On Scheduling for Minimizing End-to-End Buffer Usage over Multihop Wireless Networks

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***Abstract*—While there has been much progress in designing backpressure based stabilizing algorithms for multihop wireless networks, end-to-end performance (e.g., end-to-end buffer usage) results have not been as forthcoming. In this paper, we study the end-to-end buffer usage (sum of buffer utilization along a flow path) over a network with general topology and with fixed, loop-free routes using a large-deviations approach. We first derive bounds on the best performance that any scheduling algorithm can achieve. Based on the intuition from the bounds, we propose a class of (backpressure-like) scheduling algorithms called $\alpha\beta$-algorithms. We show that the parameters α and β can be chosen such that the system under the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm performs arbitrarily closely to the best possible scheduler (formally the decay rate function for end-to-end buffer overflow is shown to be arbitrarily close to optimal in the large-buffer regime). We also develop variants which have the same asymptotic optimality property, and also provide good performance in the small-buffer regime. Our results are substantiated using both analysis and simulation.**

I. Introduction

Scheduling is one of the most critical challenges in multihop wireless network design due to channel fading and wireless interference. A major breakthrough in this area is the back-pressure algorithm proposed in [1], which is throughput optimal, i.e., it can stabilize any traffic flows that can be stabilized by some other algorithms. Significant progress has been made in designing backpressure based algorithms to maximize the network throughput or network utility as a function of the throughput [1]–[6]. While these results provide stabilizing algorithms with throughput-optimality guarantees, they may not have the desired performance in terms of other end-to-end performance metrics such as end-to-end delay. For example, results in [7], [8] have demonstrated that the classic backpressure algorithm could lead to unnecessarily large delays in multihop networks.

Since many emerging applications of wireless networks, such as wireless mesh networks for public safety, wireless sensor networks for unmanned surveillance, and vehicular networks for accident warnings, require delay constrained communication for desired performance, we are interested in scheduling algorithms that not only guarantee the throughput but also have good delay performance. It has been observed in [9], [10] that scheduling algorithms that do not take queue length information into consideration perform much worse than queue-length-based algorithms. However, the delay analysis for queue-length-based algorithms is challenging because of the dependence of the decision process on the queue length process. Existing results in the literature have focused on order optimality [9], the heavy traffic regimes [11]–[14] and the large-queue regimes [10], [15]–[17], but they only consider single-hop flows. In fact, the coupled arrival/departure processes (the departures from the previous hop is the arrivals of current hop) of multihop traffic flows have aggravated the difficulty in analyzing the end-to-end delay performance.

In this paper, we consider a multihop wireless network with general topology and with fixed, loop-free routes. We assume that a node maintains a separate queue for each flow passing through it. To simplify the analysis, we use the end-to-end buffer usage to approximate the end-to-end delay, and study the probability that the end-to-end buffer usage exceeds a certain threshold. Let $X_k^{\text{agg}}(t)$ denote the aggregated queue-length along the route of flow k and λ_k denote the average rate at which data arrives at the source node of flow k. Mathematically, we are interested in characterizing

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\max_k \frac{X_k^{\text{agg}}(t)}{\lambda_k} \geq B\right]. \tag{1}$$

We call $X_k^{\text{agg}}(t)$ the end-to-end buffer usage of flow k, which is closely related to the end-to-end delay of flow k. For example, assuming that the packets arrive with a constant rate and all queues are FIFO, then $\frac{X_k^{\text{agg}}(t)}{\lambda_k}$ is the delay experienced by the packet of flow k that departs the system at time t (see [19]). In this case, a scheduling algorithm resulting in a small value of (1) guarantees that the probability that the end-to-end delays are larger than B will also be small.

We exploit large-deviations analysis to study this quantity. The main contributions of this paper include:

- We first derive bounds on the best performance that any scheduling algorithm can achieve. In other words, we obtain a $\tilde{\theta}_0$ such that
$$\liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log \mathbf{P}\left[\max_k \frac{X_k^{\text{agg}}(t)}{\lambda^k} \geq B\right] \geq -\tilde{\theta}_0$$
holds for any scheduling policy.
- We obtain two fundamental structural properties from this bound: *(i)* considering a single multihop flow, the scheduling algorithm should give preference to links that are closer to the destination; and *(ii)* considering multiple

flows competing for a single multi-access channel (e.g., at the downlink of a single cell in a cellular network), the scheduling algorithm should give preference to those flows with the largest ratio of aggregate backlog to arrival rate.

- Based on the structural properties derived from the upper bound, we propose a class of (backpressure-like) scheduling algorithms called $\alpha\beta$-algorithms. Exploiting the large-deviations analysis developed in [19], we show that the parameters α and β can be chosen such that the system under the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm performs arbitrarily closely to the best possible scheduler. Compared to [19], the main contribution of this paper is to design an algorithm that is tailored to minimizing the end-to-end buffer overflow probability in multihop networks.
- Finally, we develop variants of $\alpha\beta$-algorithms (called hybrid $\alpha\beta$-algorithm) that have the same asymptotic optimality property, and also provides good performance in the small-buffer regime. Our simulations demonstrate that the hybrid $\alpha\beta$-algorithm performs better than the classic back-pressure algorithm.

II. System Model

A. Traffic Model

We study a multihop network consisting of N nodes, L links, and K multihop flows. Denote by $b(l)$ and $e(l)$ the beginning and ending nodes of link l. The route for each flow is fixed and loop-free. Denote by D^k the number of nodes through which flow k passes, $n^k(i)$ the i^{th} node in flow k's path, $l^k(i)$ the i^{th} link in flow k's path, and $\mathcal{K}_l$ the set of flows that traverse link l. Furthermore, let $A^k(t)$ denote the amount of data flow k injects to source node $n^k(1)$ at time t. We assume that $A^k(t)$ are identically and independently distributed (i.i.d.) across time slots and $\mathbb{E}[A^k(t)] = \lambda^k$. We assume that the average arrival rates are within the capacity region of the network (hence the system is stationary and ergodic) and that the arrival processes $A^k(t)$'s satisfy a large-deviations principle with rate function $L^k(\cdot)$ as defined in [19].

B. Channel Model

We consider a multihop wireless network in this paper, where the links experience interference and fading. We assume that the time is slotted, where the channel state stays constant over each time-slot, and changes at the beginning of each time slot. We let $C(t)$ denote the channel state at time-slot t, which is i.i.d. across time slots and takes values from $1, \ldots, S$ with probabilities $p_1, \ldots, p_S$.

Now given that $C(t) = j$, F_j^l denotes the units of data that can be transmitted over link l if there is no interference from other links, and $\mathcal{A}_j$ denotes the collection of subsets of links that do not interfere with each other when transmitting simultaneously. An element of $\mathcal{A}_j$ is called a schedule, which is a length-L binary vector. Consider a schedule $\vec{a} \in \mathcal{A}_j$, then $a_l = 1$ indicates that link l transmits under schedule $\vec{a}$. Note that if $(a_1, \ldots, a_l, 1, \ldots, a_L)$ is a possible schedule, then so is $(a_1, \ldots, a_l, 0, \ldots, a_L)$. Define the sets $\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j = \{(a_1 F_j^1, \ldots, a_L F_j^L) : \vec{a} \in \mathcal{A}_j\}$ and $\mathcal{E}_j = \{(\gamma_1 F_j^1, \ldots, \gamma_L F_j^L) : 0 \le \gamma_i \le a_i \text{ for some } \vec{a} \in \mathcal{A}_j\}$.

C. Queueing

Each node maintains a separate queue for each flow. Let $X_i^k(t)$ denote the queue at node i for flow k, and let $E_l^k(C(t), \vec{X}(t))$ denote the units of data of flow k transmitted over link l in time-slot t. We also define $E_l(C(t), \vec{X}(t)) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_l} E_l^k(C(t), \vec{X}(t))$ to be the net amount of data transmitted over link l. Note that the vector $(E_1(j, \vec{X}(t)), \ldots, E_L(j, \vec{X}(t)))$ must belong to the set $\mathcal{E}_j$. The queues for flow k evolve as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
X^k_{n^k(1)}(t+1) &= X^k_{n^k(1)}(t) + A^k(t) - E^k_{l^k(1)}(C(t), \vec{X}(t)) \\
X^k_{n^k(i)}(t+1) &= X^k_{n^k(i)}(t) + E^k_{l^k(i-1)}(C(t), \vec{X}(t)) - \\
&\quad E^k_{l^k(i)}(C(t), \vec{X}(t)) \\
&\quad \text{for } i = 2, \ldots, D^k - 1 \\
X^k_{n^k(D^k)}(t) &= 0 \text{ for all time } t \\
X^k_n(t) &= 0 \text{ for all other nodes } n \text{ and all time } t
\end{aligned}$$

Here, we implicitly assume that $E_l^k(C(t), \vec{X}(t))$ cannot be larger than the available amount of data at the node $b(l)$.

III. Objective, Main Results and Intuition

A. Objective

The goal of a scheduling algorithm is to determine $E_l^k(C(t), \vec{X}(t))$ subject to fading and interference constraints. In this paper, we are interested in desiging a scheduling algorithm that minimizes the following queue-overflow probability:

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B\right], \tag{2}$$

where $X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)$ denotes the queue-length at the steady state. As we have discussed in the introduction, the quantity in (2) is closely related to the end-to-end delays.

Since it is very difficult to precisely characterize the probability of queue overflow (2) for the general network model that we consider, we use the large-deviations theory to study its asymptotic decay-rate as $B \to \infty$. Specifically, define

$$-I \triangleq \liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B} \log\left(\mathbf{P}\left[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0))}{\lambda^k} > B\right]\right),$$

$$-J \triangleq \limsup_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B} \log\left(\mathbf{P}\left[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0))}{\lambda^k} > B\right]\right).$$

The significance of studying these quantities lies in the following approximations:

$$\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}) > B] \le e^{-JB+o(B)}$$
$$\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}) > B] \ge e^{-IB+o(B)},$$

where $M(\vec{X}) \triangleq \max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)})}{\lambda^k}$, and I and J are upper and lower bounds, respectively, of the asymptotic decay rates.

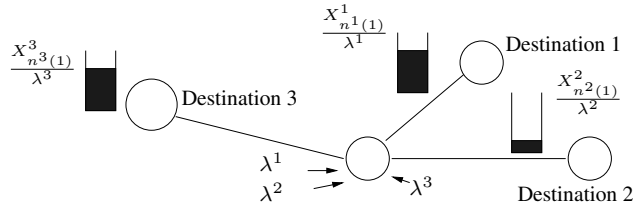

Fig. 1. Cellular downlink topology with multiple flows. The optimal algorithm gives preference to serving users with larger value of scaled aggregated queue-length. In this example users 1 and 3 are preferred over user 2.

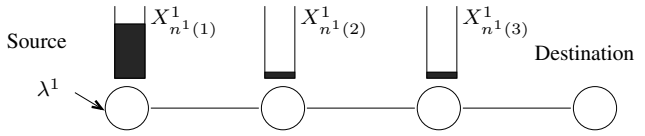

Fig. 2. Tandem topology with single flow. The optimal algorithm gives preference to serving links near the destination. Hence most of the buffering occurs at source node.

B. Two Structural Principles and The Class of $\alpha\beta$ Algorithms

In section IV-A, we will derive an upper bound on the best decay rate (I). By analyzing this upper bound, we obtain the two basic structural principles:

- Proposition 2 (in Section IV): Considering a tandem network with a single flow, the optimal algorithm should schedule links in such a way that links closer to the destination get preference in service. In other words, all buffering occurs as close to the source node as possible (see Figure 2). This result indicates the following structural principle:
  Principle 1: give preference to scheduling links closer to destination.
- Proposition 3 (in Section IV): Consider a cellular downlink topology where there is a single base station serving K cellular users. The optimal algorithm should schedule the user with the largest value of scaled queue backlog (i.e. $X^k_{n^k(1)}(t)/\lambda^k$) (see Figure 1). This result indicates the following structural principle:
  Principle 2: give preference to serving users with larger value of scaled aggregated queue-length.

Based on the observations above, we propose a class of scheduling algorithms (parametrized by α and β) called $\alpha\beta$-algorithms, which is similar to the back-pressure scheduling algorithm [1], but with different ways of defining link weights.

$\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm:

- For each flow k, we define $V^k(\vec{X}) = (\sum_{i=1}^{D^k}(X^k_{n^k(i)})^{(\alpha+1)})^{\frac{1}{\alpha+1}}$, and
  $$W^k_l(t) = \frac{(V^k(\vec{X}(t)))^{\beta-\alpha}}{(\lambda_k)^{\beta+1}}\left((X^k_{b(l)}(t))^\alpha - (X^k_{e(l)}(t))^\alpha\right).$$
  The $\alpha\beta$-algorithm assigns a weight $W_l(t)$ to link l such that
  $$W_l(t) = \max_{\{k\in\mathcal{K}_l\}} W^k_l(t).$$
- At each time slot, the $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm computes an activation vector $\vec{a}^* \in \mathcal{A}_{C(t)}$ such that the vector $\vec{e}^* \triangleq (a^*_1 F^1_{C(t)}, \ldots, a^*_L F^L_{C(t)})$ satisfies
  $$\sum_{l=1}^{L} W_l(t)e^*_l = \max_{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_{C(t)}} \sum_{l=1}^{L} W_l(t)e_l.$$
- If link $a^*_l = 1$, the scheduling algorithm activates link l and serves flow k^*_l with a rate $\min\{F^l_{C(t)}, X^{k^*_l}_{b(l)}(t)\}$, where the flow k^*_l satisfies
  $$W^{k^*_l}_l(t) = W_l(t).$$

Note that the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm minimizes the drift of the Lyapunov function $\left(\sum_{k=1}^K(\frac{V^k(\vec{X})}{\lambda^k})^{(\beta+1)}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}}$ in a fluid scaled sense (see Proposition 4). When $\alpha = 1$ and $\beta = 1$, the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm is equivalent to the back-pressure algorithm [1].

□

The behavior of the $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm:

- Consider a flow k in the network, and compare $W^k_l(t)$ over each hop l. Consider first the case when all $X^k_n(t) > 0$. Since $(V^k(\vec{X}(t)))^{\beta-\alpha}/(\lambda_k)^{\beta+1}$ is the same for all l, we denote the weight $W^k_l(t)$ to be
  $$W^k_l(t) = \kappa\left((X^k_{b(l)}(t))^\alpha - (X^k_{e(l)}(t))^\alpha\right).$$
  Note that the weight associated with the last link is
  $$W^k_{l^k(D^k-1)}(t) = \kappa(X^k_{n^k(D^k-1)}(t))^\alpha.$$
  In the scheduling step, the link with the larger value of $W^k_l(t)$ will have the preference to be activated. When $\alpha \to 0$, the weight of the last link $W^k_{l^k(D^k-1)}(t) = \kappa(X^k_{n^k(D^k-1)}(t))^\alpha$ will dominate the weights, $W^k_l(t)$, of all other links since
  $$\lim_{\alpha\to 0}\left((X^k_{b(l)}(t))^\alpha - (X^k_{e(l)}(t))^\alpha\right) = 0,$$
  for all links before the last hop, and
  $$\lim_{\alpha\to 0}(X^k_{n^k(D^k-1)}(t))^\alpha = 1.$$
  Hence, for $\alpha \to 0$, whenever the node $n^k(D^k-1)$ has packets to transmit, it will get preference to do so.
  Similarly, if $X^k_{n^k(D^k-1)} = 0$ and $X^k_{n^k(D^k-2)} > 0$, then the weight $W^k_{l^k(D^k-2)}(t)$ will dominate all the weights associated with other links, and node $n^k(D^k-2)$ will get preference in service.
  In summary, links closer to the destination get preference in service, so the $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm satisfies Principle 1.
- Now, consider a network where single-hop flows compete for a single multiaccess channel l (e.g., in the downlink of a cell). In this case, the link weight $W^k_l(t)$ simplifies to $(X^k_{n^k(1)}(t))^\beta$ (since the backlog at the destination node

is 0). The user with the largest value of $\frac{(X^k_{n^k(1)}(t))^\beta}{(\lambda^k)^{\beta+1}} F^{l^k(1)}_{C(t)}$ will be served. Equivalently, the user with the largest value of $\frac{X^k_{n^k(1)}(t)}{(\lambda^k)^{1+\frac{1}{\beta}}} (F^{l^k(1)}_{C(t)})^{\frac{1}{\beta}}$ will be served. When β is very large, the user with the largest value of $\frac{X^k_{n^k(1)}(t)}{\lambda^k}$ among the set of users with $F^{l^k(1)}_{C(t)} > 0$ will have the priority to be served.

In other words, the users with larger values of scaled backlogs will get preferences to be served, which satisfies Principle 2.

□

In Section IV, we will exploit large-deviations theory to analyze the performance of the class of $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithms, and show that this class of algorithms yield the optimal decay rate as $\alpha \to 0$ and $\beta \to \infty$. Letting $\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}$ represent the stationary probability under the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm, and $\mathbf{P}^\pi$ be the stationary probability under any scheduling algorithm π, we will prove the following result:

Main Result (Proposition 5): Considering the class of $\alpha\beta$-algorithms, we have

$$\lim_{\substack{\alpha\to 0\\ \beta\to\infty}} \limsup_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B]) \leq \liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B]),$$

which implies that by choosing α sufficiently small and β sufficiently large, the decay rate of

$$\mathbf{P}\left[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B\right]$$

for the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm can be made arbitrarily close to the optimal decay rate.

IV. Analysis

In this section, we will first derive an upper bound on the decay rate (I) achievable by any scheduling algorithm. Then, by studying the bound under some specific topologies, we will obtain the two structure principles (Principles 1 and 2) that lead to the $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm. Finally, we will prove that the class of $\alpha\beta$-algorithms is asymptotically optimal.

A. An upper bound on the decay-rate

We consider the optimization problem $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ defined in (3) below. The quantity f^k can be interpreted as the long term average rate at which data arrives for flow k, ϕ_j can be interpreted as the long term fraction of time-slots for which the channel is in state j, the quantity $\theta^k_{l,j}$ can be interpreted as the long term fraction of time that service is given to flow k over link l in channel state j, $\gamma_{\vec{e},j}$ can be interpreted as the long term fraction of time that the schedule $\vec{e}$ is used when channel state is j, and x^k_n is the average rate of growth of the backlog of flow k at node n.

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f}) \quad = \quad & \min_{\{x^k_{n^k(i)},\theta^k_{l^k(i),j},\gamma_{\vec{e},j}\}} \max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} x^k_{n^k(i)}}{\lambda^k}\right) \\
\text{subject to} \quad & x^k_{n^k(1)} = [f^k \\
& \qquad - \sum_{j=1}^{S} \phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j}\theta^k_{l^k(1),j} e_{l^k(1)}]^+ \\
& x^k_{n^k(i)} = [\sum_{j=1}^{S} \phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j}\theta^k_{l^k(i-1),j} e_{l^k(i-1)} \\
& \qquad - \sum_{j=1}^{S} \phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j}\theta^k_{l^k(i),j} e_{l^k(i)}]^+ \\
& \qquad \text{for } i = 2,\ldots,D^k-1 \\
& \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\mathcal{E}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} = 1, \ \sum_{\{k\in\mathcal{K}_l\}} \theta^k_{l,j} = 1 \\
& \gamma_{\vec{e},j} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \vec{e},\ j \\
& \theta^k_{l,j} \geq 0 \text{ for all } k,l,j. \qquad (3)
\end{aligned}$$

For any given $\vec{\phi}$ and $\vec{f}$, the solution to the optimization problem $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ is the optimal long term scheduling assignments $\theta^k_{l,j}$ and $\gamma_{\vec{e},j}$ such that the long term average rate of the growth of $M(\vec{X})$ (i.e. $\max_{k=1,\ldots,K}(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} x^k_{n^k(i)}}{\lambda^k})$) is minimized. Interpreting this in another way, $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ is a lower bound on the average rate of growth of $M(\vec{X})$ for any algorithm. If there exists an optimal algorithm that can attain this lower bound on the average rate of growth, then it must use the long-term scheduling assignment that corresponds to the solution of $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$. We will soon use this optimization problem to obtain basic insights about the behavior of this *optimal* algorithm.

Note that since $\vec{\lambda}$ is in the capacity region, if $\phi_j = p_j$ and $f^k = \lambda^k$ then the long term average rate of growth of queue backlogs will be zero for any *throughput-optimal* scheduling algorithm (such as the back-pressure algorithm). Hence it will be zero for the *optimal* algorithm. i.e. $\tilde{w}(\vec{p},\vec{\lambda}) = 0$. Therefore, to make $M(\vec{X})$ exceed a large value B, the long term average channel probability must be $\vec{\phi} \neq \vec{p}$ and/or $\vec{f} \neq \vec{\lambda}$. As is typical of large deviations results, this deviation from the norm is associated with a cost. The cost for $\vec{\phi}$ to deviate from $\vec{p}$ per unit time is given by the relative entropy function $H(\vec{\phi}||\vec{p}) = \sum_{j=1}^{S} \phi_j \log(\frac{\phi_j}{p_j})$. The cost for $\vec{f}$ to deviate from $\vec{\lambda}$ per unit time is given by $L(\vec{f}) \triangleq \sum_{k=1}^{K} L^k(f^k)$. Consider a time-scale of length $\frac{1}{\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})}$ over which the deviation from the norm is given by $\vec{\phi}$ and $\vec{f}$. Since $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ is the average rate of growth for the optimal algorithm, the system must overflow after the time period $\frac{1}{\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})}$ under all algorithms. Hence the corresponding cost, given by $\frac{1}{\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})}[H(\vec{\phi}||\vec{p}) + L(\vec{f})]$, provides an upper bound on the minimum cost to overflow for any algorithm. Minimizing this value over $\vec{\phi}$ and $\vec{f}$, we then obtain

the tightest upper bound given below. Please refer to [19] for a more technical and precise discussion.

Define

$$\tilde{\theta}_0 \quad = \quad \inf_{\{\vec{\phi},\vec{f}:\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})>0\}} \frac{1}{\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})}[H(\vec{\phi}||\vec{p}) + L(\vec{f})] \qquad (4)$$

Proposition 1: For any scheduling policy π, we have

$$\liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log \mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} \geq B] \geq -\tilde{\theta}_0$$

Proof: Due to space constraints we do not provide the proof. Please see [20] ∎

Proposition 1 shows that the decay rate I of any scheduling algorithm is less than $\tilde{\theta}_0$.

B. Insights into the behaviour of optimal algorithm

Let us use a heuristic interpretation of the optimization problem $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ to obtain insights into the behavior of the *optimal* algorithm. We will establish the two principles (Proposition 2) and (Proposition 3) by studying a single flow tandem network and a multiflow single-hop cellular downlink network.

1) Tandem topology (Figure 2): Consider a tandem topology with a single flow in the network, i.e., $K = 1$ and $L = D^1 - 1$. For simplicity, assume that at most one link can be activated in a time slot. The optimization problem $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ simplifies to $\tilde{w}_{\text{tandem}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$:

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{w}_{\text{tandem}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f}) \quad = \quad & \min_{\{x^1_{n^1(i)},\gamma_{\vec{e},j}\}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^1} x^1_{n^1(i)}}{\lambda^1} \qquad (5)\\
\text{subject to} \quad & x^1_{n^1(1)} = [f^1 - \sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} e_{l^1(1)}]^+\\
& x^1_{n^1(i)} = [\sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} e_{l^1(i-1)}\\
& \qquad - \sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} e_{l^1(i)}]^+\\
& \qquad \text{for } i = 2,\ldots,D^1-1\\
& \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\mathcal{E}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} = 1\\
& \gamma_{\vec{e},j} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \vec{e},\, j.
\end{aligned}$$

Proposition 2: One of the optimal solutions to the optimization problem $\tilde{w}_{\text{tandem}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ has the following property

$$\begin{aligned}
x^1_{n^1(i)} \quad &= \quad 0 \text{ for } i = 2,\ldots,D^k-1 \qquad (6)\\
x^1_{n^1(1)} \quad &\geq \quad 0
\end{aligned}$$

Proof: Since only one link can be active in a time slot, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j \quad = \quad & \{(0,\ldots,F^{l^1(i)}_j,\ldots,0):\ i = 1,\ldots,D^k-1\}\\
& \cup\{(0,\ldots,0)\}.
\end{aligned}$$

To prove this proposition it is sufficient to show that for any feasible assignment $x^1_{n^1(i)},\gamma_{\vec{e},j}$, there exists another assignment $\hat{x}^1_{n^1(i)},\hat{\gamma}_{\vec{e},j}$ that satisfies the condition (6) and is such that $\sum_{i=1}^{D^1}\hat{x}^1_{n^1(i)} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{D^1} x^1_{n^1(i)}$. (i.e. its objective function value (5) is no greater than the original assignment)

To show this, consider any $i \geq 2$ such that $x^1_{n^1(i)} > 0$. We can reduce the value of $\gamma_{(\ldots,F^{l^1(i-1)}_j,\ldots),j}$ and increase the value of $\gamma_{(0,\ldots,0),j}$, i.e., reducing the fraction of time spent on serving link $l^1(i-1)$. This will reduce the value of $\sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j\sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}}\gamma_{\vec{e},j}e_{l^1(i-1)}$ and

$$x^1_{n^1(i)} = [\sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j}e_{l^1(i-1)} - \sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j}e_{l^1(i)}]^+.$$

On the other hand, $x^1_{n^1(i-1)}$ may increase. If $x^1_{n^1(i-1)}$ increases, it will increase by at most the same amount by which $x^1_{n^1(i)}$ reduces as long as $x^1_{n^1(i)} > 0$. We can perform this operation until $x^1_{n^1(i)} = 0$. Hence, in this process, the sum $x^1_{n^1(i-1)} + x^1_{n^1(i)}$ either stays same or decreases.

Applying the above procedure starting from the node $n^1(D^1-1)$ and working backward to node $n^1(2)$, it is easy to see that there exists an assignment $\hat{\gamma}_{\vec{e},j}$ resulting in values $\hat{x}^1_{n^1(i)}; i = 1,\ldots,D^1$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^{D^1}\hat{x}^1_{n^1(i)} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{D^1} x^1_{n^1(i)}$ and $\hat{x}^1_{n^1(i)} = 0$ for $i = 2,\ldots,D^1-1$, which leads to the proposition. ∎

The significance of Proposition 2 is that it implies the scheduling algorithm should give preference to scheduling links that are closer to the destination node, and thus significant buffering occurs only at the source node.

2) Cellular topology (Figure 1): Consider a cellular downlink with a single base station and K users. The base station can communicate directly with the users. In this network, we have $L = K$ and $D^k = 2$ for $k = 1,\ldots,K$ and $n^1(1) = n^2(1) = \ldots = n^k(1)$. Due to wireless interference, we assume that only one user can be served in a timeslot. The optimization problem $\tilde{w}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ simplifies to $\tilde{w}_{\text{cellular}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$:

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{w}_{\text{cellular}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f}) \quad = \quad & \min_{\{x^k_{n^k(i)},\gamma_{\vec{e},j}\}} \max_{k=1,\ldots,K} (\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})\\
\text{subject to} \quad & x^k_{n^k(1)} = [f^k\\
& \qquad - \sum_{j=1}^{S}\phi_j \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} e_{l^k(1)}]^+\\
& \qquad \text{for } k = 1,\ldots,K\\
& \sum_{\{\vec{e}\in\mathcal{E}_j\}} \gamma_{\vec{e},j} = 1\\
& \gamma_{\vec{e},j} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \vec{e},\, j.
\end{aligned}$$

Since only one link can be activated in a time slot, we have

$$\hat{\mathcal{E}}_j = \{(0,\ldots,F^{l^k(1)}_j,\ldots,0):\ k = 1,\ldots,K\} \cup \{(0,\ldots,0)\}.$$

Proposition 3: One of the optimal solutions to the optimization problem $\tilde{w}_{\text{cellular}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ has the following property:

$\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} = 0$ for any user r such that $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} < \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$.

Proof: Assume that the optimal solution to $\tilde{w}_{\text{cellular}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ is such that there exists some user r such that $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} < \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$, $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} > 0$.

We will show that it is possible to maintain the value of $\max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$ while modifying $\gamma_{\vec{e}}$ in such a way that $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} = 0$ for any user r such that $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} < \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$. To achieve this, we reduce the value of $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j}$ and increase the value of $\gamma_{(0,...,0),j}$. In other words, we reduce the service given to user r, and increase the time that the scheduler spends idling. Due to this, $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r}$ will increase. This is done till we end up with either $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} = 0$ and $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} < \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$ or $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} \geq 0$ and $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} = \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$. Note that the value of $\max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$ is not affected by this procedure.

Therefore, there is an optimal solution that satisfies the property that $\gamma_{(...,F_j^{l^r(1)},...),j} = 0$ for any user r with $\frac{x^r_{n^r(1)}}{\lambda^r} < \max_{k=1,...,K}(\frac{x^k_{n^k(1)}}{\lambda^k})$. ∎

The significance of proposition 3 is that it tells us that the optimal value of $\tilde{w}_{\text{cellular}}(\vec{\phi},\vec{f})$ is achieved by serving the users with the largest average rate of growth of end-to-end backlog scaled by the average arrival rate. In other words, the optimal scheduling algorithm should give preference to those users with the largest ratio of end-to-end backlog to arrival rate.

C. Asymptotic optimality of the class of $\alpha\beta$-algorithms

Based on the two principles above, we propose the class of $\alpha\beta$ scheduling algorithms as described in Section III-B. We will use the Lyapunov-function-based large deviations approach developed in [19] to show that this class of algorithms is asymptotically optimal as $\alpha \to 0$ and $\beta \to \infty$.

Next, we first show that the $\alpha\beta$ algorithm is large deviations decay rate optimal for minimizing $\mathbf{P}[V(\vec{X}(0)) > B]$, where $V(\cdot)$ is a Lyapunov function defined to be:

$$V(\vec{X}) = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K}(\frac{V^k(\vec{X})}{\lambda^k})^{(\beta+1)}\right)^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}}. \quad (7)$$

We can show that the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm minimizes the drift of this Lyapunov function in a fluid-sample-path sense (see the proof of Proposition 4 in [20]).

Since $\lim_{\alpha\to 0,\beta\to\infty} V(\vec{X}) = \max_{k=1,...,K} \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)})}{\lambda^k}$, the function $V(\vec{X})$ can be viewed as an approximation of our objective function $M(\vec{X})$ with the parameters α and β controlling the degree of approximation.

Letting $\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}$ represent the stationary probability under the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm and $\mathbf{P}^{\pi}$ be the stationary probability under any scheduling algorithm π, we first have the following proposition.

Proposition 4: The quantity

$$\lim_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}[V(\vec{X}(0)) > B])$$

exists and for any scheduling policy π,

$$\lim_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}[V(\vec{X}(0)) > B]) \leq \liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[V(\vec{X}(0)) > B]).$$

Proof: It follows from our prior work [19] that a scheduling algorithm minimizing the drift of a Lyapunov function will maximize the decay rate of the probability that the Lyapunov function value exceeds a large threshold. Please refer to [20] for details. ∎

Now we proceed to show that the class of $\alpha\beta$-algorithms is asymptotically optimal in terms of the large deviations decay rate for the stationary probability $\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}(0)) > B]$.

Proposition 5: Considering the $\alpha\beta$-scheduling algorithm, we have

$$\lim_{\substack{\alpha\to 0\\ \beta\to\infty}} \limsup_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}[\max_{k=1,...,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B])$$

$$\leq \liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,...,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B]).$$

Proof: Using Proposition 4 and standard inequalities, it can be shown that

$$K^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}} N^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+1}} \times \limsup_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}[\max_{k=1,...,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B]) \leq \liminf_{B\to\infty} \frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,...,K} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k} X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k} > B])$$

from which the result follows. Please refer to [20] for details. ∎

V. Practical Scheduling algorithms with good delay performance

So far, we have seen that by choosing α sufficiently small and β sufficiently large, we can make the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm have a large deviations decay rate that is arbitrarily close to the optimal decay rate (Proposition 5). Note that large deviations behaviour deals with the regime of large buffer lengths. In this section, we will discuss how to design a hybrid algorithm that has the same large deviations decay rate performance of an $\alpha\beta$-algorithm while at the same time having a better performance in the regime of small buffer lengths. To achieve this goal, the hybrid algorithm emulates the behaviour of 1β-algorithm for small queue backlogs and the behaviour of $\alpha\beta$-algorithm for large queue backlogs.

Consider a three-node, two-link tandem network with one flow as shown in Fig. 3. Since there is only one flow, we will

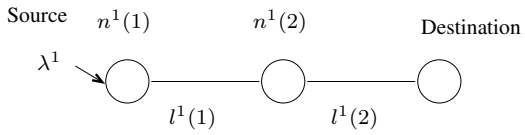

Fig. 3. Three node tandem topology

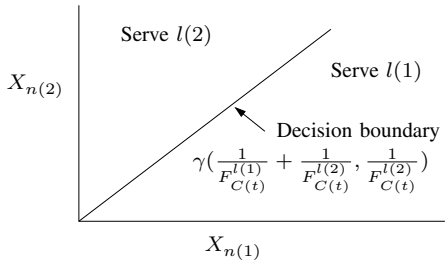

Fig. 4. State space plot for 1β-algorithm. γ is a parameter used to define the decision boundary.

simplify some of the notation by not specifying the flow (e.g. we will use $X_{n(i)}$ instead of $X^k_{n^k(i)}$). Due to interference, only one link can be served. The scheduler must decide whether to serve $l(1)$ or $l(2)$. Consider the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm. The state space (i.e. a plot of $X_{n(1)}$ vs. $X_{n(2)}$) is divided into two regions by the line specified by $((X_{n(1)})^\alpha-(X_{n(2)})^\alpha)F^{l(1)}_{C(t)} = (X_{n(2)})^\alpha F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}$ (see Fig. 5). If the state (i.e. the ordered pair $(X_{n(1)}, X_{n(2)})$) falls in the region above the line, link $l(2)$ will be served. If the state falls in the region below the line, $l(1)$ will be served. In either case, as a consequence of being served, the state will move towards the decision boundary. For 1β-algorithm, we obtain the state space shown in Fig. 4. For $\alpha\beta$-algorithm (with small α), we obtain the state space

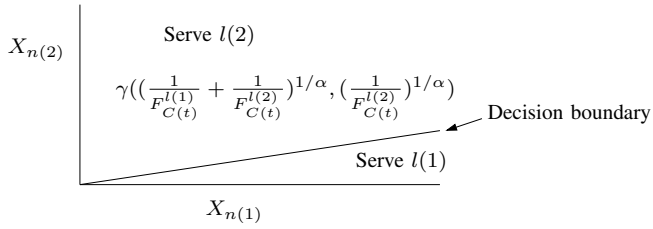

Fig. 5. State space plot for $\alpha\beta$-algorithm. γ is a parameter used to define the decision boundary.

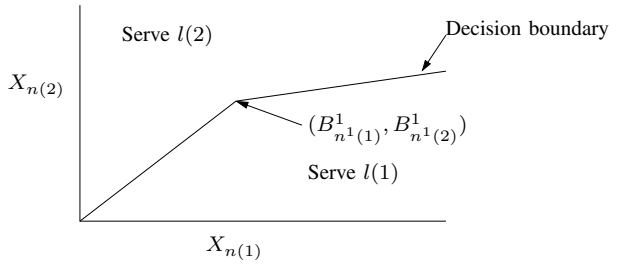

Fig. 6. State space plot for hybrid algorithm.

shown in Fig. 5. In the case of small α, because the decision line moves toward the x-axis, the state of the system tends to 'squeeze' out towards the right. Hence, for the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm (with small α), the state of the system tends to stay further away from the origin in comparison to the 1β-algorithm. This leads to larger values of $M(\vec{X}) = (X_{n(1)} + X_{n(2)})/\lambda$ (Note that this is not in contradiction to our theoretical result since our theoretical result is a result on the asymptotic rate of decay at large buffer levels).

To overcome this problem, we can construct a hybrid policy which behaves like 1β-algorithm for small buffer lengths and then switches to $\alpha\beta$-algorithm when the buffer lengths are larger. The state space for this hybrid policy is shown in Fig. 6. The decision boundary for the hybrid policy is composed of the decision boundaries shown in Fig. 4 and 5 with the point $(B^1_{n^1(1)}, B^1_{n^1(2)})$ being the point of 'concatenation'. The details of the hybrid algorithm are described next.

A. Hybrid algorithms

The hybrid algorithm uses the following function to assign weight to the links.

$$W_l(t) = \max_{\{k\in\mathcal{K}_l\}} (V^k(\vec{X}(t)))^{\beta-\alpha}[Z(X^k_{b(l)}(t)) - Z(X^k_{e(l)}(t))],$$

where for any flow k and i^{th} node in the path of flow k,

$$Z(X^k_{n^k(i)}) = \begin{cases} X^k_{n^k(i)} & \text{if } X^k_{n^k(i)} < B^k_{n^k(i)} \\ [(X^k_{n^k(i)} - B^k_{n^k(i)})^\alpha + B^k_{n^k(i)}] & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$B^k_{n^k(i)}$ are threshold values which are constants.

The motivation behind the function $Z(\cdot)$ is as follows. For now, let us assume that we know the values of $B^k_{n^k(i)}$. Since we want the hybrid to emulate 1β-algorithm for small values of backlog, we want $Z(X^k_{n^k(i)}) = X^k_{n^k(i)}$ when $X^k_{n^k(i)}$ is less than a certain threshold $B^k_{n^k(i)}$. Further, since we want to emulate $\alpha\beta$-algorithm with small value of α when the backlog is large, we want $Z(X^k_{n^k(i)}) = (X^k_{n^k(i)})^\alpha$ when $X^k_{n^k(i)} > B^k_{n^k(i)}$. However, a problem with these two choices is that the function $Z(X^k_{n^k(i)})$ is not continuous at $B^k_{n^k(i)}$. Hence we modify the value of $Z(X^k_{n^k(i)})$ for $X^k_{n^k(i)} > B^k_{n^k(i)}$ to $[(X^k_{n^k(i)} - B^k_{n^k(i)})^\alpha + B^k_{n^k(i)}]$.

Now we look at one way of choosing the values $B^k_{n^k(i)}$. Consider again the single flow tandem network of Fig. 3. From the definition of the hybrid policy, we see that when $X_{n(1)} > B^1_{n^1(1)}$ and $X_{n(2)} > B^1_{n^1(2)}$, the decision boundary is determined by the line

$$\begin{aligned}&\Big((X_{n(1)} - B^1_{n^1(1)})^\alpha + B^1_{n^1(1)} \\ &-(X_{n(2)} - B^1_{n^1(2)})^\alpha - B^1_{n^1(2)}\Big) F^{l(1)}_{C(t)} \\ &\qquad = \Big((X_{n(2)} - B^1_{n^1(2)})^\alpha + B^1_{n^1(2)}\Big) F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}.\end{aligned}$$

With some algebra, it can be shown that the line can be

expressed as

$$((\gamma(\frac{1}{F^{l(1)}_{C(t)}}+\frac{1}{F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}})-B^1_{n^1(1)})^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}+B^1_{n^1(1)}, \quad (8)$$
$$(\gamma(\frac{1}{F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}})-B^1_{n^1(2)})^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}+B^1_{n^1(2)})$$

using a parameter γ. Since we want the decision boundary of the hybrid policy to look like figure 6, the line (8) should be of the form $\hat{\gamma}((\frac{1}{F^{l(1)}_{C(t)}}+\frac{1}{F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}})^{\frac{1}{\alpha}},(\frac{1}{F^{l(2)}_{C(t)}})^{\frac{1}{\alpha}})+(K_1,K_2)$,where $\hat{\gamma}$ is a parameter and K_1 and K_2 are constants. This provides us with the following solution for $(B^1_{n^1(1)},B^1_{n^1(2)})$.

$$(B^1_{n^1(1)},B^1_{n^1(2)})=\kappa(1/F^{l(1)}_{C(t)}+1/F^{l(2)}_{C(t)},1/F^{l(2)}_{C(t)})$$

where κ is some constant. Generalizing this idea to a single flow tandem network with D^1 nodes, we obtain

$$(B^1_{n^1(1)},B^1_{n^1(2)},\ldots,B^1_{n^1(D^1-1)})$$
$$=\kappa(\sum_{i=1}^{D^1-1}\frac{1}{F^{l^1(i)}_{C(t)}},\sum_{i=2}^{D^1-1}\frac{1}{F^{l^1(i)}_{C(t)}},\ldots,\frac{1}{F^{l^1(D^1-1)}_{C(t)}})$$

Note that the threshold values $B^1_{n^1(i)}$ depend on the channel state $C(t)$. We impose an additional constraint that the sum of the thresholds should be constant, i.e. for any channel state, $\sum_{i=1}^{D^1-1}B^1_{n^1(i)}=B^*$. This gives us $\kappa=\frac{B^*}{\sum_{q=1}^{D^1-1}\sum_{p=q}^{D^1-1}\frac{1}{F^{l^1(p)}_{C(t)}}}$.

Extending this idea to our general system model, we obtain the following expression for $B^k_{n^k(i)}$

$$B^k_{n^k(i)}=B^*\frac{\sum_{p=i}^{D^k-1}\frac{1}{F^{l^k(p)}_{C(t)}}}{\sum_{q=1}^{D^k-1}\sum_{p=q}^{D^k-1}\frac{1}{F^{l^k(p)}_{C(t)}}}$$

where B^* is a user-defined parameter.

Since the values $B^k_{n^k(i)}$ are constants, the hybrid algorithm has the same large deviations behaviour as the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm. Formally speaking, we have the following result.

Proposition 6: Let $\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}_{\text{hyb}}$ denote the stationary probability for the hybrid policy with parameters α and β. Then,

$$\lim_{\substack{\alpha\to 0\\ \beta\to\infty}}\limsup_{B\to\infty}\frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}_{\text{hyb}}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k}X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k}>B])$$
$$\leq\liminf_{B\to\infty}\frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k}X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k}>B]).$$

Proof: Due to space constraints, we only highlight the main ideas of the proof. Similar to the proof of Proposition 4, we can show that the hybrid policy with parameters α,β minimizes the drift of the Lyapunov function $V(\vec{X})$ in a fluid-sample-path sense. This is because the behavior of an algorithm for fluid-sample-paths is determined by its behavior when queue lengths are large. Since the hybrid algorithm behaves like the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm when queue lengths are large, it has the same behavior as the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm as far as fluid-sample paths are concerned.

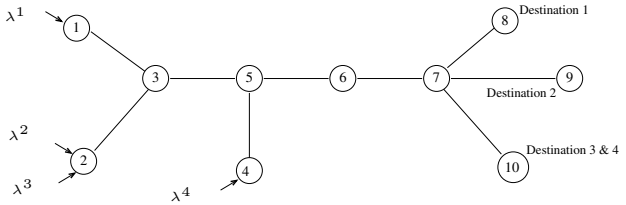

Fig. 7. System topology for simulation

Then, by using the arguments used in the proof of Proposition 5, we obtain

$$K^{\frac{1}{\beta+1}}N^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+1}}$$
$$\times\limsup_{B\to\infty}\frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\alpha\beta}_{\text{hyb}}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k}X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k}>B])$$
$$\leq\liminf_{B\to\infty}\frac{1}{B}\log(\mathbf{P}^{\pi}[\max_{k=1,\ldots,K}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{D^k}X^k_{n^k(i)}(0)}{\lambda^k}>B])$$

and hence the result. ■

VI. Simulation

For simulations, we consider the network shown in Fig. 7. The network consists of 10 nodes and 9 links. Due to fading, the capacity of each link takes the value 10 or 0 with a probability of 0.5. The fluctuations of the capacity are *i.i.d* over time and across links. In each time slot, due to interference only one link may be active. There are 4 flows traversing the network and data arrives at each flow according to a Bernoulli process. In each time slot, 1 unit of data arrives with a probability of 0.52 and no data arrives otherwise. The arrival process is i.i.d across flows. Flow 1 passes through nodes $1,3,5,6,7,8$. Flow 2 passes through nodes $2,3,5,6,7,9$. Flow 3 passes through nodes $2,3,5,6,7,10$ and flow 4 passes through nodes $4,5,6,7,10$. The quantity we are interested in is the stationary probability $\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}(0))>B])$ where $M(\vec{X})$ is given by

$$\frac{1}{0.52}\max\{(X^1_1+X^1_3+X^1_5+X^1_6+X^1_7+X^1_8),$$
$$(X^2_2+X^2_3+X^2_5+X^2_6+X^2_7+X^2_9),$$
$$(X^2_2+X^2_3+X^2_5+X^2_6+X^2_7+X^2_{10}),$$
$$(X^4_4+X^4_5+X^4_6+X^4_7+X^4_{10})\}$$

In Fig.8 we present plots of $\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}(0))>B])$ vs. B for the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm with four different choices for the pair of parameters α and β. We see that as expected from theory, $\alpha=1$, $\beta=10$ algorithm has a better performance than the $\alpha=1$, $\beta=1$ algorithm. However, as we decrease α, we see that $\alpha=0.5$, $\beta=10$ does worse than the $\alpha=1$, $\beta=10$ algorithm (but still marginally better than $\alpha=1$, $\beta=1$ algorithm). Further, $\alpha=0.3$, $\beta=10$ does much worse (although at much larger values of B (not shown), the decay rate will be better). In Fig.9 we compare the performance of the $\alpha=1$, $\beta=1$ algorithm, $\alpha=1$, $\beta=10$ algorithm, hybrid algorithm with

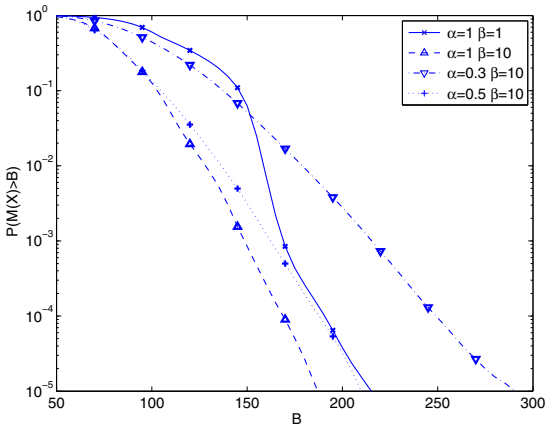

Fig. 8. Plot of $\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}(0)) > B])$ vs. B for $\alpha\beta$-algorithm for various values of α and β.

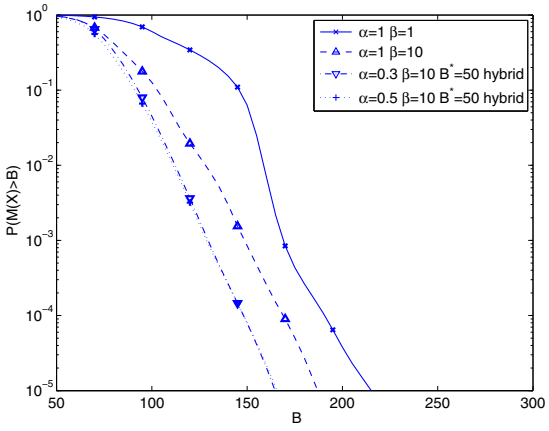

Fig. 9. Plot of $\mathbf{P}[M(\vec{X}(0)) > B])$ vs. B for $\alpha\beta$-algorithm and hybrid algorithm for various values of α and β.

$\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 10$, $B^* = 50$ and hybrid algorithm with $\alpha = 0.3$, $\beta = 10$, $B^* = 50$. The hybrid algorithms perform much better than either the $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 1$ or the $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 10$ algorithm. Also, both hybrid algorithms have similar performance which suggests that there is no advantage to decrease α further. Note that the $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 1$ algorithm is the same as the well known back-pressure scheduling algorithm [1]. Hence, our simulation results show that the hybrid algorithm (for the case of small α and large β) and the $\alpha\beta$-algorithm (for the case of large β) perform much better than backpressure algorithm.

VII. Conclusion

Using a large deviations framework, we obtain insights into the design of optimal algorithms for minimizing the end-to-end buffer usage in a multiflow multihop wireless network. We propose a class of algorithms (called $\alpha\beta$-algorithms) and variants (called hybrid $\alpha\beta$-algorithm) that can be made to perform arbitrarily close to optimal (in a large deviations sense) by reducing α and increasing β. Through simulations, we show that the class of hybrid algorithms has good performance in the small buffer regime as well. Our result is based on a very general system model and hence can provide insight in a wide range of scheduling scenarios.

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