Lecture 7: Packet Scheduling and Fair Queuing

CS 598: Advanced Internetworking Matthew Caesar March 1, 2011

Packet Scheduling: Problem Overview





- When to send packets?
- What order to send them in?

Approach #1: First In First Out (FIFO)

$\blacksquare \blacksquare \longrightarrow \textcircled{} \Rightarrow \blacksquare \blacksquare \blacksquare \blacksquare \blacksquare$

- Packets are sent out in the same order they are received
- Benefits: simple to design, analyze
- Downsides: not compatible with QoS
 - High priority packets can get stuck behind low priority packets



- Operator can configure policies to give certain kinds of packets higher priority
 - Associate packets with priority queues
 - Service higher-priority queue when packets are available to be sent
- Downside: can lead to starvation of lower-priority queutes

Approach #3: Weighted Round Robin



- Round robin through queues, but visit higher-priority queues more often
- Benefit: Prevents starvation
- Downsides: a host sending long packets can steal bandwidth
 - Naïve implementation wastes bandwidth due to unused slots ⁵

Overview

- Fairness
- Fair-queuing
- Core-stateless FQ
- Other FQ variants

Fairness Goals

- Allocate resources fairly
- Isolate ill-behaved users
 - Router does not send explicit feedback to source
 - Still needs e2e congestion control
- Still achieve statistical muxing
 - One flow can fill entire pipe if no contenders
 - Work conserving → scheduler never idles
 link if it has a packet

What is Fairness?

- At what granularity?
 - Flows, connections, domains?
- What if users have different RTTs/links/etc.
 - Should it share a link fairly or be TCP fair?
- Maximize fairness index?

- Fairness = $(\Sigma x_i)^2/n(\Sigma x_i^2)$ 0<fairness<1

- Basically a tough question to answer typically design mechanisms instead of policy
 - User = arbitrary granularity

Max-min Fairness

- Allocate user with "small" demand what it wants, evenly divide unused resources to "big" users
- Formally:
 - Resources allocated in terms of increasing demand
 - No source gets resource share larger than its demand
 - Sources with unsatisfied demands get equal share of resource

Max-min Fairness Example

- Assume sources 1..n, with resource demands X1..Xn in ascending order
- Assume channel capacity C.
 - Give C/n to X1; if this is more than X1 wants, divide excess (C/n - X1) to other sources: each gets C/n + (C/n - X1)/(n-1)
 - If this is larger than what X2 wants, repeat process

Implementing max-min Fairness

- Generalized processor sharing
 - Fluid fairness
 - Bitwise round robin among all queues
- Why not simple round robin?
 - Variable packet length → can get more service by sending bigger packets
 - Unfair instantaneous service rate
 - What if arrive just before/after packet departs?

Bit-by-bit RR

- Single flow: clock ticks when a bit is transmitted. For packet i:
 - $-P_i$ = length, A_i = arrival time, S_i = begin transmit time, F_i = finish transmit time

 $-F_{i} = S_{i}+P_{i} = max (F_{i-1}, A_{i}) + P_{i}$

- Multiple flows: clock ticks when a bit from all active flows is transmitted → round number
 - Can calculate F_i for each packet if number of flows is know at all times
 - This can be complicated

Approach #4: Bit-by-bit Round Robin



- Round robin through "backlogged" queues (queues with pkts to send)
 - However, only send one bit from each queue at a time
- Benefit: Achieves max-min fairness, even in presence of variable sized pkts
- Downsides: you can't really mix up bits like this on real networks!¹³

The next-best thing: Fair Queuing

- Bit-by-bit round robin is fair, but you can't really do that in practice
- Idea: simulate bit-by-bit RR, compute the finish times of each packet
 - Then, send packets in order of finish times
 - This is known as Fair Queuing

What is Weighted Fair Queuing?



- Each flow i given a weight (importance) w_i
- WFQ guarantees a minimum service rate to flow i
 - $-r_i = R * w_i / (w_1 + w_2 + ... + w_n)$
 - Implies isolation among flows (one cannot mess up another)

What is the Intuition? Fluid Flow



water buckets



16

Fluid Flow System

- If flows could be served one bit at a time:
- WFQ can be implemented using bit-by-bit weighted round robin
 - During each round from each flow that has data to send, send a number of bits equal to the flow's weight

Fluid Flow System: Example 1



Fluid Flow System: Example 2

- Red flow has packets backlogged between time 0 and 10
 - Backlogged flow → flow's queue not empty
- Other flows have packets continuously backlogged
- All packets have the same size





Implementation in Packet System

- Packet (Real) system: packet transmission cannot be preempted. Why?
- Solution: serve packets in the order in which they would have finished being transmitted in the fluid flow system





• Select the first packet that finishes in the fluid flow system



Implementation Challenge

- Need to compute the finish time of a packet in the fluid flow system...
- ... but the finish time may change as new packets arrive!
- Need to update the finish times of all packets that are in service in the fluid flow system when a new packet arrives
 - -But this is very expensive; a high speed router may need to handle hundred of thousands of flows!

Example

• Four flows, each with weight 1



Approach #5: Self-Clocked Fair Queuing



Solution: Virtual Time

• Key Observation: while the finish times of packets may change when a new packet arrives, the order in which packets finish doesn't!

-Only the order is important for scheduling

- Solution: instead of the packet finish time maintain the round # when a packet finishes (virtual finishing time)
 - -Virtual finishing time doesn't change when a packet arrives



- Suppose each packet is 1000 bits, so takes 1000 rounds to finish
- So, packets of F1, F2, F3 finishes at virtual time 1000
- When packet F4 arrives at virtual time 1 (after one round), the virtual finish time of packet F4 is 1001
- But the virtual finish time of packet F1,2,3 remains 1000
- Finishing order is preserved



Is Fair Queuing perfectly fair?

- No. Example: Once we begin transmission of a packet, it's possible a new packet arrives that would have a smaller finishing time than the current packet
 - FQ is non-preemptive, so keep transmitting current packet
- However, if a packet is sitting in an output queue with its finish time calculated, and a new packet arrives with a sooner finish time, the new packet will be sent first

Fair Queueing Implementation

- Define
 - $-F_i^k$ virtual finishing time of packet k of flow i
 - $-a_i^k$ arrival time of packet k of flow i
 - $-L_i^k$ length of packet k of flow i
 - $-w_i$ weight of flow i
- The finishing time of packet *k*+1 of flow *i* is

 $F_i^{k+1} = \max(V(a_i^{k+1}), F_i^k) + L_i^{k+1}/W_i$

• Smallest finishing time first scheduling policy

Properties of WFQ

- Guarantee that any packet is transmitted within *packet_length/link_capacity* of its transmission time in the fluid flow system
 - -Can be used to provide guaranteed services
- Achieve fair allocation
 - –Can be used to protect well-behaved flows against malicious flows

Fair Queuing Tradeoffs

- FQ can control congestion by monitoring flows
 - Non-adaptive flows can still be a problem why?
- Complex state
 - Must keep queue per flow
 - Hard in routers with many flows (e.g., backbone routers)
 - Flow aggregation is a possibility (e.g. do fairness per domain)
- Complex computation
 - Classification into flows may be hard
 - Must keep queues sorted by finish times
 - Finish times change whenever the flow count changes

Overview

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- Fair-queuing
- Core-stateless FQ
- Other FQ variants

Core-Stateless Fair Queuing

- Key problem with FQ is core routers
 - Must maintain state for 1000's of flows
 - Must update state at Gbps line speeds
- CSFQ (Core-Stateless FQ) objectives
 - Edge routers should do complex tasks since they have fewer flows
 - Core routers can do simple tasks
 - No per-flow state/processing → this means that core routers can only decide on dropping packets not on order of processing
 - Can only provide max-min bandwidth fairness not delay allocation

Core-Stateless Fair Queuing

- Edge routers keep state about flows and do computation when packet arrives
- DPS (Dynamic Packet State)
 - Edge routers label packets with the result of state lookup and computation
- Core routers use DPS and local measurements to control processing of packets

Edge Router Behavior

- Monitor each flow i to measure its arrival rate (r_i)
 - EWMA of rate
 - Non-constant EWMA constant
 - $e^{-T/K}$ where T = current interarrival, K = constant
 - Helps adapt to different packet sizes and arrival patterns
- Rate is attached to each packet

Core Router Behavior

- Keep track of fair share rate $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 - Increasing α does not increase load (F) by N * α
 - $-F(\alpha) = \Sigma_i \min(r_i, \alpha) \rightarrow$ what does this look like?
 - Periodically update $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$
 - Keep track of current arrival rate
 - \bullet Only update α if entire period was congested or uncongested
- Drop probability for packet = max(1α/r, 0)

F vs. Alpha



Estimating Fair Share

- Need $F(\alpha)$ = capacity = C
 - Can't keep map of $F(\alpha)$ values \rightarrow would require per flow state
 - Since $F(\alpha)$ is concave, piecewise-linear
 - F(0) = 0 and $F(\alpha) =$ current accepted rate = F_c
 - $F(\alpha) = F_c / \alpha$
 - $F(\alpha_{new}) = C \rightarrow \alpha_{new} = \alpha_{old} * C/F_c$
- What if a mistake was made?
 - Forced into dropping packets due to buffer capacity
 - When queue overflows α is decreased slightly

Other Issues

- Punishing fire-hoses why?
 Easy to keep track of in a FQ scheme
- What are the real edges in such a scheme?
 - Must trust edges to mark traffic accurately
 - Could do some statistical sampling to see if edge was marking accurately

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Stochastic Fair Queuing

- Compute a hash on each packet
- Instead of per-flow queue have a queue per hash bin
- An aggressive flow steals traffic from other flows in the same hash
- Queues serviced in round-robin fashion
 Has problems with packet size unfairness
- Memory allocation across all queues
 - When no free buffers, drop packet from longest queue

Deficit Round Robin

- Each queue is allowed to send Q bytes per round
- If Q bytes are not sent (because packet is too large) deficit counter of queue keeps track of unused portion
- If queue is empty, deficit counter is reset to 0
- Uses hash bins like Stochastic FQ
- Similar behavior as FQ but computationally simpler
 - Bandwidth guarantees, but no latency guarantees

Deficit Round Robin Example

Quantum Size = 1000



- 1. Increment deficit counter by Quantum Size
- 2. Send packet if size is greater than deficit
- 3. When you send a packet, subtract its size from the deficit

Outbound queue

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Self-clocked Fair Queuing

- Virtual time to make computation of finish time easier
- Problem with basic FQ
 - Need be able to know which flows are really backlogged
 - They may not have packet queued because they were serviced earlier in mapping of bit-bybit to packet
 - This is necessary to know how bits sent map onto rounds
 - Mapping of real time to round is piecewise linear → however slope can change often

Self-clocked FQ

- Use the finish time of the packet being serviced as the virtual time
 - The difference in this virtual time and the real round number can be unbounded
- Amount of service to backlogged flows is bounded by factor of 2

Start-time Fair Queuing

- Packets are scheduled in order of their start not finish times
- Self-clocked → virtual time = start time of packet in service
- Main advantage → can handle variable rate service better than other schemes

Mobility models

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Entity model: Random Walk

- A mobile node moves from its current location to a new location by randomly choosing a direction and speed in which to travel.
- Random Walk is a memoryless mobility pattern. This characteristic can generate unrealistic movements such as sudden stops and sharp turns

Random Walk Example



Figure 1: Traveling pattern of an MN using the 2-D Random Walk Mobility Model (time).

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Entity model: Random Waypoint

- The Random Waypoint Mobility Model includes pause times between changes in direction and/or speed.
 - A mobile node stays in one location for a certain period of time (i.e., a pause time).
 - Once this time expires, the node chooses a random destination in the simulation area and a speed that is uniformly distributed between [minspeed,maxspeed]. The node then travels toward the newly chosen destination at the selected speed.
 - Repeat above two steps
- Often in the model, the nodes are initially distributed randomly around the simulation area. This initial random distribution of MNs is *not representative of the manner in which nodes distribute themselves when moving*.

Random Waypoint Example



Figure 3: Traveling pattern of an MN using the Random Waypoint Mobility Model.

52

Other variants

- Restricted Random Waypoint Model
 - Observation: on earth, there are obstacles to node movement
 - E.g., Buildings, trees
 - Nodes cannot walk through these obstacles
 - Place a set of obstacles
 - Choose waypoint direction randomly, but truncate length to avoid going through an obstacle
- The Reference Point Group Mobility (RPGM) model
 - Observation: in practice, nodes move as groups
 - E.g., cell phones on a train
 - Nodes associated into groups, groups move collectively
 - Individual nodes move around with small offsets to the group's movement
- City Section Mobility model
 - Observation: users on cars have very specific mobility pattern
 - Eg., can't go faster than car in front of you, cars collectively slow down/speed up, cars traverse grid-like pattern of streets
 - Nodes move in car-like patterns

Challenges with mobility models

- Distributions of node speed, position, distances, etc change with time
- E.g., random waypoint:



Challenges with mobility models

- Distributions of node speed, position, distances, etc change with time
 - E.g., distribution of node position under random waypoint:





Time $= 0 \sec \theta$

Finishing up DHTs

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Security issues

- Sybil attacks
 - Malicious node pretends to be many nodes
 - Can take over large fraction of ID space, files
- Eclipse attacks
 - Malicious node intercepts join requests, replies with its cohorts as joining node's fingers
- Solutions:
 - Perform several joins over diverse paths, PKI, leverage social network relationships, audit by sharing records with neighbors

One-hop DHTs

- Idea: maintain global state of all nodes
 - Might get this for free (link state routing)
 - Hash over all visible nodes
- Benefits:
 - Reduces number of hops to reach a key
 - "Worth it" when node lifetimes weeks/months, when hundreds/thousands of lookups/second per node
 - Used in Amazon dynamo, cluster load
 balancing Matthew Caesar (caesar@uiuc.edu)

Consistent Hashing: Background

- Hash table: maps identifiers to keys
 - Hash function used to transform key to index (slot)
 - To balance load, should ideally map each key to different index
- Distributed hash tables
 - Stores values (e.g., by mapping keys and values to servers)
 - Used in distributed storage, load balancing, peerto-peer, content distribution, multicast, anycast, botnets, BitTorrent's tracker, etc.

Background: hashing



Example



- Example: Sum ASCII digits, mod number of bins
- Problem:

Solution: Consistent Hashing

- Hashing function that reduces churn
- Addition or removal of one slot does not significantly change mapping of keys to slots
- Good consistent hashing schemes change mapping of K/N entries on single slot addition
 - K: number of keys
 - N: number of slots
- E.g., map keys and slots to positions on circle
 - Assign keys to closest slot on circle

Solution: Consistent Hashing



- Slots have IDs selected randomly from [0,100]
- Hash keys onto same space, map key to closest bin
- Less churn on failure \rightarrow more stable system