FISEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Computer Networks





Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing

Wenji Wu*, Phil Demar, Matt Crawford

Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory, Computing Division, Fermilab MS-120, Batavia, IL 60510, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 29 September 2008 Received in revised form 7 May 2009 Accepted 18 May 2009 Available online 6 June 2009

Responsible Editor: S. Mascolo

Keywords: TCP Packet reordering Interrupt coalescing Protocol stack High performance networking

ABSTRACT

TCP performs poorly in networks with serious packet reordering. Processing reordered packets in the TCP-layer is costly and inefficient, involving interaction of the sender and receiver. Motivated by the interrupt coalescing mechanism that delivers packets upward for protocol processing in blocks, we propose a new strategy, Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing (SRPIC), to reduce packet reordering in the receiver. SRPIC works in the network device driver; it makes use of the interrupt coalescing mechanism to sort the reordered packets belonging to the same TCP stream in a block of packets before delivering them upward; each sorted block is internally ordered. Experiments have proven the effectiveness of SRPIC against forward path reordering.

© 2009 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction and motivation

The last 30 years have witnessed the tremendous success of the Internet Protocol suite. It was developed by the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), and has been used widely in military, educational, and commercial systems. The fundamental architectural feature of the Internet is the use of datagrams (packets) as the units which are transported across the underlying networks individually and independently; the datagram provides a basic building block on which a variety of types of services can be implemented [1]. The widely deployment of TCP/IP has been attributed to this feature. However, datagrams can arrive at the destination out-of-sequence, necessitating packet reordering, and degrading the performance of high-layer services such as TCP.

Internet measurement studies [2–10] have shown that the phenomenon of packet reordering exists throughout the Internet and sometimes can be severe. Causes of packet reordering in IP networks have been identified in [10–12],

including packet-level multi-path routing, route flapping, inherent parallelism in high-speed routers, link-layer retransmission, and router forwarding lulls. Packet reordering is now one of the four metrics describing QoS in packet networks, along with delay, loss, and jitter.

Two trends regarding packet reordering need to be emphasized. First, the studies in [3,9,10] demonstrate a strong correlation between inter-packet spacing and packet reordering. With the deployment of high-speed TCP variants, such as FAST TCP [13], CUBIC [14], BIC [15], and HSTCP [16], sustained high TCP throughput has become achievable in very high bandwidth networks. The smaller inter-packet spacing resulting from high throughput may increase the probability of packet reordering. Second, local parallelism is on the increase within the Internet because it reduces equipment and trunk costs [4]. Backbone network link technology has reached 10 Gbps, with 40 Gbps or 100 Gbps on the horizon. More and more parallelism is being introduced into network devices to reduce cost or minimize engineering difficulties. Even the largest network equipment vendors cannot avoid troubles with reordering in their network devices [2,10,17,18].

For connection-oriented reliable data transmission, packet reordering is dealt with in the TCP-layer of the

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 630 840 4541; fax: +1 630 840 8208. E-mail addresses: wenji@fnal.gov (W. Wu), demar@fnal.gov (P. Demar), crawdad@fnal.gov (M. Crawford).

Internet architecture [1]. TCP performs poorly in networks with severe packet reordering. Studies in [4,11] clearly discuss the impact of packet reordering on TCP. Over the vears, various reordering-tolerant algorithms [19–24] have been proposed to deal with packet reordering in TCP. Studies in [11,25] have proven the effectiveness of these reordering-tolerant algorithms. One common characteristic of these algorithms is that they all operate in the TCP-layer and react passively to out-of-sequence packets, instead of behaving actively to eliminate or reduce packet reordering to save processing in TCP, which is costly and involves interaction of sender and receiver. So far, little research on actively eliminating or reducing packet reordering at lower network layers has been reported and published. Motivated by the interrupt coalescing mechanism [26], which delivers packets in blocks for higher layer protocol processing, we propose a new strategy to eliminate or reduce the packet reordering in the receiver, which we call Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing (SRPIC). SRPIC works in the network device driver. It makes use of the interrupt coalescing mechanism to sort reordered packets of the same TCP stream in a block of packets before delivering them upward; each sorted block is internally ordered. Experiments have demonstrated the effectiveness of SRPIC against forward path reordering. The benefits of SRPIC are: (1) saving costly processing in the TCP-layer in both sender and receiver, increasing overall system efficiency; (2) achieving higher TCP throughput; (3) maintaining TCP self-clocking and reducing injection of bursty traffic into the network; (4) reducing or eliminating unnecessary retransmissions and duplicate ACKs or SACKs in the network, enhancing overall network efficiency; and (5) coexistence with other packet reorderingtolerant algorithms. However, it should be emphasized that SRPIC is a mechanism in the device driver that complements the TCP layer, instead of replacing it; any packet reordering that cannot be eliminated by SRPIC will be dealt with by TCP.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, background and related research on TCP packet reordering is presented. Section 3 describes the SRPIC algorithm. In Section 4, we present experiment results on the effectiveness of SRPIC. And finally in Section 5, we conclude the paper.

2. Background and related work

2.1. Interrupt coalescing

Most operating systems deployed on the network, such as FreeBSD, Solaris, Linux, and Windows [27–30], are interrupt-driven. When packets are received, the network interface card (NIC) typically interrupts to inform the CPU that packets have arrived. Without some form of interrupt moderation logic on the network device driver, this might lead to an interrupt for each incoming packet. As the traffic rate increases, the interrupt operations become very costly.

Interrupt coalescing was first proposed by Mogul et al. [26]. The idea of interrupt coalescing is to avoid flooding the host system with too many NIC interrupts. Each inter-

rupt serviced may result in the processing of several received packets. The system gets more efficient as the traffic load increases. Usually the interrupt coalescing mechanism works as follows [26,31]: incoming packets are first transferred into the ring buffer, and then the NIC raises a hardware interrupt. When CPU responds to the interrupt, the corresponding interrupt handler is called, within which a deferred procedure call (DPC) (Windows) [30], or a softirq (Linux) [29], is scheduled. At the same time, the NIC's receive interrupt function is disabled. DPC or softirq is serviced shortly after and moves packets from ring buffer upward for higher layer protocol processing till the ring buffer is empty. After that, DPC or softirq enables the NIC interrupt and exits. When more packets come, the cycle repeats.

2.2. Impact of packet reordering on TCP

TCP is a reliable transport protocol, designed to recover from misbehavior at the Internet Protocol (IP) layer. The details of TCP protocol are specified in [32]. TCP performs poorly in networks with severe packet reordering. Studies in [4,11] discuss in detail the impact of packet reordering on TCP. The impact of packet reordering on TCP is multifold:

- Degrading the receiver efficiency: many TCP implementations use the header prediction algorithm [33] to reduce the costs of TCP processing. However, header prediction only works for in-sequence TCP segments. If segments are reordered, most TCP implementations do far more processing than they would for in-sequence delivery. The two cases are usually termed fast path, and slow path, respectively. When TCP receives packets in sequence, it will stay on the fast path, and simply acknowledge the data as it's received. Fast path processing has sequential code with well-behaved branches and loops; CPU cache can have nearly perfect efficiency. However, if the received segments are out of order, the receiving TCP will be processing in the slow path and duplicate acknowledgements will be generated and sent; if the TCP has selective acknowledgements (SACK) [34] and duplicate SACK (DSACK) [20] enabled, the receiver will sort the out-of-order queue to generate SACK blocks. Sorting the out-of-order queue is expensive, especially when the queue is large. Slow path processing leads to a random pattern of data access, which is far less deterministic and presents a challenge for CPU caches. Packet reordering places serious burdens on the TCP receiver.
- Degrading the sender efficiency: when duplicate acknowledgements (dupACKs) come back to the sender, the sender TCP will also be processing in the slow path. If dupACKs include SACK options, the computational overhead of the processing SACK block is high. Packets in flight and not yet acknowledged are held in the retransmission queue. On receipt of SACK information, the retransmission queue would be walked with the relevant packets tagged as sacked or lost. For large bandwidth-delay products [31], the retransmission queue is very large, and the walk is costly.

Finally, if the number of dupACKs exceeds *dupthresh*, the sending TCP may go to fast retransmit and perform unnecessary retransmissions. The TCP reordering-tolerant algorithms may also adjust *dupthresh* to avoid unnecessary fast retransmit or rapid recovery from the false reductions of *cwnd* and *ssthresh*. These operations are also costly.

- Degrading TCP performance: most TCP implementations consider three or more duplicate ACKs as an indication that a packet has been lost, based on the assumption that reordered packet can trigger only one or two duplicate ACKs. However, if packets are reordered to a slightly greater degree, TCP misinterprets it as a lost packet and unnecessarily invokes fast retransmit/fast recovery to reduce the congestion window in the sender. Thus the congestion window may be kept small relative to the available bandwidth of the path with persistent and substantial packet reordering. Packet reordering would lead to loss of TCP self-clocking and understating of estimated RTT and RTO, which also throttle the TCP throughput.
- Wasting Network bandwidth: The unnecessary retransmissions in the forward path and the dupACKs/SACKs in the reverse path waste the network bandwidth.

2.3. Related work

Over the years, various reordering-tolerant algorithms have been proposed for packet reordering in TCP. The most widely deployed algorithms are the Eifel algorithm [19] by Ludwig and Katz, and the DSACK TCP [20] by Floyd et al. Leung et al. give a comprehensive survey of reordering-tolerant algorithms in [11]. In general, those algorithms either adaptively adjust TCP reordering threshold dupthresh to avoid false fast retransmit, or rapidly recover from the false reductions of congestion window cwnd and slow start threshold ssthresh in the sender. There is also a different group of reordering-tolerant algorithms termed Response Postponement in [11]. The response postponement algorithms avoid triggering spurious congestion responses in the sender or duplicate ACKs generation in the receiver by deferring them for a time period, in the hope that the out-of-sequence packets might come during the period. From this perspective, the response postponement algorithms are similar to our proposed SRPIC. One common characteristic of these algorithms is that they operate in the TCP-layer and react passively to out-of-sequence packets, instead of behaving actively to eliminate or reduce packet reordering to save processing in TCP.

SRPIC is different from these algorithms in a number of ways. First, it operates in the low layer of the protocol stack, and avoids complicating the already bloated TCP-layer. In addition, the SRPIC mechanism could be applied to other services, not just TCP. Secondly, SRPIC behaves actively to eliminate or reduce packet reordering to save processing in TCP. Finally, since interrupt coalescing can naturally group packets into blocks, SRPIC does not require timing mechanisms. By contrast, response postponement algorithms require timing

mechanisms for the deferred operations, complicating TCP implementation.

In [35], Radunovic et al. proposes a delayed reordering algorithm for the Horizon architecture. Similar to our approach, the delayed reordering algorithm is implemented between the data link layer and network layer; it sorts reordered packets and delivers them in sequence. However, this algorithm needs to estimate one-way delay and variance to implement a timing mechanism for packet delivery.

In [36], Govind et al. proposes a packet sort mechanism to reduce packet reordering in network processors. Their work can be applied in network devices such as routers and switches.

In [37], Kandula et al. proposes a new traffic splitting algorithm that operates on bursts of packets, carefully chosen to avoid reordering. This mechanism is implemented in router and applied for dynamic load balancing.

3. Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing (SRPIC)

3.1. Interrupt coalescing packet block size

The interrupt coalescing mechanism handles multiple packets per interrupt as the packet rate increases. In each interrupt, the packets belonging to the same stream make up a block. In this section, we study the relationship of the block size to the incoming packet rate. In general, the packet receiving process of different OSes are similar, but use different terminologies. For example, the softirq in Linux is called Deferred Procedure Call in Windows. In the following analysis, we assume the receiver to be running Linux.

Assume there is bulk data flowing from sender to receiver, such as an FTP file transfer. Process A is the data receiving process in the receiver. For simplicity, assume only process A runs on the receiver, and no other traffic is being directed to it. At time t, packets are incoming at the receiver with a rate of P(t) packets/second (pps). Also, let P(t) be the interrupt coalescing driver's hardware interrupt delay, which includes NIC interrupt dispatch and service time; the software interrupt softnet's packet service rate be R_{Sn} (pps).

At time $t_0 - \varepsilon$, the ring buffer is empty and A is waiting for network data from the sender. At time t_0 , packets start to arrive in the receiver. As an interrupt-driven operating system, the OS execution sequence is: hardware interrupt → software interrupt (or DPC) → process [29,38]. Arriving packets are first transferred to ring buffer. The NIC raises a hardware interrupt which results in scheduling the softirg, softnet. The softnet handler starts to move packets from ring buffer to the socket receive buffer of process A, waking up process A and putting it into the run queue. During this period, new packets might arrive at the receiver. Softnet continues to process the ring buffer till it is empty. Then softirg yields the CPU. Process A begins to run, moving data from the socket's receive buffer into user space. Typically, process A runs out of data before the next packet arrives at the receiver, and goes to sleep, waiting for more. If the next packet always arrives before process A goes to sleep, the sender will overrun the receiver. Incoming packets would accumulate in the socket's receive buffer. For TCP traffic, the flow control mechanism would eventually take effect to slow down the sender. When the next packet arrives at the receiver, the sequence of events is repeated. The cycle repeats until process A stops. Fig. 1 illustrates the packet receiving process with interrupt coalescing [31,39].

We use superscript j to denote cycles; cycle j starts at time t_j . Letting T_{sn}^j be the time that softnet spends emptying the ring buffer in cycle j, we see that

$$1 + \left[\int_{t_j}^{t_j + T_{\text{intr}} + T_{\text{sn}}^j} P(t) d(t) \right] = T_{\text{sn}}^j \cdot R_{\text{sn}}. \tag{1}$$

Here, $T_{sn}^{j} * R_{sn}$ is actually the number of packets that are handled together in cycle j. We call this group of packets as block j; the block size $Block^{j}$ is:

$$Block^{j} = T_{sn}^{j} \cdot R_{sn}. \tag{2}$$

For any given receiver, T_{intr} and R_{sn} are relatively fixed. Based on (1) and (2), it is clear that the block size will increase nonlinearly with the data rate P(t). For example, if P(t) is relatively stable in cycle j, with average value P^{j} , then we will have

$$Block^{j} = \left| \frac{1 + P^{j} \cdot T_{intr}}{1 - P^{j}/R_{sn}} \right|. \tag{3}$$

To illustrate the relationship between the block size and P(t), we run data transmission experiments over an iso-

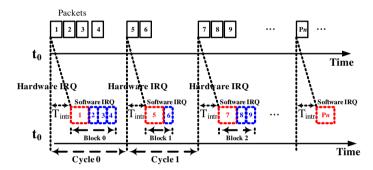


Fig. 1. Packet receiving process with interrupt coalescing.

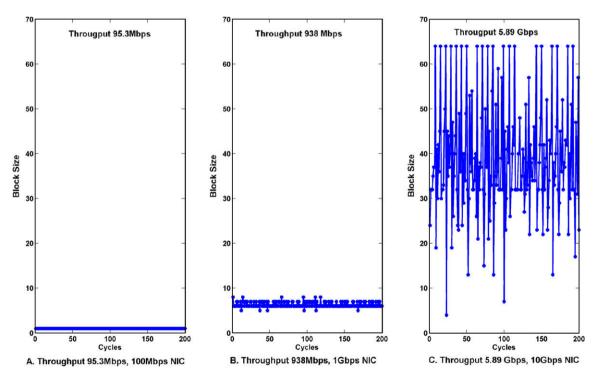


Fig. 2. Block sizes vs. different incoming data rates.

lated sub-network. In the experiments, we run iperf [40] to send data in one direction between two computer systems. The sender and receiver's detailed features are as shown in Section 4. The Round Trip Time (RTT) statistics are: min/avg/max/dev = 0.134/0.146/0.221/0.25 ms, with no packet loss. We use three different NICs (100 Mbps, 1 Gbps, and 10 Gbps, respectively) in the sender to vary the bandwidth and control maximum achievable P(t). Iperf runs for 50 s; we record the throughput and the block size at different cycles. Fig. 2 illustrates the block sizes with different NICs. Fig. 2A-C correspond to the sender NIC 100 Mbps, 1 Gbps, and 10 Gbps, respectively. Fig. 2 clearly shows that block size increases with throughput. With 100 Mbps NIC (Fig. 2A), the maximum achievable P(t) is limited to 100 Mbps and throughput is low at 95.3 Mbps. Correspondingly, each block has only one packet. With 1 Gbps NIC (Fig. 2B), the maximum achievable P(t)is now raised up to 1 Gbps and throughput is around 938 Mbps. The block size is commonly around 7 packets. For 10 Gbps NIC (Fig. 2C), the maximum achievable P(t)can reach as high as 10 Gbps. The throughput is high at 5.89 Gbps and blocks typically contain 30-60 packets. Please note that based on formula (1)–(3), we try to derive the "microscopic" relationship between block size Block and the incoming data rate P(t). However, iperf measures only "macroscopic" quantities. Iperf throughput is not equivalent to the instantaneous data incoming rate P(t). However, high throughput certainly implies a consistent high data incoming rate. The experiments still provide meaningful insight about the relationship between the block size and P(t).

If multiple streams are transmitting to the same receiver, the "effective" R_{sn} for each stream is actually decreasing. But for each individual stream, the relationship between the block size and P(t) remains the same: the block size will increase as the data rate P(t) is raised.

3.2. Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing (SRPIC)

Following the TCP/IP design philosophy [1], most network device drivers deliver received packets upward for higher layer processing in the same sequence as they are received. The lower layers of the protocol (below the transport layer) do not take any measures to process packet reordering, other than reassembling IP fragments. Packet reordering is dealt with either in the TCPlayer for connection-oriented reliable data transmission, or in the application layer for other transports. For example, some multimedia applications like VOIP use a jitter buffer in the application layer to reorder and smooth out packets. In this paper, we focus on TCP packet reordering. As discussed above, reordered packets lead to extra TCP processing overheads in both the sender and the receiver: slow-path processing, DupACKs/ SACK generation, and the computational overhead in processing SACK blocks. In the worst case, packet reordering will lead to false fast retransmit, resulting in small congestion window in the sender and severely degrading throughput.

Motivated by the fact that with interrupt coalescing. the network device driver delivers the received packets in blocks, we propose a new strategy to eliminate or reduce the packet reordering seen by TCP. The new strategy, Sorting Reordered Packets with Coalescing (SRPIC), works in the network device driver of the receiver. It makes use of the interrupt coalescing mechanism to sort the reordered packets belonging to each TCP stream in the interrupt coalesced blocks before delivering them. Each block is then internally free of reordering. We are focusing on the TCP packet reordering in this paper; however SRPIC could also be applied to other services.

Clearly, for our proposed strategy to work, two questions need to be answered first:

- (1) Does sorting the reordered packets within blocks eliminate or reduce packet reordering?
- (2) Is the sorting of reordered packets in the network device driver more efficient than processing them in the TCP-layer?

In the following sections, we first give an example² to illustrate the effectiveness of sorting the reordered packets in blocks to eliminate or reduce packet reordering. The second question will be answered after the SRPIC algorithm is presented.

Consider that 20 packets are sent from a TCP sender to a TCP receiver, and those packets arrive in the receiver in the order as shown in Fig. 3A. According to the packet reordering metrics in [12], there are 6 packets reordered in Fig. 3A, yielding a packet reordering rate of 30%, and maximum packet reordering extent of 3. Therefore, if the network device driver delivers the received packet upward in the same sequence as they were received from the network, the protocol stack will deal with those 6 instances of packet reordering in the TCP-layer. In the Figure, the packet reordering instances are highlighted in red.³

Now assume that the original packet sequence in Fig. 3A can be sorted in blocks. Fig. 3B and C give the resulting packet sequence with a sorting block size of 5 and 10, respectively. We summarize the packet reordering metrics for the resulting packet sequences in Table 1, and compare them with the original one. Before continuing, we give two definitions:

- Intra-block packet reordering: packet reordering that occurs within a sorting block.
- *Inter-block packet reordering*: packet reordering that occurs across sorting blocks.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ For the illustration's purpose, only 200 consecutive cycles' data are shown.

² Because the packet reordering occurs randomly, it is difficult to perform the purely mathematical analysis.

³ For interpretation of the references to color in this figure, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.

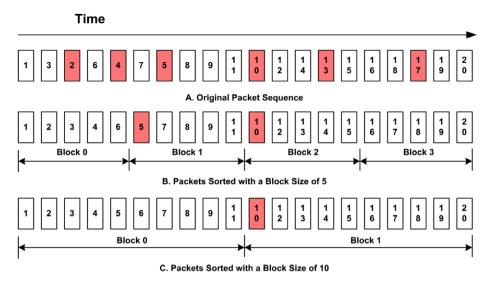


Fig. 3. Sorting packet reordering in blocks.

 Table 1

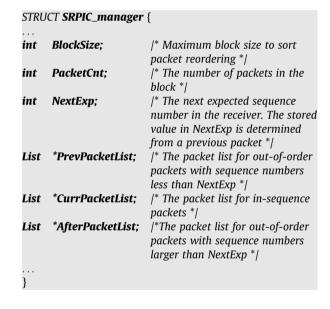
 Packet reordering metrics with different sorting block sizes.

Sorting block size	Reordering incidents	Reordering ratio (%)	Maximum reordering extent [12]
1 (no sorting)	6	30	3
5	3	10	1
10	1	5	1

In Fig. 3B, intra-block packet reordering includes packet 2, 4, 13, and 17; inter-block packet reordering includes packet 5 and 10. In Fig. 3C, intra-block packet reordering includes packet 2, 4, 5, 13, and 17; inter-block packet reordering includes only packet 10. Fig. 3 and Table 1 clearly show that sorting the reordered packet sequence in blocks can effectively eliminate intra-block packet reordering, but does not eliminate inter-block packet reordering, although it might reduce the packet reordering extent (e.g., Packet 5 in Fig. 3B). With larger sorting block sizes, reordered packets have more chance of belonging to *Intra-block packet reordering*. The conclusion is that sorting the reordered packet sequence in blocks can effectively eliminate or reduce the overall packet reordering ratio. In general, the larger the block size, the better the effect.

3.3. SRPIC algorithm and implementation

The interrupt coalescing mechanism handles multiple packets per interrupt as the packet rate increases. In each interrupt, the packets belonging to the same stream naturally make up a SRPIC sorting block. We have implemented the proposed SRPIC in Linux. In order to implement SRPIC, the network device driver has a SRPIC_manager to administer each TCP stream, which is differentiated by the combination of {src ip_addr, dst ip_addr, src tcp_port, dst tcp_port}. Each SRPIC_manager has a structure which looks like:



The SRPIC_manager is dynamically created or destroyed. When created or reinitialized, all the elements of SRPIC_manager will be set to zero. When the network device driver fetches a packet from the ring buffer, it first checks whether the packet is suitable for SRPIC. It is clear that fragmented and non-TCP packets are not appropriate. However, TCP packets (segments) are also not suitable for SRPIC if their headers include IP or TCP options (except the timestamp option), or if their TCP control bits are set (e.g., ECE, CWR, URG, RST, SYN, and FIN). These packets might need special and immediate treatment by higher layer protocols and should not be held back in the network device driver. Packets not suitable for SRPIC are delivered upward as usual. In general, the pseudo code for the SRPIC algorithm works as shown in Listing 1.

Listing 1. Pseudo Code for SRPIC implementation

```
static\ int\ Global\_SRPIC\_PacketCnt = 0;
while (not ring_buffer_is_empty ())
  P = Fetch_packet_from_ring buffer ();
  if (not Packet_suitable_for_SRPIC (P)) Deliver_packet_upwards (P);
  else {
       if ((M = Find_SRPIC_manager_for_packet (P)) == NULL)
                 M = Create\_SRPIC\_manager\_for\_packet (P);
       if (M \rightarrow PacketCnt == 0) {
                 M \rightarrow NextExp = TCP\_payload\_1^{st}\_byte\_sequence(P) + TCP\_payload\_len(P);
                 M \rightarrow PacketCnt + +:
                 Add_packet_to_list_tail(P, M \rightarrow CurrPacketList);
       } else {
                 if (TCP\_payload\_1^{st}\_byte\_sequence(P) < M \rightarrow NextExp)
                          Add_packet_to_list_and_sort\ (M \rightarrow PrevPacketList, P);
                 if (TCP\_payload\_1^{st}\_byte\_sequence\ (P) == M \rightarrow NextExp){
                         Add_packet_to_list_tail(M \rightarrow CurrPacketList, P);
                          M \rightarrow NextExp = TCP\_payload\_1^{st}\_byte\_sequence (P) + TCP\_payload\_len (P);
                 if (TCP\_payload\_1^{st}\_byte\_sequence\ (P) > M \rightarrow NextExp)
                          Add_packet_to_list_and_sort\ (M \rightarrow AfterPacketList,\ P);
                 M \rightarrow PacketCnt++;
                 If (M \rightarrow PacketCnt >= M \rightarrow BlockSize) Flush_SRPIC_manager(M);
    Global_SRPIC_PacketCnt++;
    if (Global_SRPIC_PacketCnt >= Ringbuffer_Size) {
                        Flush_all_SRPIC_managers();
                        Global\_SRPIC\_PacketCnt = 0;
     }
Flush_all_SRPIC_managers ();
Global\_SRPIC\_PacketCnt = 0;
```

As shown in the pseudo code, SRPIC has three packet lists: *PrevPacketList*, *CurrPacketList*, and *AfterPacketList*. The first packet in each sorting block will always go to *CurrPacketList*; then *NextExp* is updated to *TCP.payload.1st*. bytesequence (P) + TCP.payload.len (P). Here, TCP.payload.1st. bytesequence (P) obtains the first byte sequence number of P's payload; and TCP_payload_len (P) calculates P's payload length. After that, incoming packets will be delivered to different packet lists depending on whether they are insequence or not. SRPIC compares the first byte sequence number of an incoming packet's payload with *NextExp*; if equal, the packet is in-sequence. Then, it is added to the *CurrPacketList* and *NextExp* is correspondingly updated.

Otherwise, the packet is out-of-sequence, which will be delivered to either *PrevPacketList* or *AfterPacketList*. Packets loaded into *PrevPacketList* and *AfterPacketList* are sorted. Table 2 gives an example to illustrate the packet list operations. Assuming each packet's payload length is 1, the sorting block consists of 7 packets, and packet arrival sequence is: $2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 5$.

Clearly, the fate of the subsequent packets in a sorting block depends significantly on the sequence number of the first packet. This design is elegant in its simplicity: SRPIC is stateless across sorting blocks and SRPIC is computable "on the fly". The purpose of having three packet lists is to reduce the sorting overheads: packets will

Table 2 SRPIC packet lists operation.

Step 4: 4 arrives	Step 5: 6 arrives	Step 6: 7 arrives	Step 7: 5 arrives
NextExp: 5	NextExp: 5	NextExp: 5	NextExp: 6
AfterPacketList:{}	AfterPacketList:{6}	AfterPacketList:{6,7}	AfterPacketList:{6,7}
CurrPacketList: {2,3,4}	CurrPacketList: {2,3,4}	CurrPacketList: {2,3,4}	CurrPacketList: {2,3,4,5}
PrevPacketList: {1}	PrevPacketList: {1}	PrevPacketList: {1}	PrevPacketList: {1}
Step 0: Init	Step 1: 2 arrives	Step 2: 3 arrives	Step 3: 1 arrive
NextExp: 0	NextExp: 3	NextExp: 4	NextExp: 4
AfterPacketList:{}	AfterPacketList:{}	AfterPacketList:{}	AfterPacketList:{}
CurrPacketList: {}	CurrPacketList: {2}	CurrPacketList: {2,3}	CurrPacketList: {2,3}
PrevPacketList: {}	PrevPacketList: {}	PrevPacketList: {}	PrevPacketList: {1}

normally arrive in sequence; the NextExp and CurrPacket-List will ensure that most packets will be placed at the tail of CurrPacketList without being sorted. Another advantage of this implementation is that Large Receive Offload (LRO) [41] can be performed on CurrPacketList. We do not suggest LRO be implemented in PrevPacketList or AfterPacketList. Because these two lists keep non-in-sequence packets, there might be holes between neighboring packets in the lists, making LRO's overheads too high.

As has been discussed in previous sections, the larger the block size, the better the effect of reducing or eliminating packet reordering ratio and extent. But if all packets were delivered upward only at the end of interrupt coalescing (emptying the ring buffer), the block size might be large and the early packets in a sorting block might be delayed too long for higher layer processing, degrading performance. Let's continue the mathematical analysis in Section 3.1. Assume SRPIC is in operation and there is no constraint on the size of interrupt coalesced blocks, the software interrupt softnet's packet service rate is now R'_{sn} (pps); P(t) is relatively stable in cycle j, with average value P^{j} , and then we will have

$$T_{sn}^{j} = \left| \frac{1 + T_{intr} * P^{j}}{R_{sn}^{\prime} - P^{j}} R_{sn}^{\prime} \right| / R_{sn}^{\prime}. \tag{4}$$

 T^j_{sn} is the time that softnet spends emptying ring buffer in cycle j and also the extra delay that the first packet of block j incurs due to SRPIC. If P^j is high, T^j_{sn} could be large and the early packets in a sorting block might be delayed long. To prevent this, BlockSize controls the maximum block size for SRPIC_manager, and then we will have

$$\forall j > 0, \quad T_{sn}^j \leqslant BlockSize/R_{sn}^\prime. \tag{5}$$

BlockSize is configurable. The default value for BlockSize is 32, which is large enough to eliminate mild to moderate packet reordering. When network packet reordering is severe, it can be configured relatively large. With current computing power, T_{sn}^i is usually at microsecond level. Its effect on RTT could be ignored. When the number of accumulated packets in a SRPIC_manager reaches BlockSize, Flush_SRPIC_manager () will deliver the packet block for higher layer processing in the sequence: PrevPacketList, CurrPacketList, AfterPacketList, and then the $SRPIC_manager$ will be reinitialized.

SRPIC prevents high throughput connections from preempting idle connections like Telnet or SSH. SRPIC has a global variable *Global_SRPIC_PacketCnt* to counts the amount of packets for SRPIC sorting before a full flush of all SRPIC_managers. When Global_SRPIC_PacketCnt reaches Ringbuffer_Size, Flush_all_SRPIC_managers () will send all the packets upward even if the number of accumulated packets within a SRPIC_manager does not reach BlockSize. Ringbuffer_Size is the receive ring buffer size. It is a design parameter for the NIC and driver. For example, Myricom 10G NIC's is 512, Intel's 1G NIC's is 256. As such, the maximum extra delay that idle connections can experience is Ringbuffer_Size/R'_{sn}. With current computing power, this is usually at most at sub-millisecond's level and can be neglected for idle connections.

At the end of interrupt coalescing, Flush_all_SRPIC_managers() will send all the packets upward even if the number of accumulated packets within a SRPIC_manager does not reach BlockSize. This limits delays in packet delivery.

Now let's deal with the second question raised in Section 3.2 – is this efficient? Our answer is a definite yes! For connection-oriented reliable data transmission, the function of sorting reordered packets is necessary and cannot be avoided. If the packet reordering is eliminated or reduced in the network device driver, work in the TCP-layer, which acts on each packet in the order presented, is saved. The implementation of SRPIC itself does not take much overhead: managing a *SRPIC_manager* for each TCP stream, checking if an incoming packet is suitable for SRPIC; and manipulating the three packet lists. However, the savings in the TCP-layer could be significant. All the negative impact of packet reordering on TCP discussed in Section 2.2 could be saved or reduced.

Another big advantage of SRPIC is that it cooperates with any existing TCP-level packet ordering tolerant algorithms to enhance the overall TCP throughput.

We assert that sorting of reordered packets in the network device driver is much more cost-efficient than dealing with packet reordering in the TCP-layer. In Section 4, we will further verify the claim through experimentation. However, it needs to be emphasized that SRPIC is a mechanism in the device driver to complement the TCP-layer, instead of replacing it. Any packet reordering that cannot be eliminated by SRPIC will be dealt with by TCP.

4. Experiment and analysis

To verify our claims in previous sections, we run data transmission experiments upon the testing networks shown in Fig. 4. The testing networks consist of a sender, a network emulator, a network switch and a receiver. In our experiments, *iperf* is sending from the sender to the re-

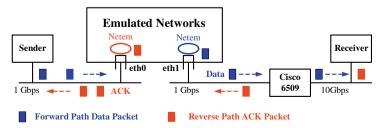


Fig. 4. Experiment networks.

Table 3 Experiment system features.

	Sender	Network emulator	Receiver
CPU	Two Intel Xeon E5335 CPUs, 2.00 GHz, (Family 6, Model 15)	Two Intel Xeon E5335 CPUs, 2.00 GHz, (Family 6, Model 15)	Two Intel Xeon CPUs, 3.80 GHz, (Family 15, Model 4)
NIC OS	Intel PRO/1000 1 Gbps, twisted pair Linux 2.6.25, Web100 patched	Two Intel PRO/1000 1 Gbps, twisted pair Linux 2.6.24	Myricom-10G PCI-Express x8, 10 Gbps Linux 2.6.24

ceiver via the network emulator. The network emulator is a Linux system, acting as a router to forward traffic between the sender and the receiver. The network emulator has two 1 Gbps interfaces, eth0 and eth1. To emulate various network conditions (e.g. delay, traffic drop, reordering etc), Netem [42] is configured on both interfaces, eth1 to emulate the forward path and eth0 to emulate the reverse path. During the experiments, the background traffic in the network is kept low. Without extra delay configured by Netem, the Round Trip Time (RTT) statistics between the sender and the receiver are: min/avg/max/dev= 0.134/0.146/0.221/0.25 ms. There is no packet loss or reordering in the network, except the intended packet reordering and drops configured by Netem in the experiments. The system features for the experiments are as shown in Table 3.

The latest Linux network stack supports an adaptive TCP reordering threshold mechanism.⁴ Under Linux, *dupthresh* is adaptively adjusted in the sender to reduce unnecessary retransmissions and spurious congestion window reduction. It can reach as large as 127. But some network stacks, such as Windows XP and FreeBSD, still implement a static TCP reordering threshold mechanism with a default *dupthresh* value of 3. Since SRPIC is an active packet reordering reducing mechanism on the receiver side, both adaptive and static TCP reordering threshold mechanisms on the sender side are employed in our experiments. To simulate the static threshold, we modified Linux by fixing *dupthresh* at 3. For clarity, a sender with adaptive TCP reordering threshold is termed an A-Sender, while a sender with a static reordering threshold is termed an S-Sender.

We run TCP data transmission experiments from sender to receiver. Unless otherwise specified, the sender transmits one TCP stream to the receiver for 50 s. In our experiments, the TCP congestion control in the sender is CUBIC [14]. We vary the network conditions in the forward and reverse paths, respectively. Under the same experiment conditions, the experiment results with a SRPIC receiver are compared to those with a Non-SRPIC receiver. The metrics of interest are: (1) Throughput (Mbps); (2) PktsRetrans, number of segments transmitted containing at least some retransmitted data; (3) DupAcksIn, number of duplicate ACKs received; and (4) SackBlocksRcvd, number of SACKs blocks Received. To obtain these experiment metrics, the sender is patched with Web100 software [43]. For better comparison, PktsRetrans, DupAcksIn, and SackBlocksRcvd are normalized with throughput (Mbps) as: PktsRetrans/ Mbps, DupAcksIn/Mbps, and SackBlocksRcvd/Mbps. Consistent results are obtained across repeated runs. All results presented in the paper are shown with 95% confidence interval.

4.1. The forward path experiments

4.1.1. Reordering experiments

In the experiments, path delays are added both in the forward and reverse paths. In the forward path, the delay follows the normal distribution; the mean and standard deviation of the path delay are α and $\beta \times \alpha$, respectively, where β is the relative variation factor. A larger β induces more variation in the path delay, hence increasing the degree of packet reordering. In the reverse path, the delay is fixed at α . No packet drops are induced at this point. Also, SACK is turned off to reduce its influence. In the following sections, when not otherwise specified, SACK is turned on if there are packet drops introduced in the experiments. In the experiments, α is 2.5 ms and β is varied. The sender transmits multiple parallel TCP streams (1, 5, and 10, respectively) to the receiver for 50 s. The results are as shown Table 4.

From Table 4, it can be seen that: (1) SRPIC can effectively increase the TCP throughput under different degrees of packet reordering (except the cases that throughput saturates the 1Gbps link), for both S-Sender and A-Sender. For example, at $\beta=0.2\%$ with 1 TCP stream, SRPIC surprisingly increases the TCP throughput more than 100% for S-Sender. (2) SRPIC significantly reduces the packet retransmission for S-Sender. (3) SRPIC effectively reduces the packet reordering in the receiver; the duplicate ACKs to the sender are significantly reduced.

Although SRPIC can significantly reduce the packet reordering in the receiver, it is interesting to note that A-Sender does very few packet retransmissions in both SRPIC and Non-SRPIC cases, the effect of SRPIC in reducing packet retransmission and improving the throughput for A-Sender is not as significant as for S-Sender. This is due to the following facts: (1) for S-Sender, dupthreshis static and fixed at 3; three consecutive duplicate ACKs lead to fast retransmission and unnecessarily reduce the congestion window. Since SRPIC can significantly reduce duplicate ACKs, chances of unnecessarily invoking packet retransmissions and spurious reduction of congestion window in the sender may be significantly reduced with SRPIC. (2) A-Sender automatically detects packet reordering and adaptively adjusts its *dupthresh* (\geq 3). We have noticed that A-Sender's dupthresh can reach as large as 127 in the reordering experiments. When dupthresh is high, the chance of unnecessarily invoking packet retransmission and spurious reduction of congestion window in the sender is considerably reduced even with significant amounts of duplicate ACKs to the sender. Therefore, the effect of SRPIC in

⁴ To support such a mechanism, the reordering-tolerant algorithms implemented in Linux include Eifel algorithm, DSACK, and RFC 3517.

Table 4 Reordering experiments: $\alpha = 2.5$ ms and β is varied.

		β (%)	Throughput (Mb	ops)	PktsRetrans/Mbp	os	DupAcksIn/Mbps	3
			N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC
S-Sender	1 Stream	10	59.7 ± 0.1	62.5 ± 0.1	1094.2 ± 5.1	1061.5 ± 8.83	2959.9 ± 0.9	2882.1 ± 2.9
		2	132.0 ± 2.2	176.7 ± 1.7	1014.2 ± 0.6	771.6 ± 0.6	2252.1 ± 2.7	1742.2 ± 4.2
		1	145.3 ± 5.1	240.3 ± 1.3	985.1 ± 3.9	553.0 ± 1.6	2148.9 ± 16.8	1242.3 ± 2.3
		0.2	225.0 ± 14.4	472.0 ± 4.1	794.6 ± 5.8	311.6 ± 4.1	1660.1 ± 14.6	694.1 ± 8.0
	5 Streams	10	279.7 ± 0.7	300.0 ± 1.1	1068.9 ± 1.8	1028.9 ± 4.5	2917.8 ± 1.2	2811.2 ± 3.5
		2	466.3 ± 2.8	562.0 ± 3.0	999.4 ± 0.5	848.6 ± 7.9	2371.5 ± 3.7	2035.0 ± 5.5
		1	518.7 ± 4.6	634.3 ± 1.7	971.7 ± 0.9	814.4 ± 0.9	2306.2 ± 3.1	1906.8 ± 5.6
		0.2	759.6 ± 2.3	876.3 ± 4.6	782.0 ± 1.3	347.1 ± 27.3	1705.4 ± 2.2	813.7 ± 25.8
	10 Streams	10	536.7 ± 18.3	585.3 ± 0.7	1058.9 ± 21.5	1036.5 ± 1.2	2897.5 ± 32.7	2818.4 ± 1.9
		2	759.7 ± 0.7	776.7 ± 0.7	1041.4 ± 1.3	932.6 ± 4.4	2374.6 ± 2.7	1988.1 ± 6.1
		1	762.7 ± 0.7	787.0 ± 5.9	1023.5 ± 4.0	847.8 ± 87.3	2253.7 ± 18.2	1800.7 ± 79.8
		0.2	804.0 ± 3.0	894.7 ± 3.5	768.1 ± 20.7	248.2 ± 20.3	1662.8 ± 31.8	706.9 ± 30.5
A-Sender	1 Stream	10	338.7 ± 0.7	440.7 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.1	3344.3 ± 5.1	3349.0 ± 2.8
A Schael	1 Stream	2	800.0 ± 1.1	944.0 ± 0.0	0.3 ± 0.1	0.4 ± 0.1 0.4 ± 0.3	3031.2 ± 5.3	2490.9 ± 57.9
		1	944 ± 0.0	944.0 ± 0.0	0.6 ± 0.4	0.4 ± 0.3 0.3 ± 0.3	2817.9 ± 24.1	2268.9 ± 13.4
		0.2	944.6 ± 1.3	944.3 ± 0.7	0.8 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.3	1601.1 ± 41.7	744.1 ± 6.6
	5 Streams	10	943.3 ± 0.7	944.0 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.4	2940.3 ± 2.8	2803.9 ± 2.5
		2	945 ± 0	944.0 ± 3.0	0.7 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.4	1986.8 ± 11.7	1598.6 ± 18.6
		1	944.3 ± 0.7	943.0 ± 3.9	0.6 ± 0.1	0.7 ± 0.3	1821.0 ± 42.8	1418.2 ± 70.9
		0.2	945.3 ± 0.7	947.3 ± 0.7	0.9 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	1169.7 ± 21.3	535.6 ± 26.8
	10 Streams	10	944.3 ± 0.7	945.0 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.02	1.2 ± 0.1	2322.2 ± 6.3	2203.6 ± 25.1
		2	944.7 ± 0.7	945.3 ± 0.7	0.7 ± 0.3	0.6 ± 0.2	1611.6 ± 3.7	1304.9 ± 15.3
		1	944.7 ± 0.7	945.3 ± 0.7	0.8 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.1	1575.8 ± 48.9	1195.8 ± 40.9
		0.2	945.3 ± 0.7	945.3 ± 1.3	0.9 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.02	1164.6 ± 15.2	537.7 ± 4.4

improving the throughput and reducing packet retransmission for A-Sender is not as significant as S-Sender. However, it should be emphasized that the adaptive TCP reordering threshold mechanism is a sender side mechanism; it cannot reduce the packet reordering of the forward path seen by receiver TCP as SRPIC does. The experiments supports the claim that SRPIC can cooperate with existing reordering-tolerant algorithms to enhance overall TCP performance.

From Table 4, it is apparent that the effect of SRPIC is more significant when β is smaller. With a smaller β , more reordered packets belong to intra-block packet reordering, and SRPIC effectively eliminates intra-block packet reordering. When the degree of the packet reordering is high, more packets are inter-block reordered; SRPIC cannot reduce inter-block packet reordering. As shown in Table 4, the difference of DupAcksIn/Mbps between Non-SRPIC and SRPIC when $\beta=10\%$ is not as significant as that with $\beta=0.2\%$. However, it still can be seen that SRPIC can increase the TCP throughput at $\beta=10\%$. This is because SRPIC eliminates the intra-block packet reordering; even small, it still increases the chances of opening up sender's congestion window*cwnd* more than Non-SRPIC would.

For any given receiver, the actual sorting block sizes of SRPIC are decided by incoming data rate and *BlockSize*. *BlockSize* controls the maximum sorting block size for SRPIC. However, if incoming data rate is low, the size of an interrupt coalesced block might not reach *BlockSize*; as such, the SRPIC sorting block size is purely decided by incoming data rate. It is clear that low incoming data rate

will lead to small SRPIC sorting blocks. Table 4 clearly shows that SRPIC is less effective when the throughput rates are low. But SRPIC is still applicable under the conditions of low network throughputs. This is because that TCP throughput measures only "macroscopic" quantities. It is not equivalent to an instantaneous packet arrival rate. Therefore, even at low throughputs, the instantaneous arrival rate could be high due to TCP traffic's bursty nature [44].

With multiple concurrent TCP streams, the effective bandwidth available to each stream is actually reduced. However, the multiple-stream experiments demonstrate the effectiveness of SRPIC in reducing the packet reordering of the forward path seen by receiver TCP. This is because that: (1) TCP traffic is bursty; and (2) microscopically, the traffic of multiple concurrent streams shares network bandwidth in a "time-sharing" way, instead of the "fluid-flow" way, the instantaneous data rate for each stream could still be high. As such, each stream can still form effective SRPIC sorting blocks.

Table 4 shows the effectiveness of SRPIC in reducing the packet reordering of the forward path seen by receiver TCP, and validate the benefits of reducing packet reordering for TCP claimed previously: (1) save costly processing in the TCP-layer of both the sender and the receiver. The generation and transmission of DupACKs in the receiver are reduced, as is the processing time for DupACKs in the sender. The chance of staying in the fast path increases. The sender's system efficiency is enhanced. But we still cannot claim that the receiver's efficiency is enhanced:

the experiments cannot demonstrate that the savings in TCP compensates SRPIC overheads in the receiver. We will prove the enhancement of receiver's efficiency in Section 4.1.4. (2) Achieve higher TCP throughput. This is because the chance of unnecessarily reducing congestion window in the sender significantly decreases with SRPIC. (3) Maintain TCP self-clocking, and avoid injecting bursty traffic into the network. (4) Reduce or eliminate unnecessary traffic retransmission and DupACKs/SACKs traffic in the network, enhancing the overall network efficiency.

4.1.2. Packet drop experiments

Path delays are added in both the forward and reverse paths, with the delay fixed at $\alpha=2.5$ ms in both directions. Packet drop are added in the forward path, uniformly distributed with a variable rate of δ . The purpose of packet drop experiments is to evaluate whether they have negative impact on SRPIC performance. Since packet drops will cause gaps in the traffic stream, SRPIC would hold and sort the out-of-sequence packets which are actually not misordered. The experiments are run with one TCP stream; no packet reordering is induced except the retransmission reordering caused by packet drops. SACK is enabled in the experiments.

The results are as shown in Table 5. It can be seen that packet drops will not cause negative impact on SRPIC performance. The SRPIC throughputs are almost the same with those of Non-SRPIC at different δ levels for both S-Sender and A-Sender. Similar results are observed for other metrics like PktsRetrans, DupAcksIn, and SackBlocksRcvd. We believe that this is because that the *BlockSize* and *Flush_all_SRPIC_managers()* guarantee the packets held for sorting get delivered upward in timely manner. Compared to RTT (milliseconds), the SRPIC processing delays (microseconds) is negligible and should not cause any negative effect on the performance.

In real networks, packet drops, such as congestion-induced packet loss, are usually bursty. We also run experiments with bursty packet drops. Similar conclusions as above can be drawn. Due to space limitations, those results are not included here. In the following sections, packet drops are also uniformly distributed. Experiments with multiple TCP streams draw similar conclusions.

4.1.3. Packet reordering and drop experiments

Both reordering and drops are added in the forward path. The forward path delay follows the normal distribution with mean and standard deviation of $\alpha = 2.5$ ms and

 $\beta \times \alpha = 0.4\% \times 2.5 = 0.01$ ms, respectively. Packet drop is uniformly distributed with a ratio of δ , where δ is varied. In the reverse path, the delay is fixed at $\alpha = 2.5$ ms, with no drops; SACK is enabled. The sender transmits multiple parallel TCP streams (1, 5, and 10, respectively) to the receiver for 50 s. The results are as shown in Table 6. Conclusions similar to Section 4.1.1 can be drawn.

4.1.4. CPU comparison

Previous experiments have shown that SRPIC can effectively reduce packet reordering in the receiver, successfully increase the TCP throughput, and significantly reduce the <code>DupAcksIn</code> and <code>SackBlocksRcvd</code> to the sender. It is self-explanatory that the reduction of <code>DupAcksIn</code> and <code>SackBlocksRcvd</code> to the sender will save the costly <code>DupAcksIn</code> and <code>SackBlocksRcvd</code> processing in the sender, leading to higher system efficiency. We need to verify that SRPIC is also cost-efficient in the receiver. The savings in TCP need to compensate for the SRPIC overheads.

We run *oprofile* [45] to profile the system performance in both the sender and receiver. The metrics of interest are: (1) CPU_CLK_UNHALTED [46], the number of CPU clocks when not halted; And (2) INST_RETIRED [46], the number of instruction retired. These two metrics evaluate the load on both systems. Since our testing systems are multi-core based, we pin the network interrupts and iperf to one specific CPU on each system, in order to make the profiling more accurate.

The first CPU comparison experiments are run as a series of tests: (1) no packet reordering experiments, with a delay of 2.5 ms is added to both the forward and reverse paths. The purpose of this test is to evaluate whether SRPIC will degrade the system performance when there is no packet reordering. (2) Packet reordering experiments, with the experiment configuration identical to Table 4, where $\beta = 0.2\%$. These experiments are run with A-Sender. We do not apply packet drops or use S-Sender in the experiments: packet drops cause big throughput variation; with S-Sender, the throughput difference between SRPIC and Non-SRPIC cases is very large. The throughput rates in these experiments all saturate the 1 Gbps link (around 940 Mbps). The experiments are designed to have the same throughput rates for the sake of better CPU comparison. In all these experiments, the sender transmits multiple parallel TCP streams (1, 5, and 10, respectively) to the receiver for 50 s. The results are as shown in Fig. 5. In the figure, *n*R+ and *n*R- represent *n* streams with or without reordering, respectively.

Table 5 Packet drop experiments, $\alpha = 2.5 \text{ ms}, \delta$ is varied, with 1 TCP stream.

	δ (%)	Throughput (Mbps)		PktsRetrans/M	PktsRetrans/Mbps		DupAcksIn/Mbps		SackBlocksRcvd/Mbps	
		N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	
S-Sender	0.1	35.7 ± 1.0	36.1 ± 3.3	4.3 ± 0.5	4.3 ± 0.5	31.8 ± 4.7	31.3 ± 3.1	32.9 ± 4.9	32.7 ± 2.8	
	0.01	139.3 ± 21.9	140.7 ± 17.1	0.4 ± 0.04	0.4 ± 0.1	12.6 ± 2.6	11.9 ± 2.5	13.1 ± 3.2	12.6 ± 3.5	
	0.001	561.6 ± 22.4	563.3 ± 27.2	0.04 ± 0.002	0.0 ± 0.0	4.3 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.7	4.3 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.8	
A-Sender	0.1	37.6 ± 1.3	36.9 ± 0.3	4.4 ± 0.3	4.1 ± 0.3	34.9 ± 1.9	29.5 ± 2.9	36.5 ± 2.1	30.7 ± 3.3	
	0.01	130.0 ± 18.1	129.0 ± 5.9	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.02	10.7 ± 2.0	11.4 ± 1.6	10.9 ± 2.3	11.9 ± 2.3	
	0.001	615.3 ± 23.9	620.3 ± 17.1	0.03 ± 0.001	0.04 ± 0.004	3.8 ± 0.7	4.3 ± 0.5	3.9 ± 0.7	4.3 ± 0.5	

Table 6 Packet reordering and drop experiments, $\alpha = 2.5$ ms, $\beta = 0.4\%$ and δ is varied.

	δ (%)	Throughput (N	(Ibps)	PktsRetrans/Mb	ps	DupAcksIn/Mbp	os	SackBlocksRcvd	SackBlocksRcvd/Mbps	
		N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	
(A)	S-Sende	r								
1	0.1	26.6 ± 0.11	38.2 ± 0.34	124.5 ± 1.26	45.8 ± 0.43	1155.9 ± 3.9	537.4 ± 1.8	1286.1 ± 4.6	647.4 ± 2.9	
	0.01	67.3 ± 1.6	78.6 ± 1.4	125.8 ± 2.2	40.8 ± 1.3	1041.1 ± 9.0	478.9 ± 3.8	1125.8 ± 9.3	566.5 ± 5.7	
	0.001	89.6 ± 1.4	103.0 ± 2.3	199.9 ± 10.0	50.4 ± 8.0	1135.7 ± 19.7	475.7 ± 10.9	1241.4 ± 25.3	565.1 ± 13.2	
5	0.1	102.3 ± 0.65	162 ± 0.0	137.2 ± 0.8	44.5 ± 0.43	1224.9 ± 4.0	403.4 ± 0.8	1386.2 ± 3.8	505.7 ± 1.5	
	0.01	174.3 ± 0.7	278.3 ± 0.7	157.6 ± 1.2	55.3 ± 1.4	1185.6 ± 4.8	467.8 ± 2.7	1326.2 ± 5.7	578.1 ± 4.0	
	0.001	199.7 ± 2.8	336.7 ± 1.7	212.4 ± 8.1	67.6 ± 2.1	1266.3 ± 12.2	462.4 ± 4.1	1430.7 ± 16.4	577.1 ± 7.4	
10	0.1	189.7 ± 0.7	273 ± 1.1	138.8 ± 0.2	62.3 ± 0.6	1226.4 ± 0.9	403.1 ± 1.3	1398.8 ± 1.2	526.2 ± 2.2	
	0.01	309.0 ± 0	461.3 ± 2.6	165.5 ± 0.7	81.9 ± 0.9	1217.9 ± 1.7	490.8 ± 1.7	1377.3 ± 2.2	631.0 ± 2.7	
	0.001	367.0 ± 1.1	510.3 ± 1.7	196.5 ± 1.8	114.8 ± 1.2	1245.9 ± 3.6	553.2 ± 2.8	1419.1 ± 5.5	726.5 ± 4.7	
(D)	1 Canda									
(<i>B)</i>	A-Sende 0.1	er 56.6 ± 1.1	60.5 ± 0.84	4.6 ± 0.2	4.6 ± 0.18	1337.4 ± 5.1	564.9 ± 7.8	1608.9 ± 6.4	704.2 ± 9.0	
•	0.01	207.7 ± 3.3	217.7 ± 6.2	0.5 ± 0.08	0.6 ± 0.1	1207.9 ± 8.0	493.8 ± 2.7	1445.9 ± 16.9	643.9 ± 7.4	
	0.001	556.0 ± 8.1	624.7 ± 5.2	0.07 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	1915.3 ± 15.7	1134.8 ± 6.9	4069.4 ± 67.3	2777.4 ± 32.1	
5	0.1	237.3 ± 0.7	251.3 ± 0.7	4.75 ± 0.13	4.6 ± 0.11	1362.4 ± 4.9	468.8 ± 1.3	1731.9 ± 8.2	635.7 ± 5.5	
	0.01	911.0 ± 2.3	929.9 ± 3.0	0.48 ± 0.001	0.5 ± 0.01	1439.2 ± 0.9	907.4 ± 1.7	1983.6 ± 5.2	1263.7 ± 5.7	
	0.001	942.0 ± 0.0	942.0 ± 0.0	0.09 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.02	1439.6 ± 15.8	880.4 ± 6.8	2008.8 ± 37.3	1232.1 ± 12.4	
10	0.1	441.3 ± 1.3	477.7 ± 0.7	4.8 ± 0.07	4.7 ± 0.02	1507.5 ± 1.4	608.7 ± 1.6	2198.9 ± 2.9	926.6 ± 2.0	
	0.01	941.3 ± 0.7	941.7 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.02	0.49 ± 0.01	1320.9 ± 10.6	840.0 ± 8.2	1710.7 ± 13.3	1115.0 ± 10.2	
	0.001	942.0 ± 0.0	942.0 ± 0.0	0.08 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01	1303.1 ± 2.5	817.4 ± 8.2	1675.4 ± 1.3	1092.5 ± 12.2	

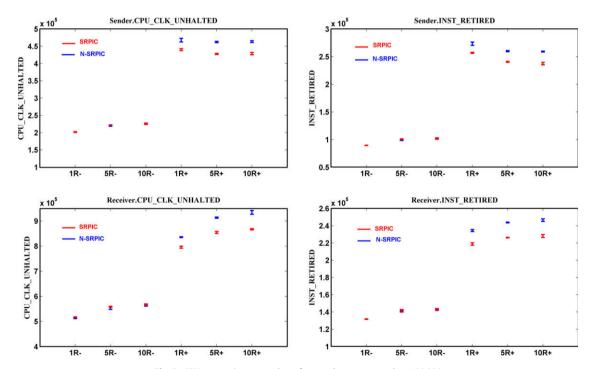


Fig. 5. CPU comparisons, number of events between samples: 100,000.

From Fig. 5, it can be seen that without packet reordering, the loads on the sender and receiver are almost the same for both SRPIC and Non-SRPIC cases, with different number of parallel TCP streams. However, when there are reordered packets in the forward path, experiments show that SRPIC can enhance system efficiency for both the sen-

der and receiver. With SRPIC, CPU_CLK_UNHALTED and IN-ST_RETIRED on the sender and receiver are lower. This is because SRPIC can effectively reduce the packet reordering in the receiver; all the negative impacts discussed in Section 2.2 can be reduced. The experiments further support the claim that the savings in TCP compensate for the SRPIC overheads in the receiver. The conclusion is that SRPIC enhances the receiver's system efficiency.

For the second set of CPU comparison experiments, we repeat the packet drop experiments of Section 4.1.2 (single TCP stream). The results are as shown in Table 7. From Table 7. it can be seen that the loads on the sender and receiver are almost the same for both SRPIC and Non-SRPIC cases, with different level of packet drops. The load difference is so small that it can be claimed that SRPIC does not incur extra overheads under the conditions of pure packet drops. We believe this is because: since packet drops cause gaps in the traffic stream, SRPIC would hold and sort the out-of-sequence packets, which are actually not misordered; from this perspective, SRPIC does introduce extra overheads due to packet drops. However, packet drops will finally lead to packet retransmission. The retransmitted packets are actually "reordered". Previous experiments have validated the benefits of SRPIC in saving costly processing in TCP for packet reordering, which somehow compensates for the overheads it introduces.

4.2. The reverse path experiments

ACKs/SACKs go back to the sender in the reverse path. Due to TCP's cumulative acknowledgements, the reverse path reordering and packet drops can have the following impacts [4]: loss of self-clocking, and injection of bursty traffic into the network. We repeat all experiments above on the reverse path. Packet reordering and drops are added in the reverse path, with no packet reordering and drops in the forward path. The throughput rates of all these experiments saturate the 1 Gbps link (around 940 Mbps). In these experiments, the metrics used to evaluate SRPIC in Section 4.1 are very close to each other between the SRPIC and Non-SRPIC cases. The results are as expected: SRPIC is the receiver side algorithm, it does not deal with the reverse path packet reordering and drops; Also, since there is no reordering or drops in the forward path, SRPIC will

not take effect in the receiver. Due to space limitations, the reverse path experiment results are not included here.

4.3. The forward and reverse paths experiments

How will SRPIC perform when packet reordering and drops occur in both the forward and reverse paths? To answer the question, we repeat the experiments in Section 4.1.3, adding packet reordering and drops in both the forward and reverse paths. For both directions, the path delay follows the normal distribution with mean and standard deviation of $\alpha = 2.5$ ms and $\beta \times \alpha = 0.4\% \times 2.5$ ms = 10 μ s, respectively. Packet drop is uniformly distributed with a ratio of δ . SACK is enabled.

The results are as shown in Table 8. It can be seen that SRPIC significantly reduces the packet retransmission for the S-Sender. SRPIC also effectively reduces the packet reordering in the receiver, with duplicate ACKs and SACK blocks to the sender significantly reduced as well. It is the packet reordering and drops in the forward path that leads to duplicate ACKs and SACK blocks back to the sender. The significant reduction of duplicate ACKs and SACK blocks to the sender again verify the effectiveness of SRPIC in reducing the forward path packet reordering seen by receiver TCP.

It is interesting to note that the throughput rate in Table 8 is a little bit different than in Section 4.1.3. With $\delta=0.001\%$, SRPIC throughput rates are higher than those of Non-SRPIC, for both S-Sender and A-Sender. This is positive and as expected. However, with $\delta=0.01\%$, the SRPIC throughput rate is slightly less than the Non-SRPIC case for A-Sender, although significant reduction of DupAcksIn and SackBlocksRcvd is still observed. We believe this phenomenon is caused by the ACK reordering in the reverse path, which somewhat negates the SRPIC's effort in reducing the forward path packet reordering. The ACK reordering should make the number of "effective" ACKs back to the sender smaller because some of them get discarded

Table 7CPU comparisons of packet drop experiments, number of events between samples: 100,000.

	δ (%)		Sender		Receiver	
			CPU_CLK_UNHALTED	INST_RETIRED	CPU_CLK_UNHALTED	INST_RETIRED
S-Sender	0.1	SRPIC NSRPIC	18039.0 ± 1041.5 17452.5 ± 890.8	7371.5 ± 400.8 7139.5 ± 308.5	93309.8 ± 12306.0 100789.5 ± 15155.2	11895.3 ± 1200.7 10590.7 ± 1212.3
	0.01	SRPIC NSRPIC	43392.0 ± 1548.1 42637.4 ± 1820.3	18224.0 ± 642.3 18030.0 ± 661.4	189359.6 ± 22095.5 190660.8 ± 18738.4	29034.6 ± 1473.3 29403.0 ± 1640.1
	0.001	SRPIC NSRPIC	145287.5 ± 7018.2 142372.7 ± 10217	64588.5 ± 3092.6 63124.2 ± 4903.4	505684.8 ± 28193.3 511500.5 ± 47159.4	104679.0 ± 4363.6 103279.0 ± 8365.5
A-Sender	0.1	SRPIC NSRPIC	17062.7 ± 405.8 18075.7 ± 1245.2	7042.3 ± 170.6 7363.3 ± 394.7	89293.7 ± 5391.9 92026.7 ± 19526.5	10153.7 ± 965.0 10963.3 ± 1784.9
	0.01	SRPIC NSRPIC	42289.0 ± 2714.1 48668.3 ± 3581.5	17738.5 ± 1126.0 20555.3 ± 1617.9	196918.5 ± 53293.1 184391.7 ± 34923.8	28903.0 ± 2574.7 33767.7 ± 4173.0
	0.001	SRPIC NSRPIC	143978.5 ± 10548.9 143880.0 ± 2130.8	63787.0 ± 5052.1 63694.2 ± 572.1	502639.2 ± 41314.5 492621.5 ± 2753.3	103703.5 ± 7433.4 105082.5 ± 4147.2

Table 8The forward and reverse paths experiments.

	δ	Throughput (Mbps)		PktsRetrans/M	PktsRetrans/Mbps		DupAcksIn/Mbps		SackBlocksRcvd/Mbps	
		N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	N-SRPIC	SRPIC	
S-Sender	0.1	27.1 ± 0.06	33.7 ± 0.39	67.5 ± 0.7	29.2 ± 0.11	794.9 ± 2.8	493.6 ± 1.59	1290.5 ± 5.3	622.9 ± 1.38	
	0.01	60.7 ± 1.4	64.1 ± 1.0	75.3 ± 0.9	31.3 ± 1.3	728.7 ± 2.0	445.7 ± 1.4	1128.3 ± 5.0	550.1 ± 3.5	
	0.001	84.4 ± 1.1	87.5 ± 0.7	103.3 ± 6.2	40.4 ± 2.5	747.6 ± 12.6	446.2 ± 2.4	1165.6 ± 18.8	554.2 ± 4.7	
A-Sender	0.1	43.5 ± 0.56	44.9 ± 0.5	4.4 ± 0.09	4.58 ± 0.02	825.2 ± 2.6	524.8 ± 6.5	1510.8 ± 4.7	675.5 ± 7.3	
	0.01	183.0 ± 0.0	179.7 ± 3.5	0.4 ± 0.01	0.4 ± 0.02	752.6 ± 2.5	449.9 ± 2.6	1309.6 ± 6.3	575.3 ± 6.2	
	0.001	306.3 ± 3.6	356.7 ± 3.9	0.04 ± 0.003	0.05 ± 0.001	719.6 ± 4.3	352.3 ± 3.4	1775.9 ± 15.3	729.9 ± 13.8	

as old ones as a newer cumulative ACK often arrives a bit "ahead" of its time making rest smaller sequenced ACKs very close to a no-op. The unfortunate result is that the sender's congestion window will grow far too slowly [4]. These experiments demonstrate that combined with the forward path packet reordering, ACK reordering in the reverse path might lead to unpredictable TCP throughput, even through SRPIC can effectively reduce packet reordering in the receiver. Experiments with multiple TCP streams draw similar conclusions.

4.4. Delay experiments

Without doubt, SRPIC adds extra delays for TCP traffic. The TCP traffic of idle connections like Telnet or SSH are delayed the most. This is because idle connections' throughput is often low and their sorting block usually cannot reach *BlockSize*. As such, the packets are delivered upward either at the end of interrupt coalescing, or when *Global_SRPIC_PacketCnt* reaches *Ringbuffer_Size*. It has been analyzed in Section 3.3 that the delay caused by SRPIC is negligible. This claim is further verified by the following experiments.

In the experiments, the sender transmits 10 parallel TCP streams to the receiver at full speeds; no packet reordering or drops are configured. At the same time, we login the receiver from a third system with SSH and type "Is –al" for a thousand time to simulate idle connection traffic. The Pinged RTT statistics between the third system and the receiver are: min/avg/max/mdev = 5.207/5.212/5.232/0.093 ms. The third system runs Linux 2.6.24; its system clock resolution is 1 ms. It has been instrumented to record each TCP-layer calculated RTT. The cumulative distribution functions (CDF) for the recorded TCP-layer calculated RTT with or without a SRPIC receiver are compared. Also, the receiver has been instrumented to record the duration that softnet spends emptying the ring buffer in each cycle.

Fig. 6A shows the CDF for the third system TCP-layer calculated RTT and Fig. 6B shows the CDF for the duration that receiver softnet spends emptying the ring buffer for each interrupt coalesced cycle. Fig. 6A clearly shows that the CDF with SRPIC almost totally overlaps that of Non-SRPIC. For both cases, the TCP-layer calculated RTT is either 5 ms or 6 ms. This is because TCP calculates segments' RTT with integral jiffy units. Jiffy represents system clock granularity; for Linux and other OSes, the finest system clock

granularity only reaches 1 ms level. TCP-layer cannot tell the RTT changes less than 1 ms. As it has been analyzed in Section 3.3, the extra delay caused by SRPIC is at most at sub-milliseconds' level. This is further verified by the experiment results of Fig. 6B. For the duration that receiver softnet spends emptying the ring buffer for each interrupt coalesced cycle, the CDF with SRPIC almost totally overlaps that of Non-SRPIC; mostly, the duration is less than 20 µs. It verifies our claim that the delay caused by SRPIC is negligible.

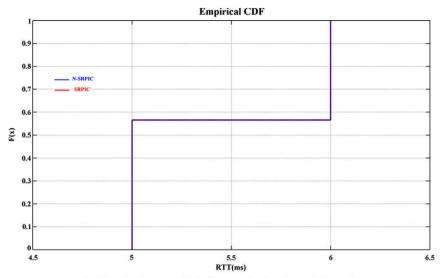
4.5. About experiment parameters

In our experiments, we use both S-sender and A-sender cases. However, under the same network conditions, their TCP performance varies greatly. We try different combinations of alpha, beta, and delta to create "workable" network conditions, which cover a wide spectrum of TCP throughputs. We are trying to avoid the extreme cases that either S-sender's performance is very bad or A-sender's performance saturates the 1 Gbps link. In our experiments, the value for β used when combined with packet loss differs from any of the values used in the other experiments. In the packet reordering experiments, we chose 10%, 2%, 1%, and 0.2% for β . In the packet reordering and drop experiments, we chose 0.4% for β . We did try other values of β in the reordering and drop experiments. When β is set as high as 1%, S-sender's performance is very bad under any nonzero packet loss; when β is a low as 0.2%, A-sender easily saturates the link. So, we compromised and chose β as 0.4%. However, it needs to emphasize that different types of experiments are relatively independent.

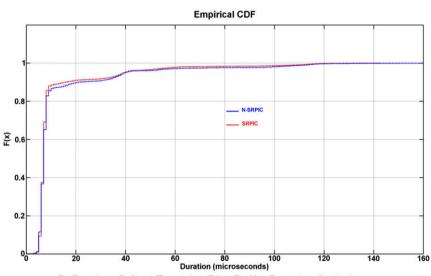
5. Discussion and conclusions

Originally, we had planned to implement a SRPIC-like mechanism between the IP and TCP layers. The final implementation of SRPIC was inspired by the LRO implementation in [41]. When combined with LRO, the overheads of SRPIC are at least cut in half.

Implementing a mechanism similar to SRPIC between the IP and TCP layers has the advantages of saving the overheads in maintaining the *SRPIC_manager* for each TCP stream, where SRPIC could be performed within each TCP socket. However, there is no natural grouping of packets into blocks at that layer. A timing or other mechanism



A. The third system TCP-layer calculated RTT Statistics



B. Receiver Softnet Emptying Ring Buffer Duration Statistics

Fig. 6. Delay experiments.

would be needed to hold packets for sorting and to flush sorted blocks at appropriate times. Still, since TCP traffic is bursty, a mechanism similar to SRPIC in between the IP and TCP layers might still be worth trying. We leave it for further study.

Due to system clock resolution issues, it is difficult to emulate networks with bandwidth beyond 1 Gbps. All our experiments are run upon Gigabit networks. However, SRPIC should be more effective in higher bandwidth networks.

SRPIC will be beneficial whenever interrupt coalesced sorting blocks can be effectively formed. Formula (3) has clearly showed that the block size $Block^i$ relies not only on the instantaneous packet arrival rate P(t), but also on the receiver (T_{intr} and R_{sn}). Please note that the overall TCP throughput measures only "macroscopic" quantities.

It is not equivalent to an instantaneous packet arrival rate. Therefore, even at low throughputs, the instantaneous arrival rate could be high due to TCP traffic's bursty nature. A relatively "slow" receiver would have a larger T_{intr} and smaller R_{sn} . As such, even with relatively small instantaneous packet arrival rate, Block^j could still be large and lead to the formation of effective SRPIC sorting blocks. In our paper, the experiments have showed SRPIC is more effective when the throughput is higher (preferably several 100 Mbps). This is because we have used a very fast receiver (3.8 GHz CPU, 10 Gbps NIC) and a relatively slow sender (2.0 GHz CPU, 1 Gbps NIC) in the experiments. Due to the physical limits (energy walls, heat walls), few CPUs can have clock speeds above 3.8 GHz. For the past few years, in the processor field, the trend has been shifting from a single high-clock CPU to multi-core processors with relatively slower speeds. So, SRPIC would be applicable even under the conditions of low network throughputs.

However, SRPIC will have limited applicability in network environments where interrupt coalesced sorting blocks cannot be effectively formed:

- Bandwidth-limited network environments: in such environments, the bandwidth-limited lines effectively space out the packets. As a result, packet arrival rates will be lower than the receiver's packet service rate. The experiment Fig. 2A has clearly confirmed this point. We believe most home networking environments belong to this category. Most home users are still connected to an access network at 10 Mbps, or even less.
- Lossy network environments with more packet drops: in these cases, the sender's congestion window cannot effectively open up, throttling the maximum data sending rates. Interrupt coalesced sorting blocks cannot be effectively formed in the receiver.
- IPsec network environments: IPsec-protected packets cannot be recognized as TCP by SRPIC at the device driver level.

However, SRPIC could be implemented as an OS feature and turned off in inapplicable environments, or dynamically selected.

In this paper, we have proposed a new strategy: Sorting Reordered Packets with Interrupt Coalescing (SRPIC) to eliminate or reduce the packet reordering in the receiver. Experiments have demonstrated the effectiveness of SRPIC against forward path reordering. The significant benefits of our proposed SRPIC include reducing processing in the TCP layer in both sender and receiver, higher achieved TCP throughput; maintenance of TCP self-clocking while avoiding injection of bursty traffic into the network, reduction or elimination of unnecessary transmissions, and coexistence with other packet reordering-tolerant algorithms.

Acknowledgements

We thank the editor and reviewers for their comments, which helped improve the paper. Also, we would like to thank Andrey Bobyshev and Mark Bowden of Fermilab for help in building up the experiment environments.

References

- [1] D.D. Clark, The design philosophy of the DARPA internet protocols, Computer Communication Review 18 (4) (1988) 106–114.
- [2] V. Paxson, End-to-end internet packet dynamics, IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking 7 (3) (1999) 277–292.
- [3] L. Gharai et al., Packet reordering, high speed networks and transport protocol performance, in: Proceeding of the 13th ICCCN, Chicago, IL, October 2004, pp. 73–78.
- [4] J.C.R. Bennett, C. Partridge, N. Shectman, Packet reordering is not pathological network behavior, IEEE Transactions on Networking 7 (6) (1999) 789–798.
- [5] G. Iannaccone, S. Jaiswal, C. Diot, Packet reordering inside the sprint backbone, Technical Report, TR01-ATL-062917, Sprint, June 2001.
- [6] Yi Wang, Guohan Lu, Xing Li, A study of internet packet reordering, in: Proceedings of the International Conference on Information

- Networking (ICOIN), Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Springer-Verlag. vol. 3090, 2004, pp. 350–359.
- [7] S. Jaiswal et al., Measurement and classification of out-of-sequence packets in Tier-1 IP backbone, IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking 15 (1) (2007).
- [8] X. Zhou, P.V. Mieghem, Reordering of IP Packets in Ineternet, in: Proceedings of the Passive and Active Measurement Workshop (PAM), France, 2004, pp. 237–246.
- [9] J. Bellardo et al., Measuring packet reordering, in: ACM SIGCOMM Internet Measurement Workshop, Marselle, France, November 2002, pp. 97–105.
- [10] M. Przybylski et al., Shall we worry about packet reordering? in: Proceedings of the TERENA Networking Conference, Poznan, Poland, June 2005, pp. 28–36.
- [11] K. Leung et al., An overview of packet reordering in transmission control protocol (TCP); problems solutions and challenges, IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems 18 (4) (2007) 522– 535.
- [12] A. Morton et al., Packet reordering metrics, RFC 4737, November 2006.
- [13] C. Jin et al., FAST TCP: from theory to experiments, IEEE Network 19 (1) (2005) 4–11.
- [14] I. Rhee et al., CUBIC: a new TCP-friendly high-speed TCP variant, PFLDnet, 2005.
- [15] L. Xu et al., Binary increase congestion control for fast long-distance networks, in: Proceedings of the IEEE INFOCOM, 2004.
- [16] S. Floyd, HighSpeed TCP for large congestion windows, RFC 3649, December 2003.
- [17] C. Arthur, A. Lehane, D. Harle, Keeping order: determining the effect of TCP packet reordering, in: Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Networking and Services (ICNS'07), 2007, p. 116.
- [18] A. Bare, A. Jayasumana, N. Piratla, On growth of parallelism within routers and its impact on packet reordering, in: Proceedings of the 2007 15th IEEE Workshop on Local and Metropolitan Area Networks, Princeton, NJ, 2007, pp. 145–150.
- [19] R. Ludwig, R. Katz, The Eifel algorithm: making TCP robust against spurious retransmissions, ACM Computer Communications Review 30 (1) (2000).
- [20] S. Floyd et al., An extension to the selective acknowledgement (SACK) option for TCP, RFC 2883 (2000).
- [21] E. Blanton et al., On making TCP more robust to packet reordering, ACM SIGCOMM Computer Communication Review 32 (1) (2002) 20– 30
- [22] K. Leung et al., Enhancing TCP performance to persistent packet reordering, Journal of Communication and Networks 7 (3) (2005) 385-393
- [23] S. Bhandarkar et al., TCP-DCR: making TCP robust to non-congestion events, Lecture Notes in Computer Science 3042 (2004) 712-724.
- [24] S. Bohacek et al., A new TCP for persistent packet reordering, IEEE/ ACM Transactions on Networking 14 (2) (2006) 369–382.
- [25] J. Feng et al., Packet reordering in high-speed networks and its impact on high-speed TCP variants, in: Proceedings of the PFLDnet 2007, Marina Del Rey, CA, 2007, pp. 19–24.
- [26] J.C. Mogul, K.K. Ramakrishnan, Eliminating receive livelock in an interrupt-driven kernel, ACM Transactions on Computer Systems 15 (3) (1997) 217–252.
- [27] M.K. McKusick et al., The Design and Implementation of the FreeBSD Operating System, Addison-Wesley Professional, 2004. ISBN 0201702452.
- [28] J. Mauro et al., Solaris Internals Core Kernel Architecture, first ed., Prentice-Hall PTR, 2000. ISBN 0130224960.
- [29] D.P. Bovet et al., Understanding the Linux Kernel, third ed., O'Reilly Press, 2005. ISBN 0-596-00565-2.
- [30] M.E. Russinovich et al., Microsoft Windows Internals, fourth ed., Microsoft Press, 2004. ISBN 0735619174.
- [31] W. Wu et al., The performance analysis of linux networking packet receiving, Computer Communications 30 (2007) 1044–1057.
- [32] Transmission Control Protocol, RFC 793, 1981.
- [33] V. Jacobson, 4BSD header prediction, ACM Computer Communication Review (April) (1990) 13–15.
- [34] M. Mathis et al., TCP Selective Acknowledgement Options, RFC 2018, October 1996.
- [35] B. Radunovic, C. Gkantsidis, D. Gunawardena, P. Key, Horizon: balancing TCP over multiple paths in wireless mesh network, in: Proceedings of the MobiCom'08, September 2008.
- [36] S. Govind et al., Packet Reordering in Network Processors, in: Proceedings of the International Parallel and Distributed Processing Symposium (IPDPS-07), CA, USA, 2007.

- [37] S. Kandula, D. Katabi, S. Sinha, A. Berger, Dynamic load balancing without packet reordering, ACM SIGCOMM Computer Communication Review 37 (2) (2007).
- [38] W. Wu et al., Interactivity vs fairness in networked Linux systems, Computer Networks 51 (2007) 4050–4069.
- [39] W. Wu et al., Potential performance bottleneck in Linux TCP, International Journal of Communication Systems 20 (11) (2007) 1263–1283.
- [40] http://dast.nlanr.net/Projects/Iperf/.
- [41] http://lwn.net/Articles/243949/.
- [42] http://www.linux-foundation.org/en/Net:Netem.
- [43] http://www.web100.org.
- [44] V. Paxson, S. Floyd, Wide area traffic: the failure of Poisson modeling, IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking 3 (3) (1995) 224–226.
- [45] /.
- [46] Intel 64 and IA-32, Architectures Software Developer's Manual, Volume 3B: System Programming Guide, Intel Corporation, 2008.



Wenji Wu holds a B.A. degree in Electrical Engineering (1994) from Zhejiang University (Hangzhou, PRC), and doctorate in computer engineering (2003) from the University of Arizona (Tucson, USA). He is currently a Network Researcher in Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory. His research interests include high performance networking, network protocol stack, operating systems, and network modeling and simulation.



Phil Demar leads the Wide Area Networking and Networking Research group in Fermilab's Computing Division. He holds a master's degree in Computer Science from DePaul University (Chicago). He is a network architect with more than 20 years experience in network management and operations.



Matt Crawford is the head of the Data Movement & Storage Department in Fermilab's Computing Division. He holds a bachelor's degree in Applied Mathematics and Physics from Caltech and a doctorate in Physics from the University of Chicago. His professional interests lie in the areas of scalable data movement and access.