On Traffic Types and Service Classes in the Internet

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Abstract—In today's Internet, various traffic types having different characteristics and requirements (e.g., voice, video, best effort) share the same resources. In order to provide services that are appropriate to each, both the IETF and IEEE 802 have proposed a support for traffic differentiation. In both cases, service classes corresponding to separate queues are identified, and packets are marked according to their class, which in turn defines the treatment they will get at each hop in the network. Using realistic models to represent each of the various traffic types, we identify those that can be mixed in the same queue without bearing a significant loss in throughput; correspondingly, we make recommendations on how to map different traffic types to the available service classes.

I. INTRODUCTION

The majority of Internet traffic today is generated by traditional data applications; such traffic is for the most part bursty, and is well served by the best-effort service that the Internet provides. With the growth and ubiquity of the Internet witnessed in recent years, new applications are being contemplated, introducing new traffic types and new requirements, which in turn require new services from the network which cater to these characteristics and requirements. Furthermore, as the Internet becomes a network on which many businesses rely, it becomes crucial for the network response time to be unaffected by increases in the load on the network.

Both the IEEE 802 committee and the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) have proposed protocols and mechanisms that would allow the Internet to provide the services needed by the new applications. Within the IETF, the relevant activities are those of the Integrated Services (Intserv [17]) and Differentiated Services (Diffserv [19]). Given Intserv's well known scalability issues, we focus in this study on the more promising Diffserv architecture. In this context, the DS-field of different packets are marked with DSCPs (DS Code Points) corresponding to the treatment they will get at each hop in the network, referred to as Per Hop Behavior (PHB). Two PHBs have been proposed: *Expedited Forwarding* (EF [20]), designed for real-time applications that have stringent delay constraints (such as voice and video applications), and *Assured Forwarding* (AF [21]), designed to provide a predictable service for business applications.

In the IEEE 802 committee, the relevant activity resulted in a revision of the IEEE bridging standard 802.1D [16] which includes support for expedited traffic capabilities - i.e., priority functions - in the switches; as in Diffserv, different packets are marked with a field specifying the class of service they belong to, corresponding to a specific treatment they get at each hop in the network. More specifically, seven types of traffic are identified and differentiated, given the potential applications and their requirements; these are, in order of priority: (1) *Network control*, which includes packets that support network infrastructure and that must be delivered as quickly as possible; (2) *Voice* and (3) *Video*, which principal requirement is bounded delay and

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TABLE I
SUGGESTED MAPPING OF THE TRAFFIC TYPES TO THE AVAILABLE
PRIORITY LEVELS IN IEEE 802-1D

Number of Priority	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Classes \rightarrow							
Traffic Types ↓							
Network Control	NC	VO	VO	VO	VO		
Voice (10ms)	VO					VO	
Video (100ms)	VI	VI	VI	CL	CL		
Controlled Load	CL	CL	CL				BE
Excellent Effort	EE	EE	BE	BE			
Best Effort	BE	BE			BE	BE	
Background	BK	BK	BK	BK			

loss; (4) *Controlled load*, which (similarly to AF) includes traffic from important business applications, (5) *Excellent* and (6) *Best Effort*, which consists of LAN and Internet traffic as we know it today¹. Finally, (7) *Background traffic* pertains activities which should not impact the use of the network by other users (e.g. backups). Accordingly, the standard specifies up to eight levels of priority (also referred to as traffic classes), and recommends an appropriate mapping between the seven traffic types and the available traffic classes, that is function of the number of available traffic classes (see Table I²).

Note that a similar packet marking technique and per-hop treatment concept are used in IEEE 802.1D and Diffserv. Also, both architectures consider that each traffic class corresponds conceptually to a separate queue. In both cases, the adequacy of a mapping between traffic types and traffic classes is primordial. Indeed, if dissimilar traffic types (in terms of characteristics and requirements) are assigned to the same queue, then an excessively low limit may have to be placed on the amount of aggregate traffic so that all traffic types meet their respective requirements. Even though the areas of traffic characterization and traffic mix optimization have been actively researched in the past, (e.g., [1]-[15]) the work on mixing traffic of different types has often been characterized by the limited setting for the investigation (e.g. shared Ethernet LANs in [1] and [2], ring LAN in [3]). Also, models used for data and video traffic were not always in concordance with their actual characteristics, as revealed by a number of measurements studies conducted for video (e.g., [8]-[10]) and data traffic (e.g. [11]-[15]).

Accordingly, the main goal of this study is to identify which traffic types can be mixed together in the same queue without incurring a significant loss in throughput; based on this identification, an appropriate mapping of traffic types to service classes

¹When enough classes are provided, then relative priority can be given to Excellent Effort traffic.

²When several traffic types are grouped together into a single priority level, one of them is identified as the defining type indicating that it is this traffic type's requirements that are to be satisfied in that particular traffic class.

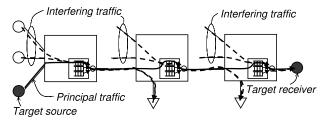


Fig. 1. Multi-hop, multiple class-of-service scenario.

is recommended, as a function of the network resources (bandwidth, buffer sizes). By the same token, it is possible to determine the minimum number of classes needed in order to support a certain load of traffic and the traffic mix involved. To insure the relevance of our results, we use in our experiments realistic traffic types. It is hoped that the results will help (1) understand how traffic types should be mapped to different traffic classes and PHBs in LANs and WANs respectively and (2) in the definition of appropriate admission control policies.

In Section II, we describe the approach used in this study. In Section III, we discuss the simulation results obtained. Finally, we summarize the results of this paper in Section IV. A longer version of this paper can be found at http://www-mmnetworks.stanford.edu/.

II. APPROACH USED IN THIS STUDY

This study is performed by means of computer simulation, with each simulation experiment consisting of a network scenario and a traffic scenario.

A. Network scenarios related aspects

Given the recent advances in LAN and WAN technologies, it is only useful to consider network structures consisting of full-duplex links interconnecting high performance switches. We consider service rates that correspond to widely deployed links: T1 (1.5 Mb/s), 10Base-T (10 Mb/s), T3 (45 Mb/s) and 100Base-T (100 Mb/s). We consider network scenarios with multiple classes-of-service (CoS), whereby each class-of-service is represented by a separate output queue in the switch. Even though Strict Priority is used in our simulations, the results are essentially independent of the scheduling mechanism implemented in the switches³.

We consider first single traffic types and then various mixes of different traffic types, in network topologies with single and multiple classes of services. The multi-hop network scenario consists of a linear succession of switches. We identify one traffic source (generating traffic of a given type) as the target source and consider all other traffic to be interfering traffic (See Figure 1.) To be conservative, we consider the pessimistic scenario in which the interfering traffic is generated and injected at each hop, independently of the other hops in the path. In so doing, the delay components incurred at the various hops become totally independent of each other, and we are able to derive the

end-to-end delay over the entire path simply by taking the convolution of single hop delay results.

B. Traffic generation aspects

In order to produce meaningful results, we pay particular attention to the model(s) used in generating each type of traffic. In this study we limit ourselves to voice, video and data traffic (the latter receiving both best-effort and "better than" best effort service, which we denote by assured service).

Voice. There are various ways to encode voice signals, e.g. Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) for G.711, Adaptive and Differential Pulse Code Modulation (ADPCM) for G.726, and Code Excited Linear Prediction (CELP) techniques for encoders such as G.729A and G.723.1. Given the goal in this study, and given the low bit rate and low degree of traffic variation exhibited in a voice stream as compared to the other traffic types with which it might have to be mixed (e.g., video), the results are essentially independent of the specific voice encoding scheme. We thus consider voice to be encoded using ADPCM at a rate equal to 32 Kb/s and the encoded bit stream to be packetized in constant packets of 32 bytes payload each generated once every 8ms; adding the protocol overhead at the various layers of protocols (RTP, UDP, IP and MAC layers), we end up with packets of about 90 bytes, and a bit stream of 90 Kb/s.

Video. The characteristics of encoded video (data rates and variability in time) vary tremendously according to the content (talking heads, motion pictures, commercials, etc.), the video compression scheme (H.261, MPEG-1, MPEG-2, H.263, etc.) and the video encoding control scheme (constant bit rate (CBR), open-loop variable bit rate (OL-VBR), constant quality variable bit rate (CO-VBR, [7])). For a given content and a given compression scheme, the encoding control scheme determines the characteristics of the traffic. In particular, CBR produces a stream which has a relatively small degree of variation while CQ-VBR produces a stream with a much higher degree of variation⁴. In accordance to the goal of this study, we consider video streams of both the CBR and the VBR types, and study their effects on themselves and on other traffic types. More specifically, we select the third minute of Star Trek VI (characterized by a large degree of motion, abrupt camera movements, and numerous scene changes), encoded using MPEG-1, and generate different bit streams by controlling the encoder according to both CBR, OL-VBR and CQ-VBR. There is sufficient variation in the encoded bit stream so that streams longer than one minute in duration are obtained by cycling through the same sequence over and over, and multiple streams are obtained by using the same sequence started at different points in time. (For more details concerning the video encoding process, refer to [1].) As seen from Figure 2 (in which we plot the frame size histograms for video sequences generated using either CBR or VBR encoding control) the difference in traffic burstiness between the two sequences is clear.

Data Applications Traffic. Data application traffic (telnet, nntp, smtp, ftp, web) constitutes the majority of today's Inter-

³A given service rate considered here corresponds to the total link bandwidth in the context of Strict Priority scheduling, and to the appropriate portion of total link bandwidth assigned to that particular queue in the context of Weighted Fair Queuing.

⁴On the other hand, with CBR, unless the target rate and rate control buffer are chosen large enough, the quality of the encoded video may exhibit significant variations over time, while with CQ-VBR, the quality remains constant at the specified target level at all times.

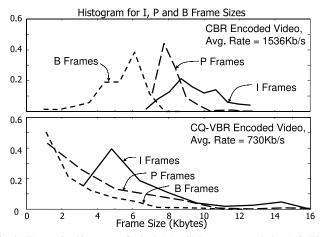


Fig. 2. Frame size histograms for both (a) a CBR stream encoded at 1536Kb/s, and (b) a CQ-VBR stream encoded with $\hat{s}=4.5$ (average rate=730Kb/s)

net traffic, with *web* traffic now representing over 80%. A great deal of measurements have been and are constantly being made of Internet traffic, with the aim to characterize user traffic by application [11]. It has been found that for all applications, the amount of data generated in a burst, and the duration of a session have long tailed distributions which follow log-normal distributions, with the exception of *ftp* and *web* traffic for which burst sizes follow the "heavy-tailed" Pareto distribution [11][12]⁵. In our simulation we use the models developed in these studies to generate user data traffic⁶. More specifically, we consider *ftp* traffic (as this reflects also *web* traffic) and model it by a succession of log-normal TCP connections grouped in Pareto distributed bursts. We also consider data traffic that consists of bursts following a log₂-normal distribution [11].

C. Performance Aspects

Since most traffic requirements can be expressed in terms of delay and packet loss, we derive both measurements in this study. Packet loss may be due to either buffer overflow or, in the case of real-time applications, to the end-to-end delay incurred being larger than the specified maximum delay requirement. Thus it is important to derive the probability that the end-to-end packet delay D_{ete} exceeds a threshold D_{max} , $Pr\left(D_{ete} > D_{max}\right)$. Since packet loss may be tolerable only up to a given maximum rate (L_{max}) , a comparison between $Pr\left(D_{ete} > D_{max}\right)$ and L_{max} reveals whether the requirements of the application are satisfied. Similarly, it is possible to derive the $100\left(1-L_{max}\right)^{th}$ delay percentile D_{th} ; again, comparing D_{th} and D_{max} tells whether the requirements of the application are satisfied. Both approaches are equivalent.

The principal requirement for real-time voice and video communication is bounded delay: if either voice or video samples are not delivered to the receiver on time, then they will have

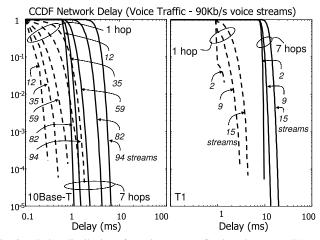


Fig. 3. Delay distributions for voice streams flowing alone on a T1 and a 10Base-T link.

to be discarded. Following the IEEE 802.1D recommendation, we consider an 100ms end-to-end delay for voice traffic, from which we allocate a conservative 10ms bound for network delay. Owing to the redundancy of speech, up to 1-2 percent of packet loss can be tolerated [6]; to be conservative, we consider packet loss rates ranging from 10^{-2} down to 10^{-5} . As far as real-time video traffic is concerned, we also follow the IEEE 802.1D recommendation, and consider an end-to-end delay requirement of 200ms for such traffic, from which we allocate a 100ms bound for network delay. We also consider a relaxed network delay requirement of 500ms for delay sensitive, yet non real-time video traffic pertaining to applications such as Video on Demand (VoD), for which user inter-activeness should be maintained. Owing to the characteristics of the human visual system, up to 10^{-2} percent video packet can be tolerated ([1], [2]); we consider in this study loss rates in the $(10^{-5}, 10^{-3})$ range.

In addition to the delay and loss measures, we define the maximum achievable throughput over a path given a certain mix of traffic to be the maximum per-link throughput such that all traffic flowing on the path meet their respective requirements.

III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

We first investigate the behavior of each traffic type when flowing alone in the network (Section III-A); we then study their behavior when mixed with other traffic types (Section III-B).

A. Single Traffic Type

Voice Alone. In this scenario, multiple voice streams are multiplexed into the same output queue; accordingly, we consider that the packets corresponding to the various streams are uniformly distributed in the 8 ms cycle. The first observation is that results are essentially independent of the buffer size⁷. From Figure 3, we infer that a total of 15 voice streams can travel one hop on a T1 link, and 94 on a 10Base-T link without exceeding the 10ms delay requirement for voice, yielding link utilizations of 90% and 84.6% respectively. Also, for 10Base-T and

⁷We have observed that an increase in the buffer size increases the loss resulting from packets exceeding their delay bound, and reduces the loss resulting from buffer overflow; however, the sum of these two components does not vary.

⁵It has been also stated that it is the long-tailed log-normal and heavy-tailed Pareto distributions that are at the basis of the self-similarity characteristics of data traffic in the Internet [11][13][14].

⁶No assumption is made as to the resulting traffic on the network links; instead, we fully implemented the TCP protocol and let the latter determine the burstiness in the link traffic, as this may be different in different network and traffic scenarios, and different depending on whether priority functions are in effect or not.

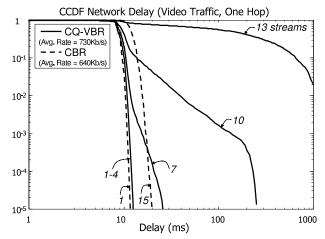


Fig. 4. Delay distributions for CBR encoded video (target rate of 640Kb/s) and CQ-VBR encoded video (target quality $\hat{s} = 4.5$), flowing alone on a 10Base-T link.

higher bandwidth links, the utilization does not decrease as the number of hops is increased to 7 (that is, the network delay incurred remains below 10ms). Conversely, in the case of T1 links, the longer transmission times over 7 hops forbid more than 4 streams to be transmitted, limiting the throughput to 24%. In summary, owing to the characteristics of voice traffic, only for sub-T1 links must a limit be placed on the number of streams flowing alone in the network.

Video Alone. The same experiment is now repeated for video streams. As expected, the resulting delay behavior is mostly influenced by the encoding control scheme. In case of CBR video, owing to the steady nature of the generated traffic, the behavior is similar to voice: for links of bandwidth equal to or greater than 10Mb/s, most of the link bandwidth can be filled with CBR streams, and delays will remain below 100ms even for seven hops paths. (See Figure 4.)

However, in the case of VBR links, due to the variability of the generated traffic, the tail of the delay distribution sharply widens as the number of video streams is increased. In the scenario shown in Figure 4, network delay exceeds 100ms as soon as the number of video streams on the link exceeds 9, achieving a low 65% link utilization. In general, the results are affected by the burstiness of a particular stream (which increases with the quality metric \hat{s} and decreases with the quantization scale q for CQ-VBR and OL-VBR, respectively), and its rate relative to the link speed. (See Tables II and III.) In many cases, a limit must be set on the number of real-time VBR streams that can be multiplexed on the link. However, if we relax the maximum delay bound to 500ms, then significantly higher utilizations can be achieved for T1 and 10Base-T. (See Table II.) This suggests that video traffic pertaining to applications that have different delay requirements (e.g. 100ms versus 500ms) should be separated in different queues, specially on sub-10Base-T links.

B. Effect of Mixing Traffic Types

In this section, we look into the mixture of different traffic types, and their effect on each other. Our starting point is the mapping in Table I. Omitting excellent effort, background and network control traffic types, the appropriate mixes that emerge

TABLE II $Maximal \ number \ of \ streams \ and \ corresponding \ achievable \\ Throughput \ (VBR \ video, \ T1 \ and \ 10Base-T).$

$Link \to$	T1		10Base-T	
Video Stream $\downarrow D_{max} ightarrow$	100ms 500ms		100ms	500ms
VBR, $q = 31, 311$ Kb/s				
(link BW/stream rate ratio)	4.8		32.1	
Maximum number of streams	3	4	29	30
Achievable throughput	62.2%	82.9%	90.2%	93.3%
$CQ-VBR, \widehat{s} = 4.5,730 \text{ Kb/s}$				
(link BW/stream rate ratio)	2.1		13.7	
Maximum number of streams	0	1	9	12
Achievable throughput	0%	48.6%	65.7%	87.6%

 $\label{thm:maximal} TABLE~III$ Maximal number of streams and corresponding achievable throughput (VBR video, T3 and 100Base-T).

$Link \rightarrow$	Т3		100Base-T	
Video Stream $\downarrow D_{max} \rightarrow$	100ms	500ms	100ms	500ms
VBR, $q = 31, 311$ Kb/s				
(link BW/stream rate ratio)	144.7		321.5	
Maximum number of streams	~145	~145	~320	~320
Achievable throughput	~100%	~100%	~100%	~100%
$CQ\text{-VBR}, \widehat{s} = 4.5,730 \text{ Kb/s}$				
(link BW/stream rate ratio)	61.6		137.0	
Maximum number of streams	54	58	~125	~125
Achievable throughput	87.6%	98%	~100%	~100%

are: data traffic with either voice or video traffic (Section III-B.1) and video with voice traffic (Section III-B.2).

B.1 Effect of Data Traffic on Voice and Video Traffic

In this section, the target and interfering traffic consists of either voice or video, and data traffic, respectively. We start with investigating the effect of data traffic on voice. For that, we mix 1Mb/s of voice traffic (11 streams) with TCP data traffic. Table IV (which shows the maximum number of data sources and the achievable throughput obtained if voice packets were still to satisfy their delay requirements) reveals that mixing voice and data traffic is impossible for T1 links. In the case of 10Base-T links, it is only possible for *smtp*-type flows, at the expense of a significant throughput reduction. Mixing *ftp* traffic with voice is only possible on 100Base-T links, in which case the link utilization must be kept below 20%. This result shows that data traffic, if neither policed nor shaped is incompatible with voice

 $\label{thm:maximum} TABLE\ IV$ Maximum number of data sources mixed with voice traffic.

Data source	T1	10Base-T	Т3	100Base-T
$(\overline{x}, \sigma_x)=(2^{10}, 3)$	0	80 (38.8%)	>500	≫500
$(\overline{x}, \sigma_x)=(2^{11}, 5)$	0	0	213 (25.5%)	≫500
ftp	0	0	0	64 (20%)

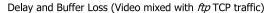
TABLE V

Maximum number of best effort streams (n_{max}) and achievable throughput (ρ_{max}) for video mixed with ftp traffic (loss rate of 10^{-3} for video).

D_{max}^q	10Base-T				
(ms) ↓	$Q_{max}\downarrow$	$n_{max} (\rho_{max})$			
$D_{max} \rightarrow$	(KB)	100ms	500ms		
40.1	50	0 (0%)	0 (0%)		
81.9	100	4 (29.4%)	4 (29.4%)		
123.9	150	1 (19.9%)	7 (36.6%)		
491.5	600	0 (0%)	31 (96.1%)		
	Т3				
40.1	225	56 (48.6%)	56 (48.6%)		
81.9	450	96 (75.3%)	96 (75.3%)		
123.9	675	66 (56.2%)	113 (90.35%)		
491.5	2700	0 (0%)	141 (96.4%)		
	100Base-T				
40.1	500	181 (60.5%)	181 (60.5%)		
81.9	1000	252 (82%)	252 (82%)		
123.9	1500	252 (82%)	252 (82%)		
491.5	6000	0 (0%)	280 (89.5%)		

traffic and should be separated from it. Hence, in the context of IEEE 802.1D, both traffic types should correspond to different traffic classes. In the context of Differentiated Services, in case voice and TCP data both use the Expected Forwarding PHB, we suspect that the much larger volume and burstiness of data traffic will be detrimental on voice traffic.

Replacing voice with real-time video⁸, the mixture becomes possible owing to the relaxed delay requirement (100 instead of 10ms). Considering the large dependence of the results on the buffer size, we experiment with a range of buffer sizes corresponding to the link speeds considered. Table V shows that the optimum buffer size is one that incurs a maximum buffering delay slightly lower than the end-to-end delay bound (either 100ms or 500ms): the reason is that ftp sources need large buffer sizes, which they often fill, delaying video packets beyond their acceptable bound. Conversely, the provision of a buffer size that is too small increases the amount of buffer losses for both video and best effort traffic, in turn limiting the achievable throughput that could be obtained on the link; for instance, Figure 5 shows that for $D_{max} = 100$ ms, using a 450KBytes buffer minimizes the total video loss when mixed with best effort traffic on a T3 link. Still, because of the reduction in the optimal buffer size, the total achievable throughput is reduced significantly by the addition of real-time video. If the end-to-end delay bound is relaxed to 500ms, then the appropriate buffer size increases proportionally, which results in a spectacular increase in throughput (to values that are close to 1). Hence, VoD video can potentially be mixed with Best Effort traffic on links of speed higher than 10Mb/s; note that throughput remains high for a wide range of buffer sizes below the optimal for T3 and 100Base-T links,



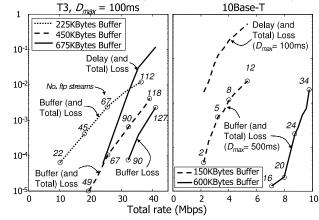


Fig. 5. Buffer and Delay losses for VBR video traffic when mixed with best effort traffic on either a T3 link for various buffer sizes (225, 450 and 675KBytes) and a delay requirement of 100ms or a 10Base-T link for two buffer sizes (150K, 600K) and two delay requirements (100 and 500ms).

while it decreases very quickly around the optimal point for 10Base-T links. Hence, it only seems recommendable to mix VoD and best effort traffic on links of speed at least equal to 45Mb/s.

B.2 Mixing Voice and Video Traffic

We now assume the provision of separate low priority class(es) for data traffic, and investigate into the mixture of voice and video traffic in the high priority class. Accordingly, the target and interfering streams consist of voice and video traffic, respectively. We experiment with a number of CBR and VBR streams, with a range of buffer sizes and with all combinations of voice and video mixes on the link. We present results for both a CBR stream encoded at 640Kb/s and a CQ-VBR stream encoded with a target quality $\hat{s}=4.5$ flowing on 10Base-T links. Comments are then made on how to extend these results to other encoding schemes and link speeds.

Voice mixed with CBR video. In case voice and video are separated in two different classes, then the effect of video on voice traffic is very slight, resulting merely from the lack of preemption. (See Figure 6.) If one traffic class is used instead, then the increase in voice delay remains contained, owing to the slow increase of CBR video delay as the number of such streams multiplexed on the link increases. Consequently, voice delay only exceeds 10ms when the link becomes almost fully utilized. Repeating the experiment for all voice and video mixtures, we plot in Figure 7.a the achievable throughput as a function of the voice traffic load. For all mixes, video traffic delay remains below the acceptable 100ms bound, and the observed decrease in achievable throughput only results from voice delay exceeding 10ms; this occurs when the link is heavily utilized, and so mixing voice and video barely affects the achievable throughput (the decrease is less than 9%).

For other link speeds and encoding schemes, similar behavior is observed except if the rate of the video stream is too large relative to the link bandwidth, in which case the achievable throughput could decrease by as much as 50%. (For instance, we ob-

⁸We consider both CBR and VBR streams. Since the volume of video is much lower than that of data, the results are largely independent of the specifics of the encoding control method.

⁹Here too, packet loss is essentially independent of buffer size.

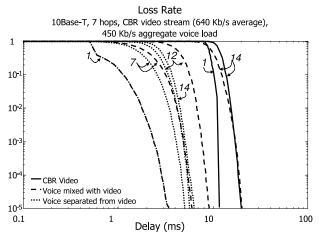
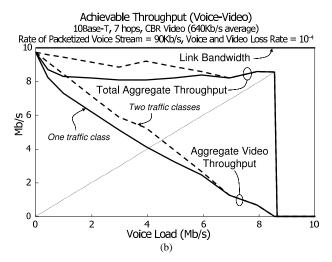


Fig. 6. Delay distributions for voice and CBR video.

(a)



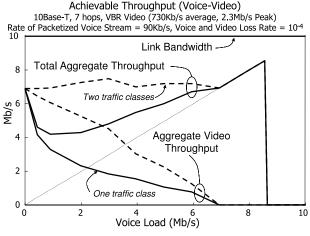


Fig. 7. Achievable throughput versus voice load for (a) CBR video and (b) VBR video.

Loss Rate 10Base-T, 7 hops, VBR video stream (730 Kb/s average, 2.3Mb/s peak), 450 Kb/s aggregate voice load

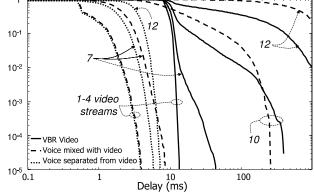


Fig. 8. Delay distributions for voice and VBR video.

TABLE VI ACHIEVABLE THROUGHPUT FOR VOICE MIXED WITH VIDEO.

	T1	10Base-T	T3	100Base-T
VBR, $q = 31, 311$ Kb/s	68%	88%	>90%	>90%
CQ-VBR, $\hat{s} = 4.5,730$ Kb/s	0%	50%	77%	83%

serve that only one video stream and two voice streams can be admitted on a T1 link, achieving a utilization as low as 55%.)

Voice mixed with VBR video. In line with the properties of VBR traffic discussed in Section II-B, the results obtained when voice and VBR video traffic are mixed in the same queue are fundamentally different: as the number of multiplexed video streams increases, the tail of the distribution shoots up noticeably because of the long bursts that get injected into the queue. (See Figure 8.) As a result, for the scenario described in Figure 7.b, 10ms delay is incurred by voice packets as soon as five VBR streams are multiplexed on the channel, limiting the achievable throughput to 50%. In general, the achievable throughput depends on the voice/video mix and decreases down to 45% as we increase the portion of video in the mix. (See Figure 7.b.)

Similar results are observed for different encoding and compression schemes. For CQ-VBR, increasing \hat{s} yields burstier video traffic and hence lower utilizations, while for OL-VBR, the same effect is seen by reducing q. The results are also dependent on the rate of the stream relative to the link speed (see Table VI). Moreover, since the decrease in throughput results from voice traffic failing to meet its delay requirements, the results are unaffected by an increase in the end-to-end delay bound on VBR video, e.g., if real-time video is replaced with VoD video. In the context of IEEE 802.1D, the results suggest that CBR and VBR video should be differentiated. On the other hand, in the context of Differentiated Services, the results suggest that realtime VBR video using the EF PHB could have a detrimental effect on voice traffic using the same PHB.

IV. CONCLUSION

We present in Table VII our recommendation with respect to providing an appropriate mapping of traffic types to traffic classes. Clearly, the recommended number of traffic classes decreases as the link speed increases. For 100Base-T links, it is

TABLE VII

RECOMMENDED MAPPING OF TRAFFIC TYPES TO TRAFFIC CLASSES IN CASE OF T1, 10BASE-T, T3 AND 100BASE-T LINKS.

Traffic Types	T1	10Base-T	T3	100Base-T
Real Time Voice				
Real Time CBR Video				
Real Time VBR Video				
Assured Service/Controlled Load, VoD				
Best Effort				

only required to separate voice traffic from TCP data traffic; if voice were given its own class, then real-time video could still be accommodated in the best effort class if buffers are reasonably sized and average utilization remains below 80%. However, mixing real-time video traffic with voice proves to be more appropriate since, in this case assured service and best effort traffic can together utilize more than 95% of the link bandwidth. For T3 links, the combination of VBR, CBR and voice only limits the achievable throughput to 75%. However, for 10Base-T, VBR video traffic should be separated from CBR and voice, as well as assured service traffic which should also be separated from best effort traffic. Finally, in the case of T1 links, a significantly higher throughput could be achieved when each traffic type is mapped to its own traffic class. In all cases, owing to their similar requirements, it seems most appropriate to mix VoD traffic with Assured Service traffic.

It is interesting to compare the findings of this study to the mappings recommended in the context of IEEE 802.1D and IETF Diffserv. In an attempt to retain the inherent simplicity in LANs, the mapping standardized by IEEE 802.1D associates the available traffic classes to individual applications, hence ignoring the differences between variable and constant bit rate video; as can be seen by the results of this paper, such an oversimplification could, in some cases incur a loss of throughput. However, with the tremendous increase of bandwidth in LANs (100Mb/s, 1Gb/s and 10Gb/s soon), and the relatively low number of individual flows in the network, one could argue that such a simplification will rarely affect performance. Conversely, by providing a flexible architecture, Diffserv allows a large number of applications to share the EF class. Consequently, voice traffic can share its queue with other, potentially bursty video and TCP traffic. The results of this study suggest that such an approach could be detrimental to voice performance.

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