Value-Aware Resource Allocation for Service Guarantees in Networks

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Abstract—The traditional formulation of the total value of information transfer is a multi-commodity flow problem. Each data source is seen as generating a commodity along a fixed route, and the objective is to maximize the total system throughput under some concept of fairness, subject to capacity constraints of the links used. This problem is well studied under the framework of network utility maximization and has led to several different distributed congestion control schemes. However, this view of value does not capture the fact that flows may associate value, not just with throughput, but with link-quality metrics such as packet delay and jitter. In this work, the congestion control problem is redefined to include individual source preferences. It is assumed that degradation in link quality seen by a flow adds up on the links it traverses, and the total utility is maximized in such a way that the end-to-end quality degradation seen by each source is bounded by a value that it declares. Decoupling source-dissatisfaction and link-degradation through an effective capacity variable, a distributed and provably optimal resource allocation algorithm is designed to maximize system utility subject to these quality constraints. The applicability of the controller in different situations is supported by numerical simulations, and a protocol developed using the controller is simulated on ns-2 to illustrate its performance.

Index Terms—Utility maximization, quality of service (QoS), distributed algorithm, resource allocation, congestion control.

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen an enormous growth in demand for Internet access, with applications ranging from personal use to commercial and military operations. Several of these applications are sensitive to a quality of packet delivery. For instance, archiving data transfers can tolerate long delays, while voice over Internet protocol (VoIP) is very sensitive to latency. Between these extreme examples lies a spectrum of applications with varying service requirements, e.g. video conferencing, electronic commerce and online gaming. All these applications require the allocation of enough network resources for satisfactory performance.

The design of efficient network control systems demands that end-user value be taken into consideration when allocating resources. The Internet architecture is built around the concept of a flow, which is a transfer of data between a fixed source-destination pair. How do we quantify the value of such a flow?

The classical formulation of the total value of information transfer is a multi-commodity flow problem, in which each data source is seen as generating a commodity along a fixed route; the objective is to maximize the sum throughput under some concept of fairness, subject to capacity constraints on the links used [2]–[5]. If the flow from source \( r \) has a rate \( x_r \geq 0 \) and the system utility associated with such a flow is represented by a concave, increasing function \( U_r(x_r) \), the objective can be stated as

\[
\max \sum_{r \in \mathcal{S}} U_r(x_r) \quad \text{subject to} \quad y_l \leq c_l, \quad \forall \ l \in \mathcal{L} \quad (1)
\]

where \( \mathcal{S} \) is the set of sources, \( \mathcal{L} \) denotes the set of links, and \( c_l \) is the capacity of link \( l \in \mathcal{L} \). Also, the load on link \( l \) is equal to

\[
y_l = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{S}} R_{lr} x_r,
\]

where \( R_{lr} \) denotes the routing matrix of the network, with \( R_{lr} = 1 \) if the flow associated with source \( r \) is routed through link \( l \). Note that we refer to flows and sources interchangeably; if there are multiple flows between a source and a destination, we simply give them different names. This is a convex optimization problem that is well studied under the framework of network utility maximization [2]–[5].

This approach to network resource allocation can often be used to decompose the problem into several subproblems, each of which is amenable to a distributed solution. This so-called optimization decomposition framework has yielded a rich set of control schemes and protocols whose architectural implications are discussed in [6]. For example, there is a strong connection between the primal solution to the utility maximization problem and TCP-Reno [7], [8] characterized in [2], [3]. Similarly, one can identify connections between TCP-Vegas and the dual solution of the problem [9]. The same approach has been taken in the design of several new protocols such as Scalable TCP [10], [11] (which allows scaling of rate increases/decreases based on network characteristics), FAST-TCP [12] (meant for high bandwidth environments), TCP-Illinois [13] (which uses loss and delay signals to attain high throughput), and TRUMP [14] (a multipath protocol with fast convergence properties). A good tutorial on network utility maximization algorithms is [15].

Still, there is a growing realization that throughput cannot be considered as the sole value metric. As mentioned above, in applications such as voice calls, data is rendered useless after a certain delay threshold. Thus, simply ensuring that link capacities are not exceeded is not sufficient to capture value in this scenario. How do we ensure that the user is not dissatisfied?
with the quality of service? In many cases the quality of data transfer over a link decreases with load. For example, metrics such as the delay and the jitter experienced by packets as they pass through a router depend on the total load on the corresponding links. Such quality degradation may also add up over multiple hops. Indeed, the delay experienced by packets in a flow is the sum of the delays over each hop taken.

Once we have a clear conception of quality degradation as a function of link load, a pertinent question becomes: Can we design a simple distributed algorithm for fair resource allocation under which each users’ quality is no worse than a prescribed value? To address this question, we need to redefine the traditional congestion control problem to explicitly account for the tradeoff between throughput and quality degradation. We denote the degradation in the quality of link \( l \) with load \( y_l \) by a convex increasing function \( V_l(y_l) \), and assume that degradation in link quality seen by a flow is additive over the links it traverses. Furthermore, we assume that the quality degradation is inherent to a link, and is identical for all flows sharing the link. Thus, there are no priorities assigned to particular flows. We maximize utility in such a way that the total degradation seen by source \( r \) is no greater than a pre-specified positive value \( \sigma_r \). The modified objective becomes

\[
\max \sum_{r \in S} U_r(x_r) \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{l \in L} R_{lr} V_l(y_l) \leq \sigma_r, \quad (2)
\]

where, again, \( x_r \geq 0, y = Rx \) and under the assumption that \( \lim_{y \to 0} V_l(y) = \infty \). We emphasize that this convex optimization problem requires the quality degradation on each route to remain bounded. In this article, our objective is to design a distributed control scheme that can approach the optimal operating point which trades off throughput and quality, without maintaining per-flow information or prioritizing certain packets at intermediate hops. We overview our main contributions below, with details contained in subsequent sections.

Classical optimization-decomposition techniques typically yield a “source-rate responds to link-price” type of controller [2]–[6], wherein each link’s price increases with the link-load in order to prevent the link-capacity from being exceeded. As the link-price increases, sources cut down their transmission rates, where the aggressiveness of the source controller is determined by its utility function. However, the solution to our delay-aware problem has remained elusive due to the strong coupling between the quality seen at source, which requires a hard guarantee, and link quality degradation, which depends on the link-loads along its route.

We present illustrative examples of what quality degradation functions may look like in Section II, and discuss an example that we use later in the paper. We then proceed to provide a centralized solution to our problem of interest in Section III. We develop two algorithms to this end. A primal algorithm is proposed in Section IV. Our main contribution, a dual algorithm, is presented in Section V, and stems from the realization that it is possible to decouple the QoS guarantees at sources and link quality degradation using an effective capacity that is based on the link-price and user-dissatisfaction. Once we set the effective capacity for a link, the quality degradation depends solely on this decision and not on the actual link-load.

Each source declares its dissatisfaction to the links it uses based on the difference between the quality it sees and what it requires. The links select a price based on the difference between load and effective capacity, which in turn depends on link-load and aggregate dissatisfaction of users sharing the link. This decoupling of link-load and effective capacity appears to have the correct properties to allow a distributed solution. Finally, sources employ route-prices (the sum of all link-prices on a route) to determine their source-rates.

We prove that the algorithm is indeed capable of solving our resource allocation problem using Lyapunov techniques [16]. We report numerical results about the simulated operation of the controller in Section VI to illustrate its performance. A new contribution over our earlier version [1] is the development of a realistic protocol based on the proposed controller. The protocol is presented in Section VII, where we report simulation experiments on ns-2 to show that it performs as desired. We conclude with pointers to future work in Section VIII.

II. EXAMPLES OF QUALITY DEGRADATION FUNCTIONS

We begin this section by discussing candidate measures of link quality degradation with load. We make several assumptions on the properties of link quality degradation functions. They can be expressed in the following manner; if the total sum-rate on link \( l \) is \( y_l = \sum_{r \in S} R_{lr} x_r \), then

- the quality degradation function \( V_l(y_l) \) is non-negative, convex increasing in link-load \( y_l \),
- the total quality degradation seen by flow \( r \) is \( \beta_r(x) = \sum_{l \in L} R_{lr} V_l(y_l) \) (i.e., quality degradation adds up over multiple hops), and
- the service process at one link does not impact the arrival process at the succeeding link.

The above assumptions ensure the analytical tractability of our optimization problem. We also believe that they provide acceptable models of quality degradations in communication systems with queues. Below, we support these assumptions with common examples of quality degradation functions.

For an M/M/1 queue with arrival rate \( \lambda \) and service rate \( \mu \), the expected waiting time in the queue is \( y/(c(c-y)) \) for a stable queue, that is when \( y < c \). In this case, one can select the quality degradation function to be the expected waiting time for any packet in the queue,

\[
V(y) = y/(c(c-y)).
\]

We note that the quality degradation function is non-negative, convex, and increases from 0 to \( \infty \) when \( x \) ranges in \([0,c]\).

As a second example, consider a single server fluid queue with constant-rate arrival \( \lambda \) and a two-state on-off service process where on and off times are exponentially distributed with rates \( \mu \) and \( \lambda \), respectively. When the service is on and the buffer is non-empty, it is serviced at a constant rate \( r \) such that \( y < r\lambda/\mu \). It can be shown [17] that the probability of buffer exceeding a threshold \( z \) is exponentially decreasing as \( z \) increases. A possible quality degradation function in this
case is the inverse of the decay-rate. One can write the decay-rate explicitly in terms of the above parameters as

\[ 1/V(y) = - \lim_{z \to \infty} z^{-1} \log \Pr(L > z) = \lambda/y - \mu/(r - y). \]

If we denote \( r \lambda/(\lambda + \mu) \) by \( c \) then, one can write

\[ V(y) = y(c - y)^{-1} \left(c \lambda^{-1} - y(\mu + \lambda)^{-1}\right). \]

Again, note that the quality degradation function is non-negative, convex, and increases from 0 to \( \infty \) when \( x \) ranges in \([0, c)\). Recent results [18] suggest that, under appropriate conditions, the delay seen in a queue is independent of other queues even though packets traverse the network along connected paths.

III. CENTRALIZED RESOURCE ALLOCATION

We begin by developing ideas on how to solve the resource allocation problem of (2) in a centralized fashion, and we create model networks that we will use as examples to illustrate the performance of various control loops throughout. Consider the scenario where the utility functions assume unbounded negative values when \( x_r = 0 \) and the quality degradation functions grow unbounded when sum-rates \( y \) approach \( c \). In this case, an optimal solution is characterized by \( x_r > 0 \) and \( y_l < c \). Let \( x^+ = \{x_r^+ : r \in S\} \) be a feasible point such that \( y^+ = Rx^+ \), and suppose there exist constants \( w_r \geq 0 \) such that

\[ U_r(x^+_r) - \sum_{s \in S} w_s \sum_{l \in L} R_{ls} R_{lr} V_l(y_l) = 0, \]

\[ w_r(\beta_r(x^+)) - \sigma_r = 0, \]

for all \( r \in S \), then \( x^+ \) is a global maximum. Moreover, if \( U_r(\cdot) \) is strictly concave, then \( x^+ \) is the unique global maximum.

We illustrate by the following example how our model takes into consideration all of the desired properties of the quality degradation function and how they impact resource allocation with service guarantees.

Let \( w_i \) be the Lagrange multipliers corresponding to the quality degradation constraint of flow \( i \). The Lagrangian is

\[ L(x, w) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} a_i \log x_i + \sum_{i=1}^{2} w_i \left( \log \left(1 - \frac{x_i + x_3}{c_i}\right) + \sigma_i \right) + w_3 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{2} \log \left(1 - \frac{x_i + x_3}{c_i}\right) + \sigma_3 \right). \]

Therefore, we can derive the KKT conditions for this system,

\[ a_i x_i^+ - (w_i + w_3)/(c_i - x_i^+ - x_3^+) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2 \]

\[ a_3 x_3^+ - \sum_{i=1}^{2} (w_i + w_3)/(c_i - x_i^+ - x_3^+) = 0, \]

\[ w_i \left( \log \left(1 - (x_i + x_3)/c_i\right) + \sigma_i \right) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2 \]

\[ w_3 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{2} \log \left(1 - (x_i + x_3)/c_i\right) + \sigma_3 \right) = 0. \]

Let us consider the situation where \( \sigma_3 < \min\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\} \). In this case, \( w_1 = w_2 = 0 \) and

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{2} \log \left(1 - \frac{x_i + x_3}{c_i}\right) + \sigma_3 = 0. \]

For the simple case where \( a_i = 1 \) and \( c_i = c \) for \( i = 1, 2, 3 \), we get optimal rates

\[ x_1^+ = x_2^+ = 2x_3^+ = \frac{2c}{3} \left(1 - e^{-\sigma_3/2}\right). \]

This illustrative example provides supporting evidence that our modeling intuition is accurate for resource allocation with service guarantees. We list pertinent observations derived from this model:

- for any finite service requirement, the sum-rate is always less than the capacity of each link;
- throughputs decrease with the number of hops due to service requirements;
- when quality degradation is inherent to a link, the flow with the most stringent service requirements limits the throughput of every neighboring flow.

IV. PRIMAL ALGORITHM

In this section, we develop an algorithm that can be employed to obtain an approximate solution to our optimization problem. The approach that we adopt is called the Primal method, as it follows from the primal formulation of the problem. The main idea is to relax the constraints by incorporating them as a cost into the objective. Essentially, the idea is that there is a price for violating the quality constraints and, as such, we can maximize the difference between utility and cost. We consider the objective

\[ J(x) = \sum_{r \in S} \left(U_r(x_r) - B_r(\beta_r(x))\right), \]

where \( B_r(\cdot) \) is a convex barrier function that increases from zero to infinity as its argument ranges from zero to \( \sigma_r \).
Let the optimization problem is given by resource allocation. The dual formulation corresponding to our allocation problem defined in (2). This provides new insight approach is not completely distributed.

This gives us a system of equations that can be solved to find the optimal \( x^* \) for any vector \( w \). However, it requires knowledge of the load on every link a flow traverses. Therefore, this approach is not completely distributed.

Nevertheless, this formulation gives us the hint that instead of link load and link-degradation being dependent on each other directly with load \( y = Rx \) and degradation \( V(y) \), we can break up their coupling. We do this by introducing a new variable \( \bar{y}_l \), we refer to as effective capacity of link \( l \). This variable upper bounds the total link load \( y_l \), and \( V(\bar{y}_l) \) upper bounds the link degradation. We then define “effective quality degradation” \( \bar{\sigma}_r \) as \( \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} R_{lr} V(\bar{y}_l) \) seen by flow \( r \). Then, the relaxed version of the resource allocation problem becomes

\[
\max \sum_{r \in \mathcal{S}} U_r(x_r) \\
\text{subject to } y_l \leq \bar{y}_l, \forall l \in \mathcal{L} \\
\bar{\sigma}_r \leq \sigma_r, \text{ and } x_r \geq 0 \forall r \in \mathcal{S}.
\] (9)

Assuming that our concave utility and convex quality degradation functions ensure that values of \( x_r \) and \( (c_l - \bar{y}_l) \) are always positive, we can express the dual problem in terms of positive Lagrange multipliers \( p_l \) and \( \bar{w}_r \),

\[
\min_{p_l, w_r \geq 0} D(p, w).
\] (10)

Here, \( D(p, w) \) is the maximum of the Lagrangian function \( L(x, \tilde{y}, p, w) \) with respect to \( x, \tilde{y} \), where

\[
L = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} U_s(x_s) - \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} p_l (y_l - \bar{y}_l) - \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} w_s (\bar{\sigma}_s - \sigma_s).
\]

Let \( x^*, \tilde{y}^* \) be the maximizers for \( L \) for any \( p, w \), then

\[
U_r(x_r^*) = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} R_{lr} p_l, \quad p_l = V(\tilde{y}_l^*) \sum_{r \in \mathcal{S}} R_{lr} w_r.
\]

We find the partial derivatives of \( D(p, w) \) with respect to variables \( p \) and \( w \),

\[
\frac{\partial D}{\partial p_l} = \bar{y}_l - y_l, \quad \frac{\partial D}{\partial w_r} = \bar{\sigma}_r - \bar{\sigma}_r,
\] (11)

where \( \bar{y}^*_l \) and \( \bar{\sigma}^*_r \) are link-load and effective degradation for maximizing rate \( x^* \) and effective-capacity \( \tilde{y}^* \). We employ gradient descent method for minimizing the dual of the relaxed problem. Therefore, the update equations for Lagrange multipliers \( p, w \) can be written as

\[
\dot{p}_l = h_l(p_l) \left( -\frac{\partial D}{\partial p_l} \right)^+, \quad \dot{w}_r = k_r(w_r) \left( -\frac{\partial D}{\partial w_r} \right)^+,
\] (12)

where \( h_l(\cdot), k_r(\cdot) \) are positive functions and the notation \((z)^+\) is used to represent the function

\[
(z)^+ = \begin{cases} z & \text{if } z > 0 \\ \max\{z, 0\} & \text{if } z = 0. \end{cases}
\]

Function \((z)^+\) can be thought of as net input-rate into a fluid queue \( \rho \). Clearly, when queue is non-empty fluid can enter at rate \( z \), or leave at rate \(-z\). However, when queue is empty fluid can only enter, but not leave.

We can now easily see that the above algorithm is distributed in nature. At any time during the evolution of our algorithm, we can treat Lagrange multipliers \( p_l \) and \( w_r \) as link-price and route-dissatisfaction, respectively. A flow \( r \) needs to “pay” link-price \( p_l \) for congesting link \( l \) if it uses the link (with the route-price being the sum of all such \( p_l \)), and \( w_r \) is its end-to-end dissatisfaction under the current system state. The effective
capacity of link \( l \) is \( y_l \) and is decoupled from the actual load on this link, \( y_l = \sum_{r \in S} R_l \cdot x_r \). We denote the sum of link-prices by \( q_l = \sum_{r \in L} R_l \cdot p_l \) for any flow \( r \), and the sum of route-dissatisfaction on a link \( l \) by \( \nu_l = \sum_{r \in S} R_l \cdot w_r \) to yield the total dissatisfaction on that link. Note that such a total implies that there is no need to maintain per-flow information at the link. Notice again that due to decoupling through \( y \), the perceived quality degradation is a function of the effective capacity, and not the actual link-load.

The algorithm is illustrated in Fig. 2. Although the diagram is reminiscent of traditional “source-rate responds to link-price” [2]–[5] corresponding to the congestion control problem defined in (1), the system is actually very different. The system may be described as follows:

- Each flow \( r \), as it traverses its route, accrues the price \( q_r \) that it needs to “pay” for using each of the links \( l \). Using this route-price, each source computes a feasible rate \( x_r = U_l^{-1}(q_r) \).

Furthermore, each source declares its dissatisfaction \( w_r \) to the links it uses based on the difference between the quality degradation \( \hat{\sigma}_r \) that it sees and the degradation \( \sigma_r \) that it is willing to tolerate. The dissatisfaction is updated using

\[
\hat{\nu}_l = V_l^{-1}(p_l/\nu_l)
\]

and updates the link price by

\[
\hat{p}_l = h_l(p_l)(y_l - \hat{y}_l)^+.\]

The link ensures that the quality degradation inflicted on its users is \( V_l(\hat{y}_l) \) by increasing or reducing its aggregate flow as needed.

In summary, along with the two traditional elements of source-rate \( x_r \) and link-price \( p_l \), we have two additional control variables: source-dissatisfaction \( w_r \) and effective capacity \( \hat{y}_l \) (with link-degradation \( V_l(\hat{y}_l) \)) that provide two further dimensions of control that are required for a distributed solution. We next show that for admissible functions \( V_l(\cdot) \), the effective capacity is equal to the sum rate for all links for which the capacity constraint is binding.

Proposition 2. Assume that \( V_l(\cdot) \) is strictly convex and increasing, and \( \sigma_r \) is finite for all \( r \in S \). Then, at equilibrium, for all \( l \in L : \hat{y}_l < \hat{y}_l \), we have \( \hat{p}_l = p_l = 0 \).

Proof: Our proof is by contradiction. Let us assume that at the equilibrium, there is \( l \in L \) such that \( \hat{y}_l < \hat{y}_l \) and \( \hat{p}_l \neq 0 \). For this \( l \), we have \( \hat{p}_l = 0 \) by KKT conditions. Note that \( V_l(\cdot) \) is a non-negative increasing function. That is, either \( V_l(0) = 0 \) or \( V_l(z) > 0 \) for all \( z \in [0, c_l] \). For the former case, \( 0 \leq \hat{y}_l \leq \hat{y}_l = 0 = V_l^{-1}(0) \), i.e., \( \hat{y}_l = \hat{y}_l \). For the latter case, \( \hat{p}_l \) cannot be zero since \( V_l^{-1}(0) \) is not in the feasible range of \( \hat{y}_l \) and hence this will force \( \hat{y}_l = \hat{y}_l \) at the equilibrium. Therefore, the result holds.

We have in effect, shown that the equilibrium conditions of our control loop satisfy the KKT conditions of the original optimization problem defined in (2). The conditions are easy to verify, and we may state this result as a corollary to Proposition 2.

Corollary 3. The stationary point of (12) is a maximizer of the convex optimization problem described in (2).

It is quite easy to show that the above algorithm is globally asymptotically stable. To show this, we choose our Lyapunov function to be

\[
Q(p, w) = D(p, w) - D(\hat{p}, \hat{w}),
\]

where \( \hat{p}, \hat{w} \) are the unique minimizers of \( D(p, w) \). It is clear that \( Q(p, w) \geq 0 \) for all values of \( p, w \). Also, it is easily seen that \( D(p, w) \) grows radially unbounded in \( p, w \) for our choice of \( V_l(\cdot) \). Therefore, to prove that the above algorithm is stable it suffices to show \( \dot{D}(p, w) \leq 0 \), with equality if and only if \( p = \hat{p} \) and \( w = \hat{w} \). Note that at \( \hat{p}, \hat{w} \), one would have \( \hat{p}_l = \hat{w}_r = 0 \).

Proposition 4. Let \( Q(p, w) \) be as defined in (13) and functions \( U_r(\cdot), V_l(\cdot), k_r(\cdot) \) and \( h_l(\cdot) \) be such that \( Q(p, w) \) grows unbounded with \( \|p\| \) and \( \|w\| \). The controller in (12) is globally asymptotically stable and the equilibrium value maximizes (2).

Proof: Differentiating \( D \) with respect to time, we get

\[
\dot{D}(p, w) = \sum_{l \in L} \frac{\partial D}{\partial p_l} \dot{p}_l + \sum_{r \in S} \frac{\partial D}{\partial w_r} \dot{w}_r,
\]

\[
= - \sum_{l \in L} h_l(p_l)(y_l - \hat{y}_l)(y_l - \hat{y}_l)_{p_l} + \sum_{r \in S} k_r(w_r)(\hat{\sigma}_r - \sigma_r)(\hat{\sigma}_r - \sigma_r)_{w_r} < 0,
\]

for all \( (p, w) \neq (\hat{p}, \hat{w}) \) and \( \dot{D}(\hat{p}, \hat{w}) = 0 \). The second equality follows from equations (11) and (12). Thus, all the conditions of the Lyapunov theorem [16] are satisfied and we have proved that the Lagrange multipliers converge to \( \hat{p}, \hat{w} \). Hence, the system converges to the minimizer of (10). From the convexity of our original problem (2) and Corollary 3, it follows that the stable point is the maximizer of (2).

VI. NUMERICAL STUDIES

We utilize two realistic topologies presented in [14], illustrated in Fig. 3, to conduct numerical experiments. Our objective is to study the performance of our value-aware controller
in different networking scenarios. We simulated our distributed resource allocation algorithm in Matlab using discrete-time evolution of *link-prices* and *end-to-end dissatisfaction*. Sources send packets at the rate generated by the controller, and links average this rate out using an exponential averaging factor $\alpha$. Links base their decision on this average rate.

### A. Access-Core Topology

Our first network is an *access-core* topology shown in Fig. 3(a). It represents a paradigm similar to commercially available Internet access, wherein users have a relatively small access bandwidth (from homes and businesses), connected together by a resource rich core-network. User bandwidth is constrained, either directly at the final hop into the home, or at a neighborhood head-end. Applications such as P2P file transfers (low quality constraint), as well as voice and video calls (higher quality constraints) result in end-to-end traffic on such a topology.

We consider the situation when nodes 1 and 3 wish to communicate to node 5; and similarly nodes 2 and 4, to node 6 over an access-core network as shown in Fig. 3(a). The labels on the links denote their respective capacity. We refer to a flow by its origin node. The QoS constraints on quality of degradation for flows 1-4 are 2, 1, 3, 2, respectively. We plot the convergence of the source rates in Fig. 4(a). We also plot load $y_1$ and *effective capacity* $\tilde{y}_1$ for the diagonal core link used by flows 2 & 3 in Fig. 4(b). We also plotted the quality seen by the flow 2 and its constraint $\sigma_2 = 1$ in Fig. 4(c). Note, we have different rates of convergence of different parameters.

We assume that core links have a capacity of much higher order than that of access links. Thereby, every link on the core is taken to be of capacity 10, whereas access node 1 connects to the core with capacity 0.5. Similarly, capacities for nodes 2-4 are 0.3, 1, 0.4 respectively. We chose nodes 5, 6 to have identical access link capacities of 1.

### B. Abilene Topology

Our second network represents the major nodes of the Abilene network topology [19], shown in Fig. 3(b). The network consists of high bandwidth links, and connects several universities and research labs. Traffic consists of large scale data transfers (low quality constraints) and distributed computation (where flows have strict delay constraints).

We consider 3 flows over the Abilene network as shown in Fig. 3(b) with labels denoting the capacity of the corresponding link. Note, they are of same order. We call the flow on bottom to be flow 1 and one on the top, flow 2. These two flows have QoS constraint on dissatisfaction 8 and 15 respectively. Flow 3 has the zigzag path and has the most stringent QoS constraint of 1. We plot the convergence of flow rates in Fig. 5(a). We also plot load $y_1$ and *effective capacity* $\tilde{y}_1$ for the link of capacity 3 shared by flows 2 and 3, in Fig. 5(b). We have also plotted the quality seen by the zigzag flow and it's acceptable constraint $\sigma_3 = 1$ in Fig. 5(c).

The conclusions that we draw from our simulations are (i) our value-aware resource allocation algorithm converges to a stable solution, (ii) user quality constraints are satisfied at equilibrium, i.e., the algorithm performs as designed, and (iii) the effective capacity is identical to the actual link load at equilibrium showing that our relaxation produces a tight solution.

### VII. NS-2 Experiments

We adopt utility functions of the form $U_r(x_r) = a_r \log(x_r)$. We take $a_r = 100$ and normalize source-rates $x_r$ to Megabits per second. The header of each packet transmitted by a source

![Fig. 3. Two realistic topologies for numerical experimentation.](image1)

![Fig. 4. Convergence performance on Access-core topology.](image2)
contains two additional fields, (i) source dissatisfaction \( w_r \) and (ii) route price \( q_r \). Dissatisfaction is updated for each packet at the destination node as indicated by our dual algorithm. We selected the scaling function \( k_r(w_r) \) to be a constant \( 10^3 \). Route price \( q_r \) is initialized to zero and is updated by the links. Depending on the current value, sources update their current rate as indicated by the algorithm.

As indicated by our algorithm, the price-update can be implemented by a virtual queue being served at rate equal to the effective capacity with an arrival rate of \( \gamma_l \). This virtual queue is implemented by traffic shaping (TS) queue, described below. We also need to compute the quality degradation at each link \( V_i(\gamma_l) \). We choose quality degradation per link to be the delay experienced by packets arriving in a queue with a rate \( \gamma_l \) and being served at link-capacity \( c_l \). This queue is implemented by the router queue that buffers packets pending transmission over the link. The queues are shown in Fig. 6.

![Image of TS Queue and Router Queue](image)

**Fig. 6.** Each node in our system contains a TS-queue and a router queue for each out-going link.

**The Traffic Shaping Queue:** The purpose of this queue is to shape traffic entering the router queue, and is illustrated by the queue on the left in Fig. 7. Since our system requires decoupling of the real load \( y_l \) on link \( l \) from the effective capacity \( \gamma_l \), we need to either add or subtract packets arriving at the link. For example, if two sources \( (S_1, S_2) \) are using link \( l \), then a packet arrival from \( S_1 \) or \( S_2 \) is enqueued into the TS queue. The TS queue is drained at a rate \( \gamma_l \). The queue dynamics are implemented using a token generator at each link. Tokens are created at rate \( \gamma_l \). Each token observes the TS queue and if it is non-empty, it places the packet at the head of the TS queue into the router queue. Otherwise, the token itself is placed in the router queue. Delays are created due to the time that packets spend in the TS queue, but we will see that these delays are small. We choose a large buffer size (10,000 packets) to ensure that very few packets are lost.

**The Router Queue:** We approximate the delay in router queue with a decreasing function of difference in link-capacity \( c_l \) and the effective capacity \( \gamma_l \). In particular, we take \( V_i'(\gamma_l) \approx \frac{K}{(c_l - \gamma_l)^2} \). Therefore, we can update effective capacity \( \gamma_l \) at periodic time intervals according to the following equation

\[
\gamma_l = c_l - \sqrt{K \nu_i / \pi_i}.
\]  

We choose \( K = 10^9 \) for fast convergence. Unlike the analytical result presented earlier, we note that in reality it takes a while for the impact of changing effective capacity \( \gamma_l \) to be felt on the end-to-end delay. Therefore, we do not change \( \gamma_l \) at the same time scale as source rates. Instead, we do so periodically at each link. The times at which each link changes its value of \( \gamma_l \) are not synchronized. The objective is to get the source rates to converge to effective capacity \( \gamma_l \). The value of \( \gamma_l \) is again changed after a time interval, assuming that the sum of source rates converged to that \( \gamma_l \), and hence the observed delay is \( V_i(\gamma_l) \).

We now study the performance of our protocol using a network simulator (ns-2) on the two realistic topologies presented that we saw earlier in Section VI. Let \( T_i \) denote the propagation delay for flow \( i \) with no queuing delays. Our objective is to study the performance of our value-aware controller in different networking scenarios, and our example situations are shown in Fig. 8.

![Abilene Topology Diagram](image)

**Fig. 7.** The dynamics of the TS-queue and router queue in our system. Tokens are used in order to modulate the arrival rate into the router queue. Tokens are dropped when they reach the head of the router queue.

**Abilene Topology:** As shown in Fig. 8(a), the rates of the three flows are \( x_1, x_2 \) and \( x_3 \). In the system considered, \( T_1 = 50 \text{ ms}, T_2 = 45 \text{ ms} \) and \( T_3 = 25 \text{ms} \). We consider two cases. In the first case, flow 1 has stringent quality degradation constraint. In particular, respective degradation tolerances in terms of delays are \( \sigma_1 = 55 \text{ ms} \) and \( \sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 1000 \text{ ms} \). Thus, we have set a very high delay tolerance for flows 2 and 3, whereas for flow 1 this tolerance is very low and nearly equals the propagation delay of 50 ms, and hence allows a queuing delay of only 5 ms for the five intermediate queues at routers 1, 5, 4, 6 and 10. The tight delay constraint on flow 1 has an effect on the other two flows which share the link between routers 6 and 10 with it. In Fig. 9(a) we plot the rates associated with individual flows. Figure 9(b) shows the acceptable delay for
packets for flow 1, the delay through the router queues (the control delay), and the actual total delay (TS queue plus router queue) for packets to reach node 11 from node 1. Figure 9(c) plots the effective capacity $\tilde{y}$ for the link between nodes 6 and 10 (shared by all the three flows), which is less than the total link capacity of 25 Mbps. It is clear that the protocol is successful in ensuring a good delay performance for flow 1, at the expense of overall system throughput.

**Access-Core Topology:** Our other experiment involves the Access-Core topology, with flows of interest shown in Fig. 8(b). In the system considered $T_1 = T_3 = 20$ ms and $T_2 = 25$ ms. Flow 1 has very stringent delay constraint. In particular, delay tolerances are $\sigma_1 = 25$ ms, $\sigma_2 = \sigma_3 = 1000$ s. In this case, flows 2 and 3 are highly delay tolerant, while flow 1 has low delay tolerance and it nearly equals the propagation delay of 20ms, and allows a queuing delay of 5ms for the three intermediate queues at routers 1, $r_1$ and $r_4$. The tight delay constraint on flow 1 has an effect on the other two flows which share the link between $r_4$ and 4 with it. In Fig. 10(a) we plot the three rates for flows 1, 2 and 3. Fig. 10(b) shows the acceptable delay for packets for flow 1, the delay through the router queue (control delay) and the actual total delay (TS queue plus router queue) for packets to reach node 4 from node 1. The total delay is close to the target. Fig. 10(c) plots the $\tilde{y}$ at router $r_4$ which is shared by all the three flows. Again, the throughput is less than the link capacity of 15 Mbps in the interest of reducing delay.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS
In this paper we considered the design of a distributed resource allocation algorithm that would allow each individual flow to specify its measure of value. We assumed that every flow passing through a link suffers a certain quality-degradation due to the load on the link, and that such degradation adds up over the multiple links that the flow traverses. The objective is to ensure that the system throughput is maximized in a fair manner, subject to each flow’s quality of service satisfying a hard constraint. Our aim was to ensure that the protocol does indeed trade delay and throughput, so as to maximize the total utility of the system. In the future we would like to test out our ideas on a real network.

REFERENCES
Fig. 9. Convergence performance on Abilene network topology.

Fig. 10. Convergence performance on Access-Core network topology.


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