

sPIN: High-performance streaming Processing in the Network[†]

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ABSTRACT

Optimizing communication performance is imperative for large-scale computing because communication overheads limit the strong scalability of parallel applications. Today's network cards contain rather powerful processors optimized for data movement. However, these devices are limited to fixed functions, such as remote direct memory access. We develop sPIN, a portable programming model to offload simple packet processing functions to the network card. To demonstrate the potential of the model, we design a cycle-accurate simulation environment by combining the network simulator Log-GOPSim and the CPU simulator gem5. We implement offloaded message matching, datatype processing, and collective communications and demonstrate transparent full-application speedups. Furthermore, we show how sPIN can be used to accelerate redundant in-memory filesystems and several other use cases. Our work investigates a portable packet-processing network acceleration model similar to compute acceleration with CUDA or OpenCL. We show how such network acceleration enables an eco-system that can significantly speed up applications and system services.

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[†]**Note:** This paper has been modified to fit the constraints of the venue. The reformatting and reduction of the appendix affects the layout, interpretability, and reproducibility of our work. The authors suggest that readers read the arXiv version of this paper instead: <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1709.05483.pdf>.

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1 MOTIVATION

The current trend to move towards highly-scalable computing systems with slow but energy-efficient processors increases the pressure on the interconnection network. The recent leap in terms of bandwidth and latency was achieved by removing the CPU from the packet processing (data) path. Instead, specialized data processors offer remote direct memory access (RDMA) functions and enable tens of gigabytes per second transmission rates at sub-microsecond latencies in modern network interface cards (NICs).

However, RDMA only transports data between (virtual) memories of processes on different network endpoints. Different RDMA interfaces, such as OFED [1], uGNI/DMAPP [2], Portals 4 [3], or FlexNIC [4] provide varying levels of support for steering the data at the receiver. Yet, with upcoming terabits-per-second networks [5], we foresee a new bottleneck when it comes to processing the delivered data: A modern CPU requires 10-15ns to access L3 cache (Haswell: 34 cycles, Skylake: 44 cycles [6, 7]). However, a 400 Gib/s NIC can deliver a 64-Byte message each 1.2ns.

The main problem is that packets are simply deposited into main memory, irrespective of the contents of the message itself. Many applications then analyze the received messages and rearrange them into the application structures in host memory (e.g., halo exchanges, parallel graph algorithms, database updates) even though this step can logically be seen as part of the data routing. This poses a barrier, very similar to pre-RDMA packet processing: CPU cores are inefficient message processors because their microarchitecture is optimized for computation. They require thread activation, scheduling, and incoming data potentially pollutes the caches for the main computation. Furthermore, due to the lack of a better interface, the highly-optimized data-movement cores on the NIC are likely to place data *blindly* into host memory.

To address these limitations and liberate NIC programming, we propose *streaming Processing in the Network* (sPIN), which aims to extend the success of RDMA and receiver-based matching to simple processing tasks that are dominated by data-movement. In particular, we design a unified interface where programmers can specify kernels, similar to CUDA [8] and OpenCL [9], that execute on the NIC. Differently from CUDA and OpenCL, kernels do not offload compute-heavy tasks but data-movement-heavy tasks, specifically, tasks that can be performed on incoming messages and

only require limited local state. Such tasks include NIC-based collectives, advanced data steering with MPI datatypes, data processing such as network raid, compression, and database filters. Similarly to OpenCL, sPIN’s interface is device- and vendor-independent and can be implemented on a wide variety of systems.

We enable sPIN on existing NIC microarchitectures with typically very small but fast memories without obstructing line-rate packet processing. For this, we design sPIN around networking concepts such as packetization, buffering, and packet steering. Packetization is the most important concept in sPIN because unlike other networking layers that operate on the basis of messages, sPIN exposes packetization to the programmer. Programmers define *header*, *payload*, and *completion handlers* (kernels) that are executed in a *streaming* way by handler processing units (HPUs) for the respective packets of each matching message. Handlers can access packets in fast local memory and they can communicate through shared memory. sPIN offers protection and isolation for user-level applications and can thus be implemented in any environment. Figure 1 shows sPIN’s architecture.

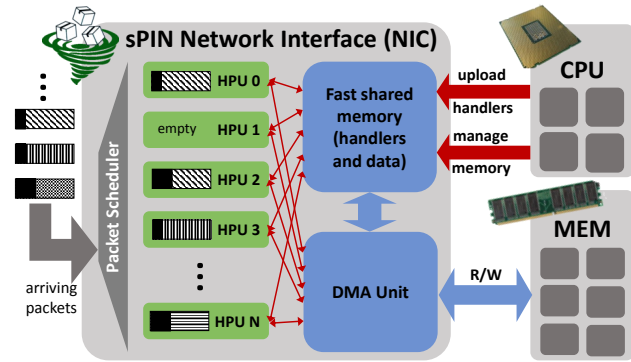


Figure 1: sPIN Architecture Overview

sPIN’s philosophy is to expose the highly-specialized packet processors in modern NICs to process short user-defined functions. By “short”, we mean not more than a few hundred instructions from a very simple instruction set. In this sense, handlers are essentially pluggable components of the NIC firmware. sPIN offers unprecedented opportunities to accelerate network protocols and simple packet processing functions and it can be implemented in discrete NICs, SoCs, or even in parts of CPU cores. Offering programmable network devices liberates the programmer from restricted firmware functionalities and custom accelerators and is the next step towards full software-defined networking infrastructures. The following C code shows how to define handler functions in a user-application:

```
__handler int header_handler(const ptl_header_t h, void
    *state) {
    /* header handler code */
}

__handler int payload_handler(const ptl_payload_t p, void
    *state) {
    /* packet content handler code */
}

__handler int completion_handler(int dropped_bytes, bool
    flow_control_triggered, void *state) {
    /* post-message handler code */
}

channel_id_t connect( peer, /* ... */, &header_handler,
    &payload_handler, &completion_handler );
```

The function decoration `__handler` indicates that the function must be compiled for the sPIN device. Handler code is passed at connection establishment: this allows a single process to install different handlers for different connections. Arguments are the packet data and `*state`, which references local memory that is shared among handlers.

As a principled approach to network offloading, sPIN has the potential to replace specific offload solutions such as ConnectX CORE-Direct collective offload [10], Cray Aries [2], IBM PERCS [11], or Portals 4 [12] triggered operations. Instead, the community can focus on developing domain or application-specific sPIN libraries to accelerate networking, very much like NVIDIA’s cuBLAS or ViennaCL [13]. A vendor-independent interface would enable a strong collaborative open-source environment similar to the Message Passing Interface (MPI) while vendors can still distinguish themselves by the design of NICs (e.g., specialized architectures for packet processing such as massive multithreading in Intel’s Network Flow Processor).

Specifically, in this paper, we

- present the design of an acceleration system for NIC offload;
- outline a microarchitecture for offload-enabled smart NICs;
- design a cycle-accurate validated simulation environment integrating network, offload-enabled NICs, and CPUs;
- outline and analyze use cases for parallel applications as well as for distributed data management systems;
- and demonstrate speedups for various real applications.

1.1 Background

We now provide a brief overview of related technologies. At first glance, sPIN may seem similar to active messages (AM) [14]—it certainly shares many potential use cases. Yet, it is very different because it specifies an architecture for fast and tightly integrated NIC packet processing. Both AM and sPIN are independent of process scheduling at the host OS and can be defined independently of the target hardware. The major difference is that AMs are invoked on full messages while sPIN is defined in a streaming manner on a per-packet basis. Early AM systems that constrained the message size may be considered as special cases of sPIN. Yet, sPIN enables to pipeline packet processing, similarly to wormhole routing while AM would correspond to store and forward routing. Furthermore, AMs use host memory for buffering messages while sPIN stores packets in fast buffer memory on the NIC close to the processing units for fastest access; accesses to host memory are possible but should be minimized. A last semantic difference is that in AM, a message can be considered atomic because a handler is invoked after the message is delivered while in sPIN handlers are invoked on parts of a message and only those parts (i.e., packets) can be processed atomically.

sPIN is in fact closer to packet processing systems than to AM. Fast packet processing hardware has been designed in the Intel IXP family of chips and continued in the Netronome NFP series (cf. [15]). Recent progress in software defined networking (SDN) enables users to program switches with simple parse-match-action rules that allow simple packet processing and routing in the network. P4 [16] is a language to express such rules concisely and it supports fast packet parsing in hardware. Another related proposal

is FlexNIC [4], which builds on the SDN/P4 ideas and extends routing to the DMA engine in the NIC. Yet, in the HPC context, this routing is comparable to what current HPC network interfaces such as Portals 4 already support in hardware (receiver-side steering). sPIN goes far beyond these to exploit processing of packets on specialized units in fast local memories.

2 PROCESSING IN THE NETWORK

sPIN’s central philosophy, which is independent of any particular implementation, is based on the fact that network devices split messages into packets for transmission (messages correspond to network transactions). Packets are easier to manage because they can be buffered and forwarded independently. We adopt this philosophy for sPIN to enable a direct implementation in a network device. In sPIN, the programmer defines handler functions that execute on a set of packets that logically form a message. Those functions are executed on one or multiple handler processing units (HPUs). A simple runtime system is responsible for controlling the handlers and scheduling them for execution on HPUs. Each handler owns shared memory that is persistent across the lifetime of a message, i.e., handlers can use that memory to communicate.

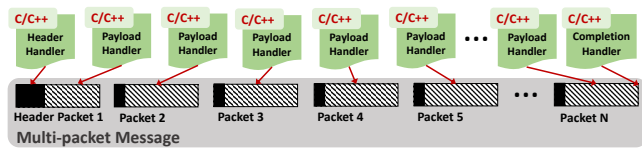


Figure 2: sPIN Message Handler Overview

Figure 2 shows how the handlers relate to parts of the message. Network layers enforce that all necessary information to identify a message and steer it into memory is included in the first packet that we call *header packet*. Many communication systems, such as Ethernet, replicate this header information in each packet (black boxes). To enable fast channel-based systems, sPIN does not rely on replicated header information but delegates to the NIC-based runtime system to identify the set of packets that belongs to the same message. sPIN defines three handler types to be invoked on different parts of a message: the header handler works on header information, the payload handler processes the message payload after the header handler completes, and the completion handler executes after all instances of a payload handler have completed. There is no requirement that packets arrive or are processed in order.

HPU memory is managed by the host operating system and the user-level application using a typical control-/data-plane separation. Performance-critical parts such as invoking handlers are performed without OS involvement while other parts, such as isolation, setting up protection domains, and memory management on the device can be performed through the host OS. The host compiles and offloads handler code to the HPU, similar to how GPU kernels work. Handlers only contain a few hundred instructions and their code can thus be placed into fast memory for quick execution. The system can reject handler code that is too large. The application on the CPU allocates and initializes HPU memory at handler-installation time. Handlers can communicate through shared memory but they cannot perform any memory management and their local memory only offers linear (physical) addressing.

Handlers are programmed by the user as standard C/C++ code to enable portable execution and convenient programming. They can only contain plain code, no system calls or complex libraries. Handlers are then compiled to the specific target network ISA. The program can contain static segments of pre-initialized data. Handlers are not limited in their execution time, yet, resources are accounted for on a per-application basis. This means that if handlers consume too much time, they may stall the NIC or drop packets. Thus, programmers should ensure that handlers can operate at line-rate on the target device. It is key that handlers can be started at very low cost for each packet; we assume that execution can start within a cycle after a packet arrived in the buffer (assuming a HPU is available). Furthermore, to guarantee high message rate, handlers need to be set up quickly from the host and parameters must be passed with low overhead. Handlers execute in a sandbox with respect to application memory, i.e., they may only access a restricted memory range in the application’s virtual address space.

Handlers can perform various actions besides executing normal C code. Ideally, these actions are implemented as hardware instructions. At the start of a handler, the packet is available in a fast buffer (ideally single-cycle access). Handlers have access to host memory via DMA. This enables the runtime system to deschedule handlers from massively-threaded HPUs while they are waiting for host memory. Handlers do not block and can voluntarily yield to another handler. Yet, it is a central part of the programming philosophy that DMA should be used scarcely, as it is expensive and its performance is non-deterministic. Handlers can generate two types of messages: (1) messages originating from HPU memory and (2) messages originating from host memory. Messages issued from HPU memory can only contain a single packet and are thus limited to the MTU. Messages issued from HPU memory may block the HPU thread until the message is delivered (i.e., the NIC may use HPU memory as outgoing buffer space). Messages issued from host memory shall enter the normal send queue as if they were initiated from the host itself. Messages from host memory shall be nonblocking.

3 A COMPLETE sPIN INTERFACE

sPIN can be added to any RDMA network. As an example to demonstrate all sPIN features, we use the Portals 4 network interface because it offers advanced receiver-side steering (matching), OS bypass, protection, and NIC resource management. It has been implemented in hardware and demonstrated to deliver line-rate interactions with the host CPU [17]. Furthermore, its specification is openly available; we briefly summarize the key aspects in the following.

3.1 Overview of Portals 4

Portals 4 specifies logical and physical addressing modes and offers matched or unmatched operation for logical network interfaces that are bound to physical network resources. Logical addressing can be used by runtime systems to offer a NIC accelerated virtualized process space. A matched interface allows the user to specify match bits to direct incoming messages to different logical lists identified by tags (potentially with a mask) in a single match list. Each logical queue head specifies a steering action for incoming packets. Without loss of generality, we focus on logically addressed

and matched mode as this combination provides the highest level of abstraction [3].

Portals 4 offers put, get, and atomic communication operations. Completion notification occurs through counting events or appending a full event to an event queue, which is also used for error notification. Memory descriptors (MDs) form an abstraction of memory to be sent; counters and event queues are attached to it. Matching entries (MEs) identify receive memory; matching is performed through a 64-bit masked id; MEs have counters and event queues associated with them. Portals 4 offers full memory access protection through MDs and MEs.

Portals 4 offers two mechanisms that go beyond simple message steering and that allow implementation of a limited Network Instruction Set Architecture (NISA) [12, 18]. First, it enables communications that have been previously set up to be triggered by counters reaching a certain threshold. Second, Portals 4 MEs can have locally managed offsets where incoming data is efficiently packed into buffers using a local index. Both mechanisms are limited because only incoming messages can trigger and steer operations, not the data in those messages. These actions also cannot process packets (local atomics can be used to emulate very limited processing capabilities [18]). sPIN integrates with and extends Portals 4 to offer more powerful message steering, protocol implementation, and packet processing functionalities.

3.2 A sPIN Interface for Portals 4

Based on the general semantics for sPIN systems, we now derive a candidate Portals 4 (P4) interface called P4sPIN. We only provide an overview of the functions in the main part of the paper and refer to the appendix for signatures and a detailed description. All packet handlers are associated with a specific matching entry (ME) to which incoming messages are matched. MEs are posted using `PtIMEAppend` (cf. Appendix B.1). We extend this call to enable registering handlers with additional arguments to identify the three handlers, the shared memory setup, the initial memory state to initialize the shared memory, and the handler’s memory region at the host (if needed).

The ME requires a handle that identifies an HPU shared memory space to run the handler in. HPU memory is allocated using the `PtHPUAllocMem` function (see Appendix B.2) at the host (before handler installation). This explicit management allows the user to re-use the same HPU memory for multiple MEs. HPU memory remains valid until it is deallocated. If multiple incoming messages match MEs that specify the same HPU memory then the handlers should perform concurrency control.

If an incoming packet arrives and matches an ME but no HPU execution contexts are available, the NIC may trigger flow control for the respective portal table entry. This is symmetric to the situation where the host runs out of compute resources and fails to post new MEs to the NIC. In a flow control situation, packets arriving at a specific portal table entry are dropped until the entry is re-enabled. Note that this can happen during the processing of a message. In this case, the completion handler is invoked and notified through the flag `flow_control_triggered`.

3.2.1 Header Handler. The header handler is called exactly once per message and no other handler for this message is started before

the header handler completes. It has access to only the header fields that can include user-defined headers (the first bytes of the payload). User-defined headers are declared statically in a struct to enable fast parsing in hardware. Yet, the struct offers flexibility as it guarantees no specific memory layout. For example, pre-defined headers could be in special registers while user-defined headers can reside in HPU memory. The struct is static such that it can only be used on the right-hand side of expressions. This makes it possible to implement using registers.

3.2.2 Payload Handler. The payload handler is called after the header handler completes for packets carrying a payload. The passed payload does not include the part of the user-header that was specified by `user_hdr`.

Multiple instances of the payload handler can be executed in parallel and the programmer must account for concurrent execution. Payload handlers share all HPU memory coherently. The illusion of private memory can be created by the programmer, yet no protection exists. To create private memory, the system offers a compile-time constant `PTL_NUM_HPUS` that contains the number of handle execution units. Note that each unit may be used to process multiple payload handlers serially but only `PTL_NUM_HPUS` handlers can be active simultaneously at any given time. Furthermore, a run-time constant `PTL_MY_HPU` allows a running handler to determine on which HPU it is running. Handlers may not migrate between HPUs while they are running. These two constants allow the user to allocate arrays of size `PTL_NUM_HPUS` and index into them using `PTL_MY_HPU` to emulate HPU-private data.

3.2.3 Completion Handler. The completion handler is called once per message after all header handlers and payload handlers have completed but before the completion event is delivered to the host. The handler can be used for final data collection or cleanup tasks after the message has been processed. The value in `dropped_bytes` indicates how many bytes of payload data have been dropped by payload handlers. Bytes can either be dropped by payload handlers returning a variant of `DROP` or if a flow-control situation occurs. The flag `flow_control_triggered` indicates that flow control was triggered during the processing of this message and thus some packets may have been dropped without being processed by payload handlers. The pointer state points at the initial data in HPU memory. This data may have been initialized by the host or header handler.

All handlers can perform various actions as described before. The detailed interfaces for all calls are specified in Appendix B.6.

4 PROTOTYPING sPIN

We now describe two prototype implementations of sPIN as an NISA. The first architecture represents a *discrete* network card (“dis”) that is attached to the CPU via a chip-to-chip interconnect such as PCI express (PCIe). The second architecture represents an *integrated* network card (“int”) that is on the same chip as the CPU cores and attached via a fast signaling protocol such as the Advanced eXtensible Interface (AXI).

4.1 HPU Design

The HPU architecture is an integral part of the sPIN design. We briefly describe some design, optimization, and customization ideas without proposing any particular architecture. We assume that most of today’s NIC architectures can be re-used. sPIN can be conceptualized as being equivalent to installing custom mini-firmware for each application on the NIC.

The header processing unit (HPU) should have fastest (ideally single-cycle) access to local memory and packet buffers. To achieve this, it could be connected to packet buffers directly. HPU memory is not cached. Most HPU instructions should be executed in a single cycle and the documentation should be explicit about instruction costs. Handlers should be invoked immediately after a packet arrives or the previous handler completes. Handlers require no initialization, loading, or other boot activities because all their context is pre-loaded and memory is pre-initialized. HPUs can be implemented using massive multithreading to utilize the execution units most efficiently. For example, if handler threads wait for DMA accesses, they could be descheduled to make room for different threads. Only the context would need to be stored, similarly to GPU architectures.

Handler execution will delay each message that is processed. This requires enough HPU cores to process at full bandwidth and additional memory. The required memory overhead can be computed using Little’s law. If we assume a handler executes between 10 and 500 instructions at 2.5GHz and IPC=1, we expect a maximum delay of 200ns per packet. With 1Tb/s, we can calculate the overhead as $1\text{ Tb/s} \cdot 200\text{ns} = 25\text{ kB}$. We expect that this can easily be made available and more space can be added to hide more latency, probably up to several microseconds.

sPIN can be implemented in multiple different environments. On a discrete NIC, one can take advantage of the existing packet processing infrastructure and buffer space. sPIN can also be added to an SoC to steer messages to the correct cores for processing. At the other extreme, sPIN can be implemented in a core with an integrated NIC as a small layer between the transceiver and the core. It could even use the pipeline of a super-scalar core with tagged instructions.

4.2 Simulation Setup

To evaluate sPIN at scale, we combine two open-source simulators that have been vetted extensively by the research community: LogGOPSim [19] to simulate the network of parallel distributed memory applications and gem5 [20] to simulate various CPU and HPU configurations. LogGOPSim supports the simulation of MPI applications, injection of system noise [21, 22], and has been calibrated and validated on InfiniBand clusters [19]. The cycle-accurate gem5 simulator supports a large number of different CPU configurations and is thus an ideal choice for our designs.

In our setup, LogGOPSim is driving the simulation by running a trace-based discrete-event loop. Traced events are all Portals 4 and MPI functions as well as the invocation of handlers. LogGOPSim invokes gem5 for each handler execution and measures the execution time. The two simulators communicate via a special memory-mapped region in gem5 through which an executing handler can issue *simcalls* from gem5 to LogGOPSim. Simcalls enable

simulated applications in gem5 to invoke functionality in LogGOPSim, for example, to insert new messages into the discrete-event queue. Overall, this combination of trace-based network simulation and cycle-accurate execution-based CPU simulation enables high-accuracy and efficient modeling of the complete sPIN system.

We parametrize for a future InfiniBand system using the LogP model extended with a packet-level simulation to model the L (Latency) parameter more accurately. The injection overhead is not parallelizable, thus, we use $o = 65\text{ns}$ (injection overhead), which we measured on a modern InfiniBand system. Similarly, we expect the message rate to stay approximately similar, around 150 Million messages per second for Mellanox ConnectX-4 [23] and thus set $g = 6.7\text{ns}$ (inter-message gap). As bandwidth, we expect networks to deliver 400 Gib/s around the deployment time of sPIN and thus set $G = 2.5\text{ps}$ (inter-Byte gap). The latency is determined by a model for a packet-switched network where we assume a switch traversal time of 50ns (as measured on modern switches) and a wire length of 10m (delay of 33.4ns). We construct a fat tree network from 36-port switches. The model is simulated using the LogGOPSim MPI simulator that has been shown to be within 10% accuracy when compared with real runs [21].

We model each NIC to have four 2.5GHz ARM Cortex A15 out-of-order HPU cores using the ARMv8-A 32-bit ISA. We configure the cores without cache and with gem5’s SimpleMemory module configured as scratchpad memory that can be accessed in k cycles (we use $k = 1$ in the paper). Endo et al. [24] demonstrated that the average absolute error of a comparable ARM Cortex A15 was only 7% when compared to real hardware. Messages are matched in hardware and only header packets search the full matching queue. A matched header packet will install a channel into a fast content-addressable memory (CAM) for the remaining packets. We assume that matching a header packet takes 30 ns (cf. [25]) and each following packet takes 2ns for the CAM lookup. We assume that matching and the network gap (g) can proceed in parallel.

We model the host CPU as eight 2.5Ghz Intel Haswell cores with 8 MiB cache and a DRAM latency and bandwidth of 51 ns and 150 GiB/s, respectively. A similar configuration has been analyzed by Akram et al. [26].

4.3 DMA and Memory Contention

HPU accesses to host memory are performed via DMA. We extended the simulator by adding support to model contention for host memory. This contention either happens through the north-bridge via PCIe (discrete NIC) or through the memory controller of the CPU (integrated NIC). We model DMA at each host as a simple LogGP system [27, 28]. We set $o = 0$ and $g = 0$ because these times are already captured by the cycle-accurate gem5 simulation when initiating the request. We set L and G depending on the discrete or integrated HPU configuration as follows.

The discrete NIC is connected through an off-chip interconnect such as PCI express. We use 32-lane PCI express version 4 as a candidate system with a latency of $L = 250\text{ns}$, and $G = 15.6\text{ps}$ (64 GiB/s). The integrated NIC is connected directly to the chip’s memory controller, which allows a much lower latency of $L = 50\text{ns}$ and the same bandwidth as the main CPU $G = 6.7\text{ps}$ (150 GiB/s).

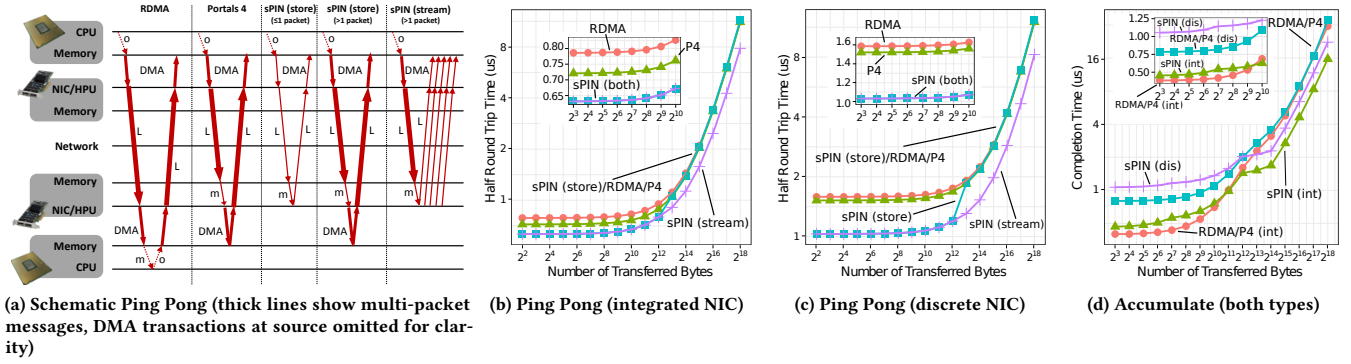


Figure 3: Ping pong and remote accumulate comparing RDMA, Portals 4, and various sPIN implementations

The DMA time is added to the message transmission when the NIC delivers data into host memory (e.g., for every message in RDMA and Portals 4), for HPU calls `PutFromHost`, and when the HPU invokes DMA routines to main memory.

4.4 Microbenchmarks

We first demonstrate the parameters of sPIN with a set of microbenchmarks before we show a series of use cases for real-world applications.

4.4.1 Ping-Pong Latency. We compare our two sPIN systems with standard RDMA as well as Portals 4 with a simple ping-pong benchmark. This illustrates the basic capabilities of processing messages on the NIC. For RDMA and Portals 4, all messages need to be stored to and loaded from main memory. sPIN can avoid this memory traffic and reply directly from the NIC buffer, leading to a lower latency and less memory traffic at the host. Figure 3a illustrates the following explanations of time spent on the CPU, the host memory, the NIC, and its memory when executing ping-pong. All variants start a transmission from the main CPU and the message travels for time L through the network.

For RDMA, the pong message is sent by the main CPU. Thus, the destination CPU polls for a completion entry of the incoming ping message, performs message matching, and immediately posts the pong message. The completion will only appear after the whole message has been deposited into host memory. Processing occurs on the CPU, therefore, system noise may delay the operation.

For Portals 4, the pong message is pre-set up by the destination CPU and the reply is automatically triggered after the incoming message has been deposited into host memory. Thus, system noise on the main CPU will not influence the pong message. Even though the message itself is automatically triggered, the data is fetched via DMA from the CPU’s main memory as in the RDMA case.

In sPIN ping-pong, the ping message may invoke header, payload, and/or completion handlers. sPIN gives us multiple options for generating the pong message: (1) (store) the ping message consists of a single packet and a pong can be issued with a put from device, (2) (store) the ping message is larger than a packet and the pong message is issued with put from host using the completion handler after the packet is delivered to host memory, and (3) (stream) a payload handler could generate a pong put from device for each incoming packet. Here the NIC would act as a packet processor

and split a multi-packet message into many single-packet messages. The first two correspond to store and forward processing for different message sizes while the last corresponds to fully streaming operation.

The performance of ping-pong for all configurations is shown for integrated sPIN implementations in Figure 3b and for discrete implementations in Figure 3c. The latency difference is more pronounced in the discrete setting due to the higher DMA latency. Large messages benefit in both settings from the streaming approach where data is never committed to the host memory. The full handler code is shown in Appendix C.3.1.

4.4.2 sPIN Accumulate. In the second microbenchmark we evaluate sPIN’s interaction with local memory at the destination. For this, we choose a simple accumulate benchmark where we send an array of double complex numbers to be multiplied to an array of numbers of the same type at the destination. The multiplication is either performed on the CPU or by the NIC/HPU. This example represents an operation that is not typically supported as a NIC atomic in RDMA or Portals 4 NICs. Yet, it can easily be implemented using sPIN. If the operation was supported by the NIC directly, then the performance would be similar to sPIN.

In an RDMA implementation, the data would be delivered into a temporary buffer that is read by the CPU and then accumulated into the destination buffer. Here, the NIC writes the array to host memory, notifies the CPU, which then reads two arrays from host memory and writes the result back. So if the data is of size N , we have two N -sized read and two N -sized write transactions.

In sPIN, the packets will arrive and be scheduled to different HPUs. Each HPU will fetch the data from host memory, apply the operation, and write it back. For an array of size N , we only read N bytes and write N bytes. Thus, sPIN halves the memory load compared to RDMA and P4. However, because the data has to be moved twice through the bus from the host memory, the bus latency may slow-down processing of small messages. Many NICs employ caching of atomic operations to hide the DMA latency [2] by relaxing the memory coherence—sPIN can use similar techniques but we decided to show a coherent system with the latency overhead.

Figure 3d shows the accumulate results. As expected, the latency for small accumulates is higher for sPIN than for RDMA because the data has to be first fetched via DMA to the HPU. This is especially pronounced for the discrete NIC configuration where we see the

250ns DMA latency. However, due to sPIN’s streaming parallelism and the resulting pipelining of DMA requests, processing large accumulates gets significantly faster for larger messages.

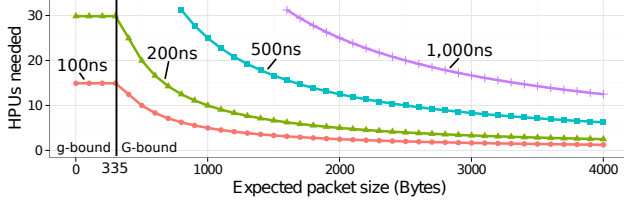


Figure 4: HPUs needed depending on \bar{T} and s .

How many HPUs are needed? We use this example to discuss one of the most important design choices of a sPIN NIC: the number of HPU cores. Each packet is processed by an HPU and multiple packets belonging to the same or different messages may be processed in parallel. Now we can discuss the number of needed HPUs in order to guarantee line-rate execution. This can be modeled by Little’s law. If we assume an average execution time per packet of \bar{T} and an expected arrival rate of $\bar{\Lambda}$, then we need $\bar{T} \cdot \bar{\Lambda}$ HPUs in the system. With a fixed bandwidth ($1/G$), the arrival rate only depends on the packet size s and the gap g such that $\bar{\Lambda} = \min\{1/g, 1/(G \cdot s)\}$. For our parameters, this means $12.5\text{Mmps} \leq \bar{\Lambda} \leq 150\text{Mmps}$ (Mmps = million messages per second). Figure 4 shows how many HPUs are needed to guarantee line rate for different packet sizes and processing times. With our design of 8 HPUs, we can support any packet size if the handler takes less than $\hat{T}_s = 53\text{ns}$. From $g/G = 335\text{B}$, the link bandwidth becomes the bottleneck and we can support full line rate as long as the handler executes in less than $\hat{T}_l(s) = 8Gs$. For full 4KiB packets, $\hat{T}_l(4,096) = 650\text{ns}$.

4.4.3 sPIN Offloaded Broadcast. For the last microbenchmark, we demonstrate the design of distributed algorithms in sPIN using a broadcast operation. We implement a binomial tree algorithm, which would require logarithmic space on a Portals 4 NIC and would thus be limited in scalability. In sPIN, the algorithm is not limited in scalability while it will occupy one HPU for its execution.

We implemented the broadcast operation in RDMA on the CPU, in Portals 4 as predefined triggered operations, and with sPIN using store-and-forward as well as streaming HPU kernels. As for ping-pong, the store-and-forward mode sends messages that are smaller than a packet directly from the device and from host memory otherwise. Thus, the performance is always within 5% of the streaming mode for single-packet messages and to Portals 4 for multi-packet messages. Thus, we omit the store-and-forward mode from the plots.

Figure 5a shows the small message (8 B) and large-message (64 KiB) case for varying numbers of processes and the different implementations. We observe the benefit of direct forwarding for small messages as well as streaming forwarding for large messages. We only show data for the discrete NIC configuration to maintain readability. The integrated NIC has slightly lower differences but sPIN is still 7% and 5% faster than RDMA and Portals 4 at 1,024 processes, respectively.

All benefits known from collective offloading implementations [10, 12, 29] such as asynchronous progression and noise-resilience remain true for sPIN. As opposed to existing offloading frameworks that restrict the collective algorithms (e.g., to pre-defined trees), sPIN supports arbitrary algorithms (including pipeline and double-tree [30]) due to the flexible programmability and high forwarding performance of the HPUs. In fact, the very low overheads for HPU packet processing suggest new streaming algorithms for collective operations. We leave a more detailed investigation for future work.

5 USE CASES FOR sPIN

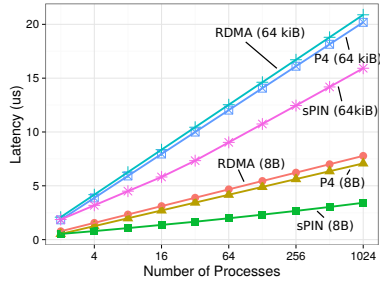
We now discuss several more complex use cases for sPIN. The idea is not to present full applications for which our cycle-accurate simulation environment would be too slow, but to present detailed simulation results of the critical pieces of real applications.

5.1 Asynchronous Message Matching

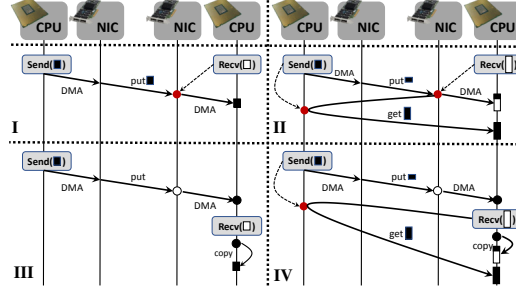
High-speed interconnection network attempts to offload as much work as possible to the NIC. This is simple for remote memory access (RMA) programming models where the source determines the destination address and the NIC simply deposits the data into the correct virtual address (as specified in the packet). However, this requires some form of distributed agreement on the destination buffer offset. Message passing simplifies the program logic and allows the target process to determine the local buffer location by calling `recv`. This simplification at the programming level complicates the offloading of the matching because the correct destination address may only be known after the packets of the message arrive. Protocols to implement message passing over RDMA networks are typically implemented by the CPU [31]. However, progressing these protocols requires synchronous interaction with the CPU. Thus, communication/computation overlap for rendezvous as well as nonblocking collective operations are often hindered [32]. These issues led to the development of specialized protocol offload engines that sPIN generalizes to a universal network instruction set architecture (NISA).

Figure 5b illustrates the matching process for small messages (left) and large messages (right) as well as the cases where the receive is posted before the message arrived (top) or after the message arrived (bottom). The matching mechanism of Portals 4 and sPIN allows for offloading progression and matching of small message transmissions. If the receive is posted before the first packet arrives it installs a matching entry (filled circle) and the NIC will deposit the data into the correct memory at the target process upon receiving the message. Otherwise, as shown in case III, the packets will match a default action (hollow circle) that stores the message into a predetermined location. When the matching receive is then called later, the CPU finds the message and copies the data into the receive buffer and completes immediately. This allows a data copy to be saved in case I, while RDMA will always perform a copy (similar to case III).

If the data is too large to be buffered, the process is more complex because it requires synchronization between the sender and the receiver. Ideally, this is fully offloaded to the receiver’s NIC (without the need to synchronize on the receive-side CPU). Barrett



(a) Broadcast on a binomial tree (discrete NIC)



(b) Matching protocols (left: small messages, right: large messages; top: recv called before arrival, bottom: after arrival)

program	p	msgs	ovhd	spdup
MILC	64	5.7M	5.5%	3.6%
POP	64	772M	3.1%	0.7%
coMD	72	5.3M	6.1%	3.7%
coMD	360	28.1M	6.5%	3.8%
Cloverleaf	72	2.7M	5.2%	2.8%
Cloverleaf	360	15.3M	5.6%	2.4%

(c) Application overview

Figure 5: Broadcast and message matching protocols implemented using sPIN

et al. [33] propose a protocol for Portals 4 where the receiver monitors the received bytes, and if a message arrives that writes more than the eager threshold. This message triggers a get to the source that is matched to the correct pre-set-up memory. Unfortunately, this protocol is not practical due to the following limitations: (1) it requires triggered gets to be set up for each of the $P - 1$ potential sources, requiring $\Omega(P)$ memory per process; (2) it requires additional match-bits to keep a message counter that is used to identify the correct matching entry at the source; and (3) it does not support wildcard receives (e.g., `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`).

In sPIN, we implement a practical protocol that avoids all three limitations as illustrated in the right half of Figure 5b. If the receive was called before the message arrived (case II), it sets up a header handler and a payload handler for the first message (filled circle at receiver). The header handler checks whether the message is large or small (determined by its size) and falls back to the normal Portals 4 handling for small messages. If the message is large, the handler interprets the first and second user-header as the total message size and the tag at the source. Then, the header handler uses these two fields to issue a get operation to the source. This get matches a descriptor that has been set up during the send (filled circle at source). The payload handler then deposits the payload of the message at the beginning of the host's memory descriptor. If the message arrived before receive was called (case III) then the handler logic is executed by the main CPU.

The main benefits of sPIN compared to RDMA are one less copy in the small-message case and completely asynchronous progress in the large-message case. We simulate the influence of fully-offloaded execution using LogGOPSim. The overhead of the local copy can be significant because the network deposits data at a rate of 50 GiB/s, while the local memory only delivers 150 GiB/s. This can lead to a copy overhead of up to 30%. We only considered point-to-point operations for implementation because collective communication may use specialized protocols. We simulated traces for several real-world and proxy applications. Due to simulation overheads, we only execute relatively short runs between 20 and 600 seconds. Yet, we measure full application execution time including initialization and output (from `MPI_Init` to `MPI_Finalize`). Thus, we expect that the speedups for longer runs are higher. We discuss the results below and summarize them in Table 5c.

MILC. The MIMD Lattice Computation (`su3_rmd`) is used to study Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD), the theory of the strong interaction [34] as a finite regular hypercubic grid of points in four dimensions with mostly neighbor interactions. We traced MILC on 64 processes where it spent 5.5% of execution time in point-to-point communications. In the simulation, MILC exchanged 5,743,212 messages and generated a total of 48M events. Fully offloaded matching protocols improved the overall execution time by 3.6%.

POP. The Parallel Ocean Program [35] (POP) models general ocean circulation and is used in several climate modeling applications. The logically (mostly) rectangular problem domain is decomposed into two-dimensional blocks with nearest-neighbor communications and global exchanges. We traced POP on 64 processes where it spent 3.1% of execution time in point-to-point communications. In the simulation, POP exchanged 772,063,149 messages and generated a total of 1.5B events. Fully offloaded matching protocols improved the overall execution time by 0.7%.

coMD. The codesign app for molecular dynamics is part of the Mantevo proxy application suite [36]. It features the Lennard-Jones potential and the Embedded Atom Method potential. We traced coMD on 72 processes where it spent 6.1% of execution time in point-to-point communications. In the simulation, coMD exchanged 5,337,575 messages and generated a total of 22M events. Fully offloaded matching protocols improved the execution time by 3.7%.

Cloverleaf. Cloverleaf is also part of the Mantevo proxy applications [36] and implements a two-dimensional Eulerian formulation to investigate materials under stress. We traced Cloverleaf on 72 processes where it spent 5.2% of execution time in point-to-point communications. In the simulation, Cloverleaf exchanged 2,677,705 messages and generated a total of 12M events. Fully offloaded matching protocols improved the overall execution time by 2.8%.

We remark that offloading message matching and asynchronous transmissions is not limited to MPI. For example, Kim et al. [37] propose an asynchronous task offloading model that could also be implemented with sPIN.

5.2 MPI Datatypes

Communicated data is often not consecutive in host memory. For example, in a simple three-dimensional stencil code, only two of

the six communicated halos are consecutive in host memory. Most applications use process-local copying of the data to marshal it into a consecutive buffer for sending and from a consecutive buffer for receiving. As Schneider et al. [38] point out, this is often not considered as part of the communication overhead even though it is in practicality, a part of the communication. Furthermore, they showed that the data marshaling time can be up to 80% of the communication time for real-world applications because it is performed at both the send and receive side.

Data marshaling can be implemented in sPIN without the extra memory copy, potentially reducing the communication overhead by 80%. A datatype processing library could implement this transparently to the MPI user and upload a handler for each message. The HPU would compute the correct offsets on the NIC and DMA the data into the final location. Here, sPIN not only improves the performance of the communication but also relieves the memory subsystem of the host.

Without loss of generality, we focus on the most common strided access that can be represented with MPI vector datatypes. Most of today’s networking interfaces (e.g., Portals 4 or OFED) support iovecs to specify nonconsecutive accesses. However, they require $O(n)$ storage to specify n blocks to be copied, even for strided access. With vector datatypes, strided access can be expressed as an $O(1)$ tuple of $\langle \text{start}, \text{stride}, \text{blocksize}, \text{count} \rangle$, where count blocks of size blocksize are copied beginning from address start.

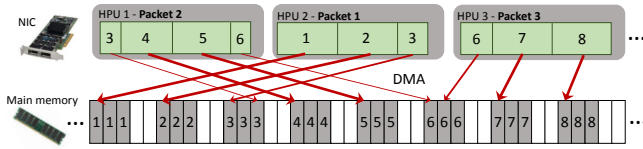


Figure 6: Processing vector datatypes in payload handlers

Figure 6 illustrates how the payload handlers copy the data into the correct positions for a strided layout. The figure shows three packets of a stream that are deposited as a strided type into main memory. The user only specifies the tuple $\langle \text{start}, \text{stride}=2.5 \text{ KiB}, \text{blocksize}=1.5 \text{ KiB}, \text{count}=8 \rangle$ and the MTU is 4 KiB (the illustration omits headers for clarity). The packets can be processed by the payload handlers in any order or in parallel because each packet carries its offset in the message and the payload handlers computes the correct offset in the block. Arrows represent DMA writes and their width indicates the size of the transaction. The full code is shown in Appendix C.3.2.

To demonstrate the performance of sPIN in practice, we simulate an execution of datatype processing (unpack) at the destination. For this, we choose a fixed message size of 4 MiB and vary the blocksize. We keep the strides fixed at twice the blocksize. Figure 7a shows the results. The DMA overhead for small transfers dominates up to block size 256, then sPIN is able to deposit the data nearly at line-rate (50 GiB/s) while RDMA remains at a bandwidth around 8.7 GiB/s due to the additional strided copies.

5.3 Distributed RAID Storage

After demonstrating sPIN’s benefits for parallel applications, we now show that it can also benefit system software on large-scale compute systems. For example, filesystems often use replication at

the object storage layer involving multiple nodes to improve reliability of the data [39]. We assume that the inode-to-block lookup has been performed by the client that addresses the correct blocks at the storage server. Blocks are accessed through the network and if a block is updated, the parity block on another server needs to be updated as well. The computation is simple: $p' = p \oplus n' \oplus n$ where p and p' are the old and new parity blocks and n and n' are the old and new data blocks, respectively.

Filesystem nodes are often accessed through RDMA (e.g., object data servers in Lustre). Since replication is totally transparent to the client, RDMA cannot be used directly because it would reply before the parity node is updated. Thus, such systems implement a more complex protocol using the target’s CPU as shown in the left part of Figure 7b. With sPIN, the server NIC can issue requests to update the parity without involving the servers CPU. Furthermore, the parity node’s NIC can apply the update in host memory. This can easily be used to implement a traditional disk-backed storage server or a distributed memory system similar to ramcloud [40]. In both cases, sPIN offloads most of the storage protocol to the NIC.

We show a simple latency/bandwidth benchmark comparing in-memory storage using four data nodes and one parity node in a RAID-5 configuration. For this test, we update contiguous memory of growing size strided across the four data nodes and measure the time until all ACKs are received (after updating the parity node). Figure 7c shows the performance comparing RDMA and sPIN. The results demonstrate the comparable performance for small messages and the significantly higher bandwidth of sPIN for large block transfers, the common case for parallel filesystems. To demonstrate sPIN’s influence on real-world workloads, we simulate five traces obtained from the Storage Performance Council [41]. The first two traces represent OLTP applications running at a large financial institution. The remaining three are I/O traces from a popular search engine. sPIN improves the processing time of all traces between 2.8% and 43.7%. The integrated sPIN NIC with financial traces showed the largest speedup. The full handler code is shown in Appendix C.3.3.

5.4 Other Use Cases

We have demonstrated all key features of sPIN in the previous sections. However, many applications, tools, and system services can benefit from sPIN. Here, we outline other use cases for which we have to omit a detailed analysis due to space restrictions.

Distributed Key-Value Stores. Distributed key-value stores provide a storage infrastructure where data is identified by keys that simplify the application’s storage interface [42]. They can be compared to large distributed two-level hash-tables. The first level determines the target node and the second level determines a location at that node. Let (k, v) represent a key-value pair with $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and $v \in \mathcal{V}$. We assume that there exist two hash functions $H_1(x) : \mathcal{K} \mapsto \{0..P-1\}$ and $H_2(x) : \mathcal{K} \mapsto \{0..N-1\}$ where P and N are the number of nodes and hashtable-size per node, respectively. We assume H_1 and H_2 are reasonably balanced with respect to the expected key distribution but not generally free of conflicts. Various high-performance RDMA implementations with varying complexity exist, ranging from replicated state machines [43] and HPC storage layers [44] to distributed databases [45, 46].

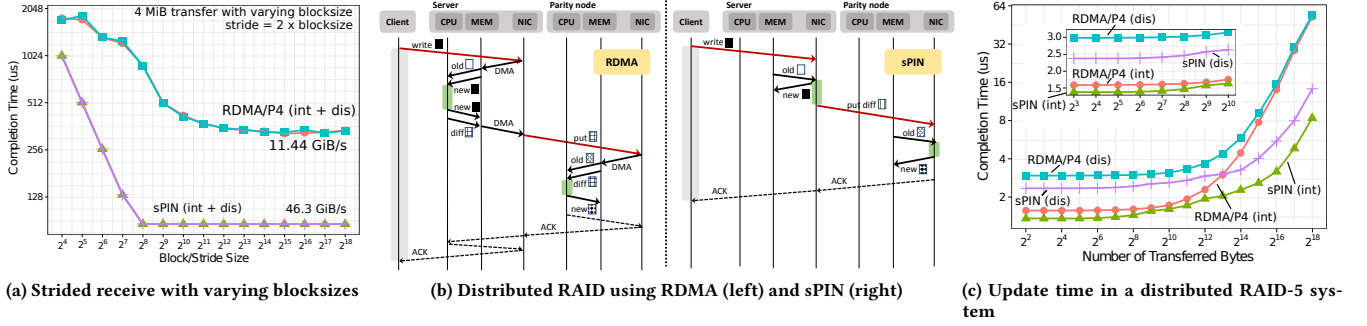


Figure 7: Strided datatype and distributed RAID performance comparing RDMA/Portals 4 and sPIN

We now describe how sPIN could be used to offload the insert function: A client that wants to insert the KV pair (k, v) first computes $H_1(k)$ to determine the target node p . Then, it computes $H_2(k)$ and crafts a message $(H_2(k), len(k), k, v)$ (where $len(k)$ is the size of the key in Bytes) to be sent to node p . We use a header handler to allocate memory to deposit v and link it to the correct position $H_2(k)$ in the hash table. Depending on the hash table structure (e.g., closed or open), the handler may need to walk through a list in host memory. To not back up the network, the header handler would abort after a fixed number of steps and deposit the work item to the main CPU for later processing. Other functions such as get or delete can be implemented in a similar way.

Conditional Read. Many distributed database problems scan remote tables using simple attributes. For example the statement `SELECT name FROM employees WHERE id = 100` may cause a full scan of the (distributed) table `employees`. Reading all data of this table via RDMA would be a waste of network bandwidth. Since our current handler definition does not allow interception and filtering of the data for a get operation, we implement our own request-reply protocol. The request message contains the filter criterion and a memory range and the reply message contains only the data that matches. The more complex query offload model described by Kumar et al. [47] can also be implemented in sPIN.

Distributed Transactions. Distributed transactions require book-keeping of the addresses that have been accessed during the transaction. Complex protocols using memory protection mechanisms are employed for multi-core CPUs [48]. We can use sPIN to log remote accesses to local memory. For this, we introspect the header handlers of all incoming RDMA packets and record the accesses in main memory. The introspection can be performed at line rate and transaction management is then performed at commit time on the host by evaluating the logs.

Simple Graph Kernels. Many graph algorithms have very simple functions to be invoked for each vertex. For example, a BFS only checks if the vertex was not visited before and assigns it a number at the first visit. Shortest path search (SSSP) algorithms update a vertex' distance with the minimum of its current distance and the preceding vertex' distance plus the weight of the connecting edge.

In distributed settings, node-boundaries can be crossed by the traversal. Then, messages are sent from the originating vertex to the destination vertex on the remote node. A message contains

the new distance (i.e., the distance of the source vertex plus the edge weight). The remote handler then (atomically) checks if the destination vertex needs to be updated and conditionally performs the update.

This is typically implemented by receiving messages in batches into buffers and processing them on the main CPU. Yet, this requires to store and load the message data from and to memory just to discard it after the update. With sPIN we can define an offloaded handler to process the updates immediately and save memory bandwidth.

Fault-tolerant Broadcast. There are many different ways to implement a fault-tolerant broadcast. Some rely on failure detectors and a two-phase broadcast-and-check protocol, where the root restarts the broadcast with a different tree if nodes have failed [49]. Others redundantly send messages in a virtual topology such as a binomial graph [50]. The former rely on failure detectors, which cannot easily be implemented in the current RDMA or Portals 4 networks. The latter guarantee reliable delivery for less than $\log_2 P$ failures and often outperform the broadcast-and-check protocols in practice.

Usually, these protocols are implemented with the help of the main CPU to forward messages. This means that all $\log_2 P$ redundant messages must be delivered to host memory. We can use sPIN to accelerate such protocols by only delivering the first message to the user. This would enable a transparent reliable broadcast service offered by the network.

6 RELATED WORK

We already discussed the relation of sPIN and active messages and switch-based packet processing such as P4 in Section 1.1. Programmable NICs have existed in special-purpose environments. For example, Quadrics QSNNet [51] offered a programming interface that was used to offload collectives [52] and an early Portals implementation [53] used a programmable NIC. However, QSNNet had to be programmed at a very low level and was rather limited, which hindered wider adoption. Myrinet provided open firmware that allowed researchers to implement their own modules on the specialized NIC cores in C [54]. As opposed to these constrained solutions, sPIN defines a simple offload interface for network operations, similar to the ones that have widely been adopted for compute offloading.

High-speed packet processing frameworks used for router implementations, software defined networking [54] and P4 [16] provide

similar functions. They also relate well to sPIN in that the key idea is to apply simple functions to packets. However, these frameworks are not designed to interact with host memory and the execution units are stateless and are thus much less powerful than sPIN.

7 DISCUSSION

Will sPIN NICs be built? With sPIN, we define an offloading interface for NICs (which we call NISA) and we outline the requirements for a NIC microarchitecture. Using our results from simulating ARM CPUs, a vendor could immediately build such a NIC. In fact, we are aware of several vendors that will release smart NICS that can be programmed to support sPIN with a similar microarchitecture this year. sPIN enables the development of a vendor-independent ecosystem just like MPI where third parties can develop libraries for domain-specific handlers. Network acceleration could then be, very much like NVIDIA’s cuBLAS or NCCL libraries, offered for domains outside of HPC, such as machine learning and data analytics, to impact bigger markets.

Can sPIN work with other libraries than Portals 4. Yes, for example, it would be straight-forward to define sPIN’s handlers for OFED or Cray’s uGNI. Here, the three handlers would not be attached to a matching entry but a queue pair and they would be invoked for every arriving message. One can also define sPIN for connection-less protocols such as SHMEM or Cray’s DMAPP. Here, one would define handlers to be executed for messages arriving at certain contexts or address ranges (similar to an ME). We chose to demonstrate the functionality with the most complex interface, Portals 4, the principles remain the same for others.

Can sPIN be executed on network switches? The definition of handlers allows them to be executed at any switch in the network with some limitations. Since they’re not associated with a host, the functions put and get from host are not allowed and DMA commands cannot be issued. Yet, the handlers can manipulate packets and use their shared memory to keep state. We believe that this extension would be simple but we defer a detailed analysis of use cases to future work.

What if sPIN handlers run too long? In general, handlers may run for a very long time and incorrect handlers may even not terminate. We would recommend to kill handlers after a fixed number of cycles and move the interface into flow control. However, this flow-control behavior is specific to Portals 4. In general, one can imagine various ways to deal with slow handlers. We do not recommend backing-up data into the (most likely lossless) interconnect because a bad handler may block the whole network. Instead, arriving packets that cannot be processed can be dropped and the user, once notified of this event, can tune the handlers until they can perform at line-rate.

8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We defined sPIN, a vendor-independent and portable interface for network acceleration. We discuss a reference implementation for Portals 4 and develop and share a simulation infrastructure that combines a network and a microarchitecture simulator to analyze the benefits of network offloading¹. We show several use cases

of how it can be used in real-world parallel applications as well as system services for data management. Our simulations demonstrate significant speedups for real applications as well as important kernels.

We believe that sPIN will change the way we approach networking and how we design NICs in the future—it will make exposing the specialized data movement cores on the NIC to the user simple and enables the development of a sophisticated ecosystem.

Acknowledgments

TH edited the manuscript and developed the original idea and specified the interface with input from RB and RG. SG developed the simulation toolchain and implemented the first prototype. KT implemented the handler codes and performed all experiments.

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¹https://spcl.inf.ethz.ch/Research/Parallel_Programming/sPIN

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A ARTIFACT DESCRIPTION APPENDIX

A.1 Abstract

The results shown in the paper are generated with a simulation tool-chain based on the cycle-accurate gem5 simulator and the LogGOPSim simulator. The tool-chain is available to the public.

A.2 Description

A.2.1 Check-list (artifact meta information).

Program LogGOPSim and gem5

Compilation Standard GNU Linux environment (tested on Debian, Ubuntu and Redhat)

Binary Available as source-code only (for transparency). Build instructions are included

Data-set Small ones are included, larger ones (>100 GiB) available upon request, see below.

Hardware Execution tested on x86, simulated hardware ARMv7.

Publicly available : Yes, see below.

A.2.2 How software can be obtained (if available). We release the whole simulation tool-chain with a mini-howto and instructions to reproduce the data in the paper on our webpage: https://spl.inf.ethz.ch/Research/Parallel_Programming/sPIN. After downloading and unpacking the tar-ball, follow the instructions in the README to build the two simulators. The README also describes part of the software infrastructure. The directory also contains a README_SC17, which contains instructions how to generate the data used in this paper.

A.2.3 Software dependencies. Standard gem5 installation, agraph and cgraph as included in default Debian/Ubuntu/Redhat systems. See README in the package for details.

A.3 Notes

In the following, we provide a detailed specification of the P4sPIN interface so that readers can follow the details and implement a sPIN system. Furthermore, in Appendix C.3, we provide the source code of all handlers described in this paper for convenience. All source codes are also included in the tar-package linked above.

B DETAILED P4SPIN INTERFACE

B.1 Detailed MD descriptor

```
ptl_me_t {
    ... // original Portals 4 arguments
    ptl_handler_t header_handler;
    ptl_handler_t payload_handler;
    ptl_handler_t completion_handler;

    ptl_hpu_md_h hpu_memory;
    void *hpu_initial_state;
    ptl_size_t hpu_initial_state_length;

    void *handler_host_mem_start;
    ptl_size_t handler_host_mem_length; }
```

The three handlers can be installed independently. The user can choose to not have a specific handler by setting it `NULL`. To keep the size of the `ptl_me_t` struct small if no handlers are needed, one could specify a sub-struct `ptl_handler_data` for these additional elements: it could be set to `NULL` if no handlers are installed.

B.2 HPU Memory Management

```
int PtlHPUAllocMem(ptl_size_t length, ptl_handle_ni_t ni,
    ptl_hpu_md_h *hpu_mem)
int PtlHPUFreeMem(ptl_hpu_md_h *hpu_mem)
```

This allocates length memory in device ni and stores all information in the `hpu_mem` handle, which is then associated with an `ptl_me_t`.

Handlers can read and write host memory and parameters could be passed through this memory. Yet, it is often useful to initialize HPU memory with some small control values that are set from the host while installing the ME and handler. When posting an ME, the host can specify a memory region with `hpu_initial_state` that is used to initialize that HPU memory. This feature can be used to coordinate multiple header handlers working on the same HPU memory. The length is the size of the pre-allocated state memory that is passed to the header handler; it must be smaller than `max_initial_state` (cf. Section B.2.1). The state will always be allocated but only be overwritten if `hpu_initial_state` is not `NULL`.

The ME identifies host memory to steer the access to. If a handler is present, it may be useful to have additional memory for the handler data (e.g., to collect statistics about messages). The fields `handler_host_mem_start` and `handler_host_mem_length` identify a second range of host memory where the handler can store its output. An additional option `HANDLER_IOVEC` specifies if the handler memory start and length are to be interpreted as an iovec.

A handler can generate messages from the context of an ME that change the completion semantics of an ME. For example, an MPI rendezvous message may arrive at a posted rendezvous handler, which then in turn posts a get operation to fetch the data. In this case, the handler can return `PENDING` which instructs the runtime to not complete the ME once this message is processed but wait for another message that matches it.

B.2.1 NI Limits. All resources in Portals 4 are strictly limited to allow for an efficient hardware implementation. The available resources for each logical network interface (NI) are reflected in the limits structure. To support sPIN, we add the following fields:

parameter name	description
<code>max_user_hdr_size</code>	maximum size of a user-header at a packet (maximum size the user can add to the header, for quick parsing)
<code>max_payload_size</code>	maximum size of payload data in a packet (used to determine requirements for payload handler)
<code>max_handler_mem</code>	maximum bytes of HPU memory for a handler
<code>max_initial_state</code>	maximum bytes of HPU initial state for a handler
<code>min_fragmentation_limit</code>	minimum allowed unit (bytes) for packet processing (each payload handler's data is always guaranteed to be naturally aligned to this limit as well as be a multiple of this limit, a high-quality implementation makes this as big as possible)
<code>max_cycles_per_byte</code>	maximum number of HPU cycles per byte payload

B.3 Header Handler Details

The pointer state points at the initial data in HPU memory. This data may have been initialized by the host during installation of the ME. The struct `ptl_header_t` contains the following elements:

```
struct ptl_header_t {
    ptl_request_type_t type; // put, get, atomic
    ptl_size_t length; // payload length
    ptl_process_t target_id; // target nid/pid
    ptl_process_t source_id; // source nid/pid
    ptl_match_bits_t match_bits; // match tag
    ptl_size_t offset; // offset in ME
    ptl_hdr_data_t hdr_data; // inline data
    ptl_user_header_t user_hdr; } // user header
```

The struct `user_header_t` is user-defined and can be used by the compiler and HPU to parse headers. It allows access to the first bytes of the payload of the header message as user-defined header structures. The return code of the handler is used to influence the runtime system. We define the following return codes:

DROP	handler executed successfully and message shall be dropped (NIC will discard all following packets)
DROP_PENDING	same as DROP but do not complete ME
PROCESS_DATA	handler executed successfully, NIC shall continue calling payload handlers
PROCESS_DATA_PENDING	same as PROCESS_DATA but do not complete ME
PROCEED	handler executed successfully, NIC shall execute the default action identified by the request and not invoke any further handlers.
PROCEED_PENDING	same as PROCEED but do not complete ME
SEGV (*)	segmentation violation
FAIL (*)	handler error (user-returned)

Return codes marked with (*) are errors and will be reported in the event queue associated with the ME. If multiple errors occur while processing a message, only the first one is reported.

B.4 Payload Handler Details

The pointer state points at the initial data in HPU memory. This data may have been initialized by the host or header handle. The struct `ptl_payload_t` contains information about the payload data:

```
struct ptl_payload_t {
    ptl_size_t length; // length of the data
    ptl_size_t offset; // payload offset in message
    uint8_t base[0]; } // beginning of data
```

We define the following return codes:

DROP	handler executed successfully, drop packet
SUCCESS	handler executed successfully
FAIL (*)	handler error (user-returned)
SEGV (*)	segmentation violation

B.5 Completion Handler Details

The following return codes are defined for the completion handlers:

SUCCESS	handler executed successfully
SUCCESS_PENDING	same as SUCCESS but do not complete ME!
FAIL (+)	handler error (user-returned)
SEGV (+)	segmentation violation

If the header or completion handler return a PENDING code then the ME will not be completed after completing the message.

B.6 Handler Actions Details

We specify blocking and nonblocking DMA calls to allow the HPU to copy to/from host memory. Blocking DMA calls block the HPU thread until the data arrived (the HPU can context-switch) and the nonblocking DMA calls return a handle for later completion. Nonblocking DMA calls are slightly higher overhead due to handle allocation and completion and should only be used if the DMA can be overlapped with other HPU instructions. Blocking DMA requests can be seen as an indication of urgency and could be prioritized by the DMA subsystem. We show the nonblocking interfaces below.

```
int PtlHandlerDMAToHostNB(const void *local, ptl_size_t offset,
    ptl_size_t len, unsigned int options, ptl_dma_h *h);
```

This function copies `len` bytes from `local` to `offset` in ME. Options can be set to `PTL_ME_HOST_MEM` or `PTL_HANDLER_HOST_MEM` to select the host memory space.

```
int PtlHandlerDMAFromHostNB(ptl_size_t offset, void* local,
    ptl_size_t len, unsigned int options, ptl_dma_h *h);
```

This function copies `len` bytes from `offset` in ME to `local` memory. Options can either set `PTL_ME_HOST_MEM` or `PTL_HANDLER_HOST_MEM` to select the host memory space). Both functions return immediately with a handle that can be used to check for completion. The blocking interfaces `PtlHandlerDMAToHostB()` and `PtlHandlerDMAFromHostB()` accept the same arguments but do not return a handle.

Standard DMA calls to and from the host are not atomic. Atomic DMAs over PCI can be expensive (and might require locking the

ME explicitly), thus, we offer an atomic DMA compare-and-swap function for synchronization. Data has to be naturally aligned:

```
int PtlHandlerDMACASNB(ptl_size_t offset, uint64_t *cmpval,
    uint64_t swapval, unsigned int options, ptl_dma_h *h);
```

This call compares the value at the `offset` location with `cmpval` and replaces it with `swapval` if they are equal. If the CAS fails, `cmpval` is overwritten with the value at the `offset` location.

```
int PtlHandlerDMAFetchAddNB(ptl_size_t offset, ptl_size_t inc,
    ptl_size_t *res, ptl_type_t t, unsigned int options,
    ptl_dma_h *h);
```

This call atomically increments the value of type `t` at location `offset` by `inc` and returns the value before in `res`. Similar blocking function exist for both atomic calls.

```
int PtlHandlerDMATest(ptl_dma_h handle);
```

The nonblocking completion test function returns true if handle is complete and the data transfer is finished, false otherwise.

```
int PtlHandlerDMAWait(ptl_dma_h handle);
```

This function waits until handle is complete and the data transfer is finished. A handle can be re-used only after it has been completed.

Multiple HPU threads may share the same HPU memory and run simultaneously. We define a compare-and-swap function on HPU memory to provide powerful synchronization features:

```
int PtlHandlerCAS(uint64_t *value, uint64_t cmpval, uint64_t
    swapval);
```

The function atomically tests `value` and `cmpval` for equality and replaces `value` with `swapval` if the test succeeds. It returns true if the swap succeeded and false otherwise. Furthermore, we define a fetch-and-add function for HPU threads:

```
int PtlHandlerFAdd(uint64_t *val, uint64_t *before, uint64_t inc);
```

This function atomically increments the value `val` with `inc` and returns the value before. HPU threads are not de-scheduled automatically but they can yield the HPU voluntarily using the function call `PtlHandlerYield()`. A runtime environment is free to ignore this call but it can be understood as a hint to schedule another thread. For example, when waiting for a DMA, yielding allows the HPU to use its processing resources more efficiently than polling. Handlers can send messages either from HPU or host memory. We define two different function calls for these two scenarios:

```
int PtlHandlerPutFromHost(ptl_size_t offset, ptl_size_t len,
    ptl_req_ct_t ct, ptl_ack_req_t ack_req, ptl_process_t
    target_id, ptl_match_bits_t match_bits, ptl_size_t
    remote_offset, void* user_ptr, ptl_hdr_data_t hdr_data);
```

This call enqueues a put operation from host memory: it shall behave as if it was posted by the host. The `offset` is relative to the ME, other fields such as `pt_index`, `eq_hdl`, etc. are inherited from ME. The call simply enqueues an operation and may thus not block.

```
int PtlHandlerPutFromDevice(const void *local, ptl_size_t len,
    ptl_req_ct_t ct, ptl_ack_req_t ack_req, ptl_process_t
    target_id, ptl_match_bits_t match_bits, ptl_size_t
    remote_offset, void* user_ptr, ptl_hdr_data_t hdr_data);
```

This call performs a (single-packet) put operation from device memory. The data is sent from HPU memory and `len` must be at most `max_payload_size`, other fields such as `pt_index`, `eq_hdl`, etc. are inherited from ME. This function may block until it is completed. Similar handler functions are specified for `PtlHandlerGet*` and `PtlHandlerAtomic*`.

```
int PtlHandlerCTInc(ptl_ct_event_t increment);
int PtlHandlerCTGet(ptl_ct_event_t *event);
int PtlHandlerCTSet(ptl_ct_event_t new_ct);
```

Counters can be manipulated with the above calls: they atomically read or modify a counter with the expected semantics.

C COMPUTATIONAL RESULTS ANALYSIS

C.1 Abstract

To increase the trust in our simulation results, we now show the details of the implemented simulation. Our system can execute actual C code for the handlers: they are compiled with a real gcc cross-compilation tool chain and run in a gem5 simulation. Because the handlers are relatively simple, we present the complete source code here so the reader can validate the functionality and get a feeling of the low complexity and high power of the overall approach.

We also provide some selected trace diagrams that our simulator can produce. They help understanding how time is spent in the different systems and can lead to additional insights beyond the explanations in the paper. They are neither post-processed nor intended for the main paper, we apologize for the rendering complexity due to the simple output interface. Yet, we believe that, if carefully analyzed, they increase the reader’s confidence in the simulation correctness as they provide more intuition of the main benefits of sPIN (packetized pipelining and NIC-side processing).

Both, the source code and the diagrams can be found in the package to reproduce the experiments. We show them here simply for the convenience of the reader.

C.2 Results Analysis Discussion

As any simulation approach, we made several assumptions about the speeds of the future devices. They are all covered in the available source code and described in the paper. We believe that our simulations accurately reflect reality and a real system could be built to achieve similar results. Both simulators have been calibrated for the target system. LogGOPSim is calibrated for a modern InfiniBand system and gem5 is calibrated to a modern ARM architecture (see references to the reports in the main document).

C.3 Summary: Handler code used in this paper

We now present the raw C source codes and some selected visualizations to understand the system better.

C.3.1 Ping pong.

```
#define PTL_MAX_SIZE 4096
#define STREAMING 1

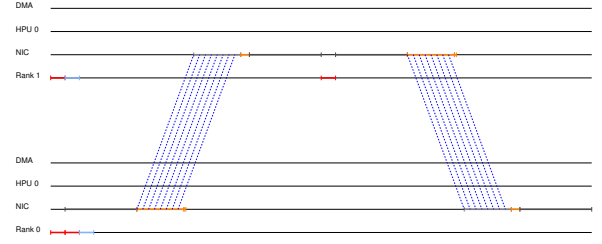
typedef struct {
    ptl_size_t offset, length; ptl_process_t source; bool stream;
} pingpong_info_t;

int pingpong_header_handler(const ptl_header_t h, void *state) {
    pingpong_info_t *i = state;
    if(h.length > PTL_MAX_SIZE || !STREAMING) {
        i->stream = false; i->length = h.length;
        return PROCEED; // don't execute any other handlers
    } else {
        i->source = h.source_id; i->stream = true;
        return PROCESS_DATA; // execute payload handler
    }
}

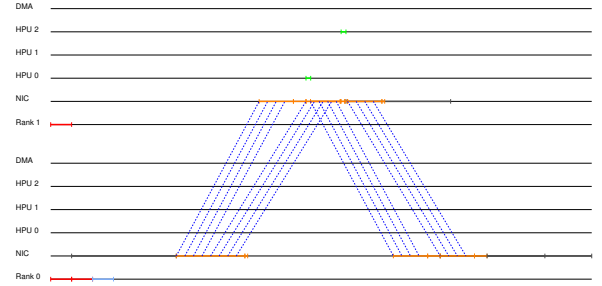
int pingpong_payload_handler(const ptl_payload_t p, void *state) {
    pingpong_info_t *i = state;
    PtlHandlerPutFromDevice(p.base, p.length, 1, 0, i->source, 10,
        0, NULL, 0);
    return SUCCESS;
}

int pingpong_completion_handler(int dropped_bytes, bool
    flow_control_triggered, void *state) {
    pingpong_info_t *i = state;
    if(!i->stream)
        PtlHandlerPutFromHost(i->offset, i->length, 1, 0, i->source,
            10, 0, NULL, 0);
    return SUCCESS;
}
```

The following figure shows a RDMA 8 KiB ping-pong visualization. The red and blue sections at rank 0 and 1 are message posting overheads and the vertical blue bars represent data transfers.



The next figure shows the trace simulation output for sPIN stream mode. Here, the two packets are matched separately and two instances of the payload handler are executed on HPU 2 and HPU 0, respectively. The first reply packet is already sent before the second is fully received (the transceiver is full duplex).



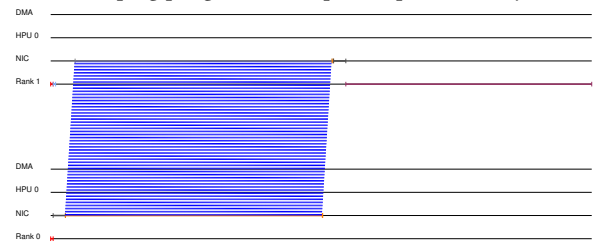
C.3.2 Strided Datatype.

```
typedef struct {
    ptl_size_t offset, vlen, stride;
} ddtvec_info_t;

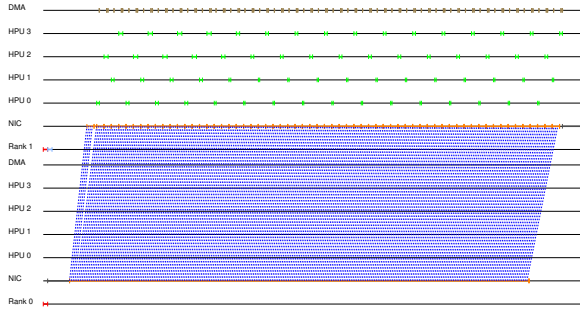
int ddtvec_payload_handler(const ptl_payload_t p, void *state) {
    ddtvec_info_t *i = (ddtvec_info_t *)state;
    //both the following are implicitly rounded down
    ptl_size_t first_seg_num = (i->offset+p.offset)/i->vlen;
    ptl_size_t last_seg_num = (i->offset+p.offset+p.length)/i->vlen;

    int offset_in_packet = 0;
    for(int j = first_seg_num; j<=last_seg_num; j++){
        ptl_size_t offset_in_block = (i->offset+p.offset+
            offset_in_packet)%i->vlen;
        ptl_size_t offset = j * (i->vlen+i->stride) + offset_in_block;
        ptl_size_t size = (i->vlen - offset_in_block) < (p.length -
            offset_in_packet) ? (i->vlen - offset_in_block) : (p.length -
            offset_in_packet);
        PtlHandlerDMAToHostB(p.base+offset_in_packet, offset, size,
            PTL_ME_HOST_MEM);
        offset_in_packet+=size;
    }
    return SUCCESS;
}
```

The following figure shows the trace simulation output for RDMA reception of a datatype with 32 8KiB blocks. The elements are similar to ping pong and the unpack is performed by the CPU.



The next figure shows the trace simulation output for the sPIN datatype receive. Packets are blocked and each block is processed by one of the four HPUs, which issues a local DMA transaction to host memory. For each packet the payload handler was executed (64 calls overall), which deposited data directly to right locations in memory, whereas RDMA system should wait for the arrival of the whole message to process it.



C.3.3 Reed-Solomon.

```
#define PARITY_TAG 53

/* Code for data server */
typedef struct {
    ptl_process_t source, parity; ptl_size_t offset;
} primary_info_t;

typedef struct {
    int length;
} ptl_user_header_t;

int primary_write_header_handler(const ptl_header_t h, void *
state) {
    primary_info_t *i = state;
    i->source=h.source_id;
    return PROCESS_DATA; }

int primary_write_payload_handler(const ptl_payload_t p, void *
state) {
    primary_info_t *i = state;
    uint32_t* buf = malloc(p.length/sizeof(uint32_t));
    uint32_t *data = (uint32_t*)p.base;

    PtlHandlerDMAFromHostB(i->offset+p.offset, buf, p.length,
        PTL_ME_HOST_MEM);
    for(int i=0; i<p.length/sizeof(uint32_t); i++) buf[i] = (buf[i]
        ^ data[i]);
    PtlHandlerDMAToHostB(buf, i->offset+p.offset, p.length,
        PTL_ME_HOST_MEM);
    PtlHandlerPutFromDevice(buf, p.length, PTL_LOCAL_ME_CT, 0, i->
        parity, PARITY_TAG, 0, NULL, i->source);

    free(buf);
    return SUCCESS; }

int primary_read_header_handler(const ptl_header_t h, void * state
) {
    primary_info_t *i = state;
    PtlHandlerPutFromHost(h.offset, h.user_hdr.length,
        PTL_LOCAL_ME_CT, 0, h.source_id, h.match_bits, 0, NULL, 0);
    return PROCEED; }

int primary_send_acknowledgement_header_handler(const ptl_header_t
h, void * state) {
    uint8_t reply = SUCCESS;
    PtlHandlerPutFromDevice(&reply, 1, PTL_LOCAL_ME_CT, 0, h.
        user_hdr.client, h.match_bits, 0, NULL, 0);
    return PROCEED; }

/* Code for parity server */
typedef struct {
    ptl_process_t source, client; ptl_size_t offset;
} parity_info_t;

typedef struct {
    int client;
} ptl_user_header_t;

int parity_update_header_handler(const ptl_header_t h, void *
state) {
    parity_info_t *i = state;
    i->source=h.source_id; i->client=h.user_hdr.client;
    return PROCESS_DATA; }

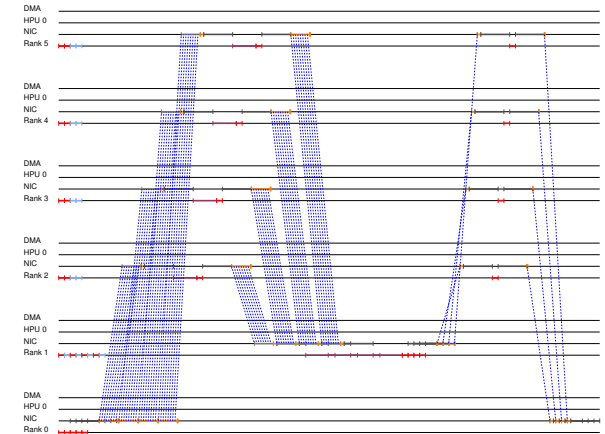
int parity_update_payload_handler(const ptl_payload_t p, void *
state) {
    parity_info_t *i = state;
    uint32_t* buf = malloc(p.length/sizeof(uint32_t));
    uint32_t *data = (uint32_t*)p.base;
```

```
PtlHandlerDMAFromHostB(i->offset+p.offset, buf, p.length,
    PTL_ME_HOST_MEM);
for(int i=0; i<p.length/sizeof(uint32_t); i++) buf[i] = (buf[i]
    ^ data[i]);
PtlHandlerDMAToHostB(buf, i->offset+p.offset, p.length,
    PTL_ME_HOST_MEM);

free(buf);
return SUCCESS; }

int parity_update_completion_handler(int dropped_bytes, bool
flow_control_triggered, void *state) {
    parity_info_t *i = state;
    uint8_t reply = SUCCESS;
    PtlHandlerPutFromDevice(&reply, 1, PTL_LOCAL_ME_CT, 0, i->source,
        30, 0, NULL, i->client);
    return SUCCESS; }
```

The following figure shows a RDMA write using Reed-Solomon coding in a RAID-5 configuration. Here, rank 0 is the client and it sends updates to all four servers (rank 2-5), which then update the parity at rank 1 and acknowledge back to rank 0. P4 case is different from RDMA, since the data server can predict getting acknowledgment from parity server and initiate triggered put right after the sending the data to it in order to reply the client faster.



The next figure shows the sPIN RAID-5 update. Again, packets are applied to the local host memory via DMA and they are pipelined simultaneously through the network towards the parity rank 1. Also acknowledgments are sent directly from the NICs.

