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TCP – Random Early Detection (RED) mechanism for Congestion Control

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R.I.T

TCP – Random Early Detection (RED) mechanism for Congestion Control

by

ASLI SUNGUR

This thesis is presented as part of the Degree of Master of Science in Network and System Administration with emphasis in Networking

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Abstract

This thesis discusses the Random Early Detection (RED) algorithm, proposed by Sally Floyd, used for congestion avoidance in computer networking, how existing algorithms compare to this approach and the configuration and implementation of the Weighted Random Early Detection (WRED) variation.

RED uses a probability approach in order to calculate the probability that a packet will be dropped before periods of high congestion, relative to the minimum and maximum queue threshold, average queue length, packet size and the number of packets since the last drop.

The motivation for this thesis has been the high QoS provided to current delay-sensitive applications such as Voice-over-IP (VoIP) by the incorporation of congestion avoidance algorithms derived from the original RED design **[45]**. The WRED variation of RED is not directly invoked on the VoIP class because congestion avoidance mechanisms are not configured for voice queues. WRED is instead used to prioritize other traffic classes in order to avoid congestion to provide and guarantee high quality of service for voice traffic **[43][44]**.

The most notable simulations performed for the RED algorithm in comparison to the Tail Drop (TD) and Random Drop (RD) algorithms have been detailed in order to show that RED is much more advantageous in terms of congestion control in a network. The WRED, Flow RED (FRED) and Adaptive RED (ARED) variations of the RED algorithm have been detailed with emphasis on WRED. Details of the concepts of forwarding classes, output queues, traffic policies, traffic classes, class maps, schedulers, scheduler maps, and DSCP classification shows that the WRED feature is easily configurable on tier-1 vendor routers.

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I would like to express my gratitude to Dr. Ali Raza for his scholarly advice, valuable time and encouragement. Dr. Ali Raza's vast knowledge in networking has helped me achieve a clear picture of concepts that were vital in my understanding of the complex algorithms detailed in this paper. I thank him whole-heartedly.

Finally, I would like to thank my parents for their love and supporting me on my journey towards the completion of my degree.

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Acronyms

1. Introduction

Congestion occurs on a network when a device, such as a router, is receiving more packets than it can handle. Because TCP responds to all data losses in a network, whether congestion or non-congestion related, by invoking congestion control, the discarded packet caused by a bit error would also be treated by TCP as if it were a congestion related packet loss **[3][6][20]**. There are a number of internet applications within TCP such as the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP), Secure Shell (SSH) and File Transfer Protocol (FTP) such that congestion control becomes an increasingly difficult task as the users for these applications grow. If packet losses occur mainly because of congestion in a linked network, then TCP would perform well in such an environment. TCP does not perform so well in networks where there is a high rate of packet losses that are caused by non-congestion related errors where congestion control is unnecessarily invoked for these losses as per TCP behavior **[6][20].** TCP detects congestion only after a packet has already been dropped therefore a different mechanism must be implemented or designed such that congestion is 'avoided' in order to improve network performance **[6][20].**

"The problem with end to end congestion control schemes is that the presence of congestion is detected through the effects of congestion, e.g., packet loss, increased round trip time (RTT), changes in the throughput gradient, etc., rather than the congestion itself e.g. overflowing queues."**[4].** Congestion control mechanisms, therefore, should be implemented at the source; the gateways. "The gateway can reliably distinguish between propagation delay and persistent queuing delay. Only the gateway has a unified view of the queuing behavior over time;

the perspective of individual connections is limited by the packet arrival patterns for those connections. In addition, a gateway is shared by many active connections with a wide range of roundtrip times, tolerances of delay, throughput requirements, etc.; decisions about the duration and magnitude of transient congestion to be allowed at the gateway are best made by the gateway itself." **[1, p.1].**

A new mechanism called Random Early Detection (RED) was proposed by Sally Floyd **[1]**. RED is an Active Queue Management (AQM) mechanism that is implemented at the gateway in order to 'avoid' congestion rather than 'respond' to a situation that may not even be congestion related. RED addresses issues caused by the TD and RD schemes, detailed later in this paper, by detecting and avoiding congestion earlier on. Avoiding global synchronization and being unbiased against bursty traffic are two areas that RED has shown to be advantageous in comparison to older and existing congestion control mechanisms **[4]**. *Global synchronization* is the pattern of all TCP/IP connections simultaneously starting and stopping their transmission of data during periods of congestion. Once a packet is lost and congestion is detected and all connections simultaneously reduce their transmission rate and restart transmission at the same time, this will lead to a continuous cycle of congestion therefore an inefficient use of bandwidth **[1]**. Algorithms such as TD penalize flows that transmit bursts of data in one go by dropping packets from these flows that may consume even a small amount of bandwidth, therefore an unfair algorithm. RED is unbiased against such bursty flows, allowing as much data to be successfully sent before slowing down transmission from flows randomly to avoid congestion **[1][4]**. To fully understand the algorithms detailed in this paper, it is crucial to first understand how TCP data packet sequence and acknowledgement numbering works.

1.1 TCP Sequence and Acknowledgement Numbering

Each data packet that is transmitted is assigned a sequence number in order to keep track of successful data transmission with the cooperation of acknowledgements (ACKs) received from the receiver. For every data segment transmitted, an ACK is sent back to the sender to confirm the successful transmission of the data therefore ACKs are used for flow control, error control and congestion control. The sender and receiver both keep track of each other's sequence and acknowledgement numbers to ensure that packets arrive successfully and in the correct order. An ACK can also 'piggyback' on or append to a data segment being sent in the opposite direction. The Sequence Number in the TCP Header is 4 bytes (32 bits) long and is assigned to every transmitted data packet. The 32 bit Acknowledgement Number is sent in the opposite direction to confirm receipt of the data received by the sender. The Window Size indicates the number of bytes that the receiver is currently willing to receive. Depending on the algorithm used, the window size can increment such that the sender can send more data at one time as long as the receiver has the capacity to receive that amount of data. Sequence and acknowledgement numbers are incremented in terms of bytes and not segments. To grasp how TCP congestion control works, it is important to first understand how sequence numbers are assigned and the expected acknowledgement numbers in return. **Figure 1** displays an example of data transmission along with sequence and acknowledgement numbering:

Figure 1: Data Transmission between two computers showing Sequence and Acknowledgement numbering. As shown, the connection between the two flows is *full duplex* meaning that data transfer can be bidirectional $(A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow A)$

The ideal situation in a network is where data transmitted always successfully reaches its destination with the response of the expected ACK in return, but consistently maintaining this ideal in a network is almost impossible. In reality, especially in larger scale networks, when data packets are sent they may get lost along the way hence fail to reach their destination, bit errors may and/or timeouts may occur and/or physical layer issues can completely stall transmission. In either scenario it is important to understand how TCP flows detect a lost packet and how it can differentiate between an out-of-order packet requiring retransmission with that of a packet that is dropped because of congested queues. The focus in this paper is packet loss that occurs as a result of network congestion such that the sender is transmitting more packets to the receiver than the receiver's advertised receiving capacity at that time. The slow-start sliding window algorithm detailed in section 1.3 explains how packet loss is detected and when congestion avoidance is invoked in order to 'avoid' congestion earlier.

1.2 Problem Statement

Congestion control in TCP works in a way such that the sender sends out data packet segments to the receiver up to the window size¹ advertised and if using the same LAN and working with a small network, this scenario would not cause a considerable number of issues. The problem starts to arise if there are intermediate slower links between the sender and receiver in a bigger network where there is more flow of traffic of varying packet sizes **[10]**. The intermediate router or link would also have to queue incoming packets to be sent out and if this intermediate router no longer has buffer² space to queue packets, more packets are dropped, retransmission of packets are required causing a degradation in network performance. Hashem states in **[14]** that early TCP had no actual congestion control policy and the only way the data flow was controlled was by the receiver advertising a smaller window size but there was no specification as to how congestion would be controlled. This can prove to be a big problem especially in bigger networks where the only way traffic is controlled is by buffering packets therefore all incoming packets thereafter would be discarded. At this point users at the end-

 $\overline{}$

 $¹$ receiving capacity in terms of bytes (segment size)</sup>

 2 area within the physical memory storage of a device, such as a router, where data is stored temporarily before it is transferred to the next device

connections would have to wait indefinitely long periods of time before the buffers are no longer full and hopefully before the gateway can slow down the responsible TCP connections. If the flow of data is slow and the buffers remain full and all incoming packets are continually discarded, there will be a stall in data transmission from all connections. Another issue that can occur for the end-users is a network *timeout*. A timeout is one of the ways TCP detects congestion and occurs when the sender does not receive an ACK within the calculated time of the RTT and connections are forcefully closed. Forcefully closing connections means that the sender would have to restart transmission of its data. The second way TCP detects congestion is through three duplicate ACKs as explained in the slow-start algorithm.

The slow-start and congestion avoidance algorithms used by TCP were introduced in order to control the amount of outstanding data **[8]**. The sender must first probe the network to determine how much data it can inject it with and that is the purpose of the *slow-start algorithm*. The variables used are *cwnd*, *ACK*, *rwnd* and *ssthresh*. *Cwnd* is the sender's congestion window limit as to how many segments it can send out while still receiving the correct number of ACKs and ACK numbers. *Rwnd* is the receiver's advertised window limit on the amount of data segments the sender is allowed to send at that time. *Ssthresh* is the slow-start threshold that determines whether to use slow-start or congestion avoidance once a packet loss is detected. The retransmission timer is used by TCP to keep track of the ACKs received for segments transmitted **[11]**.

The slow start algorithm is a technique used at the start of a new connection or when restarting segment transmission from a connection that has timed out. The sender first sends out one *Maximum Segment Size* (MSS) which is the largest segment that the sender can transmit at one time. For example, if the MSS is 1290 bytes and the *cwnd* is double that size (2580 bytes),

then the sender can send two segments at the start of the connection. Once the receiver successfully receives these two packet segment, it sends out two ACKs back to the sender informing it that it has successfully received the two window segments. The sender then sends out four packets, and after receiving four ACKs for those four packets, sends out a window of eight segments on the next trip. The sender's window segment size increases exponentially per RTT as long as the same number of ACKs are received to successfully acknowledge segments that are sent **[21][24][25]**. In TCP Reno, congestion is observed by either of the two following scenarios:

- 1) **Timeout**: As explained before, a timeout occurs when the sender does not receive an ACK within the expected RTT. Once a timeout occurs, this indicates to the sender that a packet has been lost and the sender goes into congestion avoidance mode. In the congestion avoidance mode, the congestion window is reset to 1 which puts the sender back into slowstart mode **[41]**.
- 2) **Duplicate ACKs**: When a receiver receives a segment with a sequence number that it was not expecting, then it responds to the sender by sending the same ACK it previously sent with the expected sequence number; this is a duplicate of the ACK it sent before. At this point the sender is not aware if the duplicate ACK received indicates that a segment was out of order or lost and usually just two duplicate ACKs received means that the expected ACK will soon be received and ordering will be sorted. If more than two duplicate ACKs are received (minimum of three duplicate ACKs), then the sender is now sure that a segment has been lost and performs a *Fast Retransmit.* In Fast Retransmit, the sender immediately transmits the missing segment to the waiting receiver and half of the current send window *cwnd* is saved as *ssthresh*. After Fast Retransmit, the sender enters the *Fast Recovery* phase

by maintaining the same larger window size but now slowing down transmission and increasing the window size by one segment hence entering the congestion avoidance state. Fast Recovery maintains higher throughput by not allowing the sender to go back into slowstart mode and restarting transmission at one segment **[41]**.

In **Figure 2** below, the slow-start algorithm is used to exponentially increase the window size of the sender. Ssthresh1 is the initial slow-start threshold and once it is reached, the sender enters the congestion avoidance state and the congestion window is halved (ssthresh2 is the new threshold). In the congestion avoidance state, in scenario **A**, by receiving 3 duplicate ACKs the sender is notified that a packet is indeed lost and therefore a Fast Retransmit of the missing segment is performed. The current window is set to half of the previous threshold (ssthresh3) and a Fast Recovery is performed by linearly increasing the window size starting from ssthresh2. In scenario **B** a timeout occurs and therefore the sender is forced to go back into slow-start mode **[41]**.

Window Size

Figure 2: Slow-start algorithm with the 3 duplicate ACKs and Timeout scenarios

Once the congestion avoidance state is reached, the choice of which gateway congestion control policy to use is dependent on the size of the network, services offered and the end-to-end protocols supported. The slow-start phase of TCP requires short bursts of data to be sent but RED can accommodate this short burst and therefore allows TCP's connections to smoothly open their windows while controlling the average queue size at the same time. RED is designed to be used in conjunction with TCP's existing congestion control techniques using timeouts and duplicate ACKs. RED's purpose is to more effectively notify the source of these timeouts and duplicate ACKs by informing the gateway to drop packets earlier hence the source would be notified to decrease its congestion window sooner **[42].** Section 2 discusses the different congestion avoidance mechanisms available in comparison to RED in order to improve network throughput and delay.

2. Earlier congestion control techniques

2.1 Introduction

Queue Management mechanisms decide when to start dropping packets and at what gateway source to drop these packets from. The main gateway based QM schemes implemented by TCP are TD, RD, IP Source Quench and Congestion Indication (DECbit). The problem with these schemes is that too many packets are dropped and the window size for connections decrease abruptly hence slowing performance down greatly because of loss of throughput. If TCP responds to all data losses by invoking congestion control, even if there is no actual congestion, this can considerably slow down the performance of a network because of decreased window sizes. With QM mechanisms such as TD and RD, congestion is detected once the buffer is already full and incoming packets are dropped and therefore may not be the best choices in terms of congestion avoidance but is rather suited for congestion recovery.

With Active Queue Management (AQM) congestion avoidance mechanisms, such as RED, the dropping of packets occurs earlier on. The Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) recommended the use of AQM to provide congestion avoidance to tackle the common issue of high packet loss rates in networks **[17].** The Routers are enhanced to detect and notify connections of impending congestion earlier, allowing them to slow down their transmission rates before the router buffer overflows **[18]**; called *proactive packet discard* **[34]**. The goal of an AQM mechanism is to achieve high link utilization, low queuing delay and improvement in packet loss rates and fairness **[18]**. By keeping the average queue length small, AQM will provide enough buffer space in the routers to absorb sudden bursts of traffic from connections **[16]**. In **[33]**, the *queue law* was proposed by Firoiu and Borden that states that "a router queue at equilibrium has an average queue length as a function of the packet drop probability" and this law is useful in configuring AQM mechanisms such as RED. RED is one of the most prominent and widely studied congestion avoidance algorithms because of its early congestion notification advantage over congestion control techniques such as Tail Drop and Random Drop.

2.2 Tail Drop

Because of the simplicity of FIFO queuing, the TD congestion control mechanism is widely used on the Internet today. The two main issues with TD are the *Full-queue problem* and *Lockout problem*. With bursty traffic, TD queues fill up fast because TD does not provide an indication of congestion to the sources before it occurs and congestion control is initiated once the queue is almost or already full; called the Full-queue problem **[1][23][40]**. With the TD QM scheme, gateways automatically notify the source when the queue is full and drops any new incoming packets at the tail. The congestion notification caused by a dropped packet leads *global synchronization*, which produces a cycle of congestion **[1]**. This global synchronization leads to flows unfairly occupying a very large portion of the bandwidth; called the lock-out problem **[40]**. This cycle of congestion allows queues to remain full for extended periods of time. Burstiness of packets is one of TD's biggest enemies and will continue to be so because even though TCP restricts a connection's window size, packets often arrive at routers in bursts. If the queue remains full for a long period of time, multiple packets will be dropped each time a burst of packets arrive. With unnecessary global synchronization of flows, the average link utilization and throughput is significantly lowered. The packets that are dropped once the buffer is full present a waste of bandwidth and in order to cope with the cycle of congestion at the gateways,

large queues will form at the backbone routers. As a result, TD results in bursty packet drops, high system instability and unfairness in bandwidth sharing when compared to an AQM mechanism such as RED **[1][9]**. The main comparison points between the RED and TD mechanisms are as follows:

- RED is tolerant of bursty traffic and therefore tries to allow as much data as possible from sources at one time. The burstier a TD gateway is, the more likely it is that the queue will become congested **[1][9][18].**
- Global synchronization of TCP data packet flows is avoided by RED. Once particular connections stop their data transmission, RED uses randomization in order to select what connections can restart sending data in order to avoid recurrent congestion. TD does not avoid global synchronization of data and therefore connections start and stop sending of their data at the same time, causing continuous congestion **[1][9][18].**

2.3 Random Drop

Initially when the concept of RD was proposed by the IETF it was deemed advantageous because of its low processing requirements. The algorithm does not require the overhead to keep track of the gateway's individual connections because the packets are selected randomly **[14]**. Other algorithms require more overhead to identify the connection to which the congestion causing packet belongs to. With the RD QM scheme, once congestion is detected, packets are randomly chosen and dropped from a pool of incoming packets. A random number *j* is generated each time a packet arrives adding to the *N* number of packets in the pool. Once congestion is detected, each arriving packet now has a *1/N* chance of being selected for dropping **[28]**. The

randomly chosen packet is selected by calculating the probability proportional to the average rate of transmission of that user **[27]**. The benefits of RD are better suited for congestion recovery in smaller networks but not for congestion avoidance. Congestion avoidance is a technique that is better suited for larger networks with a larger number of connections to 'avoid' recurrent congestion.

The main issue with RD is that sources generating the most traffic will have more dropped packets than sources generating less traffic so it scores low on fairness. Even after entering the congestion avoidance state where packets start dropping, packets continue to be sent resulting in even connections whose transmission rate has slowed down in getting their packets lost **[28]**.

3. Random Early Detection

3.1 Introduction

The RED gateway is an AQM congestion avoidance technique that takes advantage of TCP's congestion control mechanism to try to keep the queue for connections as low as possible [2]. To prevent bias against bursty traffic and global synchronization, unlike TD and RD, RED is able to make use of its algorithm in order to randomly select which connections to notify of the congestion. When the average queue size reaches a defined threshold, RED notifies connections of congestion randomly by either dropping the packets arriving at the gateway or by marking it with a bit but the focus in this paper is notification by dropping of packets [1]. RED is particularly relevant for avoiding global synchronization in networks where new or restarted transmissions go through the slow-start phase before reaching the congestion threshold.

3.2 RED Parameterization

3.2.1 Introduction

Optimum parameterization is what determines the success factor of the RED mechanism and therefore it is essential that the parameters are discussed before detailing the main RED algorithm and formulas. The main parameter-set that is used to calculate the packet drop probability is *min_{th}*, *max_{th}*, *avg*, and *p*. First, a minimum and maximum threshold must be defined in order to use RED. The success of the parameterization lies in keeping the average queue size (*avg*) at a midway, light oscillation between the min_{th} and max_{th} threshold values. Heavy periods of link under-utilization or the other extreme of over-utilization should be avoided to prevent the dropping of too many packets. If the $avg < min_{th}$ then packets will not be dropped but if $avg > max_{th}$ then all incoming packets will be dropped. If $min_{th} < avg < max_{th}$, then the packet is dropped with a certain probability *p*. The parameters set within the RED gateway should have a low sensitivity and should accommodate varying bandwidths. In order for a RED gateway to provide optimal network performance, the following rules must be applied when setting parameters in order to welcome a wide range of traffic conditions **[1]**:

- 1) The average queue size should be calculated carefully by setting w_q to at least 0.001 as stated by Floyd in **[7]**.
- 2) To maximize the network power, the *minth* should be set high enough so that the average queue size is not too low. With networks mainly being bursty in nature, an average queue size that is kept too low will cause the queue to be congested too soon causing the output link to be underutilized.
- 3) The buffer size between *minth* and *maxth* should be sufficiently large enough such that the probability of marking or dropping incoming packets is not too high. If a sufficiently large number of packets are dropped, this signals most connections to slow down their transmission at the same time and going through slow-start simultaneously (global synchronization).

The general formulas to calculate the packet drop probability are as follows:

Formula 1: Probability to drop a packet related to minimum and maximum queue threshold (calculation of the average queue size) with the assumption that queue size is measured in packets **[1]**:

 p_b = probability to drop a packet min_{th} = minimum queue length threshold max_{th} = maximum queue length threshold $avg = average$ queue size max_p = upper bound on dropping probability

$$
P_b = max_p(\text{avg} - min_{th})/(max_{th} - min_{th})
$$

Formula 2: Probability to drop a packet as more packets line up since last drop with the assumption that queue size is measured in packets. *Count* increases since the last dropped packet **[1]**:

$$
P_a = P_b/(1 - \text{count} * Pb)
$$

Formula 3: Probability to drop a packet related to packet size if the queue is size is measured in bytes instead of packets **[1]**:

> *PacketSize =* arriving packet size in bytes *MaximumPacketSize =* maximum packet size allowed in bytes

$P_b = P_b * Packagetsize/MaximumPacketSize$

3.2.2 W^q parameterization

W^q is the exponential weighted moving average filter that is used by RED in order to calculate the average queue size and **q** is the instantaneous queue size. The calculated average

avg should be a reflection of the current average queue size and should be kept below the defined maximum threshold. Setting the *w^q* parameter either too large or too low can directly affect how *avg* responds to changes in the actual queue size. If *w^q* is too large, then the algorithm would be pointless because transient congestion would not be detected and the estimated average queue size would too closely track the instantaneous queue size therefore detection of congestion would occur too late and performance would mimic that of a TD gateway **[1]**. If *w^q* is set to be too low, then the initial stages of congestion would not be detected at the gateway; the estimated average queue size is responding too slowly to transient congestion **[7]**. In a 1997 published email message from Floyd, she recommends that w_q be set to at least 0.001 in real-life networks and 0.002 in ns-1 and ns-2 network simulators with an upper bound of 0.0042 therefore: $0.001 \le$ $W_q \leq 0.0042$

3.2.3 Minth and Maxth parameterization

The difference between the min_{th} and max_{th} threshold should be large enough to enable a sufficient number of packets to be transmitted before being dropped. If the difference between *min_{th}* and *max_{th}* is too small, then congestion would be detected too late and the queues would reach or almost be reaching their maximum buffer sizes such as with Tail Drop and Random Drop; this paper focuses on RED in which this behavior is avoided. The *minth* should be set by calculating the highest possible base queuing latency and multiplying that by the bandwidth. Throughput will be degraded if the *minth* is set too small and if it is set too large then latency will be degraded. The *max*th should be set to at least twice the *minth* in order to prevent global synchronization. If transmission of data between links is slow, then it would be beneficial for the difference between *minth* and *maxth* to be even larger. Floyd suggests that the *minth* should be set to at least five packets or fives packets times a mean-packet-size in bytes. Setting the *minth* to anything less than five would not allow for bursty traffic **[7]**. Floyd recommends that m*ax^p* to not be set to anything higher than 0.1 as is the default setting in the ns-2 simulator.

3.2.4 Average Queue Length

The average queue size is calculated with the arrival of each packet. The low-pass filter that is used to calculate the average queue size is an exponential weighted moving average *w^q* (EWMA) as such: $avg = (1 - w_q) avg + w_qq$

This weighted moving average calculation calculates based on the average queue length rather than the instantaneous queue length because it provides a better over-all picture of the status of congestion at the gateways. If the hosts were told to slow down their packet transmission based on calculations performed by using the instantaneous queue length, knowing that queues can very quickly become empty and full again, there would be a constant change in the rate in which connections transmitted their data leading to inconsistent behavior **[1]**. If it is assumed that the average queue size is initially zero and increasing by *L* packets with every packet arrival, Floyd *et al* derives the average queue size formula in **[1]** as shown in **Formula 4** below:

$$
avg_{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{L} i w_{q} (1 - w_{q})^{L-1}
$$

= $w_{q} (1 - w_{q})^{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} i \left(\frac{1}{1 - w_{q}} \right)^{i}$
= $L + 1 + \frac{(1 - w_{q})^{L+1} - 1}{w_{q}}$

Formula 4: Calculation of average queue length where w_q is chosen to satisfy $avg \leq w_q$ *and* $w_q \leq 0.0042$ (upper bound of w_q as per Floyd)

3.3 RED Algorithm

There are two sub-algorithms contained within the RED algorithm that works at controlling the average queue size. In order to avoid the bias against bursty traffic, the first portion of the algorithm is necessary in order to compute the average queue size. The average queue size is calculated when the queue is idle (empty) by making an assumption as to how many small sized packets could have been transmitted during that idle time **[1][9]**. The second portion of the algorithm is used in order to avoid global synchronization by starting to randomly mark packets once the *avg* is at a midway point between *minth* and *maxth*. Once avg is greater than or equal to *maxth*, if the calculated packet drop probability is high then the packet is dropped and the connections are notified to slow down transmission, otherwise if it is low then the packet is not dropped **[1][9]**. **Figure 3** below shows a diagram of the RED algorithm:

Figure 3: RED algorithm showing computation of average queue length and packet dropping probability **[31]**

RED drops packets from connections in proportion to their use of the bandwidths. The size of the packets also determines its probability for being dropped. It makes sense that a larger packet has a higher probability of being dropped than a smaller packet as it uses a larger resource. The probability that a packet will be dropped increases as more packets line up in the queue since the last packet drop and more packets are dropped as congestion increases **[4]**. "During congestion, the probability that the gateway notifies a particular connection to reduce its window is roughly proportional to that connection's share of the bandwidth through the gateway" **[1, p.1]**.

The RED algorithm can be shown by either measuring the queue in packets or by packet

size. The following algorithm shows the RED gateway when it is measured in packets **[1]**:

avg: average queue size **time**: current time **q_time**: start of queue idle time **count**: packets since last dropped packet **wq**: queue weight **minth**: minimum queue threshold **maxth**: maximum queue threshold **max**_p: maximum value for packet dropping probability p_b **pa**: current packet dropping probability **pb:** packet dropping probability **q**: current queue size **f(t)**: linear function of time **m:** number of small packets

Initialization:

if the queue is nonempty

 $avg = (1 - w_q)avg + w_qq$ // 1

else

 $m = f(time - q_{time})$ //2

$$
avg = (1 - w_q)^m avg
$$

if $\min_{\text{th}} \leq \text{avg} \leq \max_{\text{th}}$

$$
P_b = max_p(\text{avg} - min_{th})/(max_{th} - min_{th})
$$

$$
P_a = P_b/(1 - \text{count} * Pb) \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{if } \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

with probability pa:

if probability low

enqueue packet and don't drop // 8

Following is the explanation of the RED algorithm presented above **[1]**:

Initialize with the following statements:

A) The average queue size is zero

B) The queue is idle (empty)

C) Calculate the average queue size with L packet arrivals with the following formula:

$$
avg_{L} = L + 1 + \frac{(1 - w_{q})^{L+1} - 1}{w_{q}}
$$

If the queue is not empty then

1) Use the formula following formula to calculate the average queue size *avg*

$$
avg = (1 - w_q) avg + w_q q
$$

Else if the queue is empty (idle) then

2) Estimate the number of small packets *m* that could have been transmitted during the idle period (to assist gateway with average queue size calculation) using the formula

$$
m = f(time - q_{time})
$$

3) After the idle period the gateway computes the average queue size as if *m* packets had arrived using the formula

$$
avg = (1 - w_q)^m avg
$$

If $\min_{h \leq a} s \leq \max_{h} h$ then

- **4)** Increase dropped packet count since last dropped packet
- **5)** Calculate the final dropping probability **p^a**
- **6)** Calculate packet marking probability **p^b** from that varies linearly from 0 to *max^p* as *avg* varies from min_{th} to max_{th} , using the formula

$$
P_b = max_p(\text{avg} - min_{th})/(max_{th} - min_{th})
$$

7) Calculation of final dropping probability by using the result of **p^b** from #6

$$
P_a = P_b/(1 - \text{count} * Pb)
$$

If packet dropping probability **p^a** calculated in #7 is low then

8) Enqueue the packet and don't drop

If packet dropping probability p_a calculated in #7 is high and approaching max_{th} then

9) Randomly drop packets from connections and the *count* of packets since last drop is reset to zero

Else if $\mathbf{avg} > \mathbf{max}_{\mathbf{th}}$ then

10) Drop all arriving packets and set *count* of packets since last drop to zero

Else **count = -1** (i.e. $avg < min_{th}$)

- **11)**When the queue becomes empty
- **12)**Time is reset to the start of the queue idle time

The only difference to be made to the RED algorithm in order to measure the queue by packet

size would be to replace the **p^b** function of

$$
P_b = max_p(\text{avg} - min_{th})/(max_{th} - min_{th})
$$

with

$$
P_b = P_b * Packagetsize/MaximumPacketSize
$$

where, as mentioned before, the *PacketSize* is the size of the incoming packet in bytes and the *MaximumPacketSize* is the maximum segment size in bytes the sender can transmit during that particular RTT and *p^b* varies between 0 and *max^p* **[1][24]**. Simulations performed on RED prove that with the proper parameters, RED is successful at controlling congestion at the queue in response to the change in load at the connections.

3.4 Simulations

3.4.1 RED Simulations

Floyd and Jacobson's RED simulation in **[1]** shows that as the number of connections linked to the gateway increase, the probability that packets will be dropped also increases. The simulation network in **Figure 4** contains four sources, each sending 1000-byte packets, linked to the gateway and each with a maximum window size that ranges from 33 to 112 packets. The parameters are set as follows: $w_q = 0.002$, $min_{th} = 5$ packets, $max_{th} = 15$ packets, and $max_p = 1$ 1/50

Figure 4: RED simulation network where data transmission at node 1 starts at 0 seconds, node 2 after 0.2 seconds, node 3 at 0.4 seconds and node 4 after 0.6 seconds

The simulation shows that by using RED at the gateway, the average queue size was successfully controlled in response to changing load. The frequency at which packets were dropped increased as the number of connections increased. Another key factor that shows RED's success was the fact that there was no global synchronization that led to continuous congestion at the gateway. As a packet was dropped, RED was able to accommodate the burstiness in the queue required by the slow-start phase **[1]**. Of all the four sources above, RED dropped a higher percentage of packets from the node that had the largest input rate. For a short period of time if the assumption is that the average queue size and the packet drop probability p remains the same and λ_i is the connection's input rate, then the formula for dropped packets from connection**ⁱ** is as follows:

$$
\frac{\lambda_i p}{\sum \lambda_i p} = \frac{\lambda}{\sum \lambda_i}
$$

Formula 5: Dropped packets from connection**ⁱ [15]**

3.4.2 RED and Tail Drop comparison

In another simulation performed by Shu-Gang Liu in 2008, RED's advantages against the TD algorithm are showcased with the use of the NS-2 network simulator. The simulation network in **Figure 5** that Shu-Gang Liu used contains two routers and four connections as follows **[34]**:

Figure 5: RED and TD comparison simulation network with a queue limit of 25 packets between routers r1 and r2

Once the simulation is run, the results of TD and RED are compared in terms of delay where the source 's2' is used for the investigation. RED and TD were used between r1 and r2 to measure the delay time between s2 and s4, respectively. Because the amount of congestion experienced between the TD gateways is higher, the delay of the data packets travelling from s2 to s4 is also higher. In **Figure 6** and **Figure 7** it can be observed that there is a significant difference in delay times between TD and RED where the peak delay of TD is 170ms and for RED it is 110ms.

Figure 6: TD with peak delay time of 170ms

Figure 7: RED with peak delay time of 110ms

3.4.3 RED and Random Drop comparison

In another simulation performed by Floyd in **[1]**, the point of comparison was to prove that RED is unbiased against bursty traffic unlike RD and TD. RED gateways differ from RD in that RD's mechanism does not contain a minimum and maximum threshold hence the most appropriate comparison strategy is between both gateways that maintain the same average queue size **[14]**. **Figure 8** below shows the simulation network of four FTP sources where node 5 is used in order to compare throughput, average queue and average link utilization. Node 5 has a RTT that is 6 times that of other packets and contains a small window therefore packets that arrive either arrive at the gateway with a long or many small interarrival times between them.

In this simulation the minimum threshold ranges from 3 to 14 packets, the maximum threshold is 2 times the minimum threshold and the buffer size is 4 times the minimum threshold which is therefore a range of 12 to 56 packets. The buffer size for RD ranges from 8 to 22 packets.

Figure 8: Simulation network comparing RED and

Random Drop

Because of node 5's large RTT and small window, this puts node 5 as close to the maximum throughput possible using a RED gateway. For node 5 a RTT that is six times longer than other links means that the throughput will be less than with other links because of the amount of time a packets takes to reach its destination and receive an ACK in return. The following maximum TCP throughput formula proves that a larger RTT means that the throughput will be lower **[26]**:

Max TCP Throughput = RCV Buffer Size / RTT

Formula 6: The throughput is measured in bits/second where RTT is calculated in this formula as a fraction of a second. The larger the value for RTT, the lower the throughput value will be where RCV Buffer Size is the receiver window buffer size of 65,535 bytes

With the RD gateway, node 5 receives only a small fraction of the throughput but a large fraction of the packet drops. Considering the large RTT for node 5, node 5 still maintains a consistently high throughput in comparison to RD as shown in **Figure 9**.

Figure 9: Comparison of throughput for Random Drop gateway on the left to the RED gateway on the right using the same node

Figure 10 below displays RED's advantage over RD in terms of the average queue in packets. The average queue for RED is less than RD because it is unbiased against bursty traffic. The average queue size for RED is measured with each packet sent out rather than instantaneous as with RD therefore congestion is avoided earlier on rather than when the queue is already full.

Figure 10: Graph displaying the difference in average queue size between RD on the left and RED on the right using the same node

Figure 11 below shows the results of the simulation performed on node 5 for the average link utilization. The results show that the average link utilization between RED and RD is very similar but RED still slightly proves to be at an advantage. The maximum threshold in this case was set such that RED maximized the use of the link. If the maximum threshold had been set too low, the link would be underutilized and an unnecessary number of packets would be marked or dropped too early.

Figure 11: Graph displaying the difference in average link utilization between RD on the left and RED on the right using the same node

4. Improvements to RED

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned earlier in this paper, the success of the RED algorithm in improving throughput, delay, link utilization, packet loss rate and system fairness relies on the optimal parameterization of its variables. In order for RED to be successful, these parameters must be set in such a way that the RED mechanism can strike a balance between reducing packet loss and preventing underutilization of the links by adjusting the rate of congestion notification **[17]**. RED parameters that are not sufficiently aggressive can quickly degenerate the queues into a simple TD queue. As the number of connections in a network increases, the impact of individual congestion notifications decreases therefore in order for RED to be consistently effective in such a situation, constant tuning of parameters would be required to adjust to current traffic situations. This constant requirement to adjust RED parameters to adapt to the network conditions would be an issue for network operators. Network operators require an estimation of the average delays in their congested routers in order to improve delay times as a part of the QoS delivered to their customers **[37]**. The following weaknesses of RED have caused the need for a tweak to the basic RED algorithm:

- 1) Network operators require that the average queuing delay be predictable in advance. RED's average queuing delay is not easy to predict because its average queuing delay is sensitive to the traffic load and parameters.
- 2) RED performs well when the average queue length is between the minimum and maximum queue threshold but once *avg* is greater than *maxth*, RED does not perform as well, resulting in decreased throughput and increased packet dropping rates.

As stated in **[34]**, unless upgrades to network routers are deemed necessary, it's unlikely that network administrators would deploy the RED algorithm on routers of a core network as it can be very complex and costly. Since the introduction of the concept of RED, many different variations have been proposed that alleviates the issues faced with RED. The main variations of RED are known to be Flow Random Early Detection (FRED), Weighted Random Early Detection (WRED) and Adaptive Random Early Detection (ARED). Although more recently many other variations and optimizations to RED have been proposed, neither have been researched as extensively as FRED, WRED and ARED. More recent variations of RED have further optimized their approach based on the ideas within the three main variations above. Neither of the all the variations of RED resolves all of the issues that come with RED but rather present a greater improvement in one or two main problem areas.

4.2 Weighted RED

WRED is a sophisticated algorithm that is currently implemented in routers of top tier-1 network equipment vendors such as Cisco and Juniper. WRED is advantageous over the original RED algorithm in that it additionally provides early detection of congestion for multiple classes of traffic. WRED drops packets from potentially congestive connections based on IP precedence therefore packets with a lower IP precedence is more likely to be dropped than a packet with higher IP precedence; non-IP traffic is more likely to be dropped than IP traffic **[2][30]**. Additionally, separate thresholds are provided for different IP precedences which mean that different qualities of service are allowed for different traffic classifications, for example the port number or protocol, with regards to packet dropping **[2][22]**. WRED provides early detection with QoS differentiation unlike RED where the drop probability is based on the connection's share of the bandwidth.

4.2.1 Cisco WRED Configuration

4.2.1.1 Enabling WRED

The Cisco routing platforms that support the WRED feature are the ASR 100, ASR 920, 1700, 1800, 7000 and 12000 series. In global configuration mode in the Cisco IOS (Internetwork Operating System), WRED must first be enabled on the router. Once WRED is enabled, the default parameters are pre-set in order to control traffic of all precedences. The default parameters are as follows **[48][56]**:

- **Weight factor**: used in order to calculate the average queue length and is set to 9
- **Mark probability** denominator: 10 (1 out of 10 packets are dropped once the average queue reaches the maximum threshold)
- **Maximum threshold:** based on the output buffering capacity and the transmission speed for the interface.
- **Minimum threshold:** IP Precedence 0 is calculated as half of the maximum threshold. Other precedences oscillate between half the maximum threshold and the maximum threshold.

The following commands are executed in interface configuration mode in order to enable WRED with the default parameter values **[55]**:

In order to modify the weight factor parameter along with the minimum and maximum threshold values based on different IP precedences, the following optional commands can be executed in interface configuration mode **[48][55][56]**:

Note: In order to configure RED instead of WRED, all precedences should be set with the same parameters

4.2.1.2 Configuring WRED in a Traffic Policy

A traffic policy can be created such that traffic classes can be included under this policy and inherit the characteristics configured for this policy. The **policy-map** command is used to create a traffic policy as shown in the following steps **[47]**:

4.2.1.3 DSCP Compliant WRED Configuration

With DSCP (Differentiated Services Code Point) compliant WRED, different levels of QoS can be applied to different traffic classes. The traffic policy informs the router how to treat the traffic defined under a certain class-map. The DSCP configuration for WRED is as follows

[48]:

4.2.2 Cisco WRED Implementations

DSCP-based WRED is implemented on the Voice, Interactive Video, Streaming Video,

Transactional Data and Best Effort classes in order to manage and classify network traffic. The

forwarding classes that apply to each class are shown in **Table 1** below **[46][58]**:

	FORWARDING CLASSES	
		DSCP based
CLASS NAMES	Name (Per-hop behavior) based	value
VOICE	ЕF	46
INTERACTIVE VIDEO	AF41	34
STREAMING VIDEO	AF31	26
TRANSACTIONAL DATA	AF21	18
BULK DATA	Δ F11	10

Table 1: Cisco Traffic classes with PHB and DSCP values

Once WRED is configured on the router for a certain traffic class, either the PHB (Per-hop behavior) value or the dscp value must be matched against once the class-map and traffic policy is created **[46][47][48]**. The following details WRED implementations in the traffic classes along with configuration examples:

1) **Voice:** The WRED implementation in the Voice class is for VoIP telephony and is assigned with an EF (Expedited Forwarding) PHB. Traffic assigned under the EF building block should be of low delay, low jitter and low loss services. The following configuration example for VoIP telephony uses class-based dropping and inspects all incoming traffic through Ethernet 0/1 to be matched against the class-map VOIP which contains the dscp value of 46 (Expedited Forwarding) **[44][45]**:

class-map match-all VOIP ! policy-map dscp_marking class voip set ip dscp 46 ! interface Ethernet0/1 service-policy input dscp_marking 2) **Interactive Video:** Sample applications that are implemented using DSCP-WRED are Cisco Unified Personal Communicator, Cisco Unified Video Advantage, and the Cisco Unified IP Phone 7985G. The class-based configuration for this class is similar to VoIP except that the dscp value should be changed to 34 instead of 46 or the AF41 PHB as shown in the following example:

Router(config-cmap)# match dscp af41 OR

Router(config-pmap-c)# random-detect dscp 34

3) **Streaming Video:** Streaming video applications that incorporate the use of DSCP-WRED include Cisco Digital Media System Video-on-Demand (VoD) streams. The dscp value of 26 or the PHB AF31 should be used for the class-based configuration of this video class as in the following example:

Router(config-cmap)# match dscp af31

OR

Router(config-pmap-c)# random-detect dscp 26

4) **Transactional Data:** Applications that fall under this class are foreground, use interactive applications from which users expect a response such as database applications, online ordering applications and Customer Relationship Management (CRM) applications. An class-based configuration example for this class is as follows:

Router(config-cmap)# random-detect dscp 10

OR

Router(config-pmap-c)# random-detect dscp af11 40 60

5) **Bulk Data:** Applications that fall under this traffic class are non-interactive and run in the background such as email, backup operations, large file transfers and content distribution. A class-based configuration should be performed as in the following example:

Router(config-cmap)# random-detect dscp 18 30 50 OR **Router(config-pmap-c)#** random-detect dscp af21 30 50

4.2.3 Juniper WRED Configuration

Network congestion avoidance is supported with WRED on the M7i, M10i, M40e, M320 and T-series routers **[62]**. When WRED is configured on a Juniper router, a color is assigned to each packet where committed translates to green, conformed to yellow and exceeded to red. There are 15 configurable drop profiles that can be configured with WRED on each line module (responsible for monitoring input and output signals). A RED drop profile is created in order to control packet dropping behavior of different classes that are directed to different queues once incipient congestion is detected **[52]**.

4.2.3.1 Enabling WRED

The following steps should be taken to configure a WRED drop profile on a Juniper router **[52][53]**:

4.2.3.2 Configuring WRED in a Traffic Policy

CoS (Class of Service) is configured on a device because special treatment must be provided to different traffic classes with delay-sensitive traffic such as VoIP. Once packets arrive on an interface, a buffer is required in order to queue these packets before they are forwarded. There are two default queues used on Juniper devices which are Queue 0 for best effort delivery and Queue 3 for network control traffic. The remaining two queues that can be configured are Queue 1 (Expedited forwarding traffic) and Queue 2 (Assured forwarding traffic) **[57].**

FORWARDING CLASS	OUTPUT QUEUE	TRAFFIC TYPE
be-class	Queue 0	Best effort traffic
ef-class	Queue 1	Expedited forwarding traffic
af-class	Queue 2	Assured forwarding traffic
nc-class	Queue 3	Network control traffic

Table 2: Juniper Forwarding Classes and Output Queues

A forwarding class must be mapped to its appropriate queue in order to direct packets into the correct queues once incipient congestion occurs; voice would be mapped to Queue 2. The purpose of the scheduler is to determine how traffic received in that queue is treated **[49][55]**. The scheduler map maps the scheduler to its appropriate queue and the scheduler map must then be associated with a traffic control profile **[51]**. A traffic control profile is used in order to set the bandwidth of the output queue by defining how queues that are mapped to a forwarding class set can share the bandwidth resources **[50]**.

If a drop profile is to be applied to an output queue then commands should be entered in the CLI (command-line-interface) editor in the following order:

4.2.4 Juniper WRED Implementations

WRED is implemented on the same traffic classes as with Cisco except that the configuration on the routers and switches for these particular classes is slightly different. The following configuration example details steps for a router on how voice traffic (VoIP) is given a strict high priority over traffic coming into other queues. If another traffic class is to be added to this configuration, its packet loss priority, IP precedence and forwarding class must be configured accordingly such that voice traffic is given higher priority.

1) **Using a classifier [59][61]**: For every incoming packet, a classifier will decide what output queue to forward the packet based on its forwarding class (FC). Once the packet is forwarded to the appropriate output queue, the queue is then managed based on the packet's PLP (packet loss priority). There are two types of classifiers that can be used: Behavior Aggregate (BA) and Multifield (MF); the BA classifier is the easiest way within Juniper devices to classify packets. For this example, the BA classifier will be used in order to set the forwarding class of an incoming packet based on a defined IP precedence. Unless specified otherwise, the default classifier will classify the incoming packet based on IP precedence.

set class-of-service classifiers inet-precedence classify_voice **forwarding-class** voice-class **loss-priority** low **code-points** 010

IP PRECEDENCE	FORWARDING	PACKET LOSS
(Code Point)	CLASS	PRIORITY
000	Best-effort	Low
001	Best-effort	High
010	Best-effort	Low
011	Best-effort	High
100	Best-effort	Low
101	Best-effort	High
110	Best-effort	Low
	Best-effort	High

Table 3: Juniper IP Precedence classifier

The default IP precedence classifier can be overwritten in order to classify incoming packets using a DSCP BA classifier in the following way:

set class-of-service classifiers dscp ba-classifier **set import** default **set forwarding-class** voice-class **loss-priority** low **code-points** 101110 #EF-class **set interfaces** ge-0/0/1 unit 0 **classifiers** ba-classifier

The code points selection when using the DSCP classifier is based on the following

information:

Table 4: DSCP Code Points Mapping

2) **Associating a forwarding class to an output queue [57]:** The voice-class forwarding

class is assigned to output queue 1

set class-of-service forwarding-classes queue 1 voice-class

3) **Configuring the scheduler map [57]:**

set class-of-service scheduler-maps voicesched-map **forwarding-class** voice-class **scheduler** voice-sched

4) **Setting the scheduler priority [57]:**

set class-of-service schedulers voice-sched **priority** strict-high

5) **Applying the classifier to an input interface [59]:** Traffic coming in from the interface

ge-0/0/1 will be classified against the previously defined FC.

set class-of-service interfaces ge-0/0/1 unit 0 **classifiers inet-precedence** classify_voice

6) **Configuring policers [60]**: Policers are created to set bandwidth and burst size limits on

the defined input interface. In this case, if the incoming voice traffic exceeds 400Kbps

and a burst size of 10K bytes, then the packets will be discarded

set firewall policer voice-exceeding **if-exceeding bandwidth-limit** 400k **set firewall policer** voice-exceeding **if-exceeding burst-size-limit** 10k **set firewall policer** voice-exceeding **then discard**

7) **Creating a firewall filter [61]:** Firewall filters can optionally be configured so that the router and/or switch can be protected from excessive traffic going through the router. In this case, the new policers created are now included under the firewall filter configuration to control traffic transiting the router. The *next term* command informs the router to use a next defined term in the configuration to perform configured actions on the incoming packet.

set firewall filter voice-term **term 01 from forwarding-class** voice-class **set firewall filter** voice-term **term 01 then policer** voice-exceeding **set firewall filter** voice-term **term 01 then** next term

4.3 Flow RED

FRED is an extension of WRED and its goal is to reduce the unfairness effects found in the original design of RED by generating selective feedback to a filtered set of connections which have a large number of packets queued **[15]**. The issue with FRED is that it presents a substantial departure from the original RED design with the introduction of additional parameters. These parameters include *min^q* and *max^q* (minimum and maximum number of packets allowed to be buffered for each flow), *avgcq* (average per-flow buffer count), *qlen* (count of buffered packets per flow) and *strike count* for the number of times a flow hasn't responded to congestion notification. In FRED, the calculation of the average queue length is performed at both the arrival and the departure of the packets **[15]**. Currently WRED is more widely implemented on gateway routers than its FRED extension. If the need for FRED is identified, the algorithm can be configured but in order to do so network engineers must first enable and configure WRED on the router before FRED can be enabled.

4.4 Adaptive RED

The goal of discussing a new version of RED in this paper is to stay as close to the original RED algorithm as possible because most of the other variations of RED represent substantial departures from the basic RED design. The revised RED algorithm called ARED achieves the desired target queue length without sacrificing other benefits of RED, can be implemented with a simple extension, proves to be sufficiently robust and can be automatically parameterized **[37]**. RED routers that show promise in easier configuration and parameterization prove to be more robust for deployment in routers. Adaptive RED (ARED) can be implemented as a simple extension to the basic RED algorithm and removes sensitivity to parameterization making it more worthwhile for deployment in routers **[34][35]**.

RED parameters are statically coded in its algorithm but ARED's variables are more dynamic such that initially only the *minth* variable needs to be set, then the coding within the algorithm will automatically set the other values as in **Formula 7** below:

 $C =$ link Capacity in packets/second computed for packets of the specified default size

$$
w_q = 1 - \exp(-1/\mathcal{C})
$$

Formula 7: ARED algorithm weighted moving average

In auto mode, once the *minth* value is set, the target queue size is 2 x *minth* and *maxth* is

3 x *minth*. With the proposal in **[35]**, Floyd *et al* adjusts the upper bound on the dropping probability *max^p* such that the average queue size is kept between the *minth* and *maxth* values; the average queue size stays close to the target queue size. The operator, therefore, needs only to set the target average queue length required. Simulations performed by Feng *et al* and Floyd *et al* in **[17][19][35]** prove the following:

- 1) The stability of a network with RED gateways and TCP connections depend on the load of the network but does not for an ARED network.
- 2) RED is sensitive not only to the parameters but also to the RTT's of the connections. In simulations performed in ns-2, ARED exhibits less sensitivity in both of these regards.

Both of the above advantages of ARED come with the disadvantage that the input of the target queue size beforehand means that there is a tradeoff between small queuing delay and stability as proven in **[36]**. **Figure 12** below demonstrates how the ARED algorithm functions **[19]**:

Figure 12: ARED algorithm diagram

ARED compares the average queue size to the target queue size every $\Delta_{interval}$ amount of time. If by the end of the $\Delta_{interval}$ of time if the average queue size is greater than the target queue size and $max_p \le 0.5$, then max_p is increased by α_{ared} which is greater than 0. If the average queue size is less than the target queue size and $max_p \ge 0.01$, then max_p is multiplied by β_{ared} which is less than 1 **[36]**.

It is not claimed that ARED resolves all issues faced with RED but it is deemed more attractive than other versions of RED because it is less sensitive to parameterization and requires minimal change to the original RED design. Currently ARED is not implemented on any routers.

5. Conclusion

The research detailed in this paper shows that congestion can successfully be avoided at the gateway with the cooperation of a transport protocol such as TCP. The mechanism of dropping packets once they reach a maximum threshold has been shown to be effective for controlling the average queue size. RED is unbiased against bursty traffic because the probability for RED to drop a packet from a connection is proportional to that connection's share of the bandwidth. If a small portion of the bandwidth is used by a bursty connection, the connection is not penalized by RED unlike Tail Drop and Random Drop and in this sense RED is more fair. RED also avoids global synchronization since the drop probability is proportional to the flow's share of the bandwidth. Since not all connections use the exact share of the bandwidth in one instance, not all flows slow down the transmission of their data at the same time. Flows enter the congestion avoidance state at different time intervals, avoiding the global synchronization by RED dropping packets at the lowest possible rate.

The Network Working Group (NTWG) recommends the use of RED based on the fact that unless network engineers have a better mechanism for congestion avoidance, RED has proven to perform an above decent job at managing queue lengths, reducing end-to-end latency, reducing packet dropping and avoiding the lock-out phenomena **[16]**. RED does also come with some flaws as a result of networks continually becoming more demanding in terms of the need for increased RTTs.

One of the improvements to RED has been to improve fariness by calculating the average queue length with the arrival plus the departure of a packet; called FRED. One of the most notable developments to RED has been the addition of resource management to routers such that

different traffic classes would be provided with different drop priorities, proposed by the WRED algorithm. WRED has been shown to be the most widely implemented algorithm within tier-1 vendor routers and it can be easily configured on network devices. ARED provides a simple extension to the basic RED design and shows promise of adaptability to various network conditions by setting a target queue length and with the ability to dynamically parameterize its variables. The success of RED lies in the optimal parameterization of its variables in order to accommodate changing network conditions otherwise it can quickly degrade to the behavior of a TD and RD algorithm.

6. Future work

The future work involved for the RED algorithm focuses on optimizing the average queue size in order to maximize the throughput and minimize the delay **[1]**. RED parameters should adapt to different network loads including that of demanding wireless links therefore should be dynamically rather than statically tuned. Such self-tuning RED algorithms still do not change the basic principles of RED therefore more research needs to be performed into the RED algorithm under more aggressive network conditions with multiple bottlenecks and multiple links of varying bandwidths. As a bulk of the research on RED is based on RED's behavior within a TCP network, future work should include the same amount of research with transport protocols other than TCP in order to evaluate its efficiency in various traffic conditions with more aggressive parameters. There are also connections that are unresponsive to congestion notification that may propose issues in a network therefore research may be continued on the RED mechanism for the handling of such flows **[16]**. New proposals on variations of the RED algorithm should be kept as simple as possible whilst optimizing or providing small extensions to the original algorithm.

Glossary

- Active open call: the first state the client must be in to initiate a connection with the server by sending a Synchronize (SYN) message to the server
- **Acknowledgement (ACK):** The message that the receiver sends back to the sender in order to acknowledge the receipt of the data packet received
- **Bit errors**: occur when packets are transmitted and some of the bits within the packet are modified
- Buffer: an area within the physical memory storage of a device, such as a router, where data is stored temporarily before it is transferred to the next device
- **Bursty traffic:** a bulk of data sent or received in one intermittent transmission
- **Congestion:** occurs on a network when a device, such as a router, is receiving more packets than it can handle
- **Congestion control:** technique that is used to ameliorate congestion, by ensuring that a single connection cannot consume all of the available bandwidth
- **Delay:** specifies how long it takes for data packets to travel from a sender to a receiver on a network
- **Fairness:** specifies whether applications and/or devices are receiving a fair share of network resources.
- Fast Retransmit: the sender immediately transmits the missing segment to the waiting receiver and half of the current congestion window *cwnd* is saved as slow-start threshold *ssthresh*
- **Fast Recovery**: performed by the sender right after a Fast Retransmit by maintaining the same larger window size but slowing down transmission and increasing window size linearly hence entering the congestion avoidance state
- **Full-duplex** transmission: bidirectional transmission of data between two nodes
- **Full-queue problem:** when queues fill up fast because no indication of congestion is provided to the sources and congestion control is initiated once the queue is almost or already full
- **Global synchronization:** pattern of all TCP/IP connections simultaneously starting and stopping their transmission of data during periods of congestion
- Initial Sequence Number (ISN): first sequence number in the Sequence field of the TCP Header
- **Internet Protocol (IP):** resides in the network layer and handles the addressing for the transmission of data packets to ensure that they are sent to the correct destination
- **Lock-out problem:** flows unfairly occupying a very large portion of the bandwidth caused by global synchronization
- **Memory buffer:** buffer included in TCP that is situated between the application layer and the data link layer that is responsible for receiving the data. The memory buffer, therefore, allows data to be independently received and read from the application layer while the application layer is allowed to process data at its own pace.
- **Maximum Segment Size (MSS):** largest segment that the sender can transmit at one time
- **Network power**: ratio of throughput to delay in a network
- **Passive open** call: the state that the server must be in to inform the client that it is waiting for an active open call from the client
- **Piggybacking:** when an ACK is appended to a data frame and sent at the same time such that it 'piggybacks'
- **Proactive Packet Discard:** when routers are enhanced to detect and notify connections of impending congestion earlier, allowing them to slow down their transmission rates before the router buffer overflows
- **Quality of Service (QoS):** refers to the prioritization provided to certain delay and timesensitive applications such that there is a guarantee of agreed services catered to that data flow over lower priority flows
- **Queue law:** a router queue at equilibrium has an average queue length as a function of the packet drop probability
- **Round Trip Time (RTT):** time calculated between the clocking in of the first bit of data sent and the receipt of the corresponding ACK received
- **Slow-start algorithm:** 'Sliding window' technique used at the start of a new connection or when restarting segment transmission from a connection that has timed out. The growth of the number of packet segments sent grows exponentially with the successful receipt of the same number of ACKs in return
- **Three-Way Handshake:** the connection establishment that occurs between the client and server such that certain messages are sent and acknowledged before any data transfer can occur
- **Throughput**: the rate at which packets are successfully delivered in a given period of time
- **Timeout:** one of the ways TCP detects congestion and occurs when the sender does not receive an ACK within the calculated time of the RTT and connections are forcefully closed
- **Transmission Control Protocol (TCP):** used as the core protocol or set of rules in the transport layer to deliver packets in a reliable manner from an application program over the Internet using the Internet Protocol (IP)
- **Voice-over-IP (VoIP):** refers the methodology that makes use of the Internet Protocol (IP) to transport voice data over a network
- **Window size:** receiving capacity in terms of bytes (segment size)

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