AN EFFECTIVE QUEUING MODEL BASED BANDWIDTH ALLOCATION SCHEME FOR FAIR QOS PROVISIONING IN LTE SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we propose a novel bandwidth allocation scheme that will guarantee quality-of-service (QoS) support in the downlink (DL) of a LTE-A system. The proposed scheme is developed based on a queuing model that links important performance metrics of DL service flows of LTE-A systems to a set of tunable parameters. Based on the outcome of the results of the queuing model, the performance metrics are set. The bandwidth allocation scheme then uses the pre-determined performance parameters in making the scheduling decisions. In order to achieve the best results from the proposed scheme, the scheme is integrated with the slot allocation process that is carried out in the physical layer. LTE-A systems uses orthogonal frequency-division multiple access (OFDMA) slot allocation mechanism that adapts to channel conditions at the destination mobile stations (MSs). The proposed scheme performs better than the conventional approach in terms of system throughput, delay and packet dropping ratio, thereby, improving the QoS of the overall system. Further the proposed system is simple in design and its cross-layer approach guarantees improved resource utilization especially in the presence of link adaptations and channel fading. Simulation results have demonstrated that the proposed scheme provides better QoS support for both real-time and non-real-time applications in LTE-A systems.

Keywords: LTE-A, OFDMA, Queuing Model, QoS, Cross Layer Approach.

1. INTRODUCTION

Universal Mobile Telecommunications System (UMTS) Long Term Evolution Release 8 provides high peak data rates of 300 Mb/s on the downlink and 75 Mb/s on the uplink for a 20 MHz bandwidth, and allows flexible bandwidth operation of up to 20 MHz [1]. Currently, enhancements are being studied to provide substantial improvements to LTE Release 8, allowing it to meet or exceed International Mobile Telecommunications-Advanced (IMT-A) requirements [1]. These enhancements are being considered as part of LTE-Advanced (LTE-A, also known as LTE Release 10), which includes carrier aggregation, advanced uplink (UL) and downlink (DL) spatial multiplexing, DL coordinated multipoint (CoMP) transmission [1], [2], [3].

With the growing demand of bandwidth LTE will act as a potential solution to meet the bandwidth demands of the future. From its onset, the LTE standard comes with a QoS support framework. This is particularly important for LTE systems, as they are expected to support a wide range of multimedia applications, such as voice over IP (VoIP), streaming video, and network gaming, that require certain levels of QoS for their smooth operation. In addition, LTE service providers would also like to offer different levels of QoS support to their clients according to their subscriptions. With LTE, the basic QoS framework remains intact, but new resource allocation issues have emerged with OFDMA at the air interface and for the need to support QoS in the presence of user mobility [4],[5]. One important factor that affects the performance of the LTE system or for that matter performance of any Broadband Wireless Access System is the bandwidth allocation mechanisms.

Conventional bandwidth allocation mechanisms are generally based on service
priority. The algorithm mentioned in [6] considers multiple service classes of multimedia traffic and their diverse QoS requirements. It contains two parts, a dynamic priority adjustment scheme and a priority-based greedy (PBG) algorithm. The dynamic priority adjustment scheme gives high priority to urgent users and dynamically adjusts the value frame by frame based on users' QoS requirement and queue occupancy [6]. An efficient resource allocation algorithm at physical (PHY) layer, which jointly adapt subcarrier allocation, power distribution and bit loading according to instantaneous channel conditions, is proposed in [7]. The scheduler and the resource allocator are tightly coupled together. A joint transmit scheduling and dynamic sub-carrier and power allocation method is proposed to exploit multi-user diversity in downlink packet transmission in an OFDM wireless network with mixed real-time and non-real-time traffic patterns is proposed in [8]. To balance efficiency and fairness and to satisfy the QoS requirements of real-time users, the algorithm utilizes a utility-based framework and proposes a polynomial-time heuristic algorithm to solve the formulated optimization problem.

The conventional schemes aim to maximize the throughput by using the channel quality information. A change in modulation scheme is effected which will guarantee a specified QoS to the user. Another conventional methodology that exists in the market is based on scheme utility function which will consider the channel status information and QoS and maximize the overall system scheme utility function. [6], [7], [8].

In this paper, we focus on a resource allocation framework that consists of medium access control (MAC) layer packet scheduling and OFDMA resource allocation with the goal of QoS provisioning in LTE systems. We design the framework for DL resource allocation and partial usage of subchannel subchannelization, which is mandatory for all mobile LTE implementations; uplink (UL) resource allocation and optional band adaptive modulation and coding subchannelization are not considered in this paper. The framework is designed to deal with various types of QoS-constrained multimedia and data applications. Due to their dynamic traffic characteristics, the multimedia applications are more challenging to provide QoS. Hence, we aim to provide a framework that is primarily designed for QoS support of multimedia applications but can also be configured with ease to handle other applications. The QoS framework in LTE systems provides QoS on a per-service-flow basis [9], [10]. The signaling mechanism allows specifying traffic parameters as well as QoS requirements of individual service flows seeking admission into the system. Each admitted service flow is then assigned to a transport connection and is allocated resource inside LTE frames, which consist of a limited number of OFDMA slots. In our proposed resource allocation framework, a joint packet scheduling and OFDMA slot allocation scheme determines how many packets have to be scheduled for each backlogged connection during a frame time and how the available LTE slots need to be allocated to each connection for transmitting those scheduled packets. The objective is to meet QoS guarantees for the admitted service flows, and the constraint is the limited number of OFDMA slots that are available in the LTE frames. How many slots should be allocated in a frame to different connections also depends on the link quality of the destination and the signaling overhead involved in transmitting the allocation information. Therefore, a cross-layer adaptive resource allocation scheme is desirable and pursued.

More specifically, we propose a queuing model based Bandwidth allocation scheme that provides effective resource allocation in Long Term Evolution advanced (LTE-A) downlink systems. The bandwidth allocation scheme effectively computes the traffic model and based on the input derived from the traffic model achieves improved system throughput, reduces the delay, guarantees the QoS and achieves fairness.

Compared with existing LTE resource allocation schemes, which were briefly discussed earlier in this section, the proposed approach has several advantages. Instead of complexities involved with installing separate scheduling schemes within the same resource allocation framework for real-time and non-real-time traffic, it offers an efficient unified way to handle both types of traffics and their diverse QoS requirements. Most of the related works do not go for cross layer approach which will be more suitable for better QoS provisioning. Some researchers have proposed hierarchical designs for resource allocation [7]. In these hierarchical designs, the scheduling is done in two layers: in the first layer, scheduling is done to distribute resource among service classes, and in the second layer, individual service classes employ their own
intra-class scheduling with the resource allocated for them in the first layer of scheduling. The hierarchical solutions can significantly increase the implementation complexity of the resource allocation module.

Therefore, the existing solutions might be incompatible and inefficient for LTE-A systems. We, in contrast, design our proposed scheme by offering flexibility to service providers by allowing different probabilistic guarantees to be made for delay experienced by packets belonging to connections serving different customer classes. In addition, the cross-layer design of the resource allocation scheme ensures robustness and efficient resource utilization in the presence of user mobility and channel fading. In addition, compared with some resource allocation schemes (e.g., [6]-[8]) that mainly focus on improving the overall system performance in terms of throughput, transmit power, or fairness in OFDMA-based systems in general, our scheme is focused on meeting QoS guarantees of applications/services in LTE systems.

2. QUEUING MODEL AND ANALYSIS FOR THE PROPOSED BANDWIDTH ALLOCATION SCHEME

We first propose a queuing model that will be used in the downlink bandwidth allocation scheme. The queuing model serves a vital factor in determining the set of attributes that will be deployed in the downlink bandwidth allocation scheme. In this section, we describe the scheduling policy and its queuing model that is used to calculate these attributes for admitted service flows. It is worth mentioning that the queuing model proposed and described in this section are not directly adopted in the proposed bandwidth allocation scheme; rather the queuing model is used to determine important attributes or parameters affecting the packet schedulers operation.

At the beginning of every frame the scheduler in the BS computes the total number of packets that were not transmitted in the previous frame and decides to schedule a percentage of the excess packets that were not served in the previous frame to be accommodated in the current frame.

If the queue length of connection \( i \) at the beginning of frame \( n \) is denoted by \( q_i^{(n)} \), then the number of packets \( N_i^{(n)} \) that will be scheduled for transmission in the current frame is given by

\[
N_i^{(n)} = \begin{cases} \left[ k_i q_i^{(n)} \right] & \text{if } 0 < q_i^{(n)} \leq L \\ 0 & \text{if } q_i^{(n)} > L \end{cases}
\]

Where \( L \) is the maximum limit on the queue size in number of packets, and \( k_i (0 < k_i < 1) \) is the transmission parameter associated with connection \( i \). The governing equation governs two factors. First it ensures that it accommodates all the packets that are ready to be served in the current frame. Second, it ensures that each nonempty queue gets to transmit at least one packet during each frame so that a queue does not remain without service for an extended period of time due to low traffic intensity. The canopy function in this expression is used to convert any fractional values for the number of packets to the nearest integer.

The value of \( k_i \) for connection \( i \) is based on the type of service flow and the QoS parameters associated with the service flow. It is now important to formulate the queuing model that would relate the value of \( k_i \) with the QoS performance of connection \( i \) given its traffic arrival statistics. If there are \( m \) admitted connections that have QoS requirements to fulfill, then the model will enable us to find the values for a set of \( m \) such model parameters. Note that if a service flow does not put forward any QoS requirement, then it will be treated as BE traffic. Connections associated with BE traffic will be treated differently than those with QoS traffic and will not need association with a model parameter.

The queuing model proposed in this paper is associated with the downlink resource allocation scheme and it provides strong emphasis on maintaining the QoS of the system. For the sake of easy understating, we simply denoted the model parameter as \( k \) ignoring the connection identity that is associated with the parameter momentarily without losing the generality of the equation. We assume that the packet arrival process of any service flow associated with the connection and assign the value \( "k" \) to it. The main objective of the queuing model is to map the mobility of the downlink queue to a “Finite State Discrete Time Markov Chain (FSDTMC)” and then solve the chain to compute the various performance metrics. The output of the queuing model will be performance metrics which will have values as a function “\( k \)” [11], [12].

We will now model the packet arrival process to the DL queue by a Markov-modulated Poisson process (MMPP), where the rate of arrivals varies
depending on the current state of a finite-state Markov chain. The model is preferred by researchers for its high versatility in qualitative behavior. It allows to capture network traffic sources that are bursty in nature. A Markov Modulated Process (MMP) employs an auxiliary Markov process, in which the current state of the Markov process controls the probability distribution of the traffic. MMPP is a variation of a Markov modulated process, where the auxiliary process used is a Poisson distributed process. In other words, MMPP is a doubly stochastic process where the intensity of a Poisson process is defined by the state of a MC. The MC can be visualized to modulate the Poisson process. The MMPP is also identified as a special case of the Markovian Arrival Process (MAP) [13], [14], [15].

MMPPs are classified by the number of states present in the modulating MC. An MC with two states and two different intensities is referred as MMPP-2. It is also called sometimes as a Switched Poisson Process (SPP). An interesting feature to observe in this case, is that when the two intensities are equal, then the model transforms to a typical Poisson process. IPP is a special case of an MMPP, where either of the intensity is zero. Another important aspect of MMPP is that a superposition of MMPPs is also a MMPP. An MMPP with M + 1 number of states can be obtained by superposition of M identical and independent IPP sources [14].

However, in this paper, we limit our analysis to a discrete-time, and therefore, it is convenient to choose a discrete-time equivalent of the MMPP arrival process, and hence we adopt a Finite State Discrete Time Markov Chain (FSDTMC) [16]. In general, an N-stated-MPP is described by the transition probability matrix of an N-state Markov chain and a diagonal matrix containing the arrival rates associated with the various states of the Markov chain [13], [14], [15].

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 - \sum_{j \neq i} q_{ij} & q_{i1} & \cdots & q_{in} \\
q_{1j} & 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} q_{ij} & \cdots & \cdots \\
\vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\
q_{nj} & \cdots & \cdots & 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} q_{ij}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

In the FSDTMC model the number of arrivals that can happen in a time frame is Poisson distributed. The transmission rate can however vary from frame to frame based on the state of arrival. As mentioned earlier if the number of arrival process in a particular time frame is Poisson distributed, it means that in theory the value could actually extend to infinity. Let us assume that the maximum number of packets that can arrive in time frame is M. In practice, however, it could be set to some fixed value as the number of packets arriving within a LTE frame will be limited. This is equivalent to truncating the maximum number of Poisson events occurring in one timeslot which could induce some modelling error. The value of M is therefore chosen such that the modelling error is limited to a negligible value (on the order of \(10^{-5} \sim 10^{-6}\)). The transition probability matrix that is used to minimize the modeling error is given by

\[
\pi^0 = \begin{bmatrix}
\pi_{11} & \pi_{12} & \cdots & \pi_{1M} \\
\pi_{21} & \pi_{22} & \cdots & \pi_{2M} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
\pi_{M1} & \pi_{M2} & \cdots & \pi_{MM}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Assuming that matrix \(S\) is time independent, the steady-state probability vector is estimated using Grassmann Algorithm [16].

Grassmann’s algorithm is a numerically stable variant of the Gaussian elimination procedure. The algorithm completely avoids subtraction and it is therefore less sensitive to rounding and cancellation errors caused by the subtraction of nearly equal numbers. Grassmann’s algorithm was originally introduced for the analysis of ergodic, discrete time Markov chains \(X = \{X_n, n = 0, 1, \ldots\}\) and was based on arguments from the theory of regenerative processes [17].

The transition rates of a new Markov chain, having one state less than the original one are defined. This elimination step, i.e., the computation of \(\tilde{q}_{ij}\) is achieved merely by adding non-negative quantities to originally non-negative values \(q_{ij}\). Only the diagonal elements \(\tilde{q}_{ii}\) and \(q_{ii}\) are negative.

The elimination procedure is iteratively applied to the generator matrix with entries \(q_{i,j}^{(k)}\) of stepwise reduced state spaces until an upper triangular matrix results, where \(q_{i,j}^{(k)}\) denotes the matrix entries after having applied elimination step \(k\). For the reduction process on the main diagonal is equal to -1. The elimination is followed by a substitution process.
to express the relations of the state probabilities to each other. To yield the final state probability vector the normalization condition must be applied. Grassmann’s algorithm is presented in terms of a CTMC generator matrix and the parameter matrix must initially be properly defined:

**Step 1:** \( A = \begin{cases} Q, & \text{for CTMC} \\ P-I, & \text{for DTMC} \end{cases} \)

**Step 2:** For \( i = n-1, n-2, \ldots, 1 \):

\[
q_{j}^{(n)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_{ij}^{(n-1)}
\]

**Step 3:** For \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1 \):

\[
x_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i} q_{ij}^{(n-1)}
\]

**Step 4:** For \( i = 0, 1, \ldots, n-1 \):

\[
\begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}
\]

Where \( q_{j}^{(n)} \) is the number of packets to be serviced.

\( \alpha^{(n)} \) is the state of the arrival process at the beginning of the frame.

The transition probability matrix \( P \) of the FSDTMC may be written as,

\[
P = \begin{pmatrix} p_{00} & \cdots & p_{0L} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{L0} & \cdots & p_{LL} \end{pmatrix}
\]

The transition matrix is written assuming the existence of the following equations:

1. \( \alpha \alpha = P(X_{n} = K) \)

Which indicates that an initial distribution \( \alpha = \{ \alpha_{k} \} \) exists with the associated probabilities for some random variable.

2. \( R_{ij} = P(X_{n+1} = j | X_{n} = i) \)

The transition probabilities \( R_{ij} \) provide the required probability of transitioning in the space specified from the state.

The transition matrix (4) has the block sub matrices \( \alpha_{i,j}(0 \leq k \leq L) \) indicating that the transition probabilities associated with the events.

The block sub matrices can be derived as,

\[
A_{0-1} = \begin{pmatrix} U(0), & 0 \leq l \leq M \\ 0, & M < l \leq L \end{pmatrix} \]

\[
A_{1-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{l}, & 0 \leq l \leq M + k - \lfloor kx \rfloor \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
A_{2-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{l-k}, & 1 \leq l \leq \max(M + k - \lfloor kx \rfloor, 0) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
A_{3-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{l-k}, & 1 \leq l \leq \max(M + k - \lfloor kx \rfloor, 0) \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{pmatrix}
\]

In Matrix notation, the parameter matrix \( A \) is decomposed into factors of an upper triangular matrix \( U \) and a lower triangular matrix \( L \) such that the following equations hold \( 0 = xA = xUL \).

Of course, any solution of \( 0 = xU \) is also a solution of the original equation \( 0 = xA \). Therefore there is no need to represent \( L \) explicitly. Although cancellation errors are being avoided with Grassmann’s algorithm, rounding errors can still occur, propagate, and accumulate during the composition. Therefore, applicability of the algorithm is also limited to medium size (around 500 states) Markov models.

The analysis of the Markov chain depends on three given matrices namely the initial distribution, \( \alpha \) and the transition matrix \( P \) and the finite state sample space given by,

\[
x^{(n)} = \{(x^{(n)}, \alpha^{(n)}) | 0 \leq x^{(n)} \leq L \}
\]
The number of bytes scheduled for transmission and $B_i(t)$ is the number of bytes that failed the retransmission. The probability that $P_{\text{overflow}}$ i.e., a buffer overflow may occur upon the arrival of a packet may be estimated from

$$P_{\text{overflow}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \alpha_i(t) + \alpha_{N-1}(t) \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \gamma_{N-1,j}(t) 1 \ldots \ldots \ldots (13)$$

We may temporarily ignore the delay experienced by the retransmitted packets and limit our discussion to delay experienced by only the admitted packets.

At any instant of time the number of scheduled bytes is

$$Q_i(t) = Q_i(t-1) + A_i(t)$$

The number of bytes that failed is given by

$$Q_i(t) = Q_i(t) + B_i(t)$$

The initial probability vector $P(0)$ of the admitted packets may be derived from the Markov chain and buffer status report.

$$P(0) = \begin{cases} Q_i(0) & \text{if } 0 \leq i < \min \{q, n\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \ldots \ldots \ldots (14)$$

The cumulative packet delay of 'N' packet frame may be given by

$$CPD = \sum_{m}^{N-1} \beta(m) 1 \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (15)$$

Packet loss happens when there is a buffer overflow. The packet loss rate at the queue is given as

$$R_{\text{loss}} = \sum_{m}^{N-1} P_{\text{overflow}} \beta(m) 1 \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (16)$$

However the packets that are lost in the receiving section is not accounted in the above equation. Without considering the retransmitted packets, the average system throughput $\eta$ per time frame may estimated as,

$$\eta = \lambda (1 - R_{\text{loss}}) (1 - \text{FER}) \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots (17)$$

where $\text{FER}$ is the average packet error rate.

Similar to MOS, the observations from Figure 4 indicate that the proposed scheduling scheme was able to achieve the same quality in terms of Voice Jitter as that of the CSFB and better performance than the Energy Efficient Scheduling Scheme. With the inference from all the above results its worth
mentioning that the proposed scheme was able to achieve significant results as compared to the CSFB at the same time saving significant bandwidth.

4. ALGORITHM

In this section, we explain the proposed fair bandwidth allocation scheme that is based on the above proposed queuing model. The aim of the downlink bandwidth scheduling scheme is to ensure a fair resource allocation to all the users of the network at the same time guaranteeing the QoS requirements of all the users. Care is taken to ensure that the increased system efficiency is not achieved at the cost of QoS constrained service flows. With the available number of slots that are available in a frame and the QoS requirements of the admitted packs, we aim to perform packet available in a frame and the QoS requirements of flows. With the available number of slots that are achieved at the cost of QoS constrained service requirements of all the users. Care is taken to ensure a fair resource allocation to all the users of downlink bandwidth scheduling scheme is to achieve significant results as compared to the CSFB at the same time saving significant bandwidth.

The Scheduler then determine the number of packets that are to be scheduled in the current time frame for each connection. If the connection \( S_i \) starts by selecting \( (K_i = q_{B_i}) \) packets for connection \( S_i \). Two factors are considered while making the estimation. First, the necessary overhead is added while calculating the number of slots required. Second, the transmission rate that corresponds to the selected frame. If there is enough space left in the frame, then backlog packets are added to it. The next connection in the sorted list is then considered and the preceding process is applied to choose the minimum number of packets and corresponding number of slots.

For every time frame \( t \) and service connection \( \mathcal{I}_i \) estimate the transmission parameter \( K_i \). Also estimate the packet arrival statistics, QoS requirement for connection \( \mathcal{I}_i \).

Transmission parameter \( K_i \) is:

1: \( K_i \leftarrow 0 \)
2: Repeat
3: Increment \( K_i \leftarrow K_i + \Delta \)
4: Substitute \( K_i \) in the queuing model
5: Iterate \( Q_{\text{est}} \). \( Q_{\text{est}} \) meets the QoS requirements \( Q_{\text{req}} \) of connection \( \mathcal{I}_i \)
6: Until \( Q_{\text{est}} \) meets the QoS requirements \( Q_{\text{req}} \) of connection \( \mathcal{I}_i \)
7: Estimate the scheduled bytes, failed bytes and BSR report
8: Scheduled bytes: \( Q(t) = Q(t-1) - A(t) \)
9: Failed bytes: \( Q(t) = Q(t) + B(t) \)
10: If a BSR report is received at time \( t \), there is such that \( T(n) = t \), then update queue state as follows:

If the base station has not received any BSR report created after time \( t - \delta(n) \) then

\( Q(t - \delta(n); t) = Q(t) - A(t) + \varepsilon(t - \delta(n); t) \)

Where arrival \( \varepsilon(t - \delta(n); t) = A(t) - Q(t) - \delta(n) \)
Otherwise for argmin
\[ \{ T_{s}(m) - E_{s}(m) - T_{r}(m) - E_{r}(m) \}^{2} \]
can have negative entries. Schedule packets, allocate slots for the current time frame.

11: \( N_{DL} \) := number of slots in the downlink frame.
12: \( m \) := estimate the number of slots for downlink QoS connections.
13: for \( i \leftarrow 1 \) to \( m \) do
14: Initialize the slots allocated for each QoS connection to \( \mathcal{U} \)
15: \( S_{DL1}, \ldots, S_{DLm} \) := slot identifier
16: \( B_{DL} \) := number of bytes allotted for each slot
17: \( C_{DL} \leftarrow B_{DL} \) := number of backlog bytes at each connection \( S_{DL} \)
18: end for
19: Sort the QoS connections based on the values of \( C_{DL} \)
20: Allocate the slots to the connection
21: Repeat
22: \( \mathcal{U} \) := list of scheduled connections
23: for \( i \leftarrow 1 \) to \( m \) do
24: Number of packets selected based on queue length and transmission parameter \( \mathcal{P} \leftarrow \{ K_{DL}, \alpha_{DL} \} \)
25: \( b \) := number of bytes in top \( \mathcal{U} \) packets in the queue \( \mathcal{U} \)
26: Estimate the number of slots necessary to transmit \( \mathcal{U} \) packets over connection \( S_{DL} \)
27: if \( S_{DL} \notin \mathcal{U} \) then
28: end if
29: If \( N_{DL} \leq \alpha \) then
30: \( N_{DL} \leftarrow N_{DL} - \alpha \)
31: if \( S_{DL} \notin \mathcal{U} \) then
32: \( \mathcal{U} \leftarrow \mathcal{U} \cup \{ S_{DL} \} \)
33: end if
34: \( q_{DL} \leftarrow q_{DL} - \alpha \) := queue length updated
35: end if
36: end for
37: until \( : N_{DL} = 0 \)

5. SIMULATION RESULTS:

5.1 Simulation Scenario:
In the simulation analysis, OPNET is used for simulation and the results were exported to MATLAB Simulator. The LTE-A system is set to be compatible to the 3GPP evolved universal terrestrial radio access standard [18] with \( Q = 2, N = 25 \), and \( PT = 43 \) dBm, where the cell radius is 1 km, the carrier frequency is 2 GHz, and the system bandwidth is 5 MHz. The path loss is modeled as \( 136.82 + 39.09 \log R \) dB, where \( R \) is the distance between the eNB and the UE [19]. The multipath channel for each antenna has six taps of Rayleigh-faded paths with an exponential power delay. The log-normal shadowing has zero mean and standard deviation of 8 dB. The penetration loss was set to 20 dB. The thermal noise was chosen to be -100 dBm. SISO antenna configuration is used with the Channel Quality Index Feedback cycle estimated at every 10 ms.

5.2 Performance Evaluation
In this paper, the proposed Effective Bandwidth Admission Scheme (EBAS) is compared to the adaptive radio resource allocation (ARRA) scheme [6], the efficient resource management scheme (ERMS) [7], and the utility-based adaptive radio resource allocation (UARRA) scheme [8].

Figure 1 depicts the system throughput versus traffic load intensity for the proposed scheme with the various schemes. The proposed EBAS scheme was able to achieve an improved system throughput by 18.9 %, 37.5%, and 56% compared to the UARRA, ERMS and ARRA schemes, respectively, under heavy traffic conditions. This is because the proposed scheme intelligently assigns the bandwidth based on the proposed queuing model. Priorities are based on actual statistics rather than the fuzzy statistics that are adapted in the other schemes. Also, the EBAS scheme uses the cross layer adaptation technique wherein the sub channels are allocated based on the demand. This would ensure minimization of wastage of resources and maximization of the system throughput. This makes the EBAS scheme more effective than the other schemes.

Figures 2 illustrate the downlink packet dropping ratio versus traffic load intensity for voice and video respectively. In terms of voice it may be noted that the ARRA scheme will not be able to guarantee the delay requirement when the traffic load is maximum. However, it is worth mentioning that the other schemes are able to meet the QoS requirement even under peak load. This only
guarantees that the proposed scheme has achieved the increased system throughput not by compromising the QoS of voice.

The ARRA, ERMS and UARRA, and ERM schemes cannot guarantee the QoS requirement of packet dropping ratio for video traffic when the traffic load intensity is larger than 0.35, 0.85 respectively as illustrated in Figure [3]. However the proposed scheme is also able to maintain the QoS for video packets also. This is because the other schemes allow the downlink station to choose packets with larger delay time to be served with higher priority whenever it serves rate sensitive services. This will only result in lot of resources being wasted. However, as the proposed scheme does not provide priority to rate sensitive traffic and thus ensures delivery of packets with acceptable QoS.

The Jain Fairness Index [JFI] is defined by [20], is used a quality factor to define the QoS of non-real time applications. The ARRA scheme achieves the largest JFI, while the proposed EBAS scheme deteriorates in performance by 35 percent and 24.6 percent with respect to ARRA and ERMS schemes. This is because that the EBAS scheme takes the average transmission rate as the measure for allocation of resources. Second, there is a phenomenal increase in throughput in serving real

Figure 1: System Throughput

Figure 2: Packet Dropping ratio for Voice

Figure 3: Packet Dropping Ratio for Video

Figure 4: Voice Jitter
time multimedia applications which deprives the non-real time traffic of resources. However the proposed scheme still works better than the UARRA.

Figure 5: Fairness Index

6. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a novel bandwidth allocation scheme for DL service flows in LTE-A systems is proposed. At first, we have proposed a queuing model and we have used the parameters of the model to develop the bandwidth allocation scheme. The scheme is the coupled with the OFDMA slot allocation process to achieve best results. Simulation results have demonstrated that the proposed scheme outperforms the existing schemes for both real and non-real time applications. However, it would be interesting to study the compatibility and performance of the proposed scheme in a real time hardware LTE system.

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