Bufferfloat Mitigation for Real-time Video Streaming using Adaptive Controlled Delay Mechanism

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ABSTRACT

Bufferbloat is an abnormal phenomenon in current Internet experience where large buffers cause high end-to-end latency and jitter, as well as throughput degradation. The universally applied thumb rule is used to allocate buffers at the nodes, based on the assumption that large size buffers reduce packet loss. Window scaling mechanism of TCP tends to fill up these buffers causing latency in the network. CoDel has been designed to overcome bufferbloat. The drawback in CoDel is that, the uniform target values does not support real-time video streaming. Adaptive CoDel proposed in this paper tends to mitigate bufferbloat and improve the QoS parameters of real-time video stream.

General Terms:

Communication Networks, Adaptive Control

Keywords:

Bufferbloat, CoDel, Real-time Video, Adaptive CoDel

1. INTRODUCTION

The rapid growth of the Internet and the proliferation of new applications pose a serious challenge in network performance management and monitoring. TCP has a number of performance issues in this relatively new environment, including extremely long delays and sub-optimal throughput in certain scenarios [1]. Bufferbloat is an abnormal phenomenon in current Internet experience where large buffers cause high end-to-end latency and jitter, as well as throughput degradation [2]. Bufferbloat in cellular networks nullifies loss-based congestion control and allows excessive growth of the TCP congestion window, resulting in extremely long delays and throughput degradation. Surprisingly, the performance of TCP over cellular networks has been underexplored due to the closed nature of cellular networks [1], though 90% of the total traffic is handled by TCP [3]. Long delays and throughput degradation observed in previous studies [4, 5, 6] makes the existing Internet setup unsuitable for streaming realtime video. To support such applications, end-to-end control that adapts to the changing dynamics of the network has to be deployed. This ensures delivery of video of acceptable quality to users, in terms of packet loss, end-to-end delay and jitter. Improper buffer sizing has been identified as one of the most critical reasons behind the performance degradation [1].

2. BUFFER MODELS IN THE INTERNET

The purpose of buffers is to absorb bursts of traffic, which often occur in a network. TCP has been designed to fill up all the buffers on the path. High speed variants of TCP were originally designed for efficient increasing the throughput capacity in large Bandwidth Delay Product (BDP)networks. But in bufferbloated cellular networks, they only make the problem worse by constant overshooting. Therefore, the bufferbloat problem adds a new dimension in the design of a new efficient TCP, especially for cellular networks. In bufferbloated cellular networks, the motive to attain nearly zero packet loss rate combined with the aggressive nature of high speed TCP variants result in severe congestion window overshooting [1]. An insight into the existing buffer design would throw light on the abnormal behavior of the Internet.

2.1 Universally Applied Rule of the Thumb

This was derived based on Villamizar and Songs experiments and is applicable for a single long-lived TCP flow going through the bottleneck link. The rule is defined by the following expression

$$BufferSize = RTT \times C \tag{1}$$

where RTT is the Roundtrip Time and C is the Channel capacity of the bottle-neck link [7]. This BDP value is applied in design of networks even till date. It holds good if the links are synchronized and supports a single flow. A typical backbone node supports more than 20,000 flows and the arrival pattern follows Poisson distribution.

2.2 Small Buffer Model

Appenzeller et al. proposed this model by applying Central Limit theorem to narrow down the width of the Gaussian fluctuation. This reduces the buffer size by a factor \sqrt{N} when there are N long-lived TCP flows sharing the link

$$BufferSize = \frac{RTT \times C}{\sqrt{N}} \tag{2}$$

For a 50Mbps link with 200 TCP flows and 60 ms RTT the buffer size was 1500 packets according to the rule of the thumb and 100 packets as per small buffers rule [8].

2.3 Tiny Buffer Model

This model suggests a buffer size of just 20 -50 packets. This rule assumes that throughput and link utilization could be sacrificed by 10-15% This was basically designed for optical routers, where link is not a bottleneck but buffer is the bottle neck [9]. All the generic models discussed above have been designed considering only data traffic which was dominant in the networks of second generation. 3G and 4G networks add some interesting challenges of its own, with its quickly varying link speeds and complexities added by packet aggregation. Large buffers in wireless networks are essential for the link layer in which packets experiencing channel errors are buffered. However, since the side-effects to TCP brought by over-buffering has not been well understood, the problem still prevails in todays cellular networks. Haiqing Jiang and team from North Carolina State University performed real-world tests to study the presence and effects of bufferbloat in networks. The results revealed abnormal behavior of TCP in bufferbloated cellular networks, leading to a number of performance issues including long delays and suboptimal throughput. In applications where fat TCP was observed, the buffer size was set using the BDP value [2]. In flat TCP, the parameter tcp_rmem_max plays a crucial role in suppressing packet loss and obtaining a flattened throughput. In small BDP networks, fat\ flat TCP develop unnecessarily long end-toend latency due to excessive queuing. Flat TCP will suffer from significant throughput degradation in large BDP links. Figure 1 shows the presence of very large buffers in real-time networks in a study conducted by Kathleen Nichols and Van Jacobson



Fig. 1. Result of study by Kathleen Nichols and Van Jacobson depicitng Bufferbloat in the Internet.

3. EXISTING SOLUTIONS TO MITIGATE BUFFERBLOAT

Bufferbloat problem is defined as buffering of packets causing high latency and jitter, which ultimately leads to reduction in network throughput. With memory cheap, every manufacturer assumes that the best thing to do is make buffers as large as possible. Furthermore, the misguided desire to avoid packet loss has led to larger buffers being deployed in the hosts, routers, and switches. To wave a wand and eliminate bufferbloat overnight is not possible as it has been spread throughout the Internet.

3.1 Active Queue Management

The first solution offered was Active queue management (AQM), which attempts to keep the queues at the bottleneck from growing too large by monitoring the growth of the packet queue. If the queue grows beyond the permitted limit it signals the senders TCP to slow down by dropping or marking packets. Various approaches have been taken to monitoring the packet queue and making the drop or mark decision. One flavor of AQM is the RED manifesto which is based on the fact that, packet loss is not a problem in TCP but is an essential mechanism for functioning in the face of congestion. RED determines that the queue length is getting long, and then randomly selects packets within the queue for discard. This technique does not support streaming of real-time video. Another disadvantage is that AQM has to be configured in routers. This requires implementation of a patch in all the nodes in the Internet. In practice AQM is not widely configured or enabled in routers and it is completely unavailable in many devices.

3.2 Dynamic Right-Sizing (DRS)

The fundamental goal of DRS is to allocate just enough buffer so that the throughput of the TCP connection is never limited by the receive window size but only constrained by network congestion. DRS dynamically adjusts the receive buffer size to suit the connections demand. For each RTT, the receiver estimates the senders congestion window and then advertises a receive window which is twice the size of the estimated congestion window [10]. While flow control is preserved by DRS, most of the time, the receive window and the receive buffer size undergoes dynamic adjustments. However, this dynamic adjustment is unidirectional: DRS increases the receive window size only when it might potentially limit the congestion window growth but never decreases it. Further studies revealed that DRS , is a suboptimal ad-hoc solution to mitigate bufferbloat. It merely mitigates bufferbloat problem only in some scenarios

3.3 Dynamic Receive Window Adjustment (DRWA)

Dynamic receive window adjustment (DRWA) algorithm tends to improve TCP performance over bufferbloated cellular networks. The aim of DRWA is to adaptively set the receive window to a proper size in different environment. DRWA is built on top of DRS. Instead of a unidirectional adjustment where the advertised window is non-decreasing, we need a bidirectional adjustment algorithm to rein TCP in the buffer-bloated cellular networks but at the same time to ensure full utilization of the link. To accomplish that, DRWA needs to keep the queue size within a proper range dynamically. According to real-world tests performed, DRWA reduces the delay by 25 to 49% in general cases and increase TCP throughput by up to 51% in some specific scenarios. Since DRWA requires modification at the client side (e.g., smart phones) only and is fully compatible with existing TCP protocol and is immediately deployable.

3.4 The Controlled Delay (CoDel) mechanism

The CoDel mechanism proposed by Kathleen Nichols and Van Jacobson, is designed to provide a no-knobs approach to queue management to overcome bufferbloat [11]. They emphasize that bufferbloat occurs mostly in edge routers and defeats the built-in TCP congestion avoidance mechanism, which relies on dropped packets to find the ideal send rate for a given end-to-end link. One of the key insights in the design of CoDel is that there is only one parameter that really matters: how long it takes a packet to make its way through the queue and reach the destination. Less queuing delay is always better, but it cannot be zero. CoDel defines a maximum acceptable queuing delay, called target and a period over which this delay is measured called interval. If a packet's time in the queue exceeds the target value, then the queue is deemed to be too long. But an overly-long queue is not, in itself, a problem, if empties out at the rate at which it is built. CoDel monitors the time spent by the packets in the queue over each interval and checks if it falls below target at least once. If that does not happen, CoDel starts dropping packets [11]. Dropped packets are a signal to the sender that it needs to slow down. If the queue time remains consistently above target, CoDel will drop progressively more packets. This reduces the incoming rate of the packets and the queue lengths at reasonable values, on a CoDel-managed node. The authors have found that that a target of 5ms and an interval of 100ms work well in any setting [11]. The use of time values instead of packet or byte counts makes the algorithm function independently of the speed of the links.

3.5 Drawbacks in the existing methods

In simulation results, CoDel compares favorably to the common RED in most regards. RED requires careful tuning of parameters to work well, while CoDel works within a broad range of bandwidths without the need to change any settings. CoDel always kicks in, when standing queues exceed five milliseconds [12]. CoDel has implementation advantages over other AQMs as it does nearly all of its work at the dequeue stage (when packets are transmitted). CoDel requires adding a timestamp to each individual packet as it is received, but even if the network hardware can't do this, timing information can be directly obtained from the CPU register in modern CPUs. But assuming a uniform target value of 5 ms irrespective of the incoming and outgoing bandwidth does not work well. This also does not fare well with higher number of hops and varying RTT which is typical in video streaming.

4. ANALYSIS OF THE EXISTING INTERNET

Table 1. Extract of Netalyzr Report.

Parameter	Value
No. of Hops	21
Network Latency	270 ms
TCP connection setup latency	290 ms
Packet Loss	0.5%
Network Bandwidth: Uplink	210 Kbps
Network Bandwidth: Downlink	2.4 Mbps
Network Buffer: Uplink	969 ms
Network Buffer: Downlink	150 ms

To simulate a realistic environment, an existing BSNL broadband connection was analysed using Netalyzr. Extract of report of BSNL Broadband Network obtained using Netalyzr is shown in table 1.

Figure 2 shows the variation of Delay and Buffer Size with varying bandwidth as predicted by Netalysr in a BSNL Broadband connection. For low values of bandwidth, the delay is very high. This confirms bufferbloat in the network. The high value of delay predicted by Netalyzr makes the network unsuitable for realtime applications. One day International Cricket match between



Fig. 2. Delay and Buffer Size measured in BSNL broadband Service using Netalysr

India and Pakistan on 30th December 2012 was live streamed

to observe the effect of the network on real-time video streaming. Figure 3 shows the data rate spread over a period of 1000 seconds while streaming the cricket match.



Fig. 3. Real-time Video Profile captured by Wireshark

Traceroute results showed 18 hops between the client and the server with Packet loss of 5%. Typically more than 5% lost packets will annoy users [13]. It was observed that delay distribution has a gamma-like shape with heavy tail. The received packets were analysed using wireshark and showed an average delay of 332 ms.



Fig. 4. Packet Delay traced during live streaming of cricket match

Figure 4 shows the delay spread over a period of 1000 ms during the capture. This delay averages out to 18.4 ms across each link. Hence the target value of 5 ms set in Codel would miserable fail and reduce throughput in this network.



Fig. 5. RTT and delay components across each hop

Figure 5 shows the bottlenecks along the path identified using traceroute . As per most designs, bottleneck does not occur at a single point, but there are multiple points where the delay is excessive. This cumulative delay represents the RTT. Therefore designing the buffer at the source, destination or a bottle neck link will not support the QoS essential for streaming real-time video. Hence end-to-end buffer design is the only option

5. MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF BUFFER DESIGN

The buffer sizing problem is a stochastic, non-liner problem with an integer decision vector. It is a hard combinatorial optimization problem, which is made more difficult by the fact that it is not obtainable in a closed form to interrelate diagonally opposite metrics like throughput, delay, link utilization and packet loss. General Formulation is as follows:

$$ExtremizeZ = \{f_1(\bar{x}), f_2(\bar{x}), f_3(\bar{x}), f_4(\bar{x}), f_5(\bar{x}), f_6(\bar{x}), f_7(\bar{x}), f_8(\bar{x})\}$$
(3)

Where

- $f_1(\bar{x})$ is the average throughput
- $f_2(\bar{x})$ is the end-to-end delay
- $f_3(\bar{x})$ is the average packet loss
- $f_4(\bar{x})$ is the average link utilization
- $f_5(\bar{x})$ is the buffer size in core routers
- $f_6(\bar{x})$ is the buffer size in edge routers
- $f_7(\bar{x})$ is the buffer size at the sender
- $f_8(\bar{x})$ is the buffer size at the receiver

Of these $f_5(\bar{x})$ to $f_8(\bar{x})$, are integer values which are interconnected, fixed and are to be determined. Hence other forms in which the problem can be formulated are

P1:
$$\max(\theta) = f_1(\bar{x}), if \sum_i x_i \ge \mu$$

Where θ is the average throughput, x_i is the buffer in device *i* and μ is the link capacity.

Throughput can be analysed using queuing theory where packet rate is denoted by λ and throughput or departure rate is given by θ . Maximum throughput is equal to link capacity at the output. Hence the desired equation is $\max(\theta) = \mu$. Average link utilization is given by

$$\frac{AverageThroughput}{LinkCapacity} \times 100\%$$
(4)

In a point-to-point link or point-to-multipoint link, with only one server transmitting, maximum throughput is obtained and channel utilization of almost 100% can be achieved, except for the small interframe gap. For example in the Ethernet the maximum frame size is 1526 bytes. An interframe gap of 12 bytes is inserted after every frame. Hence maximum channel utilization is 99.22%. This implies that in a 100 Mbps link the maximum throughput which can be achieved is 99.2 Mbps inclusive of data link layer overhead. Maximum achievable throughput exclusive of data link layer overhead is 97.5Mbps. This in addition to other analog limitations, physical characteristics of the links, interference and hardware limitations reduce the overall throughput.

P2: In this form the problem is to determine how to allocate buffers in a connection with n hops which require n + 2 buffers

$$\min(\sum_{i} x_i) s.t.\theta > \acute{\Theta}$$

where $\dot{\Theta}$ is the feasible or achievable throughput. A minimum buffer size is desired to reduce end-to-end delay, but this decreases the throughput and increases the packet loss. The difficulty in the above optimization problem is that there is no explicit expression for average throughput and average data in the queue in terms of buffer space. These values are usually obtained from steady state distribution of packets in the buffers. Thus due to lack of differential functions that are assumed in optimization problems the approach used is an heuristic one.

The optimization methods used in general to find a solution for optimal buffer size are Enumeration Method, Search methods such as Simultaneous search methods with multiple variables and Analytical Method. Closed loop solutions for buffer design have also been studied. All these methods are capable of addressing the combinational nature of buffer sizing problem but cannot be applied for a larger line and hence fail to provide a global optimum buffer size. As a result these methods cannot be applied to the Internet which spans the entire globe.

6. ADAPTIVE CONTROLLED DELAY MECHANISM (ADAPTIVE CODEL)

The fact that buffer sizing has to vary with the bandwidth supported by the outgoing link is the basis of this mechanism. It does not tend to vary the size of the buffer, but varies the queuing delay each packet experiences in the buffer. Adaptive CoDel redefines the target and interval to suit the current network parameters. These values are based on the value of RTT, which varies with each segment.

6.1 Setting-up of Initial Values

As per economical design of buffer, capacity of buffer at any time should be sufficient to hold the number of packets required for immediate consumption by the application. For example, in an application where every tenth packet is counted or if only the tenth packet has the required information, it is sufficient to design a buffer with a capacity to hold 10 packets [14]. For H.264 encoded video stream this value is equal to one GoP. Hybrid Transport Layer protocol approach is used to stream the realtime video. I frames are transmitted using TCP while the less priority Band P frames are transmitted using UDP [15]. The following initial values are set:

$$WindowSize = 1GoP$$
 (5)

$$InitialDelay = \frac{2 \times 1GoP}{B_{WeakestLink}}$$
(6)

1 GoP is the size of the total frames constituting one GoP of the encoded video stream and $B_{WeakestLink}$ is the Bandwidth of the weakest link along the path. The initial delay is approximated to the time taken for 1 GoP to arrive at the receiver and acknowledgement to reach the sender provided the bandwidth of the weakest link is greater than or equal to the playback speed of video.

6.2 RTT Estimation

One method of estimating RTT for calculations is to find the average of all the RTTs for those segments which have been acknowledged. This is implemented in estimating the timeout period for the retransmission timer.

$$ARTT(K+1) = \frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{i=1}^{K+1} RTT(i)$$
(7)

This expression can be rewritten as

$$ARTT(K+1) = \frac{K}{K+1}ARTT(K) + \frac{1}{K+1}RTT(K+1)$$
(8)

Where RTT(i) is the roundtrip time observed for the i^{th} transmitted segment and ARTT(K) is the average round trip time for the first K segments. Equation 8 simplifies the calculation involved by avoiding the entire summation each time and gives equal weightage to each instance of RTT. For long time transmissions early values of RTT might not reflect the exact picture

of the current network environment. Greater weightage to more recent instances is likely to reflect the future behavior much better. RFC 793 suggests predicting the next value on the basis of a time series of the past values using exponential averaging. The expression for Smoothed RTT according to RFC 793 is given by equation 9.

$$SRTT(K+1) = \alpha \times SRTT(K) + (1-\alpha) \times rtt(K+1)$$
(9)

Where $0 < \alpha < 1$. The advantage of using a small value of α is that the average will quickly reflect any rapid changes.

6.3 Estimation of target and interval

Based on the observations made from BSNL broadband network and Reliance leased line network, if the buffer size is proportional to the bandwidth of the outgoing link, an optimization can be achieved between delay and packet loss. Challenge lies in determining the proportionality constant. Based on trials the value of target is given by the following expression.

$$Period = SRTT \tag{10}$$

$$Target = SRTT \frac{BW_{out}}{\sum BW}$$
(11)

Where, SRTT is the smoothened RTT, BW_{out} is the Bandwidth of the outgoing link and $\sum BW$ is the sum of all the bandwidths in the path.

7. SIMULATION OF ADAPTIVE CODEL USING OPNET MODELER

The network used in real time to download real-time video was replicated using Opnet Modeler. SITL module of Opnet was used to import H.264 encoded real time video. Commonly-used high definition video with resolution of 1280×720 pixels, bit depth of 24, frame rate of 30 fps and Gop of size 10 was used for simulation. Clients consisted of 120 wired nodes and an equal number of WiMax clients. The queuing delay in the intermediate nodes was varied as per equation 9. The weakest link was at the edge router and measured 2.4 Mbps. The video was streamed using hybrid transport layer protocol approach, wherein the I frames were transmitted using TCP and the B and P frames were transmitted using UDP. The average stream rate of TCP was 428 Kbps and UDP was 1849 Kbps. Initial delay observed was 144 ms. Figure 5 shows the throughput of TCP and UDP stream at the receiver.



Fig. 6. Throughput at the Receiver end

SRTT was estimated for an interval of 144 ms using a recursive loop. The average end to end delay observed in the wired nodes was 74.86 ms. As predicted the wireless network suffered an average delay of 128.34 ms. The delay observed in the WiMax node, wired client and jitter are shown in figure 7.



Fig. 7. Delay and Jitter Measurements

The average delay experienced in each node for a playout time of 102 minutes is shown in figure 8. The maximum delay of 6.889 ms was observed in node 7. This value of delay gives the direct measure of the buffer in each node or the target value



Hybrid transport layer protocol approach was used to stream the video. In this approach UDP is used to transmit the B and P frames. UDP is a best effort delivery service and drops packet when congestion is encountered in a node. Figure 9 shows the packet loss when Adaptive CoDel was used. Packet loss of 0.27% was observed. Hence the quality of video at the receiving end is excellent.



Fig. 9. Packet loss

8. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we thoroughly investigated TCPs behavior and performance over the Internet. We divulge the fact that excessive buffers are available in existing networks. This does not support real-time video leading to a poor user experience. CoDel supports data transmission and is suitable for networks with less number of hops. Built on top of our observations, an adaptive Control Delay mechanism is proposed. The real network observed was simulated using Opnet Modeler. Results proved that adaptive CoDel was more suitable for transmitting real-time video.

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