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# Bandwidth Aggregation for Real-Time Applications in Heterogeneous Wireless Networks

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### **Abstract**

A variety of wireless interfaces are available for today's mobile user to access Internet content. When coverage areas of these different technologies overlap, a terminal equipped with multiple interfaces can use them simultaneously to improve the performance of its applications. In this paper, we motivate the advantages that can be had through simultaneous use of multiple interfaces and present a network layer architecture that enables diverse multi-access services. In particular, we explore in depth one such service provided by the architecture: Bandwidth Aggregation (BAG) for real-time applications.

An important aspect of the architecture when providing BAG services for real-time applications is the scheduling algorithm that partitions the traffic onto different interfaces such that the QoS requirements of the application are met. We propose one such algorithm Earliest Delivery Path First (EDPF), that ensures packets meet their playback deadlines by scheduling packets based on the estimated delivery time of the packets. We show through analysis that EDPF performs close to an idealized Aggregated Single Link (ASL) discipline, where the multiple interfaces are replaced by a single interface with same aggregated bandwidth. A prototype implementation and extensive simulations carried using video and delay traces show the performance improvement BAG with EDPF scheduling offers over using just the Highest Bandwidth Interface (HBI) and other scheduling approaches based on weighted round robin.

### **Index Terms**

Network Architecture and Design, Video, Scheduling, Algorithm/Protocol Design and Analysis, Implementation, Simulation

### I. Introduction

The explosive growth of Internet has been a major driving force in the proliferation of a variety of wireless technologies. Examples include 802.11, Bluetooth, GPRS, CDMA2000, UMTS etc. Several research challenges [1]–[4] related to the use of a single wireless technology at the mobile client have been explored so far. With the incidence of a variety of wireless technologies, seamless migration of connections [5] (vertical handoff) from one interface to another, content adaptation [6] to suit the characteristics of the interface have also been addressed. However, the basis of most of the research in this domain has been confined to single interface use at any given time to meet all the connectivity requirements of the applications.

Existing wireless technologies differ widely in terms of services offered - bandwidth, coverage, QoS support, pricing etc. Restricting usage to one single interface at a time limits the flexibility available to the end user in making the best use of all available resources on his interfaces. The use of multiple interfaces simultaneously opens new way of addressing some of the limitations of wireless media and can enable other new and interesting possibilities:

- Bandwidth Aggregation: Bandwidth offered by the multiple interfaces can be aggregated to improve quality or support demanding applications that need high bandwidth.
- Mobility Support: The delay associated with handoff can be significantly reduced when an alternate communication path is always kept alive.
- Reliability: For applications requiring strict reliability guarantees, some or all packets can be duplicated/encoded and sent on the multiple paths.
- Resource Sharing: While the above scenarios involve a single client host, the idea can be
  extended to broader scenarios. For instance, in an ad-hoc network of nodes connected via
  their local interfaces (LAN 802.11 or Bluetooth), a subset of nodes may have wide area
  (WAN) connections. These WAN bandwidth resources can be shared effectively across the
  nodes to access Internet.
- Data-Control Plane Separation: Similarly, the WAN interfaces in an ad hoc/sensor network
  can also be used for *out of band* control communication (via an infrastructure proxy) to aid
  distributed ad hoc protocols such as routing. The LAN interface can thus mostly be used
  for data, thereby achieving a clean separation between control and data planes.

We term the services enabled by such simultaneous use of multiple interfaces as Multi-Access

Services. To realize in practice the services listed above, we need an architecture to support multiple communication paths. In this paper, we begin by providing a general framework in the form of such an architecture. In particular, we focus our attention on one of the services provided by the architecture: **B**andwidth **Ag**gregation (BAG) for real-time applications.

The architecture can be addressed at different layers of the protocol stack. We choose a network layer approach as opposed to transport/application layer solution to introduce minimal changes in the existing infrastructure thus providing application transparency. Our network layer architecture consists of an infrastructure proxy. A proxy may provide services to a set of mobile clients equipped with multiple interfaces, and multiple proxies may be provisioned for reliability and scalability. Some of the features of the network proxy are similar in spirit to that provided by Mobile IP [7]. The client uses a fixed IP address acquired from the proxy in establishing connections with the remote host. The proxy captures the packets destined for the client and uses IP-within-IP encapsulation to tunnel them to the client. However unlike Mobile IP, the proxy can manage multiple care-of-addresses and perform intelligent processing and scheduling of packets.

One of the services provided by the architecture is that of aggregating bandwidth available on multiple interfaces to increase application throughput. We explore in depth this particular service in the context of real-time applications. While the use of multiple interfaces can increase one's bandwidth, the use of multiple paths, each with varying characteristics introduces new problems in the form of excess delay due to potential packet reordering. Streaming applications that employ smoothing buffers can tolerate this reordering to an extent. However, for interactive applications if care were not taken to minimize the delay resulting from reordering, such delay is often equivalent to a packet loss. In the context of our architecture, we look at this issue in the form of the scheduling algorithm at the network proxy (or mobile client in the uplink direction) that partitions the data stream onto the multiple paths corresponding to the different network interfaces. We propose the Earliest Delivery Path First (EDPF) algorithm that has the explicit objective of reducing delay due to reordering. It estimates the delivery time of the packets on each Internet path (corresponding to each interface), and schedules each packet on the path that delivers it the earliest. This approach effectively minimizes reordering and thereby the delay and jitter experienced by the application.

To understand the behavior of EDPF, we perform both *analysis* and *simulation/implementation*. The ideal scheduling algorithm would aggregate bandwidth such that the performance is similar

to the case where a single link with the same aggregate bandwidth is used – we call this the Aggregated Single Link (ASL) algorithm. We analyze the performance difference between EDPF and the idealized ASL algorithm in terms of several metrics: the number of bits serviced, delay experienced by the packets, the jitter under buffering, and the maximum buffer requirement for in-order delivery. In addition to the analysis, we study the performance of EDPF through *a prototype implementation* and *trace-based simulations* for both real-time streaming and interactive applications. Our results show that EDPF mimics ASL closely and outperforms round-robin based approaches [8] by a large margin.

While we have introduced BAG in the context of wireless interfaces, wired (e.g. dialup) links can also be included in bandwidth aggregation. Further, the scheduling algorithm EDPF can be used to provide QoS in many systems that use multiple paths. Examples of such systems include high-end storage (host connected to RAID server via multiple channels), Ethernet/ppp link aggregator systems [9], [10].

The rest of the article is organized as follows. In section II, we describe our architecture. The scheduling algorithm EDPF along with several properties is presented in section III. We describe a prototype implementation of the architecture in section IV and use it to demonstrate the use of BAG (with EDPF) for real-time streaming applications. Section V presents an extensive simulation based evaluation of EDPF for interactive applications. We describe related work in section VI and present concluding discussions in section VII.

# II. ARCHITECTURE AND SERVICES

In this section, we first motivate our choice of a network layer architecture that enables multi-access services and then proceed to discuss the functional components that make up our architecture. We also elaborate on one of the services provided by the architecture - BAG, which is the focus point of this paper. Additional details of the architecture can be found in [11].

# A. Why a Network Layer Architecture?

The architecture can potentially be addressed at different layers of the protocol stack. Link layer solutions are infeasible in this setup, as the networks span different domains, controlled by different service providers. An application-level solution is a possible design alternative. Making applications aware of the presence of multiple interfaces can lead to application specific

optimization and can be very efficient. However, given the diversity of applications, this approach would mean modifying/rewriting the various applications while ensuring compatibility with existing infrastructure, making wide spread deployment a difficult job. Further, the applications need to keep track of the state of different interfaces, which increases their complexity. And when multiple applications share common client resources (interfaces), they have to be designed carefully to avoid negative interaction among flows.

Transport layer solutions (e.g. for use with TCP-based applications) share some of the same features as application layer solutions. While they can be efficient, they still need all server software to be upgraded to use the new transport protocols and cooperation during standardization to prevent negative interaction.

With IP as a unifying standard, a network layer proxy based approach has the advantages of being transparent to applications and transport protocols and doesn't need any changes to existing server software. Our choice of a network layer solution mainly stems from its ease of deployment. Legacy applications in particular can benefit with this approach as they have no other design alternative. Another advantage with a network layer setting is a centralized approach to end user flow management that can potentially prevent any negative interaction.

While the network layer approach overcomes most limitations of the other approaches, it may not always be very efficient as it operates further down the stack. However, we believe that with careful design, most inefficiencies can be minimized. Our design choice as such does not preclude further optimization at the higher layers. In fact, our architecture can lend support to higher layer approaches in terms of mobility support when handling multiple interfaces. In the absence of this solution, higher layer approaches may have to handle mobility themselves or rely on multiple Mobile IP initiations (one for each interface, which to our knowledge is not supported by Mobile IP).

We now proceed to discuss the main details of our architecture.

### B. Architecture

Fig 1 shows a high level overview of the architecture. The network proxy provides many different services (Bandwidth Aggregation, mobility support, resource sharing etc) to the client (equivalently, the MH), which is connected to the Internet via multiple network interfaces. The MH, when using the services of the network proxy, acquires a fixed IP address from it and

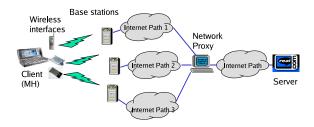


Fig. 1. Architecture to support multiple communication paths

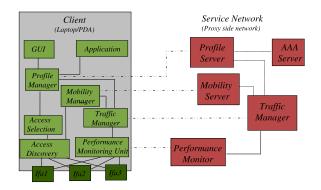


Fig. 2. Functional Components of the Architecture

uses it to establish connections with the remote server. The MH also registers the care-of IP addresses of its multiple active interfaces with the proxy. When the application traffic of the MH passes through the domain of the proxy, the proxy intercepts the packets and performs necessary application specific processing. It then tunnels them using IP-within-IP encapsulation to the client's different interfaces. This mechanism is similar to that used in Mobile IP but has been extended to handle multiple interfaces. Note that this mechanism is needed in our architecture not just for mobility support but for simultaneous use of interfaces - it is essential even when the client is stationary.

The functional components that make up our architecture, which reside on the MH and on the network are as shown in figure 2. For each application the MH starts, the *Profile Manager* generates a profile based on user input and application needs. The profile carries information that specifies how to handle the flows generated by the application - the interfaces to use, the granularity of sharing (per packet or per session) while scheduling, any additional functionality (reliability, content adaptation etc) needed. Based on the profile generated, the

necessary interfaces are activated (if not already up) by the *Access Selection* in conjunction with *Access Discovery*. The acquired care-of IP addresses are registered by the *Mobility Manager* at the *Mobility Server* residing on the service network. The Profile Manager also conveys the profile information to the *Profile Server* to facilitate it in handling the application traffic that passes through the proxy. The *Traffic Manager* performs the necessary processing and scheduling of the traffic onto the multiple interfaces based on the input from the Profile Manger/Server and the Performance Monitoring Unit. The *Performance Monitoring Units* on both ends monitor the characteristics (throughput, delay, power consumption etc) of the path from the proxy to the different interfaces and communicate with each other periodically to keep this information up to date.

BAG services: One of the services provided by the architecture towards increasing application throughput is that of Bandwidth Aggregation (BAG). While we have come a long way in terms of peak data rates in mobile networks, 9.6kbps (GSM-TDMA) in 2G to 2Mbps(UMTS) in 3G, the typical rates one can expect to see in a loaded network are still very small [12] - 40kbps in 1xRTT, 80kbps in EDGE, 250kbps in UMTS. Supporting real-time applications with stringent QoS requirements, large file transfers, intense web sessions is a difficult task and may not even be possible if confined to a single interface. Using bandwidth available from all possible sources may be the only option to increase one's bandwidth and support demanding applications. In this paper, we focus our attention on two such demanding applications - real-time streaming, and interactive video. In concurrent work [13] we have considered BAG services for TCP applications. In the context of the overall architecture, a crucial aspect that dictates real-time video performance is the scheduling algorithm that resides in Traffic Manager which splits traffic across the different paths. We now turn to a discussion of the design of this algorithm.

## III. THE SCHEDULING ALGORITHM

For real-time applications, the scheduling algorithm not only has to effectively aggregate bandwidth of the interfaces but also minimize delay experienced by packets due to potential reordering caused by varying characteristics (delay, bandwidth, loss) of the multiple paths. We first present a scheduling algorithm under ideal conditions, that achieves our desired objectives (Sec. III-A), along with some useful properties (Sec. III-B). In subsequent sections, we explain how the algorithm fits in practical scenarios.

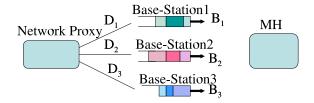


Fig. 3. A simplified view of the network between proxy and MH

# A. The Earliest Delivery Path First (EDPF) Scheduling Algorithm

The overall idea behind EDPF is to (1) take into consideration the overall path characteristics between the proxy and the MH – delay, as well as the wireless bandwidth, and (2) schedule packets on the path which will deliver the packet at the earliest to the MH. In explicit terms, EDPF can be described as follows.

The network between the proxy and the MH can be simplified as shown in Fig. 3. Each path l (between the proxy and the MH) can be associated with three quantities: (1)  $D_l$ , the one-way wireline delay associated with the path (between the proxy and Base Station - BS), (2)  $B_l$ , the bandwidth negotiated at the BS  $^1$ , and (3) a variable  $A_l$ , which is the time the wireless channel becomes available for the next transmission at the BS. If we denote by  $a_i$ , the arrival instance of the  $i^{th}$  packet (at the proxy) and by  $L_i$ , the size of the packet, this packet when scheduled on path l would arrive at the MH at  $d_i^l$ .

$$d_i^l = MAX(a_i + D_l, A_l) + L_i/B_l$$
(1)

The first component computes the time at which transmission can begin at the BS, and the second component computes the packet transmission time (we ignore the wireless propagation delay). EDPF schedules the packet on the path p where,  $p = \{l : d_i^l \leq d_i^m, 1 \leq m \leq N\}$ , N being the number of interfaces. That is, the path with the earliest delivery time. EDPF then updates  $A_p$  to  $d_i^p$  i.e. the next transmission can begin only at the end of the current packet reception. EDPF tracks the queues at each of the base-stations through the  $A_l$  variable. By tracking the queues at the base-stations and taking it into account while scheduling packets, EDPF ensures that it uses

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The client negotiates certain bandwidth from the access network at the beginning of connection, which the access network guarantees for the duration of connection. Real-time applications cannot be supported without such QoS guarantees.

all the available path bandwidths, while achieving minimal packet reordering. The explanation so far focused only on downlink transmission where the MH acts as a sink. The same algorithm can also be used for the uplink case where the MH acts as the server.

# B. Properties of EDPF

We now analyze some of the properties of EDPF. Our goal is to bound the performance behavior of EDPF, as well as to compare it with the idealized ASL case. In the analysis below, we carry over the notations N,  $B_l$ ,  $A_l$ ,  $a_i$  and  $L_i$  from above. In addition, we use the following notation. We define the links corresponding to the highest and lowest bandwidth as  $hb = \{l : B_l \geq B_m, 1 \leq m \leq N\}$  and  $lb = \{l : B_l \leq B_m, 1 \leq m \leq N\}$  respectively. We define  $B_{max} = B_{hb}$  and  $B_{min} = B_{lb}$ . Each link l has a weight,  $w_l = B_l/B_{min}$ . We let  $L_{max}$  be the maximum packet size.

For simplicity of analysis, we assume that the wireline delay  $D_l$  experienced by the packets is 0. In general, the wireline delay is time varying, however if this quantity is upper bounded by some constant, the results can easily be extended. Let  $T_l(t) = max\{t, A_l\}$ .  $T_l(t)$  is in essence the time at which a packet arriving at time t can begin transmission on link l. Note that when packet i is scheduled on link l, if  $d_i$  is its delivery time at the client,  $T_l(a_i^+) = d_i$ , where  $a_i^+$  refers to the time instant just after  $a_i$  ( arrival time of packet i at proxy). When buffering is used with EDPF, we distinguish between the delivery time to the client  $(d_i)$ , and the receive time at the application, denoted  $r_i$ . Thus  $r_i \geq d_i$ . We set the initial value of  $A_l = 0$ , and let the first packet arrive at time 0  $(a_1 = 0)$ .

We first present a useful lemma that is used to derive some of the properties of EDPF.

Lemma 1: At any time t, if 
$$T_n(t) \leq T_m(t)$$
, then  $T_m(t) - T_n(t) \leq L_{max}/B_n$ .

*Proof:* We prove the above lemma by induction on the packet number i, as follows. We will show that in the interval  $[0, a_2]$ , the lemma holds. Assuming that it holds in  $[0, a_i]$ , we will then show that it holds in the interval  $(a_i, a_{i+1}]$ . (Recall that  $a_1 = 0$ .)

Basis: The first packet is scheduled on the link with the highest bandwidth i.e hb, to deliver it the earliest.  $A_{hb}$  would now take on the value  $L_1/B_{max}$  and  $A_{m\neq hb}=0$ . Consequently,  $T_{hb}(0^+)-T_m(0^+)=L_1/B_{max}\leq L_{max}/B_m$ . The lemma holds at time  $0^+$ . For any  $0< t\leq a_2$ , since  $T_m(t)=max\{t,A_m\}$ , the difference between  $T_m$ 's decreases linearly with t.

Inductive step: Assume that the lemma holds for packets 1, 2, ..., i-1 i.e. it holds in the interval  $[0, a_i]$ . Let l be the link chosen for transmission of packet i. Then according to EDPF,

$$d_i = T_l(a_i) + L_i/B_l \le T_m(a_i) + L_i/B_m, 1 \le m \le N$$

At time  $a_i^+$ ,  $T_l(a_i^+)$  takes on the value of  $d_i$  and the other T's do not change. Hence we have:

$$T_l(a_i^+) \le T_m(a_i^+) + L_i/B_m \tag{2}$$

We now consider the following two cases,

Case1:  $T_l(a_i^+) > T_m(a_i^+)$ . According to 2,  $T_l(a_i^+) - T_m(a_i^+) \le L_i/B_m$ .

Case2:  $T_l(a_i^+) \leq T_m(a_i^+)$ . Since the lemma holds at time  $a_i$ , we have  $T_m(a_i) - T_l(a_i) \leq L_{max}/B_l$ . Since  $T_l(a_i) < T_l(a_i^+) \leq T_m(a_i^+) = T_m(a_i)$ , from above inequality we get,  $T_m(a_i^+) - T_l(a_i^+) \leq L_{max}/B_l$ .

Thus the lemma holds at time  $a_i^+$  in both cases. As in the basis, at any time  $(a_i < t \le a_{i+1})$ , the difference between T's decreased linearly with t, and hence the lemma follows.

When packets are of constant size, it is easy to see that with EDPF, they will arrive in order at the client. Consider two packets  $\{i, j : j > i\}$ . Packet j may arrive before i only if it were scheduled on a different link. If packet sizes are the same and the link on which j was transmitted delivers packets the earliest, EDPF when scheduling i would have picked that link for its transmission. Thus packets will always arrive in order. Note that this property does not hold for other scheduling schemes based on Weighted Round Robin (WRR) or variants of it such as Surplus Round Robin (SRR) [8], Longest Queue First.

When packets are of variable size, it is important that the scheduling algorithm distribute the bits across the links properly. Given P packets of variable size for transmission, we can say the algorithm achieves good bandwidth aggregation if the maximum difference between the normalized bits allocated to any two pairs of links m, n is at most a constant. The constant should not be a function of P. The following theorem upper-bounds this constant by  $L_{max}$  for EDPF. In case of WRR, this quantity is a function of P and can grow without bound. To understand why, consider the case of two links with equal weights, where packet sizes alternate between maximum and minimum size. For SRR it is  $2L_{max}$  (proof not presented).

Theorem 1: For EDPF, given P packets to transmit, the maximum difference between the

normalized bits allocated to any two pairs of links m, n is upper bounded by  $L_{max}$ .

$$max_{m,n} \left| \frac{Sent_m}{w_m} - \frac{Sent_n}{w_n} \right| \le L_{max}$$

*Proof:* Let t be the time instance at which one of the links first becomes idle i.e., at t the particular link in question finishes serving its share of the load P. For any link l,  $T_l(t)$  would essentially indicate the overall time for which the link was used for transmission. Therefore  $T_l(t) * B_l$  would be the total number of bits sent on the link -  $Sent_l$ . For any two links m, n,

$$\left| \frac{Sent_m}{w_m} - \frac{Sent_n}{w_n} \right| = \left| \frac{T_m(t) * B_m}{w_m} - \frac{T_n(t) * B_n}{w_n} \right|$$

Since  $B_l/w_l=B_{min}$  and since the difference between the T's cannot exceed  $L_{max}/B_{min}$  from lemma 1, the right hand side is at most  $L_{max}$ . This proves the theorem.

The behavior of a system with multiple links differs from its single link counterpart ASL on several grounds. For one, packets no longer arrive in order due to multiple paths. Two, work can accumulate as packets may be serviced at a rate less than in ASL. This accumulation can result in packets experiencing excess delay on average. The low service rate also increases the jitter experienced by the packets. In the rest of this section, we compare EDPF with ASL by providing upper-bounds on the above mentioned differences - work, delay, jitter, and buffering required. For better readability, we just state the theorems here and discuss the results at the end of the section. The interested reader can find the proofs in Appendix I.

Theorem 2: For any time t, the difference between the total number of bits W serviced by ASL and EDPF is upper bounded as

$$W_{ASL}(0,t) - W_{EDPF}(0,t) \le L_{max}(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l - 1)$$

Proof: See Appendix I

Theorem 3: The difference in delay experienced by a packet i in ASL and EDPF is upper bounded as

$$d_i^{EDPF} - d_i^{ASL} \le \frac{L_{max}(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l - 1)}{\sum_{l=1}^{N} B_l} + \frac{(N-1)L_i}{\sum_{l=1}^{N} B_l}$$

*Proof:* See Appendix I

Jitter is defined as the difference in delay experienced by two consecutive packets, i.e  $J_i = (r_i - r_{i-1}) - (a_i - a_{i-1})$ . It is easy to see that if the packets are not buffered  $(r_i = d_i)$ ,  $J_i \leq L_i/B_{min}$ . The worst case jitter happens when both the packets are transmitted on the link corresponding to lb.

Theorem 4: When buffering is employed, the jitter experienced by a packet i is upper bounded by  $L_i/B_{max}$ .

Theorem 5: The buffer size needed (at the client) to deliver the packets in order (to the application) is at most  $(N-1)L_{max}$ .

### Discussion

An important property a scheduling algorithm should have is that it utilize the bandwidths of the links properly. EDPF ensures that this difference in normalized bits allocated to any two links is a small constant  $L_{max}$  (Theorem 1). Further, Theorem 2 shows that the work carried over in EDPF in comparison to ASL is again a constant independent of time. Another property the scheduling algorithm should have is that it minimize reordering and thus the delay and jitter experienced by the packets. Here too, EDPF performs close to ASL. The difference in delay experienced by the packets, between EDPF and ASL, is bounded (Theorem 3). The bound is proportional to the bandwidth asymmetry as well as the number of interfaces. The jitter is bounded by a small constant if buffering is used (Theorem 4), and the amount of buffering required to achieve this is only linear in the number of interfaces, and independent of other factors.

Though looked at in the context of bandwidth aggregation, EDPF can also be used in *Queuing* disciplines to provide QoS. What we have analyzed is the performance of a "single queue - multiple server system" based on EDPF scheduling. We have compared such a system with one that employs a single server but which serves the queue at a rate equal to the sum of the rates of the multiple servers.

## IV. PROTOTYPE IMPLEMENTATION

In this section, we present a prototype implementation of our architecture as a proof of concept for BAG services. Specifically, we experiment with streaming applications to quantify the performance improvement BAG services bring over conventional single interface use. We show that BAG can help streaming applications by significantly reducing the buffering time needed to ensure continuous playback, thereby enhancing end-user experience.

# A. Implementation Details

We implemented a prototype of the setup as depicted in Fig. 1 for streaming video. The video server is trace-driven – it uses frame size traces of several video sequences taken from [14]. It reads generation-time/size information from the trace file, generates appropriate sized packets, and streams them to the client using a UDP socket. The duration of the video sequences used in this experiment is 30 min.

The client machine (MH) connects to the Internet using multiple interfaces. It binds the multiple care-of addresses to a virtual IP address (that of the proxy) and uses the virtual address to talk to the video server (via proxy if interfaces are NAT enabled). We used two 1xRTT cards (CDMA2000) in our experiments. Ideally we would have liked to use two separate technologies, but other available interfaces were not very conducive. HDR based 1xEVDO had no Linux drivers and GPRS was unstable (while shorter runs showed good performance improvement, in longer runs, the delay experienced by some packets were in excess of 20 seconds possibly due to a bug in the implementation). The purpose of this experiment is to demonstrate proof of concept of BAG – we believe that similar performance as shown in this paper can be achieved with other stable interfaces.

The functional components that make up our architecture (Fig. 2) have been implemented as Linux loadable kernel modules. The Traffic Manager (TM) is the main components relevant to this experiment. So we elaborate on it. For ease of implementation, we integrated some parts of the Performance Monitoring Unit with the TM. The TM resides in kernel space and intercepts all incoming packets before the routing module. At the proxy, the TM encapsulates the captured packets with a header whose destination IP address is determined by the EDPF algorithm implemented within. At the MH, it removes the outer IP header and collects interface statistics. After the appropriate processing, the TM passes control of the packet to the routing module to be handled as usual. The MH's TM module also communicates with the proxy TM using UDP to pass on the parameters needed by EDPF ( $D_l$  and  $B_l$ ). We use the average values of delays and throughput observed on the interfaces as values for these parameters. Note that reordering is not much of an issue in streaming applications, given the buffering of packets. So EDPF does not really need an accurate estimation of these parameters.

# B. Metrics of Evaluation

The client application at the MH, buffers incoming packets and begins video display after a fixed delay which we term  $Startup\ Latency$ , and denote by L. Once the display begins, the application displays frames consecutively every t seconds (frame period). If at one of these epochs, the client's buffer does not have the complete frame, the frame is considered lost (we discard its dependent frames as well). At the next epoch, the client will attempt to display the next frame.

We use two metrics for comparison: (1) The buffering time (BT) needed to ensure continuous playback of received frames. In other words, with L=BT, no received frame misses its playback deadline. And, (2) The Frame Loss ratio (FL) for a given Startup Latency. This ratio includes frames lost en route as well as frames lost due to late arrivals.

# C. Experimental Results

Table I shows the first metric – the buffering time needed (in sec) to ensure continuous playback of received frames for various video sequences. The mean and peak bit rates in kbps of the video sequence are also shown. We compare BAG/EDPF with the use of just a single interface – the Highest Bandwidth Interface (HBI). As can be seen, BAG with EDPF achieves a much lower startup latency than HBI. BAG achieves twice the bandwidth of HBI in this experiment (two similar interfaces), and the performance improvement in terms of BT is more than proportionate – in most cases it is over a factor of two lesser.

TABLE I

BUFFERING TIME (IN SEC) FOR CONTINUOUS PLAYBACK

Alg/Video	Lecture	Star Trek	Star Wars	Susi & Strolch	
	$\langle 58, 690 \rangle$	$\langle 69, 1200 \rangle$	$\langle 53, 940 \rangle$	$\langle 79, 1300 \rangle$	
EDPF	2.3	3.1	2.9	4.6	
НВІ	7.9	8	8.3	8.6	

The variation of FL with L for the "Lecture" video is as shown in Fig. 4. At L=0.5sec, EDPF has a FL of 0.5%, while HBI has 7.3%. At L=2sec, EDPF achieves FL of 0.04% while HBI

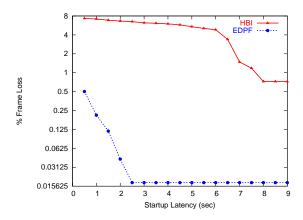


Fig. 4. % Frame Loss, Lecture Video

still suffers a high 6.6% frame loss. Streaming applications that support VCR functions require one way delays in the range of 1-2 sec. If less than 1% frame loss is required, BAG can support this, while using just one interface cannot.

Another interesting result we observed is that the packets discarded en-route was much higher for HBI, than in EDPF for all the runs. For example, 8 packets were discarded for EDPF as compared to 326 packets fro HBI. We believe this to be caused due to buffer overflow at the wireless base-station. When using multiple interfaces, the load gets uniformly distributed resulting in lesser losses. Another advantage of simultaneous interface use.

# V. INTERACTIVE VIDEO

In the previous section, we have demonstrated on an experimental testbed the benefits of BAG services for streaming video applications. We now consider an important class of real-time applications: interactive multimedia.

Interactive applications like video telephony, video conferencing have very stringent delay requirements - they need one way latency under 150ms for excellent quality of service and under 400ms for acceptable quality. Present mobile systems (GPRS,CDMA2000,HDR), as they stand today are best effort based with one way delays in the range of a few hundred ms to excess of 1sec. It is in general very difficult to support interactive applications on systems that provide no QoS guarantees. Efforts are now underway to integrate QoS support in both the core backbone as well as radio access segment of the next-generation systems. In line with efforts

in this direction, we consider an appropriate simulation setup and study the performance of interactive video when using BAG services. We now describe the experimental methodology and present experimental results subsequently.

# A. Experimental Methodology

The network topology shown in Fig. 1 captures the vision of next generation networks where the Base Station (BS) is an extension of IP based Internet. We implement/simulate each of the components that make up the topology. We assume that the radio access network provides QoS support and that the wireless hop is the bottleneck link.

The Server: As in the previous section, we simulate video server behavior using frame size traces. We consider a high quality MPEG4 "Office Cam" [14] video, which captures the activity of a person in front of a terminal. The mean and peak bit rates of this video are 400kbps and 2Mbps respectively. The reason for choosing this video is 1) Interactive video applications like video telephony/conference will be similar in nature. 2) The bandwidth it needs compares to that we can obtain by aggregation in next-generation Radio Access Networks (RANs).

The Internet Paths: In the next generation networks, the BS is considered to be an extension of the Internet. Accordingly, we used delay traces collected on different Internet Paths to simulate the delay experienced by the packets up to the BS. The mean value of this delay between server and proxy is 15 ms and between proxy and BSs is 22ms (the same trace file was used on all the paths between proxy and BSs). The traces were collected by generating packets of appropriate size (derived from the frame size trace) and measuring the round trip time (RTT) on paths between hosts located at the following universities: UCSD, UCB, CMU and Duke.

Base-Stations & the Wireless Channels: Since we assume that the underlying network provides QoS, the BSs are simulated to have a link capacity equal to negotiated rate and no cross traffic. They serve the packets in their queue on a first-come-first-served basis. This is a reasonable assumption because, in systems that provide QoS, once QoS (bandwidth/loss) is negotiated, the channel is retained for the whole session (no release/grant happens). Fluctuating channel conditions and resulting losses are overcome by FEC, limited ARQ and increasing power of transmission (to maintain loss rate below the negotiated value). In appropriate experiments, we also simulate channel losses – the base-stations introduce errors in the packets and may retransmit the packet based on the retransmission policy in place.

The Network Proxy: The proxy implements two types of scheduling algorithms - EDPF and Surplus Round Robin (SRR) (for comparison purposes). Surplus Round Robin (SRR) was proposed in [8] as a generic bandwidth aggregation algorithm, it is similar to WRR but adjusted to account for variable sized packets, where the surplus (unused bandwidth) is carried on to the next round. SRR needs the negotiated bandwidth  $B_l$  of the interfaces in its calculations. EDPF in addition to  $B_l$ , also needs wireline delay  $D_l$ . In the simulations, we use the average value of the internet path delay traces for EDPF calculations. In practice,  $D_l$  can be estimated by sending signaling packets to the MH during connection setup (clock synchronization is not required since only the relative delay between the different paths matters). This in general suffices because Internet path delays are known to vary only slowly, over several tens of minutes [15].

*The Client:* The packets arriving at the client are placed in a buffer to overcome any reordering and passed in order to the video application.

Application Performance metrics: To measure the quality of the video reception, we use the following performance metrics. (1) The one-way delay experienced by the packets between the server and the client application. (2)  $F_{loss}$  - the fraction of frames that were discarded because packets that make up the frame experience delay in excess of maximum delay bound  $(DB_{max})$ , a configurable parameter) or were lost en route. Note that when a frame is discarded, we also discard its dependent frames (P/B frames are discarded when the corresponding I frame is lost). This metric mainly captures the effect excessively delayed packets have on the overall quality of the video. (3) Glitch duration  $(G_d)$  and Glitch Rate (g). We define  $G_d$  as the number of consecutive frames that were discarded. We define g as the number of glitches that occur per ms.

# B. Experimental Results

We first address the issue of how much bandwidth to allocate to support QoS requirements of the application. We then fix the bandwidth at a suitable value and evaluate the performance using a set of metrics. Later we measure the sensitivity of the scheduling algorithms to bandwidth asymmetry, number of interfaces, delay variation and channel losses.

1) Bandwidth Allocation: To enable continuous video playback, appropriate bandwidth must be allocated to the video stream. Allocating just the average rate for Variable Bit Rate encodings

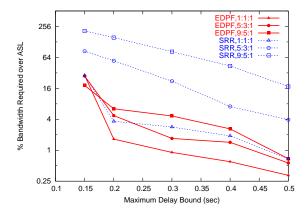


Fig. 5. Bandwidth needed over ASL for 0%  $F_{loss}$ , #interfaces = 3

$Alg/DB_{max}(ms)$	150	200	300	400	500
ASL	707	645	605	579	569
EDPF	872	696	624	591	574
SRR	1513	1129	805	674	616

would not in general satisfy the maximum delay requirements of the video. Peak allocation on the other hand result in very low bandwidth utilization.

We have calculated the bandwidth needed for EDPF, SRR, and ASL for various delay bounds  $(DB_{max})$  and bandwidth splits. Since ASL is the ideal case, we express the bandwidth required in the other two cases as a percentage over that required for ASL. Fig. 5 shows this percentage for the case of 3 interfaces when the bandwidth is split among them in different ratios. Note that the y-axis is set to log-scale. We see that EDPF performs close to the ideal case ASL, and outperforms SRR by a huge margin in most cases.

We have performed a range of experiments, varying the number of interfaces as well as the bandwidth splits. The nature of the results remains the same. Table II summarizes the results for all these runs by averaging the bandwidth needed over these experimental runs – the averaging is done across various bandwidth splits. We considered 20 different splits as summarized in Table III.

TABLE III
BANDWIDTH SPLITS

Ifaces	Split 1	Split 2	Split 3	Split 4	Split 5
2	1:1	3:1	5:1	7:1	9:1
3	1:1:1	3:2:1	5:3:1	7:4:1	9:5:1
4	1:1:1:1	3:1:1:1	5:2:1:1	7:2:2:1	9:3:2:1
5	1:1:1:1:1	3:2:1:1:1	5:2:1:1:1	7:3:2:2:1	9:5:3:2:1

2) Application Performance Measures: While the previous sub-section looked at the bandwidth required to satisfy a given delay bound, we now look at application behavior for a given bandwidth allocation. For the rest of this section, we fix the aggregate bandwidth at 600kbps (1.5 times mean). A choice of a much lower bandwidth than this results in > 1% of the packets experiencing delay in excess of 500ms, maximum permissible for interactive video. The number of wireless interfaces considered is three for most experiments. The use of two interfaces has less scope for reordering than three interfaces, hence we present results for three interfaces (the nature of the results remains the same for two interfaces). We now present the various performance metrics in turn.

Delay Distribution: The Cumulative Distribution Function (CDF) of the delay experienced by the packets (including buffering delay needed to deliver the packets in order) is shown in Fig. 6. The different plots in each graph are for the different algorithms, and for different values of the bandwidth split. For ASL, 99.8% of the packets have delay less than 200 ms. In case of EDPF, this value ranges between 99.2% to 99.6% for different splits. For SRR, its between 56.5% and 99.2%.

Another point worth mentioning here is the amount of reordering seen in the experiments. Since buffer size directly correlates to reordering, we present the average and maximum buffer occupancy. When averaged over the different splits (Table. III), EDPF had an average buffer occupancy of 0.32 packets, maximum of 4 packets. SRR on the other hand had an average buffer occupancy of 0.71 packets, maximum of 12 packets.

Frame Discard Ratio: Fig. 7 shows  $F_{loss}$  as a function of different  $DB_{max}$  when the number of interfaces is fixed at 3. As expected,  $F_{loss}$  decreases as  $DB_{max}$  increases. When  $DB_{max}$  is

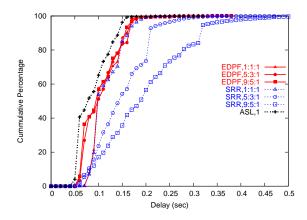


Fig. 6. Cumulative Percentage of Delay, # interfaces = 3

set at 200ms, EDPF achieves a  $F_{loss}$  less than 0.6% while for SRR it can be as high as 20% loss (for ASL it is 0.2%).

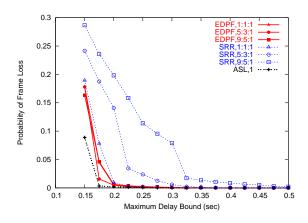


Fig. 7. Probability of Frame Loss, # interfaces = 3

Glitch Statistics: The glitch rate is another useful metric that captures the disruption in the video presentation due to discarded frames. Table. IV shows the glitch statistics when the number of interfaces used is 3 and for 300 ms delay bound. In terms of the glitch rate too, SRR performs very poorly. Though EDPF has higher average glitch duration than SRR, it should be looked in relation to the glitch rate. For EDPF, glitches happen less often and when they do, they span on average 3-6 frames. While in SRR, glitches happen more often and on average span small intervals 1-3 frames. Usually, the number of occurrences when glitch durations exceeds 3 is about the same for EDPF as in SRR.

TABLE IV  $\label{eq:table_eq} \mbox{\#interfaces} = 3, \mbox{Startup Latency} = 0.3 \mbox{ sec}$ 

Algo.	ASL	EDPF	EDPF	EDPF	SRR	SRR	SRR
		1:1:1	5:3:1	9:5:1	1:1:1	5:3:1	9:5:1
g (per ms)	0.55	0.55	2.78	7.22	3.89	140	1809
Avg $G_d$	4	6	3.2	2.77	2.14	1.063	1.089
Max $G_d$	4	6	8	8	7	6	9

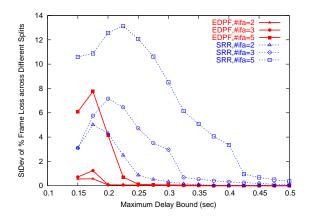


Fig. 8. Sensitivity to Bandwidth Asymmetry

3) Bandwidth Asymmetry and Number of Interfaces: In order to capture the sensitivity of the system performance to bandwidth asymmetry and the number of interfaces, we compute  $F_{loss}$  under different splits (see Table. III) for a given number of interfaces and delay bound. The standard deviation of the obtained values (expressed in %) in shown in Fig. 8 for different number of interfaces. As can be seen in the figure, the standard deviation increases and then falls with  $DB_{max}$ , for both EDPF and SRR. When  $DB_{max}$  is small, the percentage of lost frames is quite large irrespective of the bandwidth split, and hence we don't see much variation in loss across splits. But as  $DB_{max}$  is increased, the variation becomes more apparent. For large values of  $DB_{max}$ , the frame loss goes down closer to zero and so does the variation. But overall, compared to SRR, EDPF is more robust to bandwidth asymmetry. This is a desirable feature since it allows the client more freedom to make bandwidth requisitions on the various network interfaces.

To measure the sensitivity of the algorithms to the number of interfaces we measured the mean value of  $F_{loss}$  as a function of the number of interfaces. As the number of interfaces increases, so does the scope for reordering and hence  $F_{loss}$ . However EDPF is more tolerant of increase in number of interfaces than SRR. For instance, for a  $DB_{max}$  of 200ms, when increasing the number of interfaces from 3 to 4, EDPF showed an increase in  $F_{loss}$  of only 2.1% while SRR showed an increase of 5.2%.

# 4) Miscellaneous issues:

Channel Losses: So far we have not considered channel losses. In this setup, it may not be possible to alter the scheduling to overcome channel losses as the time granularity over which the channel state changes is likely to be finer than the feedback loop between the MH and the proxy. Normally, radio networks that support real-time applications do try to achieve loss rate less than some negotiated value by using efficient FEC, limited ARQ or through an increase in transmit power. We have run a set of experiments to see the performance of the system under channel losses with limited ARQ. Retransmissions may alter EDPF's estimate of the variable  $A_l$  (time when channel becomes available). However we observed that the effect is very minor, masked by the gains that can be had through retransmissions. For a  $DB_{max}$  of 300 ms, 5:3:1 split, 1% uniformly distributed channel losses, no retransmissions gave us a  $F_{loss}$  of 1.9%, while retransmissions brought it down to 0.2%.

Wireline Delay Variations: EDPF uses the estimated delay between proxy and the BSs in determining the delivery time of packets. It may seem that large delay variations may affect EDPF's performance. However, we argue that this is not the case. To perceive good quality video, we would like to achieve  $F_{loss} < 1\%$ . The bandwidth needed to guarantee such low loss rate should overcome the queuing delay (induced at BS). The delay variation will likely be masked by this queuing delay. In equation 1 of section III,  $A_l$  dominates  $a_i + D_l$  for most packets that experience excess delay. We observe this through experiments as well. At a  $DB_{max}$  of 225ms, for a truncated Guassian delay distribution with mean 22ms and no delay variation  $F_{loss}$  was 0.26% frame loss and for 10 ms standard deviation in delay, it was 0.28%.

Extensions to EDPF: It is possible to improve the performance of EDPF further by taking into consideration additional parameters. If the MH provides EDPF with additional information such as maximum tolerable delay, EDPF can drop packets that are unlikely to meet their delay constraints (EDPF already maintains an estimate of it). This saves scarce bandwidth and helps

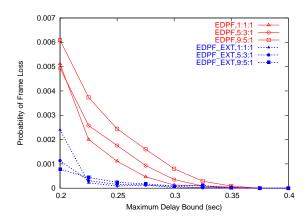


Fig. 9. Improvement with extended EDPF

other packets to meet their delay constraints. We have extended EDPF (EDPF\_EXT) to support this feature. Fig. 9 shows the relative improvement. Also, if frame priority information can be conveyed in the packets, EDPF can perform appropriate filtering - dropping lower priority frames in presence of congestion.

In addition to the "Office Cam" video trace, we have experimented with other video traces from [14] as well as H.263 encoding. We obtained similar results as shown above. EDPF in all cases, effectively aggregated bandwidth while minimizing delay experienced by the packets.

### VI. RELATED WORK

Bandwidth aggregation across multiple channels has its origins as a link layer solution in the context of analog dial-ups, ISDN, and ATM [9], [16], [17]. Link Layer solutions are infeasible in our present scenario, where the RANs in question belong to different domains controlled by different service providers.

The Stripe protocol [8] is a generic load-sharing protocol that can be used over any logical First-In-First-Out (FIFO) channels, it was implemented in some routers in the context of Multilink PPP. It is based on Surplus Round Robin (SRR) and provides FIFO delivery of these packets to higher layers with minimum overhead in the form of packet processing (looking up the packet sequence number). The design goals of stripe are different from those considered in this paper, it achieves its objective at the expense of introducing additional delay. For real-time interactive applications, this approach will not work well as was shown in the previous sections.

Contemporary to our initial work [18] that explored some of the ideas presented in this paper, some transport and network layer solutions have been proposed to achieve bandwidth aggregation in a similar setting. A network layer solution based on tunneling was proposed in [19] and performance of TCP has been evaluated. Though similar in spirit to our architecture, this work does not look into real-time application support or address in depth the architecture components that enable diverse services. The Reliable Multiplexing Transport Protocol (RMTP) [20] is a reliable rate-based transport protocol that multiplexes application data onto different channels. Parallel TCP (pTCP) [21] is another transport layer approach that opens multiple TCP connections one for each interface in use. The focus of this paper is on supporting real-time applications which may not employ TCP as the transport protocol because of their delay constraints. Further, our main goal is to introduce minimal changes to the infrastructure while enabling diverse functionalities, which these approaches cannot achieve.

### VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this article, we motivate the advantages of simultaneous use of multiple interfaces and propose a network-layer architecture that enables such use. Our network layer architecture provides many different services - bandwidth aggregation, reliability support, resource sharing, data-control plane separation to the end MH. Further, it is transparent to applications and involves minimum changes to the infrastructure. Only changes needed are the MH and deployment of proxies, no changes are needed in the radio network or server software.

One of the services provided by the architecture is BAG (bandwidth aggregation) for real-time applications. Implementation/simulations show that BAG services can bring in significant performance improvements over conventional single interface use. The scheduling algorithm that BAG employs (EDPF) mimics closely the idealized Aggregated Single Link (ASL) case and outperforms by large margin approaches based on weighted round robin. EDPF is a light weight algorithm that incurs minimal overhead. The per-packet computation complexity is proportional to the number of interfaces, which is likely to be two to three in most cases. In terms of network overhead, the (relative) one-way delay and bandwidth information need to be passed from the client to the network proxy only once during setup for interactive applications and once every few seconds for streaming applications.

Though introduced in the context of wireless interfaces, BAG and EDPF are applicable in

broader contexts. Any system with multiple paths can use the EDPF scheduling algorithm to provide QoS support.

# APPENDIX I

### PROPERTIES OF EDPF: DETAILS OF PROOFS

Details of proof for Theorem 2:  $W_{ASL}$  takes on a maximum value when the link becomes idle. Let t be such a time. Since ASL is idle, all packets serviced must have arrived before t. We now have the following two cases

Case1: One or more of the links in EDPF are idle at t.

The deficit over ASL, EDPF has to serve after t is maximum when: 1) All links except one are busy serving the deficit. 2) The idle link corresponding to lb. Using lemma 1, this difference in time  $T_l(t) - T_{lb}(t)$  for which any link  $l \neq lb$  is busy is bounded by  $L_{max}/B_{min}$ . The overall deficit in bits is thus bounded by:  $L_{max} \sum_{l \neq lb} B_l/B_{min} = L_{max}(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l - 1)$ .

Case2: All the links are busy at t.

Let  $\tau < t$ , be the earliest time instant at which all links in EDPF got busy. Between  $[\tau,t]$ ,  $W_{ASL}(\tau,t) \leq W_{EDPF}(\tau,t) = \sum_{l=1}^{N} B_l(t-\tau)$ . Thus the difference at t cannot exceed that at  $\tau$ , i.e.  $W_{ASL}(0,t) - W_{EDPF}(0,t) \leq W_{ASL}(0,\tau) - W_{EDPF}(0,\tau)$ . And Case 1 bounds the right hand side by  $L_{max}(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l - 1)$ .

Details of proof for Theorem 3: In case of EDPF, the following two cases arise,

Case 1: When packet i arrives, it finds one or more of the links in EDPF idle. If it were scheduled on the idle link, its delivery time will not exceed  $a_i + L_i/B_{min}$ . Since EDPF schedules the packet on the link which delivers its the earliest, the departure time of this packet when scheduled on other links would also not exceed this amount i.e  $d_i^{EDPF} \leq a_i + L_i/B_{min}$ . In case of ASL,  $d_i^{ASL} \geq a_i + L_i/\sum_{l=1}^N B_l$ . Thus,

$$d_i^{EDPF} - d_i^{ASL} \le \frac{L_i(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l - 1)}{\sum_{l=1}^{N} B_l}$$

Case2: When packet i arrives it finds all the links busy, let j < i be the latest packet whose arrival busies all the links. Let  $l_j$  be the link on which j was scheduled and  $l_i$  be the link on which i was scheduled. We now consider the worst case delay that can be experienced by packet i. This happens if

- When j arrives, the number of bits P that still need to be serviced is maximum possible. This essentially increases the time before the system can serve packets j to i. This event happens when  $l_j = lb$  and for  $l \neq lb$ ,  $T_l(a_j) T_{l_j}(a_j) = L_{max}/B_{min}$  (from lemma 1). Hence  $P = \sum_{l=1}^{N} T_l(a_j) T_{l_j}(a_j) \leq L_{max}(\sum_{l=1}^{N} w_l 1)$ .
- All packets between i and j (inclusive) are delivered ahead of i i.e.  $d_i \geq d_k$  for  $j \leq k < i$ . So we have,  $d_i = T_{l_i}(a_i+) = \max\{T_l(a_i+), \text{ for } 1 \leq l \leq N\}$ . If we denote by  $\delta_{l_i,l}$  the time spent by link  $l \neq l_i$  in the interval  $[a_j,d_i]$  either idle (or serving packets k > i). We have  $\delta_{l_i,l} = T_{l_i}(a_i^+) T_l(a_i^+)$ . The packet i is delayed further if  $\delta_{l_i,l}$  is maximum possible, this essentially pushes further the delivery time of packet i, as some of the work (serving packets i) that needs to be done on links i0 i1 got pushed onto link i1. If we denote by i2, the overall idle time in bits in the interval i3, i4, we have i5 i5, we have i6, i7, the overall idle time in bits in the interval i8, i9. From lemma 1 (case1), we have i9, we have i9. Thus i1, we have i1, i1, i2, i3, i4, i5, i5, i6, i7, i8, i8, i9.

During the interval  $[a_j, d_i]$ , the system was busy serving load P, packets from j to i and either staying idle or serving packets k > i. Hence, we have,

$$(d_i^{EDPF} - a_j) \sum B_l = \sum_{k=j}^{i} L_k + P + F$$
 
$$d_i^{EDPF} \le a_j + \frac{\sum_{k=j}^{i} L_k}{\sum B_l} + \frac{L_{max}(\sum w_l - 1)}{\sum B_l} + \frac{(N-1)L_i}{\sum B_l}$$

In case of ASL,  $d_i^{ASL} \ge a_j + \frac{\sum_{k=j}^i L_k}{\sum B_l}$ . Thus the theorem follows.

Details of proof for Theorem 4: The jitter experienced by a packet i is given by  $J_i = (r_i - r_{i-1}) - (a_i - a_{i-1})$ . If the packet i is buffered, we will have  $r_i = r_{i-1}$  and the jitter will be non positive as  $a_i \geq a_{i-1}$ . So in the proof below, we only look at the case where i is not buffered i.e  $r_i = d_i$ . Note that i - 1 could still be buffered. Also note that  $J_i$  is maximum when  $r_{i-1}$  is minimum and  $a_i = a_{i-1}$ .

We consider the following 4 different cases based on whether packets i-1 and i are transmitted on link hb.

Case 1. Both packets (i-1) and i are transmitted on hb. If  $r_i = d_i = a_i + L_i/B_{max}$  i.e packet i begins transmission immediately on arrival. Then  $J_i < L_i/B_{max}$  as  $r_{i-1} - a_{i-1} > 0$ . Otherwise, we have  $d_i = d_{i-1} + L_i/B_{max}$ . Since  $a_i - a_{i-1} \ge 0$  and  $r_{i-1} \ge d_{i-1}$ , we have  $J_i \le d_i - r_{i-1} \le d_i - d_{i-1} = L_i/B_{max}$ .

- Case 2. Packet (i-1) is transmitted on hb and packet i is transmitted on some other link  $(l \neq hb)$ . Since we assume packet i is not buffered,  $d_i \geq d_{i-1}$ . We have  $a_i < d_{i-1}$  as otherwise packet i would have been transmitted on hb. Therefore  $d_{i-1} = T_{hb}(a_i^+)$  and  $d_i = T_l(a_i^+)$ . From lemma 1 (case1), we have  $d_i d_{i-1} = T_l(a_i^+) T_{hb}(a_i^+) \leq L_i/B_{max}$ . Since  $r_{i-1} \geq d_{i-1}$ ,  $J_i \leq d_i r_{i-1} \leq d_i d_{i-1} \leq L_i/B_{max}$ .
- Case 3. The  $(i-1)^{th}$  packet is transmitted on link  $l(\neq hb)$  and the  $i^{th}$  packet is transmitted on hb. Let j < i-1 be the packet that was transmitted latest on link hb. If  $d_i = a_i + L_i/B_{max}$ , as mentioned in case 1,  $J_i < L_i/B_{max}$ . Otherwise, if  $d_i > a_i + L_i/B_{max}$ , we have  $d_i = d_j + L_i/B_{max}$ . Packet i-1 can be passed up only after j, hence  $r_{i-1} \geq d_j$ . Therefor,  $J_i \leq d_i r_{i-1} \leq d_i d_j = L_i/B_{max}$ .
- Case 4. Packet (i-1) is transmitted on link  $l(\neq hb)$  and the packet i is transmitted on link  $k(\neq hb)$ . Again let j < i-1 be the packet that was transmitted latest on link hb. Since packet i is not transmitted on hb,  $a_i < d_j$ . From lemma 1 (case1), we have  $d_j = T_{hb}(a_i^+)$  and  $d_i = T_k(a_i^+)$  and hence  $d_i d_j \leq L_i/B_{max}$ . As before,  $r_{i-1} \geq d_j$  and hence  $J_i \leq d_i r_{i-1} \leq d_i d_j = L_i/B_{max}$ . Since, in all the four cases the bound holds, the theorem is proved.

Details of proof for Theorem 5: At any time t, let  $T_{max}(t) = max\{T_l(t)\}$ . After t, any packet transmitted on a link  $l \neq max$ , if it is delivered before  $T_{max}(t)$  needs to be buffered. Let  $\delta_{max,l} = T_{max}(t) - T_l(t)$ . Thus all packets transmitted on link l after t whose summation of packet lengths is less than  $\delta_{max,l} * B_l$  will need to be buffered. From lemma 1,  $\delta_{max,l} \leq L_{max}/B_l$ . Thus the total buffer size would be  $\sum_{l \neq max} \delta_{max,l} * B_l \leq \sum_{l \neq max} L_{max} = (N-1) * L_{max}$ .

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