P4-enabled Network-assisted Congestion Feedback: A Case for NACKs

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ABSTRACT

There exists an extensive body of work, spanning more than two decades, on congestion control schemes and signaling mechanisms. The majority of prior work does not, however, entertain the notion of network-assisted feedback for congestion control. The scope of the remaining work has also been, unfortunately, rather narrow: Some efforts limit themselves to using weak signals (involving a few bits in the header) and relying on receivers to reflect such signals to the sender; few others maintain per-flow statistics or explicitly set the rates the senders should use. Virtually all suggested networkassisted congestion feedback mechanisms are ineffective, not scalable, or limited to data-center contexts.

In this proposal, we exploit data-plane programmability of P4 switches as well as hardware-supported priority classes to present a novel network-assisted congestion feedback (NCF) mechanism. The feedback entails NACKs that are directly sent to the sender, and does not involve the receiver; it is, hence, quick and efficient. We propose sending such NACKs during periods of congestion to senders of elephant flows, and outline a scalable approach to identify elephant flows. Unlike prior work, NCF is applicable in both data-center as well as Internet-wide scenarios.

CCS CONCEPTS

Networks → Packet classification; Programmable networks; In-network processing;

KEYWORDS

Congestion control, P4, AQM, NACKs

BS'19, December 2-3, Stanford, CA

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1 INTRODUCTION

Congestion control is responsible for avoiding congestion collapse and is one of the most challenging tasks in the Internet [5, 25, 29]. Effectively controlling the congestion is becoming increasingly difficult, e.g., [3, 23], due to availability of very-high-speed links, increases in traffic diversity and burstiness, decreases in buffer sizes (relative to link speed), and the needs of the congestion-control (CC) mechanism to meet diverse goals. Today's goals focus not only on fair sharing of network resources, e.g., [35], but also on lowering delays, maximizing throughput, and effectively solving the Incast challenge (e.g., [3, 9, 11, 14]).

It is, therefore, not surprising that there is a large body of work on congestion control, including numerous CC schemes (e.g., Cubic [22], the default CC mechanism in Linux kernels, and BBR [9]), congestion-signaling mechanisms (e.g., ECN [28]) and many data-center-specific (e.g., DCTCP [3], pFabric [4], PCC [13, 14], QJUMP [20], NDP [23], Copa [6], and Homa [36]) as well as application-specific CC schemes (e.g., QUIC [30]). Huang et al. [24] presents an in-depth survey of this solution space. Recent approaches have also proposed the use of machine learning algorithms to dynamically tune the CC mechanism to achieve the optimal performance in a given scenario [31, 45].

The idea of eliciting support from the network to improve end-to-end CC schemes is not new (e.g., [2, 15, 27, 32, 37]). Scope of prior work in this space, however, has been rather narrow: Prior efforts either restrict themselves to using only a few bits for signaling (e.g., ECN [42], SNA [18], DECbit [43], and ATM [34]) or to setting explicit rates for senders (e.g., [37] and RCP [15]). While the former is an insufficient signal and also does not guarantee that the signal will affect only the source(s) responsible for congestion, the latter per-flow mechanism is simply not scalable. Even other approaches that accommodate rich congestion signals (e.g., [27, 32]) rely on receivers reflecting such signals back to the senders, implying a delayed congestion-feedback loop.

Among the reccurring takeaways of prior CC work are the following four observations: (1) We require mechanisms to handle both short flows and long flows, typically referred to

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Figure 1: Overview of the network-assisted congestion feedback mechanism

as *mice* and *elephants*, respectively [1, 21]; while mice dominate in terms of the number of flows, elephants dominate by volume of data transferred [17]. (2) Sharing queues between elephants and mice adversely affects the performance of flows and prioritization of traffic helps in alleviating the issue [20]; today, priority classes and multiple queues are supported even in commodity hardware. (3) Buffers should be kept short to ensure short, deterministic delays. (4) Buffers are getting shallow, i.e., their size relative to link speed is getting smaller [3, 7].

With advancements and adoption of programmable data planes [8], we propose a *network-assisted congestion feedback* (*NCF*) mechanism that exploits the above observations and offers an effective means to control congestion regardless of whether it is in a data-center or Internet-wide scenario. We exploit the programmability of today's switches to identify elephant flows independent of queue length and send explicit congestion notifications (NACKs) to the sender of these flows for throttling them. We are, in a limited form, resurrecting an idea similar to that of source quench [40] or choke messages [38], but *without* the caveats and issues that resulted in the deprecation of those old ideas (e.g., [19]). We allay security concerns, e.g., switch overload, by highlighting that the generation of the feedback signal (the NACKs) is done entirely *within* the data plane.

We summarize the contributions of this proposal as follows. We maintain three separate queues—two for mice and elephant flows, and one for control packets. We present a technique to identify, at line rate, without maintaining perflow states, elephant flows using *rolling* sketches. We outline a simple work-conserving memory allocation scheme to manage the memory reserved for the three queues. Lastly, instead of dropping packets we use network-generated NACKs to throttle elephant flows. The design of NCF (refer Fig. 1), in our opinion, can ensure fair sharing of resources across both mice and elephant flows, requires only short queues, achieves high throughput, and tackles the Incast problem. The design of NCF, furthermore, lends itself to be applicable to both: data-centers and the Internet.

2 DESIGN GOALS

Traffic flows in the Internet can be broadly categorized into two types: (a) *elephant* flows, which involve the transfer of a relatively large volume of data and last for a relatively longer duration; and (b) *mice* flows, which constitute the remaining flows of shorter durations and data-transfer sizes. While the users' expectation is simply minimal flow-completion times (FCTs), regardless of flow types, operators have to tackle at least two key challenges: (a) realizing the best performance from the existing network infrastructure; and (b) planning and provisioning capacity when, and where, required; overprovisioning hardware is not the panacea for all network problems. To meet both the users' and operators' expectations, CC solutions have to meet several criteria.

• *Fair sharing of resources:* A key objective is to facilitate fair sharing of bandwidth between all flows including both mice and elephant flows. In particular, elephant flows should not progress at the cost of mice flows.

• *Short queues or buffers.* Network queues or buffers allow a network element to handle transient traffic spikes or congestion. Moreover, provisioning large buffers will not solve these problems, and is typically undesirable, or infeasible, in practice. Large buffers, for instance, introduce additional delays; for mice flows most of their FCTs will constitute time wasted in such buffers. Provisioning large buffers, especially for high-speed links, can be prohibitively expensive: Per-port on-chip memory is rather expensive.

• *Handling TCP Incast.* Incast is the TCP performance degradation issue that arises when a large number of senders simultaneously send traffic to one receiver. Such a many-to-one traffic pattern naturally arises in storage and distributed systems (e.g., distributed file systems and map-reduce applications) [39]. Packet losses at the bottleneck link affects many senders, all of whom then wait for a random period (typically, one retransmission timeout of 200 ms) before attempting retransmissions. Thus, the problem adversely affects not just the FCTs of many senders, but also the completion time of the distributed job or computation.

• *Work-conserving design.* Statically assigning priorities or queue sizes for mice and elephant flows might not suit different kinds of workloads or traffic patterns. Thus, a work-conserving strategy is needed to maximize switch throughput.

• *Scalability.* Tracking the state of every flow quickly becomes infeasible in large networks [16], due to the required amount of memory. It is, hence, crucial to avoid or minimize tracking of flows to ensure scalability.

3 INSIGHTS

To meet the design goals outlined in the prior section we exploit the following insights.

• *Address the elephants.* Elephant flows contribute most to bytes transferred, albeit most flows in the Internet are mice. While elephant flows are subject to congestion control, mice flows (due to their size and duration) are *not*:

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Mice flows may fillup a network buffer or queue at any time [26].

• *Three queues suffice.* It is well-known that sharing a queue between elephant and mice flows adversely impacts the FCTs of all flows [20]. Rather than statically assigning flow priorities we estimate them online, in the data plane. We show that three queues suffice to assist end-to-end congestion control schemes. Note, that today's switches and routers offer hardware support for a small number of queues.

• *Detect elephants in data plane.* Data plane programmability facilitates the use of advanced data structures such as sketches (e.g., [10, 12]) to compute key statistics [47]. Essentially, detection of heavy hitters (or elephant flows) is not feasible entirely in the data plane [44].

• *Trim packets in data plane.* The idea of trimming packets, by stripping the payload, in data-center environments as demonstrated by [23, 41] can be reused even in an Internet-wide context.

• *Network (switches/routers) can initiate NACKs.* Until now, network assistance, for end-to-end congestion control, has been restricted to the use of adding and updating one or two bits in a packet. Furthermore, since the network is not directly signalling the sender, the sender relies on the reflection of such signals by the receiver. P4 enables us to send network congestion feedback directly to the sender via NACKs, and, by removing the receiver from the feedback loop, this can drastically reduce the feedback duration (and sender's reaction time).

• *Dynamically allocate memory.* Rather than statically allocating memory for a given network queue, switches can dynamically manage the amount of memory allocated to different queues (following a work-conserving design).

• Congestion signals independent of queue usage. It is possible to send congestion signals to heavy elephants even if they do not currently have any packets queued at a switch.

4 THE DESIGN OF NCF

In this section we discuss the implementation of NCF and highlight our key design choices.

4.1 Rolling Sketches

Ideally, to quickly mitigate congestion experienced at a switch, we must send congestion notifications to a subset of the elephant flows inbound to the switch; recall, from §3, that elephant flows are subject to congestion control, whereas mice are not. Sending such notifications only to the sources (or senders) of elephant flows necessitates the identification of elephant flows, continuously, at any point of time. To this end, we exploit the novel capabilities of P4 switches, namely the capability to maintain counters and various kinds of sketches at line rates [33, 44]. Specifically, we build and continuously



Figure 2: Illustration of rolling counters

update, at line rate, a *rolling* (count) sketch that facilitates dynamic identification of elephants without keeping state for all flows.

The idea of rolling sketches are similar to that of rolling counters. Sketches, in contrast to counters, provide good estimates for the high-frequency items (in this case, the elephant flows) while using very limited memory. Given our objective to detect and track elephants, sketches are ideal for our use case. The rolling sketches can also handle the transition of mice flows into elephant flows, and vice versa. *Tracking flows.* We maintain a counter $c_{f_i}^t$ per flow and time window. Rather than tracking all time windows, however, we maintain *n* windows with each representing a duration *d*. These *n* windows then allow us to track of flow popularity over a time period of up to $d \times n$. At time t_0 , the 0th time window is used to count the packets. The flow counters $c_{f_i}^0$ capture, hence, the packets arriving within the time window $\lfloor \lfloor t/d \rfloor * d, (\lfloor t/d \rfloor + 1) * d \rfloor$. More generally, the flow counters $c_{f_i}^j$ capture packets arriving within the window $[(\lfloor t/d \rfloor - j) *$ d, $(\lfloor t/d \rfloor - j + 1) * d$]. In addition to these counters, we track the total traffic within each time window *j*: $T_j = \sum_{f_i} c_{f_i}^J$.

Detecting elephants. To check whether a flow f_i is an elephant, we define a function F that takes as input the per-flow counters $c_{f_i}^j$ and the total-traffic estimates T_j and returns a boolean. An average threshold-based (say, 5%) function, for instance, is one simple example to realize F. In this example, if a flow contributes more than 5% on average¹ within the last n time periods of duration d, we label it an elephant; otherwise, we label it a mice. If time t crosses an interval boundary, the current flow counters are moved from index 0 to 1, and the counting resumes on a set of newly initialized counters.

Visualizing rolling counters. From left to right, the illustration, in Fig. 2, shows the states of three counters $\{c_2, c_1, c_0\}$

¹Another implementation of F could require an elephant to exceed the threshold only in one or in all time intervals. There are, hence, many ways to define F, and it can be customized based on our objectives.

at different points of time. Right before the interval boundary at t_1 , flows f_2 and f_3 contributed 1 and 8 packets (in the column corresponding to c_0), respectively. The flow f_2 (f_3) contributed 5 (10) packets in the prior interval, and 10 (12) packets in the oldest interval, which is two intervals prior to the current interval. Both these flows would be labelled elephants. Flow f_1 , in contrast, contributed 1 packet. Therefore, it would be labelled a mice. Per this illustration, note that after crossing the time interval t_1 , the counter values are "rolled" over to the left; values in c_0 are moved to c_1 , that in c_1 to c_2 , and c_0 is re-initialized. The counter values at t_2 indicate that f_2 has transitioned from being an elephant to being a mice, while f_3 has transitioned in the opposite manner.

From counters to sketches. Per-flow counters are not scalable due to amount of memory they require. We can, however, use sketches [10, 12] to approximate the counts. We, therefore, replace the counters for each time period with a sketch (e.g., a CountMin sketch) that provides approximate counts, while requiring a small and fixed memory budget (regardless of the number of flows tracked). The switch from counters to sketches does not affect our ability to detect as well as discriminate elephant flows from mice flows.

4.2 Queues

Since the relative size of buffers (i.e., size of the buffer relative to link speed) in switches have been drastically decreasing [3, 7], we designed our CC mechanism to require only three short queues. As a side-effect, flows experience only low and deterministic delays.

We propose to use three queues: one for elephant flows, one for mice, and one for control packets. To classify and schedule incoming packets onto the queues, we do not require per-queue statistics. We rely, instead, on the sketches from the prior section (§4.1). We suggest the following "rule-of-thumb" reserved sizes for the three queues to ensure a minimum bandwidth for the different packets. Allocate 10% each to mice and elephant queues, and a maximum of 5% to the control packet queue². The remaining bandwidth is distributed in a work-conserving manner as needed. Our bandwidth reservations together with using a work-conserving scheduler ensures that elephant flows cannot starve mice flows and vice versa.

We suggest to redistribute memory on demand and use the reservations only when available memory becomes a bottleneck. Our goal is to allow mice and/or elephant flows to use up almost all available memory (up to a limit, e.g., 95%), and consequently the bandwidth, if there are no other packets in the switch.

4.3 Network-assisted Congestion Feedback

When congestion occurs at a switch, marked by the lack of available memory for the queues, we send an explicit congestion signal or feedback (rather than marking packets to indicate congestion—à la ECN) to the source or sender. While these notifications are based on the idea of packet trimming from NDP [23], our design significantly diverges from that of NDP: We generate a NACK from the trimmed packet and send it directly to the sender. Both packet trimming and NACK generation can be performed efficiently within the data plane, using P4, as it only entails switching source and destination endpoints (i.e., IP address and ports) and adding a flag to mark the packet as a NACK.

By sending the NACK directly to the sender, we remove the receiver from the feedback loop. Furthermore, we queue the NACKs in the highest-priority control queue. Our congestion notifications, as a result, can be expected to be even faster than NDP and ECN and, thus, can significantly reduce the sender's reaction time. The NACKs should also help tackle the Incast problem. A sender should be able to quickly reduce its sending rate and, thus, ensure a fair sharing of the network bandwidth. Lastly, NACKs also help the sender directly infer which packet did not reach the receiver (as a result of the trimming at the switch).

Although we do not combine multiple NACKs to the same source, the overhead in sending multiple NACKs is likely to be limited. Moreover, NACKs can be dropped if the network is overly congested.

4.4 Utilizing NCF

The utilization of NCF simply depends on how the switch memory is allocated between mice and elephant flows; memory required for buffering NACKs is minimal, since NACKs only contain packet headers. Incast traffic, which constitutes mainly mice flows, requires tilting the memory allocation in favor of the mice queue. High-throughput elephant flows, in contrast, require the opposite—more memory for the elephant queue.

If support for Incast dominates that for high throughput flows (a necessity in many data-center scenarios), load spikes in mice packets should be accommodated. We may have to allocate, under such circumstances, more memory to the mice queue by reclaiming buffer from the elephant queue. Reclaiming memory entails dropping packets from the concerned queue. In this case, we also generate NACKs and send them to the sender via the control queue.

An obvious disadvantage of the above approach is that we only throttle elephant flows that currently have packets in the elephant queue. This strategy might not always result in throttling the most appropriate flows. Alternatively, we

²Multiple priority queues with bandwidth reservations are commonplace on network switch hardware today.

can supplement our rolling sketches (refer §4.1) with a priority queue to retain information about the top N (say, 20) elephant flows within the last $n \times d$ time period. In case of congestion, we can then send NACKs for these top elephant flows, regardless of whether they currently have packets in the queue, until the load across the switch decreases.

In order to avoid attacks, where an attacker might use a lot of mice flows to cause packet drops across elephant flows, we limit such throttling to a short time period. Note, we know how many mice packets have been handled within the last $n \times d$ time period, which should exceed a multiple of the expected RTT. If we observe that mice flows are using too many resources, we can again re-allocate the memory to maintain a balance between all flows.

5 DISCUSSION

NCF does not obviate the need for CC schemes; rather it calls for the control loop to simply acknowledge an explicit signal from the network concerning congestion. Unlike prior work, NCF targets only elephant flows for such signals to simplify the design while maximizing effectiveness as well as scalability. We briefly outline a few key design choices and tradeoffs that require a thorough examination in the future. The presentation of NCF design $(\S4)$ Tuning control knobs. includes various recommendations or "thumb-rules" on the choice of thresholds, queue sizes, and data structures. These recommendations can be refined empirically via extensive experiments against a host of CC schemes (e.g., via Pantheon [46]) or adjusted based on the needs and expectations of a network operator, or even dynamically altered using off-the-shelf machine-learning tools.

Interplay of control loops. There is a rich body of work, spanning decades of time, on congestion-control schemes which include a wide spectrum of optimizations for detecting, mitigating, and avoiding congestion on the path between the sender and receiver. Even though NCF technically does not introduce an additional control loop, the sending of NACKs to the sender shortens the control loop and its impact on existing CC schemes at the endpoints requires a thorough evaluation. However, we expect that congestion control schemes at the endpoints can be simplified or made more efficient by taking into the account the explicit network information via the NACKs.

Security considerations. We acknowledge that the ability to control a sender's rate via NACKs raises a few security concerns, similar to that of "source quench" [19]. We note, however, that the likelihood of a flow getting affected depends significantly upon its duration. Only the small fraction of elephant flows are likely affected. Moreover, an attack requires the attacker to guess the five tuple identifier as well as the sequence number. The attack is, hence, no different from generating fake or duplicate ACKs—NCF does not per-se introduce any new problems. Since the NACKs are generated at line rate within the data plane, we do not introduce any new opportunity (vulnerability) to overload the switch.

Congestion visibility. The visibility of NACKs to any thirdparty, who can observe the traffic, might be immensely helpful in both research and practice. Since the feedback (i.e., NACKs) are generated in the data plane, at the switch where congestion was experienced, there is no fundamental limitation restricting us from augmenting the feedback signal with additional information (e.g., the switch identifier or IP address). These supplementary information, however, may leak information about which networks are experiencing congestion, and also where; operators do not have strong incentives for providing such supplementary data.

6 CONCLUSION

A host of techniques have been explored until now to provide an effective solution for congestion control. Virtually all prior work have either never considered including network assistance in the end-to-end congestion control process or limited the use of such signals to one or two bits (e.g., ECN) or their applicability to data-center or layer-2 environments.

We leveraged hardware support in switches for a few queues and the increasing adoption of P4 to present a networkassisted congestion feedback mechanism. Our design uses only three queues in a P4 switch and proposes NACKs as an explicit network congestion feedback. We exploit the capabilities of a P4 switch to dynamically track elephant flows and throttle them, as required, using NACKs. The NACKs, sent directly to the sender, are expected to arrive at the sender faster than prior work (e.g., ECN and NDP) and should significantly reduce the sender's reaction time. Lastly, NCF is applicable in both data-center and Internet-wide contexts. We intend to follow up this proposal with prototype implementations on P4 switches and evaluate the various design choices and parameters.

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