

# A Two-Time Scale Design for Detection and Rectification of Uncooperative Network Flows

X. Fan, K. Chandrayana, M. Arcak, S. Kalyanaraman, J. T. Wen  
Department of Electrical, Computer, and Systems Engineering  
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute  
Troy, NY 12180

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**Abstract**—Existing Internet protocols rely on cooperative behavior of end users. We present a control-theoretic algorithm to counteract *uncooperative* users which change their congestion control schemes to gain larger bandwidth. This algorithm *rectifies* uncooperative users; that is, forces them to comply with their fair share, by adjusting the prices fed back to them. It is to be implemented at the edge of the network (e.g. by ISPs), and can be used with any congestion notification policy deployed by the network. Our design achieves a separation of time-scales between the network congestion feedback loop and the price-adjustment loop, thus recovering the fair allocation of bandwidth upon a fast transient phase.

## I. INTRODUCTION

In a network which does not differentiate among users, the equilibrium rate for any user is primarily determined by the congestion control being used [1]. With new software advancements, however, “*uncooperative*” users can change their congestion control schemes to gain more than their fair share of bandwidth, at the cost of cooperative users. This uncooperative behavior can lead to TCP unfriendliness, congestion collapse [2], [3] and, to a traffic-based denial-of-service to cooperative users [4], [5]. Detecting uncooperative users, and “*rectifying*” their flow rates to comply with cooperative rates, is thus an important emerging problem in network management.

Among rectification mechanisms proposed in the literature, the majority are “router-based” that is, they modify the router algorithm to detect and limit uncooperative flows, e.g. Active Queue Management (AQM) schemes or scheduling disciplines. In [2] and [3], the authors study AQM schemes, and investigate the effect of uncooperative flows on network throughput and loss rates. Flow Random Early Drop (FRED), a modified RED scheme, is proposed in [6] to detect uncooperative users, and to limit their rates by increasing their packet drop probabilities. In [7], the authors combine the BLUE queue management algorithm with a Bloom filter to detect and rate-limit uncooperative flows. Several other rate-based schemes are surveyed in

[8]. Scheduling schemes, such as ack-spacing, have been suggested to manage uncooperative flows in [9].

More recently, *edge-based* price-adjustment mechanisms have been proposed in [10] and [11], which manage uncooperative flows only at edge routers. A significant advantage of this approach is that it does not require core network upgrades and can be implemented without performing per flow management at routers. By estimating each flow’s incoming rate and using it to label flow’s packet, the Core-Stateless Fair Queueing (CSFQ) algorithm in [10] computes the forwarding probability from link fair rate estimation. However, this design only applies to networks in which all nodes implement Fair Queueing. In [11], the authors manage uncooperative flows by mapping their utility function to a specified target network behavior at the edge. This study, however needs to estimate the utility function to achieve this edge-based price adjustment, and is thus restricted to a specific form of TCP.

In this paper, we develop an edge-based price-adjustment algorithm using tools from singular perturbations theory [18], [19, Chapter 11]. Rather than address a specific protocol, we develop our design within the optimization framework of Kelly [1], [12], [13], [14], [15], which is applicable to diverse types of networks, and encompasses numerous protocols such as TCP Reno, TCP Vegas, FAST [16], [17] etc. Our algorithm recovers the cooperative share of bandwidth prescribed in Kelly’s framework, with a new feedback loop implemented at the edge router, and, hence, referred to as the “edge supervisor”. It detects uncooperative users by comparing their sending rates with “*audit*” rates calculated according to an ideal, cooperative, model, and increases their price feedback. Although in this design edge supervisor does perform per flow management by this price adjustment loop, core nodes, which are in general more complex than edge nodes, do not perform per flow management, and therefore the implementation complexity is significantly reduced.

We design the price adjustment loop to evolve in a faster time-scale than the existing price feedback loop from the links, because, then, uncooperative flows are rectified during a fast transient phase, after which stability and convergence properties of the desired cooperative network model is re-

Corresponding author. Electrical, Computer and Systems Engineering Department, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, NY 12180-3590, USA. Tel.: +1-518-276-8205; fax: +1-518-276-6261.

covered. Indeed, using singular perturbations tools [18], [19, Chapter 11], we prove that the fast and slow feedback loops, when combined, ensure convergence of the sending rates to their cooperative values. The type of convergence established is “semi-global” [19], which means that any desired region of attraction can be achieved by increasing the feedback gain of the price-adjustment loop.

The paper is organized as follows: Section II overviews Kelly’s primal and dual flow control algorithms. Section III studies the primal algorithm and presents our price adjustment design for uncooperative users. Section IV extends this design to the dual algorithm. In Section V, we implement our price adjustment algorithms in NS-2 and evaluate their performance for various single and multi-bottleneck topologies, for both marking and dropping congestion notification policies. In particular, we show that given a standard network behavior like TCP-Friendliness, our algorithm forces uncooperative users to comply with their fair-share of the bandwidth. Conclusions are given in Section VI.

*Notation:* We denote by  $R_+ = (0, \infty)$ , and, by  $R_+^N$  vectors whose entries are in  $R_+$ . Given a function  $f(x)$ , its positive projection is defined as

$$(f(x))_x^+ := \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x > 0, \text{ or } x = 0 \text{ and } f(x) \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } f(x) < 0. \end{cases}$$

If  $x$  and  $f(x)$  are vectors, then  $(f(x))_x^+$  is interpreted in the component-wise sense.

## II. OVERVIEW OF KELLY’S PRIMAL AND DUAL FLOW CONTROL ALGORITHMS

In Kelly’s framework [1], network flows are modeled as the interconnection of users and communication links as shown in Figure 1.

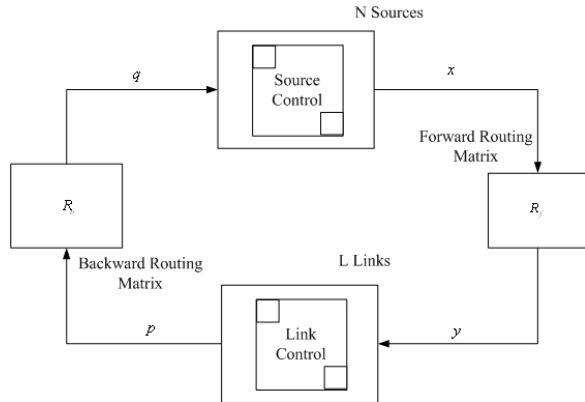


Fig. 1. Network flow control model.

Packets from each user (with sending rate  $x_i$ ) are routed through the links with the aggregate link rate

$$y = R_f x \quad (1)$$

where  $R_f$  is the forward routing matrix. Each link  $j$  has a fixed capacity  $c_j$ , and based on its congestion and queue size, a link price,  $p_j$  is computed:

$$p_j = h_j(y_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, L. \quad (2)$$

The link price information is then sent back to each source with the aggregate source price,

$$q = R_b p. \quad (3)$$

where  $R_b = R_f^T$ , since the links only feed back price information to the users that utilize them.

Kelly formulated the flow control as the combination of a static optimization and a dynamic stabilization problem. The static optimization problem computes the desired equilibrium by maximizing the sum of the source utility functions  $U_i(x_i)$ , while complying with capacity constraints in the links:

$$\max_{x \geq 0} \sum_{i=1}^N U_i(x_i) \quad \text{subject to} \quad \underbrace{R x}_{y} \leq c. \quad (4)$$

The dynamic problem is to design the source rate update law based on the aggregate price, and the link price update law based on the aggregate rate, to guarantee stability of the equilibrium. For this problem, Kelly introduced two dynamic algorithms: The *Primal Algorithm* consists of a first order source update law, and a static penalty function for the link to keep the aggregate rate below its capacity:

$$\dot{x}_i = \kappa_i (U'_i(x_i) - q_i), \quad p_j = h_j(y_j). \quad (5)$$

The penalty functions  $h_l(y_l)$  are designed to enforce the link capacity constraints  $y_l \leq c_l$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, L$ , i.e., to keep the aggregate rate  $y_l$  below its capacity  $c_l$ .

The *Dual Algorithm* consists of a static source update and a first order dynamic price update:

$$x_i = U_i'^{-1}(q_i), \quad \dot{p}_j = \gamma_j (y_j - c_j)_{p_j}^+. \quad (6)$$

From (6), the unique equilibrium for the dual control law is obtained from the equations

$$q_i^* = U_i'(x_i^*), \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (7)$$

$$p_l^* \begin{cases} = 0 & \text{if } y_l^* \leq c_l \\ \geq 0 & \text{if } y_l^* = c_l \end{cases} \quad l = 1, \dots, L, \quad (8)$$

which as shown in [1], correspond to the solution of the optimization problem (4), in which  $p_l$ 's play the role of Lagrange multipliers for the capacity constraints. For the primal control law (5), the equilibrium obtained from

$$q_i^* = U_i'(x_i^*), \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (9)$$

$$p_l^* = h_l(y_l^*) \quad l = 1, \dots, L, \quad (10)$$

approximates the optimality condition (7)-(8) with the help of the penalty functions  $h_l(y_l)$ . The stability of these two algorithms and their extensions has been established in [12], [13], [20], [21], [22], [14], [15], [17], [23].

### III. UNCOOPERATIVE USERS IN KELLY'S PRIMAL ALGORITHM

We now assume that some users, which we call “uncooperative”, use more aggressive utility functions to increase their share of bandwidth; that is, instead of  $U_i(x_i)$  in (5), they implement  $\tilde{U}_i(x_i)$ :

$$\dot{x}_i = \kappa_i \left( \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) - \tilde{q}_i \right). \quad (11)$$

To rectify these uncooperative users, we propose that the supervisor at the edge of the network (e.g., internet service providers) adjust the price feedback from its nominal value  $q_i$  to  $\tilde{q}_i$ . An ideal design of  $\tilde{q}_i$  would be

$$\tilde{q}_i = q_i + \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) - U'_i(x_i), \quad (12)$$

which replaces  $\tilde{U}'_i(x_i)$  in (11) with the cooperative  $U'_i(x_i)$ . However, this design is not implementable because  $\tilde{U}_i(x_i)$  is not known to the supervisor. Instead, in our design, we obtain an estimate of  $\tilde{U}_i(x)$  with the help of the cooperative reference model:

$$\dot{\hat{x}}_i = \kappa_i (U'_i(x_i) - q_i), \quad \hat{x}_i(0) = x_i(0). \quad (13)$$

The  $\hat{x}_i$  thus calculated differs from  $x_i$  by  $e_i := \hat{x}_i - x_i$ , which, from (11)-(13), is governed by

$$\dot{e}_i = \kappa_i \left( \tilde{q}_i - q_i - \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) + U'_i(x_i) \right). \quad (14)$$

This means that, if we design the price adjustment to be

$$\dot{\tilde{q}}_i = q_i - \rho_i e_i, \quad (15)$$

with a sufficiently high gain  $\rho_i > 0$ , then the variable  $e_i$  evolves in a faster time scale than  $x_i$ , and reaches the quasi-steady state  $\rho_i e_i \approx -\tilde{U}'_i(x_i) + U'_i(x_i)$ . Thus, after a fast transient, our design (13), (15) approximates the non-implementable scheme (12). For cooperative users, where  $\tilde{U}_i(x_i) = U_i(x_i)$ , (13) and (15) yield  $\tilde{q}_i = q_i$ , which means that no price adjustment is applied.

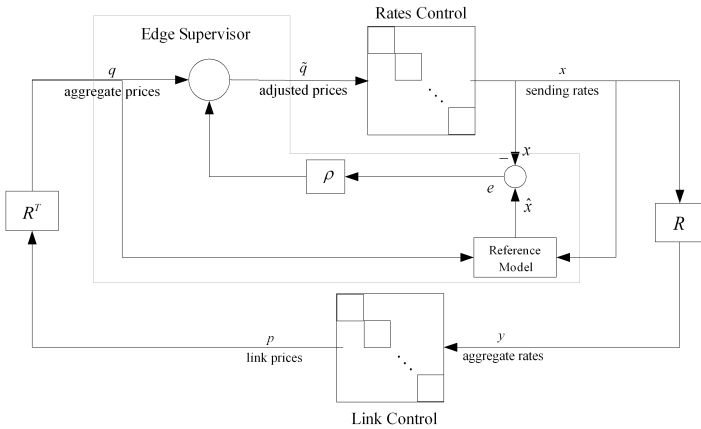


Fig. 2. Price adjustment for uncooperative users in Kelly's primal algorithm.

The algorithm (13), (15) is depicted with a block diagram in Figure 2. In Theorem 1 below, we use tools from singular-perturbations theory [18], [19] to prove that it achieves asymptotic stability of the cooperative value  $x^*$  in (9)-(10):

*Theorem 1:* Consider the network (1)-(3), where some users implement the uncooperative algorithm (11), rather than (5). Suppose  $U_i(x_i) : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are increasing and sufficiently smooth functions,  $U_i''(x_i) < 0 \quad \forall x_i \in \mathbb{R}_+$ , and  $U_i(x_i) \rightarrow -\infty$  and  $\tilde{U}_i(x_i) \rightarrow -\infty$  as  $x_i \rightarrow 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, N$ . Then, the price adjustment algorithm (13), (15) ensures that, for any compact set  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}_+^N$  of initial conditions  $x(0)$ , there exists  $\rho_i^* > 0$  such that, if  $\rho_i > \rho_i^*$ , then  $x(t)$  and  $\hat{x}(t)$  remain bounded, and  $x(t)$  converges to the cooperative value  $x^*$  in (9)-(10).

The assumptions of Theorem 1 on the utility functions  $U_i(x_i)$  are standard in the literature [1], [14], [24]. In particular, the assumption  $U_i(x_i) \rightarrow -\infty$  as  $x_i \rightarrow 0$  ensures that  $\mathbb{R}_+^N$  is positively-invariant, i.e., if  $x$  is initially in  $\mathbb{R}_+^N$ , it will remain in  $\mathbb{R}_+^N$  for all  $t \geq 0$ . It is satisfied by commonly used utility functions such as  $U_i(x_i) = -\frac{a_i}{x_i}$  (variant of TCP Reno) and  $U_i(x_i) = a_i \log x_i$  (TCP Vegas) [14]. For others, such as  $U_i(x_i) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\tau_i} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\tau_i x_i}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$  (TCP Reno), we can modify Theorem 1 and prove stability by using positive projection functions as in [15]. It is reasonable to make the same assumptions for  $\tilde{U}'_i(\cdot)$  as for  $U'_i(\cdot)$ , because cheating users would typically change the parameters of the nominal utility functions, such as  $a_i$  in TCP Vegas above. However, this assumption excludes some traditional unresponsive flows referred to as UDP or CBR, in which, users send data at a constant rate without acknowledging any feedback from the network.  $\square$

**Proof:** To represent the algorithm (11), (13) and (15) in the standard singularly perturbed form [18], [19], we let

$$\omega_i := \rho_i e_i \quad (16)$$

$$\varepsilon_i = \frac{1}{\rho_i} \quad (17)$$

and obtain:

$$\dot{x}_i = \kappa_i \left( \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) - q_i + \omega_i \right). \quad (18)$$

$$\varepsilon_i \dot{\omega}_i = -\kappa_i \left( \omega_i + \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) - U'_i(x_i) \right). \quad (19)$$

An inspection of (18) and (19) shows that the equilibrium for  $x_i$  is same as the cooperative  $x_i^*$  in (9)-(10), and the equilibrium for  $\omega_i$  is

$$\omega_i^* = -\tilde{U}'_i(x_i^*) + U'_i(x_i^*). \quad (20)$$

To shift this equilibrium to 0, we define

$$\varpi_i := \omega_i + \tilde{U}'_i(x_i) - U'_i(x_i) \quad (21)$$

and rewrite (18)- (19) as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= K \left( U'(x) - R^T h(Rx) + \varpi \right) \\ \varepsilon \dot{\varpi} &= -K \left( \varpi - \varepsilon \frac{\partial (\tilde{U}'(x) - U'(x))}{\partial x} (U'(x) - R^T h(Rx) + \varpi) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

where we use the vector notation  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_N]^T$ ,  $\varpi = [\varpi_1 \ \varpi_2 \ \dots \ \varpi_N]^T$ .  $K = \text{diag}\{\kappa_i\}$  and  $\varepsilon = \text{diag}\{\varepsilon_i\}$  are diagonal matrixes of the source controller gains  $\kappa_i > 0$  and  $\varepsilon_i > 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , and  $U'(x) \in \mathbb{R}^N$  is a vector whose  $i$ th component is the derivative  $U'_i(x_i)$  of the utility function  $U_i(x_i)$ . Likewise,  $h(y) \in \mathbb{R}^L$  and  $\tilde{U}'(x) \in \mathbb{R}^N$  consist of the penalty functions  $h_l(y_l)$  and uncooperative utility functions  $\tilde{U}'_i(x_i)$ .

To prove asymptotic stability of  $(x, \varpi) = (x^*, 0)$  we use the Lyapunov function

$$V = \sum_{i=1}^N (-U_i(x_i) - U_i(x_i^*)) + q_i^*(x_i - x_i^*) + \sum_{l=1}^L \left( \int_{y_l^*}^{y_l} (h_l(\sigma) - h_l(y_l^*)) d\sigma \right) + \frac{1}{2} \varpi^T K^{-1} \varpi \quad (23)$$

which is positive definite and radially unbounded in  $\mathbb{R}_+^N$ , and yields the derivative

$$\dot{V} \leq -f_1(x)^T K f_1(x) - \varpi^T \varepsilon^{-1} \varpi + \varpi^T \frac{\partial (\tilde{U}'(x) - U'(x))}{\partial x} \varpi + \varpi^T f_2(x), \quad (24)$$

where

$$f_1(x) := U'(x) - R^T h(Rx), \quad (25)$$

$$f_2(x) := \frac{\partial (\tilde{U}'(x) - U'(x))}{\partial x} ((U'(x) - R^T h(Rx)) + K(-U'(x) + R^T h(Rx))). \quad (26)$$

We show in Lemma 1 below that, on any compact set of  $(x, \varpi)$  that includes  $(x^*, 0)$ , we can choose  $\varepsilon$  small enough to ensure  $\dot{V}$  is negative definite. The conclusion of Theorem 1 follows from this lemma because, from  $\hat{x}(0) = x(0)$ , we have  $\omega(0) = 0$  and, thus  $\varpi(0) = -\tilde{U}'(x(0)) + U'(x(0))$ , which means that for any set  $\Omega$  as in the statement of the theorem, we can find a corresponding region of attraction in  $(x, \varpi)$  coordinates, which does not depend on  $\varepsilon$ . Since  $V$  is also independent of  $\varepsilon$ , we can select a level set of  $V$  that encompasses this region of attraction, and design  $\varepsilon$  from Lemma 1 to render  $\dot{V}$  negative definite in this level set.  $\square$

**Lemma 1:** Let the assumptions of Theorem 1 hold, and let  $f_1(x)$  and  $f_2(x)$  be defined as in (25)-(26). Then, for any compact set  $\Lambda$  of  $(x, \varpi)$  that includes  $(x^*, 0)$ , there exists  $\varepsilon^* > 0$  such that if  $\varepsilon_i \in (0, \varepsilon^*]$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , then  $\dot{V}(x)$  given in (24) is negative definite on  $\Lambda$ .

**Proof:** We first claim that there exists a constant  $\delta > 0$  such that, for any compact set  $\Lambda$  of  $(x, \varpi)$  that includes  $(x^*, 0)$ ,

$$f_1(x)^T K f_1(x) \geq \delta \|x - x^*\|^2. \quad (27)$$

To prove this we show that the Hessian of  $f_1(x)^T K f_1(x)$  is positive definite at  $x^*$ . To this end, we note that

$$f_1^T(x) K f_1(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N \kappa_i f_1^i(x)^2$$

and use the chain rule for the second derivative of the function  $\kappa_i (f_1^i(\cdot))^2$ :

$$\frac{\partial^2 (\kappa_i (f_1^i(x))^2)}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x=x^*} = 2\kappa_i f_1^i(x^*) \frac{\partial^2 (f_1^i(x))}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x=x^*} + 2\kappa_i \left( \frac{\partial (f_1^i(x))}{\partial x} \right)^T \left( \frac{\partial (f_1^i(x))}{\partial x} \right) \Big|_{x=x^*}.$$

Because  $f_1^i(x^*) = 0$  and because

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x}(x^*) = U''(x^*) - R^T \frac{\partial h}{\partial (Rx)} \Big|_{x=x^*} \quad R \leq U''(x^*) < 0$$

we conclude

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial^2 (f_1(x)^T K f_1(x))}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x=x^*} \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \kappa_i \left( \frac{\partial (f_1^i(x))}{\partial x} \right)^T \left( \frac{\partial (f_1^i(x))}{\partial x} \right) \Big|_{x=x^*} \\ &= 2 \left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} \right)^T K \left( \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} \right) > 0 \end{aligned}$$

which proves (27).

Next, we apply Young's Inequality [25] to the term  $\varpi^T f_2(x)$  in the right hand side of (24):

$$\varpi^T f_2(x) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} \|\varpi\|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{4} \|f_2(x)\|^2, \quad \lambda > 0,$$

and get

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &\leq -\varpi^T \left( \varepsilon^{-1} - \frac{\partial (\tilde{U}'(x) - U'(x))}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{\lambda} I_{N \times N} \right) \varpi \\ &\quad - \delta \left( \|x - x^*\|^2 - \frac{\lambda}{4\delta} \|f_2(x)\|^2 \right). \end{aligned}$$

Because  $f_2(x)$  is zero at zero and continuously differentiable, we can select  $\lambda$  and  $\varepsilon^*$  such that, for all  $x \in \Lambda$ ,

$$\frac{\lambda}{4} \|f_2(x)\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \|x - x^*\|^2$$

$$\frac{1}{2\varepsilon^*} I_{N \times N} - \frac{\partial (\tilde{U}'(x) - U'(x))}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{\lambda} I_{N \times N} \geq 0$$

and obtain

$$\dot{V} \leq -\frac{1}{2\varepsilon^*} \varpi^T \varpi - \frac{\delta}{2} \|x - x^*\|^2,$$

for any  $\varepsilon_i \in (0, \varepsilon^*]$ , which concludes the proof.  $\square$

In Theorem 1 we require that the edge supervisor set  $\hat{x}(0)$  equal to  $x(0)$ . However, it is not difficult to show that the proof holds true for small errors between  $\hat{x}(0)$  and  $x(0)$ . In implementation it may also be necessary to know how large the gain  $\rho_i$  must be selected. While, in principle, such



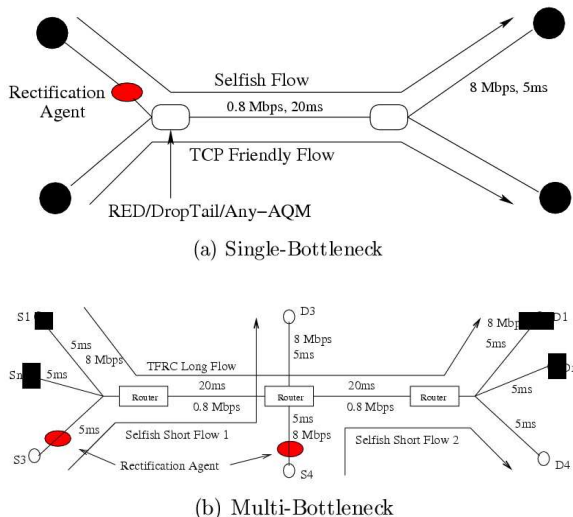


Fig. 4. Topologies used in simulations.

Since almost 90% of the traffic carried on the Internet uses TCP, we chose TCP-Friendliness as our definition of conformant flows. In this paper all transport protocols are rate based. Thus, all TCP-Friendly schemes use equation based rate control scheme (TCP Friendly Rate Control - TFRC) presented in [26] and all selfish schemes are variants of TFRC which have conservative decrease algorithms, i.e. upon congestion they decrease more slowly than TCP. We would like to refer the reader to [11] for ways to generate selfish flows. In this paper we have also assumed that all the flows are persistent flows, i.e. they have infinite data to transfer. However, we will also present the results for the scenarios where we have both persistent and short web traffic competing for bandwidth.

We evaluate our algorithm for both single and multi-bottleneck topologies, with various degree of flow multiplexing. We also test its robustness in the presence of mice like web traffic and reverse path congestion. Figure 5 shows the results where RED is deployed on the routers. In the simulation, two flows compete for bandwidth in a single bottleneck scenario. Among these flows, the first is TCP-Friendly with  $U(x) = -1/x$ , while the other is uncooperative with the utility function  $U(x) = -1/\sqrt{x}$ . If both competing flows were TCP-Friendly, they would have shared the bandwidth equitably. However, Figure 5 a) shows that the uncooperative flow grabs a larger share of the bandwidth. With our edge-based algorithm, in Figure 5 b) the two flows share the bottleneck bandwidth equitably. Simulations with other uncooperative utility functions in this scenario, not presented here, yield similar results.

In the multi-bottleneck topology shown in Figure V b), the TCP-Friendly long-flow, competes for bandwidth against the two uncooperative short-flows. Figure 6 a) shows the result corresponding to the cooperative setup where both the long and short flows use TCP-Friendly rate control scheme. Figure 6 b) shows the result for the setup where we replace the TCP-Friendly short flows with uncooperative rate control

schemes with utility function  $U(x) = -1/\sqrt{x}$ . We see that, the uncooperative flows get an unfair share of the bandwidth and almost force a traffic volume based denial of service attack. When we employ our edge-based supervisor, with  $\rho = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$ , we recover the ideal bandwidth sharing of bottleneck links, as shown in Figure 6 a). The value of  $\rho$  is comparatively large, because dropping or marking probability is less than 1 and so is the price adjustment  $\rho \times e$ .

#### A. Higher Flow Multiplexing with Background Traffic and Reverse Path Congestion

To further present the efficiency and the robustness of our scheme we increase the number of competing flows, and add HTTP sources to the persistent flows and also short TCP-Friendly flows to the reverse paths. The capacity of the bottleneck links is set to 8Mbps and that of access links to 80Mbps. The bottleneck buffer is set to one bandwidth delay product.

Figure 7 shows the results for the scenario where 5 TFRC flows compete for bandwidth against selfish flows. On each bottleneck there were 5 selfish short flows. To these persistent flows, we added short web transfers which occupied 10% of the bottleneck bandwidth. Further, we also setup flows on the reverse path. Specifically, on each bottleneck in the reverse path there were 5 flows competing for bandwidth and thus creating congestion on the reverse path. Figure 7 shows the throughput of one flow from each group: TFRC Long flows, selfish short flows from Group 1 which go over the first bottleneck only; and, finally, the selfish short flows from Group 2 which go over the last bottleneck only.

Figure 7 a) shows the ideal sharing of the bottleneck when the short flows are also TCP-Friendly. Figure 7 b) shows that in the absence of any policing the uncooperative flows get more share of the bandwidth at the expense of TFRC flows. With our rectification algorithm ( $\rho$  as  $2.5 \times 10^{-5}$ ) the fair share of the TFRC flows is restored; see Figure 7 c).

#### B. Effect of Gain $\rho$ on Rectification of Selfish Users

The performance of our edge-based rectification algorithm depends on the gain  $\rho$  in equation (15). As detailed below, simulation studies indicate that too small or too large values of this  $\rho$  may deteriorate the performance. Indeed, Theorem 1 disallows small values of  $\rho$  because, otherwise, the desired two-time-scale behavior is not achieved. Although Theorem 1 allows arbitrarily large values for  $\rho$ , in practice, such high-gain leads to saturation of dropping or marking schemes, not considered in Theorem 1.

Consider the multi-bottleneck setup shown in Figure V b). In Figure 6 we presented simulations with  $\rho = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$ . In Figure 8 we compare this result with  $\rho = 10^{-4}$  (Figure 8 b)) and with  $\rho = 10^{-5}$  (Figure 8 c)).

We note that a high value of  $\rho$  may result in “over-penalization”, and uncooperative flows may receive even less than their fair share. Similarly, with a very small value of  $\rho$  the selfish users are not sufficiently penalized and they continue to get more share of the bottleneck link(s) at the expense of cooperative users. However, for intermediate



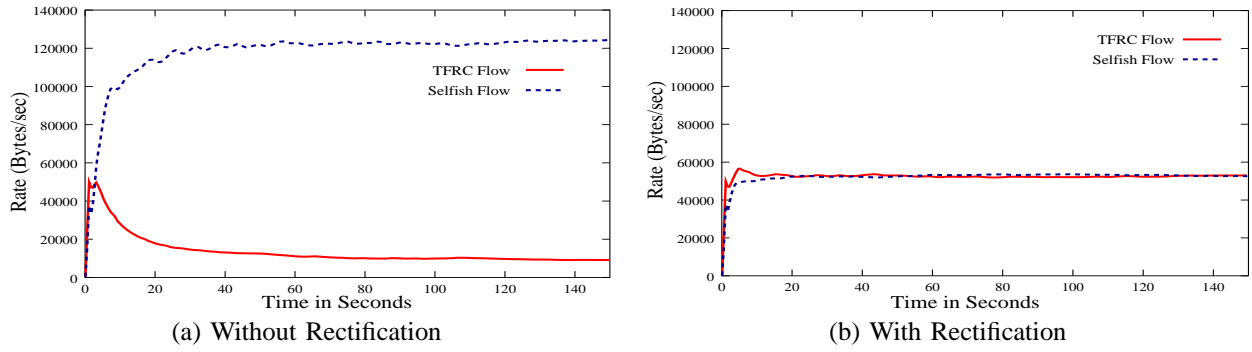


Fig. 5. Single-Bottleneck Topology: Equitable sharing of bandwidth enforced by the edge supervisor.

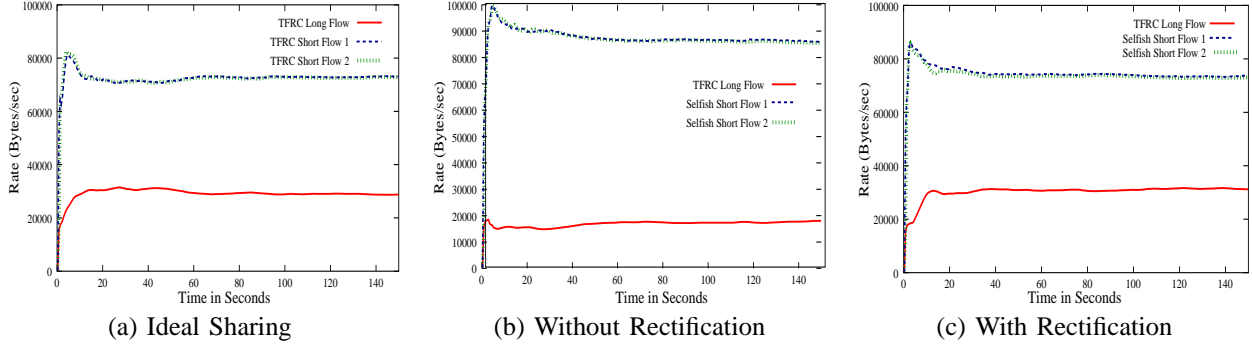


Fig. 6. Multi-Bottleneck scenario where (a) shows the ideal bandwidth sharing (b) shows the aggravated unfair sharing in the presence of uncooperative flows and (c) shows the rectification of uncooperative flows with our edge supervisor.

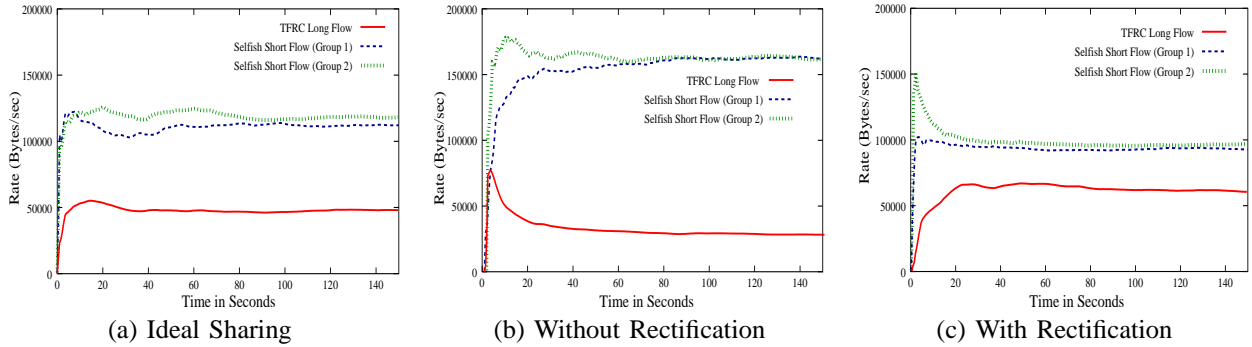


Fig. 7. Higher flow multiplexing with background traffic and reverse path congestion in a multi-bottleneck setup.

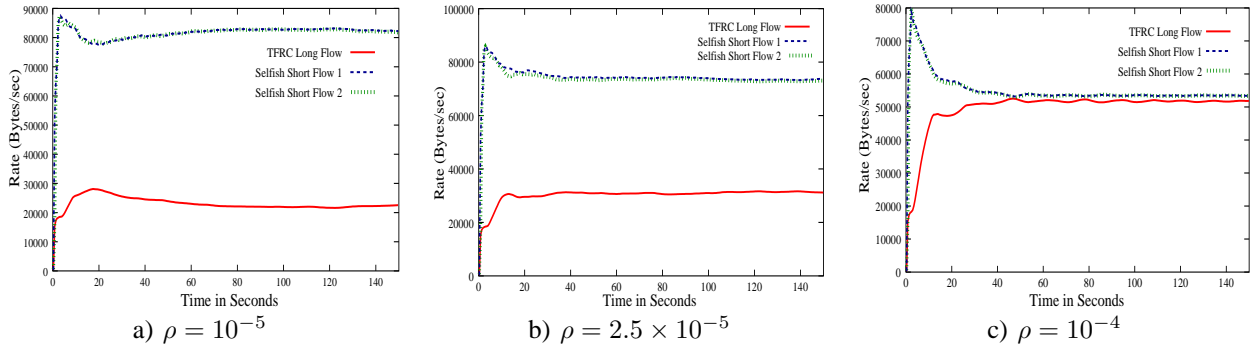


Fig. 8. Effect of gain  $\rho$  on the steady state rates of uncooperative and TFRC flows with our edge supervisor.

values, such as  $\rho = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$  in Figure 8 a), we recover the ideal shares for the uncooperative and the cooperative users.

For all the results reported in this paper we have found that the ideal range of  $\rho$  lies between the interval  $10^{-4}$  to

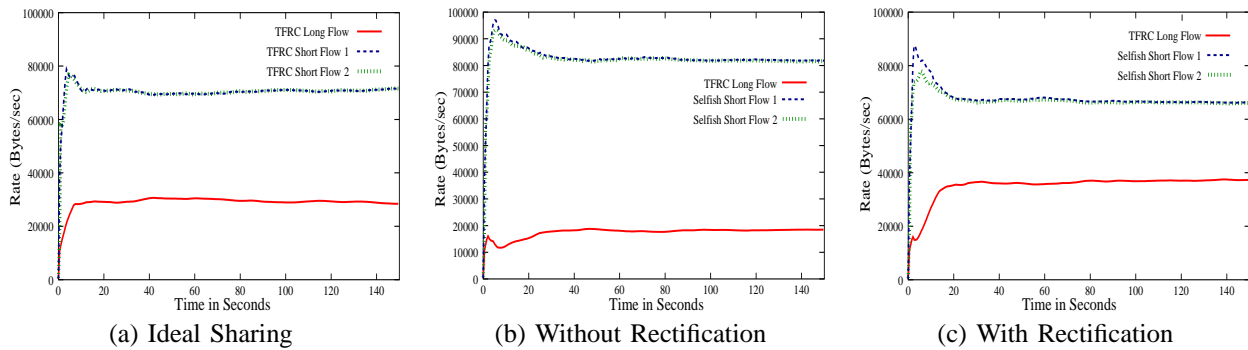


Fig. 9. ECN Enabled Network

$10^{-5}$ . We also extensively evaluated the edge-based rectification model for different value of selfishness, i.e. users chose different values of  $U(x)$ , and found observation on  $\rho$  consistent with those reported above.

### C. ECN Enabled Network

We conclude this section with the results where the RED scheme is configured to mark the packets (instead of dropping them). Figure 9 a) shows the ideal bandwidth sharing while Figure 9 b) shows that in the presence of uncooperative flows the resulting bandwidth sharing is unfair. When we introduced the edge-based supervisor, with  $\rho = 10^{-4}$ , the bandwidth is shared fairly.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a price adjustment algorithm for both Kelly's primal and dual network flow control models, and tested it on the Network Simulator. This algorithm is to be implemented at the edge of the network and, thus, does not require costly hardware upgrades in the entire network. It is independent of congestion notification policy deployed by the network, and thus, can be used with any Active Queue Management scheme, as well as Drop Tail queueing. Although a suitable range for the gain  $\rho$  in our algorithm was determined by simulations, a judicious choice of this gain deserves further investigation. An on-line adaptation for  $\rho$  may be possible, and is currently being investigated by the authors.

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