

e-ISSN : 2320-0847

p-ISSN : 2320-0936



AJER

American Journal of Engineering Research

Volume-1 Issue-1



AJER

American Journal of Engineering Research

**American Journal of
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CONTENTS

Volume-1 Issue-1

S.No.	Title Name	Page No.
01.	Broadband Cable Access Networks For Triple Play Services: Source-Destination Nasser N. Khamiss	01-15
02.	Location Based Opportunistic Routing Protocol for Mobile Ad Hoc Networks Jubin Sebastian E , Sreeraj V.R, Tauheed Ul Islam	16-21

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BROADBAND CABLE ACCESS NETWORKS FOR TRIPLE PLAY SERVICES: SOURCE-DESTINATION

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ABSTRACT: This paper evaluates the performance of sending Triple play Services over hybrid networks. The network performance factors will be considered by observing the network's availability, packet loss, delay and throughput. These evaluations will be tested over different network scenario, where the last mile media services suggested to be delivered over telephone twisted pair by means of using ADSL. The attention will be concerned for services over cable, where a proposal of using bandwidth efficient turbo trellis coded modulation (TTCM) in ADSL DMT systems instead of the multidimensional 16-state Trellis Coded Modulation (MTCM) that is given as an option in Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Lines (ADSL) standard based on discrete multitone (DMT) techniques. The results show that by using turbo codes, it can obtain 6 dB coding gain for a bit error rate (BER) of 10^{-6} in AWGN channels and more than 6.8 dB coding gain for a BER of 10^{-7} using a concatenated coding scheme.

Keywords: Triple Play, ADSL2+, IPTV, VoIP, QoS, and Network Availability

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally triple play architecture consists of the Service Provider Network, the core network, the access network where end users reside and the equipments at the subscriber's home. A Triple Play solution can distribute 50 to 150 TV channels over an IP network with voice over IP and high-speed Internet. Services of video, voice, and data can be sent from the IP head-end using an IP core network over an optical backbone network to the central office (CO) [Michael 10]. The CO relies the data to the access network (AN) in which digital subscriber line access multiplexers (DSLAMs) will be proposed to home's services requirements. From the technoeconomic evaluation of telecommunications market studies, there are an addressing of a wide range usage of telecommunication networks due to major business cases [Borgar 06]. Asymmetrical Digital Subscriber Lines (ADSL), as an access technology over the existing nonloaded copper loop plant, are intended to provide up to 8 Mbps downstream digital transport from central office to customers and up to 640kbps upstream transmission [Nasser 09]. Such an asymmetric transmission has potential usage in services like advanced videotext, compressed TV quality video and distant education applications, where most of the information goes from the service providers to the customers. Forward error correcting codes (FEC) are employed in communication systems achieve coding gain to increase the system margin and the maximum achievable transmission rate [Neubauer 06]. A four dimensional version of MTCM concatenated with RS code was proposed previously for ADSL DMT systems to provide about 5 dB coding gain without bandwidth expansion [Moreira 06]. Further improvement is very difficult to obtain because of the complexity of the Viterbi decoding (VA) for the MTCM. A new powerful coding scheme, turbo coding, has the potential of providing near Shannon limit performance with reasonable complexity in AWGN channels. Therefore, applying turbo codes in ADSL DMT systems is now a challenging practical problem.

II. TRIPLE PLAY NETWORK TOPOLOGY

The major components are the backbone and aggregation networks, which consist mainly of server head end, external Internet peers, IP core, Broadband Remote Access Server (BRAS) edge, and ethernet

aggregation network, like DSLAMs, local loop, and the customer household [Michael 10], see Figure (1). The next sections will define the important components that are related to this work.

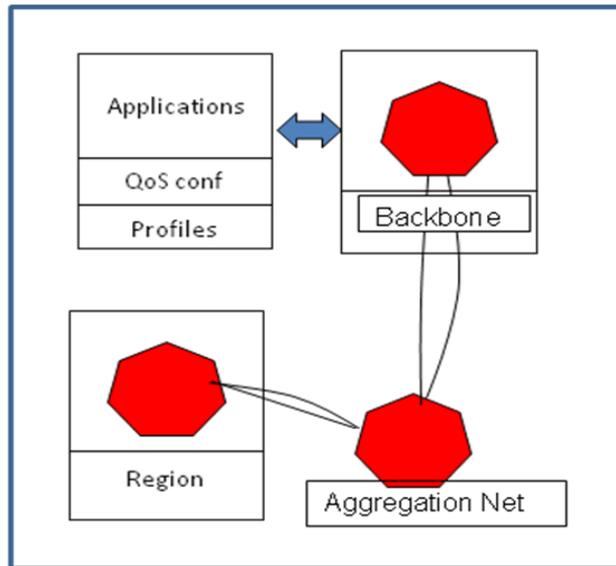


Figure 1 Network topology

2.1 Backbone Subnet:

In Figure (2) the "Backbone" subnet is designed with 4 servers configured to stream stored audio and video contents, HTTP and FTP. It contains a 100Mbps IP network and access routers for both IP Multicast traffic load (R3, RP, and R4) and IP Unicast traffic load (DSR) these routers are connected to the switches (Source and PPP) which are divided the traffic into VLANs. Then these routers are connected to the BRAS router at Aggregation subnet through a PPP_SONET_OC24 with data rate (1244.16 Mbps) wide area network (WAN) link. The approximate distance between the backbone subnet and Aggregation subnet is 5.44 km, which corresponds to approximately 1.813ms propagation delay. The multicast and unicast techniques are configured with VLAN parameter to have been efficiency triple play services. The network topology of this work will be explained in the next paragraphs.

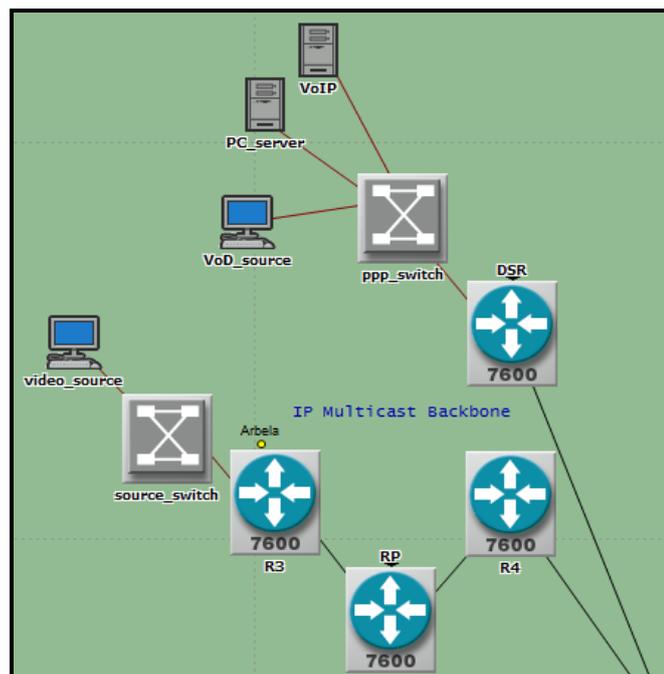


Figure 2 Backbone Subnet

Multicast technology protocols must be presented in the first IP network at the core, edge, and access layers of an IP ADSL triple-play network for supporting IPTV services. Where multicast is enabled in routers by configuring it using the attribute "IP multicast -> IP multicast parameter -> multicast routing"

2.2 Aggregation network Subnet:

The "Aggregation" subnet, that receives all traffic from backbone network by using PPP_SONET_OC24 with data rate (1244.16 Mbps), delivery it to access network at a customer side by using Metro Ethernet Network [Gallant 06]. This subnet has several components as show in Figure (3); these components are discussed next subsections.

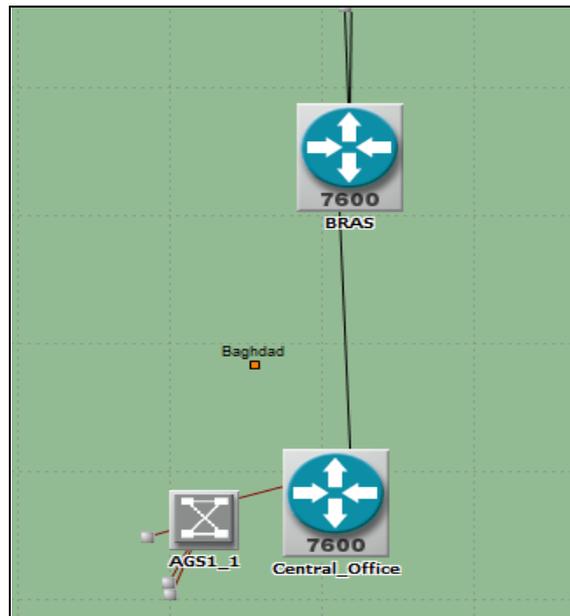


Figure 3 Aggregation_network Subnet

2.2.1 BRAS

The "BRAS" is a Broadband Remote Access Server router that forwards packets between the core and customer. It is a complex router that implements dynamic per-subscriber IP policies, Quality of Service (QoS) profiles, rate limiters, packet manipulation, address assignment, session termination and forwarding.

2.2.2 Center Offices (CO)

The CO router relies the data to the access network (AN) which consists of digital subscriber line access multiplexers (DSLAMs) and broadband digital loop carriers (DLCs). There it has the so-called last mile distribution of the service (i.e. video, voice or data) which afterwards enters the subscriber's home through the modem. Central Office router and Remote DSLAMs at the region subnet are supplied with Gigabit Ethernet links.

2.2.3 Metro Ethernet Network:

DSLAM are aggregated by Aggregation Switches also called (metro Ethernet network). A metro Ethernet network is useful when a switched layer between the DSLAM at Region subnet and the CO router in Aggregation subnet provides cost-effective aggregation capacity. Such a scenario would arise if the bandwidth utilization per-DSL-port is not enough to justify connecting DSLAMs directly to the CO. This benefit needs to be weighed against the expected traffic loads to and from DSLAMs. Also consider whether a switch can continue to offer enough statistical traffic multiplexing gains in the future. Metro Ethernet is replacing SONET links to Gigabit Ethernet links (1000Basex_adv) to flexibly and cost effectively scale the network to support increased video traffic. Another drawback to SONET in the access network is that the available feeder bandwidth has only recently upgraded to OC-3 (155 Mbps). These networks require other costly upgrades to get to OC-12 (622 Mbps), and even newly planned networks at OC-48 (2.4 Gbps) will be limited if VoD and higher speed data services achieve their expected growth. The available bandwidth divided among all of the triple-play services and video services alone so that Ethernet link 1000Basex_adv with data rate 1Gpbs in this network is used.

2.2.4 Access Network (Region Subnet)

This network shows an example for the delivery of Triple-Play services (Data, Voice and Video) over Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line (ADSL) with data rate (downstream 12Mbps/ upstream 1.3Mbps). It simulates end-to-end communications between residential customers and backbone network.

III. ADSL DMT TRANSMISSION MODEL

Figure (4) shows a typical configuration of ADSL DMT system. The proposed FEC structures of the transmitter and receiver of ADSL DMT system is shown in Figure (5) and figure (6) respectively. The input bits are first RS coded. With the bit allocation table, the transmitter then allocates the corresponding number of bits to the subchannels. The turbo encoding/decoding operates across all the subchannels, followed by the constellation mapping. TTCM is thus performed by proper combination of the turbo coding and the constellation mapping.

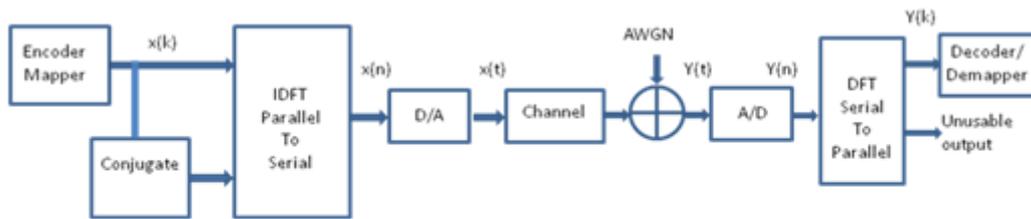


Figure 4 ADSL DMT System Configuration [Nasser 09]

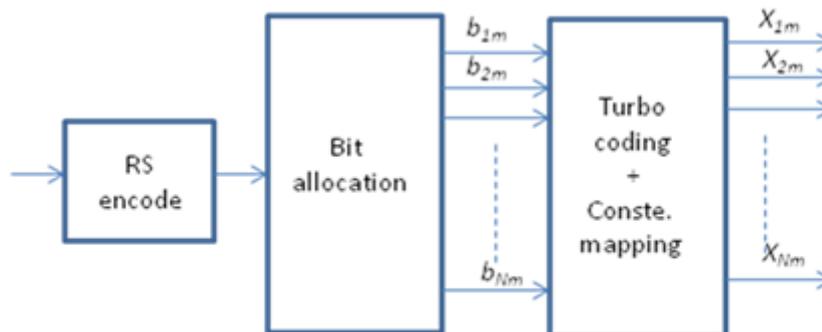


Figure 5 System encoder

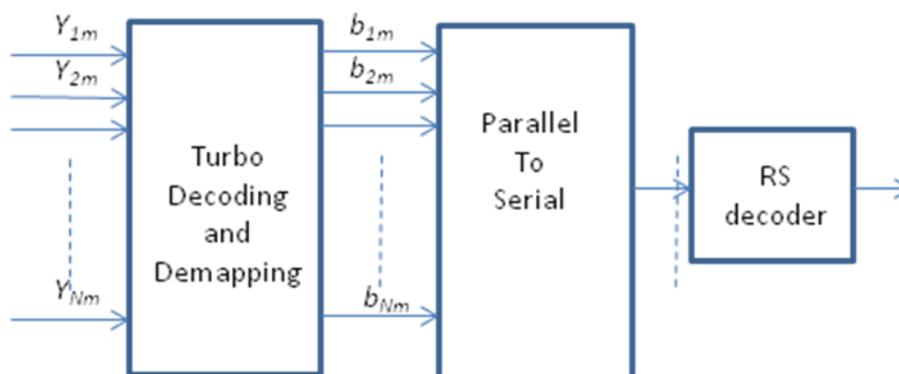


Figure 6 System decoder

3.1 Encoding Operation layer design:

In this section a method of providing forward error correction for data services uses a parallel concatenated convolutional code which is Turbo Code is used. An encoder of a parallel concatenation (PCCC) of typically two systematic is used [Moreira 06]. Which consists of recursive convolutional codes (“constituent codes”) separated by an interleaver that randomizes the order of presentation of information bits to the second constituent encoder with respect to the first constituent encoder, see Figure (7). The two encoders are identical and built based on the RSC encoder of Figure (8). The performance of a Turbo Code depends on the choice of constituent codes, interleaver, information block size (which generally increase with higher data rates), and

number of decoder iterations. For a particular Turbo Code, in which the constituent codes are fixed, one can ideally adjust the block size and number of decoder iterations to trade-off performance, latency, and implementation complexity requirements. As the block size changes, however, a new interleaver matched to that block size is required.

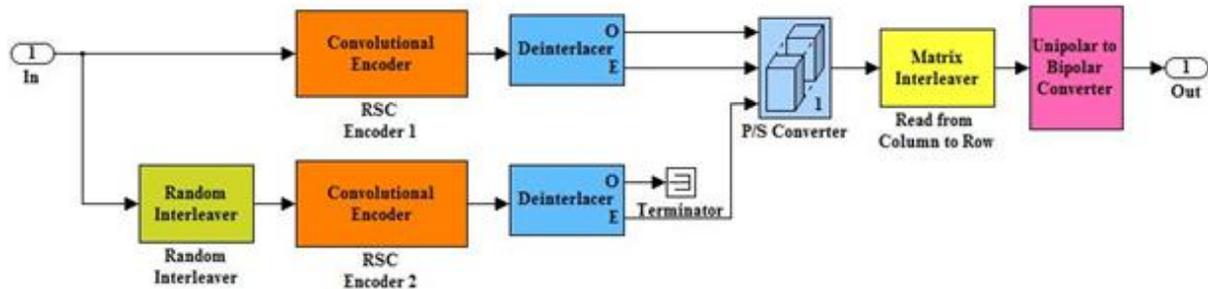


Figure 7 Turbo code encoder

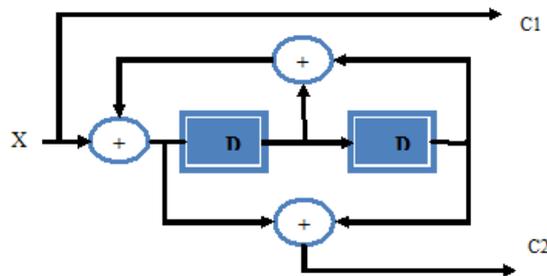


Figure 8 The RSC encoder with $r=1/2$ and $K=3$

In this work the code rate of $1/2$ and $1/3$ is considered to get the proper decision making of bandwidth efficiency and system performance. The information bits are always transmitted across the channel. Depending on the desired code rate, different code rates are achieved by puncturing the parity bit sequences from the two constituent encoders. As the code rate increases, the bandwidth efficiency will be improved and the performance is degraded since the decoder has less information to use in making a decision. Therefore, a tradeoff must be made between the code rate and the performance.

The deinterlacer block accepts the input vector that has an even number of elements and alternately places the elements in each of two output vectors. Therefore it is used to separate the systematic and the parity bit of each RSC encoder. As mentioned previously, the systematic bit of the second encoder is nothing more than a repetition code, thus a termination block is used on the odd output of the second encoder. The three streams: the systematic bits and the two parity bits are concatenated using vertical concatenation. A matrix interleaver is used to perform block interleaving by filling a matrix with the input symbols row by row and then sending the matrix contents to the output port column by column so as to avoid burst errors. The output then forwarded to the puncture block which will periodically remove bits from the encoded bit stream, thereby increasing the code rate.

3.2 Turbo Decoding

The truly unique aspect of Turbo codes is their iterative decoding process. The iterative decoding structure consists of two Soft-Input, Soft-Output (SISO) decoding modules that are separated by a pseudo-random interleaver/deinterleaver. The performance analysis of Turbo codes always assumes the usage of a Maximum Likelihood (ML) decoder at the receiver for efficient data recovery. The output of each encoder depends on the last input bit and the generator matrix, which enables the encoding process of the Turbo code to be represented by two joint Markov processes. It is possible to decode Turbo codes, first by independently estimating each process and then refining the estimates by iteratively sharing information between two decoders [Avril 07]. Since the two processes run on the same input data, it means that the output of one decoder can be used as *a priori* information by the other decoder.

It is necessary for each decoder to produce soft-bit decisions in order to take advantage of this iterative decoding scheme. The soft-bit decisions are usually in the form of Log Likelihood Ratios (LLRs). The LLR data

serves as the *a priori* information and is defined as the likelihood of the received bit being a one rather than a zero where the decision 1 is made for a positive LLR and the decision 0 is made for the negative LLR.

A decoder that accepts input in the form of *a priori* information and produces output in the form of *posteriori* information is called a Soft Input Soft Output (SISO) decoder. The inputs to the decoder are systematic data, parity data and the *a priori* data from the previous decoder and the output of the decoder is the LLR data. The generic block diagram of a SISO decoder is shown in Figure (9).



Figure 9 Block diagram of SISO decoder

3.2.1 Operation of Turbo Decoding

A block diagram of a Turbo decoder is shown in Figure (10) which consists of two component decoders – decoder #1 to decode data sequences from encoder 1 and decoder #2 to decode sequences from encoder 2.

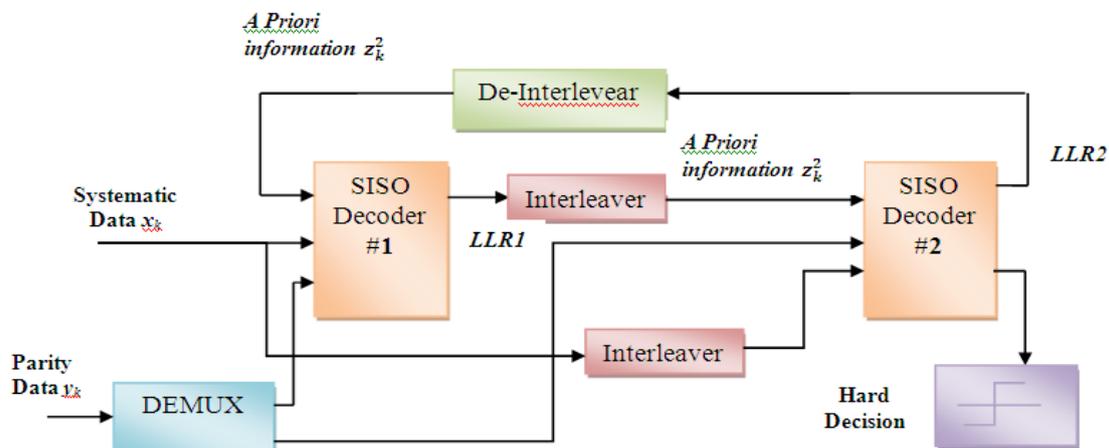


Figure 10 Turbo decoder

The first decoder operates on the systematic channel observation y_k^0 , the parity channel observation from the first RSC encoder y_k^1 and the *a priori* information z_k^1 . The *a priori* information for SISO (decoder #1) is initially set to all zeros, since the second decoder has not produced any information. This implies that each information bit is equally likely to be a 0 or a 1 initially. Both channel observations are multiplied by the channel reliability $L_c = 4aE_s/N_0$ where the variable a is the fading amplitude, E_s is the average symbol energy and N_0 is the noise Power Spectral Density (PSD). The channel reliability places more emphasis on the channel observation when the SNR is high and there is no fading. Likewise, more emphasis is placed on the *a priori* information z_k when the SNR is poor or when there is a deep fade.

The output of the SISO decoders is expressed as a Log-Likelihood Ratio (LLR) Λ_k where the decoder's output at time k can be broken down into three distinct parts: the scaled systematic channel estimate $\frac{4aE_s}{N_0} y_k^0$, the *a priori* information z_k and the extrinsic information l_k . The k^{th} LLR is expressed as:

$$\Lambda_k = \frac{4aE_s}{N_0} y_k^0 + z_k + l_k$$

The extrinsic information is the new information generated by the current stage of decoding. In Turbo decoder, the extrinsic information for the first decoder is determined by subtracting the systematic channel observation and the current stage's *a priori* information from the LLR Λ_k^1 , thereby preventing positive

feedback. The extrinsic information is then permuted by pseudo-random interleaver and used as the weighted *a priori* information for the second decoder. The second decoding module operates on the weighted *a priori* information from first decoder z_k^2 , the permuted channel observation \tilde{y}_k^0 and the parity channel observation from the second RSC encoder y_k^1 , that generate a new LLR Λ_k^2 .

The first decoder is presented with the result from the second decoder one can imagine that it might improve its performance, compared to its first decoding attempt. The two decoders iteratively exchange this extrinsic information and improve their estimates about the decoded bits. If all the decoding iterations have been completed, the final output Λ_k^2 is deinterleaved and hard-limited to produce the final decision. The iterative decoding process improves the BER performance of Turbo codes in a superior way [Neubauer 07]. As stated before, when Berrou and Glavieux achieved BER = 10^{-5} at E_s/N_0 within 0.7 dB of the Shannon limit using a rate 1/2 turbo code, they used 18 decoding iterations.

3.2.2 Parallel Concatenated Code

The receiver error handling mainly consists of two parts, which are the Receiver Front End and the Turbo Decoder block as shown in Figure(11).

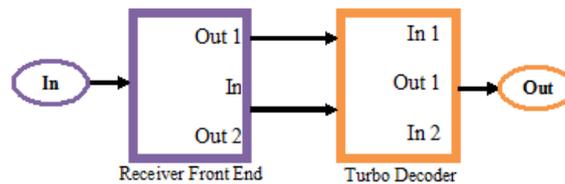


Figure 11 Turbo Decoder Main Blocks

As shown in Figure (12), the data is divided by the noise variance through the gain block, then sampled and held for a specified sample period by the zero-order hold block. After that, a matrix deinterleaver block is used which fills the input symbols into a matrix column by column and then sending the matrix contents to the output port row by row.

Two interlacer blocks are used to reconstruct the data as produced by the two de-interlacer in the transmitter side, then the output of the both interlacer is forwarded to the Turbo decoder block. Figure (13) shows the PCCC decoding process that consists of two APP decoder blocks, a random interleaver and a feedback loop. As in SCCC, these blocks form a loop and operate at a rate of six times faster than the encoding portion.

The error rate block is the same as that used in SCCC system. As shown in Figure (14), the data are sampled and held for the specified sample period by a zero-order hold block. The error rate is calculated for all iterations by comparing the received data with the transmitted data and the output is converted to six independent channel samples. Then a mean block is used to return the mean of the input elements over the time. Finally the display block shows error rates of the six iterations where the final BER is obtained from the last iteration.

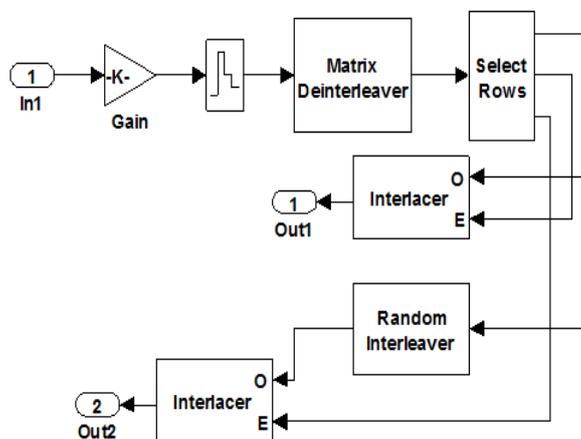


Figure 12 Receiver front end

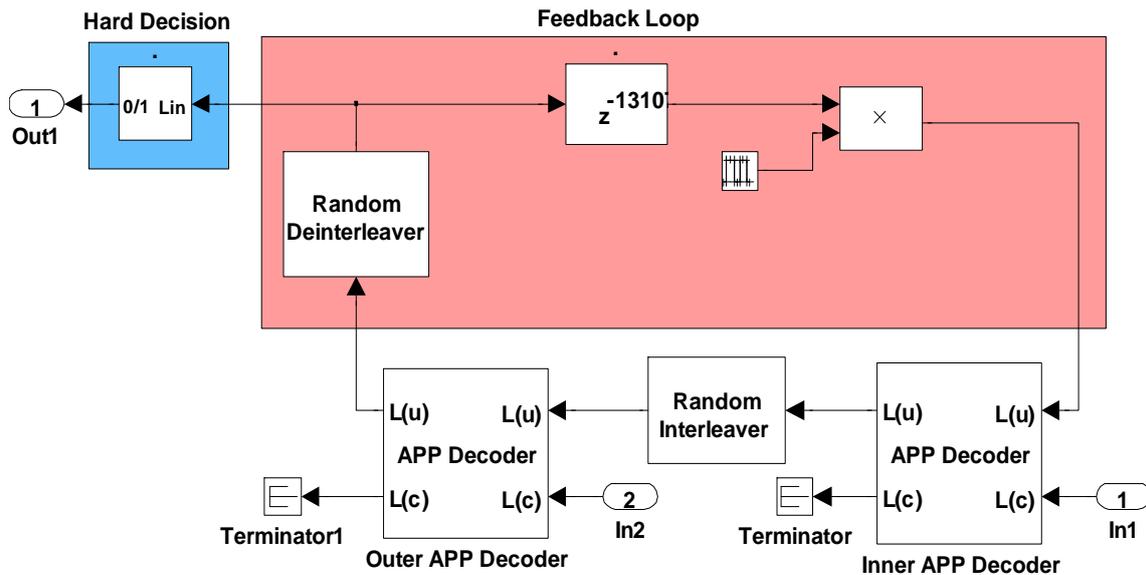


Figure 13 Turbo code decoder

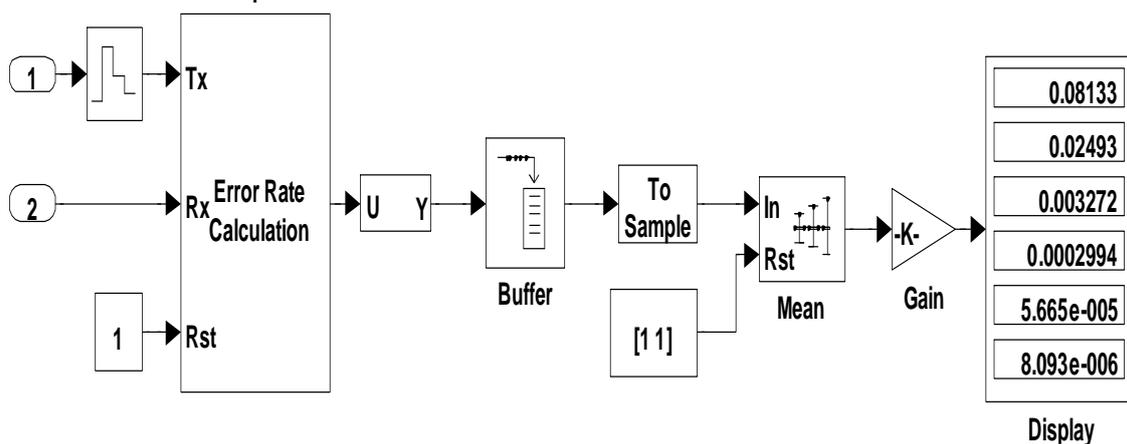


Figure 14 Multiple iterations error rate calculation

IV. SYSTEM TEST AND RESULTS

The system test will be expressed as ADSL DMT part to show the last mile network quality improvement, while the other part of the system test will give the overall system QoS that includes the evaluation of system QoS factors.

4.1 Simulation Results of using TTCM in QAM Transmission in ADSL DMT Systems

These simulations of modem apply DSL based on DMT system and turbo code. In this system four different services will be supported for a user by using modem with different code rate. The results of data bits performance are shown in Figure (15) and Figure (16) by using code rate 1/2 and 1/3 respectively. System with rate $R=1/2$ can be achieved by puncturing the parity bits of the RSC encoders. The performance of each service depends on the channel characteristics in the presence of the turbo decoder on correcting the errors. A code gain of 6 dB for system using code rate 1/3 is achieved as shown in Figure (17). This figure also shows the code gain will decrease as the number of iteration is increase. The Figures (18) and (19) show the effect of turbo coding on the data bits, where the BER performance of the system will increase as the iteration increases. As noticed the increasing in coding rate achieves better performance than that of using lowest coding rate, when using code rate 1/2 data rate reaches to 8.8 Mbps (2.4 for each service), while when code rate 1/3 is used the transmitted data rate reached to 14.8 Mbps (3.7 for each service) in this system.

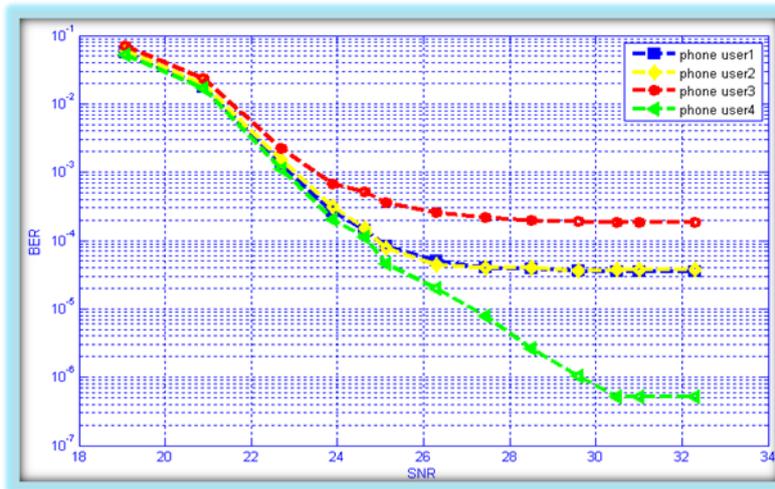


Figure (15): BER of the four service line users using turbo code rate 1/2

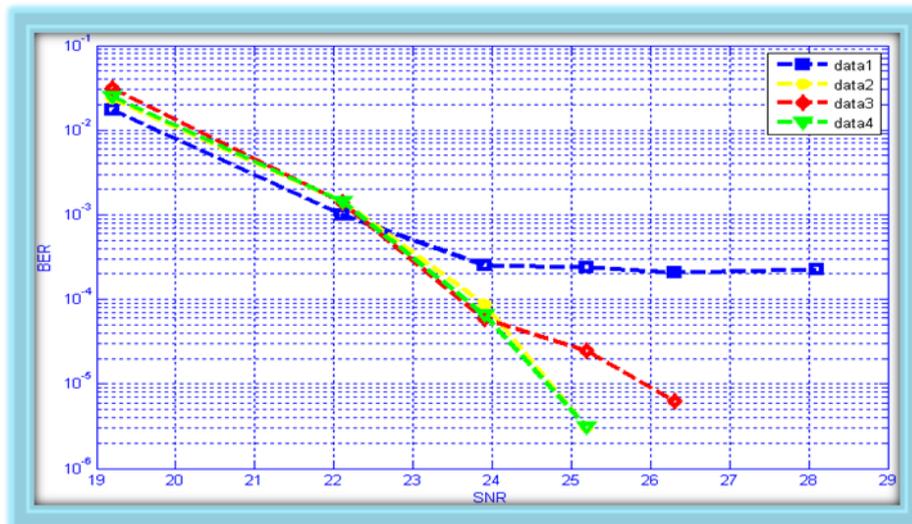


Figure (16): BER of the four service line users with code rate 1/3

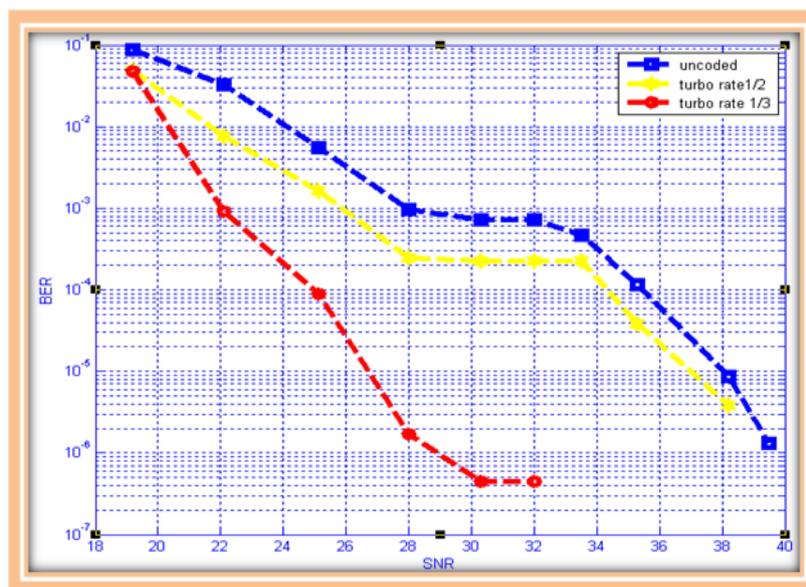


Fig (17) BER comparison of un-coded with different Turbo code rate (1/2 and 1/3)

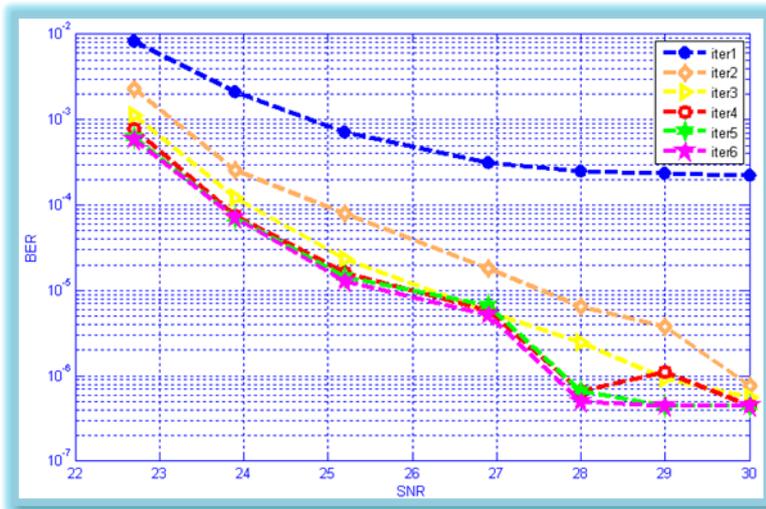
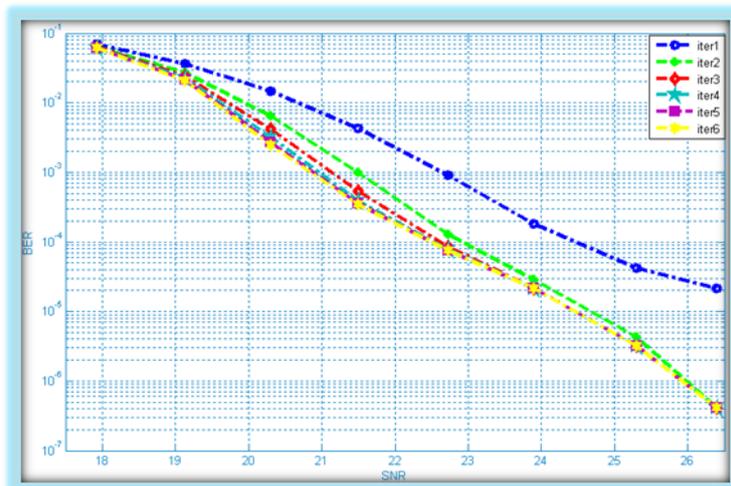


Fig (18) BER of turbo decoding process (code rate 1/2) on both data bits and phone users bits



Fig(19) BER of Turbo decoding process (code rate 1/3) on both data bits and phone users bits

4.2 Network Measurements

In this section the performance measurements factors [Kurose 10] of End to End Delay as given in Eq(1), Jitter as given in Eq(2), Packet Loss Ratio as given in Eq(3), and the Throughput as given in Eq(4) will be tested over an integrated network from the delivery source of triple play services to the destination user where the DSL is the mean media of last mile. At this test a service of VoD, IPTV, VoIP, HTTP, and FTP from source to destination will be demonstrated and measured corresponding to the above factors.

$$d_{endend} = Q(d_{proc} + d_{queue} + d_{trans} + d_{prop}) \tag{1}$$

- Q network number elements
- d_{proc} processing delay at network element
- d_{queue} queuing delay at network element
- d_{trans} transmission time of a packet over link
- d_{prop} propagation delay across network link

$$Jitter = (t4 - t3) - (t2 - t1) \tag{2}$$

- $t4 - t3$ is the expected packet reception time
- $t2 - t1$ is the actual packet reception time

Negative jitter means that the packets were received in different time range i.e $(t4 - t3) < (t2 - t1)$.

$$PLR = \frac{lost_packets}{lost_packets + received_packets} \tag{3}$$

Another variation of this metric is the media loss rate (MLR) which track packet loss over time:

$$PLR = \frac{\text{excepted_packets} - \text{received_packets}}{\text{time_unit}} \tag{4}$$

$$R_{min} = \frac{(\text{packets_size_in_bytes})(\text{number_of_packets_in_second})(8\text{bit/bytes})}{\text{second}}$$

The QoS recommendations adopted by IPTV and voices service providers, Y.1541, will be considered in the term of system test. In addition to that the FTP downloads response time, HTTP page, Buffer Overflow Percentage response time, Free-space Pathloss, and the Erceg path loss model will be also observed. An Application Parameter of the type of services of voice Application, HTTP Application, FTP Application (File sharing /downloading), IPTV application, and VoD application are given in tables (1-5) respectively [PATRICK 07].

Table1: Residential VoIP application characteristics

Encoder Scheme	Voice Frame Per Packet	DSCP Value	Compression Delay(s)	Decompression Delay(s)
G.711	1	EF	0.02	0.02

Table2: Residential HTTP application characteristics

Http Specification	Object Size(Byte)	DSCP Value
Http 1.1	Constant(1) Media Image (0.5-2) Large Image (2-10)	BE

Table3: Residential FTP application characteristics

Download	Size File (MB)	DSCP Value
100%	5	AF13

Table4: IPTV application characteristics

Frame Rate	Incoming Frame Size (Byte)	Outgoing Frame Size (Byte)	DSCP Value
15 Fps	17280	17280	AF33

Table 5: VoD application characteristics

Parameters	T2	Matrix III
Resolution	1280x720	352x288
Codec	MPEG-2	MPEG-4 Part 2
Frame Compression Ratio	58.001	47.682
Minimum Frame Size (bytes)	627	8
Maximum Frame Size (bytes)	127036	36450
Mean Frame Size (Bytes)	23833.792	3189.068
Display Pattern	IBBPBBPBBPBB	IBBPBBPBBPBB
Transmission Pattern	IPBBPBBPBBIB	IPBBPBBPBBIB
Group of Picture Size	12	12
Frame Rate (frames/sec)	30	25
Number of Frames	324,000	180,000
Peak Rate (Mbps)	30.488	7.290
Mean Rate (Mbps)	5.720	0.637
DCSP	AF33	AF33

For an IP network simulator based to OPNET Modeler 14.5, a Profile Parameters (ftp profile, http profile, voip profile, iptv_ch1 profile, iptv_ch2 profile, iptv_ch3 profile, iptv_ch4 profile, iptv_ch5 profile, iptv_ch6 profile, vod_1 profile, vod_2 profile, vod_3 profile) as given in Figure (20) will be created.

Profile Name	Applications	Operation Mode	Start Time (seconds)	Duration (seconds)	Repeatability	
http	http	(...)	Simultaneous	constant (100)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
ftp	ftp	(...)	Simultaneous	constant (100)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
voice	voice	(...)	Simultaneous	constant (100)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch1	iptv_ch1	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch2	iptv_ch2	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch3	iptv_ch3	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch4	iptv_ch4	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch5	iptv_ch5	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
iptv_ch6	iptv_ch6	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
vod_1	vod_1	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
vod_2	vod_2	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time
vod_3	vod_3	(...)	Simultaneous	uniform (100, 110)	End of Simulation	Once at Start Time

Figure (20) The profile attribute configuration

The QoS Attribute Configuration object defines the CAR, FIFO, WFQ, Custom Queuing, and Priority Queuing is given in Figure (21).

In order to configure the QoS queue priorities in the IP DiffServ the following three schemes are also considered for the purposes of evaluation and compression:

1. Priority Queuing (PQ): which guarantees absolute priority for the voice traffic flow.
2. Weight Fair Queue (WFQ) scheme: which assigns a portion of the total bandwidth to each traffic flow, according to its weight.
3. Low Latency Weight Fair Queuing (WFQ-LLQ): is a complex scheme, where the voice traffic flow has an absolute priority over the other two traffic flows (like in Q), but the video and data traffic flows are served by a WFQ algorithm.

Attribute	Value
name	QoS_Config
CAR Profiles	Default
Custom Queuing Profiles	Standard Schemes
FIFO Profiles	Standard Schemes
MWRR / MDRR / DWRR Profiles	Standard Schemes
Priority Queuing Profiles	Standard Schemes
RSVP Flow Specification	Default
RSVP Profiles	Default
WFQ Profiles	(...)

Figure (21) The QoS technologies

4.2.1 Required Network Simulation and test

The network simulation and test will be achieved corresponding to the above mentioned network applications parameters. A customer household of 30 houses all received full triple play services simultaneously, where video streams MPEG-2 and MPEG-4 at the source are available will be used to test the network QoS.

To extend the test of the network the backbone subnet of figure (2) is used to stream stored audio and video contents, HTTP and FTP. Then to forwarding Multicast traffic, IP multicast group addresses were used. A multicast group address is a single IP address taken from a reserved range (224.0.0.0/4 for IPv4, FF00::/8 for IPv6) to uniquely identify a group of hosts desiring to receive certain traffic. The video source server, see figure

(2), uses IP multicast address to setup a video conference (IPTV) session with all receivers. In multicast only a single session is setup for all receivers. The server sends only one copy of each video packet, while the router can listen to a particular group by setting the group address in the IGMP static membership information table.

The backbone, core and edge IP Multicast services must be supported by PIM-SM which is the protocol that distributes the routing information. The protocol is suitable for groups where a very low percentage of the nodes (and their routers) will subscribe to the multicast session. PIM-SM explicitly constructs a tree from each sender to the receivers in the multicast group.

At the edge where ADSL household an IP multicasting is presented that can be enabled or disabled for each IP interface. This can be configured using the attribute "IP Host Parameters->Multicast Mode".

Figures (22-24) show the performances metrics of packet loss ratio, packet jitter and end-to-end delay respectively to quantify the video streaming for VoD services which are compression by using MPEG-2 and MPEG-4.

The sender uses Unicast technology to setup a video conference session for VoD services with all receivers. In Unicast, separate sessions are setup for each receiver. Therefore, the sender sends copies of video packet, one for each receiver. While the sender uses IP Multicast technology to setup a video conference session for IPTV services with all receivers. In Multicast only a single session is setup for all receivers. Therefore, the sender sends only one copy of each video packet. Figure (25) shows Interface level example that highlighting link utilization with and without IP Multicasting.

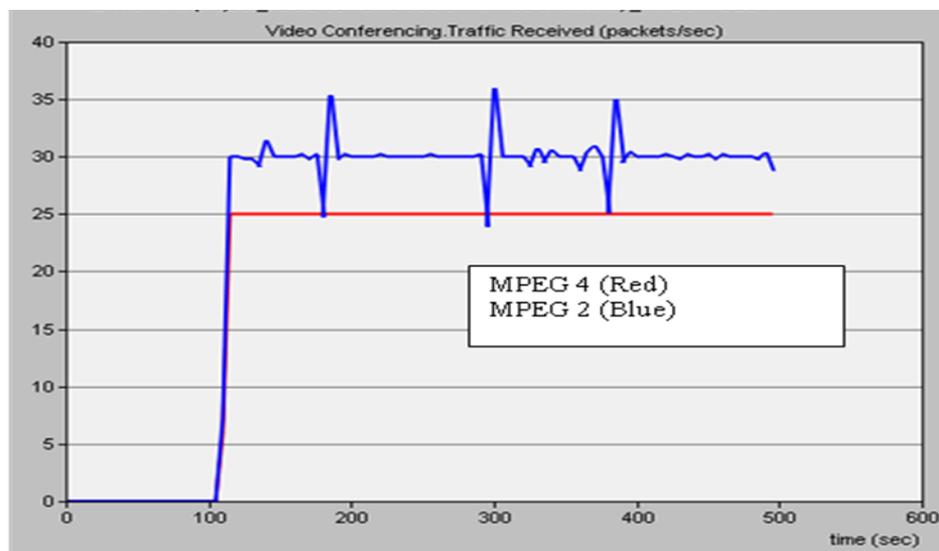


Figure 22: The MPEG-2 and MPEG-4 video PLR

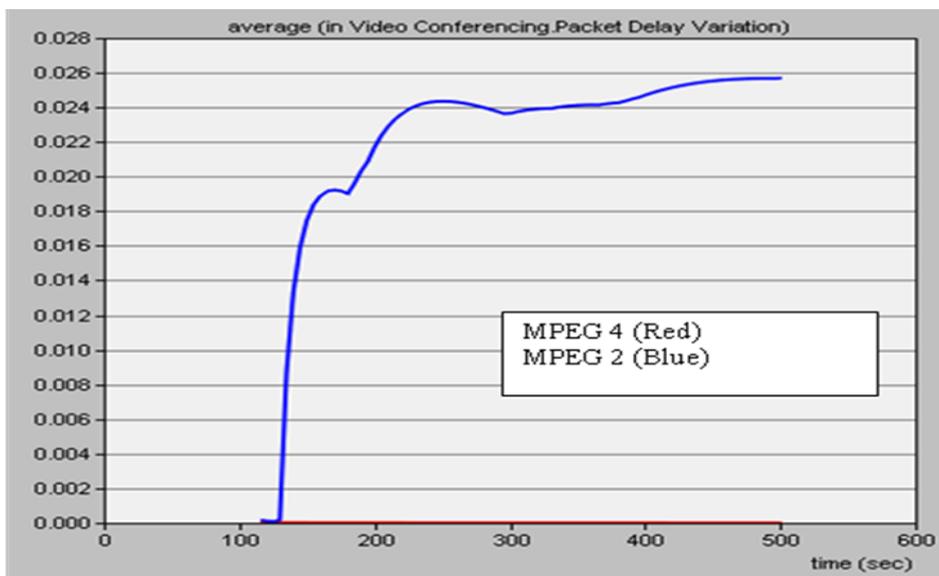


Figure 23: The MPEG-2 and MPEG-4 video packet jitter

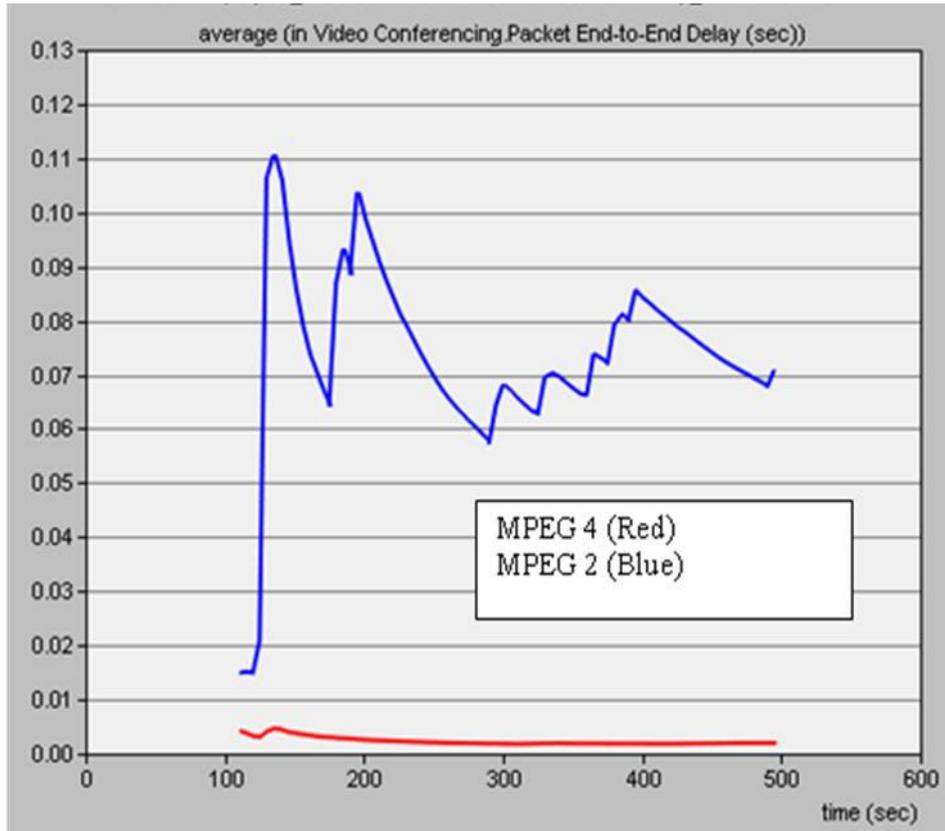


Figure 24: The MPEG-2 and MPEG-4 video end-to-end delay

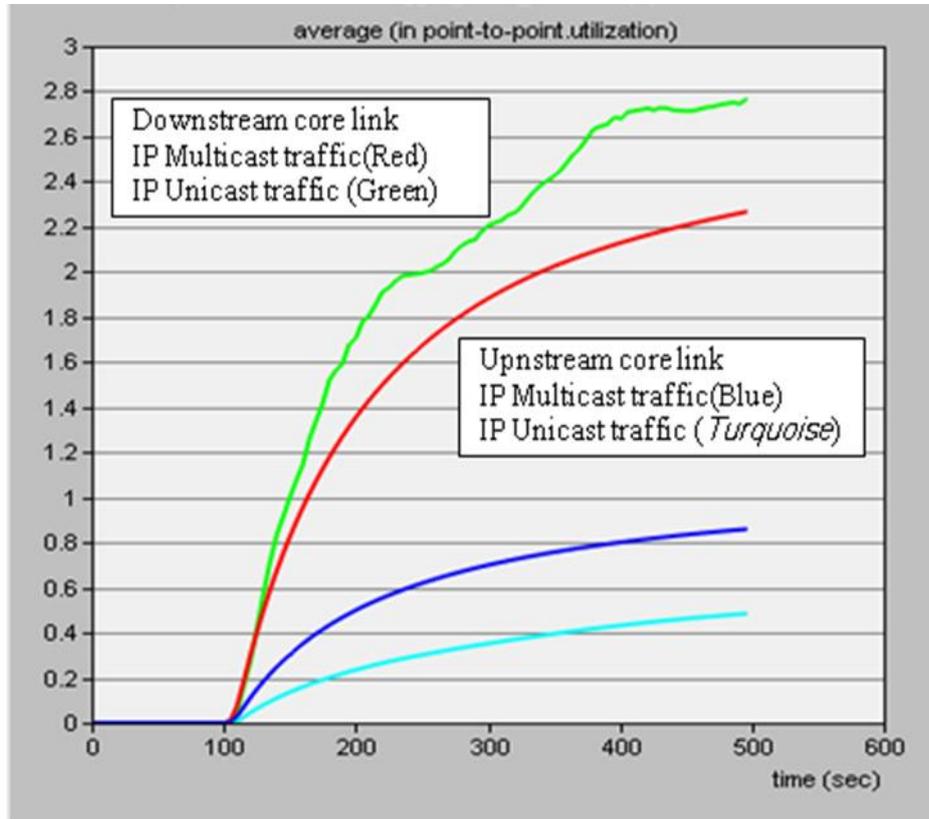


Figure 25: IP Multicast and IP Unicast Core link usage

V. DISCUSSION

This work presents results of an simulations triple play transmission over hybrid network where the last mile is an ADSL supported by turbo code as FEC. The use of such a network combination is a promising service to be provided over broadband access network. The utilization of the existing telephone lines infrastructure of the user residence decreases the cost of the service. For such applications where VoD services need high bandwidth, MPEG-4 codec is the proper solution against the problems of packet loss, jitter and reordering problems. Results show, when there is available bandwidth 100%, delay-variation for voice and video services are low. However, when the network availability decreases, delay-variation increases exponentially.

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Location Based Opportunistic Routing Protocol for Mobile Ad Hoc Networks

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Abstract: Most existing ad hoc routing protocols are susceptible to node mobility, especially for large-scale networks. This paper proposes a Location Based Opportunistic Routing Protocol (LOR) to address the problem of delivering data packets for highly dynamic mobile ad hoc networks in a reliable and timely manner. This protocol takes advantage of the stateless property of geographic routing and the broadcast nature of wireless medium. When a data packet is sent out, some of the neighbor nodes that have overheard the transmission will serve as forwarding candidates, and take turn to forward the packet if it is not relayed by the specific best forwarder within a certain period of time. By utilizing such in-the-air backup, communication is maintained without being interrupted. The additional latency incurred by local route recovery is greatly reduced and the duplicate relaying caused by packet reroute is also decreased. Simulation results on NS2 verified the effectiveness of the proposed protocol with improvement in throughput by 28%.

Keywords: MANET, Geographic Routing, GPSR, AOMDV, LOR

I. INTRODUCTION

A mobile ad hoc network (MANET) is a collection of wireless mobile nodes that dynamically establishes the network in the absence of fixed infrastructure. One of the distinctive features of MANET is, each node must be able to act as a router to find out the optimal path to forward a packet. As nodes may be mobile, entering and leaving the network, the topology of the network will change continuously. MANETs provide an emerging technology for civilian and military applications. Since the medium of the communication is wireless, only limited bandwidth is available. Another important constraint is energy due to the mobility of the nodes in nature.

MANETs have gained a great deal of attention because of its significant advantages brought about by multi-hop, infrastructure-less transmission. However, due to dynamic network topology the reliable data delivery in network, especially in challenged environments with high mobility remains an issue. We propose the new structure which takes advantage of the broadcast nature of network. By utilizing intermediate nodes as air-backup, communication is maintained without being interrupted. There will be many candidate nodes among the network, if the best candidate does not forward the packet in certain time slots, suboptimal candidates will take turn to forward the packet according to a locally formed order. In this way, as long as one of the candidates succeeds in receiving and forwarding the packet, the data transmission will not be interrupted [1].

Geographic routing (GR) [3] uses location information to forward data packets, in a hop-by-hop routing fashion. Greedy forwarding is used to select next hop forwarder with the largest positive progress toward the destination while void handling mechanism is triggered to route around communication voids [4]. No end-to-end routes need to be maintained, leading to GR's high efficiency and scalability. However, GR is very sensitive to the inaccuracy of location information [5]. In the operation of greedy forwarding, the neighbor which is relatively far away from the sender is chosen as the next hop. If the node moves out of the sender's coverage area, the transmission will fail. In GPSR [6] (a very famous geographic routing protocol), the MAC-layer failure feedback is used to offer the packet another chance to reroute. However, our simulation reveals that it is still incapable of keeping up with the performance when node mobility increases.

In fact, due to the broadcast nature of the wireless medium, a single packet transmission will lead to multiple reception. If such transmission is used as backup, the robustness of the routing protocol can be significantly enhanced. The concept of such multicast-like routing strategy has already been demonstrated in opportunistic routing [7]. Recently, location-aided opportunistic routing has been proposed which directly uses location information to guide packet forwarding. However, just like the other opportunistic routing protocols, it is still designed for static mesh networks and focuses on network throughput while the robustness brought upon by opportunistic forwarding has not been well exploited.

In this paper, a novel GPS based Location-based Opportunistic Routing (LOR) protocol is proposed. In this several forwarding candidates cache the packet that has been received using MAC interception. If the best forwarder does not forward the packet in certain time slots, suboptimal candidates will take turn to forward the packet according to a locally formed order. In this way, as long as one of the candidates succeeds in receiving and forwarding the packet, the data transmission will not be interrupted. Potential multipaths are exploited on the fly on a perpacket basis, leading to LOR's excellent robustness.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section II review the GPSR and AOMDV protocols. and in Section III describes the proposed Location based Opportunistic Routing Protocol and the Related work. The comparative study of the protocols is described by simulations in Section IV and finally Section V concludes the paper.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Geographic routing

Geographic routing (location/position-based routing) for communication in ad-hoc wireless networks has recently received increased attention, especially in the energy saving area. In geographic routing, each node has knowledge of its own geographic information either via Global Positioning System (GPS) or network localization algorithms, and broadcasts its location information to other nodes periodically. The next relay node is selected only based on the location of the source node, its neighbours and its ultimate destination (contained in the data packet). Therefore, geographic routing is generally considered to be scalable and applicable to large networks.

B. Greedy Perimeter Stateless Routing(GPSR)

GPSR protocol [8] is the earliest geographical routing protocols for adhoc networks which can also be used for WSN environment. The GPSR adapts a greedy forwarding strategy and perimeter forwarding strategy to route messages. It makes uses of a neighbourhood beacon that sends a node's identity and its position. However, instead of sending this beacon periodically and add to the network congestion, GPSR piggybacks the neighbourhood beacon on every message that is sent or forwarded by the node. Every node in GPSR has a neighbourhood table of its own. Whenever a message needs to be sent, the GPSR tries to find a node that is closer to the destination than itself and forwards the message to that node. However, this method fails for topologies that do not have a uniform distribution of nodes or contain voids. Hence, the GPSR adapts to this situation by introducing the concept of perimeter routing utilizing the right-hand graph traversal rule. Every packet transmitted in GPSR has a fixed number of retransmits [1, 8]. This information is given to the node by the medium access (MAC) layer that is required to be compliant to the IEEE 802.11 standard. This may render the GPSR protocol unusable in its normal form for WSN. The GPSR does not elucidate more on the action taken in case a message is unable to be transmitted even in perimeter mode. Finally GPSR disallows the use of periodic broadcast of the neighbourhood beacons and piggybacks these beacons on the messages sent by each node. As a strong geographical routing protocol GPSR is allowing nodes to send packets to a particular location and holding a promise in providing routing support in WSN. Many recent research works in WSN are building applications using GPSR protocol. However, GPSR is not originally designed for sensor networks, several problems are required to be fixed before it is applied in sensor networks

C. AOMDV

AOMDV shares several characteristics with AODV. It is based on the distance vector concept and uses hop-by-hop routing approach. Moreover, AOMDV also finds routes on demand using a route discovery procedure. The main difference lies in the number of routes found in each route discovery. In AOMDV, RREQ propagation from the source towards the destination establishes multiple reverse paths both at intermediate nodes as well as the destination. Multiple RREPs traverse these reverse paths back to form multiple forward paths to the destination at the source and intermediate nodes. Note thatAOMDValso provides intermediate nodes with alternate paths as they are found to be useful in reducing route discovery frequency. The core of the AOMDV protocol lies in ensuring that multiple paths discovered are loop-free and disjoint, and in efficiently

finding such paths using a flood-based route discovery. AOMDV route update rules, applied locally at each node, play a key role in maintaining loop-freedom and disjointness properties.[9]

D. Problem statement

Mostly ad hoc routing protocols are susceptible to node mobility, especially for large-scale networks. One of the main reasons is due to the pre-determination of an end-to-end route before data transmission. Owing to the constantly and even fast changing network topology, it is very difficult to maintain a deterministic route. The discovery and recovery procedures are also time and energy consuming. Once the path breaks, data packets will get lost or be delayed for a long time until the reconstruction of the route, causing transmission interruption. Pre-determination of an end-to-end route will be constructed before data transmission also no guarantee the data will send to destination. Without knowing location requires more time and energy to discovery and recovery the route to send data. So, there is a need for routing protocol which take advantage of location information is required for high amount of data delivery in highly dynamic mobile ad hoc networks.

III. LOCATION BASED OPPORTUNISTIC ROUTING PROTOCOL (LOR)

The design of LOR is based on geographic routing and opportunistic forwarding. The nodes are assumed to be aware of their own location and the positions of their direct neighbors. Neighborhood location information can be exchanged using one-hop beacon or piggyback in the data packet's header. While for the position of the destination, we assume that a location registration and lookup service which maps node addresses to locations is available just as in [6]. It could be realized using many kinds of location service. In our scenario, some efficient and reliable way is also available. For example, the location of the destination could be transmitted by low bit rate but long range radios, which can be implemented as periodic beacon, as well as by replies when requested by the source.

When a source node wants to transmit a packet, it gets the location of the destination first and then attaches it to the packet header. Due to the destination node's movement, the multihop path may diverge from the true location of the final destination and a packet would be dropped even if it has already been delivered into the neighborhood of the destination. To deal with such issue, additional check for the destination node is introduced. At each hop, the node that forwards the packet will check its neighbor list to see whether the destination is within its transmission range. If yes, the packet will be directly forwarded to the destination, similar to the destination location prediction scheme described in [5]. By performing such identification check before greedy forwarding based on location information, the effect of the path divergence can be very much alleviated.

In conventional opportunistic forwarding, to have a packet received by multiple candidates, either IP broadcast or an integration of routing and MAC protocol is adopted. The former is susceptible to MAC collision because of the lack of collision avoidance support for broadcast packet in current 802.11, while the latter requires complex coordination and is not easy to be implemented. In LOR, we use similar scheme as the MAC multicast mode described in . The packet is transmitted as unicast (the best forwarder which makes the largest positive progress toward the destination is set as the next hop) in IP layer and multiple reception is achieved using MAC interception. The use of RTS/CTS/DATA/ACK significantly reduces the collision and all the nodes within the transmission range of the sender can eavesdrop on the packet successfully with higher probability due to medium reservation. As the data packets are transmitted in a multicast-like form, each of them is identified with a unique tuple (src_ip, seq_no) where src_ip is the IP address of the source node and seq_no is the corresponding sequence number. Every node maintains a monotonically increasing sequence number, and an ID_Cache to record the ID (src_ip, seq_no) of the packets that have been recently received. If a packet with the same ID is received again, it will be discarded. Otherwise, it will be forwarded at once if the receiver is the next hop, or cached in a Packet List if it is received by a forwarding candidate, or dropped if the receiver is not specified. The packet in the Packet List will be sent out after waiting for a certain number of time slots or discarded if the same packet is received again during the waiting period (this implicitly means a better forwarder has already carried out the task).

A. Related work

To enhance a system's robustness, the most straightforward method is to provide some degree of redundancy. According to the degree of redundancy, existing robust routing protocols for MANETs can be classified into two categories. One uses the end-to-end redundancy, e.g., multipath routing, while the other leverages on the hop-by-hop redundancy which takes advantage of the broadcast nature of wireless medium and transmits the packets in an opportunistic or cooperative way. Our scheme falls into the second category.

Multipath routing, which is typically proposed to increase the reliability of data transmission in wireless ad hoc networks, allows the establishment of multiple paths between the source and the destination. Existing multipath routing protocols are broadly classified into the following three types: 1) using alternate paths as backup .2) packet replication along multiple path and 3) split, multipath delivery, and reconstruction using some coding techniques . However, as discussed , it may be difficult to find suitable number of independent paths. More importantly, in the face of high node mobility, all paths may be broken with considerably high probability due to constantly changing topology, especially when the end-to-end path length is long, making multipath routing still incapable of providing satisfactory performance.

In recent years, wireless broadcast is widely exploited to improve the performance of wireless communication. The concept of opportunistic forwarding, which was used to increase the network throughput [7], also shows its great power in enhancing the reliability of data delivery. In the context of infrastructure networks, by using opportunistic overhearing, the connectivity between the mobile node and base station (BS) can be significantly improved. In ,an opportunistic retransmission protocol PRO is proposed to cope with the unreliable wireless channel. Implemented at the link layer, PRO leverages on the path loss information Receiver Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI) to select and prioritize relay nodes. By assigning the higher priority relay a smaller contention window size, the node that has higher packet delivery ratio to the destination will be preferred in relaying.. BSs that overhear a packet but not its acknowledgment probabilistically relay the packet to the intended next hop. With the help of auxiliary BSs, the new protocol performs much better than those schemes with only one BS participating in the communication even if advanced link prediction and handover methods are involved. However, due to the lack of strict coordination between BSs, false positives and false negatives exist. While the aforementioned two schemes deal with the issues in WLANs, which concentrate on the robust routing in mobile wireless sensor networks. In the proposed RRP, traditional ad hoc routing mechanism is used to discover an intended path while the nodes nearby act as guard nodes. Leveraging on a modified 802.11 MAC, guard nodes relay the packet with prioritized backoff time when the intended node fails. If the failure time exceeds a certain threshold, the guard node who has recently accomplished the forwarding will become the new intended node. A potential problem is that such substitution scheme may lead to suboptimal paths. Unlike RRP, our protocol uses location information to guide the data flow and can always archive near optimal path. On the other hand, our scheme focuses on the route discovery from the perspective of network layer and no such complex MAC modification is necessary. Forwarding candidates are coordinated using the candidate list and no contention would happen. By limiting the forwarding area, duplication can also be well controlled.

IV. SIMULATION AND RESULTS

To evaluate the performance of POR, we simulate the algorithm in a variety of mobile network topologies in NS-2.34 and compare it with AOMDV and GPSR [. The common parameters utilized in the simulations are listed in Table 1.

Table : Simulation Parameters

Parameter	Value
MAC Protocol	IEEE 802.11
Propagation Model	Two-ray ground
Transmission Range	200m
Mobility Model	Random Way Point
Traffic Type	Constant Bit Rate
Packet Size	256 bytes
No. of Nodes	100
Simulation Time	300 Sec

The improved random way point without pausing is used to model nodes' mobility. The minimum node speed is set to 1 m/s and we vary the maximum speed to change the mobility degree of the network. The following metrics are used for performance comparison:

- Packet delivery ratio.** The ratio of the number of data packets received at the destination(s) to the number of data packets sent by the source(s). From Fig.1, it is clear that the PDR of of the LOR is better w.r.t GPSR and AOMDV. Also PDR decreases when the no.of nodes increases.



Fig.1. PDR Comparison Graph

- Throughput :** is the average rate of successful message delivery over a communication channel.

Fig 2 shows the increase in throughput when the no.of participating node increases.

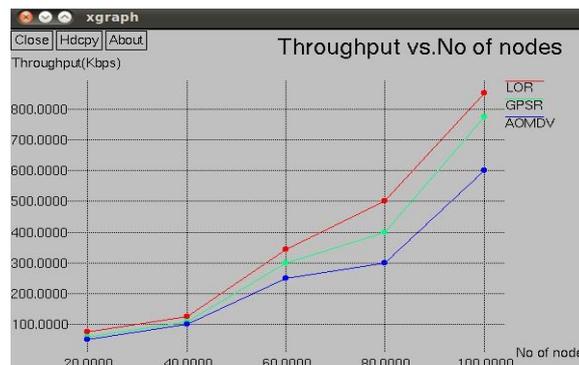


Fig.2. Throughput Comparison Graph

- End-to-end delay.** The average and the median end to end delay are evaluated, together with the cumulative distribution function of the delay

End to End Delay will increases as amount of participating node increases. LOR has lower delay compared with others as shown in Fig.3



Fig.3. End to End Delay Comparison Graph

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a location based opportunistic routing protocol to solve the problem of reliable data delivery in highly dynamic mobile ad hoc networks. Constantly changing network topology makes conventional ad hoc routing protocols incapable of providing satisfactory performance. In the face of frequent link break due to node mobility, substantial data packets would either get lost, or experience long latency before restoration of connectivity. Inspired by opportunistic routing, we propose a novel MANET routing protocol LOR which takes advantage of the stateless property of geographic routing and broadcast nature of wireless medium. Through simulation, we further confirm the effectiveness and efficiency of LOR: high packet delivery ratio is achieved while the delay and duplication are the lowest.

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