BGRP: Sink-Tree-Based Aggregation for Inter-Domain Reservations

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Abstract

Resource reservation must operate in an efficient and scalable fashion, to accommodate the rapid growth of the Internet. In this paper, we describe a distributed architecture for inter-domain aggregated resource reservation for unicast traffic. We also present an associated protocol, called the Border Gateway Reservation Protocol (BGRP), that scales well, in terms of message processing load, state storage and bandwidth. Each stub or transit domain may use its own intra-domain resource reservation protocol. BGRP builds a sink tree for each of the stub domains. Each sink tree aggregates bandwidth reservations from all data sources in the network. Since backbone routers maintain only the sink tree information, the total number of reservations at each router scales linearly with the number of Internet domains N. (Even aggregated versions of the current protocol RSVP have a reservation count that can grow like $O(N^2)$.) BGRP maintains these aggregated reservations using "soft state." To further reduce the protocol message traffic, routers may reserve bandwidth beyond the current load, so that some sources can join or leave the tree without sending messages all the way to the tree root. BGRP relies on Differentiated Services for data forwarding, hence the number of packet classifier entries is extremely small.

KEYWORDS: Resource reservation protocol. Aggregation. Sink Tree. Differentiated Services. Internet Quality of Service. RSVP.

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1 Introduction

Resource reservation was originally defined to support end-to-end QoS guarantees for a range of QoS-sensitive applications, including multimedia-on-demand and teleconferencing [1]. Recently, Internet Service Providers (ISPs) have started to use the same reservation mechanisms to provide customer-level Virtual Private Networks (VPNs) [2] and to allocate network resources between Differentiated Service classes [3]. We believe that the applications of resource reservation and the demand for it will continue to grow, and that reserved QoS will eventually come to be seen as an indispensable feature of Internet service. At the present time, there are three challenges to the widespread use of reserved QoS: reservation protocol scalability, packet forwarding scalability, and inter-domain management.

Reservation protocol scalability. Resource reservation schemes must scale well with the rapidly growing size of the Internet. A router may be able to handle tens of thousands of simultaneous reservations [4], but not hundreds of thousands, and certainly not millions. Today's traffic volume is bad enough: as we will explain in Sec. 5.1, we have measured hundreds of thousands to millions of flows at the MAE-West network access point (Table 1); if many of these flows were to request resource reservations, the protocol overhead would swamp the router. But projected future traffic growth is an even more serious problem. The overhead of the current protocol RSVP [5, 6] can grow like $O(N^2)$, where N is the number of Internet end hosts. (RSVP must maintain separate routing state, called PATH state, for each reserved source-destination pair, in order to reverse-route RESV messages from destination to source.) Fig. 1 [7, 8, 9] shows the growth of N over the last six years, from 2 million to 60 million. This means that N^2 grew from $4 \cdot 10^{12}$ to $4 \cdot 10^{15}$ during that time! With no end in sight, N^2 is growing much faster than improvements in processing speeds or memory sizes. Therefore, we will have to find a reservation scheme that scales better than conventional RSVP. In this paper we will propose a protocol, called the Border Gateway Reservation Protocol (BGRP), that fixes this scaling problem in two ways. First, BGRP overhead scales *linearly* with the size of the Internet; i.e., $O(N^2)$ is reduced to $O(N)$. Second, BGRP uses "a smaller N". The overhead of the basic BGRP protocol is proportional to the number of Internet carrier domains (also called Autonomous Systems (AS)), while an enhanced version of BGRP has overhead proportional to the number of IP networks (i.e., the number of announced IP address prefixes).

Data forwarding scalability. In addition to the overhead of the protocol that *reserves* QoS, another scaling issue is the overhead of the packet classifiers, enqueuers and schedulers that *enforce* the reserved QoS [10]. The current QoS architecture, called Integrated Services (IntServ) [1], requires backbone routers to classify and schedule packets on a per-flow basis. Our BGRP protocol, however, is designed to work within the newly proposed Differentiated Services (DiffServ) QoS architecture [11]. With DiffServ, all flow-related handling of packets (e.g., classification, policing, shaping) is done at the edges of the network. At the edge, packets are assigned to one of a few dozen QoS classes. Backbone routers queue and schedule packets according to their QoS class only.

Inter-domain adminstration. In general, Internet flows traverse several different network domains. Each ISP would prefer to manage its own network resources and enforce its own internal traffic engineering policies [12], acting as independently as possible of other carriers. Ideally, a domain should only have to reveal simple delivery commitments to its peering domains. There should be an inter-domain reservation system that uses these delivery commitments to establish a reservation path through multiple domains. Each domain would set up transit reservation flows using its own preferred intra-domain reservation mechanism. BGRP is specifically designed for such an environment. It operates on the boundaries between ISPs, leaving each ISP free to manage its own domain independently. Once QoS traffic management conforms itself to the technical and business "topology" of the Internet – a loosely coupled collection of competing and mistrustful carriers, barely cooperating through bilateral peer routing arrangements – then *charging* customers for QoS should become practical. We expect that the forging of this final missing link will encourage explosive deployment of QoS reservation mechanisms.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. 2, we quantify the amount of aggregation needed to make a resource reservation protocol that today's routers can comfortably handle. Then, in Sec. 3, we propose a reservation architecture for unicast traffic and a corresponding protocol BGRP that operate at this desired level of aggregation. The basic idea is to build a sink tree for each of the destination domains. Each sink tree aggregates reservations for flows from all data sources in the network to that destination domain.

Sec. 4 describes various ways to improve the performance of the basic BGRP protocol. The scaling benefits of our approach are evaluated in Sec. 5. Recent work by others on the reservation scaling problem is briefly discussed in Sec. 6. We summarize our investigation and describe future work in Sec. 7.

2 Aggregating Reservations

How many simultaneous reservations can a router handle? In a recent study [4], we showed that a low-end router can set up 900 new RSVP reservations or refresh up to 1600 reservations per second, allowing it to sustain about 45,000 flows. To handle that many reservations, the router has to suspend routing computation and packet forwarding, due to hardware and CPU constraints. While backbone routers have more CPU power than the low-end router used for the measurements, other results [13] indicate that frequent routing computation due to route instability may already tax the CPU. Thus we, along with some other RSVP developers we have consulted, believe that in many networking environments, routers do not have enough CPU power to sustain hundreds of thousands of reservations.

If we assume a router can handle tens of thousands of reservations, but not hundreds of thousands, then what degree of aggregation is required? There are several ways to go about answering this question. In this section, we will give some ballpark estimates, based mostly on the data in Fig. 1. Much later, when we evaluate the performace of BGRP in Sec. 5.1, we will give more precise estimates, based on our statistical analyses of Internet packet traces.

Conventional RSVP reserves resources for each application-to-application flow. For simplicity, let us count host-to-host flows instead. According to Fig. 1, there are $36 \cdot 10^{14}$ source-host/destination-host pairs! This is enormously more than a router can handle, but of course, not all the host-to-host flows will be active at once, and not all active flows will pass through a given router or a given link. So let us try another upper bound on host-to-host flows that is somewhat more realistic: how many reserved flows of non-zero bandwidth can fit on a link of finite bandwidth? Let us assume that 16 kb/s (enough, say, for a good quality packet voice call) is the finest granularity of reservation. Then an OC-192 (10 Gb/s) link might be called upon to support up to 600,000 reservations. This suggests that we may not be able to afford to reserve for individual host-to-host flows. Some aggregation of reservations is needed.

How might this aggregation be done? There are several ways to aggregate based on "regions" of IP addresses. A "region" can be defined at various granularities: e.g., one host, or one network, or one AS. The simplest option is to aggregate for each source-region/destination-region pair; i.e., on a given link, aggregate the reservations for all flows *from* a given source region *to* a given destination region. Alternatively, we could aggregate for each source region, i.e., on a given link, aggregate the reservations for all flows *from* a given source region *to* anywhere. Or we could aggregate for each destination region, i.e., on a given link, aggregate the reservations for all flows *from* anywhere *to* a given destination region.

Which of these aggregation options might be adequate in reducing the number of simultaneous reservations to a level that a router can handle? (There is no point in aggregating more than necessary, since this will make the protocol needlessly complex.) According to Fig. 1, there are approximately 6,000 AS, 60,000 networks, and 60,000,000 hosts in the Internet today. That makes $36 \cdot 10^6$ AS pairs, $36 \cdot 10^8$ network pairs, and $36 \cdot 10^{14}$ host pairs. Comparing these six numbers to our estimate of router capacity determines our target degree of aggregation: one aggregate reservation for each region, where the size of a region is somewhere between one AS and one network. Furthermore, as we shall explain below, we prefer to produce one aggregate reservation for each *destination* region, rather than one per source region, because destination-based aggregates have a convenient tree structure.

Whether a simple hop-count metric is used or more sophisticated metrics are employed, most unicast routing algorithms determine shortest paths. In networks where the shortest paths are unique, the principle of optimality guarantees that the shortest paths *to* any *destination* form a tree; the shortest paths *from* any *source* are also guaranteed to form a tree. If there are multiple shortest-length paths, however, the existence of trees depends on the tie-breaking rules in the routing algorithm. The BGP routing algorithm [14] establishes "virtual edges" by using reachability as a definition for the existence of a link in the graph. BGP routes follow the shortest paths to the destinations. When there are multiple equal-length paths, BGP breaks ties in a way that guarantees sink trees, but not necessarily source trees. (Specifically, a BGP router forwards all packets to the same destination via a *single* next-hop router.) Since reservations are made along routes chosen by the routing algorithms, it is natural to aggregate these reservations along the sink trees formed by BGP routing. In Sec. 3, we present a new signaling protocol, called the Border Gateway Reservation Protocol (BGRP), that supports this architecture.

3 The Border Gateway Reservation Protocol (BGRP)

3.1 Model and Terminology

As shown in Fig. 2, the Internet is composed of a number of *domains* or autonomous systems (AS) that exchange user traffic among each other. A domain can be classified as either a *stub* domain or a *transit* domain. Any path through a stub domain will either originate or terminate at a router in that domain; transit domains do not have this restriction. A domain connects to a number of other domains via *border routers*. We assume all border routers use BGP [14] for inter-domain routing. We define $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n\}$ as the set of border routers in transit domains, $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_m\}$ as the set of border routers in stub domains, and $\mathcal{H}_i = \{h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_j\}$ as the set of end hosts in AS_i. In this paper, inter-domain reservations originate and terminate at routers in $\mathcal{S}$. We denote the direction of packets traveling from source towards sink as *downstream*, with *upstream* as the opposite direction. For simplicity, we assume in this paper that all active hosts are in stub domains. (In reality, a transit router R_i could also play the role of a source or sink router for end users in its domain). Moreover, while in reality there are likely to be multiple routers in a domain between border routers, they do not participate in our inter-domain reservation protocol and are thus not shown in our figures.

3.2 Overview of Protocol Operation

The BGRP protocol operates only between border routers. We shall use the term *BR-hop* to denote the "virtual hop" between two "adjacent" border routers participating in BGRP. These "adjacent" border routers can be in different domains or in the same domain.

BGRP includes several control messages: PROBE, GRAFT, ERROR, REFRESH, and TEAR. To avoid delivery delay problems, BGRP messages are reliably delivered. PROBE and GRAFT messages specify reservation parameters such as traffic class and bandwidth. This paper assumes that bandwidth (for each traffic class) is the only reserved resource and that bandwidth reservations are additive. In practice, however, statistical multiplexing could be used, and other resources such as buffers could be reserved.

Reservation sources initiate PROBE messages to determine the network resource availability and the exact reservation path. Each PROBE message consist of a reservation request and destination network information. PROBE messages travel downstream from stub domain border routers. Border routers use BGP routing information and bilateral QoS agreements to forward PROBE messages. PROBE messages collect routing information along the reservation path, similarly to *IP Record Route Option*, but they do not install any reservation state or any routing state in the routers. (One might argue that QoS routing protocols would be sufficient for finding the path. In an *inter*-domain environment, however, we believe that the reservation path depends as much on ISP policy as on resource availability. Since each ISP only advertises its resource allocation policy to its immediately adjacent peers in the form of bilateral agreements, a resource user may have to actively probe the network to determine the edge-to-edge routing path for its reservation.)

Reservation sinks, upon receiving PROBE messages, return GRAFT messages to set up the appropriate reservations inside the network. The GRAFT message uses the previously collected routing information and traverses exactly the reverse path that the PROBE message took. Routers on the path keep one reservation entry for each sink tree. Among other things, this reservation entry identifies the root of the sink tree. Each reservation root is defined as the combination of the reservation destination information and the ID of the sink border router that processed and terminated the original PROBE message. (The sink border router ID is necessary in case the destination stub domain is multi-homed, because several of that domain's border routers could receive PROBE messages and thus become reservation sinks.) When processing a GRAFT message, each border router interfaces with intra-domain protocols to set up transit reservations within its domain. In case of reservation failures during probing or grafting, the routers send ERROR messages to inform the users.

Reservation sources and sinks transmit PROBE and GRAFT messages only once during the lifetime of a reservation. BGRP reservations are maintained as "soft state", i.e., the border routers must periodically exchange REFRESH messages with their peers to keep their reservations "alive". If a border router does not hear an expected REFRESH for a reservation, it assumes a link failure, route change, or user termination and removes the reservation. The BGRP protocol also includes optional TEAR messages that routers can send to remove reservations in peer routers more quickly.

The BGRP protocol differs from RSVP in three important ways: stateless probing, reservation aggregation, and bundled refresh. Let us explain these differences. The RSVP PATH message installs routing state at intermediate routers, to guide the RSVP RESV message back to the data sender. Routers must therefore keep both sender and destination information. In a network with N nodes, this may require $O(N^2)$ entries. BGRP's PROBE messages, however, install no state in the routers. (BGRP's GRAFT messages *do* store reservation information, but only $O(N)$ entries, because this information is per-sink, not per-source.) The second difference concerns the combining of reservations. RSVP can combine reservations in two ways. First, RSVP allows multiple (multicast) receivers to merge their reservations for the same sender (or set of senders) into a single reservation whose size is roughly the *maximum* of the individual reservations. Second, RSVP offers per-source and shared reservation styles; in the latter, multiple (multicast) senders *take turns* sharing a single reservation [15]. BGRP reservation aggregation is different from either of these. BGRP aggregates reservations from different (unicast) senders to the same receiver by *adding* them together. The final difference is that RSVP transmits PATH and RESV messages periodically to refresh each individual reservation separately, while BGRP bundles all reservation messages into one periodic refresh. (Similar enhancements have recently been proposed for RSVP itself [16].)

3.3 Example

Fig. 3 illustrates how BGRP works. Suppose H_1 in AS_1 needs to set up a reservation to H_5 in AS_5. S_1 sends a PROBE message containing the source ID S_1, the ID of the destination in $\mathcal{H}_5$ (either an application, a host or a subnet), the traffic class C, the bandwidth requirement $BW_{1,3}$, and an empty route record field. (In this example, S_1 launches a PROBE at the behest of a particular host. In a VPN application, however, S_1 could initiate a PROBE message toward S_3 directly, in an effort to set up a virtual "trunk" between their two domains.) When the PROBE message arrives at R_1, the router consults AS_3's resource database and the bilateral agreement between AS_1 and AS_3. If AS_3 can accept the requested reservation, R_1 inserts its own IP address into the route record field and forwards the PROBE message downstream. Otherwise, R_1 sends an ERROR message back to S_1. The selection of the downstream border router depends on intra-domain traffic engineering requirements [12] and BGP routing policy. In this example, R_1 forwards the message to R_3, as determined from the BGP NEXT_HOP path attribute. To prevent loops, each router checks whether the current route record already contains the router's own address. Assume that R_3, R_4 and R_5 all accept the reservation. When the PROBE message arrives at S_3, S_3 determines that the destination in $\mathcal{H}_5$ belongs to its local domain AS_5, so S_3 terminates the probing process. The final route record in the PROBE message is (R_1, R_3, R_4, R_5).

Now S_3 sends a GRAFT message back toward S_1 to set up the desired reservation along the path. The GRAFT message is source-routed using information gathered in the route record of the PROBE message. The GRAFT message contains the traffic class C, bandwidth requirement $BW_{1,3}$, source ID S_1, route record (R_1, R_3, R_4, R_5), sink ID S_3, and a tree ID label L. The tree ID label is assigned by the sink border router S_3. The label is used to uniquely identify a reservation tree, because there may be multiple reservation trees rooted at S_3. A tree ID label can be in the form of a CIDR prefix or the AS number. Assume that the reservation is successfully established between S_1 and S_3.

Now suppose that S_3 receives another PROBE for the same traffic class C, this one requesting bandwidth $BW_{2,3}$ from S_2 to $\mathcal{H}_5$. S_3 sends back a GRAFT message to R_5 containing traffic class C, bandwidth requirement $BW_{2,3}$, source ID S_2, route record (R_2, R_3, R_4, R_5), sink ID S_3, and the same tree ID label L used in the previous GRAFT message. R_5 recognizes this as an increment to the existing tree L and increases the reserved bandwidth for class C between R_5 and S_3 to $BW_{1,3} + BW_{2,3}$. Then R_5 forwards the GRAFT message to R_4, while using the intra-domain reservation protocols of AS_4 to update the internal reservation between R_4 and R_5. (Either R_5 or R_4 could be the initiator of this internal change, depending on the intra-domain reservation protocol.) The reserved bandwidth of class C between R_4 and R_5 increases to $BW_{1,3} + BW_{2,3}$. Similarly, router R_4 forwards the GRAFT message to R_3 while incrementing the reservation between them. When the GRAFT arrives at R_3, that router creates a new reservation tree branch to R_2 with bandwidth $BW_{2,3}$. The reservation finishes when the GRAFT arrives at S_2. If any router R_i cannot set up the new reservation, it sends an ERROR message back to the sink to inform it of the failure. Along the way, the ERROR message removes the reservation.

Router R_3 maintains the following state: sink tree ID S_3, tree label L, traffic class C, adjacent downstream border router R_4, bandwidth reserved to R_4 (viz., $BW_{1,3} + BW_{2,3}$), adjacent upstream border routers R_1 and R_2, and bandwidth reserved from each adjacent upstream border router (viz., $BW_{1,3}$ from R_1 and $BW_{2,3}$ from R_2).

4 BGRP Enhancements

The basic BGRP protocol aggregates reservations into trees, thereby reducing the number of reservations. We will quantify this in Sec. 5.1 and 5.2. Reducing the number of reservations obviously shrinks the memory needed to store the control state information. It also reduces the overhead associated with REFRESH messages for all these pieces of control state; refresh costs include CPU processing and link bandwidth. These savings take us much of the way toward our goal. However, BGRP's other control messages, PROBE and GRAFT, also consume processing and bandwidth. We would like to control the volume of these control messages as well and thereby add another dimension of scalability to BGRP. This can be done by making the following enhancements to the protocol.

Over-reservation, Quantization and Hysteresis. Leaf nodes, in their PROBE messages, can request more bandwidth between themselves and the tree root than is currently required. (One can think of this as aggregated advance reservations on behalf of unknown parties.) Nodes can also coarsely quantize the requested bandwidth, e.g., restrict it to multiples of some quantum Q. Hysteresis can also be employed; e.g., if the bandwidth requested by a leaf node has just jumped from $3Q$ to $4Q$ because its bandwidth requirement has just exceeded $3Q$, then that leaf node should not reduce its request back to $3Q$ until its bandwidth requirement drops below some threshold $T < 3Q$. These changes can dramatically reduce the volume of control messages, as we will quantify in Sec. 5.4.

CIDR Labeling and Quiet Grafting. Suppose that the branches of a BGRP sink tree are labelled with the CIDR prefix associated with the tree root. Then a router on that sink tree will be able to recognize whenever an incoming PROBE message "belongs" to that tree, viz., whenever the reservation destination belongs to that CIDR prefix. Also suppose that this tree node can over-reserve bandwidth between itself and the tree root. These two modifications enable a new tree operation called *quiet grafting*, whereby a new branch can be grafted onto an existing reservation sink tree without any PROBE or GRAFT messages being passed between the grafting node and the tree root. To demonstrate quiet grafting, let us construct the sink tree shown in Fig. 3. Suppose that initially S_1 requests 10 units of reserved bandwidth to H_5 in a PROBE message. Knowing that H_5 is a popular destination, R_3 inflates this request to 15 units as it processes the passing PROBE. When the GRAFT message returns from tree root S_3, it reserves 15 units at each BR-hop, until reaching R_3. Node R_3 deflates the amount to 10 units and passes the GRAFT back toward R_1 and S_1. Now 10 units of bandwidth have been reserved from S_1 to R_3, and 15 units have been reserved from R_3 to S_3. In R_3's own internal bookkeeping for these 15 units, R_3 considers 10 units as "belonging" to R_1's tree branch, and it considers 5 units as over-reserved. Now suppose S_2 requests 3 units of reserved bandwidth to H_5 in its PROBE message. When this PROBE reaches R_3, R_3 recognizes that it is already sitting on a sink tree to H_5 and that there is sufficient excess bandwidth already reserved between R_3 and S_3 to satisfy S_2's needs, so that R_3 can handle the new request directly itself, without propagating the PROBE further downstream. Therefore, R_3 terminates the PROBE, adjusts its internal bookkeeping to assign 3 of its 5 excess bandwidth units to this new tree branch, and launches a GRAFT message back toward R_2 and S_2. This GRAFT establishes a 3-unit reservation between leaf S_2 and grafting node R_3.

Self-Healing. When a route changes, BGRP has the option of moving the affected reservations to the new route, without demolishing the entire reservation tree and re-creating the tree from scratch. Assume that the reservation tree is labeled with the destination CIDR prefixes, as described above. When a tree node detects a route change, it can initiate a new PROBE toward the sink. When this PROBE reaches a downstream router on the stable part of the old reservation tree, that router can respond with a GRAFT and thus repair the part of the reservation between the two routers. We call this process *self-healing*.

Reservation Damping. Labovitz *et al.*[13, 17] have shown that, of three million BGP route changes each day, 99% were pathological and did not reflect real network topological changes. If routers make BGRP reservation changes in response to every route change, there could be a high volume of nearly worthless reservation messages in the network. On the other hand, if the routers do not move a reservation, and the route change turns out to be legitimate and stable, then the data will have lost its reservation. This is the trade-off in deciding when to adjust reservations. Here, we propose a damping function for BGRP. The goal of reservation damping is to delay the initiation of the self-healing process until the changing routes have stabilized. The delay depends on the probability of future instability of the route. Routes that change frequently will be delayed longer. Similar to [18, 19], we propose an exponential function $\tau = (1+\Delta)^n \cdot T$ for computing the delay τ between PROBEs sent due to route changes. Δ and T are the parameters to adjust the damping, and n is the number of route changes measured in a time interval.

5 Protocol Scaling Evaluation

5.1 Estimating Reservation Volume from Packet Traces

We would like to determine how well in practice BGRP will reduce the volume of reservations, as compared with conventional RSVP and its aggregated region-to-region extensions. To that end, we examined a 90-second traffic trace from the MAE-West network access point (NAP).[1] We categorized about 3 million IP packet headers according to their transport-layer port, IP address, IP network prefix, and AS. Table 1 shows the results. Suppose that all traffic desired a reservation of some quality level. If we use conventional RSVP and reserve for each source-destination pair at the application level, then the total number of active reservations would be 339,245. This data strengthens an estimate we made in Sec. 2, viz., that

[1]The 90-second traces date from June 1, 1999; see [20]. The AS information was collected on June 10, 1999 and analyzed by Sean McCreary of NLANR/CAIDA.

there can be hundreds of thousands of flows on a link, more than a router can handle, and hence some aggregation is necessary. Table 1 also shows that if we use aggregated versions of RSVP to reserve for source-destination pairs of various granularities, we can greatly reduce the number of flows. For example, for AS-to-AS aggregation, the number of flows in the 90-second window was only 20,857. If twenty thousand were as bad as things could get, then a backbone router would be able to handle one RSVP reservation for each source-destination AS pair. However, this number may be artificially low due to the small 90-second window. Let us see what happens if we observe over a month-long window. The last line of Table 1 shows AS counts seen at MAE-West during May 1999.[2] During this month, MAE-West saw 5,001 destination AS; according to Fig. 1, this is essentially the complete AS roster. The number of different source-destination AS pairs viewed that month was enormous: 7,900,362 AS pairs, about a third of the 25 million possible combinations. Thus, unless routers tear down AS-to-AS reservations frequently, there may be too many such AS-level "trunks" to sustain in backbone routers. This data strengthens another estimate we made in Sec. 2, viz., that there can be millions of AS-to-AS flows, more than a router can handle, and hence the point-to-point aggregation style of RSVP is inadequate, even if each "point" is enlarged into a region the size of an AS. What is needed instead is BGRP's style of aggregation, with one reservation per destination AS, or at most one per destination network. The last column of Table 1 shows the gain of BGRP over RSVP, i.e., the ratio of RSVP flows to BGRP flows. The gain is greatest if the aggregation regions are large and if the reservations last a long time. At the AS level of granularity, for a one-month time duration, it is clear that the "N-vs-N^2" problem in theory becomes an "N-vs-N^2" problem in reality. Under these circumstances, BGRP outperforms RSVP by a factor of 1580.

Our assumption above was that every flow would request a reservation. Let us explore this issue further. Conventional wisdom holds that long-lived high-volume real-time applications like packet voice and packet video will want resource reservation. On the other hand, recent IETF proposals have suggested using resource reservation protocols to set up VPN links [2] and to provide service differentiation among users [3]. These reservations can be for scheduling priority as well as bandwidth. The bandwidth of an

[2]Analysis provided by Sean McCreary of NLANR/CAIDA.

individual VPN flow or Differentiated Service flow might not be as large as a typical real-time flow, hence there might be even more such reservations on a given backbone link. To see whether BGRP shows the same gains over RSVP for both the voice/video and VPN/DiffServ models of reserved flows, we sorted the flows in our packet traces by size. We collected eight packet header traces from MAE West. The traces were collected three hours apart on June 1, 1999 [20]. Each trace comprises three minutes of all traffic at the NAP and contains about 33 million packet entries. We computed the number of bytes for each destination network address prefix (for BGRP-style reservations), and we also computed the number of bytes for each pair of source and destination prefixes (for RSVP-style reservations). We sorted the data into five categories: fewer than 50 b/s, 50–500 b/s, 500–2000 b/s, 2000–8000 b/s, and greater than 8000 b/s. Fig. 4 plots the distribution of flows by bandwidth, and it also plots the gain (i.e., the ratio of RSVP flows to BGRP flows) for each bandwidth class. Most of packets belong to the small-flow category (63.5% for RSVP and 46.2% for BGRP). Only 3621 (3.5%) of the source-destination pairs and 1296 (10.9%) of the destinations have an average bit rate over 2000 b/s. (Interestingly, there are more above-8000 b/s destination-only flows (719) than source-destination flows (516).) To summarize Fig. 4, if reservations are made only for high-volume sessions, then such flows are rare enough that RSVP scalability is not an issue, and using BGRP would not significantly reduce the number of such flows anyway. However, with VPN and Differentiated Services, where even the hordes of small flows may require QoS, RSVP scalability could be a problem and BGRP could be quite beneficial.

5.2 Topological Distribution of Demand

We use the simple model in Fig. 5 to compare the scaling properties of BGRP and RSVP. The model depicts a progression of domains along an Internet path, with access networks toward the left and right and backbone networks near the middle of the topology. We define D as the maximum edge-to-edge distance, measured as the number of AS. A “node” n_i in the figure represents an inter-domain traffic exchange point, which can be either a Point of Presence (POP) or a NAP. (In the real network from which this model is abstracted, each node n_i could actually contain many routers and interconnect many AS.)

A “link” l_i in the figure represents an aggregation of all the real links that transport traffic from domain i to domain $i+1$. The model also includes a reverse-directed link from $i+1$ to i, which is not shown in the figure. In addition to the diameter D, our model is characterized by the quantities s_i and d_i: s_i is the number of inter-domain reservation sources coming into n_i, and d_i is the number of reservations sinks reached through n_i, not including those that n_i reaches via l_i. In this model, the number of RSVP flows (i.e., source-destination pairs) on the uni-directional link l_i is given by $L_i^{\text{RSVP}} = \sum_{j=0}^{i} s_j \sum_{k=i+1}^{D} d_k$, and the number of BGRP flows (i.e., one per destination) on l_i is given by $L_i^{\text{BGRP}} = \sum_{k=i+1}^{D} d_k$. Node n_i handles traffic in both directions, so the number of reservation flows traversing n_i for the respective protocols is given by $N_i^{\text{RSVP}} = \sum_{j=0}^{i} s_j \sum_{k=i}^{D} d_k + \sum_{j=i}^{D} s_j \sum_{k=0}^{i} d_k - s_i d_i$ and $N_i^{\text{BGRP}} = \sum_{j=0}^{D} d_j$.

We now study both RSVP and BGRP in different networking scenarios, computing the number of flows and associated gains. We set $D = 9$, which is the maximum AS path length in the Internet today [21]. We simulated models with a total of 100 source and sink border routers. We assume that every source border router desires to set up a reservation to every sink border router. Three different demand distributions were constructed. For the *Flat Topology*, we set the number of reservation sources and sinks to be identical at each n_i; i.e., $s_i = d_i = 5$, for $0 \leq i \leq 9$. For the *Hierarchical Topology*, we set $s_i = d_i = 11$, for $3 \leq i \leq 6$, and $s_i = d_i = 1$, for all other i. This models a hierarchical network where stub domains only contribute a small portion of the overall reservation flows, while most of the reservations are present at a few core transit domains. For the *Selected Source Topology*, we set all s_i to 1, and all d_i to 9. This reflects a network where the number of data sources is small, but the number of sinks (data receivers) is large. This is a typical scenario for web applications.

The results are shown in Fig. 6. Not surprisingly, BGRP maintains fewer reservations than RSVP. Fig. 6(c) shows that the largest gain occurs in the center of the network. Also, Fig. 6(b) shows that for RSVP, the number of reservations at a node depends on the node’s topological location, whereas for BGRP, every node has the same number of reservations.

5.3 Reservation Dynamics

We now consider the effect of reservation dynamics in our performance analysis. For both RSVP and BGRP, we shall determine the control state overhead and the control message overhead as functions of the arrival rate of individual flows, the mean lifetime of a flow, and the protocol refresh interval. We assume that reservations are explicitly torn down when no longer needed, and that the blocking rate for reservations is negligible for our purposes.

Recall that the "virtual hop" between two "adjacent" border routers is called a BR-hop. We define the sequence of border routers visited by an end-to-end traffic flow as an edge-to-edge BR-path. For RSVP, each BR-path establishes its own reservation. Let F be the total number of BR-paths crossing a given border router R_i. For BGRP, these paths are aggregated into trees. Let T be the total number of sink trees formed by the paths through R_i. To keep this analysis simple, we assume that each sink tree at R_i is aggregating the same number $f = F/T$ of BR-paths.

Now let us model the individual end-to-end flows desiring reservations. Any number of these reserved flows may be multiplexed onto a given BR-path. We assume that the individual reserved flows for one path arrive in a Poisson stream of rate λ, and that the flow reservation lifetimes are exponentially distributed with mean $1/\mu$. Then the number of individual flows on one BR-path is Poisson distributed with mean $\rho = \lambda/\mu$, and the number of individual flows on any given sink tree is Poisson distributed, with mean $\rho \cdot f$.

Let us determine the reservation counts of the protocols. In case of RSVP, the probability that the BR-path has a reservation, i.e., that at least one individual flow is reserved, is $1 - e^{-\rho}$. Therefore, the number of reserved BR-paths at R_i is binomially distributed with mean $(1 - e^{-\rho}) \cdot F$. This is the average number of RSVP reservations for R_i. For large ρ, this approaches F, while for small ρ, this approaches 0. Now let us determine the BGRP reservation count at R_i. The probability that a given sink tree has a reservation at R_i, i.e., that at least one individual flow on at least one BR-path on that tree has requested a reservation, is $1 - e^{-\rho \cdot f}$. The number of reserved trees on R_i is thus binomially distributed with mean $(1 - e^{-\rho \cdot f}) \cdot T = (1 - e^{-\rho \cdot F/T}) \cdot T$. This is the average number of BGRP reservations for R_i. For large ρ, this approaches T, while for small ρ, this approaches 0. We conclude that the reservation count advantage of BGRP with respect to RSVP is more pronounced when ρ is large, where this gain approaches F/T. Fig. 7 shows the mean number of simultaneous reservations for BGRP and RSVP as ρ ranges from 0.001 to 10; here we assume $F = 100,000$ and $T = 1,000$. For instance, when $\rho = 1$, the gain is 63. When $\rho = 10$, the gain has essentially reached its maxiumum value of 100.

Next we will compare the message rates for the two protocols. We will tally the control messages associated with reservations on one given unidirectional BR-hop. (Note that some of these "associated" messages actually travel on the reverse BR-hop.) When a new individual end-to-end flow for the given BR-hop is born, this counts as two messages in either protocol: PATH + RESV for RSVP, or PROBE + GRAFT for BGRP. Removing the reservation takes a single TEAR message, in either protocol. Since refresh is bidirectional, in both protocols, we count the refreshing of one reservation on a given BR-hop as two units of control message processing. (Refreshes for multiple reservations on the same BR-hop are assumed to be *processed* separately, even though they may be *transmitted* in a bundle.) Let η be the refresh rate. For RSVP, the average message rate for each BR-path on the given BR-hop is $3\lambda + 2\eta \cdot (1 - e^{-\rho})$. Hence, the average RSVP message rate for the BR-hop is $[3\lambda + 2\eta \cdot (1 - e^{-\rho})] \cdot F$. For BGRP, the average message rate for one sink tree on the given BR-hop is $3\lambda \cdot f + 2\eta \cdot (1 - e^{-\rho \cdot f})$. Hence, the average BGRP message rate for the BR-hop is $[3\lambda \cdot f + 2\eta \cdot (1 - e^{-\rho \cdot f})] \cdot T$, which equals $3\lambda \cdot F + 2\eta \cdot T \cdot (1 - e^{-\rho \cdot F/T})$. If λ is much larger than η, then BGRP's PROBE, GRAFT and TEAR activities dominate its REFRESHes, and RSVP's initial PATH and RESV messages dominate their refreshed versions. In this case, RSVP and BGRP have the same message rates. (Fortunately, the over-reservation techniques that we proposed in Sec. 4 can dramatically reduce BGRP's message processing overhead at this end of the spectrum; we will analyze these improvements in Sec. 5.4 below.) On the other hand, if η is much larger than λ, so that REFRESH activity dominates, and if ρ is large, then BGRP does better than RSVP by a factor of F/T. Fig. 8 shows the average message rates per second, for BGRP and RSVP, as η ranges from 0.0003 to 3.0 refreshes per second; here we assume $\lambda = 0.001$ flows per second, $F = 100,000, T = 1,000$, and $\rho = 10$. For instance, when $\eta = 0.03$ (i.e., when the refresh interval is about 30 seconds), then the gain (i.e., the ratio of RSVP messages to BGRP messages) is 18. When $\eta = 3.0$, the gain is 95.8.

5.4 Over-reservation, Quantization and Hysteresis

Sec. 5.3 showed that BGRP processes fewer messages than RSVP, provided that most messages are REFRESHes rather than PROBEs, GRAFTs, and TEARs. Now we show how hysteresis can be used to curb the PROBE, GRAFT and TEAR activity. These savings come at a cost of some wasted reservable bandwidth, because the aggregate reservation sometimes exceeds the sum of the component flow requests.

We model a single aggregate reservation on a single BR-hop. We assume that the blocking rate for reservations is negligible for the purpose of measuring mean message rates. Any number of end-to-end flow reservations can be multiplexed into this aggregate. Assume that reserved flows arrive in a Poisson stream of rate λ and that the flow reservation lifetimes are exponentially distributed with mean $1/\mu$. Then the number of individual flows in our aggregate reservation is Poisson distributed with mean $\rho = \lambda/\mu$.

Assume that each individual flow requires one unit of bandwidth. We constrain the aggregate reservation to be a multiple of some quantum size $Q \geq 2$. Whenever the aggregate reservation is $k \cdot Q$ units, and this is just barely enough to satisfy the current individual flows, and a new individual flow reservation is requested, then the aggregate reservation jumps to $(k+1) \cdot Q$. This new quantum will only be relinquished when the sum of the individual flow requests drops to $(k-1) \cdot Q + 1$. The amount of reservable bandwidth wasted due to over-reservation by this technique is less than $2Q$ units.

We can model this system as a two-dimensional Markov process with state (x, y), where x is the number of currently reserved individual flows, and y is the current aggregate reservation. Fig. 9 shows the state transition diagram for $Q = 3$. The valid states are: state (0,0), which we will ignore because it is transient; states (x, Q) with $0 \leq x \leq Q$; and states $(x, k \cdot Q)$ with $k \geq 2$ and $(k-2) \cdot Q + 2 \leq x \leq k \cdot Q$. The structure of the state transition diagram makes it straightforward to determine the steady-state probabilities. For most values of x, there are two possible values of y, i.e., two states. However, certain special values of x have only one possible y value, i.e., one state. These special values are: $x = 0$, for which y must equal Q, and $x = 1, Q+1, 2Q+1, 3Q+1, ...$, for which the respective values of y must be $Q, 2Q, 3Q, 4Q, ...$. Therefore, at these special points, the joint probability distribution $\pi(x, y)$ matches the marginal distribution of x by itself, which is Poisson. It is straightforward to determine the probabilities of all the other states in terms of these special states. For $k \geq 1$ and for $(k-1)Q + 2 \leq x \leq kQ$:

$$\pi(0, Q) = e^{-\rho} \qquad \pi(x, k \cdot Q) = \frac{e^{-\rho} \cdot \rho^{x} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k \cdot Q - x} [\rho^{i} \cdot (k \cdot Q - i)!]}{x! \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{Q-1} [\rho^{i} (k \cdot Q - i)!]}$$

$$\pi(((k-1)Q + 1), kQ) = \frac{e^{-\rho} \cdot \rho^{((k-1) \cdot Q + 1)}}{((k-1) \cdot Q + 1)!} \qquad \pi(x, (k+1)Q) = \frac{e^{-\rho} \cdot \rho^{x} \cdot \sum_{i=k \cdot Q + 1 - x}^{Q-1} [\rho^{i} \cdot (k \cdot Q - i)!]}{x! \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{Q-1} [\rho^{i} \cdot (k \cdot Q - i)!]}$$

The rate of control messages (PROBEs + GRAFTs + TEARs) is: $3\lambda \cdot e^{-\rho} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\rho^{(k \cdot Q)}}{\sum_{i=0}^{Q-1} [\rho^{i} \cdot (k \cdot Q - i)!]} \right)$. This compares very favorably to the message rate 3λ without hysteresis. Fig. 10 shows the message rate reduction factor for various values of Q and ρ. For example, if $Q = 10$ and $\rho = 100$, then quantization and hysteresis reduce the BGRP message rate by a factor of about 100. (The curves in Fig. 10, while roughly decreasing, are not strictly monotonic. The ripples in the plots are due to the many "corners" in the state transition diagram of Fig. 9. For a given quantum size Q, as ρ increases, the bulk of the probability mass zigzags upward and to the right through the state space. Since vertical state transitions produce protocol messages while horizontal transitions do not, these zigs and zags around the corners can produce ripples in the messaging efficiency plot.)

The analysis above dealt with a single aggregate reservation on a single BR-hop. It is a good model for a system where the *leaves* of sink trees are the only tree nodes that can initiate an over-reservation. However, if *any* tree node can initiate an over-reservation, and if the quiet grafting described in Sec. 4 is done, then additional savings in message rate are possible. Of course, an over-reserving router must recognize the future traffic on whose behalf the over-reservation was made, without sending a new PROBE message. For tree leaves that over-reserve, simple caching of the destination network IDs associated with each tree may be sufficient. For more complex situations, see the CIDR labeling discussion in Sec. 4.

6 Related Work

Recently, several authors have addressed scalable resource reservation, using either a server-based or a router-based approach. In server-based approaches, each domain has a bandwidth broker (or agent) which is responsible for selecting and setting up the aggregated reservation sessions. This approach has the advantage of removing the message processing and storage burden from routers. However, synchronizing reservation information among the bandwidth brokers and the routers may be complex. No aggregation takes place, so that each broker still has to deal with the requests of individual flows. Also, care must be taken so that the broker does not become a single point of failure for the domain. Variations of the server-based approach have been described in [11], [22], [23], and [24]. The latter proposal suggests a two-tier system where, within each domain, hosts use intra-domain reservation protocols such as RSVP to set up reserved flows. Inter-domain reservation protocols set up coarsely-measured reserved flows between domains. However, the proposal leaves the actual mechanism undefined. Alternatively, router-based approaches that modify RSVP to support scalable reservation have been proposed in [25], [26] and [27]. (LSP tunnels [25] are designed to support *intra*-domain traffic engineering, but may also be used to set up trunks crossing multiple domains.) These proposals aggregate per-application reservation requests into reservation "trunks" between pairs of domains, by modifying sender template and session objects in RSVP to carry address and mask ("CIDR blocks") or autonomous system (AS) numbers instead of 5-tuples (sender IP address, sender port, receiver IP address, receiver port, protocol). However, this implies that routers in the backbone may have to maintain reservation state proportional to the square of the number of CIDR blocks or autonomous systems. Since the number of AS is currently about 6,000, the number of AS pairs exceeds 36,000,000. As we argued in Sec. 2 and 5.1, this is excessive. A more aggregated reservation scheme is needed. Finally, we mention the recent Boomerang protocol [28], in which end users send reservation requests and refresh messages to set up and maintain reservations. No per-flow state is stored at routers. However, the scalability of the control message processing is an issue.

7 Conclusions, Future Work, and Acknowledgements

This paper presented a distributed architecture and the BGRP protocol for inter-domain resource reservation, in which reservations are aggregated along sink trees. Our proposal relies on DiffServ for scalability of packet forwarding operations. The BGRP protocol scales well in terms of control state, message processing, and bandwidth. BGRP reduces control state by aggregating reservations; this reduces their number, and thereby reduces the memory needed to store the control information. Control message processing is the most important scalability issue. The cost of processing reservation messages depends on the volume of requests for new reservations, the volume of existing reservations requiring periodic refreshing, and the refresh frequency. BGRP economizes on all of these components. First, when we allow routers to over-reserve bandwidth with BGRP, then small reservations can join and leave the reservation sink tree without disturbing the entire tree. This reduces the volume of reservation set-up messages. Second, by aggregating reservations, BGRP reduces their number, and this proportionally reduces the refresh processing burden. Third, BGRP needs less frequent refreshes than does RSVP, for the following reason. RSVP control messages are unreliable and thus must be repeated at about three times the state-timeout interval, while BGRP refresh messages are transferred reliably hop-by-hop. The mechanisms described above reduce the number of control messages. Not only does this reduce the burden on the routers to process these messages, it also reduces the link bandwidth cost to transmit these messages.

This paper presented the basic architecture, protocol design and performance analysis. In the future, we will continue to explore various BGRP enhancements, such as reservation route pin-down, and to examine various options for rooting and labeling the reservation sink trees. We will also consider several options for PROBE message processing: whether resource availability really needs to be checked during this first protocol phase, and if so, whether the resource should also be reserved at that time. More dramatic changes, such as the use of source trees (instead of sink trees) and support for multicast, may also be considered. At the same time, we are implementing BGRP on backbone router platforms and will test it in realistic networking environments. We have proposed BGRP to the IETF [29].

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Time Interval	Region Granularity	# Source-Dest. Pairs (# RSVP Reservations)	# Destinations (# BGRP Res'ns)	Gain
90 sec.	Application (Source = Address + Port ; Destination = Address + Port + Protocol)	339,245	208,559	1.6
	Host (IP Address)	131,009	40,538	3.2
	Network (CIDR Prefix)	79,786	20,887	3.8
	Domain (AS)	20,857	2,891	7.2
1 month	Domain (AS)	7,900,362	5,001	1,579.8

Table 1: Number of aggregate flows seen in packet traces

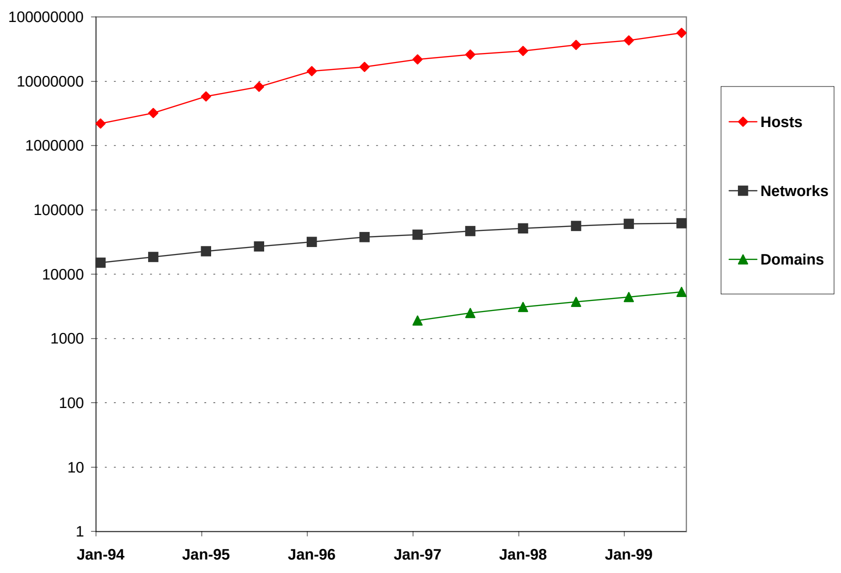


Figure 1: The growth of the Internet from 1994 to 1999 [7, 8, 9].

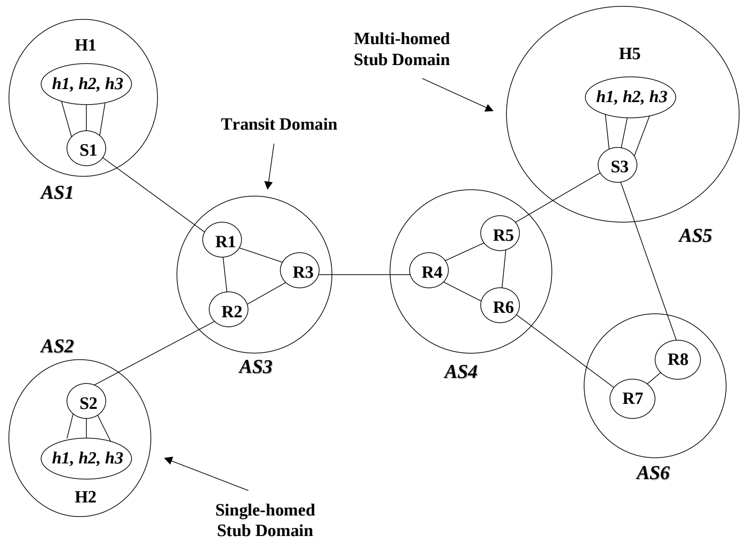


Figure 2: Example of Internet domains. There are two types of stub domains: *single-homed* stub domains connect to the backbone at a single point, *multi-homed* stub domains at several points.

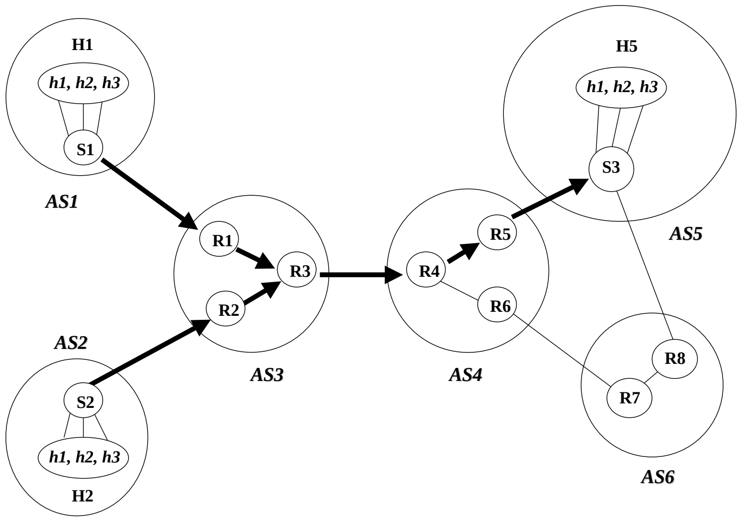
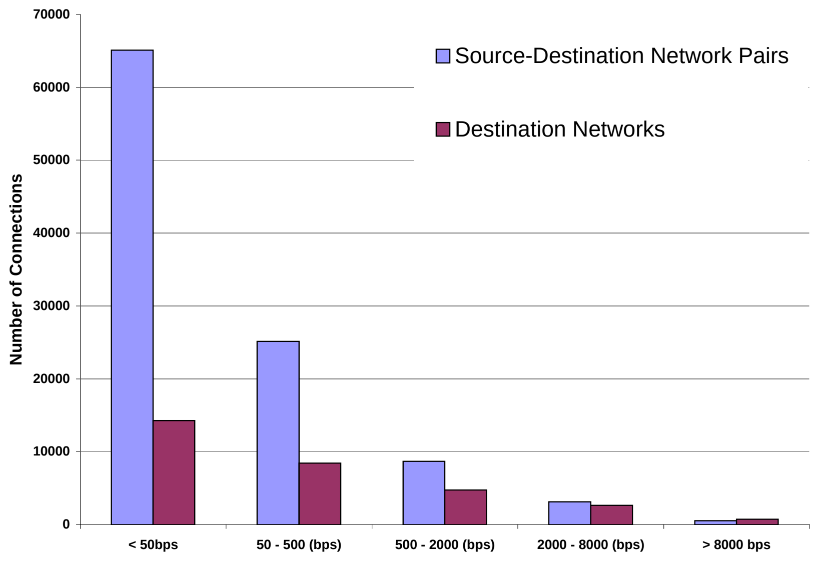
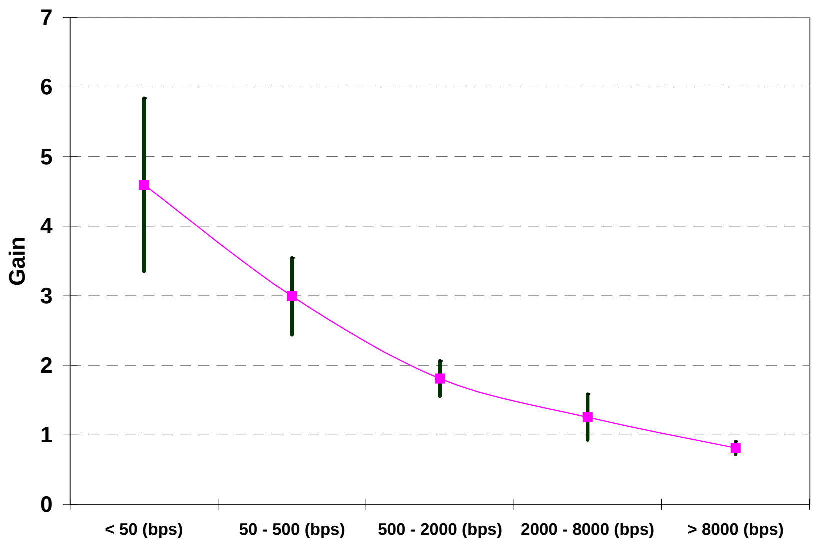


Figure 3: Example of a sink tree rooted at S_3



(a) Number of reservations, broken down by bandwidth



(b) Gain for each bandwidth class

Figure 4: Distribution of reservations by bandwidth

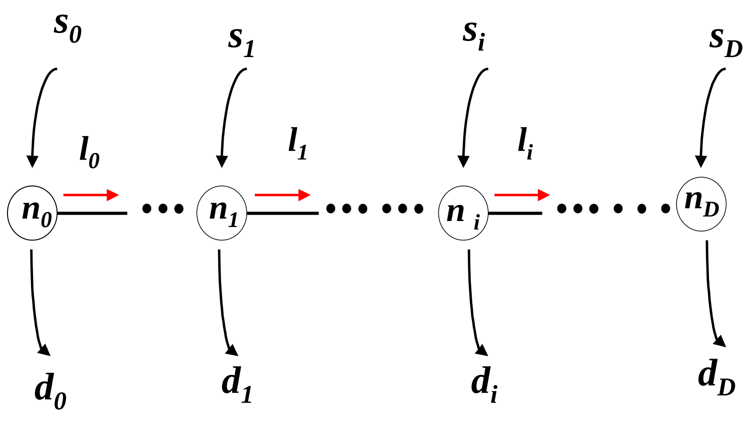
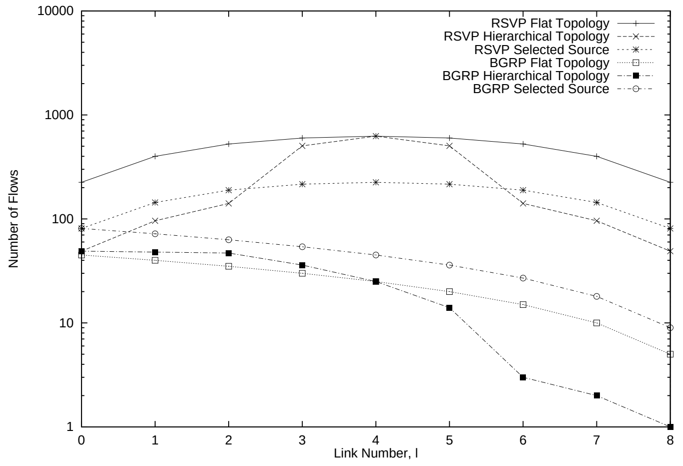
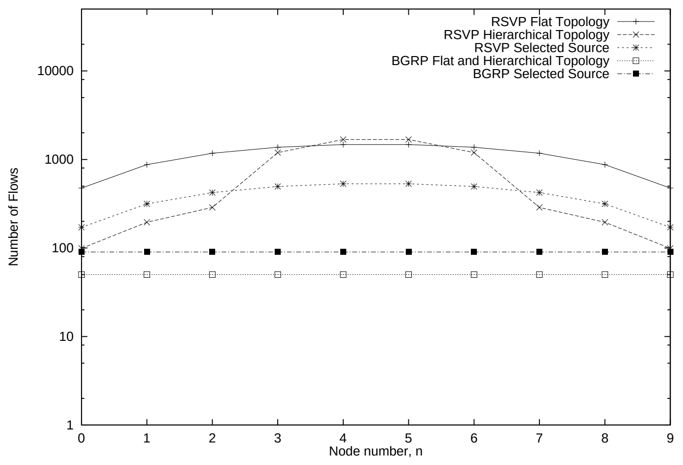


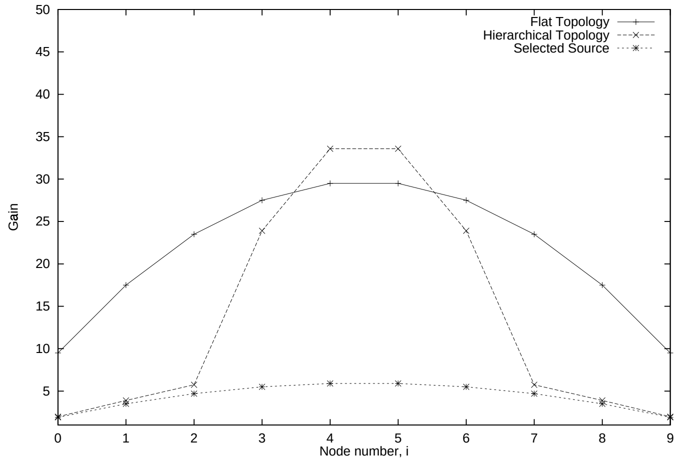
Figure 5: Model for analyzing the topological distribution of demand



(a) Number of reservations per link



(b) Number of reservations per node



(c) The gain, $N_i^{\text{RSVP}}/N_i^{\text{BGRP}}$

Figure 6: Worst case scaling comparison between RSVP and BGRP.

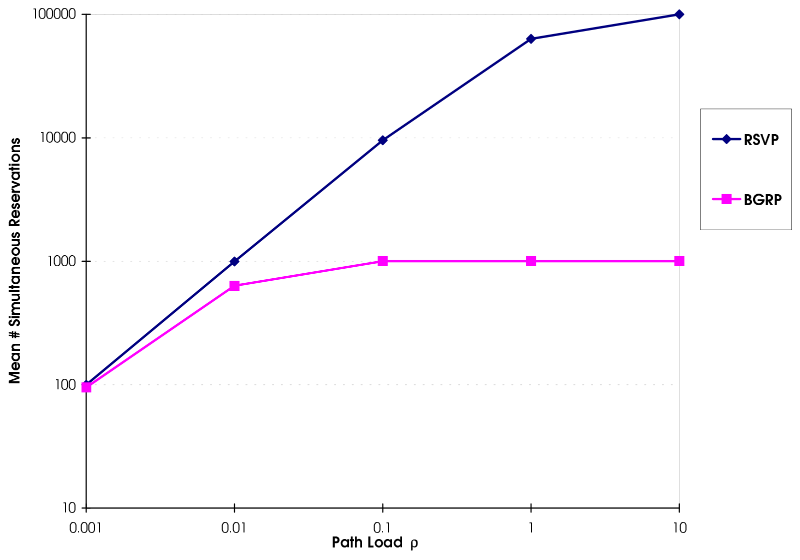


Figure 7: BGRP and RSVP reservation counts as functions of load ρ

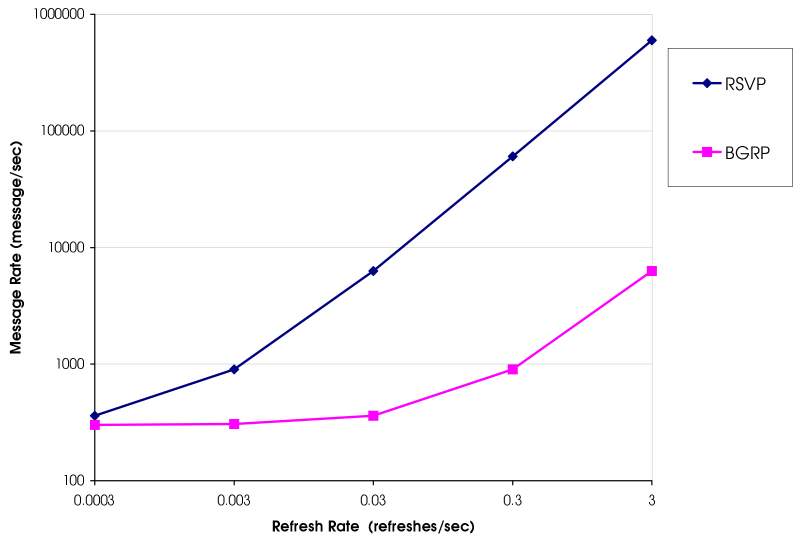


Figure 8: BGRP and RSVP message rates as functions of refresh rate η

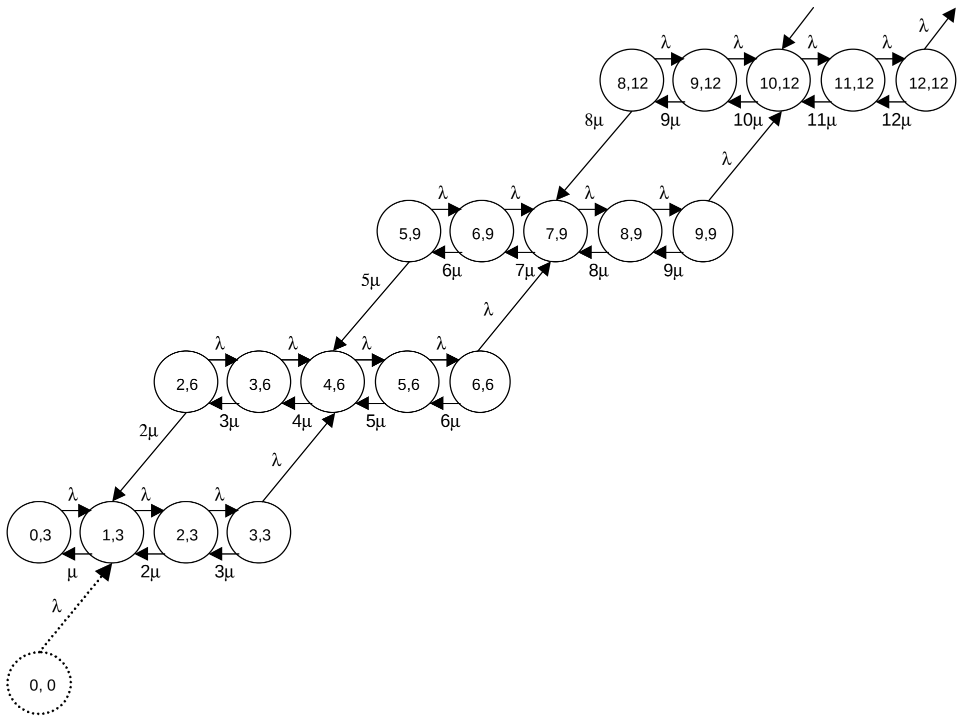


Figure 9: State transition diagram for $Q = 3$

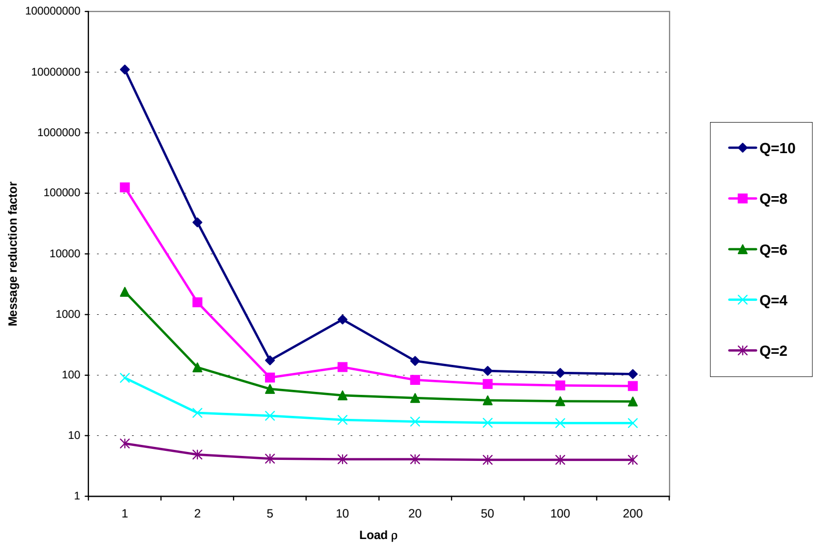


Figure 10: Message reduction factor as function of Q and ρ