USER GUIDANCE OF RESOURCE-ADAPTIVE SYSTEMS

João Pedro Sousa  
Computer Science Department, George Mason University, 4400 University Drive, Fairfax VA, USA  
jpsousa@cs.gmu.edu

Rajesh Krishna Balan  
School of information Systems, Singapore Management University, 80 Stamford Road, Singapore  
rajesh@smu.edu.sg

Vahe Poladian, David Garlan, Mahadev Satyanarayanan  
Computer Science Department, Carnegie Mellon University, 5000 Forbes Avenue, Pittsburgh PA, USA  
{poladian | garlan | satya}@cs.cmu.edu

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Abstract:  This paper presents a framework for engineering resource-adaptive software systems targeted at small mobile devices. The proposed framework empowers users to control tradeoffs among a rich set of service-specific aspects of quality of service. After motivating the problem, the paper proposes a model for capturing user preferences with respect to quality of service, and illustrates prototype user interfaces to elicit such models. The paper then describes the extensions and integration work made to accommodate the proposed framework on top of an existing software infrastructure for ubiquitous computing.

The research question addressed here is the feasibility of coordinating resource allocation and adaptation policies in a way that end-users can understand and control in real time. The evaluation covered both systems and the usability perspectives, the latter by means of a user study. The contributions of this work are: first, a set of design guidelines for resource-adaptive systems, including APIs for integrating new applications; second, a concrete infrastructure that implements the guidelines. And third, a way to model quality of service tradeoffs based on utility theory, which our research indicates end-users with diverse backgrounds are able to leverage for guiding the adaptive behaviors towards activity-specific quality goals.

1 INTRODUCTION

Sophisticated software is increasingly being deployed on small mobile devices, taking advantage of their growing capabilities and popularity. Media streaming is already found frequently in PDAs and high-end cell phones. Soon, applications such as speech recognition, natural language translation, and virtual/augmented reality may leap from research prototypes to widespread commercial use.

While software has enjoyed plentiful and stable resources in the world of desktops (and to some extent, of laptops,) resource variation needs to be taken into account in smaller devices. Despite the impressive capabilities of today’s mobile devices, user expectations with respect to performance and sophistication will continue to be set by the full-size versions running on powerful desktops and servers.

Research in resource-adaptive applications takes an important step towards addressing resource limitation and variation (De Lara, Wallach, & Zwaenepoel, 2001; Flinn & Satyanarayanan, 1999; Yuan, Nahrstedt, Adve, Jones, & Kravets, 2006).

However, existing solutions either enforce predetermined policies, or offer limited mechanisms to control the application’s policies. In some cases, the adaptation mechanisms focus strictly on network conditions, enforcing policies that are established by system designers before the system is deployed. In other cases, users are offered limited control over the policies, typically focusing on a single aspect of quality of service, such as battery duration.

Unfortunately, those limitations prevent adaptive systems from addressing two important issues. First, user goals often entail tradeoffs among different aspects of quality. For example, in the presence of limited bandwidth, should a web browser skip loading pictures in order to provide faster load
times? For browsing restaurant listings, a user may prefer dropping images to improve load times; but for browsing online driving directions, the user may be willing to wait longer for the full page content.

Second, user activities may involve more than one application, making it desirable to coordinate resource usage and adaptation policies across applications. For example, an activity that involves simultaneous video streaming and downloading email attachments may be best served when video streaming consistently uses 80% of the bandwidth and email does not attempt to go beyond 20%.

This paper presents a framework for engineering resource-adaptive systems that: (a) empower users to control tradeoffs among a rich set of aspects of quality, and (b) coordinate resource usage among several applications. To develop such a framework, important questions need to be answered: how to represent user preferences in a way that can be used to guide adaptation policies? How to elicit such preferences? How to allocate resources among applications, and how to coordinate their policies? What APIs must applications expose to be amenable to such coordination?

In the remainder of this paper, Section 2 proposes a model for capturing user preferences with respect to quality of service, and illustrates prototype user interfaces to elicit such models. The implementation of the proposed framework builds on an existing infrastructure for ubiquitous computing (Garlan, Siewiorek, Smailagic, & Steenkiste, 2002), which is summarized in Section 3.

Section 4 describes the extensions and integration work we made to accommodate the proposed framework on top of the existing infrastructure. Specifically, these extensions include: (a) interaction protocols for coordinating resource allocation and adaptation policies; and (b) guidelines for the integration of adaptive applications into the proposed framework.

Section 5 summarizes the evaluation of the proposed solution from a systems perspective, and describes a preliminary evaluation of usability, by means of a user study. The results of the study indicate that end-users with diverse backgrounds can understand and use the proposed models of quality of service to control the adaptive behavior of applications towards specific goals.

Section 6 discusses related work, and Section 7 summarizes the main points of this paper.

2 USER PREFERENCES

Any adaptation or optimization process is guided by a goal. In the case of adapting to resources in small mobile devices, the goal is to optimize the quality of service (QoS) perceived by the user. Work in this area frequently addresses conserving resources, such as battery charge, but that is just one way to optimize for service duration, an aspect of QoS.

The conceptual framework that we adopt takes into account that:

1. Users may care about tradeoffs between different aspects of QoS; e.g., latency vs. accuracy.
2. Different services may be characterized by different aspects of QoS. For example, for web browsing, users may care about load times and whether the full content is loaded (e.g., pictures); for automatic translation, users may care about the response time and accuracy of translation; for watching a movie, users may care about the frame rate and image quality.
3. User preferences for the same service may depend on the user’s activity. For example, a user may prefer high frame rate over image quality for watching a sports event over a network connection with limited bandwidth, but might prefer the opposite for watching a show on sculpture.

A simple approach to modeling user preferences is to indicate which aspect of QoS a user values the most. For example, for automatic translation, the user might indicate that response time is preferred over accuracy, and the system could then adopt a policy that optimizes response time.

However, important questions cannot be answered with this approach: for instance, how short of a response time will satiate the user? And even if accuracy is less important, what if it degrades so much that the translations become unusable?

At the other end of the spectrum, preferences may be expressed as an arbitrary function between the multivariate quality space and a utility space representing user happiness. For instance, the user might indicate that he would be happy with medium translation accuracy, as long as latency remains under 1 second, and that he will be happy to wait 5 seconds for highly accurate translations. Although fully expressive, designing mechanisms to elicit this form of preferences from end-users is a hard problem, and even more so if more than two aspects of QoS are involved.

The model we propose sits between these two extremes. User preferences are expressed as independent utility functions for each aspect, or dimension, of QoS. Such functions map the possible quality levels in the dimension to a normalized utility space $U \subseteq [0,1]$, where the user is happy with utility values close to 1, and unhappy with utility values close to zero.

For each continuous QoS dimension the user indicates two values: the thresholds of satiation and of starvation. For example, the user might be happy
with response times anywhere under 3 seconds, but may not accept response times over 20 seconds. This is illustrated in Figure 1b, where the thresholds of satiation and starvation are represented by the green (lighter) and red (darker) lines, respectively. Currently, we use sigmoid functions to smoothly interpolate between these two zones, the thresholds marking the knees of the sigmoid. The utility corresponding to each value of latency is indicated by the scale at the top, ranging from a happy face for values below the satiation threshold, all the way down to a cross, representing rejection, for values beyond the starvation threshold.

Preferences for discrete QoS dimensions are represented using a discrete mapping to the utility space. Figure 1c shows an example where a table indicates the utility of each level of accuracy.

The functions for each aspect of QoS are then combined by multiplication, which corresponds to an and semantics: a user is happy with the overall result only if he is happy with the quality along each and every dimension. Whenever a user task involves more than one service, the overall utility combines the QoS dimensions for all the services.

The relative importance of each aspect, modeled as a weight in [0,1], is factored into the combined utility. For example, for two aspects \( a \) and \( b \), the combined utility function is \( u_a u_b \). These weights take the value 1 by default, but may be altered using the slider bars on the right side in Figure 1a-c.

To make it easier to use this model, we include the notion of preference templates. This decision is based on the principle of offering incremental benefit for incremental effort, also known as gentle slope systems (Myers, Smith, & Horn, 1992). Figure 1a shows an example with two templates, fast and accurate. If a template is selected, the associated preferences are shown. In case a user wishes to fine-tune these preferences, he may do so after selecting the custom checkbox (Figure 1b-c).

### 3 ARCHITECTURE BASELINE

The models of preferred QoS tradeoffs described in Section 2 can be leveraged using two alternative architectural strategies. Either individual applications are responsible for capturing and managing the models, or the features required to do so are factored out into a common infrastructure.

The latter approach has significant advantages in terms of reuse. In addition to promoting the reuse (avoiding replication) of code to support those features across applications, there is also the reuse of the knowledge about user preferences. For example, once the preferred QoS tradeoffs for watching a specific video stream are elicited from the user, that knowledge resides with the infrastructure and can be passed to the streaming application running on the device that happens to be convenient to the user at each moment: a cell phone, a laptop, etc.

Therefore, the architectural strategy we adopted is to define a software infrastructure that: (a) captures models of QoS tradeoffs, (b) coordinates the resource usage across the applications supporting the user’s activity, if more than one is involved, and (c) enables those applications to dynamically adjust their adaptation policies based on the QoS models.

Rather than building such an infrastructure from scratch, we extended an existing infrastructure developed at Carnegie Mellon’s Project Aura, which targets user mobility in ubiquitous computing environments (Sousa, 2005). The remainder of this section summarizes the Aura infrastructure, as well as an existing library for resource adaptation, Chroma, also related to Project Aura (Balan, Gergle, Satyanarayanan, & Herbsleb, 2005).

Aura supports a high-level notion of user activities, such as preparing presentations or writing film reviews. Such tasks may involve several services. For instance, for preparing a presentation,
a user may edit slides, refer to a couple of papers on the topic, check previous related presentations, and browse the web for new developments.

Figure 2 shows a component and connector view of the Aura infrastructure. The Prism component captures and maintains models of user activities. Specifically, each model enumerates the services required to support the activity, how those services are interconnected, if at all, preferences with the respect to the kinds of applications to provide each service (e.g., Emacs as opposed to vi for editing text,) and service-specific settings.

The Environment Manager (EM) component keeps track of the availability of services within an environment. An environment in Aura refers to the set of devices, software components and other resources accessible to a user at a particular location. Whenever a user indicates that he or she wishes to start or resume an activity, Prism communicates the corresponding activity model to the EM using the service request protocol (SRP), and the two components negotiate the configuration that best supports the user’s needs and preferences. Once an agreement is reached, the EM communicates with the applications using the service announcement and activation protocol (SAAP) to activate the services and make the required interconnections, if any. After that it passes a model of the concrete configuration up to Prism (SRP). Prism uses this model to communicate with the applications using the service use protocol (SUP) and recover the preferred settings for the activity; for example, the point at which the user was previously watching a video.

The Aura connectors (SAAP, SRP, and SUP), support the asynchronous exchange of XML messages over TCP/IP. These are peer-to-peer protocols, where each component may initiate communication, as needed.

Chroma enables conventional applications to be enhanced for adaptation, provided the applications can carry out their operations using different tactics. For example, a speech recognizer may have more costly algorithms that deliver better results, or simpler algorithms that demand fewer resources. Additionally, Chroma supports the partitioning of applications, shipping and running heavy computations in remote servers when the available resources, such as bandwidth, favor that option.

Chroma includes generic, application-independent parts: a Solver, a resource demand predictor, and a number of resource monitors. The latter include history-based monitors of available bandwidth, battery charge, CPU and memory, both on the local device and on remote servers (Narayanan, Flinn, & Satyanarayanan, 2000). The resource demand predictor forecasts the resource demand of each tactic based on historical averages of actual demand.

The Solver determines the tactic with the highest utility, given the available resources, by exhaustive evaluation of all the tactics defined for the application. The Solver is invoked by the application before carrying out each unit of work; for example, before recognizing each utterance, in the case of speech recognition, or before rendering each frame, in the case of virtual reality applications.

Figure 3 shows these parts and their interactions: the thin arrows within Chroma represent information flow as a result of method calls.

4 IMPLEMENTATION

The research in this paper involved extending the Prism and EM components in Aura, as well as integrating Chroma with the Aura protocols and with the QoS models described in Section 2.

The Aura protocols were also extended to include the flow of QoS models to the EM, over the SRP, and to Chroma, over the SUP; as well as the flow of resource information between the EM and Chroma, over the SAAP. These flows are represented as thicker arrows in Figure 3, corresponding to the protocols in Figure 2.

Prism is now in charge of capturing and disseminating QoS models. Figure 1 illustrates the interfaces for elicitng user preferences for a service with two aspects of QoS: latency (response time) and accuracy. These models are disseminated to other components in the format illustrated in Figure 6. The use of XML as opposed to language-specific data structures makes the models easier to exchange.
between components written in different languages. Prism creates user interfaces like the one in Figure 1 dynamically, based on the QoS dimensions and values in the XML representation of a model.

The EM is now in charge of determining and disseminating the optimal resource allocations among the applications supporting the user’s activity. Figure 6 shows an example of resource constraints that the EM may send to one application via the SAAP. To determine those, the EM receives (a) resource profiles via the SAAP, Figure 6, relating the quality levels that each application can operate at with the corresponding resource demands. (b) QoS models via the SRP, Figure 6; and (c) forecasts of resource availability, which, unlike fine-grained forecasts for adaptive applications, contain averages over a large number of historical samples. Optimal allocation uses an efficient optimization algorithm, which was published as a separate research result (Poladian, Sousa, Garlan, & Shaw, 2004).

Chroma is in charge of supporting the adaptation policies within each application. Architecturally, adaptive applications are built on top of the Chroma library, and there is one instance of Chroma, customized with application-specific tactics, deployed with each application. Integrating such applications involved wrapping them to mediate between the Aura protocols and the Chroma APIs. Since Chroma expects a generic utility function for the Solver, plugging in a function that interprets the QoS models passed via the SUP (Figure 6) was fairly straightforward.

### 5 EVALUATION

The proposed framework was evaluated both from the systems and from the usability perspectives.

From the systems perspective, we verified that the proposed solution makes optimal adaptation decisions, and that it does so efficiently, that is, quickly and without consuming significant resources itself. (Balan, Satyanarayanan, Park, & Okoshi, 2003) tested Chroma running language translation and speech and face recognition applications on a PDA under a wide range both of available resources and of user preferences. These tests verified that the Solver consistently picks the tactic that delivers the highest utility under the available resources.

In (Poladian et al., 2004) we evaluated the efficiency of EM’s resource allocation running on a 1.6 GHz CPU with 512 MB of RAM. The latency of finding the optimal allocation is 200 ms on average (standard deviation 50 ms) for configurations requiring from 1 to 4 services, when 4 to 24 alternative suites of application are available to provide those services, and when the search space of combined QoS levels reaches up to 15,000 points. Reevaluating the resource allocation every 5s, the EM uses on average 3% of CPU cycles. The optimality of decisions was verified analytically.

The remainder of this section focuses on the evaluation of usability. For that, three criteria were considered: the expressiveness of the QoS models, the ease of eliciting them, and the ease of using them to control adaptation. With respect to expressiveness, our experience with multiple examples, some illustrated in the user study described below, indicate that the proposed models are expressive enough for a wide range of practical situations.

A user study investigated whether end-users can express their preferences and control adaptation using the proposed QoS models.

This study consists of using a natural language translator running on a mobile device. The quality of translation observed by users varies, since the translator runs either simple algorithms locally, or more sophisticated ones on a remote server, depending on the availability of bandwidth and of

![Figure 4: Representation of the preferences in Figure 1.](image)

![Figure 5: Example QoS profile.](image)

![Figure 6: Example resource allocation.](image)
capacity in the server. To prevent limitations in the capabilities of the actual translation application (limited dictionaries, etc.) from affecting the results of the study, we replaced a human for the remote translation server. This technique is well accepted and known as a *Wizard of Oz* experiment.

The study focused on answering the following questions: first, can users understand and use templates to achieve a goal? Second, can users think of and manipulate preferences in terms of thresholds? Third, do they find it easy? And fourth, can users interpret the effects of specifying different preferences in the application’s adaptive behavior?

The participants were drawn from a population with homogeneous education level and age group, but diverse technical background. Ten students in the age group 18-29 were drawn among the respondents to a posting, 5 of which from computing-related fields (computer science, electrical and computer engineering, logic) and the remaining 5 from other fields (business, physics, literature). Incidentally, 6 were male and 4 female.

Participants individually performed an experiment that lasted 30 minutes, after being given a 30 minute introduction to the experiment, methodology and tools. Participants were asked to follow the *think aloud* protocol (Steinberg, 1991), and their voice and actions on the screen were recorded using video capturing software (TechSmith). After the experiment, the participants completed a short questionnaire.

The scenario for the experiment revolved around a conversation with a foreign language speaker (Spanish in this case) aided by translation software. To prevent serious misunderstandings in a real situation, users of the translation software would be able to check the accuracy of translation by having the Spanish translation translated back to English and spoken (using speech synthesis) on the user’s earphones. Users would press a go-ahead button to synthesize the Spanish translation only if they were happy with the accuracy of translation.

During the experiment, participants were asked to input sentences of their own making, listen to the output of the double translation, and rate the accuracy. The training included calibrating the participants’ rating of accuracy using the following scale: high, if the meaning is fully preserved; medium, if the meaning is roughly preserved; and low, if the meaning is seriously distorted.

Participants were asked to pursue different QoS goals during each part of a three-part experiment. Within each part, we simulated resource variation and asked the participants to evaluate the changes both in latency and accuracy of translation. During the first two parts, the QoS goals could be satisfied by preference templates. During the third part, the specific goal could only be achieved by customized preferences. The participants were not directed as to whether or not to use templates in any case.

Whenever the QoS goals could be met by a template, the participants did use templates in 17 out of 20 cases. In the remaining 3 instances, the participants were still able to achieve the goals using customized preferences. When asked about the clarity and usefulness of templates, 8 participants were fully favorable, while 2 didn’t recognize a benefit in having templates – see Figure 7a.

All 10 participants were able to manipulate the thresholds in customized preferences for achieving the required QoS goals. Specifically, the experiment was set in such a way that the thresholds in one dimension needed to be made stricter, while relaxing the other dimension, under penalty of the goal not being achievable.

When asked about the clarity of using thresholds to specify preferences, 8 participants were fully favorable, while 2 thought some alternative strategy could be preferable – see Figure 7b. One of these participants suggested that an X-Y representation of the tradeoff might be clearer. However, there are two reasons why that may not be such a good idea. First, it would be hard to show and manipulate tradeoffs with more than two aspects of QoS. Second, the actual tradeoff changes with the availability of resources: with plentiful resources, high levels may be attainable along all aspects; but with low resources, to privilege one aspect may have a severe impact on others.

The participants were able to interpret the effects of different preferences in the application’s adaptive behavior. To verify this, we tested the hypothesis that when resources change participants perceive a change in the QoS, with a greater impact along the QoS dimension for which the preferences are laxer. For that, after each translation the participants evaluated which QoS dimension changed the most relative to the previous translation: a noticeable change in accuracy with similar latencies, a noticeable change in latency with similar accuracies, no noticeable changes, etc. Participants then related those changes with the strictness or laxness of the preferences along each QoS dimension. The

![Figure 7: Likert scale evaluation of preferences’ specification (5-fully favorable, to 1-unfavorable).](image-url)
6 RELATED WORK

Similarly to the proposed framework, others have leveraged techniques from microeconomics to elicit utility with respect to multiple attributes. In the Security Attribute Evaluation Method (SAEM), the aggregate threat index and the losses from successful attacks are computed using utility functions (Butler, 2002). The Cost Benefit Analysis Method (CBAM) uses a multidimensional utility function with respect to QoS for evaluating software architecture alternatives (Moore, Kazman, Klein, & Asundi, 2003). Our work is different from SAEM and CBAM in that it is geared towards mobile computing.

A body of work addressed battery duration in mobile devices. For example (Yuan et al., 2006), presented OS extensions that coordinate CPU operation, OS scheduling, and media rendering, to optimize device performance, given user preferences concerning battery duration. The QoS models in our framework are significantly more expressive, since they support a rich vocabulary of service-specific aspects of QoS.

User studies done in mid-to-late 1990s have demonstrated that stability (e.g., absence of jitter) is more important than improvement for certain aspects of QoS (Wijesekera, Varadarajan, Parikh, Srivastava, & Nerode, 1998). Our framework recognizes the importance of these results and ensures, by explicit resource allocation, that adequate resources are available for applications to provide service while maximizing the overall utility.

Dynamic resolution of resource allocation policy conflicts involving multiple mobile users is addressed in (Capra, Emmерich, & Mascolo, 2003) using sealed bid auctions. While this work shares utility-theoretic concepts with our configuration mechanisms, the problem we solve is different. Our work has no game-theoretic aspects and addresses resource contention by multiple applications working for the same user on a small mobile device.

From an analytical point of view, closest to our resource allocation algorithm are Q-RAM (Lee, Lehoczyk, Siewiorek, Rajkumar, & Hansen, 1999), Knapsack algorithms, and winner determination in combinatorial auctions. By integrating with generic service discovery mechanisms in the EM, our work provides an integrated framework for service discovery, resource allocation and adaptation.

7 CONCLUSION

Resource adaptation can play an important role in improving user satisfaction with respect to running sophisticated software on small mobile devices.

However, today, many applications implement limited solutions for resource adaptation, or none at all. The primary reasons for that are: (a) the cost of creating ad-hoc adaptation solutions from scratch for each application; and (b) the difficulty of coordinating resource usage among the applications. Because it is hard for an individual application to

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significant at 95%</th>
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<tr>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>-4.27</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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How to interpret a correlation: the correlation coefficient denotes the slope of the line that best fits the data. A positive/negative coefficient means that an increase in the x-axis corresponds to an increase/decrease in the y-axis. If the coefficient is zero, the data cannot be approximated by a straight line (there is no correlation between the x values and the y values).

Student's t-test of significance: indicates the likelihood that the correlation in the data sample corresponds to a real correlation in the general population. A commonly accepted threshold is 95% confidence. Statistics manuals contain tables of t-statistics for each size of the data sample. The t-test consists of comparing the t-value calculated for the correlation with the lookup t-statistic. If the absolute t-value is larger than the t-statistic, then the correlation is significant with 95% certainty.

Sample: 40 data points relating two variables (38 degrees of freedom), for which the t-statistic is 2.024 for a 95% confidence.

Figure 8: Regression performed on experiment data.

participants were not informed of when or in which direction resources would change.

Figure 8 shows the results of correlating which dimension had stricter preferences with which dimension was perceived to have changed the most. The correlation coefficient is negative, meaning that whenever user preferences were stricter along one dimension, the participants perceived a greater fluctuation on the other dimension (caused by underlying resource fluctuations). When asked about how easy it was to use the interfaces in Figure 1 to customize preferences, 5 participants were fully favorable while the other 5 thought the interfaces could be improved.

This user study demonstrates that end-users can both define their preferences, and interpret the results of such definitions in the system’s adaptive behavior. A control loop is therefore formed, enabling users to pursue concrete QoS goals. The practicality of the control loop is confirmed by the fact that all participants were easily able to achieve concrete QoS goals.
even know which other applications are actively involved in supporting a user activity, individual applications frequently trample each other in their quest for resources.

This paper proposes a framework for resource adaptation where a number of features are factored out of applications into a common infrastructure.

First, user preferences with respect to overall QoS tradeoffs are elicited by an infrastructural component such as Prism. These models are expressed using a rich vocabulary of service-specific QoS aspects. Furthermore, a preliminary user study indicates that end-users can understand and leverage these models to pursue concrete QoS goals.

Second, resource allocation among applications is coordinated by another infrastructural component such as the EM. This component receives QoS profiles from applications, and efficiently computes the resource allocations that optimally support the QoS goals, given forecasts of available resources for the next few seconds.

Third, adaptation to resource variations at a time granularity of milliseconds is facilitated by a common library, such as Chroma. This library saves application development costs by providing common mechanisms for (a) monitoring available resources, (b) profiling the resource demands of alternative computation tactics, and (c) deciding dynamically which tactic best supports the QoS goals, given resource forecasts for the next few milliseconds.

Additionally, this paper clarifies concrete APIs that adaptive applications need to support for being integrated into the framework. These APIs are realized as XML messages, which may be exchanged within the mobile device, or across the network, if the infrastructural components are deployed remotely.

In summary, the proposed framework makes it easier to develop and integrate applications into coordinated, resource-adaptive systems.

Furthermore, our research indicates that end-users with diverse backgrounds are able to control the behavior of such systems to achieve activity-specific QoS goals.

8 REFERENCES


