

Congestion And Its Avoidance In Computer Network Architecture

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Abstract

Congestion is said to occur in the network when the resource demands exceed the capacity and packets are lost due to too much queuing in the network. During congestion, the network throughput may drop to zero and the path delay may become very high. A congestion control scheme helps the network to recover from the congestion state. A congestion avoidance scheme allows a network to operate in the region of low delay and high throughput. Such schemes prevent a network from entering the congested state. Congestion avoidance is a prevention mechanism while congestion control is a recovery mechanism. We compare the concept of congestion avoidance with that of flow control and congestion control. A number of possible alternative for congestion avoidance have been identified. From these a few were selected for study. The criteria for selection and goals for these schemes have been described. In particular, we wanted the scheme to be globally efficient, fair, dynamic, convergent, robust, distributed, configuration independent, etc. These goals and the test cases used to verify whether a particular scheme has met the goals have been described. We model the network and the user policies for congestion avoidance as a feedback control system. The key components of a generic congestion avoidance scheme are: congestion detection, congestion feedback, feedback selector, signal filter, decision function, and in-crease/decrease algorithms. These components have been explained.

Index terms-Increase/decrease algorithms, flow control, congestion control, feedback system.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent technological advances in computer networks have resulted in a significant increase in the bandwidth of computer network links. The ARPA net was designed in the 1970s using leased telephone lines having a bandwidth of 50 Kbits/second. In the 1980s, local area networks (LAN) such as Ethernet and Token rings have been introduced with a bandwidth in the range of 10 Mbps. In this second half of the same decade, efforts are underway to standardize fiber optic LANs with a bandwidth of 100 Mbps and higher. The steadily increasing bandwidth of computer networks would lead one to believe that network congestion is a problem of the past. In fact, most network designers have found the opposite to be true. Congestion control has been receiving increased attention lately due to an increasing speed mismatch caused by the variety of links that compose a computer network today. Congestion occurs mainly at routers (intermediate nodes, gateways, or IMPs) and links in the network where the rate of incoming traffic exceeds the bandwidth of the receiving node or link. The problem of congestion control is more difficult to handle in networks with connectionless protocols than in those with connection-oriented protocols. In connection-oriented networks, resources in the network are reserved in advance during connection setup. Thus, one easy way to control congestion is to prevent new connections from starting up if congestion is sensed. The disadvantage of this approach, like any other reservation scheme, is that reserved resources may not be used and may be left idle even when other users have been denied permission. Rather than get in to the religious debate between followers of the connection-oriented and connectionless disciplines, we simply want to point out the fact that the problem of congestion control in connectionless protocols is more complex. It is this set of protocols that we are concerned with here. We are concerned with

congestion avoidance rather than congestion control. The distinction between these two terms is a rather subtle one. Briefly, a congestion avoidance scheme allows a network to operate in the region of low delay and high throughput. These schemes prevent a network from entering the congested state in which the packets are lost. We will elaborate on this point in the next section where the terms flow control, congestion control, and congestion avoidance have been defined and their relationship to each other has been discussed. We studied a number of alternative congestion avoidance schemes. In this report, we discuss the goals, the metrics used to quantify the performance, and the fundamental components involved in the design of any congestion avoidance scheme. We address the issue of fairness in the service offered by a network. The role of algorithms for increase/decrease of the amount of traffic a user may place on the network is discussed, as well as the impact of the fairness of a range.

2. CONCEPTS

In this section we define the basic concepts of flow control, congestion control, and congestion avoidance. These three concepts are related but distinct. They are related because all three solve the problem of resource management in the network. They are distinct because they solve resource problems either in different parts of the network or in a different manner. We also point out how decreasing cost of memory, or increasing link bandwidth and processor speed are not sufficient to solve these problems.

A. Flow Control

In data communications, flow control is the process of managing the rate of data transmission between two nodes to prevent a fast sender from outrunning a slow receiver. It provides a mechanism for the receiver to control the transmission speed, so that the receiving node is not overwhelmed with data from transmitting node. Flow control should be distinguished from congestion control, which is used for controlling the flow of data when congestion has actually occurred. Flow control mechanisms can be classified by whether or not the receiving node sends feedback to the sending node. Flow control is important because it is possible for a sending computer to transmit information at a faster rate than the destination computer can receive and process it. This can happen if the receiving computers have a heavy traffic load in comparison to the sending computer, or if the receiving computer has less processing power than the sending computer.

B. Congestion Control

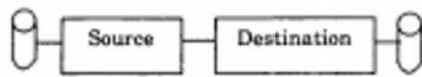
Congestion results when one part of the subnet becomes overloaded. Because routers are receiving packets faster than they can forward them, one of two things must happen:

- The subnet must prevent additional packets from entering the congested region until those already present can be processed.
- The congested routers can discard queued packets to make room for those that are arriving.

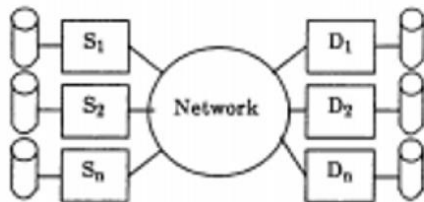
A congestion control scheme protects the network from being flooded by its users. In connection oriented networks the congestion problem is generally solved by reserving the resources at all routers during connection setup. In connectionless networks it can be done by explicit messages (choke packets) from the network to the sources or by implicit means such as timeout on a packet loss.

C. Flow Control vs Congestion Control

It is clear from the above discussion that the terms flow control and congestion control are distinct. Flow control is an agreement between a source and a destination to limit the flow of packets without taking into account the load on the network. The purpose of flow control is to ensure that a packet arriving at a destination will find a buffer there. Congestion control is primarily concerned with controlling the traffic to reduce overload on the network. Flow control solves the problem of the destination resources being the bottleneck while congestion control solves the problem of the routers and links being the bottleneck. Flow control is bipartite agreement. Congestion control is a social (network-wide) law. Different connections on a network can choose different flow control strategies, but nodes on the network should follow the same congestion control strategy, if it is to be useful. The two parties in flow control are generally interested in cooperating whereas the n parties (e.g., different users) in congestion control may be non cooperative. Fairness is not an issue for the two cooperating parties whereas it is an important issue for n competing parties.



a. Flow control concerns with resources at the destination.



b. Congestion control concerns with resources in the network.

D. Congestion Avoidance

Traditional congestion control schemes help improve the performance after congestion has occurred. If the load is small, throughput generally keeps up with the load. As the load increases, throughput increases. After the load reaches the network capacity, throughput stops increasing. If the load is increased any further, the queues start building, potentially resulting in packets being dropped. The throughput may suddenly drop when the load increases beyond this point and the network is said to be congested.

3. DESIGN REQUIREMENTS

Before we discuss the various schemes for congestion avoidance and compare them it is helpful to point out some of the design requirements that we followed. These requirements helped us limit the number of schemes for further study. The key requirements are: no control during normal operation, no extra packets, a connectionless network layer, and configuration independence. We describe these requirements below.

A. No Control During Normal Operation

Congestion is a transient phenomenon. Networks are configured in such a way that, on an average, the network is not overloaded. We therefore refrained from schemes that would generate extra overhead during normal (under loaded) conditions. This ruled out the use of such techniques as sending encouragement packets to users during under load and indicating overload by the absence of these packets.

B. No New Packets

The processing overhead for network services depends upon the number of packets and the size of those packets. Performance measurements of existing implementations have shown that the number of packets affects the overhead much more than the size. Short acknowledgment messages cost as much as 50% of the long data messages. This is why piggybacking (combining two or more messages) helps reduce the overhead. In summary, adding an extra packet causes much more overhead than adding a few bits in the header. We therefore preferred schemes that did not require generation of new messages and concentrated instead on adding only a few bits in the header.

C. Distributed Control

The scheme must be distributed and work without any central observer. Thus, schemes where all routers send congestion information to a central network control center were considered Unacceptable.

D. Connectionless Network Layer

The key architectural assumption about the networks is that they use connectionless network service and transport level connections. By this we mean that a router is not aware of the transport connections passing through it, and the transport entities are not aware of the path used by their packets. There is no prior reservation of resources at routers before an entity sets up a connection. The routers cannot compute the resource demands except by observing the traffic owing through them. Examples of network architectures with a connectionless network layer are DOD TCP/IP, Digital Network Architecture (DNA), and ISO Connectionless Network Service.

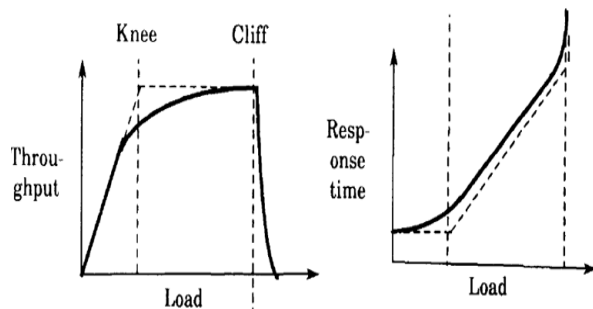
4. PERFORMANCE METRICS

The performance of a network can be measured by several metrics. The commonly used metrics are: throughput, delay, and power. Throughput is measured by the user bits transmitted per unit of time. Thus, protocol overhead, retransmissions, and duplicate packets are not considered in throughput computation.

Some of the more important applications of computer networks are: file transfer, mail, and remote login. The first two are throughput sensitive. The response time (time for the packet to reach the destination) is generally not so important. On the other hand, for remote login, response time is more important than

throughput. The aforementioned goal, maximizing throughput and minimizing response time, are mutually contradictory in that all methods to increase throughput result in increased response time as well and vice versa. To resolve this contradiction, Giessler proposed the following metric:

$$\text{Power} = \frac{\text{Throughput}^\alpha}{\text{Response time}}$$



Here α is a positive real number. Notice that by maximizing power, one tries to maximize throughput and minimize response time. Normally, $\alpha = 1$, i.e. increasing throughput and decreasing response time are given equal weights. By setting $\alpha > 1$, one can favour file transfer by emphasizing higher throughput. Similarly, by setting $\alpha < 1$ one can favor terminal traffic by emphasizing lower response time. It must be pointed out that the throughput and response time used above are system-wide throughput (total number of packets sent for all users divided by the total time) and system wide response time (averaged over all users) giving us system power. The operating point obtained in this manner is different from the one that would be obtained if each of the n users tries to maximize their own individual power (ratio of individual throughput and individual response time). Maximizing individual power leads to a number of undesirable effects.

5. COMPONENTS OF AN AVOIDANCE SCHEME

The two key components of any congestion avoidance scheme, the feedback mechanism and the control mechanism, have already been discussed earlier in this report. We call these network policies and user policies, respectively. This allows us to concentrate on one component at a time and test

various alternatives for that particular component. During the analysis, it can be assumed that other components are operating optimally. Of course, one would need to verify at the end that the combined system worked satisfactorily under imperfect conditions.

The network policy consists of three algorithms: congestion detection, feedback filter, and feedback selector. The user policy also consists of three algorithms: signal filter, decision function, and increase/decrease algorithm. These generic algorithms apply to many different congestion avoidance schemes. For example, these six algorithms would apply whether we choose to implement network feedback in the form of source quench messages or we implement it via a field in the packet header.

A. Congestion Detection

Before the network can feedback any information, it must determine its state or load level. In a general case, the network may be in one of n possible states. The congestion detection function helps map these states into one of the two possible load levels overload or under load (above or below the knee). A k -ary version of this function would result in k levels of load indications. A congestion detection function, for example, could work based on the processor utilization, link utilization, or queue lengths.

B. Feedback Filter

After the network has determined the load level, it may want to verify that the state lasts for a sufficiently long period before signaling it to the users. This is because a feedback of state is useful only if the state lasts long enough for the users to take action based on it. A state which changes very fast may lead to confusion. By the time users become aware of the state, it no longer holds and the feedback is misleading. Therefore, we need a (low-pass) filter function to pass only those states that are expected to last long enough for the user action to be meaningful. Examples of feedback filters are exponential weighted average or moving average of processor utilization, link utilization, or queue lengths.

C. Feedback Selector

After the network has determined that it is overloaded (or under loaded) and has ensured that the state is likely to last long enough, it needs to communicate this information to users so that they may reduce (or increase) the traffic. A feedback selector function may be used to determine the set of users to be notified. In other words, the network may

want all users to reduce the tra_c or it may selectively ask some users to reduce and others to increase the traffic. In the simplest case, it may give the same feedback signal to all users.

D. Signal Filter

The users receiving the feedback signals from the network (routers) need to interpret the signal. The first step in this process is to accumulate a number of signals. Due to the probabilistic nature of the network, all these signals may not be identical. Some may indicate that the network is overloaded while others may indicate that it is under loaded. The user needs to combine these to decide its action. Some examples of received signal filter are majority voting (50%), or three-quarter majority (75%), or unanimous (100%). The percentage may be used after applying a weighting function, for example, giving higher weight to recent signals.

E. Decision Function

Once the user knows the network load level, it has to decide either to increase its load or decrease its load. The function can be broken down into two parts: the first part determines the direction and the other determines the amount. These parts are called decision function and increase/decrease algorithms, respectively. The decision function takes feedback signals for the last T seconds, for instance, as input parameter, and determines the load level of the network path. The key parameter is T the interval for which it should accumulate feedback. This determines the window update frequency. We will further discuss window update frequency later in this report. In its simplest form a decision function may be a 2-way function indicating whether the load should be increased or decreased. Some would argue that it may be a 3-way function including a gray area where no action is taken. Another generalization often mentioned is to make a decision but not act on it unless we reach the same decision again, one or more times in the future. This may seem to increase the probability of reaching the right decision. Both the generalizations mentioned above result in postponement of the action thereby causing the system to stay in the same state longer. This may be useful if the goal (knee) is stable but in a computer network the knee is a continuously moving target and it is helpful to reconfirm the state by perturbing the load, however slightly, one way or the other.

F. Increase/Decrease Algorithm

The key part of a control scheme is the control, i.e. the action taken as a result of the feedback. For congestion avoidance schemes this part lies in the increase/decrease algorithms used by the users. These algorithms are a key to achieving efficiency as well as fairness. The choice of other components of the congestion avoidance scheme depends upon the type of feedback chosen, whereas, the increase/decrease algorithms can be discussed and analyzed generically in great detail and apply to several feedback mechanisms.

6. CONGESTION AVOIDANCE SCHEMES

Congestion control and congestion avoidance are dynamic system control issues. Like all other control schemes they consist of two parts: a feedback mechanism and a control mechanism. The feedback mechanism allows the system (network) to inform the users (source or destination) of the current state of the system. The control mechanism allows the users to adjust their load on the system. The feedback signal in a congestion avoidance scheme tells the users whether the network is operating below or above the knee. The feedback signal in a congestion control scheme tells the users whether the network is operating below or above the cliff. The problem of congestion control has been discussed extensively in literature. A number of feedback mechanisms have been proposed. If we extend those mechanisms to signal operations around the knee rather than the cliff, we obtain a congestion avoidance scheme. Of course, the control mechanism will also have to be adjusted to help the network operate around the knee rather than the cliff. For the feedback mechanisms we have the following alternatives:

1. Congestion feedback via packets sent from routers to sources.
2. Feedback included in the routing messages exchanged among routers.
3. End-to-end probe packets sent by sources.
4. Each packet contains a congestion feedback field that is filled in by routers in packets going in the reverse direction.
5. A congestion feedback field is filled in by routers in packets going in the forward direction.

The first alternative is popularly known as choke packet or source quench message in ARPA net. It requires introducing additional traffic in the network during congestion, which may not be desirable. A complement to this scheme is that of encouraging

sources to increase the load during under load. The absence of these encouragement messages signals overload. This scheme does not introduce additional traffic during congestion. Nevertheless, it does introduce control overhead on the network even if there is no problem. The second alternative, increasing the cost (used in the forwarding database update algorithm) of congested paths, has been tried before in ARPA net's delay-sensitive routing. The delays were found to vary too quickly, resulting in a large number of routing messages and stability problems. The third alternative, probe packets, also suffers from the disadvantage of added overhead unless probe packets had a dual role of carrying other information in them. If the latter were the case, there would be no reason not to use every packet going through the network as a probe packet. We may achieve this by reserving a field in the packet that is used by the network to signal congestion. This leads us to the last two alternatives. The fourth alternative, reverse feedback, requires routers to piggyback the signal on the packets going in the direction opposite the congestion. This alternative has the advantage in that the feedback reaches the source faster. However, the forward and reverse traffic are not always related. The destinations of the reverse traffic may not be the cause of or even the participant in the congestion on the forward path. Also, many networks (including DNA) have path splitting such that the path from A to B is not necessarily the same as that from B to A. The fifth alternative, forward feedback, sends the signal in the packets going in the forward direction (direction of congestion). The destination either asks the source to adjust the load or returns the signal back to the source in the packets (or acknowledgments) going in the reverse direction. This is the alternative that we finally chose for further study. The minimal forward feedback requires just one bit of feedback signal with every packet.

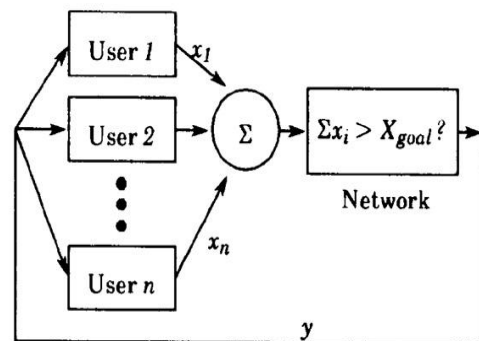
Although at first, one bit may not appear to be able to carry enough information, we show in the second part of this report series that there is considerable performance gain even by single-bit feedback. Most of the discussions in this and associated reports center around window-based control mechanisms. However, we must point out that this is not a requirement. The congestion avoidance algorithms and concepts can be easily modified for other forms of flow control such as rate-based flow control in which the sources must send below a rate (packets/second or bytes/second) specified by the destination. In this case, the users would adjust rates based on the signals received from the network.

7. INCREASE/DECREASE ALGORITHM

The key part of a control scheme is the control, i.e., the action taken as a result of the feedback. For congestion avoidance schemes this part lies in the increase/decrease algorithms used by the users. These algorithms are a key to achieving efficiency as well as fairness. The choice of other components of the congestion avoidance scheme depends upon the type of feedback chosen, whereas, the increase/decrease algorithms can be discussed and analyzed generically in great detail and apply to several feedback mechanisms. We discuss some of these alternatives in the next section.

In this section we compare a number of alternative algorithms for window increase and decrease. We show that an additive increase, multiplicative decrease algorithm provides fair and stable operation and that it is important to keep windows as real valued variables which are rounded off to the nearest integer.

We assume that the source and destination transport entities are using a window-based flow control. Thus, increasing the window increases the load on the network and decreasing the window decreases the load. It must be pointed out, however, that all the arguments apply equally well to other forms of flow control such as rate based flow-control, in which the destination permits the source to send data at a pre-specified rate (bits/second or pack-ets/second). In this case, it is obvious that increasing the rate increases the load and vice versa.



A control system model of n users sharing a network.

$$x_i(t+1) = x_i(t) + f_i(x_i(t), y_i(t))$$

A general increase (or decrease) algorithm would take the current control (flow-control window) and feedback signals as input arguments and produce the new control as an output argument. However, as

discussed above, we assume that the feedback signals have been analyzed by other components of the congestion avoidance scheme and the decision provided to this component is to increase or decrease the traffic. Thus, the key parameter to the increase/decrease algorithms is the current window. We considered two types of increase/decrease algorithms:

1. Additive - The window is increased or decreased by a fixed amount.

$$x_i(t+1) = a_I + x_i(t)$$

$$x_i(t+1) = a_D - x_i(t)$$

2. Multiplicative - The window is increased or decreased by a fixed multiple.

$$w x_i(t+1) = b_I x_i(t); r1 > 0$$

$$w x_i(t+1) = b_D x_i(t); 0 < r2 < 1$$

Here, we concentrate on choosing one of the following four combinations:

1. Multiplicative Increase, Multiplicative Decrease

$$x_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} b_I x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Increase,} \\ b_D x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Decrease} \end{cases}$$

2. Multiplicative Increase, Additive Decrease

$$x_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} b_I x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Increase,} \\ a_D + x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Decrease} \end{cases}$$

3. Additive Increase, Additive Decrease

$$x_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} a_I + x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Increase,} \\ a_D + x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Decrease} \end{cases}$$

4. Additive Increase, Multiplicative Decrease

$$x_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} a_I + x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Increase,} \\ b_D x_i(t) & \text{if } y(t) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{Decrease} \end{cases}$$

In all these alternatives we assume that the computed value is rounded to an integer value and that the window is never allowed to go below 1. The two key requirements of the increase/decrease policy are that it should allow a single user network to operate as close to optimality as possible and that it should allow a multi-user network to operate as fairly as possible. In comparing the above alternative we will assume a simplified model of the network in which all users share the same path and therefore receive the

same feedback. If i^{th} user has a window w_i , the network gives the signal to go up if and only if:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \leq w_{\text{knee}}$$

Here, w_{knee} is the window at the knee of the throughput (or response time) curve for the given network configuration. The fairness goal dictates that regardless of any starting point all n users should converge to the same final window w_{knee}/n . While going down, the users with higher windows should go down more than those with lower windows, i.e., the decrease should be proportional (multiplicative).

CONCLUSION

We have seen the problems due to congestion and various methods to overcome congestion through various congestion policies. We have discussed about various metrics used in congestion control. We examined the user increase/decrease policies under the constrain of binary signal feedback. We formulated a set of conditions that any increase/decrease policy should satisfy to ensure convergence to efficiency and fair state in a distributed manner. We show the decrease must be multiplicative to ensure that at every step the fairness either increases or stays the same.

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