Ce.U.B. - Bertinoro - Italy, 12 - 17 October 2009



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High Throughput Data Transmission Through Network Links

High Speed Network Links

- Fastest available network link technology in the market (e.g. 10-GbE at present) usually employed in LAN backbones:
 - Connecting network devices together:
 - E.g.: connecting together network switches in a LAN.
 - Data flow managed by Switch Firmware.
 - Switch manufacturer will care avoiding bottlenecks;
 - We only need to test the device...
- Front-end (PC, custom electronics) usually connected to lower speed devices.



Outline

- Need of High-Speed Links in HEP applications:
 - 2 Use Cases.
- High speed data-link technologies in HEP:
 - Commodity links;
 - 10 Gb/s links.
- Bottlenecks in moving data through High-Speed Links.
- Optimization: Network workload sharing among CPU cores:
 - The Linux network layer:
 - Transmission and reception.
 - Process-to-CPU affinity;
 - IRQ-to CPU affinity;
- Performances of transmission through 10 Gb/s Ethernet:
 - UDP transfer:
 - TCP transfer:
 - Nagle's algorithm;
 - Zero copy;
 - TCP hardware offload.

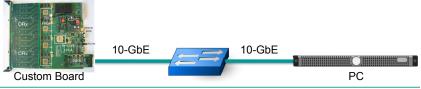


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Front-end Access to High Speed Network

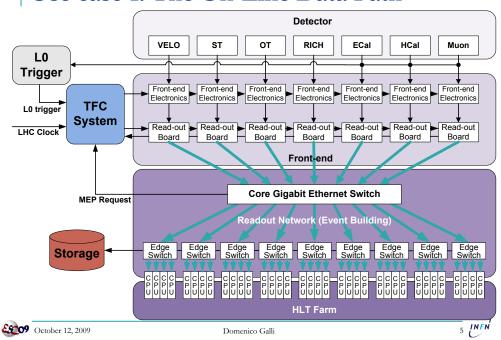
- HEP applications sometimes need High speed network links directly connected to the front-end:
 - PCs;
 - Custom electronic boards.
- Data Flow managed by OS or FPGA software.
 - Need to check bottlenecks which could limit the throughput.
- Use case 1: On-line data path:
 - Data Acquisition Event Building High Level Trigger.
- Use case 2: Network Distributed Storage:
 - Offline computing centers (Tier-1).



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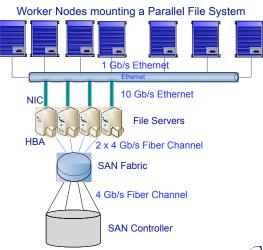


Use case 1: The On-Line Data Path



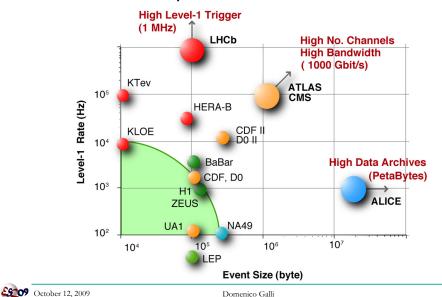
Use Case 2: Network Storage in a SAN

- File servers in a Storage Area Network (SAN) which exports data to client nodes via Ethernet.
- Common situation in case of large computing farms:
 - Computing nodes access the mass storage through a pool of Parallel File System disk-servers:
 - E.g.: GPFS or Lustre.



Use case 1: The On-Line Data Path (II)

Trend in data packet rate and size.





- Trend toward COTS technologies:
 - HERA-B:
 - Shark link (proprietary, by Analog Devices) until level 2, than Fast Ethernet.
 - BaBar:
 - Fast Ethernet.
 - DØ:
 - Fast Ethernet / Gigabit Ethernet.
 - CDF:
 - ATM / SCRAMnet (proprietary, by Systran, low latency replicated noncoherent shared memory network).
 - CMS:
 - Myrinet (proprietary, Myricom) / Gigabit Ethernet.
 - Atlas / LHCb / Alice:
 - Gigabit Ethernet.
 - Possible new experiments:
 - 10-Gigabit Ethernet (soon also on copper), 16-48-Gigabit infiniBand, 100-Gigabit Ethernet.



Commodity Links

- More and more often used in HEP for DAQ, Event Building and High Level Trigger Systems:
 - Limited costs;
 - Maintainability;
 - Upgradability.
- Demand of data throughput in HEP is increasing following:
 - Physical event rate;
 - Number of electronic channels;
 - Reduction of the on-line event filter (trigger) stages.
- Industry has moved on since the design of the DAQ for the LHC experiments:
 - 10 Gigabit/s Ethernet well established;
 - 48 Gigabit/s InfiniBand available;
 - 96 Gigabit/s InfiniBand is being actively worked on;
 - 100 Gigabit/s Ethernet is being actively worked on.



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10 Gb/s Technologies (II)



Ethernet 1260 port switch



InfiniBand 3456 port switch

I INFN

10 Gb/s Technologies

Ethernet:

- 10 Gb/s well established
 - Various optical standards, short range copper (CX4), long range copper over UTP CAT6A standardised), widely used as aggregation technology.
- Begins to conquer MAN and WAN market (succeeding SONET).
- □ Large market share, vendor independent IEEE standard (802.3x).
- Very active R&D on 100 Gigabit/s and 40 Gigabit/s (will probably die).

Myrinet:

- Popular cluster-interconnect technology, low latency.
- 10 Gb/s standard (optical and copper (CX4) exist)
- Single vendor (Myricom).

InfiniBand:

- Cluster interconnect technology, low latency.
- 8 Gb/s and 16 Gb/s standards (optical and copper)
- Open industry standard, several vendors (OEMs) but very few chipmakers (Mellanox).
- Powerful protocol/software stack (reliable/unreliable datagrams, QoS, out-of-band messages etc...).

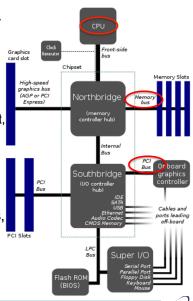
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Bottlenecks

- Direct access to a high-speed network from a device can incur in 3 major system bottlenecks:
 - The peripheral bus bandwidth:
 - PCI, PCI-X, PCI-e.
 - The memory bus bandwidth:
 - Front Side Bus, AMD HyperTransport, Intel QuickPath Interconnect.
 - The CPU utilization.
- "Fast network, slow host" scenario:
 - Moore's law: "Every 18-24 months computing power doubles...";
 - Gilder's law: "Every 12 months, optical fiber bandwidth doubles...".



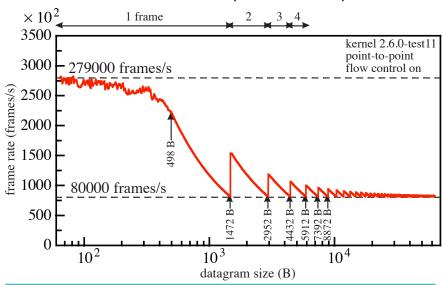
Nomenclature

- Frame: Ethernet Data Packet:
 - □ **Standard** Frames: 46 B − 1500 B payload size;
 - □ **Jumbo** Frames: 46 B 9000 B payload size.
- Datagram: IP/UDP Data Packet:
 - □ 20 B 64 KiB (65535 B) total size.
- Fragment: fragment of IP Datagram which fits into an Ethernet frame.
- Segment: TCP Data Packet:
 - Usually fits into the maximum Ethernet payload size (1500/9000 B).



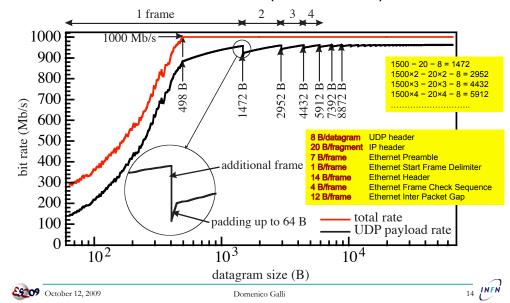
1-Gigabit Ethernet Frame Transfer Rate

Year 2005, bus PCI-X (bottleneck).



1-Gigabit Ethernet UDP Bit-Transfer Rate

Year 2005, bus PCI-X (bottleneck).



10-GbE Network I/O

- "Fast network, slow host" scenario.
- Bottlenecks in I/O performance:
 - The PCI-X bus bandwidth (peak throughput 8.5 Gbit/s in 133 MHz flavor):
 - Substituted by the PCI-E, (20 Gbit/s peak throughput in x8 flavor).
 - The memory bandwidth:
 - FSB has increased the clock from 533 MHz to 1600 MHz.
 - New Memory Architectures:
 - AMD HyperTransport;
 - Intel QuickPath Interconnect.
 - The CPU utilization:
 - Multi-core architectures.

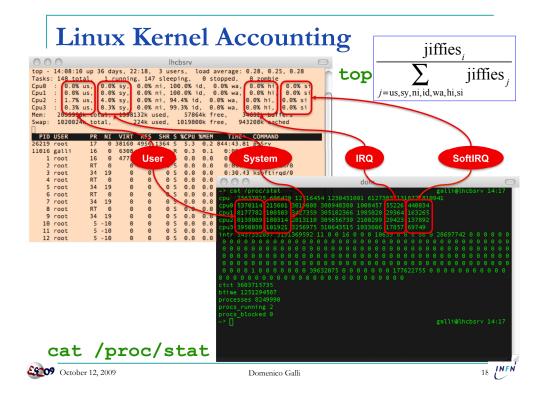
Sharing Workload among CPU Cores

- To take advantage of the multiple cores of recent CPUs, workload should be shared among different cores.
- The Linux Kernel splits the process of sending/ receiving data packets into different tasks:
 - Differently scheduled and accounted;
 - Can be partially distributed over several CPU cores.
- Statistics of **kernel accounting** partitions accessible through the /proc/stat pseudofile:
 - Data relative to each CPU core:
 - Partitions relevant to network processing: User, System, IRQ and SoftIRQ;
 - Number of jiffies (1/1000th of a second) spent by CPU core in each different mode.



Linux Kernel Accounting (II)

- User: User applications which send/receive data packets are typically ordinary processes which run in user mode:
 - Non-privileged execution mode;
 - No access to portions of memory allocated by the kernel or by other processes.
- System: to access a network device, the applications execute system calls, where the execution is switched to kernel mode:
 - Privileged execution mode (code assumed to be fully trusted):
 - Any instruction can be executed and any memory address can be referenced;
 - The portion of the kernel which is responsible of the required service is actually executed.



Linux Kernel Accounting (III)

- IRQ: Transmission/reception code executed out of the logical execution flow of the applications:
 - Driven by the motion of data packets through the network.
 - E.g.: when new data packets reach the Network Interface Card (NIC) of a PC through a network cable, a procedure must be executed in order to process the received data and forward them to the appropriate user application which is waiting for data.
 - To this aim the kernel provides hardware interrupt handlers, which are software routines executed upon the reception of hardware interrupt signals, in our case raised by the NIC.

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Linux Kernel Accounting (IV)

- SoftIRQ: Code executed out of interrupt context (interrupt reception enabled), scheduled by hardware interrupt handlers:
 - While the kernel is processing hardware interrupts (interrupt context), the interrupt reception is disabled, hence interrupts received in the meantime are lost.
 - To avoid such a situation, the hardware interrupt handlers perform only the work which must be accomplished immediately (top half), so limiting to the minimum the amount of time spent with interrupts disabled.
 - The real work is instead deferred to the execution of so-called software interrupt handlers (bottom half), which are usually scheduled by hardware interrupt handlers;
 - Always executed on the same CPU where they were originally raised.

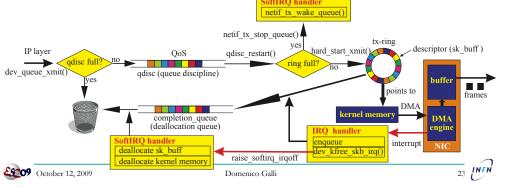


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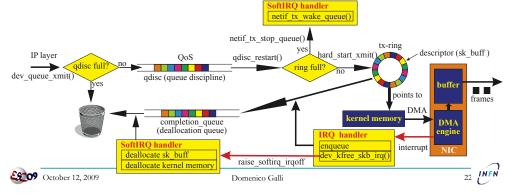
Packet Transmission (II)

- If immediate sending is not possible:
 - The driver stops the queuing of packets by calling netif tx stop queue():
 - No more calls to hard start xmit() allowed.
 - Until the queue is woken up by a call to netif_tx_wake_queue().
 - A SoftIRQ is scheduled and the packet transmission "over the wire" is deferred to a later time.
- Could happen if the device is running out of resources.
- System could in principle generate packets for transmission faster than the device can handle.
- Using recent PCs and NICs, in practice, this never happens:
 - NICs are faster than PCs.



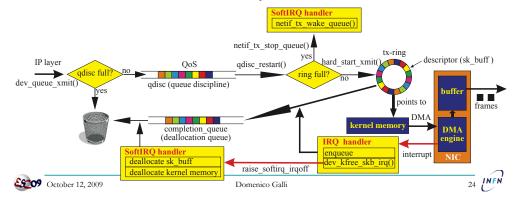
Packet Transmission

- Packet sent from IP layer to Queue Discipline (gdisc).
- Any appropriate Quality of Service (QoS) in qdisc:
 - pfifo fast (packet fifo);
 - RED (Random Early Drop);
 - сво (Class Based Queuing).
- qdisc notifies network driver when it's time to send: it calls hard start xmit():
 - Place all ready sk buff pointers in tx ring;
 - Notifies NIC that packets are ready to send.



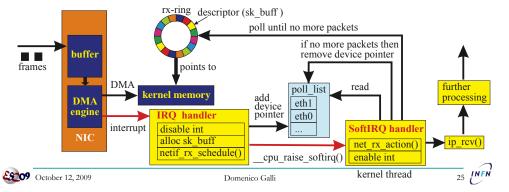
Packet Transmission (III)

- The NIC signals the kernel (via interrupt) when packets are successfully transmitted:
 - Highly variable on when interrupt is sent!
- Interrupt handler enqueues transmitted packets for deallocation (completion queue);
- At next softirg, all packets in the completion queue are deallocated:
 - Meta-data contained in the sk buff struct;
 - Packet data not needed anymore.



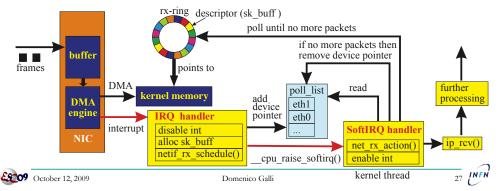
Packet Reception

- NIC accumulates a bunch of frames in an internal buffer.
- NIC start a bus-mastered DMA transfer from the buffer to a reserved space in the kernel memory.
 - Packet descriptors (metadata, sk_buff) pointing to data are stored in a circular ring (rx-ring).
- As soon as the DMA transfer has terminated, the NIC notifies the kernel of the new available packets:
 - By means of an interrupt signal raised on a dedicated IRQ line.
- The Interrupt Controller issues an interrupt to the dedicated processor pin.



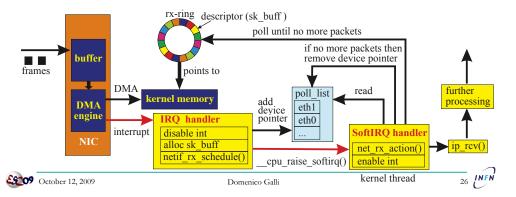
Packet Reception (III)

- If the quota is reached, but the NIC has still packets to offer:
 - □ Then the NIC is put at the end of the poll-list.
- If the quota is reached, but the NIC has no more packets to offer:
 - The NIC is deleted from the poll-list and the IRQ reception for that NIC is enabled again.



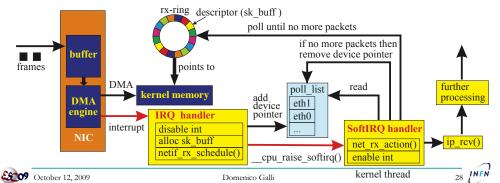
Packet Reception (II)

- The kernel reacts to the IRQ by executing a hardware interrupt handler.
- The handler leaves the packets in the rx_ring and enables polling mode for the originating NIC:
 - By disabling the IRQ reception for that NIC and putting a reference to the NIC in a poll-list attached to the interrupted CPU, and finally schedules a SoftIRQ.
- The SoftIRQ handler polls all the NICs registered in the poll-list to draw packets from the rx ring (in order to process them) until a configurable number of packets at maximum, known as quota and controlled by the parameter netdev max backlog, is reached.



Packet Reception (IV)

- Reception mechanism, known as NAPI (New Network Application Program Interface):
 - Introduced in the 2.6 kernel series
- Main feature:
 - Converge to an interrupt-driven mechanism under light network traffic:
 - Reducing both latency and CPU load.
 - Converge to to a poll mechanism under high network traffic:
 - Avoiding live-lock conditions:
 - Packets are accepted only as fast as the system is able process them.



Setting the Process-to-CPU Affinity

- Library calls:
 - #include <sched.h>
 - int sched setaffinity (pid t tqid, unsigned int cpusetsize, cpu set t *mask)
 - □ int sched getaffinity (pid t tgid, unsigned int cpusetsize, cpu set t *mask)
- Macro to set/get the CPU mask:
 - □ void CPU CLR(int cpu, cpu set t *mask)
 - □ int CPU ISSET(int cpu, cpu set t *mask)
 - □ void CPU SET(int cpu, cpu set t *mask)
 - □ void CPU ZERO(cpu set t *mask)
- Parameters:
 - tgid: thread group identifier (was pid);
 - cpusetsize: length (in bytes) of the data pointed to by mask. Normally: sizeof (cpu set t).
 - mask: CPU mask (structure).



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Setting the Interrupt-to-CPU Affinity

- Usually irqbalance daemon running in I inux distributions:
 - irgbalance automatically distributes interrupts over the processors and cores;
 - Design goal of irgbalance: find a balance between power savings and optimal performance.
- To manually optimize network workload distribution among CPU core irgbalance has to be switched off.
 - service irqbalance status
 - service irgbalance stop



- Shell commands:
 - □ taskset [mask] -- [command] [arguments]
 - □ taskset -p [tgid]
 - □ taskset -p [mask] [tgid]
- Parameters:
 - taid: thread group identifier (was pid);
 - mask: bitmask, with the lowest order bit corresponding to the first logical CPU and the highest order bit corresponding to the last logical CPU:
 - 0x00000001 is processor #0;
 - 0x00000002 is processor #1;
 - 0x00000003 is processors #0 and #1;
 - 0x000000f is processor #0 through #3;
 - 0x000000f0 is processors #4 through #7;
 - 0xffffffff is all processors (#0 through #31).



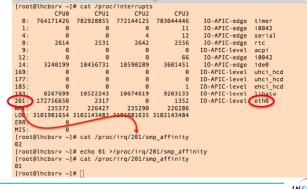
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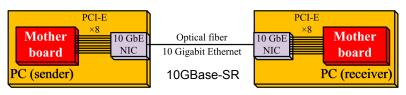
Setting the Interrupt-to-CPU Affinity (II)

- To find IRQ #
 - a cat /proc/interrupts
- To set CPU Affinity for the handler of IRQ N:
 - □ echo ⟨mask⟩ >/proc/irq/⟨N⟩/smp affinity



10-GbE Point-to-Point Throughput

- In real operating condition, maximum transfer rate limited not only by the capacity of the link itself, but also:
 - By the capacity of the data busses (PCI and FSB);
 - By the ability of the CPUs and of the OS to handle packet processing and interrupt rates raised by the network interface cards in due time.
- Data throughput & CPU load measures reported:
 - □ NIC mounted on the PCI-E bus of commodity PCs as transmitters and receivers.



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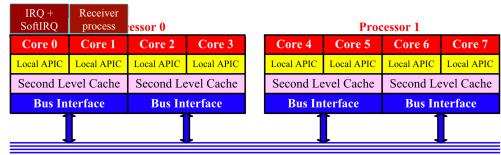
CPU Affinity Settings (II)

10-GbE Sender			
Core	L2 Cache	Task	
0	0	(IRQ + softIRQ) from Ethernet NIC	
1	0		
2	4	Sender process	
3	1	Second sender process [2 sender tests]	

IRQ + SoftIRQ	Proc	Sender 1 process	Sender 2 process		Proc	cessor 1	
Core 0	Core 1	Core 2	Core 3	Core 4	Core 5	Core 6	C
Local APIC	Local APIC	Local APIC	Local APIC	Local APIC	Local APIC	Local APIC	Loc
Second Level Cache		Second Le	evel Cache	Second Le	evel Cache	Second Le	evel
Bus Interface		Bus In	terface	Bus In	terface	Bus In	terfa
	,	1				1	

CPU Affinity Settings

10-GbE Receiver		
Core	L2 Cache	Task
0	0	(IRQ + softIRQ) from Ethernet NIC
1	U	Receiver process



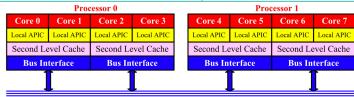
Front Side Bus

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Test Platform

Motherboard	IBM X3650	
Processor type	Intel Xeon E5335	
Procesors x cores x clock (GHz)	2 × 4 × 2.00	
L2 cache (MiB)	8	
L2 speed (GHz)	2.00	
FSB speed (MHz)	1333	
Chipset	Intel 5000P	
RAM	4 GiB	
NIC	Myricom 10G-PCIE-8A-S	
NIC DMA Speed (Gbit/s) ro / wo /rw	10.44 / 14.54 / 19.07	



Front Side Bus

Settings

net.core.rmem_max (B)	16777216
net.core.wmem_max (B)	16777216
net.ipv4.tcp_rmem (B)	4096 / 87380 / 16777216
net.ipv4.tcp_wmem (B)	4096 / 65536 / 16777216
net.core.netdev_max_backlog	250000
Interrupt Coalescence (μ s)	25
PCI-E speed (Gbit/s)	2.5
PCI-E width	x8
Write Combining	enabled
Interrupt Type	MSI



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Why UDP?

- TCP is optimized for accurate delivery rather than for **timely** delivery:
 - Relatively long delays (in the order of seconds) while waiting for out-of-order messages or retransmissions of lost messages.
- TCP not particularly suitable for real-time applications:
 - In time-sensitive applications, dropping packets is sometimes preferable to waiting for delayed or retransmitted packets.
 - UDP/RTP (Real-time Transport Protocol) preferred:
 - e.g. Voice over IP.

UDP Data Transfer

- User Datagram Protocol:
 - Connectionless, unreliable messages (datagrams) of a fixed maximum length of 64 KiB.
 - What does UDP do:
 - Simple interface to IP protocol (fragmentation, routing, etc.);
 - Demultiplexing multiple processes using the ports.
 - What does not UDP do:
 - Retransmission upon receipt of a bad packet:
 - Flow control:
 - Error control:
 - Congestion control.





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Why UDP in DAQ Chain?

- High link occupancy is desirable:
 - To maximize the physical event rate.
- The data flow is driven by accelerator/detector rates (time-sensitive application):
 - Independent on the PC which process data.
- Mechanisms which **slow down** data transmission are **not** appreciated:
 - □ E.g. in TCP: slow start, congestion avoidance, flow control.
- Mechanisms for reliability (retransmission) can be useless due to latency limits.
- Retransmission requires additional bandwidth, which is stolen from the event bandwidth:
 - If the available bandwidth is limited, retransmission will probably trigger a throttling system which discards physical events in any case.





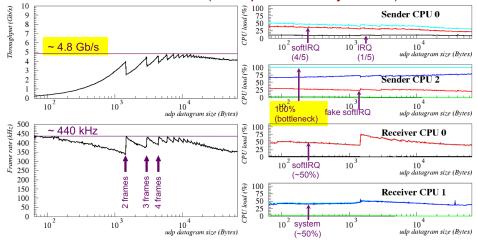




UDP – Standard Frames



- 1500 B MTU (Maximum Transfer Unit).
- UDP datagrams sent as fast as they can be sent.
 - Bottleneck: sender CPU core 2 (sender process 100 % system load).

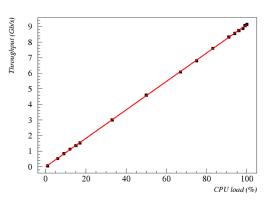


UDP – Jumbo Frames (II)

Additional dummy ps, bound to the same core of the tx ps (CPU 2), wasting CPU resources.

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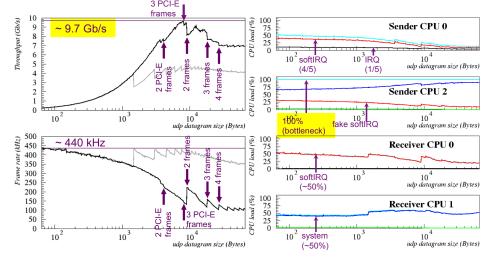
- CPU available for tx process trimmed using relative priority.
- The perfect linearity confirms that the system CPU load @ sender side was actually the main bottleneck.
- 2 GHz → 3 GHz CPU (same architecture):
 - Potential increase of 50% in the maximum throughput:
 - Provided that bottlenecks of other kinds do not show up before such increase is reached.



UDP – Jumbo Frames



- 9000 B MTU.
- Sensible enhancement with respect to 1500 MTU.



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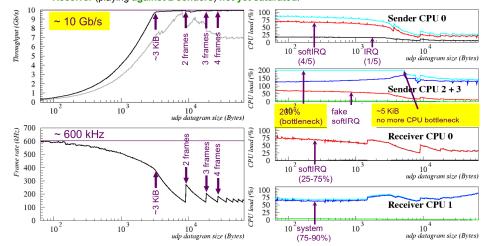
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UDP – Jumbo Frames – 2 Senders



- Doubled availability of CPU cycles to the sender PC.
- 10GbE fully saturated.
- Receiver (playing against 2 senders) not yet saturated.



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TCP Data Transfer

- Transmission Control Protocol:
 - Provides a reliable end-to-end byte stream over an unreliable network.
 - Designed to dynamically adapt to properties of the internetwork and to be robust in the face of many kinds of failures.
- TCP breaks outgoing data streams into pieces (segments) which usually fit in a single network frame and which are sent as separate IP datagrams.

TCP Header

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 0 Destination port Source port 32 Sequence number 64 Acknowledgment number Data offset Window Size 96 Reserved 128 Checksum Urgent pointer 160 Options (if Data Offset > 5) October 12, 2009 Domenico Galli

TCP Data Transfer (III)

- TCP provides many additional control mechanisms
 - Selective acknowledgments:
 - Allows the receiver to acknowledge discontiguous blocks of packets that were received correctly.
 - Nagle's algorithm:
 - To cope with the small packet problem.
 - □ Clark's solution:
 - To cope with the silly window sindrome.
 - Slow-start, congestion avoidance, fast retransmit, and fast recovery:
 - Which cooperate to congestion control.
 - □ Retransmission timeout:
 - Karn's algorithm, TCP timestamps, Jacobson's algorithm for evaluating round-trip time.

TCP Data Transfer (II)

- TCP key feature:
 - Ordered data transfer:
 - The destination host rearranges segments according to sequence
 - Retransmission of lost packets:
 - Any cumulative stream not acknowledged will be retransmitted.
 - Discarding duplicate packets.
 - Error-free data transfer:
 - Checksum.
 - Flow control (sliding windows):
 - □ **Limits the rate** a sender transfers data to guarantee reliable delivery:
 - □ The receiver specifies in the receive window field the amount of additional received data (in bytes) that it is willing to buffer for the connection:
 - □ When the receiving host's buffer fills, the next acknowledgement contains a 0 in the window size, to stop transfer and allow the data in the buffer to be processed.
 - Congestion avoidance:
 - Avoid congestion collapse.

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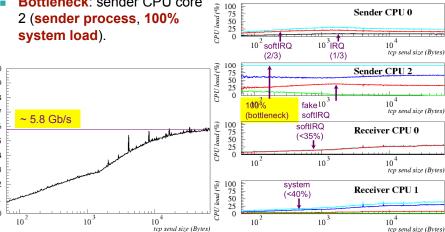
TCP – Standard Frames

System IRO Soft IRQ Total

Sender CPU 0

- 1500 B MTU (Maximum Transfer Unit).
- TCP segments sent as fast as they can be sent.

Bottleneck: sender CPU core 2 (sender process, 100% system load).

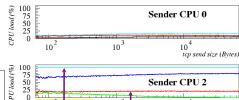


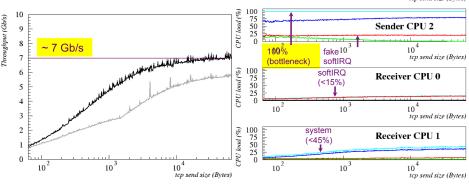


TCP – Jumbo Frames



- 9000 B MTU.
- **Enhancement** with respect to 1500 MTU (6 → 7 Gb/s).
- Bottleneck: sender CPU core 2 (sender process, 100% system load).







Nagle's Algorithm (II)

- When there are few bytes to send, but not a full packet's worth, and there are some unacknowledged data in flight:
 - Then the Nagle's algorithm waits, keeping data **buffered**. until:
 - Either the application provides more data:
 - □ Enough to make another full-sized TCP segment or half of the TCP window size:
 - Or the other end acknowledges all the outstanding data, so that there are no longer any data in flight.

Nagle's Algorithm

- Nagle's algorithm active by default when using TCPstreamed transfers.
- Introduced in the TCP/IP stack (RFC 896) in order to solve the so called **small packet problem**.
 - An application repeatedly emits data in small chunks, frequently only 1 byte in size. Since TCP packets have a 40 byte header (20 bytes for TCP, 20 bytes for IPv4), this results in a 41 byte packet for 1 byte of useful information, a huge overhead.
 - This situation often occurs in telnet sessions, where most keypresses generate a single byte of data which is transmitted immediately.
 - Worse, over slow links, many such packets can be in transit at the same time, potentially leading to congestion collapse.
- The Nagle's algorithm automatically concatenates a number of small data packets in order to increase the efficiency of a network application system, i.e. reducing the number of physical packets that must be sent.

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Linux Settings on Nagle's Algorithm

- The Linux operating system provides two options to disable the Nagle's algorithm in two opposite ways, which can be set by means of the setsockopt() system call:
- TCP NODELAY
 - □ The OS always send segments as soon as possible:
 - Even if there is only a small amount of data.
 - □ The **behavior** of **TCP** transfers is expected to **match more** closely that of UDP ones:
 - Since **no** small packet **aggregation** at the sender side is performed.
- TCP CORK
 - The OS does not send out partial frames at all until the application provides more data:
 - Even if the other end acknowledges all the outstanding data.
 - Only full frames can be sent out:
 - If an application does not fill the last frame of a transmission, the system will delay sending the last packet forever.



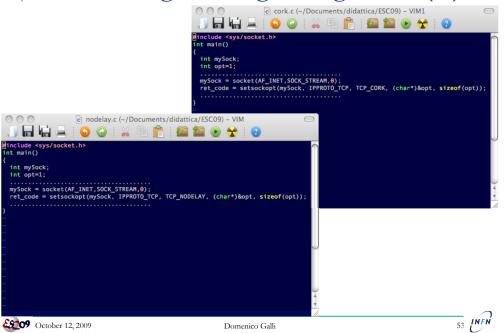








Linux Settings on Nagle's Algorithm (II)



TCP - Jumbo - TCP CORK

System IRO Soft IRQ Total

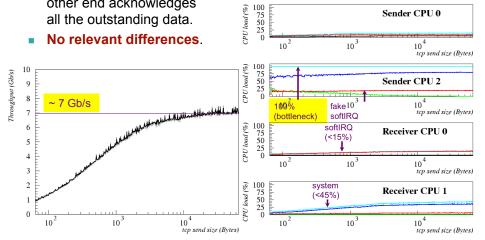
Sender CPU 0

 Nagle's algorithm disabled. OS does not send out partial frames at all until the application provides more data, even if the

other end acknowledges all the outstanding data.

No relevant differences.

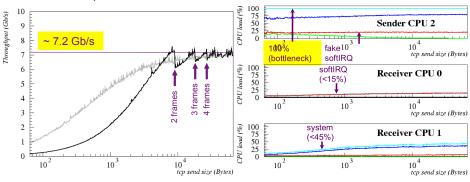
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TCP - Jumbo - TCP NODELAY



- Nagle's algorithm disabled. Segments are always sent as soon as possible, even if there is only a small amount of data.
- Small data packets no longer concatenated.
- Discontinuities of the UDP tests. 100 75 Sender CPU 0 UDP throughput not reached. due to the latency overhead of 10³ 104 the TCP protocol. tcp send size (Bytes



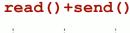
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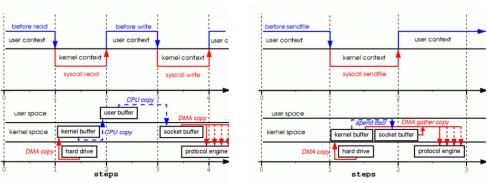
- The send() system call is used to send data stored in a buffer in the user space to the network through a TCP socket.
 - This requires the copy of the data from the user space to the kernel space on transmission.
- The sendfile () system call allows to send data read from a file descriptor to the network through a TCP socket.
 - Since both the network and the file are accessible from kernel mode, any timeexpensive copy from user space to kernel space can be avoided.

TCP – Zero Copy (II)

- #include <sys/sendfile.h>
- ssize t sendfile (int out fd, int in fd, off t *offset, size t count);
- out fd: file descriptor of the output socket;
- in fd: file descriptor of the open file;
- offset: start position in file:
- count: number of Bytes to be copied.



sendfile()



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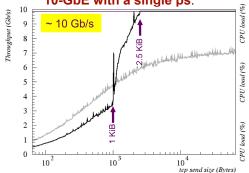
TCP – Jumbo – Zero Copy

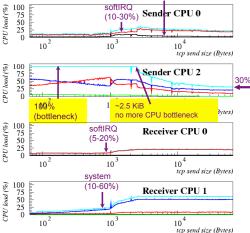
System IRO Soft IRQ Total

(1-10%)

Sender CPU 0

- sendfile() system call.
- Improvement with respect to send() more significant.
- For send size > 2.5 KiB:
- Throughput = 10 Gbit/s
- Sender CPU 2 load < 100%: down to 30%.
- Only test able to saturate 10-GbE with a single ps.





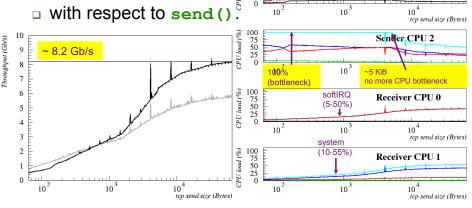
(10-30%)

TCP - Standard - Zero Copy



(10-30%) Sender CPU 0

- 1500 B MTU.
- Significant increase in throughput



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Modern network adapters usually implement various kinds of hardware offload **functionalities**

- □ The kernel can delegate heavy parts of its tasks to the adapter.
- □ This is one of the most effective means available to improve the performance and reduce the CPU utilization.







Setting the Hardware Offload

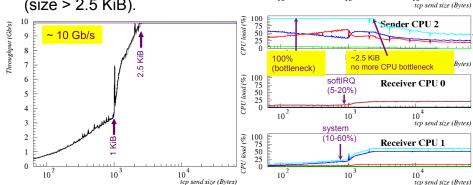
- Print offload functionalities:
 - ethtool -k ethX
- Set offload functionalities:
- ethtool -K ethX [rx on|off]
 [tx on|off] [sg on|off] [tso on|off]
 [ufo on|off] [gso on|off]
 [gro on|off] [lro on|off]
 - □ rx: receiving checksumming;
 - tx: transmitting checksumming;
 - sg: scatter-gather I/O;
 - tso: TCP segmentation offload;
 - □ **ufo**: UDP fragmentation offload;
 - gso: generic segmentation offload;
 - gro: generic receive offload;
 - □ lro: large receive offload.



TCP – Jumbo – Zero Copy – No TSO

- TSO (TCP Segmentation Offload) switched off.
- No differences in throughput:
 - 10-GbE link already saturated (size > 2.5 KiB).
- CPU load reduced by TSO (size > 2.5 KiB).

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TCP Segmentation Offload (TSO)

- When a data packet larger than the MTU is sent by the kernel to the network adapter, the data must first be sub-divided into MTUsized packets (segmentation).
- With old adapters, this task was commonly performed at the kernel level, by the TCP layer of the TCP/IP stack.
- In contrast, when TSO is supported and active, the host CPU is offloaded from such a segmentation task, and it can pass segments larger than one MTU (up to 64 KiB) to the NIC in a single transmit request.



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Large Receive Offload (LRO)

- Assists the receiving host in processing incoming TCP packets:
 - By aggregating them at the NIC level into fewer larger packets;
 - It may reduce considerably the number of physical packets actually processed by the kernel;
 - Hence offloading it in a significant way.

Soft IRO

(1-10%)

(10-35%)

Sender CPU 0

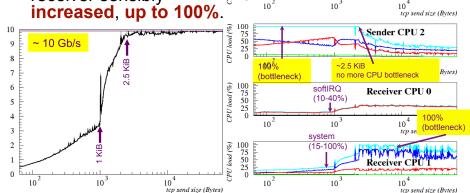


TCP – Jumbo – Zero Copy – No LRO

LRO (Large Receive Offload) switched off.

The **performance** (sizes > 2.5 KiB) slightly worse;

■ Total load of the CPU 1 ® receiver sensibly increased up to 100%.



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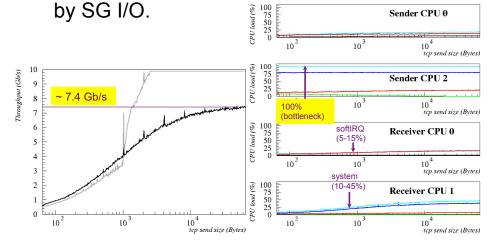
TCP – Jumbo – Zero Copy – No SG

Scatter-gather I/O switched off.

Performance significantly improved

by SG I/O.

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Scatter-Gather I/O (SG)

- The process of creating a segment ready to be transmitted through the network, starting from the transmission requests coming from the TCP layer. in general requires data buffering:
 - In order to assemble packets of optimal size, to evaluate checksums and to add the TCP, IP and Ethernet headers.
- This procedure can require a fair amount of data copying into a new buffer:
 - □ To make the **final linear packet**, stored in **contiquous** memory locations.
- However, if the NIC that has to transmit the packet can perform SG I/O, the packet does not need to be assembled into a single linear chunk:
 - Since the NIC is able to retrieve through DMA the fragments stored in non-contiguous memory locations.
 - □ This hardware optimization offloads the kernel from such a linearization duty, hence improving performance.



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Checksum Offload (CO)

- IP/TCP/UDP **checksum** is performed to make sure that the packet is correctly transferred:
 - by comparing, at the receiver side, the value of the checksum field in the packet header (set by the sender) with the value calculated by the receiver from the packet payload.
- The task of evaluating the TCP checksum can be offloaded to the NIC thanks to the so-called Checksum Offload.

System

• IRQ Soft IRQ

Total

(1-10%)

System

IRO Soft IRQ Total

Sender CPU 0

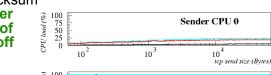
IRQ

(10-30%) Sender CPU 0

TCP - Jumbo - Zero Copy - No CO

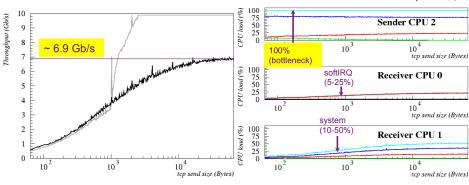
- Checksum offload switched off.
- Performance is significantly improved.

However, when the checksum offload is off. all the other offload functionalities of the are also switched off (SG, TSO, LRO, etc.).



System

Soft IRQ Total



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More Details



Summary

- Main **bottleneck**:
 - CPU utilization at the sender side:
 - System load of the transmitter process.
- Optimization:
 - CPU workload can be distributed among 2 CPU cores by separating the sender/receiver process from the IRQ/SoftIRQ handlers.
 - Jumbo frames in fact mandatory for 10-GbE.
 - In TCP transmission:
 - Improvement can be obtained by **zero-copy** (sendfile());
 - **Scatter-Gather** functionality sensibly improves the performance;
 - The **TSO** functionality helps the sender CPU.
 - The LRO functionality helps the receiver CPU.
- **Performances**: review of data transfer via 10-GbE links at full speed:
 - Using either the UDP or the TCP protocol;
 - By varying the MTU and the packet send size;
 - 2 UDP sender needed to saturate the link:
 - 1 receiver can play against 2 senders:
 - Using TCP+zero-copy+offload, 1 sender is enough to saturate the link;
 - Packet size crucial:
 - Using 10-GbE you could transfer data at 200 Mb/s maximum!

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Inaccuracy in SoftIRQ Accounting

- Inaccuracy in the kernel accounting (2.6.9-78.0.1, SLC 4.7) can lead to a wrong assignment of liffy counts to the SoftIRQ partition.
- The CPU tick is accredited to SoftIRQ if the softing count() macro returns a value ≠0.
- This value is incremented by local bh disable() function:
 - Usually called by the do softirg() function, i.e. the one which actually executes the SoftIRQ code.
- Problem: local bh disable() also called by local bh disable()
 - In turn called by other functions in the kernel.
- If a timer interrupt employed for accumulating kernel accounting statistics happens when the kernel is executing a function where local bh disable () has been called, the tick is incorrectly accredited to SoftIRQ time, while it was indeed a synchronous code and had to be accounted to System.







