routing, for example, in the form of IP addresses of the source and the  
136 data receiver[24]. Viewing this information allows the M2 node to identify the "culprit" of the  
137 expected overload, from which the most intensive flow of packets originates. There can be several  
138 such.

139 Suppose that the main "culprit" of the impending congestion is the data source A. This source, like  
140 all others, transmitting data packets D, sets the Z bits to zero. With normal data transmission on the  
141 route A TO B, these bits remain in the zero state[25].

142 If the conditions for the upcoming overload are detected and knowing that the largest number of  
143 packets per unit of time originate from the source A, the node M2, when transmitted along the route  
144 A TO B, marks all packets or a part of them with their Z = 1 bits that inserts in the headers, as shown  
145 in Fig. 3, b. The data receiver B returns the received Z = 1 bits to source A, including them in the  
146 headers of the response packets ACK and NACK (Figure 3, c).

147 Finally, data source A receives bits Z = 1 and sharply reduces the data transfer rate to node M2[26].  
148 Further, the data source A gradually restores the original data flow parameters or even exceeds the  
149 previously reached data transmission rate until a new series of bits Z = 1, etc., is detected (here, too,  
150 the "slow start" mentioned earlier is applied). Having determined the allowable upper speed limit,  
151 the data source takes a small step down to create some margin, guaranteeing the route from  
152 overload[27].

153 This way of preventing or eliminating overloads is satisfactory, but not optimal. Its disadvantage is  
154 that, without knowing the reason for the overload of node M2, the source of data A is unable to  
155 adequately respond to it. So, the "natural reaction"

156 - a sudden and sharp decrease in the data transfer rate - is unacceptable for many applications. But if,  
157 for example, the data source A knew that the reason for the upcoming overload was that the  
158 processor of the M2 node could not cope with header stream processing, then it could, without  
159 reducing the transfer rate of payload data, increase the packet length to reduce the intensity of this  
160 flow[28].

161 The problem solved by the method 2 discussed below is thus not only to prevent the source of data  
162 on the impending overload, but also to inform him of its cause. Then the source could choose the  
163 most appropriate "line of behavior" in this situation[29].

## 164 The idea of method 2

165 The problem is solved by extending the single-digit sign Z to several bits. Let us explain what has  
166 been said by example, accepting some assumptions.

167 Suppose that route A-B (Figure 3) is a virtual telephone link between devices A and B, for example,  
168 between computers or IP telephones. The technology of VoIP (Voice over IP) is used. Devices A and  
169 B contain codecs such as AMR (adaptive multi rate)[30]. The codec generates compressed speech  
170 fragments every 20 msec and encodes data from one of eight speeds in the range from 4.75 to 12.2  
171 kbps. Further, as before, one-way data transfer from device A to device B is considered[31].

172 After the connection A-B is established, the data source generates packets, each of which contains a  
173 header and a data field. The data field of the packet is filled with fragments of speech from the codec  
174 output, and then the packet is sent along the communication line to node M2[32]. The codec, if the  
175 bandwidth of the A-B channel allows, is initially set to the maximum coding rate to ensure the  
176 highest speech intelligibility recovered from the data input to receiver B. The Z bits of the sent  
177 packets are set to zero.

178 In the event of detection of the danger of overload by some node located along the A TO B route, this  
179 node (in our example, the M2 node) inserts some indication Z in the headers of packets originating  
180 from the most active source (A), as described earlier, taking into account that this feature contains  
181 not one, but at least two bits. This attribute is returned to the source; as a result, the processor of  
182 node A receives information about the reason for the upcoming overload.

183 The node M2 may experience overloading for at least one of the following reasons.

184 1. Narrowing the bandwidth (bandwidth) of the channel A TO B due to the appearance of a  
185 "bottleneck." This can happen, for example, because a part of the dedicated link A TO B of the  
186 linkage between the nodes M2 and M3 (Figure 3) has decreased. This decrease may be due to various  
187 reasons. Let's name two of them.

188 - The previously unobtrusive competing data flow along the route M4 M2 M3, which uses the  
189 same channel M2 to M3, as the route A TO B, has increased to a significant level earlier. As a result,  
190 the M2 node redistributed the strip of this channel to the detriment of the route A TO B .

191 - The M2 node has changed the type of signal modulation in the M2 to M3 channel, reducing the  
192 transmission rate due to the deterioration of the signal-to-noise ratio in this channel.

193 2. The M2 node processor for some reason or other has stopped coping with the volume of work  
194 on analyzing packet headers following the route A TO B.

195 The first and second reasons above for the approaching overload are displayed respectively by the  
196 codes Z = 012 and Z = 102, the absence of an overload hazard corresponds to the code Z = 002, both  
197 causes simultaneously generate the code Z = 112. The code Z = 112 can Form one node if it  
198 simultaneously observes both reasons for the upcoming overload, or by two or more nodes located  
199 along the A to V.

200 So, the node M2 can insert the Z = 102 codes into the headers of the A B packets that pass along the  
201 route, because the processor of this node cannot cope with the volume of work on the analysis of  
202 headers. These packets are transmitted to the M3 node, which is supposed to reveal a decrease in the  
203 M3 to B channel bandwidth allocated to the A to B route. In this case, the M3 node replaces the Z =  
204 102 codes in the packets passing through it with Z = 112. These codes, as described, reach the  
205 receiver B and return to the data source A as part of the headers of the response packets (Figure 3, c).

206 The optimal response of the data source to the identified causes (1 or 2) of overloading may be this.

207 The narrowing of the channel bandwidth A to B (reason 1) should cause a corresponding decrease in  
208 the total data rate (both useful and service) of the source A. To estimate the rate reduction, it would  
209 be desirable to use a multi-bit code Z in which this degree is reflected. However, in this case there is  
210 no such possibility, therefore the processor of the data source A switches its codec to the mode of the  
211 lowest encoding speed (out of eight possible - from 4.75 to 12.2 kbps). If the packet length is  
212 unchanged, and the lowest

213 The frequency of their succession decreases due to the increase in pauses between them. At the same  
214 time, the delay in the formation of the packet increases due to the increase in the time it is filled with  
215 compressed fragments of speech. Thus, the data transfer rate (both useful and service data) is  
216 reduced by source A, and if the narrowing of the band is not too large, then there is no danger of  
217 overloads.

218 In the future, to restore the high quality of voice transmission, the coding rate and, correspondingly,  
219 the packet repetition rate gradually increase to the experimentally detected limit, in which there is  
220 still no danger of overloading the network nodes on the A to B

221 Alternative response of the data source to the narrowing of the channel band A to B also provides for  
222 using the lowest encoding rate. When this keeps the packet repetition rate, and their length  
223 decreases. The rate of transfer of useful data decreases, the service data flow remains unchanged.

224 Finally, the strongest reaction is possible, at which the coding rate is set to the minimum, and the  
225 length of the packets increases to such an extent that their average delay approaches the permissible  
226 limit (not more than 100 ms [3]), after which, during a telephone conversation, begins eavesdropped.  
227 Such a reaction is the maximum that can be done in this situation.

228 After exiting the crisis, the coding rate gradually increases, and the length of the packets decreases  
229 with this in time (to reduce the delay of their transmission along the route A to B). This process of  
230 two-dimensional optimization of flow parameters is completed when the boundary is reached, after  
231 which the risk of overloading again arises.

232 Overloading the processor of one or more nodes on the A to B route (reason 2) is eliminated by  
233 reducing the intensity of the header stream that it (they) has to process. For this, while maintaining a  
234 high coding rate, the data source increases the length of the transmitted packets to such an extent  
235 that their average propagation delay along the A to B path does not exceed the previously  
236 mentioned allowable limit (100 ms).

237 Thus, the correct response to the overload warning in many situations allows to eliminate the danger  
238 of overflow of input buffers and, what is essential, to maintain high quality of voice transmission.

239

#### 240 **Method 3: Control of the flow of data with compensation of the inertia of the feedback loop**

##### 241 **Prototype of method 3**

242 One of the simplest ways to control the flow of data transmitted between the nodes of the network J1  
243 and J2 (Figure 4, a) is as follows.

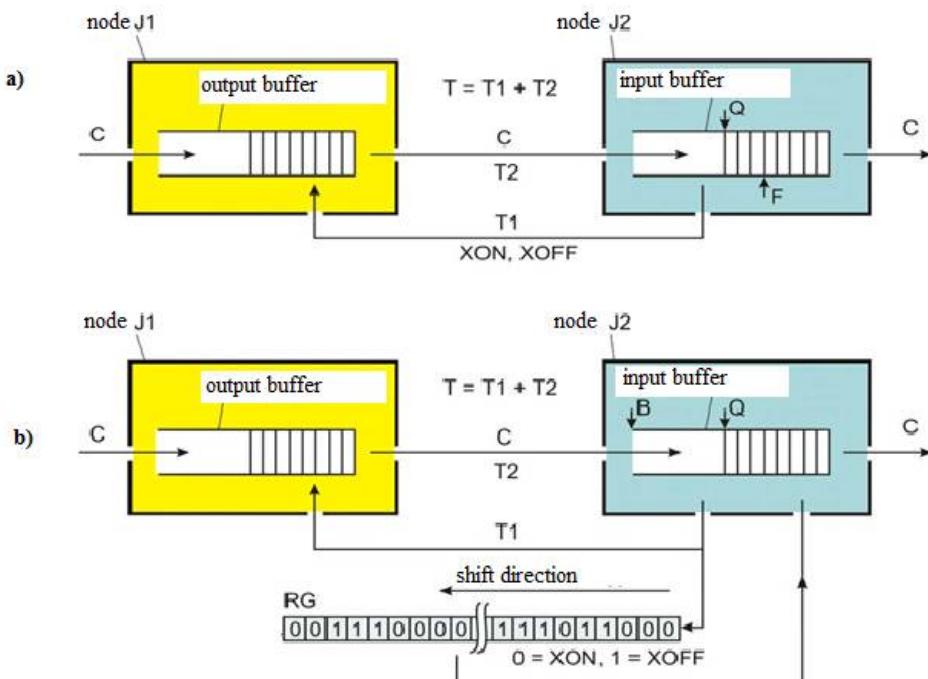
244 In steady state, data packets are accumulated in the output buffer of node J1 for transmission along a  
245 certain route, possibly through other network nodes (not shown in the figure) to the input buffer of  
246 node J2. Both buffers are executed in the form of blocks of memory of type FIFO.

247 The flow of data packets passing through the system from the left to the right has the character of  
248 "machine-gun queuing", since the series of packets are transmitted by the J1 node via the  
249 communication line only with the permission of the receiver, node J2, which "causes fire to the  
250 extent possible". The instantaneous packet transfer rate inside the series is C; the average speed is  
251 less than the instantaneous one and depends on the average ratio of the pauses between packets to  
252 the length of the series. The unevenness of the arrival of packets in the buffers of the nodes J1 and J2  
253 causes fluctuations in the levels of their filling. The challenge is to protect these buffers from  
254 overflow or emptying.

255 Further, this task is solved only with respect to the input buffer of the node J2, however, the output  
256 buffer of the node J1 can be protected in a similar way by introducing feedback from the source of  
257 the packets sent to it (in the figure this source and its feedback are not shown). Such a successive  
258 chain with feedbacks between neighboring elements can be arbitrarily long. Each transmitting port  
259 thus issues a stream of packets to the communication line only if there is a transmission permission  
260 previously received from the destination of the XON command.

261 The input buffer of node J2 contains a pointer to the threshold level F of its filling. In this example,  
262 the input buffer of node J2 contains Q packets. At the moment the current level Q overcomes the

263 threshold level filling in the F upward side ( $Q < F$ ), the node J2 transfers to J1 the packet with the  
 264 XOFF command of the transmission suspension. Similarly, at the moment overcoming the current  
 265 level Q filling the threshold level F downwards ( $Q \geq F$ ), the J2 node sends a packet to the J1 node  
 266 with the XON resumption command.



267

268 **Figure 4.** Flow control scheme: a - traditional; b - the proposed

269 The problem is that flow control can be very inertial. The response time of the system to the XON and  
 270 XOFF commands is determined by the delay  $T = T_1 + T_2$ , where

271  $T_1$  - the time from the instant the command is generated by the node J2 until the previously stopped  
 272 process of sending packets by the node J1 resumes or the previously activated process of issuing  
 273 packets by the node J1 is suspended;

274  $T_2$  - the time of packet transmission from the output buffer of node J1 to the input buffer of node J2.

275 Thus, if the increasing filling level of the input buffer of the node J2 has overcome the threshold  
 276 value  $F$ , then the generated XOFF command will stop the flow of packets at the input of the node J2  
 277 only through the time  $T$ . During this time, the input buffer of the node J2 continues "by inertia" To  
 278 replenish.

279 Similarly, the first packet after issuing the XON command to resume the previously-stopped stream  
 280 will arrive at the input buffer no earlier than the time  $T$ . During this time, the level of filling the input  
 281 buffer of the node J2 "by inertia" is reduced due to the outflow of data from it.

282 If the capacity of the input buffer of node J2 is small, then the inertia of the control can lead to  
 283 overflow or emptying. In the worst case, after the moment of exceeding the threshold level  $F$  ( $Q < F$ ),  
 284 the command XOFF is issued) and at the time no outflow of data from the input buffer of the node J2  
 285 during the time  $T$  in this buffer "by inertia" will come with  $C*T$  packets.

286 Similarly, if there was no inflow of data, after the moment of crossing the threshold level  $F$  in the  
 287 direction of decrease ( $Q \rightarrow F$ , the command XON is issued) and with continuous data flow from the  
 288 input buffer of node J2 during the time  $T$  from this buffer "on inertia" will be selected  $C*T$  packets.

289 Thus, to protect against overflow and emptying, the input buffer of node J2 should be designed to  
290 store at least  $2C*T$  packets; the threshold F must correspond to its middle.

291 The resulting estimate of the minimum buffer size is disappointing. Some switches contain several  
292 hundred buffers, so the actual task of reducing their volume is actual. In high-speed networks, the T  
293 value reaches tens and hundreds of microseconds. The value of C is of the order of 10 Gbit / s. As a  
294 result, the buffer size  $2C \quad T = 2 \quad 1010 \quad 10-4$  is several megabits. The goal of the next  
295 solution is to reduce the buffer size by half thanks to smoother flow control.

296

### 297 The idea of method 3

298 Smoothness of control is achieved by fragmentation of series of packets and more intelligent  
299 algorithm of forming commands XON and XOFF to resume and stop transmission of the stream.

300 The circuit shown in Fig. 4, b, [4] contains the same components and has the same parameters (T, C,  
301 Q), which have just been discussed. The volume of the input buffer of the node J2 is denoted by B.  
302 The new element of this node - the history memory of the control - is shown for clarity in the form of  
303 a shift register RG, although it can be executed programmatically using a set of memory cells.

304 For definiteness, suppose that the flow of ATM cells is transmitted via the communication channel  
305 [5]. (The term "cell" is equivalent to the term "packet".) This stream is continuous - after the last bit of  
306 the previous cell, the first bit of the next is transmitted. The length of the cell is 53 bytes. The cells  
307 follow the line of communication with a period of 40 ns. This does not mean that the proposed idea  
308 is applicable only to ATM technology - it is easy in the following description to operate with strictly  
309 prescribed quanta of time with duration of 40 ns.

310 Suspension of the flow in this case is conditional (a continuous stream of cells follows the connection  
311 line always) and means that the output of the nodes J1 accumulated in the output buffer really stops,  
312 but instead of them, bypassing this buffer, empty cells of the same length are output into the  
313 communication line, as well as cells with data. Empty cells can be inserted once or form more or less  
314 lengthy sequences. Blank cells are rejected by the J2 node and do not enter its input buffer.

315 Suppose that the time  $T = T1 + T2 = 2 \mu s$ , that is, corresponds to the passage of 50 cells. The rate of  
316 issuing commands XON or XOFF is equal to the rate of arrival of cells (empty and non-empty) at the  
317 input of node J2, that is, commands are issued every 40 ns. The commands issued by the node J2 in  
318 response to each incoming cell on the communication line affect the input stream after a time of 50  
319 cells - this is the inertia of the control loop.

320 Simultaneously with issuing the XON or XOFF command from node J2 to node J1, it is stored as the  
321 corresponding bit (0 or 1) in the right-hand bit of the shift register RG, the remaining bits are shifted  
322 one position to the left, the leftmost bit is pushed out of the register. Thus, in the RG register, the  
323 history of issuing control commands for the next 50 cycles (the periods of succession of the cells) is  
324 displayed.

325 Each XON or XOFF command when entering J1 is responsible for making a decision to issue one  
326 (regular) cell either from the output buffer of this node (when receiving the XON command) or from  
327 a source of empty cells to bypass the output buffer (upon receipt command XOFF).

328 The code in the RG register is analyzed by the J2 node. Counting the number of zeroes contained in  
329 it, the node predicts the number of cells with data that will go to its input buffer within the next 50  
330 cycles. The single bits in this register correspond to the number of empty cells that will arrive at the  
331 input of node J2 during this period and will be destroyed by them.

332 The formation of XON or XOFF commands is as follows. Let NON be the number of zero bits in the  
333 RG register, B the size of the input buffer of the node J2, Q the current size of the queue. Then:

334 if  $Q + \text{NON} \leq B$ , then the XOFF command is generated; otherwise, the XON command.

335 Indeed, in the worst case, when there is no outflow of data from the input buffer of the node J2, the  
336 expected level of its filling is equal to the current level of Q, increased by the number of NON cells  
337 that are actually already in transit and will surely be received in the next 50 cycles. The expected  
338 level of buffer filling  $Q + \text{NON}$  should not exceed its size B. If this condition is met, then the thread  
339 should not be suspended, so the XON command is generated. In the opposite situation, when the  
340 predicted level of buffer filling exceeds the volume of the buffer, stop the flow for at least one clock  
341 cycle, that is, generate the XOFF command.

342 The commands, of course, will have an effect only after 50 clock cycles, but due to the "smallness" of  
343 their action and the integration of many commands in time, the total effect is expressed in that the  
344 fluctuations in the buffer fill level become smaller, and the necessary buffer memory capacity is  
345 reduced by two times.

346 So, in the steady state, the average level of buffer memory of the J2 node is close to  $V / 2$ , in the 50-bit  
347 RG register the average number of zeros and ones is approximately the same. Suppose that  $B = 50$ ,  
348 the average level is 25. Then the stocks in relation to overflow and emptying the buffer will be 25  
349 cells in each direction. This is consistent with the fact that the average number of arriving cells  
350 expected in the nearest time interval T is  $50/2 = 25$ .

351 In the prototype (Figure 4, a), in the worst case (in the absence of data outflow from the buffer), at the  
352 time T, 50 cells arrive at the input of the buffer of node J2. Similarly, in the opposite situation, in the  
353 absence of data flow to the buffer, the level of its filling during the time T will decrease by 50 cells.  
354 Therefore, to create the necessary reserves of 50 cells in each direction, a buffer with a volume of 100  
355 cells is needed, which is twice as large as when using method 3 (Figure 4, b).

356

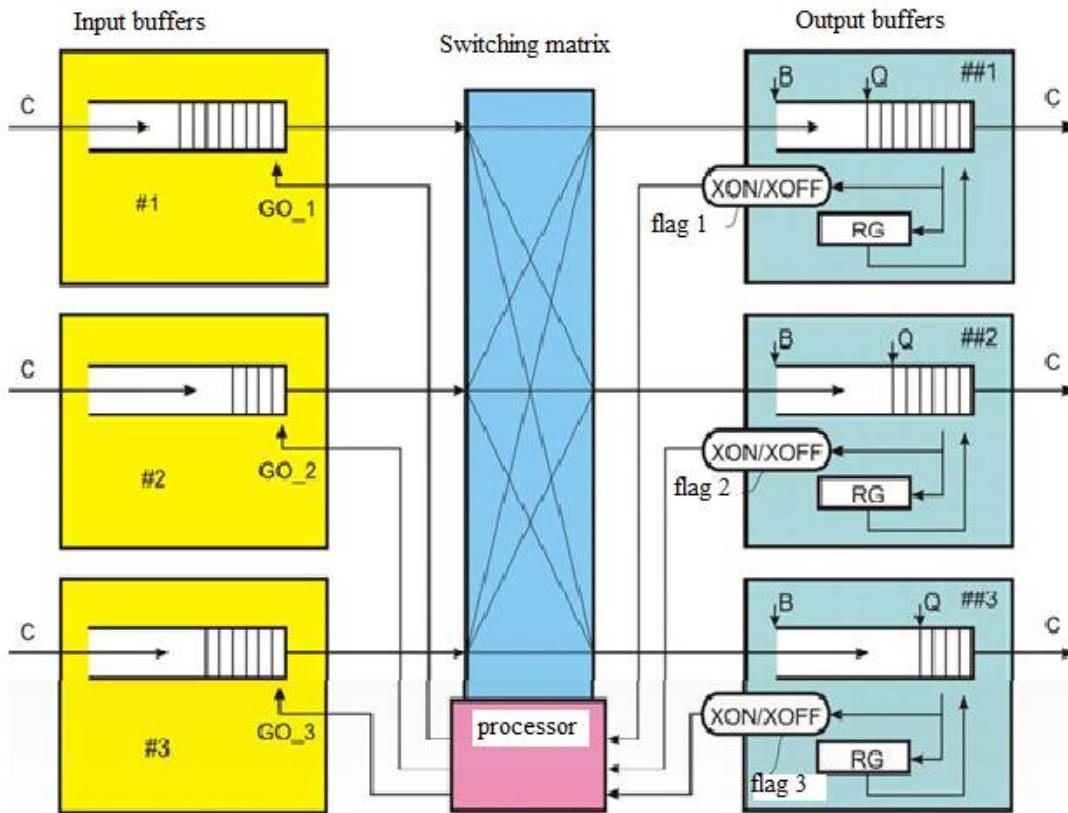
### 357 **Expanding the scope of the method 3**

358 Previously, the idea of reducing the amount of buffer memory of the receiver when building a data  
359 transfer system between nodes of a computer network was considered. However, this idea can find  
360 wider application.

361 As an example, consider the circuit of the commutator (Fig. 5). As usual, to simplify the description,  
362 we assume that the data streams propagate only in one direction - from left to right. In fact, to  
363 construct a switch operating with flows of both directions, it is necessary to apply the same circuit  
364 deployed in the opposite direction, superimpose the resulting circuit to the original one, and  
365 combine the corresponding external inputs with the outputs.

366 The switch contains three input buffers # 1 - # 3, a switching matrix, a processor and three output  
367 buffers ## 1 - ## 3. Comparing Fig. 5 with Fig. 4b, one can note the similarity between the block  
368 structures used in both schemes. Some designations also coincide, therefore further are not  
369 explained. The signals GO\_1 - GO\_3 from the rightmost cell of the corresponding input buffer of  
370 type FIFO are given a data packet, with the queue moving one position to the right.

371 Data packets from independent sources, for example, from computer network nodes, enter the input  
372 buffers of the switch. As a result, buffers create queues of packets waiting to be sent to the output  
373 buffers. The directions of packet transmission are detected by the processor based on the analysis of  
374 address information contained in their headers.



375

376

**Figure 5.** Structure of the switch, the first option

377

378 The packets are transferred from the input buffers to the output through the switching matrix under  
 379 the control of the processor. Packets of some types are sent simultaneously to all output buffers or to  
 380 some subset of them. The switching matrix allows simultaneous transmission of packets in different  
 381 independent directions. For example, simultaneously with the transfer of a packet from the buffer #  
 382 1 to the buffer ## 3, transmissions along the directions # 2 ## 1 and # 3 ## 2 can be carried out.

383 In the output buffers, queues of packets awaiting delivery to the corresponding communication lines  
 384 are also created. In each of these buffers, the previously discussed method of preventing overflows  
 385 and devastations of the queue is applied (Fig. 4, b). However, in this case (Figure 5), the output  
 386 buffer "does not know" from which directions and in what order the data is expected to arrive, ie, it  
 387 does not have information about which input buffers and which sequence should be sent the results  
 388 of the queue state forecasting - the XON or XOFF commands.

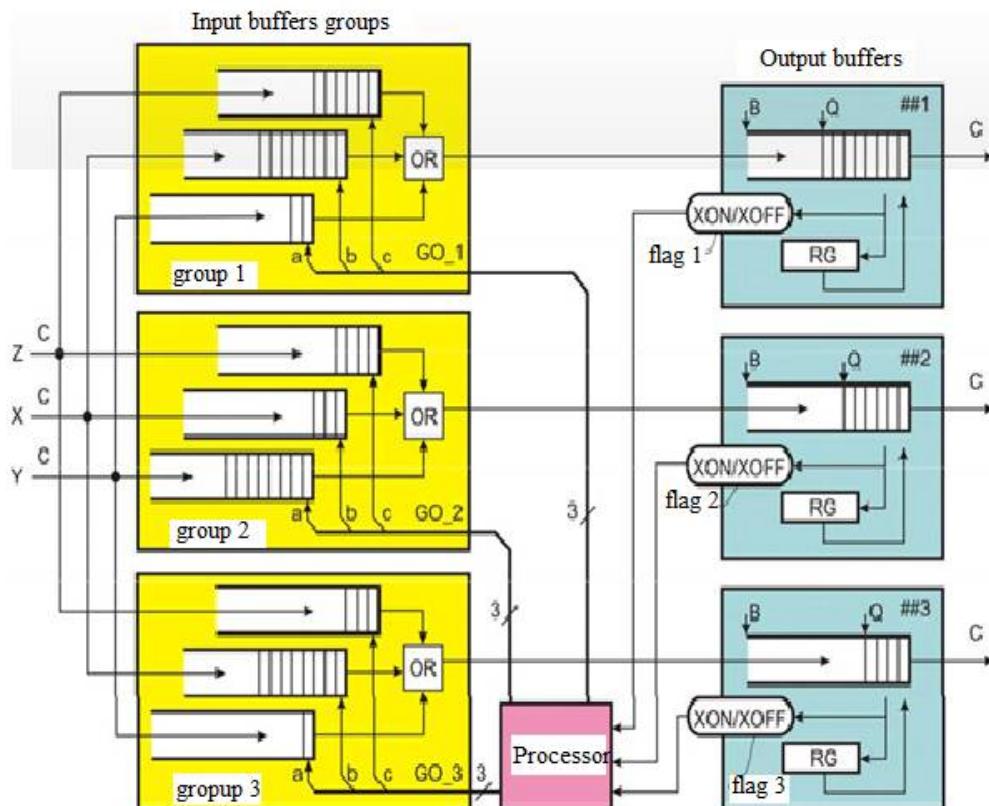
389 Therefore, the output buffers form the XON / XOFF flag bits (flag 1-flag 3), irrespective of which  
 390 input buffer will be affected. The flags are polled by the processor and used by the processor to  
 391 control the transmission of data through the switching matrix.

392 Looking through the outputs of buffers # 1 - # 3, the processor monitors a lot of packets, ready to be  
 393 sent to the buffers ## 1 - ## 3. The decision to send each of these packets is accepted by the processor  
 394 only if the flag of the corresponding output buffer is set to the enabling state - XON. Then the  
 395 processor creates the required path through the switching matrix and initiates the issuance of the  
 396 packet by the command (signal) GO\_i (i = 1, 2, 3).

397 The structure of the switch (see Figure 5) has a drawback that is not related to the application of the  
 398 proposed method for managing data flows.

399 If the packet type provides its transfer to a group of several output buffers, the processor does not  
 400 wait for the entire group to receive data at the same time to speed up the process. It transmits copies  
 401 of this package sequentially, as the output buffers that make up the group appear. In this case, until  
 402 the complete distribution of the packet across the whole group of output buffers, this packet is not  
 403 removed from the input buffer and therefore prevents the progress of the queue in it.

404 A similar situation (blocking of the input queue) can be observed when sending a normal packet  
 405 addressed to only one output buffer. If the output buffer is not ready for data reception for a  
 406 relatively long time, then the packet remains at the output of the input buffer, and the queue in it  
 407 does not advance, but only grows with the arrival of new packets. This queue may contain packages  
 408 that could be serviced, since the corresponding output buffers are ready to receive data, but they are  
 409 all prevented by the priority packet waiting for maintenance and blocking access to the rest of the  
 410 packets to the switching matrix.



411

412 **Figure 6.** Switch structure, second option

413

414 Blocking of input queues is eliminated in the scheme shown in Fig. 6. In comparison with the  
 415 previously considered circuit (Figure 5), the input buffers are replaced by buffer groups, the  
 416 switching matrix is excluded. Each group of input buffers accumulates more than one queue for the  
 417 number of input channels of the switch. Each group of input buffers transfers data to the  
 418 corresponding output buffer.

419 Packets coming from the input channels Z, X and Y are sorted. Packets of channel Z, which should  
 420 get into the output buffer ## 1, are written to the upper buffer of group # 1. Packets of the Z channel,  
 421 intended for sending to the line through the buffer ## 2, are written to the upper buffer of group # 2.  
 422 Packets of channel Z, which should be sent to the output buffer ## 3, are written to the upper buffer  
 423 of group # 3. Packages from the input channels X and Y are sorted similarly.

424 The processor analyzes the flags 1 to 3 and, in the presence of the readiness of one or more output  
425 buffers, receives one or more GO\_i signals ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) to receive data. Each of these commands is  
426 addressed to one group of input buffers. Since in this example the group contains three buffers, the  
427 command contains three bits that indicate from which queue the next data packet should be issued  
428 via the OR gate. Commands  $(a, b, c) = (0, 0, 1)$ ,  $(a, b, c) = (0, 1, 0)$  and  $(a, b, c) = (1, 0, 0)$  correspond to  
429 the issuance of the data packet from the upper, middle and lower case of the selected group. The  
430 queue number can be transmitted from the processor with binary code with its decoding in groups  
431 of input buffers, but this possibility is not considered to simplify the figure.

432 If one of the output buffers is not ready to receive data for a relatively long time, this does not affect  
433 the transmission of packet flows through other output buffers. For example, the output buffer #1  
434 may not be ready to receive data (flag 1 in the XOFF state), then the GO\_1 signal remains zero for  
435 this time (0, 0, 0), preventing the issuance of packets from group 1. Other groups remain in normal  
436 operating mode, i.e., as far as possible under the control of the processor, data is transferred to the  
437 corresponding output buffers.

### 438 3. Discussion

439 **Accelerated transmission of high priority packets through the switch.** The switch shown in Fig. 7,  
440 is an improved version of the previously considered structure (Fig. 6). Comparing Fig. 6 and Fig. 7,  
441 one can note that some of the previously considered elements in Fig. 7 are not shown, although they  
442 may be present in the circuit. At the same time, new elements have been introduced, the functions of  
443 which do not violate the work of the previously considered schemes. The purpose of introducing  
444 new elements is to accelerate the transfer of high-priority packets through the switch.

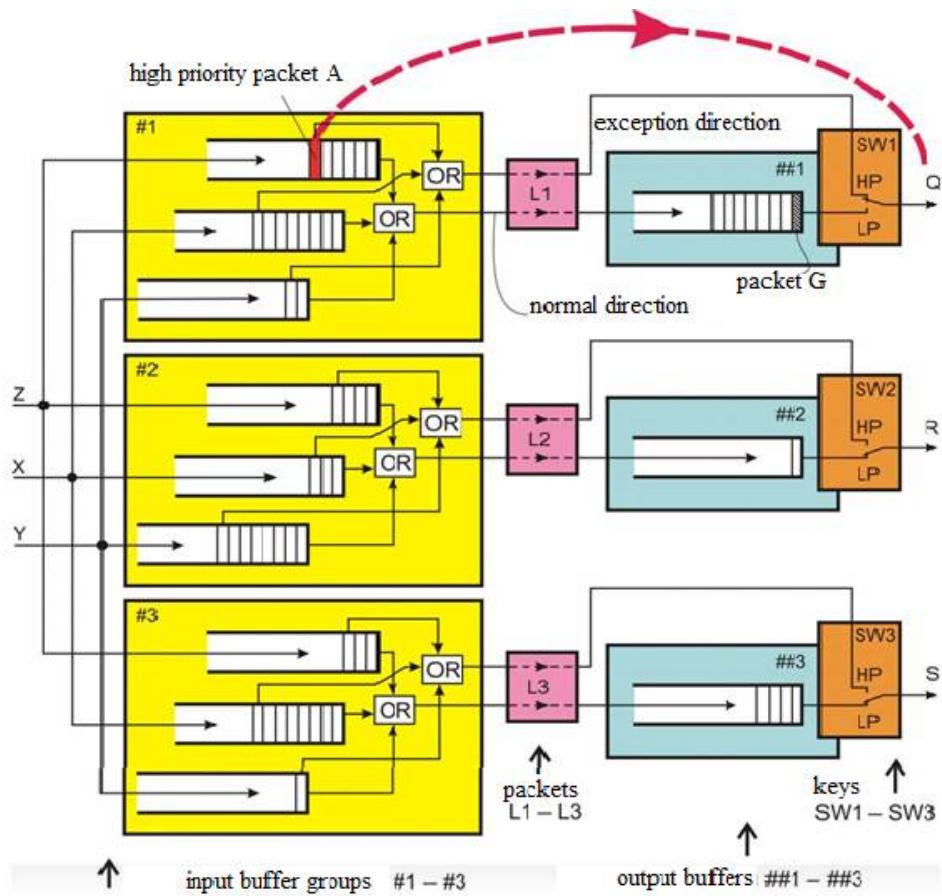
445 Just like in the previous scheme, the switch contains three groups #1 - #3 input buffers of type FIFO.  
446 The outputs of these buffers in each group are connected through the first logical OR and the L1-L3  
447 packet converters with the inputs of the output buffers #1 - #3. In each group of input buffers, the  
448 second logical OR is added, through which bypass paths (without queue) pass high-priority  
449 covenants, if they enter buffers.

450 Switches SW1 to SW3 translate packets either from the corresponding queues located in the buffers  
451 #1 - #3, or from the workarounds. In the first case, the key is set to LP (low priority), in the second  
452 - to HP (high priority). Coordination of actions of all components of the multiplexer is performed by  
453 one or several processors (in Figure 7 processors are not shown).

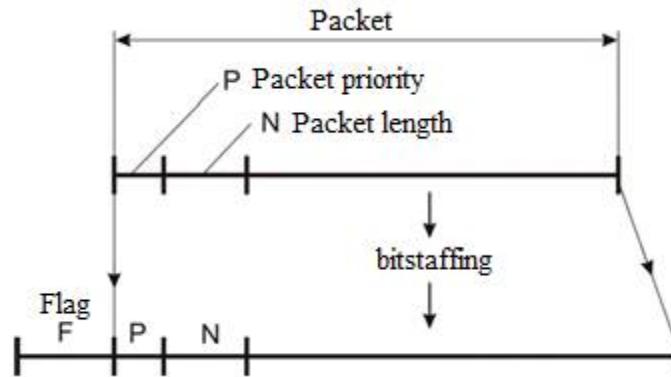
454 **In general, the proposed idea is as follows:** As in the previous scheme (Figure 6), the packets  
455 arriving from the input channels Z, X and Y are sorted. Packets of channel Z, which are addressed to  
456 buffer #1, are written to the upper buffer of group #1. Packets of channel Z, addressed to buffer #2,  
457 are written to the upper buffer of group #2. Finally, the Z channel packets addressed to buffer #3  
458 are written to the upper buffer of group #3. Packages from the input channels X and Y are sorted  
459 similarly.

460 Then the packets are moved along the corresponding input queues, through the first logical OR  
461 elements and the lower channels of the converters L1 to L3 are transmitted to the output buffers #1  
462 - #3 and in the order of their arrival are output from them to the output lines Q, R and S via the  
463 keys SW1 to SW3, which are in the LP state.

464 This "natural" sequence of events is violated with the arrival of a high-priority packet, for example,  
465 in the upper buffer of group #1. All new arrivals in the buffers, packets are checked for priority.  
466 Suppose first that the number of priority levels is two, and the high-priority packet came at a time  
467 when all other packets on the switch have low priorities. The priority level of the package is  
468 indicated in its header.



490 equal to  $(U + 213 - 1)$  bytes. All transmitted packets pass through converters L1-L3 (Figure 7), where  
 491 each of them is bit-oriented and is preceded by a unique flag.



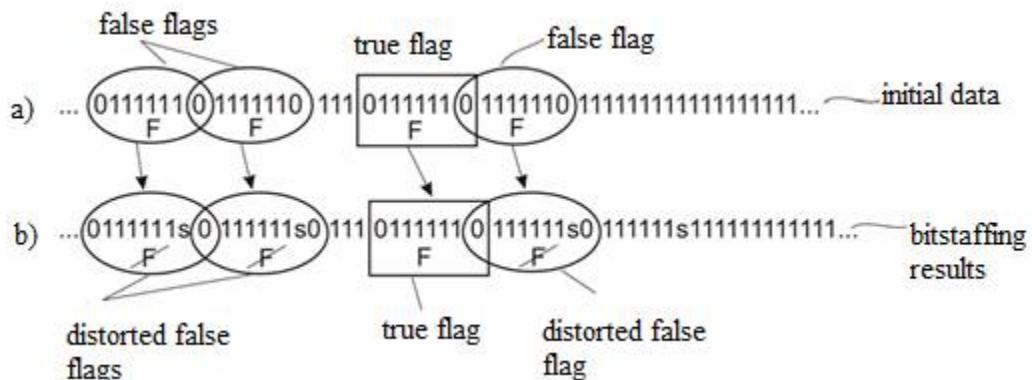
492

493 **Figure 8.** Conversion of packets by blocks L1-L3 (Figure 7)

494

495 Recall that bit staffing allows you to exclude from the data stream a random copy of the unique code  
 496 selected as the frame start flag F. In this example, F = 01111110.

497 In Fig. 9, and the "true" flag F of the beginning of the frame (circled in a rectangular frame) is inserted  
 498 into some sequence of bits. The problem is that, most likely, this sequence also contains codes  
 499 01111110, which can be considered as false flags. In order to prevent the transmission of false flags to  
 500 the far side of the communication channel, they are intentionally reversibly distorted, for example,  
 501 according to the algorithm proposed in [7].



502

503 **Figure 9.** Improved bitstuffing: a - the initial sequence of bits with the "true" flag of the beginning of  
 504 the frame introduced into it; b - the same sequence after excluding false flags from it

505

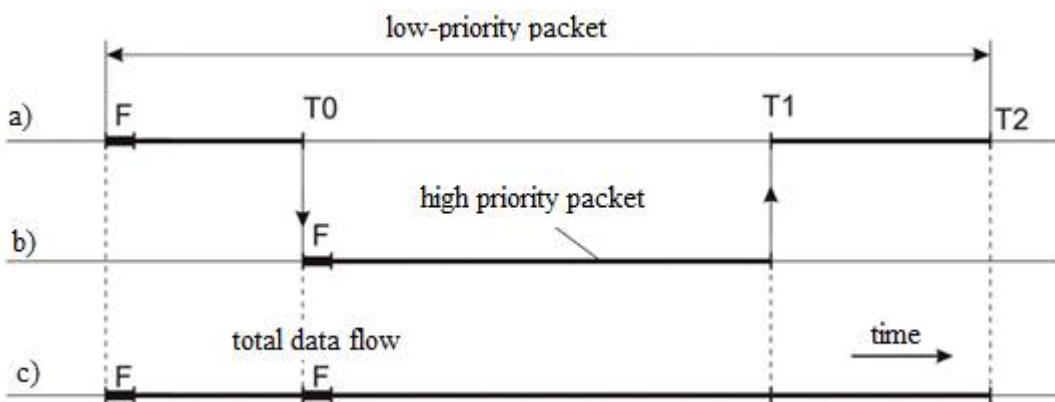
506 This algorithm is as follows. The original sequence of bits with the "true" flag inserted into it is  
 507 viewed through a sliding seven-bit window in order to detect in it the code 0111111, almost  
 508 coincident with the flag. If such a code is detected and is not a component of the "true" flag, then it is  
 509 supplemented by a single bit of s, regardless of the value of the subsequent bit (Figure 9, b). Such a  
 510 procedure is called bitstuffing.

511 Bitstuffing does not apply to "true" flags, so they become unique, since all false flags are deliberately  
 512 distorted by bits of s.

513 On the far side of the communication channel, the reverse operation is performed - bits s (following  
 514 the sequences 0111111, which are not constituent parts of the "true" flags) are destroyed.

515 In contrast to the classical bitstuffing used in the HDLC protocol, the variant proposed in [7] allows  
 516 us to reduce the redundancy introduced into the initial bitstream by half. Indeed, for a single  
 517 random sample, the probability of detecting a 7-bit code (0111111) in a random data stream is  $1/27 =$   
 518  $1/128$ . In the classical version of bitstuffing, the probability of detecting a 6-bit code (011111) in a  
 519 random data stream is  $1/26 = 1/64$ . In other words, the insertion of redundant bits in the classical  
 520 version of bitstuffing is carried out twice as often as in the version proposed in [7].

521 Suppose that in the initial state, a low-priority packet is sent to the line from the output buffer ## 1 of  
 522 the switch (Figure 7). The SW1 switch is set to LP. As shown in Fig. 10, a, at some time T0, a high  
 523 priority packet arrives from the upper channel of the packet transformer L1, bypassing the output  
 524 queue. The transmission of the low priority packet terminates in the nearest bit interval, the SW1  
 525 switch goes to the HP state and the first flag bit of the high priority packet is placed in place of the  
 526 not transmitted bit. Then all the bits of this packet are transmitted (Fig. 10, b).



527

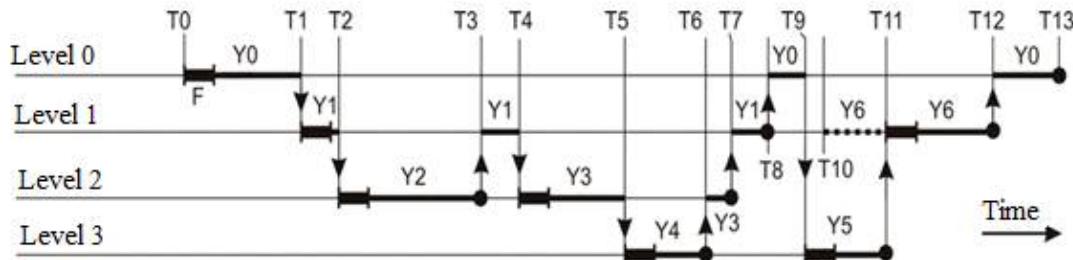
528 **Figure 10.** Interruption of low-priority data stream high priority: a - low-priority data packet; b -  
 529 high-priority data packet; c is the total data flow in the line

530 At the time T1, the last bit of the high priority packet is transmitted. The key SW1 returns to the LP  
 531 position. Following the last bit of the high-priority packet, all the bits of the previously suspended  
 532 low-priority packet are transmitted. The total data flow (Fig. 10, c) can be divided on the far side of  
 533 the communication channel into two components corresponding to Fig. 10, a and b, due to the  
 534 uniqueness of the flags F and the presence of the P and N fields in the packet headers.

535 To simplify the analysis of code situations by the receiver, one can accept the condition that the  
 536 low-priority packet flag is protected from interrupts, i.e., not crashed when switching to a  
 537 high-priority packet transmission. In other words, if a high-priority packet has entered the SW1 key  
 538 during the low priority packet transmission, it is delayed and its transmission begins only after the  
 539 low-priority packet flag is fully transmitted. In the worst case, the delay is eight bit intervals.

540 With a greater number of priority levels, the described process of switching data flows acquires the  
 541 nature of nested interrupts widely used in microprocessor technology. As shown in Fig. 11, the  
 542 transmission of packets can repeatedly go from one priority level to another and back.

543 In the period T0 - T1, the packet Y0 of the zero (lowest) priority level is transmitted to the line. At  
 544 time T1, this transmission is interrupted due to the arrival of the Y1 packet of the first (higher)  
 545 priority level. The transmission of the packet Y1, in turn, is interrupted at the time T2, after which  
 546 the Y2 packet of the second priority level is fully transmitted. The end of the transmission of this  
 547 packet is marked by a period.



548

549 **Figure 11.** Transmission of data packets Y0 to Y6 using a four-level priority system

550

551 At time T3, the switch returns to the transmission of the packet Y1, but at the time T4 the  
 552 transmission is again interrupted by the higher priority packet Y3, which in turn is interrupted by  
 553 the Y4 packet at the time T5. This packet has the highest priority; therefore its transfer cannot be  
 554 interrupted under any circumstances.

555 Further, at the moments T6 to T8, in the order of decreasing priorities, the transmissions of the  
 556 packets Y4, Y3, Y1 are completed, and the transmission of the packet Y0 resumes. At time T9, this  
 557 transmission is again interrupted by a Y5 packet having the highest priority. At time T10, the Y6  
 558 packet is ready for dispatch, but it is performed only starting from the moment T11, when the  
 559 transmission of the Y5 packet is complete. At the moments T12 and T13, the transmission of the  
 560 packets Y6 and Y0 is completed.

561

562 **5. Conclusions**

563 High-priority packets are "wedged" into low-priority packets, without waiting for the end of  
 564 their transmission. This allows reducing delays in high-priority packets even with low-priority  
 565 packets of long length. The increase in the intelligence of telecommunication devices became  
 566 possible to apply more sophisticated algorithms and original flow control schemes in comparison  
 567 with the known ones. This allows solving the following tasks:

568 • reduce the likelihood of overflow and emptying of buffer blocks located along the  
 569 distribution routes of packets and, ultimately, improve the quality of computer networks;  
 570 • reduce the required amount of buffer memory;  
 571 • improve the efficiency of servicing high-priority packets.

572 The article considers a number of original solutions to these problems at a level sufficient for the  
 573 development of new generations of telecommunication devices and systems.

574

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