An Integrated CAC and Routing Strategy for High-speed Large-scale Networks Using Cooperative Agents

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The routing algorithms can be classified into source, distributed and hierarchical routing. Source routing algorithms are conceptually simple, but they suffer from scalability problem. Distributed routing algorithms are more scalable, but loops may occur, which make the routing to fail. Hierarchical routing has been used to cope with the scalability problems of source routing in large internetworks. The hierarchical routing retains many advantages of source routing. It also has some advantages of distributed routing because the routing computation is shared by many nodes. To cope with high-speed networks, the traffic control methods must be adaptive, flexible, and intelligent. Use of intelligent algorithms based on fuzzy logic, genetic algorithms and neural networks can prove to be efficient for traffic control in high-speed networks. In this paper, we propose an integrated CAC and routing strategy using cooperative agents. The proposed routing algorithm is a combination of source and distributed routing. It uses source routing inside a domain and hop-by-hop routing for inter-domain. The proposed strategy is able to avoid flooding and routing loops, reduce the search space, and can be easily scaled-up to cope with large-scale networks.

1. Introduction

The routing strategies can be classified into three classes: source, distributed and hierarchical routing [1)∼6). Source routing algorithms are conceptually simple, easy to implement, debug, evaluate, upgrade, and can guarantee loop-free routes. But, in source routing algorithms, the global state maintained at every node has to be updated frequently to cope with dynamic changes in the network. This result in a high communication overhead for large-scale networks. Also due to the imprecision of the global state the routing algorithm may fail to find a feasible path [1)∼3).

Distributed routing algorithms are more scalable and the routing response time can be made shorter. But, it is difficult to design efficient distributed algorithms for NP-complete routing problems, because there is no detailed topology and link state information available. Also, in the distributed routing algorithms loops may occur, which make the routing to fail [2)∼4).

Hierarchical routing has been used to cope with the scalability problems of source routing in large internetworks. Hierarchical routing scales well because each node only maintains a partial global state where groups of nodes are aggregated into logical nodes. The hierarchical routing retains many advantages of source routing and has also some advantages of distributed routing. But, in the conventional hierarchical routing [5),6), because the network state is aggregate additional, some imprecision is introduced, which has a significant negative impact on Quality of Service (QoS) routing. Furthermore, the selection of peer group leader is difficult.

Routing algorithms for high-speed networks should have a fast decision and the routing decision should be made at source node in order to avoid computations at intermediate nodes. They should be distributed for purposes of reliability, have high throughputs, be scalable, be adaptive to network changes, and avoid the information flooding. Therefore, to cope with high-speed networks, traffic control methods must be adaptive, flexible and intelligent [10). Use of intelligent algorithms based on Fuzzy Logic (FL), Genetic Algorithms (GA) and Neural Networks (NN) can prove to be efficient for high-speed networks [7)∼11).

In this paper, we propose an integrated Call Admission Control (CAC) and routing strategy using cooperative agents. The proposed strategy is based on Distributed Artificial Intelligence (DAI) approach, which deals with design
of artificial agents to develop intelligent systems. We introduce two types of agents: simple and intelligent agents. The intelligent agents are based on FL and GA. After a CAC agent has decided to accept a connection in the network, a routing agent is activated to find a feasible path. The proposed routing algorithm is a combination of source and distributed routing. It uses source routing inside a domain and hop-by-hop routing for inter-domain. The proposed strategy is able to avoid flooding and routing loops, reduce the search space, and can be easily scaled-up to cope with large-scale networks.

The paper is organized as follows. Next Section gives a brief introduction of DAI approach. The proposed distributed network architecture is treated in Section 3. The Resource Management Agent (RMA) is introduced in Section 4. The Precomputation Agent (PA), which includes Search Space Reduction Agent (SSRA) and Tree Model Network Agent (TMNA), and Destination Discovery Agent (DDA) are treated in Section 5. The Routing Agent (RA) with its Intra Domain (IntraD) and Inter Domain (InterD) agents is discussed in Section 6. Some simulation results are discussed in Section 7. Future work is introduced in Section 8. Finally, conclusions are given in Section 9.

2. DAI Approach

The high-speed networks will have to manage an increasing usage demand, provide support for a significant number of services, guarantee their QoS, and optimize the utilization of network resources. The control in these networks becomes very complex and it seems imperative to focus on a new control perception that introduces intelligence, which can enable the network to perform adaptive behavior and to decompose the control to handle complexity while ensuring cooperation between different elements of control.

The term intelligence we use in the sense of control elements which have reasoning capacities, exhibit behavioral autonomy, and are able to interact and cooperate to achieve collective work. This is related to DAI which deals with design of artificial agents to develop intelligent systems\textsuperscript{12}). One of most important subfield of DAI is Multi-Agent System (MAS) paradigm, based on the idea that simple or complex activities are the outcome of interaction between relatively independent entities called agents. A MAS may then be defined as a set of agents that interact with each other and with the environment to solve a particular problem.

The term agent generally is defined as a physical or logical entity that has the following properties:

**Social Ability**—An agent is able to communicate with other agents. The agents may work toward a single global goal or separate individual goals.

**Autonomy**—Agents operate without the intervention of other agents. They can accept, or not, requests coming from other agents and have some kind of control over their actions and internal states.

**Reactivity**—Agents perceive their environment and respond in a timely fashion to change that may occur in it.

**Adaptability**—Agents are characterized by their flexibility, adaptation, and facility to set up their own goals based on their interests.

**Granularity Degrees**—Agents may have different degrees of complexity. They may be simple or complex. Simple agents are characterized by the lack of intelligence. More complex agents are called cognitive or intelligent agents.

3. Proposed Distributed Network Architecture

The proposed network architecture is a MAS. The agents are distributed and cooperate together. Each Domain Management Agent (DMA) has four agents: RMA, DDA, PA and RA. The DMA structure is shown in Fig. 1. The PA includes SSRA and TMNA. We call these two agents PA, because they make the computation before the RA is activated. The computation time starts when a new connection makes a request to the network. The RA has the IntraD and InterD agents. In fact, the InterD agent is a composition of IntraD agent and Connectivity Management Agent (CMA), which are activated by an escalation strategy. The distributed network architecture with DMAs is shown in Fig. 2. This architecture can be considered as a hierarchical architec-
ture, where in first level are domains and in the second level are DMAs. We have shown here only five domains. But, this architecture can be scaled-up easily by increasing the number of DMAs and domains in order to deal with the increasing users demands and number of switches.

4. RMA

The RMA performs CAC based on the traffic parameters and the connection QoS. The CAC decides to accept or reject a new connection. The decision is based on the following questions: does the new connection affect the QoS of the connections currently being carried by the network? can the network provide the QoS requested by the new connection?

A variety of different CAC schemes have been proposed. They are classified into the following groups: equivalent capacity; heavy traffic approximation; upper bounds of the cell loss probability; fast buffer/bandwidth allocation; and time windows $^{13}$). The CAC scheme based on equivalent capacity has better performance compared with other schemes. However, the equivalent capacity scheme makes many approximations, which result in an overestimate of equivalent capacity.

In order to make a more accurate decision for connection acceptance, we propose a fuzzy based CAC scheme, which we call Fuzzy Admission Control (FAC) scheme. The Fuzzy Logic Controller (FLC) is the main part of the FAC and its basic elements are shown in Fig. 3. They are the fuzzifier, inference engine, Fuzzy Rule Base (FRB) and defuzzifier. We use triangular and trapezoidal membership functions because they are suitable for real-time operation $^{15}$). They are shown in Fig. 4 and are given as:

$$f(x; x_0, a_0, a_1) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-x_0}{a_0} + 1 & \text{for } x_0 - a_0 < x \leq x_0 \\ \frac{x-x_0}{a_1} + 1 & \text{for } x_0 < x \leq x_0 + a_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$g(x; x_0, x_1, a_0, a_1) = \begin{cases} \frac{x-x_0}{a_0} + 1 & \text{for } x_0 - a_0 < x \leq x_0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x_0 < x \leq x_1 \\ \frac{x_1-x}{a_1} + 1 & \text{for } x_1 < x \leq x_1 + a_1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $x_0$ in $f(.)$ is the center of triangular function; $x_0(x_1)$ in $g(.)$ is the left (right) edge of trapezoidal function; and $a_0(a_1)$ is the left (right) width of the triangular or trapezoidal function.

The input linguistic parameters of FAC are Quality of service ($Qs$), Network congestion parameter ($Nc$), Available capacity ($Ac$), and user requirement parameter which is expressed by Equivalent capacity ($Ec$). The output linguistic parameter is the Acceptance decision ($Ad$). The membership functions for input and output linguistic parameters are shown in Fig. 5.

**Fig. 2** Distributed network architecture with DMAs.

**Fig. 3** FLC structure.

**Fig. 4** Triangular and trapezoidal membership functions.

**Fig. 5** FAC membership functions.
The small letters \( e \) and \( w \) in the membership functions means edge and width, respectively.

The term sets of \( Qs, Nc, Ac, \) and \( Ec \) are defined respectively as:

\[
T(Qs) = \{ \text{Satisfied, NotSatisfied} \} = \{ S, NS \};
\]

\[
T(Nc) = \{ \text{Negative, Positive} \} = \{ N, P \};
\]

\[
T(Ac) = \{ \text{NotEnough, Enough} \} = \{ NE, E \};
\]

\[
T(Ec) = \{ \text{small, medium, big} \} = \{ sm, me, bi \}.
\]

The membership functions for input parameters of FAC are defined as follows.

\[
\mu_S(Qs) = g(\log(Qs); 0, S_e, 0, S_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{NS}(Qs) = g(\log(Qs); Ns_c, 1, Ns_w, 0);
\]

\[
\mu_N(Nc) = g(Nc; -1, N_c, 0, N_w);
\]

\[
\mu_P(Nc) = g(Nc; P_e, 1, P_w, 0);
\]

\[
\mu_{NE}(Ac) = g(\log(Ac); 0, NE_c, 0, NE_w);
\]

\[
\mu_E(Ac) = g(\log(Ac); E_c, 1, E_w, 0);
\]

\[
\mu_{sm}(Ec) = g(\log(Ec); Abr, sm_e, 0, sm_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{me}(Ec) = f(\log(Ec); me_e, me_w, me_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{bi}(Ec) = g(\log(Ec); bi_e, Pr, bi_w, 0).
\]

The term set of the output linguistic parameter \( T(Ad) \) is defined as \{Reject, Weak Reject, Not Reject Not Accept, Weak Accept, Accept\}. We write for short as \{R, WR, NRA, WA, A\}. The membership functions for the output parameter \( Ad \) are defined as follows.

\[
\mu_R(Ad) = g(Ad; -1, R_e, 0, R_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{WR}(Ad) = f(Ad; WR_e, WR_w, 0, WR_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{NRA}(Ad) = f(Ad; NRA_e, NRA_w, 0, NRA_w);
\]

\[
\mu_{WA}(Ad) = f(Ad; WA_e, WA_w, 0, WA_w);
\]

\[
\mu_A(Ad) = g(Ad; A_e, 1, A_w, 0).
\]

The FRB forms a fuzzy set of dimensions \([T(Qs)] \times [T(Nc)] \times [T(Ac)] \times [T(Ec)]\), where \([T(x)]\) is the number of terms on \(T(x)\). The FRB1 shown in Table 1 has 24 rules. The control rules have the following form: IF “conditions” THEN “control action”. Statements on conditions go like “the \( Qs \) is satisfied” or “the \( Nc \) is congested”. Likewise, statements on control action might be “reject” or “accept”.

The FAC scheme is shown in Fig. 6. The information for FAC are given by Bandwidth Management Predictor (BMP); Congestion Information Indicator (CII); Quality of Service Indicator (QSI); and Equivalent Capacity Estimator (ECE). The BMP works in this way: if a connection is accepted, the connection bandwidth is subtracted from the available capacity of the network, otherwise, if a connection is released, the connection bandwidth is added to the available capacity of the network. The CII decides whether the network is or isn’t congested. The QSI determines whether allowing a new connection violates or not the QoS guarantee of the existing connections. In this work, we consider only simple indicators for congestion and QoS. However, in order to support multimedia application, in the future, we will build more complex congestion and QoS estimators.

The ECE estimates the connection \( Ec \). In Ref.14), in order to get the \( Ec \) of \( N \) identical On-Off traffic sources parameter \( \beta \) was approximated by one. But, the assumption of \( \beta \approx 1 \) ignores the effect of statistical multiplexing. In order to gain from statistical multiplexing of bursty connections, we propose a Fuzzy ECE (FECE).

The FECE predicts the \( Ec \) required for a new connection based on the traffic parameters Peak rate \( (Pr) \), Source utilization \( (Su) \), and Peak bit-rate duration \( (Pbd) \). The term sets of \( Pr, Su, \) and \( Pbd \) are defined respectively as:

\[
T(Pr) = \{ \text{Small, Medium, Large} \} = \{ S, M, L \};
\]

\[
T(Su) = \{ \text{Low, High} \} = \{ Lo, Hi \};
\]

\[
T(Pbd) = \{ \text{Short, Medium, Long} \} = \{ Sh, Me, Lg \}.
\]

The membership functions for input parameters of FECE are defined as follows.

\[
T(Qs) = \{ \text{Satisfied, NotSatisfied} \} = \{ S, NS \};
\]

\[
T(Nc) = \{ \text{Negative, Positive} \} = \{ N, P \};
\]

\[
T(Ac) = \{ \text{NotEnough, Enough} \} = \{ NE, E \};
\]

\[
T(Ec) = \{ \text{small, medium, big} \} = \{ sm, me, bi \}.
\]
The $Ec$ for a connection should fall between its $Pr$ and Average bit rate ($Abr$). Therefore, we divide the $Ec$ range into six membership functions. The term of $Ec$ is defined as $T(Ec) = \{E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E6\}$. The membership functions for the output parameter $Ec$ are defined as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
\mu_{E1}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E1c, 0, E1w_1) ; \\
\mu_{E2}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E2c, E2w_0, E2w_1) ; \\
\mu_{E3}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E3c, E3w_0, E3w_1) ; \\
\mu_{E4}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E4c, E4w_0, E4w_1) ; \\
\mu_{E5}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E5c, E5w_0, E5w_1) ; \\
\mu_{E6}(Ec) &= f(\log(Ec); E6c, E6w_0, 0) .
\end{align*}
$$

The membership functions for FECE are shown in Fig. 7 and the FRB is shown in Table 2.

In order to accommodate a wide variety of different traffic sources, we use the logarithmic function for some membership functions.

5. PA and DDA

5.1 SSRA

The flowchart of SSRA is shown in Fig. 8. The key element of SSRA is Effective Topology (ET) extraction. The ET extraction of a network is defined as the topology based on which a path is constructed for a connection.

In order to extract the ET, the network connectivity information, link and node metrics, and QoS requirement of the new connection are required. We use the $Ec$ predicted by FECE to specify the QoS demand of a new connection. In order to have a low overhead processing time, we consider the Available Bandwidth (AB) as the only link and node metrics. If a Link Available Bandwidth (LAB) or Node Available Bandwidth (NAB) is less than $Ec$ of a connection, this means that every path which passes via this link or node cannot satisfy the connection requirements.

First, the SSRA based on the required $Ec$
checks all links in the network whether their AB satisfies or not the $Ec$. If a LAB doesn’t satisfy the $Ec$ then the link is excluded from ET. Otherwise, the link is included in the ET and the next link is checked. The procedure is repeated until all links are finished. Next, the SSRA checks all nodes in the network, whether their AB satisfies the $Ec$ or not. If the NAB doesn’t satisfy the $Ec$ then the node is excluded from the ET. Otherwise, the node is included in the ET and the next node is checked. The procedure is repeated until all nodes are finished. Finally, after all links and nodes are checked, the network ET is constructed and the complete procedure is finished.

By using the SSRA, a network with many nodes and links will be reduced in a network with a small number of nodes and links. Thus, the proposed strategy is able to cope with more large-scale networks.

5.2 TMNA

After the execution of SSRA, the ET of the network is transformed in a tree model by TMNA. To explain this procedure, a small network with 8 nodes as shown in Fig. 9 is considered. Node A is the Source Node (SN) and node H is the Destination Node (DN). All paths are expressed by the tree model shown in Fig. 10. In the shaded areas are shown the same paths from node C to H. Therefore, we further reduce the tree network as shown in Fig. 11. The tree model constructed by TMNA is used by IntraD agent for intra-domain routing. In the reduced tree model, each tree junction is considered as a gene and the path is represented by the chromosome.

5.3 DDA

After a new connection is accepted, the RMA sends a request to the DDA. The DDA consults a table with node name entries to check whether SN and DN are in the same domain or not. If SN and DN are in the same domain, the DDA of the source domain activates the IntraD agent. Otherwise, if the SN and DN are in different domains, the InterD agent is activated.

6. RA

6.1 IntraD Agent

The IntraD agent is based on GA. A brief introduction of GA is given in following.

6.1.1 GA

GAs are search methods used to solve optimization problems. The GA mechanism is based on the interaction between individuals and the natural environment. GA comprises a set of individuals (population) and a set of biologically inspired operators (genetic operators). The individuals have genes which are the potential solutions for a problem. The genetic operators are crossover and mutation. GA generates a sequence of populations by using genetic operators among individuals. Only the most suited individuals in a population can survive and generate offsprings, thus transmitting their biological heredity to new generations [16].

GA operates through a simple cycle of four stages as shown in Fig. 12. Each cycle produces a new generation of possible solutions. At the first stage, an initial population is created as a starting point for the search. In the next stage, the fitness of each individual is evaluated with respect to the constraints imposed by the problem. Based on each individual’s fitness, a selection mechanism chooses “parents” for the crossover and mutation operators. The crossover operator takes two chromosomes and swaps part of their genetic information to produce new chromosomes. The mutation operator introduces new genetic structures in the population by randomly modifying some of genes.
helping the search algorithm to escape from local minima’s traps. The offsprings produced by the genetic manipulation process are the next populations to be evaluated. GA can replace either a whole population or its less fitted members only. The creation-evaluation-selection-manipulation cycle repeats until a satisfactory solution is found or the termination criterion is achieved.

6.1.2 IntraD Algorithm

The IntraD algorithm is a delay-constraint unicast source routing mechanism and is based on GA. The most important factor to achieve efficient genetic operations is gene coding. In the Genetic Load Balancing Routing (GLBR) algorithm, the genes are put in a chromosome in the same order the nodes are in a path, so the chromosomes have different sizes which result in complex crossover operation. Also, the GLBR algorithm may enter in routing loops. Furthermore, when the genetic operations are chosen randomly, the new offsprings of a population (paths) may not exist, as a result, the GLBR algorithm should check the validity of the searched path. If the searched path doesn’t exist, other genetic operations should be carried out in order to find a new path.

In order to simplify the genetic operations of GLBR, in the IntraD algorithm, the network is expressed by a tree network and the genes represent the tree junctions. A chromosome example is shown in Fig. 13. The genes in a chromosome have two states “active” and “inactive”. A gene is called “active” if the junction is in the path, otherwise the gene is in “inactive” state. The genetic operations are carried out in the “active” genes. Each gene includes information of the adjacent nodes. The paths are represented by chromosomes which have the same length. Therefore, the crossover operation becomes very easy. In GLBR algorithm, the interaction between the adjacent genes in a chromosome is necessary. On the other hand, in the IntraD algorithm this interaction is not necessary. So, the mutation operation becomes easy.

The IntraD algorithm selection operation uses both the ranking and elitist models. The ranking model ranks each individual by their fitness. The rank is decided based on the fitness and the probability is decided based on the rank. The individual fitness is based on the path delay time. If the delay time is small, the individual fitness is high. When the rank is high, the probability of individuals is high. In the elitist model, the individual which has the highest fitness value in a population is left intact in the next generation. Therefore, the best value is always kept and the routing algorithm can converge very fast to the desired delay time.

As the crossover method is used the single point crossover. The crossover point is selected in the same locus of two selected individuals. In the mutation operation the genes are chosen randomly in the range from zero up to mutation probability \(p_{mutation} \leq \frac{1}{l}\), where \(l\) is the chromosome length.

By using the tree model, the IntraD algorithm is able to avoid routing loops. Also, the searched path always exists, so the algorithm doesn’t need to check the validity of the searched path.

6.2 InterD Agent

After the DDA finds out that SN and DN are in different domains, the InterD agent is activated. The InterD agent is a composition of IntraD agent and CMA. It use an escalation strategy to make the inter-domain routing. By using the escalation strategy, the information exchange is needed only in domains where the selected path passes. Thus, the information flooding in all domains is not necessary and the network resources can be use efficiently. The InterD agent operates in the following way. After receiving a connection request, a node become a SN. The InterD agent finds a path inside the domain. The DN of the source domain starts the CMA. The CMA is a simple agent. It finds the best link by using a sorting algorithm based on the inter-domain links parameters. After the CMA decides the best link for connection, the DN of this link becomes a SN and the IntraD
agent is activated in the following domain. This procedure is escalated until the DN of the destination domain is found.

7. Simulation Results
In this section, we evaluate the performance behavior of FECE and IntraD algorithm. Additional work is in progress to evaluate the total performance of the proposed strategy.

7.1 Ec Estimation
Considering a two-state Markov source the expressions of Ec for exact value, flow approximation and stationary approximation are given in Ref. 14. Assuming a finite Buffer (B) size, the equations satisfied by the

\[ \epsilon = \beta \cdot \exp \left( \frac{B(Ec - Su \cdot Pr)}{Pbd(1 - Su)(Pr - Ec)Ec} \right) \]

where

\[ \beta = \frac{(Ec - Su \cdot Pr) + \epsilon \cdot Su(Pr - Ec)}{(1 - Su)Ec} \].

If the parameter \( \beta \) is approximated by 1, the Ec for a single connection is given by:

\[ \hat{Ec} \approx \frac{\alpha \cdot Pbd(1 - Su) Pr - B}{2\alpha \cdot Pbd(1 - Su)} + \sqrt{\left[ \alpha \cdot Pbd(1 - Su) Pr - B \right]^2 + 4B\alpha \cdot Pbd \cdot (1 - Su) Pr} \]

\[ \frac{2\alpha \cdot Pbd(1 - Su)}{2\alpha \cdot Pbd(1 - Su)} \]

where \( \alpha = \ln(1/\epsilon) \).

For multiple connections, when the input bit rate is characterized by a N-state Markov chain, the distribution of the buffer contents is of the following form:

\[ F(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i \Phi_i e^{Z_i B} \]

where \( Z_i \) and \( \Phi_i \) are, respectively, generalized eigenvalues and eigenvectors associated with the solution of the differential equation satisfied by the stationary probabilities of the system, and \( a_i \) are coefficients determined from boundary conditions.

The exact value of the Ec for single and multiple connections are calculated by iteratively solving Eqs. (2) and (4). But, this calculation, although exact, is complicated and is not compatible with a dynamic and real-time environment 14).

The \( \hat{Ec} \) for multiple connections using flow approximation is calculated by:

\[ \hat{Ec}(F) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \hat{Ec}_i \]

where \( \hat{Ec}_i \) are determined from Eq. (3).

In the flow approximation the parameter \( \beta \) is considered 1. This approximation can do a good evaluation in the case when either Number \( (Nr) \) of connections is small of the actual total Ec is close to overall Abr. In other cases, this approximation results in an overestimate of Ec.

When Nr connections with relatively long burst periods are multiplexed, a reasonably accurate estimate of the required Ec can be obtained from the stationary approximation. The value of the Ec can be expressed as:

\[ Ec(S) \approx Abr + \hat{\alpha} \sigma \]

where \( Abr \) is the average aggregate bit rate \( Abr = \sum_{i=1}^{N} Abr_i \); \( \hat{\alpha} \) is \( \sqrt{-2 \ln(\epsilon) - \ln(2\pi)} \), and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation of the aggregate bit rate \( \sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_i^2 \).

The stationary approximation gives a substantial overestimate of the Ec because it ignores the effect of the buffer.

The parameter values of input membership functions for FECE are assigned as follows. For \( Pr, S_e = -3, S_w = 1, M_e = -2, M_w0 = M_w1 = 1, L_e = -1, L_w = 1, Pr_{\min} = 10^{-4} \), \( Pr_{\max} = 1 \); for \( Su, L_o = 0.6, L_o = 0.15 \), \( Hi_e = 0.75, Hi_w = 0.15 \); for \( Pbd, Sh_e = -3, Sh_w = 1, Me_e = -2, Me_w0 = Me_w1 = 1 \), \( L_g_e = -1, L_g_w = 1 \), \( Pbd_{\min} = 10^{-9} \), \( Pbd_{\max} = 100s \).

The parameter values of output membership functions for FECE are assigned as follows. The value of Ec1 is set equal to Abr and the value of Ec6 is set equal to Pr. The other values are calculated based on the following equation:

\[ C_{i,c} = C_{i-1,c} + (Pr - Abr)/5 \]

where \( i = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 \).

Considering the same parameters for the four methods: \( Pr = 10 \text{Mb/s}, Pbd = 0.02s \), the probability of overflow \( 10^{-5} \), the characteristic of the required equivalent capacity versus source utilization for the number of connections \( Nr = 50 \) is shown in Fig. 14. The required Ec calculated by FECE is very close to the exact value. For bursty traffic sources when the sources have a low utilization, the flow approximation hasn’t a good Ec accuracy. But, for traffic sources with high source utilization, the flow approximation has a good Ec estimation. On the other hand, the stationary approximation has a good Ec accuracy for low source uti-
7.2 Routing Algorithms Performance

In order to make the comparison with Ref. 7), we consider that, the network used for simulation in Fig. 15 is the ET extracted by SSRA. In Ref. 7) is shown a comparison performance between the GLBR, SPF and RIP algorithms. The GLBR algorithm has a better behavior compared with SPF and RIP algorithms. Therefore, in following, we compare the performance of IntraD algorithm with GLBR algorithm.

To compare both algorithms, the first population is selected the same. After the congestion situation happens in path currently in use, the IntraD and GLBR algorithms search for a new path in order to avoid the congested path. The genetic operations are repeated until the path with smallest delay is found or the initialized generation size is achieved. The parameters used in simulations are shown in Table 3. Based on the data obtained from the IntraD and GLBR algorithms, the characteristics of delay time versus simulation step are depicted.

The IntraD and GLBR algorithms are compared for different population sizes, crossover rates and mutation rates, but for the sake of space, we have shown in Table 4 only the simulation data for population sizes 10 and 20. The mutation rate changes from 1% to 20% and the crossover rate changes from 70% to 100%. The values inside the table show the search rate when both algorithms find the shortest path. In all simulations, the IntraD algorithm finds the shortest path faster than the GLBR algorithm.

For the population size 5, the search rate was high. This means that number of genetic operations to find the shortest path increases. For the population size 10, the result was improved, and when the population size was 20 the result was improved much more. However, when the population size was 30, both algorithms could not achieve an efficient search, because the genetic operations become very complex. We conclude that, the best population size is 20. The decision of the best population size is a trade-off between diverse constrains. If the population size is small, the algorithms converge fast to a local minima, but the algorithms may give not the best response. Otherwise, if the population size is big, the algorithms need time to carry out the genetic operations. The change of crossover rate doesn’t have too much effect on the results of algorithms. On the other hand, the change of mutation rate has a great effect in the algorithms performance. If the mutation rate is small, the created population types are limited. Otherwise, if the mutation rate is big, the delay time doesn’t decrease. Therefore, the algorithms need time to find the shortest path. We conclude that a mutation rate of about 10% is a good mutation rate.

Figure 16 shows the characteristics of delay time versus simulation step for the IntraD and GLBR algorithms. The simulation step con-
Table 4  Search rate (%) of the IntraD and GLBR algorithms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mutation rate</th>
<th>crossover rate 70%</th>
<th>crossover rate 80%</th>
<th>crossover rate 90%</th>
<th>crossover rate 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IntraD</td>
<td>GLBR</td>
<td>IntraD</td>
<td>GLBR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>54.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5%</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>27.7</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>41.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

population size 20

<table>
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<tr>
<th>mutation rate</th>
<th>crossover rate 70%</th>
<th>crossover rate 80%</th>
<th>crossover rate 90%</th>
<th>crossover rate 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IntraD</td>
<td>GLBR</td>
<td>IntraD</td>
<td>GLBR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1%</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5%</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20%</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 16  Performance comparison of IntraD and GLBR algorithms.

Table 5 shows a comparison between two algorithms for different Generation Number (GN). The labels inside the table are obtained in the points where the delay time has changed. The labels I2–I5 are for IntraD algorithm and labels G2–G6 are for GLBR algorithm. In labels I1 and G1 the GN is zero. These points are the points where both algorithms start the search. The search results are shown up to the rank number 7. The IntraD algorithm has achieved the rank number 7 after 7 generations. The selected route is “ABDCEHNLNST”. While in this stage, the GLBR algorithm is in the route “ABDHLNMPQRST” and the rank number is 36. The GLBR algorithm needs 24 generations for the rank number 7.

The InterD agent uses an escalation strategy for routing. The total time needed to find a feasible path is an additive function and depends on the number of domains and the speed of interdomain links. Considering very high-speed interdomain links, the total time to find a path will be approximately equal with the sum of IntraD algorithms execution time.

8. Future Work

The authors are planing to extend the proposed strategy in the following directions.

Parallel GA Implementation of IntraD Agent—We intend to implement the IntraD agent in a parallel GA architectures\(^{17,18}\). By implementing the IntraD agent in a parallel GA, the proposed strategy can be a good candidate for high-speed large-scale networks.

Load Distribution—We considered the routing problem only for the case when a congestion or failure situation happens in the route currently in use. We plan to extend the study for distribution of the load in different routes.

Multimedia Application—The proposed routing algorithm is an unicast delay-constrained algorithm, which uses the delay as the only QoS constrain. For multimedia application, we plan to develop the proposed strategy to find a path which satisfies multiple QoS constraints such as bandwidth, delay and loss probability.

9. Conclusions

In this paper, we proposed an integrated CAC and routing strategy using cooperative agents. The proposed strategy have the following characteristics.
Table 5  Comparison for different GN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GN</th>
<th>IntraD</th>
<th>GLBR</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Label</td>
<td>Route</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I2</td>
<td>ABDCEHLNMPOQRST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I3</td>
<td>ABDHLKMPQOQRST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I4</td>
<td>ABDHLKMPQOQRST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I5</td>
<td>ABDCEHLNMPOQRST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Integration of CAC and Routing—The proposed strategy integrates CAC and routing.
Combination of Source and Distributed Routing—The proposed routing algorithm is a combination of source and distributed routing. It uses source routing inside a domain and hop-by-hop routing for inter-domain.
Reduction of Search Space—By using SSRA, the proposed strategy is able to reduce the search space and give a fast decision.
Adaptive, Flexible and Intelligent—In order to be adaptive flexible and intelligent, the proposed strategy is based on DAI approach.
Avoid Flooding—In order to avoid flooding, the InterD agent uses an escalation strategy which transmits the information only to domains in which the routing path passes.
Avoid Rooting Loops—By using TMNA, the proposed strategy is able to avoid the rooting loops.
Is Scalable—The proposed strategy can be scaled-up very easily by increasing the number of domains and agents.

We carried out some simulations to evaluate the performance of the FECE and IntraD algorithm. From the simulation result, we conclude:
- the FECE has a good $Ec$ estimation compared with conventional methods;
- combination of FECE and stationary approximation will result in a more accurate estimation of $Ec$;
- the IntraD algorithm has a better performance compared with GLBR algorithm;
- the IntraD algorithm uses a novel gene coding method, therefore has an efficient search;
- the GLBR genetic operations are more complex than the IntraD algorithm operations.

References

(Received April 1, 2000) (Accepted October 6, 2000)

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