A Hierarchical Fair Service Curve Algorithm for Link-Sharing, Real-Time and Priority Services*

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Abstract

In this paper, we study hierarchical resource management models and algorithms that support both link-sharing and guaranteed real-time services with decoupled delay (priority) and bandwidth allocation. We extend the service curve based QoS model, which defines both delay and bandwidth requirements of a class, to include fairness, which is important for the integration of real-time and hierarchical linksharing services. The resulting Fair Service Curve linksharing model formalizes the goals of link-sharing and realtime services and exposes the fundamental tradeoffs between these goals. In particular, with decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation, it is impossible to simultaneously provide guaranteed real-time service and achieve perfect link-sharing. We propose a novel scheduling algorithm called Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC) that approximates the model closely and efficiently. The algorithm always guarantees the performance for leaf classes, thus ensures real-time services, while minimizing the discrepancy between the actual services provided to the interior classes and the services defined by the Fair Service Curve link-sharing model. We have implemented the H-FSC scheduler in the NetBSD environment. By performing simulation and measurement experiments, we evaluate the link-sharing and real-time performances of H-FSC, and determine the computation overhead.

1 Introduction

The emerging integrated services networks will support applications with diverse performance objectives and traffic characteristics. While most of the previous research on integrated services networks has focused on guaranteeing QoS, especially real-time requirements, for each individual session, several recent work [1, 6, 12] has argued that it is also important to support hierarchical link-sharing service.

With hierarchical link-sharing, there is a class hierarchy associated with each link that specifies the resource allocation policy for the link. A class represents some aggregate of traffic streams that are grouped according to administrative affiliation, protocol, traffic type, or other criteria. Figure 1 shows an example class hierarchy for a 45 Mbps link that is shared by two organizations, CMU and University of Pittsburgh (U. Pitt). Below each of the two organization classes, there are classes grouped based on traffic types.

There are several important goals for hierarchical linksharing service. First, each class should receive certain minimum bandwidth if there are enough demands. In the example, CMU's traffic should receive at least 25 Mbps bandwidth during a period when the aggregate traffic from CMU has a higher arrival rate. Similarly, if there are resource contentions between traffic classes within CMU, the video traffic should get at least 10 Mbps. In the case when there are only audio and video streams from CMU, the audio and video traffic should receive all the bandwidth that is allocated to CMU (25 Mbps) if the demand is high enough. That is, if certain traffic classes from CMU do not have enough traffic to fully utilize its minimum guaranteed bandwidth, other traffic classes from CMU will have a higher priority to use this excess bandwidth than traffic from U. Pitt. While the above policy specifies that CMU audio and video traffic classes should use the excess bandwidth unused by the data traffic, there is still the issue of how the excess bandwidth is distributed between the audio and video traffic classes. A second goal of hierarchical link-sharing service is then to have a proper policy to distribute the excess bandwidth unused by a class to its sibling classes.

In addition to the two goals mentioned above, it is also important to support real-time and priority services within the framework of hierarchical link-sharing. Since real-time service guarantees QoS on a per session basis, a natural way to integrate real-time and hierarchical link-sharing services is to have a separate leaf class for each real-time session. In the example, the CMU Distinguished Lecture video and audio classes are two leaf classes that correspond to realtime sessions. Finally, we would like to support priority service in the sense that delay (both average delay and delay bound) and bandwidth allocations are decoupled. For example, even though the CMU Distinguished Lecture video and audio classes have different bandwidth requirements, it is desirable to provide the same low delay bound for both classes. Such a decoupling of bandwidth and delay allocation is also desirable for interior or leaf classes that correspond to traffic aggregates. For example, one may want to

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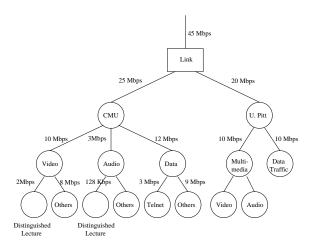


Figure 1: An Example Link-Sharing Hierarchy.

provide a lower average delay for packets in CMU's audio traffic class than those in CMU's data traffic class.

A number of algorithms have been proposed to support hierarchical link-sharing, real-time, and priority services. However, as discussed in Section 7, they all suffer from important limitations. The fundamental problem is that with all three services, multiple requirements need to be satisfied simultaneously. This is very difficult and sometimes impossible to achieve due to conflicting requirements. This problem is exacerbated by the fact that there is no formal definition of hierarchical link-sharing service that specifies all the requirements.

In this paper, we consider an ideal model that can precisely define all the important performance goals of realtime, hierarchical link-sharing, and priority services. The basic building block of the framework is the concept of service curve, which defines a general QoS model taking into account both bandwidth and priority (delay) requirements. In this architecture, each class in the hierarchy is associated with a service curve. An ideal Fair Service Curve linksharing model is to (a) simultaneously guarantee the service curves for all nodes in the hierarchy, and (b) distribute the excess bandwidth unused by a class to its sibling classes fairly. Since the service curves for class nodes are guaranteed simultaneously, the QoS for both individual sessions (leaf nodes in the hierarchy) and traffic aggregates (interior and possibly leaf nodes in the hierarchy) are satisfied. In addition, delay and bandwidth allocation can be decoupled by choosing different shapes of service curves.

Unfortunately, as will be shown in the paper, the ideal model cannot be realized at all times. In spite of this, the model serves two important purposes. First, unlike previous models, the new model explicitly defines the situations when all performance goals cannot be simultaneously satisfied, thus exposing the fundamental tradeoffs among conflicting performance goals. Second, the model serves as an ideal target that a scheduling algorithm should approximate as close as possible.

With the ideal service model defined and the fundamental tradeoffs exposed, we propose an algorithm called Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC) that achieves the following three goals:

• guarantee the service curves of all leaf class nodes,

- minimize the short-period discrepancy between the total amount of services provided to interior node class and its service curve,
- allocate the excess bandwidth to sibling classes, with bounded fairness

Notice that we made the architecture level decision that whenever there is a conflict, the performance guarantees of the leaf class nodes take priority. We believe this is the right tradeoff as the performance of leaf classes are most related to the performance of individual applications. In particular, since a session is always a leaf class, guaranteed real-time services can be provided on a per session basis with this framework.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the Fair Service Curve link-sharing model and discusses the fundamental tradeoffs in approximating this model. Section 3 presents our solution, the Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC) scheduler, followed by a discussion on its implementation complexity in Section 4. We analyze the delay and fairness properties of H-FSC in Section 5, and evaluate its performance based on both simulation and measurement experiments in Section 6. We discuss related work in Section 7 before conclude the paper in Section 8.

2 Fair Service Curve Link-Sharing Model

In this section, we first define the service curve QoS model and motivate the advantage of using non-linear service curves to decouple delay and bandwidth allocation. We then extend the concept of fairness to service curve based schedulers. Finally, we present the ideal Fair Service Curve linksharing model and discuss the fundamental tradeoffs involved in designing a scheduler that approximates the model.

2.1 Service Curve Based QoS Model

As discussed in Section 1, we will use the service curve abstraction proposed by Cruz [4, 5] as the building block to define the idealized link-sharing model.

A session i is said to be guaranteed a service curve $S_i(\cdot)$, if for any time t_2 , there exists a time $t_1 < t_2$, which is the beginning one of session i's backlogged periods (not necessarily including t_2), such that the following holds

$$S_i(t_2 - t_1) \le w_i(t_1, t_2),$$
 (1)

where $w_i(t_1, t_2)$ is the amount of service received by session i during the time interval $(t_1, t_2]$. For packet systems, we restrict t_2 to be packet departure times.

One algorithm that supports service curve guarantees is the Service Curve Earliest Deadline first (SCED) policy [11]. With SCED, a deadline is computed for each packet using a per session deadline curve $D_i(\cdot)$ and packets are transmitted in increasing order of their deadlines. The deadline curve $D_i(\cdot)$ is computed such that in an idealized fluid system, session i's service curve will be guaranteed if by any time t, at least $D_i(t)$ amount of service is provided to session i. Based on Eq. (1), it follows that

$$D_i(t) = \min_{t_1} (S_i(t - t_1) + w_i(t_1)), \tag{2}$$

where the minimization is over all the beginnings of session i's backlogged periods t_1 's, and $w_i(t_1) = w_i(0, t_1)$ is the total amount of service session i receives till time t_1 . This gives the following iterative algorithm to compute $D_i(\cdot)$. When

session i becomes backlogged for the first time, $D_i(\cdot)$ is initialized to its service curve $S_i(\cdot)$. Subsequently, whenever session i becomes backlogged again at time t_a after an idling period, $D_i(\cdot)$ is updated according to the following:

 $D_i(t) = \min(D_i(t), S_i(t - t_a) + w_i(t_a)), \ \forall \ t > D_i^{-1}(w_i(t_a)).$ (3) The reason for which $D_i(\cdot)$ is defined only for $t > D_i^{-1}(c_i)$ is because this is the only portion that is used for subsequent deadline computation. Since $D_i(\cdot)$ may not be an injection, its inverse function may not be uniquely defined. Here, we define $D_i^{-1}(y)$ to be the smallest value x such that $D_i(x) =$ y. Based on $D_i(\cdot)$, the deadline for a packet of length L_i^k at the head of session i's queue can be computed as follows, $d_i = D_i^{-1}(w_i(t) + L_i^k) \tag{4}$

$$d_i = D_i^{-1}(w_i(t) + L_i^k) (4)$$

The guarantees specified by service curves are quite general. For example, the guarantees provided by Virtual Clock and various Fair Queueing algorithms can be specified by linear service curves with zero offsets. 1. Since a linear service curve is characterized by only one parameter, the slope or the guaranteed bandwidth for the session, the delay requirement cannot be specified separately. As a consequence, even though delay bounds can be provided by algorithms guaranteeing linear service curves, there is a coupling between the guaranteed delay bound and bandwidth, which results in inflexible resource allocation. With non-linear service curves, both priority (delay) and bandwidth allocation are taken into account in an integrated fashion, yet the allocation policies for these two resources are decoupled. This will increase the resource management flexibility and the resource utilization inside the network.

To illustrate the advantage of decoupling delay and bandwidth allocation with non-linear service curves, consider the example in Figure 2 where a video and an FTP session share a 10 Mbps link served by a SCED scheduler. Let the video source sends 30 8KB frames per second, which corresponds to a required bandwidth of 2 Mbps. The remaining 8 Mbps is reserved by a continuously backlogged FTP session. For simplicity, let all packets be of size 8 KB. Thus, it takes roughly 6.5 ms to transmit a packet. Let both video and FTP sessions be active at time 0. Then the sessions' deadline curves are also their service curves. First, consider the case in Figure 2(a) where linear service curves are used to specify the sessions' requirements. The arrival curve $A_i(\cdot)$ represents the cumulative number of bits received by session i. The deadline of a packet of session i arriving at time u is computed as the time t such that S(t) equals A(u). As can be seen, the deadlines of the video packets occur every 33 ms, while the deadlines of the FTP packets occur every 8.2 ms. This results in a delay of approximately 26 ms for a video packet. In the second scenario as illustrated in Figure 2(b), we use two-piece linear service curves for characterizing the sessions' requirements. The slope of the first segment of the video session's service curve is 6.6 Mbps, while the slope of the second segment is 2 Mbps. The inflection point occurs at 10 ms. The FTP session's service curve is chosen such that the entire remaining capacity is used. As can be seen, the delay of any video packet is no more than 10 ms in this case. It is important to note that the reduction in the delays for video packets does not come for free: as a result, the delays for FTP packets increase. However, this is acceptable since

throughput rather than per packet delay is more important to the FTP session.

While in theory any non-decreasing functions can be used as service curves, in practice only linear or piecewise linear functions are used for reasons of simplicity. In general, a concave service curve will result in a lower average and worst case delay for a session than a linear or convex service curve with the same guaranteed rate. However, it is impossible to have concave service curves for all sessions and still reach high average utilization. Intuitively, this is easy to understand as priority is relative and it is impossible to give all sessions high priority (low delay). Formally, the SCED algorithm can guarantee all the service curves if and only if $\sum_{i} S_i(t) \leq S(t)$ holds for any $t \geq 0$ where S(t) is the amount of service the server provides during a time period of t. That is, the sum of the service curves over all sessions should be no more than the server's service curve.

Service Curve and Fairness

While the service curve is very general in specifying the minimum amount of service (both bandwidth and priority) guaranteed to a session or a class, it does not specify how the excess service, which is the extra capacity of the server beyond that is needed to guarantee the service curves of all active sessions, should be distributed. It is possible to have different scheduling algorithms that provide the same service curve guarantees but use different policies for distributing excess service. For example, while Virtual Clock and Weighted Fair Queueing (WFQ) can provide identical linear service curve guarantees, they have different fairness properties. In particular, with Virtual Clock, it is possible that a session does not receive service for an arbitrary long period because it receives excess service in a previous time period. On the contrary, the maximum period that an active session does not receive service in a WFQ server is bounded.

While the fairness property has been extensively studied for scheduling algorithms that only use sessions' rates as parameters and there are several formal definitions of fairness properties, such as the relative fairness given by Golestani [8] and the worst-case fairness given by Bennett and Zhang [2], it is unclear what fairness means and why it is important in the context of scheduling algorithms that decouple the delay and bandwidth allocation. In this section, we discuss the semantics of fairness and argue that it is important to have the fairness property even for scheduling algorithms that provide performance guarantees. We then give a simple example to illustrate that SCED is an unfair algorithm, but can be extended to be fair.

There are two aspects of the fairness property that are of interest: (1) what is the policy of distributing excess service to each of the currently active sessions? (2) whether and to what extent a session receiving excess bandwidth in a previous time period will be penalized later?

For rate-proportional scheduling algorithms, a perfectly fair algorithm will distribute the excess service to all backlogged sessions proportional to their minimum guaranteed rates. In addition, it will not punish any session for receiving excess bandwidth in a previous time period. Generalized Processor Sharing (GPS) is such an idealized fair algorithm.

For scheduling algorithms based on general service curves, a fair algorithm should (a) distribute excess bandwidth according to a well defined policy, and (b) not penalize a session that uses excess bandwidth. Though these two aspects of the fairness property are usually considered together in

¹In theory, Fair Queueing and its corresponding fluid algorithm GPS can support more general service curves than linear curves [10, 16]. However, in practice, such a resource assignment has a number of limitations. See Section 7 for a detailed discussion

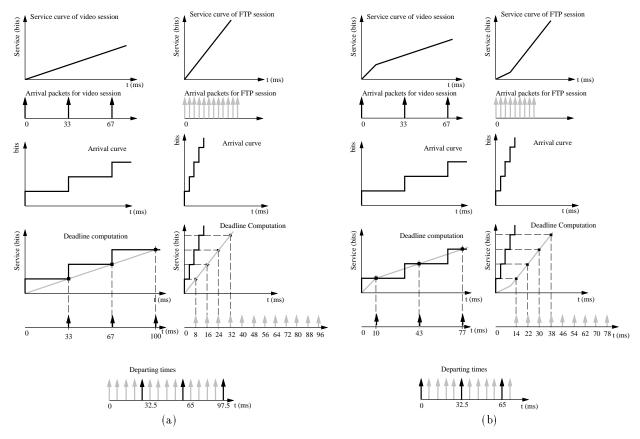


Figure 2: An example illustrating the benefits of delay-bandwidth decoupling.

a formal fairness definition, they are actually orthogonal issues. While different policies can be used to distribute excess service, in this paper we simply distribute excess bandwidth according to the service curves. It is the second aspect of the fairness property, i.e., a session that receives excess service in a previous time period should not be penalized, that we would like to emphasize in this paper.

There are two reasons why it is important to have such a fair scheduler. First, even in a network that supports guarantees, it is still desirable to let end systems statistically share the fraction of resources that are either not reserved and/or not currently being used. A network service should encourage a source to opportunistically send more traffic than the minimum guaranteed amount, provided that the guarantees for all other sessions are not affected by the extra traffic. That is, a network should **not** penalize a session that uses more service than guaranteed if the additional service it uses is the excess service allotted by the server. Fairness is also important when we want to construct a hierarchical scheduler to support hierarchical link-sharing. In [1], it has been shown that the accuracy of link-sharing and delay bounds provided by Hierarchical Packet Fair Queueing (H-PFQ) is closely tied to the fairness property of PFQ server nodes used to construct the H-PFQ scheduler.

While the SCED algorithm can guarantee all the service curves simultaneously, it does not have the fairness property. Consider the example shown in Figure 3(a). Session 1 and 2 have two-piece linear service curves $S_1(\cdot)$ and $S_2(\cdot)$, respectively, where

$$S_1(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha t, & \text{if } t \le T \\ \beta t, & \text{if } t > T \end{cases}$$
 (5)

and

$$S_1(t) = \begin{cases} \alpha t, & \text{if } t \le T \\ \beta t, & \text{if } t > T \end{cases}$$

$$S_2(t) = \begin{cases} \beta t, & \text{if } t \le T \\ \alpha t, & \text{if } t > T \end{cases}$$

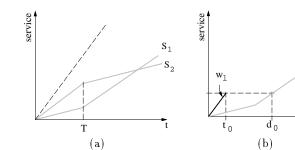
$$(5)$$

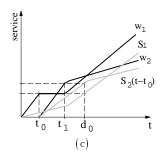
In addition, let the server rate be one, and assume the followings hold: $\alpha < \beta$, i.e., $S_1(\cdot)$ is convex and $S_2(\cdot)$ is concave, $\alpha + \beta \leq 1$, i.e., both service curves can be guaranteed by using SCED, and $2\beta > 1$, i.e., it is not possible to guarantee the peak rates of both sessions simultaneously.

Also, for simplicity, assume that the packets are of unit length, and once a session becomes active it remains continuously backlogged. Under these assumptions, the deadline of the k-th packet of session i under SCED is simply $S_i^{-1}(k) + t_s^i$, where t_s^i is the time when session i becomes active. Similarly, the deadline of the last packet of session i that has been transmitted by time t ($t \geq t_s^i$) is $S_i^{-1}(w_i(t,t_s)) + t_s^i$. Note that since session i is not active until t_s^i , we have $w_i(t) = w_i(0, t_s^i) + w_i(t_s^i, t) = w_i(t_s^i, t)$.

Now consider the scenario in which session 1 becomes active at time 0 and session 2 becomes active at time t_0 . Since session 1 is the only session active during the time interval $[0, t_0]$, it receives all the service provided by the server, i.e., $w_1(t) = t$, for any $0 \le t \le t_0$ (see Figure 3(b)). Also, the deadline of the last packet of session 1 that has been transmitted by time t_0 is $S_1^{-1}(w_1(t_0)) = S_1^{-1}(t_0)$.

Next, consider at time t_0 , when the second session becomes active (see Figure 3(c)). Since the deadline of the k-th





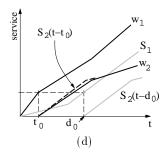


Figure 3: An example illustrating the "punishment" of a session under SCED policy: (c) session 1 does not receive any service during $(t_0, t_1]$, after session 2 becomes active at t_0 . (d) A modified version of SCED that tries to not penalize session 1 at all, but violates session 2's service curve.

packet of session 2 is $S_2^{-1}(k) + t_0$ and packets are served in increasing order of their deadlines, it follows that as long as $S_2^{-1}(k) + t_0 < S_1^{-1}(t_0)$, only the packets of session 2 are transmitted. Thus, session 1 does not receive any service during the time interval $(t_0, t_1]$, where t_1 is the smallest time such that $S_2^{-1}(w_2(t_1)) + t_0 > S_1^{-1}(t_0)$.

such that $S_2^{-1}(w_2(t_1)) + t_0 \ge S_1^{-1}(t_0)$.

As shown in Figure 3(c), for any time t, $w_1(t) > S_1(t)$ and $w_2(t) > S_2(t-t_0)$ hold, i.e., the SCED algorithm guarantees the service curves of both sessions. However, SCED punishes session 2 for receiving excess bandwidth during $[0,t_0]$ by keeping it from receiving service during $(t_0,t_1]$. This behavior makes it difficult to use SCED in a hierarchical server. To see why, consider a simple two-level hierarchy where the bandwidth is shared by two classes, characterized by the service curves $S_1(\cdot)$, and $S_2(\cdot)$, respectively. Then, if one of class 1's child classes becomes active at some point between t_0 and t_1 , it will not receive any service before t_1 , no matter how "important" this session is!

It is interesting to note that in a system where all the service curves are simple lines, SCED reduces to the wellknown Virtual Clock discipline. While Virtual Clock is unfair [10, 17], there exists algorithms (such as the various PFQ algorithms) that not only provide the same service curve guarantees as Virtual Clock but also achieve fairness. In PFQ algorithms, each session is associated with a virtual time function that represents the normalized amount of service that has been received by the session. The algorithm then achieves fairness by minimizing the differences among the virtual time functions of all sessions. Since Virtual Clock is a special case of SCED, it is natural to use the same idea for achieving fairness in SCED with general service curves. This is achieved by associating with each session a generalized virtual time function, and servicing the session that has the smallest virtual time function. While we will describe the detailed algorithm in Section 3, we use the example in Figure 3(d) to illustrate the concept. The main modification to SCED would be to use $S_2(t-d_0)$ in computing the packets' deadlines for session 2, instead $S_2(t-t_0)$. It can be easily verified that if $S_1(t) = r_1 t$ and $S_2(t) = r_2 t$, where r_1 and r_2 are the rates assigned to sessions 1 and 2 respectively, the above algorithm results in identical behaviors as in WFQ. Figure 3(d) shows the allocation of the service time when this discipline is used. Note that, unlike the previous case, session 1 is no longer penalized when session 2 becomes

In summary, fairness can be incorporated into service curve based schedulers such that (a) the excess bandwidth is distributed according to the service curves of active sessions, and (b) a session using excess service will not be penalized later. Unfortunately, this does not come for free. As shown in Figure 3(d) the service curve of session 2 is violated immediately after time t_0 . This underlines the difficulty of simultaneously achieving fairness, while guaranteeing the service curves. In fact, as we will see in the next section, in general this is not possible.

2.3 Fair Service Curve Link-Sharing Model

As discussed at the beginning of the paper, the important goals of hierarchical link-sharing are: guaranteed QoS for each class, priority or decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation among classes, and proper distribution of excess bandwidth.

Since the service curve abstraction provides a general definition of QoS with decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation, and can be extended to include fairness property for the purpose of excess bandwidth distribution, it is natural to use service curves to define the performance goals of linksharing and real-time services. In a Fair Service Curve linksharing mode, there is a service curve associated with each node in the link-sharing hierarchy. The goal is then to (1) satisfy the service curves of all nodes simultaneously, and (2) distribute the excess service fairly as defined in Section 2.2. Note that (1) is a general requirement that subsumes both link-sharing and real-time performance goals. A real-time session is just a leaf node in the hierarchy, and its performance will be automatically guaranteed if the Fair Service Curve link-sharing model is realized.

Unfortunately, with non-linear service curves, there are time periods when either (a) it is not possible to guarantee the service curve for all classes, or (b) it is not possible to simultaneously satisfy both the service curves and fairness property.

To see why (a) is true, consider the hierarchy in Figure 4(a). For simplicity, assume the service curve assigned to an interior class is the sum of the service curves of all its children. Also, assume all sessions are continuously backlogged from time 0 except session 1, which is idle during [0,t] and becomes backlogged at time t. During [0,t], since session 1 is not active, its entire service is distributed to session 2 according to the link-sharing semantics. At time t, session 1 becomes active. In order to satisfy session 1's service curve, at least $S_1(\Delta t)$ service need to be allocated for session 1 for any future time interval $(t, t + \Delta t]$. However, as shown in Figure 4(b), since the sum of all the service curves that need to be satisfied during $(t, t + \Delta t]$ is greater

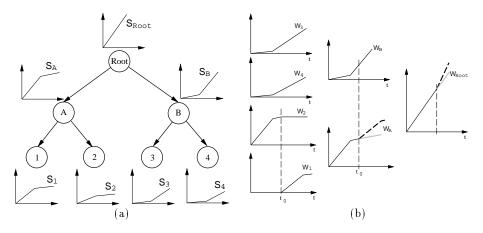


Figure 4: An example illustrating why it is not possible to guarantee the service curves of all the classes in the hierarchy. (a) The hierarchy and the service curves of each node. (b) The service received by each session when sessions 2, 3, and 4 become active at time 0; session 1 becomes active at time t_0 .

than the server's service curve, it is impossible to satisfy all the service curves simultaneously during this period. Since decoupling delay and bandwidth allocation is equivalent to specifying a non-linear service curve, this translates into a fundamental conflict between link-sharing and real-time service when the delay and bandwidth allocation is decoupled.

To see the fundamental conflict between fairness and real-time requirements with decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation, consider the example in Figure 3 again. As shown in Figure 3(d), if fairness is to be provided, the service curve of session 2 will be violated, i.e., $w_2(t) < S_2(t-t_0)$, for some $t \ge t_0$. This is because after t_0 both sessions receive service at a rate proportional to their slope, and since immediately after time t_0 their slopes are equal, each of them is served at a rate of 1/2, which is smaller than β , the service rate required to satisfy $S_2(\cdot)$.

Therefore, there are time periods when the Fair Service Curve link-sharing model cannot be realized. In spite of this, the model serves two purposes. First, unlike previous models, this model explicitly defines the situations when all performance goals cannot be simultaneously satisfied. This exposes the fundamental architecture tradeoff decisions one has to make with respect to the relative importance among the conflicting performance goals. Second, the model serves an ideal target that a scheduling algorithm should approximate as closely as possible. We believe that a scheduler should guarantee the service curves of the leaf classes all the time while trying to minimize the discrepancy between the service allocated to each interior class and its fair service according to the model.

3 Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC)

In this section, we propose a new scheduling algorithm called Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC) that closely approximates the ideal Fair Service Curve link-sharing model as defined in the previous section.

3.1 Overview of the Algorithm

The scheduling is based on two criteria: the real-time criteria that ensures the service guarantee of all leaf classes, and the link-sharing criteria that aims to satisfy service curves of

interior classes and fairly distribute the excess bandwidth. The real-time criteria is used to select the packet only if there is a potential danger that the service guarantees for leaf nodes are violated. Otherwise, the link-sharing criteria is used. Such a policy ensures the real-time guarantee of the leaf classes while at the same time minimizing the discrepancy between the actual services received by interior nodes and those defined by the ideal link-sharing model.

With H-FSC, each leaf class i maintains a triplet (e_i, d_i, v_i) , while each interior class j maintains only v_j , where e_i and d_i represents the eligibility time and the deadline associated with the first packet of class i's queue, and v_i and v_j are virtual times for the classes. The deadlines are assigned such that if the deadlines of all packets of a session are met, its service curve is guaranteed. The eligibility times are used to arbitrate which one of the two scheduling criteria to use for selecting the next packet. The packet at the head of session i's queue is said to be eligible if $e_i \leq t$, where t is the current time. Eligibility times are computed such that at any given time when there are eligible packets in the system, there is a danger that the deadline of at least one packet is to be violated if the link-sharing instead real-time criteria is used, i.e., there is a potential conflict between link-sharing and real-time goals. Since the real-time goal is more important, whenever there are eligible packets, the algorithm will always use the real-time criteria, which is to select, among all eligible packets, the one with the smallest deadline. At any given time when there are no eligible packets, i.e., there are no possible conflicts between link-sharing and real-time goals, the algorithm will apply the link-sharing criteria recursively, starting from the root class and stopping at a leaf class, selects, among all child classes, the one with the smallest virtual time. While deadline and eligibility times are associated only with leaf classes, virtual times are associated with both interior and leaf classes. The virtual time of a class represents the normalized amount of service that has been received by the class. In a perfect fair system, the virtual times for all sibling classes should be identical. The objective of the link-sharing criteria is then to minimize the discrepancies between virtual times for sibling classes. The pseudo code of H-FSC is given in Figure 5. In computing eligibility time, deadline, and virtual time, the algorithm uses three curves, one for each parameter: the eligible curve

```
receive_packet(i, p) /* session i has received packet p */
    enqueue(queue_i, p);
    if (i \notin A) / * if i was not active * /
        \mathbf{update\_ed}(i,0,p); /* update E_i(\cdot), D_i(\cdot), compute e_i, d_i */
       \mathbf{update\_v}(i, p); /* update\ V(\cdot) for i and its\ ancestors\ */
       \mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A} \cup \{i\}; /* mark \ i \ active */
get_packet() /* get next packet to send */
    i = \min_{d_i} \{i \in \mathcal{A} \mid e_i \leq t\}; /* select by real-time criteria */
   if (i \neq \emptyset) /* does such session exists? */
       p = \mathbf{dequeue}(queue_i);
       \mathbf{update\_v}(i,p); \ /* \ update \ virtual \ time \ */
       if (queue_i \neq \emptyset)
           \mathbf{update\_ed}(i, p, head(queue_i));
        else
           \mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{i\}; /* mark \ i \ passive */
    else /* select active ses. by link-sharing criteria */
       i = \min_{v, i} \mathcal{A};
       p = \mathbf{dequeue}(i);
       update_v(i, p)
       if (queue_i \neq \emptyset)
           update\_d(i, p, head(queue_i)) /* update d_i only */
           \mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A} \setminus \{i\};
   send_packet(p);
```

Figure 5: The Hierarchical Fair Service Curve (H-FSC) algorithm. The receive_packet function is executed every time a packet arrives; the get_packet function is executed every time a packet departs (to select the next packet to send).

 $E_i(\cdot)$, the deadline curve $D_i(\cdot)$, and the virtual curve $V_i(\cdot)$. The exact algorithms to update these curves are presented Section 3.2 and Section 3.3.

There are several noteworthy points about the algorithm. First, while H-FSC needs to use two packet selection criteria to support link-sharing and real-time services, the other hierarchical algorithm, Hierarchical Packet Fair Queueing (H-PFQ) [1], selects packet solely based on the link-sharing criteria, and yet, it can support both link-sharing and realtime services. This is because H-PFQ guarantees only linear service curves, and it is feasible to guarantee all linear service curves simultaneously in a class hierarchy. In contrast, H-FSC supports decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation by guaranteeing non-linear service curves. As we have shown in Section 2, it is infeasible to guarantee all non-linear service curves simultaneously in a class hierarchy. Consequently, H-FSC uses two separate criteria for each of the link-sharing and real-time goals, and employs the mechanism of eligibility time to determine which criteria to use. Second, the algorithm uses three types of time parameters: deadlines, eligibility times, and virtual times. While leaf nodes maintain all three parameters, the interior nodes maintain only the virtual time parameter. This is because deadlines and eligibility times are used for the purpose of guaranteeing the service curves, and H-FSC provides guarantees service curves only for leaf classes. On the other hand, virtual times are used for the purpose of hierarchical link-sharing that involves the entire hierarchy, and therefore are maintained by all classes in the hierarchy. A third point to notice is that while all three parameters are time values, they are measured with respect to different clocks. Deadlines and eligibility times are real times in the sense that they are

```
 \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{update\_ed}(i,p,next\_p) \\ \mathbf{if}\ (i\not\in\mathcal{A}) \\ /*\ session\ i\ is\ about\ to\ become\ active\ /* \\ /\ D_i(\cdot) = \mathbf{update\_DC}(i);\ /*\ update\ deadline\ curve\ */ \\ E_i(\cdot) = \mathbf{update\_EC}(i);\ /*\ update\ eligible\ curve\ */ \\ c_i = c_i + \mathbf{length}(p); \\ e_i = E_i^{-1}(c_i);\ /*\ update\ eligible\ time\ */ \\ d_i = D_i^{-1}(c_i + \mathbf{length}(next\_p));\ /*\ update\ deadline\ */ \\ \end{array}
```

Figure 6: The function which updates the deadline and the eligible curves, and computes the deadlines and the eligible times for each session.

measured with respect to the physical real-time clock. The absolute values are important as they need to be compared with the real-time clock. In contrast, the virtual time of a class is measured with respect to the total amount of service provided by its parent class.² The relative differences between virtual times of sibling classes are more important than the absolute values of the virtual times. Finally, we note that in addition to the advantage of decoupling delay and bandwidth allocation by supporting non-linear service curves, H-FSC provides tighter delay bounds than H-PFQ even for class hierarchies with only linear service curves. The key observation is that in H-PFQ, packet scheduling is solely based on link-sharing criteria, which needs to go recursively from the root class to a leaf class when selecting the next packet for transmission. The net effect is that the delay bound provided to a leaf class increases with the depth of the leaf in the hierarchy [1]. In contrast, with H-FSC, the delay bound of a leaf class is determined by the real-time packet selection criteria, which considers only the leaf classes. Therefore, the delay bound is independent of the class hierarchy.

3.2 Eligible Time and Deadline

In this section, we present the algorithm to compute the deadline and the eligible time for each leaf class.

For each leaf class i, the algorithm maintains two curves, one for each parameter: the eligible curve $E(\cdot)$ and the deadline curve $D(\cdot)$. In addition, it keeps a variable c_i , which is incremented by the packet length each time a class i packet is selected using the real-time criteria. Thus c_i represents the total amount of service that the class has received when selected under the real-time criteria. Like SCED, the deadline curve $D_i(\cdot)$ is initialized to its service curve $S_i(\cdot)$, and updated each time session i becomes active at time t_a according to the following:

$$D_i(t) = \min(D_i(t), S_i(t - t_a) + c_i), \ \forall \ t > D_i^{-1}(c_i).$$
 (7)

This is the same as Eq. (3) except that c_i is used instead of w_i . Since c_i does not account for the service received by the session via the link-sharing criteria, the deadlines of future packets will not be affected due to the fact that the session receives excess service from the link-sharing hierarchy. This is the essence of the "non-punishment" aspect of the fairness property.

While deadlines are used to guarantee service curves for leaf classes, eligibility times are used to arbitrate which one

 $^{^2 \}mbox{For simplicity of notation, the parent of the root class is the server itself.$

of the two scheduling criteria is to be applied to choose the next packet for service. The key observation is that with non-linear service curves, sometimes it is not possible to achieve perfect link-sharing and guarantee all service curves at the same time. A typical situation is when a session i with a concave service curve becomes active at t_a , joining sessions that have convex service curves. Before session i joins, the other sessions receive the excess service, but their deadline curves are not updated. When session i becomes active, if the sum of the slopes of all active sessions' deadline curves at time t is larger than the server rate, it is impossible to satisfy the service curves of all sessions.

The only solution is to have the server allocate active sessions "enough" service in advance using the real-time criteria such that the server has sufficient capacity to satisfy the service curves of all sessions when new sessions become active. However, whenever a packet is served using the real-time criteria but another packet has a smaller virtual time, there is a departure from the ideal link-sharing distribution. Therefore, to minimize the discrepancy from the ideal link-sharing model, we want to serve packets using the link-sharing criteria whenever there is no danger that the guarantees for leaf classes will be violated in the future.

In H-FSC, eligibility times are used to arbitrate which one of the two criteria is to be applied to select the next packet. To give more insight on the concept of eligibility, let E(t) be the minimum service that all active sessions should receive by time t, such that irrespective of the arrival traffic, the aggregate service time required by all sessions during any future time interval (t,t'] cannot exceed $R\times(t'-t)$, i.e., cannot exceed the server capacity, R. Note that this is a necessary condition: if the active sessions do not receive at least E(t) service by time t, then there exists a scenario in which the service curve of at least one session will be violated in the future. Intuitively, the worst case scenario occurs when all sessions are continuously active after time t [15]. Because the above condition holds for any future time t', we have

$$E(t) = \sum_{i \in A(t)} D_i(t) + [\max_{t'>t} (\sum_{i \in A(t)} (D_i(t') - D_i(t))$$
(8)

$$+ \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(t)} (D_i^*(t') - D_i^*(t)) - R \times (t' - t))]^+,$$

where D_i^* represents the deadline curve of a passive session i that becomes active at time t, and $[x]^+$ denotes $\max(x,0)$. The above equation reads as follows. In the worst case, when all passive sessions become active at time t, the maximum service requested by all sessions during the time interval (t,t'] while all of them remain active is: $\sum_{i\in\mathcal{A}(t)}(D_i(t')-D_i(t))+\sum_{i\in\mathcal{P}(t)}(D_i^*(t')-D_i^*(t))$. Since all sessions can receive at most $R\times(t'-t)$ service during the interval (t,t'], and since by time t the active sessions should have received at least $\sum_{i\in\mathcal{A}(t)}D_i(t)$ in order to satisfy their service curves, the above equation follows.

Thus, E(t) represents the minimum service that should be allocated to the active sessions by time t using the real-time criteria in order to guarantee the service curves of all sessions in the future. The remaining (excess) service can be allocated by the link-sharing criteria. Further, it can be shown that the SCED algorithm is optimal in the sense that it can guarantee the service curves of all sessions by allocating exactly E(t) service by time t. With this a possible algorithm would be simply to allocate E(t) service by using

SCED, and redistributing the excess service according to the link-sharing criteria. The major challenge in implementing such an algorithm is computing E(t) efficiently. Unfortunately, this is difficult for several reasons. First, as shown in Eq. (8), E(t) depends not only on the deadline curves of the active sessions, but also on the deadline curves of the passive ones. Since according to Eq. (7), the deadline curve depends on the time when a session becomes active, this means that we need to keep track of all these possible changes, which in the worst case is proportional to the number of sessions. Second, even if all deadline curves are two-piece linear, the resulting curve E(t) can be n piece-wise linear, which is difficult to maintain and implement efficiently. Therefore, we choose to trade complexity for accuracy, by overestimating E(t). The first step in the approximation is to note that (see Eq. (7)):

$$D_i^*(t') - D_i^*(t) \le S_i(t'-t), \ \forall \ t' > t. \tag{9}$$

By using this inequality and the fact that $\sum_{i} S_i(t) \leq R \times t$, for any t, Eq. (8) becomes:

$$E(t) \leq \sum_{i \in A(t)} D_i(t) + \left[\max_{t' > t} \left(\sum_{i \in A(t)} (D_i(t') - D_i(t) - S_i(t'-t)) \right) \right]^+$$

$$\leq \sum_{i \in A(t)} \left(D_i(t) + \left[\max_{t' > t} (D_i(t') - D_i(t) - S_i(t'-t)) \right]^+ \right).$$

Finally, we define the session's eligible curve to be

$$E_{i}(t) = D_{i}(t) + \left[\max_{t' > t} (D_{i}(t') - D_{i}(t) - S_{i}(t' - t)) \right]^{+}, \quad (10)$$

$$\forall \ t > D^{-1}(c_{i}).$$

The eligible curve $E_i(\cdot)$ determines the maximum amount of service received by session i at time t by the real-time criteria. Since $\sum_{i \in A(t)} E_i(t) \ge E(t)$, we have a sufficient but necessary condition. $E_i(\cdot)$ is updated every time session i becomes active by the function update_EC according to the above formula. It is important to note that even though the formula, which applies to algorithms with service curves of arbitrary shape, looks complicated, the eligibility curves are actually quite simple to compute in the specific cases that we are interested in. For example, for sessions with concave service curves the eligibility curve is the same as the deadline curve. Intuitively this is easy to understand as the minimum service rate for sessions with concave service curves will not increase in the future, thus there is no need to provide future service for it. Similarly, for sessions with two piece-wise linear convex service curve (first slope α , second slope β , where $\beta > \alpha$), the eligibility curve is the linear curve with the slope of β .

3.3 Virtual Time

The concept of virtual time was first proposed in the context of Packet Fair Queueing (PFQ) and Hierarchical Packet Fair Queueing (H-PFQ) algorithms to achieve fairness, real-time, and hierarchical link-sharing. In H-FSC, we will use a generalized version of virtual time to achieve hierarchical link-sharing.

Each Fair Queueing algorithm maintains a system virtual time $v^s(\cdot)$. In addition it associates to each session i a virtual start time $s_i(\cdot)$, and a virtual finish time $f_i(\cdot)$. Intuitively, $v^s(t)$ represents the normalized fair amount of service time that each session should have received by time $t, s_i(t)$ represents the normalized amount of service time that session i

```
 \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{update\_v}(i,p) \\ n = \mathbf{parent}(i); \\ \mathbf{if} \ (i \not\in \mathcal{A}) \ /* \ is \ class/session \ i \ active \ ?*/\\ v_i = max(v_i,v_{p(i)}^s) \\ \mathbf{update\_VC}(i); \\ \mathbf{if} \ (\mathbf{active}(i) = TRUE) \\ \mathbf{return}; \\ \mathbf{else} \\ w_i = w_i + \mathbf{length}(p); \\ v_i = V_i^{-1}(w_i); \\ \mathbf{if} \ (n \neq ROOT) \\ \mathbf{update\_v}(n,p); \end{array}
```

Figure 7: The function which updates the virtual time curves and the virtual times in H-FSC.

has received by time t, and $f_i(t)$ represents the sum between $v_i(t)$ and the normalized service that session i should receive for serving the packet at the head of its queue. Since $s_i(t)$ keeps track of the service received by session i by time t, $s_i(t)$ is also called the virtual time of session i, and alternatively denoted $v_i(t)$. The goal of all PFQ algorithms is then to minimize the discrepancies among $v_i(t)$'s and v(t). In a H-PFQ system, each class keeps a virtual time function and the goal is to minimize the discrepancies among all sibling nodes in the hierarchy. Various PFQ algorithms differ in two aspects, the computation of the system virtual time function, and the packet selection policy. Examples of system virtual time functions are the start time of the packet being currently served [9], the finish time of the current packet being currently served [8], and minimum of the start times of all packets at head of currently backlogged queues [1]. Examples of packet selection policies are: Smallest Start time First (SSF) [9], Smallest Finish time First (SFF) [8], and Smallest Eligible Finish time First [1, 14]. The choice of different system virtual time functions and packet selection policies will affect the real-time and fairness properties of the resulted PFQ algorithm.

Similar to H-PFQ, for each class i in the hierarchy, H-FSC maintains a virtual time function $v_i(t)$ that represents the normalized amount of service time that class i has received by time t. In H-FSC, virtual times are used by the link-sharing criteria to distribute service along the hierarchies according to the classes' service curves. The linksharing criteria is used to select the next packet only when the real-time criteria is not used. Since the real-time guarantees for leaf classes are ensured by the real-time packet selection criteria, the effect on performance by having different system virtual time functions and packet selection algorithms in the link-sharing criteria is less critical. In H-FSC we use the SSF policy and the following system virtual time function: $v_i^s = (v_{i,min} + v_{i,max})/2$, where $v_{i,min}$ and $v_{i,max}$ are the minimum and maximum virtual start times among all class i's currently active child classes. By doing this, we ensure that the discrepancy between the virtual times of any two active sibling sessions is bounded (see Section 5). It is interesting to note that by taking v_i^s to be either $v_{i,min}$ or $v_{i,max}$ results in a discrepancy proportional to the number of sessions.

In H-FSC, $v_i(t)$ is iteratively computed by using the previous virtual time function and the session's service curve. Virtual times are updated when a packet finishes service or a class becomes active. The function **update_v** is shown

in Figure 7. Notice that $update_v$ recursively updates the virtual time and the virtual time function by following child-parent link in the hierarchy till it reaches the root or a parent class that is active before time t.

In the algorithm, we actually maintain a virtual curve $V_i(\cdot)$, the inverse function of $v_i(\cdot)$, instead of $v_i(\cdot)$. $V_i(\cdot)$ is updated by using the **update_VC** function every time a class becomes active:

$$V_i(t) = \min(V_i(t), S_i(t - v_{p(i)}^s) + w_i), \ \forall \ t > V_i^{-1}(w_i), \ (11)$$

where w_i is the total amount of service received by class i by time t, and $v_{p(i)}^s$ is the system virtual time for class i's parent class. Finally, it is worth noting that in the particular case when $S_i(\cdot)$ is a straight line with slope r_i , from Eq. (11) we have $V_i(t) = r_i t$. Then, the virtual time v_i is simply $V^{-1}(w_i) = w_i/r_i$, which is exactly the virtual time of session i in the PFQ algorithms.

4 Implementation Issues and Complexity

The functions receive_packet and get_packet described in Figure 5 are called each time an event occurs in the real system, i.e., a packet arrives or departs. In our current implementation we maintain two requests per session, one characterized by the eligible time and deadline, called real-time request, and the other characterized by the virtual time, called link-sharing request. For maintaining the realtime requests we can use either an augmented binary tree data structure as the one described in [13], or a calendar queue [3] for keeping track of the eligible times in conjunction with a heap for maintaining the requests' deadlines. While the former method makes possible to perform insertion and deletion (of the eligible request with the minimum deadline) in $O(\log n)$, where n is the number of active sessions, the latter method is slightly faster in the average case. The link-sharing requests are stored in a heap based on their virtual times.

Besides maintaining the request data structures, the algorithm has to compute the various curves, and update the eligible time, the deadline, and the virtual time. While it is expensive to update general service curves, in practice this complexity can be significantly reduced by considering only piece-wise linear curves.

In our model, each session i is characterized by three parameters: the largest unit of work, denoted u_i^{max} , for which the session requires delay guarantees, the guaranteed delay d_i^{max} , and the session's average rate r_i . As an example, if a session requires per packet delay guarantees, then u_i^{max} represents the maximum size of a packet. Similarly, a video or an audio session can require per frame delay guarantees, by setting u_i^{max} to the maximum size of the frame. The session's requirements are mapped to a two-piece linear service curve, which for computation efficiency is defined by the following three parameters: the slope of the first segment m_i^1 , the slope of the second segment m_i^2 , and the x-coordinate of the intersection between the two segments x_i . The mapping $(u_i^{max}, d_i^{max}, r_i) \rightarrow (m_i^1, x_i, m_i^2)$ for both concave and convex curves is illustrated in Figure 8.

It can be easily verified from Eq. (7) that any deadline curve that is initialized to a service curve of one of the two types discussed above remains a two-piece linear service curve after each updating operation. It is worth noting that although all two-piece linear concave curve exhibits this nice property, this is not true for all convex curves. In fact, it can

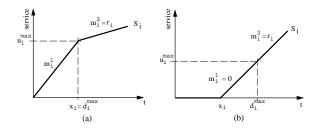


Figure 8: The service curve associated with a session i characterized by maximum delay d_i^{max} , maximum unit of work u_i^{max} , and average rate r_i . If $u_i^{max}/d_i^{max} > r_i$, the service curve is concave (a); otherwise, it is convex (b).

Figure 9: The function which updates the deadline curve D_i . (Service curve parameters are identified by superscript S.)

be shown that only the two-piece linear convex service curve which have their first segment parallel with the x-coordinate have this propriety (which is our case). Since the first segment of a deadline curve does not necessarily intersect the origin, we need an extra parameter to uniquely characterize a deadline curve. We take this parameter to be the ycoordinate of the intersection between the two segments and denote it y_i . The pseudocode to update the deadline curve of session i is presented in Figure 9. The only parameters that are modified are the coordinates of the segments intersection x_i and y_i , the slopes of the two segments, m_i^1 and m_i^2 , remain unchanged. It is important to note that the deadline curve, as well as the virtual and eligible curves, is updated only when the state of the session changes from passive to active. As long as the session remains active, no curves need to be updated.

The update operation of the virtual curve is similar to the one for the deadline curve. The only difference is that instead of using c_i and t_a , we use the total service w_i and the virtual time $v_{p(i)}^s$, respectively.

Although from Eq. (10) it appears that the computation of the eligible curve is quite complex, in our case it turns out that it can be done very efficiently: if the deadline curve is concave, then the eligible curve simply equals to the deadline curve; if the deadline curve is two-piece linear convex, then the eligible curve reduces to a line that starts from the same point with the first segment of the deadline curve, and has the same slope as its second segment.

Thus, updating the deadline, eligible and virtual curves takes constant time. Computing the eligible time, deadline and virtual time reduces to the computation of the inverse of a two-piece linear function, which takes also constant time. Consequently, H-FSC takes $O(\log n)$ per packet arrival or packet departures, which is similar to other packet schedul-

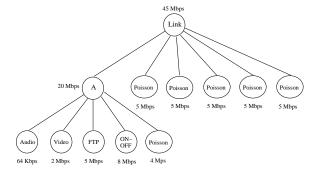


Figure 10: Class Hierarchy.

ing algorithms [1].

5 Delay and Fairness Properties of H-FSC

In this section, we present our main theoretical results on the delay and fairness properties of H-FSC. The proofs can be found in [15]. For the rest of discussion, we consider the arrival time of a packet to be the time when its last bit was received, and the departing time to be the time when its last bit has been transmitted.

The following theorem shows that by computing the deadlines of each packet, based on $D_i(\cdot)$, as defined by Eq. (7), we can indeed guarantee the service curve $S_i(\cdot)$ of session i.

Theorem 1 With H-FSC, the service curve of a session is guaranteed, if each of its packets is transmitted before its deadline.

The next theorem gives tight delay bounds for H-FSC. In conjunction with the previous lemma, this result shows that the service curves are guaranteed within the size of a packet of maximum length.

Theorem 2 The H-FSC algorithm guarantees that the deadline of any packet is not missed by more than τ_{max} , where τ_{max} represents the time to transmit a packet of maximum length.

It should be noticed that, unlike H-PFQ, the delay bounds do *not* depend on the number of levels in the hierarchy. This is simply because the computation of the deadlines are based on the service curves of the leaf classes only, and packet selection using the real-time criteria is independent of the hierarchy structure.

Next, Theorem 3 characterizes the fairness of our algorithm, by giving bounds on the discrepancy in the service time distribution from the ideal link-sharing model.

Theorem 3 In H-FSC, the difference between the virtual times of any two sibling sessions that are simultaneously active is bounded by a constant.

From the theorem, the following corollary immediately follows:

Corollary 1 in H-HSC, for any two sibling classes i and j that are continuously backlogged during a time interval $(t_1, t_2]$, the following holds,

$$|(v_i(t_2) - v_i(t_1)) - (v_i(t_2) - v_i(t_1))| < B,$$
 (12)

where B is a positive constant.

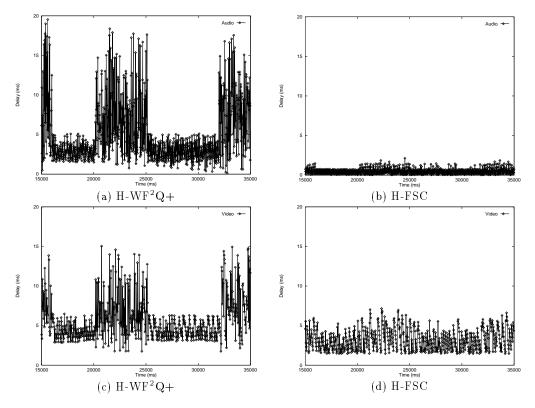


Figure 11: Absolute delay for audio and video sessions.

In other words, the difference between the normalized service time that each session should receive during the interval $(t_1, t_2]$ is bounded. It can be easily shown that when the service curves for classes i and j are linear, B reduces to the fairness metric defined by Golestani [8].

6 Performance Evaluation

We have implemented H-FSC in a simulator and in the kernel of NetBSD 1.2 on the Intel i386 architecture. We use a calendar queue in conjunction with a heap to maintain the real-time requests, and a heap at each interior class to maintain the link-sharing requests. The two implementations use nearly identical code. The only difference is that in the NetBSD implementation, we use the CPU clock cycle counter provided by the Intel Pentium Pro processor as a fine grain real-time clock for all eligible time and deadline computations. In the NetBSD, besides the scheduler, we have also implemented a packet classifier that maps IPv4 packets to appropriate classes in the hierarchy.

We evaluate the H-FSC algorithm using both simulation and measurement experiments. The experiments are performed on a 200 MHz Intel Pentium Pro system with 256 KB on-chip L2 cache, 32 MB of RAM, and a 3COM Etherlink III ISA Ethernet interface card. We instrumented the kernel such that we can record a log of events (such as enqueue and dequeue) with time-stamps (using the CPU clock cycle counter) in a system memory buffer while the experiments are running, and later retrieve the contents of the log through an ioctl system call for post-processing and analysis. In the rest of the section, we present results to evaluate H-FSC's performance in three aspects: (1) H-FSC's abil-

ity to provide real-time guarantees, (2) H-FSC's support for link-sharing, and (3) the computation overhead of our implementation of the algorithm.

6.1 Real-time Guarantees

We use simulation to evaluate the delay properties of H-FSC because we can have better control over traffic sources in the simulator. We compare H-FSC to H-WF²Q+, which, to the best of our knowledge, achieves the tightest delay bounds among all hierarchical packet fair queueing algorithms [1].

Consider the two-level class hierarchy shown in Figure 10. The value under each class represents the bandwidth guaranteed to that class. In our experiment, the audio session sends 160 byte packets every 20 ms, while the video session sends 8 KB packets every 33 ms. All the other sessions send 4 KB packets and the FTP session is continously backlogged.

To demonstrate H-FSC's ability to ensure low delay for real-time connections, we target for a 5 ms delay for the audio session, and a 10 ms delay for the video session. To achieve these objectives, we assign to the audio session the service curve $S_a = (u_a^{max} = 160 \text{ bytes}, d_a^{max} = 5 \text{ ms}, r_a = 64 \text{ Kbps})$, and to the video session the service curve $S_v = (u_v^{max} = 8 \text{ KB}, d_v^{max} = 10 \text{ ms}, r_v = 2 \text{ Mbps})$. Also, in order to pass the admission control test, we assign to the FTP session the service curve $S_{FTP} = (u_{FTP}^{max} = 4 \text{ KB}, d_{FTP}^{max} = 16.25 \text{ ms}, r_{FTP} = 5 \text{ Mbps})$. The service curves of all the other sessions and classes are linear.

Figure 11 shows the delay distribution for the audio and video sessions under H-WF²Q+ and H-FSC. Clearly, H-FSC achieves much lower delays for both audio and video sessions. The reduction in delay with H-FSC is especially sig-

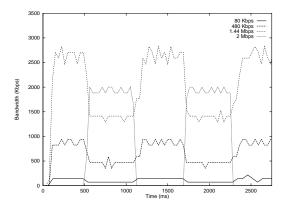


Figure 12: Bandwidth distribution among four competing sessions.

nificant for the audio session. This is a direct consequence of H-FSC's ability to decouple delay and bandwidth allocation. The periodic variation in the delay, especially under H-WF²Q+, mirrors the periodic activity of the ON-OFF source. H-WF²Q+ is more sensitive to these variations due to the coupling between bandwidth and delay allocation. Intuitively, when the ON-OFF source becomes active, the number of packets from competing sessions that an audio or video packet has to wait before receiving service almost doubles and the delay increases accordingly.3 On the other hand, H-FSC ignores the class hierarchy in satisfying the delay requirements. Therefore, when the ON-OFF session becomes active, the number of additional packets from competing sessions an audio or video packet has to wait before being transmitted increases by less than 20 % because the bandwidth of the ON-OFF session accounts for only 18 % of the total bandwidth.

6.2 Link-sharing

To evaluate H-FSC's support for link-sharing, we conduct the following experiment using our NetBSD/i386 implementation as the platform.

We set up a class hierarchy similar to the one in Figure 10 except that there are only 4 sessions at each level. The sessions at level one all have bandwidth reservation of 1.5 Mbps, and the sessions at level two have bandwidth reservations of 80 Kbps, 480 Kbps, 1.44 Mbps and 2 Mbps respectively. The total aggregate bandwidth reservation is 10 Mbps -Ethernet's theoretical maximum throughput. All sessions are continuously backlogged except for the 2 Mbps session which is an ON-OFF source. The traffic load is generated by a self-timed user-level program that sends UDP packets of size 512 bytes for each session at the required rates. Figure 12 shows the bandwidth vs. time graph for four sessions at level 2 in the hierarchy. To compute the bandwidth, a 37.5 ms averaging interval is used for all sessions except that a 60 ms interval is used for the 80 Kbps session due to its low packet rate. As can be seen, when the 2 Mbps ON-OFF session is idle, its bandwidth is fairly distributed to the other three competing sessions, while when all sessions are active, they all received their guaranteed rates.

6.3 Computation Overhead

There are generally three types of computation overhead involved in our implementation of H-FSC: packet classification, enqueue, and dequeue.

We first measure the packet classification overhead in our NetBSD/i386 implementation. To reduce the overhead of packet classification, a hashing-based algorithm is used. As a result, under light load, only the first packet of a class incurs the cost of full classification. Subsequent packets from this class are classified based on the class's hash values. While the worst-case overhead in our implementation increases with the number of classes in the hierarchy, the average time to classify a packet based on hashing is about 3 $\mu \rm s$.

To measure the enqueue and dequeue overhead, we run the simulator in single user mode on a 200 MHz Pentium Pro system with 256 KB L2 cache and 32 MB of memory running the unchanged NetBSD 1.2 kernel. Since identical code is used in both the simulator and the NetBSD kernel implementation, the results also reflect the overhead in the NetBSD implementation.

In all experiments presented in this section, we measure (1) the average enqueue time, (2) the average dequeue time for packet selection by both the link-sharing and the real-time criteria, and (3) the average per packet queueing overhead, which is the total overhead of the algorithm divided by the number of packets forwarded. In each case, we compute the averages over the time interval between the transmission of the 10,000-th and the 20,000-th packet to remove the transient regimes from the beginning and the end of the simulation.

In the first experiment, we use one level hierarchies where the number of sessions varies from 1 to 1000 in increments of 100. The link bandwidth is divided equally among all sessions. The traffic of each session is modeled by a two state Markov process with an average rate of 0.95 of its reserved rate. As shown in Figure 13(a), enqueue and dequeue times increase little between as the number of sessions increase from 100 to 1000 sessions. This is expected as H-FSC has a logarithmic time complexity. Based on the average per packet queueing overhead, we can estimate the throughput of our implementation. For example, with 1000 sessions, since the average per packet queueing overhead is approximately 9 μ s, adding the 3 μ s steady-state packet classification overhead, we expect our implementation to be able to forward over 83,000 packets per second.

In the second experiment, we study the impact of the number of levels in the class hierarchy on the overhead. We do this by keeping the number of sessions constant at 1000 while varying the number of levels. We consider three hierarchies: one-level, two-level with 10 internal classes, each having 100 child classes, and three-level with each internal class having 10 child classes. As shown in Figure 13(b), the enqueue and dequeue times as well as the average per packet queueing overhead increase linearly with the number of levels. Again, this is expected since each additional level adds a fixed overhead for updating the virtual times in the hierarchy which, in our case, dominates the variable overhead that is logarithmic in the number of child classes at each level.

Finally, we consider the case when all sessions are continuously backlogged. The average enqueue time in this case is

 $^{^3}$ Because the bandwidth of the ON-OFF session accounts for 40 % of the total bandwidth of class A, when the ON-OFF session becomes active, the number of packets of class A that have deadlines during a time interval also increases by approximately 40 %.

 $^{^4\,\}mathrm{This}$ figure does not take into account route lookup and other system related overheads.

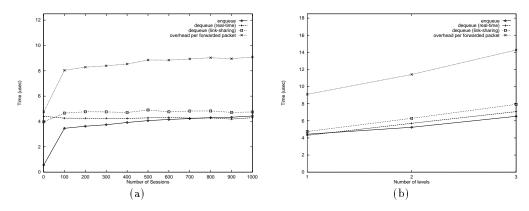


Figure 13: (a) The overheads for a flat hierarchy with 1, 100, \cdots , and 1000 sessions. (b) The overheads for a one-level, two-level, and three-level hierarchies, with each hierarchy having 1000 sessions.

very small (less than $0.3~\mu s$) as a packet arriving at a nonempty queue is just added at the end of the queue without invoking any other processing by the algorithm. However, both types of dequeue times increase accordingly. This is because whenever a packet arrives at an empty queue or a packet is dequeued, our algorithm moves the real-time requests that have become eligible from the calendar queue into the heap. Since in this experiments all sessions are backlogged, this cost is charged to the dequeue operations only. Nevertheless, the average per packet queueing overhead changes little. For the flat hierarchy with 1000 sessions, the average per packet overhead is 8.79 μs , while for the three-level hierarchy it is 11.54 μs .

We note that all these results are obtained with relatively untuned code. We expect that the overhead can be significantly reduced with proper optimizations.

7 Related Work

Class Based Queueing [6] and Hierarchical Packet Fair Queueing [1] are two algorithms that try to support both hierarchical link-sharing and real-time services.

A CBQ server consists of a link-sharing scheduler and a general scheduler. The link-sharing scheduler decides whether to regulate a class based on link-sharing rules and mark packets of regulated classes as ineligible. The general scheduler services eligible packets using a static priority policy.

The key difference between H-FSC and CBQ is that we adopt a formal approach in designing H-FSC. By presenting a formal model that precisely defines all the important goals of link-sharing, real-time, and priority services, we expose the fundamental tradeoffs between conflicting performance goals. This enables us to design an algorithm, H-FSC, that not only provides better and stronger real-time guarantees than CBQ, but also supports more accurate link-sharing service than CBQ. In addition, H-FSC offers much stronger protection among traffic classes than CBQ when priority is supported.

For real-time services, H-FSC provides per session delay bound that is decoupled from the bandwidth requirement while CBQ provides one delay bound for all real-time sessions sharing the link. In addition, the delay bound provided by CBQ accounts only for the delay incurred by the general scheduler, but not the delay potentially incurred by the link-sharing scheduler. Since a traffic stream that is

smooth at the entrance to the network may become burstier inside the network due to network load fluctuations, the link-sharing scheduler for a router inside the network may regulate the stream. With certain regulators such as those defined in [7, 18], this regulation delay does not increase the end-to-end delay bound. However, the regulating algorithm implemented by the link-sharing scheduler in CBQ is based on link-sharing rules and is quite different from the well understood regulators defined in [7, 18]. In addition, in order for the end-to-end delay bound for a session not be affected by the regulating delay, the parameters need to be consistent among all regulators for the session in the network. In CBQ, the regulation process is affected by the link-sharing structure and policy, which are independently set at each switch. Therefore, it is unclear how end-to-end delay bound will be affected by the regulation of link-sharing schedulers.

For link-sharing service, by approximating the ideal and well-defined Fair Service Curve link-sharing model, H-FSC can identify precisely and efficiently during run-time the instances when there are conflicts between requirements of the leaf classes (real-time) and interior node classes (link-sharing). Therefore, H-FSC can closely approximate the ideal link-sharing service without negatively affecting the performance of real-time sessions. With CBQ, there could be situations where the performance of real-time sessions is affected under the Formal-Link-Sharing or even the more restricting Ancestor-Only rules [6]. To avoid the effect on real-time sessions, a more restrictive Top-Level link-sharing policy is defined.

Another difference between H-FSC and CBQ is that with H-FSC, priorities for packets are dynamically assigned based on its service curves, while with CBQ, they are statically assigned based on priority classes. In CBQ, the link-sharing rule is affected only by bandwidth; once packets become eligible, they will have a static priority. This has some undesirable consequences. As an example, consider the class hierarchy in Figure 1, assume that CMU has many active video streams (priority 1) but no data traffic (priority 2), according to the link-sharing rule, CMU video traffic will become eligible at a rate of 25 Mbps. Once become eligible, they will all be served at the highest priority by the general scheduler. This will negatively affect not only the delay bound provided to U. Pitt's real-time traffic, but also the average delay of U. Pitt's data traffic, which is served by the general scheduler at a lower priority. In contrast,

H-FSC provides much stronger firewall protection between different classes. The service curve for a leaf class will be guaranteed regardless of the behavior of other classes. In addition, link-sharing among classes is also dictated by service curves. The excess service received by a class will be limited by its ancestors' service curves, which specifies both bandwidth and priority in an integrated fashion.

Like H-FSC, H-PFQ is also rooted in a formal framework. The major difference between H-PFQ and H-FSC is that H-FSC decouples the delay and bandwidth allocation, thus achieves more flexible resource management and higher resource utilization. In addition, unlike H-PFQ where a session's delay bound increases as the depth of the hierarchy, the delay bound provided by H-FSC is not affected by the depth of the hierarchy.

In this paper, we use service-curve based schedulers to achieve decoupling of delay and bandwidth allocation. In [10, 16], it has been shown that more general service curves than linear curves can be supported by GPS. However, this general resource assignment of GPS is only possible if all relevant sessions in the *entire* network be policed at the source. Therefore, sources will not be able to opportunistically utilize the excess bandwidth by sending more traffic than reserved. It is unclear whether link-sharing can be supported in such a network. With H-FSC, the scheduler guarantees a minimum service curve to a session regardless of the behaviors of other sessions in the network. In addition, it does not require that the session's input traffic to be policed at the network entrance, thus allows sources to statistically share the excess bandwidth inside the network. Furthermore, even for real-time services that do not allow link-sharing, servicecurve based schedulers will achieve a larger schedulability region than GPS with general resource assignments.

8 Conclusion

We make two important contributions. First we define an ideal Fair Service Curve link-sharing model that supports (a) guaranteed QoS for all sessions and classes in a linksharing hierarchy; (b) fair distribution of excess bandwidth; and (c) priority service or decoupled delay and bandwidth allocation. By defining precisely the ideal service to be supported, we expose the fundamental architecture level tradeoffs that apply to any schedulers designed to support linksharing, real-time, and priority services. As a second contribution, we propose a novel scheduler called H-FSC that can accurately and efficiently approximate the ideal Fair Service Curve link-sharing model. The algorithm always guarantees the performance for leaf classes while minimizing the discrepancy between the actual services provided to the interior classes and the services defined by the ideal model. We have implemented the H-FSC scheduler in the NetBSD environment, and demonstrated the effectiveness of our algorithm by simulation and measurement experiments.

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