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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF A NETWORK
TRANSFER LAYER FOR PARALLEL FILE S

A Thesis

Presented to
the Graduate School of
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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
Computer Engineering

by

Philip H. Carns

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Advisor: Dr. Walter B. Ligon III

ABSTRACT

This document describes the design and analysis of a network t the Parallel Virtual File System (PVFS). PVFS [6] is a parallel file sy at Clemson University for use on Linux based Beowulf [23, 2] cluster to serve as a platform for high performance I/O research while also n for a production parallel file system for the scientific computing co time, computational capability has improved so rapidly that there is large gap between I/O performance and processing power, even in th computer systems. This has led to a situation in which file system the primary bottleneck for a variety of applications. PVFS seeks t lution to this problem. Many components must be brought togethe this, including network communications, data storage, application faces, and scheduling. This document will focus on network comm intend to demonstrate and analyze a system for improving network usability for the purpose of high performance I/O. This system will of lessons learned from current file system implementations, as well cluster communication technology, to help achieve the specialized goa systems.

DEDICATION

To all of my family and friends who have supported me through

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Beowulf clusters

Beowulf clusters have become increasingly popular over the last few years for processing tasks [23, 2]. The beowulf architecture consists of a collection of workstations connected through a dedicated local network. These systems use source system software to provide the features expected of a parallel system, such as message passing, process management, and global file storage systems. They are intended to be used almost exclusively for parallel applications, and are restricted to maintaining the functionality of individual workstations. This is a cost effective approach to performing computationally intense research. Most of the components are either available as commodity hardware or free software.

Beowulf clusters have also provided many new avenues for system research and search. One reason for this is the diversity inherent in building custom machinery out of commodity parts. For example, this approach makes it challenging to create algorithms and scheduling policies that work well in all cases, because almost no two clusters are exactly alike. Today it is no

to just tune software for a specific vendor's hardware implementation made on one architecture may not be valid on another.

Systems research is also encouraged by the use of open source software to inspect, modify and redistribute modifications to even the most low level components makes it relatively easy to contribute improvements to the system. This leads to a cycle of gradual improvement in overall Beowulf cluster performance.

1.2 Parallel file systems

One important element of Beowulf system software is the file system. File system performance is increasingly important as processor speeds continue to increase at a much faster rate than data transfer speeds. In the past decade, CPU speed has increased from 100MHz to 1000MHz (a 100 fold increase) while average disk transfer speeds have increased from 3 Mbytes/sec to 12 Mbytes/sec (only a four fold increase) [13]. The result is that applications that require large amounts of file I/O are finding disk performance to be an increasingly larger bottleneck compared to computation time. In order to solve this problem, we must make more efficient use of existing storage technology. One way to do this is through the use of parallel file systems.

Parallel file systems are used to distribute data over several independent storage devices. This data is then presented to all of the application processes in a consistent name space. This combination of parallelism on both the application and storage side allows the I/O load to be distributed across an entire cluster (or a subset of the cluster) so that there is no single bottleneck point for performance. The bandwidth and storage capacity of this arrangement is typically much greater than what can be obtained by using a single shared file server.

One example of such a file system is the Parallel Virtual File System (PVFS) [6] which was developed at Clemson University. PVFS was designed to provide a

platform for high performance I/O research on Linux clusters. It has a stable production file system for use in the cluster computing community. PVFS makes use of common Linux features and brings them together into a homogeneous parallel file system. In its current form it utilizes the local file system available at each node for data storage and the TCP/IP protocol for communication between nodes.

1.3 New technologies

Since the initial PVFS design, many new technologies have become available that could potentially impact parallel file system design for Linux clusters. These developments have gradually reached near-commodity status, and the amount of reliable open source system software has grown tremendously.

1.3.1 Networking

Networking infrastructure for clusters has experienced rapid development. The first Beowulf clusters were built, both in terms of hardware and software. The most common hardware available for the earliest Linux clusters was 100Mbps Ethernet. Since that time, Gigabit Ethernet has also become commodity hardware. Gigabit Ethernet provides much higher network bandwidth without introducing significant overhead in application software. Several vendors have also introduced specialized networking hardware, some of which can take advantage of customized network architectures as well. While this hardware has not reached consumer level commodity status, it is much more affordable than the custom networking hardware traditionally used in commercial supercomputers. Hardware of this category includes (but is not limited to): Myrinet hardware from Myricom, Inc. [3], SCI hardware from Direct Data Connection LLC [1], and Giganet hardware from Emulex Corporation [10].

There are also more choices in network software and protocols. TCP/IP has been the standard for internet communications and was easily adapted for cluster use. However, TCP/IP has disadvantages in some environments. The overhead introduced in TCP/IP to handle geographically large clusters and unreliable hardware simply is not necessary in a typical cluster environment. Beowulf clusters, by definition, possess dedicated local networks. This allows the use of much lighter weight protocols.

Alternatives for network software and protocols include the Virtu architecture [28], Score/PM [26], GAMMA [8], Active Messages [29], and software such as GM [19]. Some of the features that may be provided by networking systems such as these are:

- User level operation that bypasses the overhead of interacting with the system kernel during communication
- Efficient abstraction of the underlying hardware
- Lightweight transmission protocols
- Low level programming interfaces that allow developers to avoid the overhead software features

Shared memory is another technology that has been around for a long time, but is perhaps now easier to use on Linux clusters. Multiprocessor systems are available at commodity prices. They allow faster interprocessor communication in some cases by using local shared memory rather than external networks. At the same time, some vendors have produced products which emulate shared memory across a collection of nodes that would normally communicate through traditional message passing.

1.3.2 Data storage

The most interesting technological advancements in commodity data have come from software developments. The Linux platform now has library support for Posix asynchronous I/O [5], while the Linux kernel has support for raw I/O. Asynchronous I/O allows multiple non blocking file I/Os to be initiated and later checked for completion. This potentially allows efficient handling of multiple requests and the ability to overlap other activities with file I/O. Another new development is the Raw I/O interface. It allows for directly accessing disk devices at the block level without using the file system cache and abstraction path. This opens up the possibility of writing applications that handle their own caching and device I/O independent of kernel algorithms. This potentially boost performance of applications that have very specific I/O needs that contradict generic operating system policies.

1.4 New research findings

In addition to advances in commonly available software and hardware, recent research and implementation has increased the knowledge base on parallel I/O. There are many new ideas and implementation lessons learned that are used in parallel file system design.

1.4.1 Scheduling

One of the most important research topics explored in the first generation of parallel file system design is Reactive Scheduling [24]. Reactive Scheduling is a new approach to making server side scheduling decisions for parallel file systems. The main goal is to dynamically choose appropriate scheduling policies depending on the state of the system.

This is in contrast to the traditional approach of trying to optimize a strategy to meet all of the needs of the file system.

The state of the system can be determined by system parameters such as CPU work or disk utilization, and also by the workload produced by the application. These parameters can be used as input to a system model. This system model predicts what scheduling policy should be used to obtain the best performance. The system dynamically switches to this policy. The scheduling policies are chosen from previous research, and could include ideas such as disk directed I/O, network directed I/O, or two phase I/O. The most important concept is the ability to compare policies and determine which policy is best suited to the current state.

This research has shown that scheduling decisions have an important impact on parallel I/O performance. We must be able to support efficient, multi-processor I/O in future work. Further work can also be done to explore policy decisions at higher levels of the file system abstraction.

1.4.2 MPI-IO

MPI-IO is a standard application interface for performing parallel I/O. It was released as part of the MPI-2 specification in 1997 [12, 18]. It provides a common interface for both C and Fortran applications. MPI-IO provides operations for non-contiguous and parallel file access (through features such as derived datatypes and collective I/O).

MPI-IO has been widely adopted. Several implementations, such as MPICH, are available. This has encouraged the creation of portable applications that take advantage of high performance I/O. The traditional portable Unix I/O interfaces do not provide many of the features necessary to achieve efficient parallel I/O, and the vendor specific I/O interface implementations do not work

native hardware. Thus it has become important to support MPI-IO features that make it's implementation easier and more efficient.

To obtain the best performance in an MPI-IO implementation, i given file system to provide two features. The first is the ability to des discontinuous patterns similar to those common in MPI-IO. This red of data packing and translation that must occur outside of the file sy the file system needs to provide an efficient, high throughput interfac a layer of abstraction which can potentially be detrimental to perfor important to lower the overhead in the I/O path as much as possible penalty.

1.4.3 Software engineering

PVFS has gradually become an accepted tool for use in production en the past few years. This has lead to its use in many diverse situations use of PVFS has made it important to locate and correct software e as possible. It has also forced the developers to continually update P track changes in technology.

From this we have learned the importance of thorough software e tice. This includes modular design, well defined interfaces, and comp mentation. The use of these practices makes it much easier to support project such as a parallel file system. New design decisions must ac lessons in order to be successful over the life of the project.

1.5 A new file system design

All of these changes in technology, as well as new information gain and implementation, have prompted the design of a new parallel file

PVFS. This new file system is currently transitioning from design to implementation. It will build upon new ideas and knowledge in order to provide a more powerful file system for Linux clusters.

The next generation Parallel Virtual File System will be made up of several components. Some of the most important components include the network transfer mechanism, the storage transfer mechanism, the application interfaces, the scheduling mechanisms. Each of these components (and several others) will be necessary in order to build a successful implementation.

1.6 Network layer requirements

This document will focus on just one component of a parallel file system: the network transfer layer. The network transfer layer is responsible for moving data between processes on a parallel computer. There are many ways to provide this functionality, but parallel file systems impose many requirements on the design of such a component. The special needs of parallel I/O and lessons learned from current designs have prompted the following list of requirements.

- *Simple application interface:* The interface to the network transfer layer should be concise and efficient. It should be well suited to describing the communication most often needed to perform parallel I/O, without adding unnecessary additional complexity in the design of other file system components.
- *Overlap of network I/O with other system tasks:* The network transfer layer should be designed to allow other application activity to continue while network I/O tasks are performed. This is of particular importance to scientific applications, where data storage I/O can be performed simultaneously with computation. I/O in many cases to improve efficiency. This will become even more important as multiprocessor systems become more common in the commercial

thus more common in cluster applications. Multiprocessor nodes benefit significantly from the ability to overlap network communication tasks.

- *Support for both user level and kernel level network API's:* As discussed in section 1.3.1, there are now a variety of approaches to network communication. Some of these approaches include operating system interaction to perform I/O directly from the user level. It is important for the system to be able to utilize both types of access efficiently.
- *Abstraction and modularity:* Access to the underlying network should be abstracted from the user level system components. This decouples the core design and algorithms of the parallel file system from being bound to a specific networking technology. It should be possible to completely replace the underlying network technology without the implementation of other system components.
- *Efficiency:* Almost any software abstraction layer induces a performance penalty to the application. The network transfer layer should seek to incur a penalty as much as possible. Network I/O is a performance bottleneck in common situations, and we cannot afford to constrain it further for additional features. The file system will be sensitive to both latency and bandwidth overhead.
- *Ability to interact with multiple networks simultaneously:* If the communication mechanism is not bound to a single network device, then it opens the possibility of more exotic cluster topologies. Hosts may interact with each other on exist on dissimilar networks in order to take advantage of the most efficient communication route to each.

1.7 Approach

Advances in technology and software engineering have suggested that an abstraction that can support a variety of network protocols would be a key to the development of parallel file systems. We believe that it is possible to create an abstraction that supports multiple protocols in this manner while still achieving high performance. The *Buffered Method Interface* (or *BMI*) has been developed as a platform for testing the feasibility of such an interface. This interface is intended to meet the requirements listed in section 1.6.

The remainder of this document is organized as follows. First, requirements will be discussed in order to provide background for the BMI design. Next, we will outline the actual architecture of the Buffered Message Interface. Finally, the BMI implementation on top of various network protocols will be used to evaluate its feasibility.

The results section will provide an analysis of the performance of the Buffered Message Interface. We will compare BMI performance to standard network data transfer to verify its effectiveness and determine if it meets the requirements. Finally, we will present the conclusions based on the findings and propose future work.

Chapter 2

Background and related work

2.1 The Parallel Virtual File System

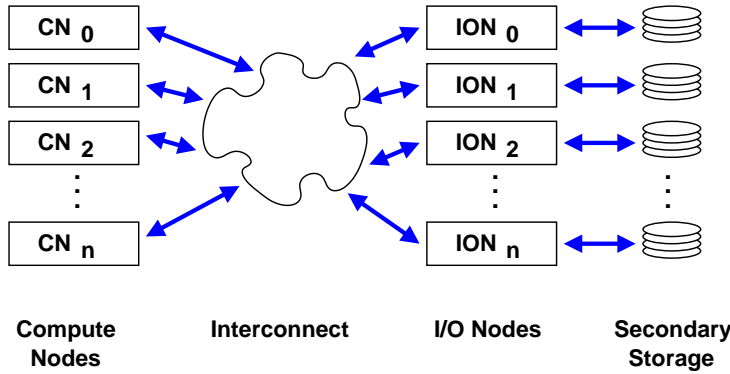
2.1.1 Motivation and goals

PVFS is a parallel file system for Linux clusters that was developed at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. It was originally designed to serve two main purposes. First, it was intended to be a platform for parallel I/O research. Secondly, it is intended to address the high performance community's need for a parallel file system for production use. It has been successful in both of these goals, prompting several researchers to gain acceptance as a high performance file system for use on production systems.

The following is a list of some of the key goals of PVFS:

- High bandwidth for parallel read and write operations to a single file.
- Flexible application interfaces, including support from the ROMIO and MPI-IO [27]
- Compatibility with existing applications that use the native Unix file system [14]
- Ability to tune file system parameters from the application level.

Figure 2.1: PVFS System Overview



- Scalability
- Robustness
- Ease of installation

PVFS emphasizes performance and research viability over high features. It therefore does not provide software level redundancy. It also does not provide any locking mechanism within the file system itself, nor any advanced security features such as encryption. These features are best met by other projects.

2.1.2 Architecture and implementation

The Parallel Virtual File System is implemented almost entirely in user space and does not require any kernel level support for its default mode of operation. Optional kernel level support is required to obtain compatibility with other systems that interact with the Unix I/O API [14]. PVFS makes use of existing system calls for its most low level operations, including TCP/IP for networking and a standard Linux file system (such as EXT2 or ReiserFS) for file data storage. PVFS runs across 32 bit and 64 bit Linux architectures.

The basic layout of a PVFS system is shown in Figure 2.1. Files are distributed across multiple cluster nodes that are connected by a local area network. No special hardware is required since PVFS makes use of existing operating system file system hardware. Each node that possesses a portion of the file system data must run one or more PVFS daemons that make the resources of that node available to other nodes. Client applications may run on these server nodes, or they may run on other nodes that are connected by the local area network. Client applications may access the file system through either a user level library, the ROMIO MPI-IO implementation, or the Linux kernel interface (outlined in section 2.1.4).

Manager

PVFS is made up of three primary components. The first is the metadata manager. There is exactly one manager per file system, regardless of its size. It is responsible for maintaining metadata. In PVFS, metadata refers to the collection of information and characteristics of files stored on the file system. This includes information such as ownership and permissions that are not actually part of the file data.

In addition to the standard Unix file properties such as those listed above, the metadata manager also maintains metadata that is unique to PVFS. This includes information such as distribution information for each file. This is used to determine which nodes in the file system possess file data, and how the file data is distributed.

The PVFS manager serializes all metadata operations from client applications to ensure metadata consistency. This is made easier by the fact that there is only one metadata manager, eliminating the need to maintain synchronization with another node. The metadata manager is a metadata information. It may seem like a performance bottleneck to have a metadata manager, but this is eased by the fact that the manager does not perform file data I/O operations. Once a client has verified permissions and metadata

does not communicate with the manager when reading or writing files. File I/O is handled by the PVFS I/O daemons, which will be outlined shortly.

I/O daemon

The I/O daemon is responsible for servicing I/O requests and storing data. There may be any number of I/O daemons, from as few as one to as many as the hardware of the system will permit. Each I/O daemon stores data on the local disks of the node that it is running on. When multiple I/O daemons are being used, data is striped across them in round robin fashion. The stripe size, offset, and number of I/O daemons to use can be specified by the user on a per file basis.

The use of multiple I/O daemons introduces parallelism on the server side of the file system. A client may have parts of its request serviced from multiple servers, thus leading to utilization of several separate disks and network links simultaneously, rather than waiting for service at one particular server. This style of access is tailored to improving throughput for parallel applications, especially those which demand large amounts of I/O. It may not be ideal for sequential parallel applications, because the client becomes a bottleneck for the servers, thus negating the advantage gained by having servers operate in parallel.

Each I/O daemon operates independently of other I/O daemons on the server. It is only aware of the portions of a file that it is in control of at any given time. The distribution remains static over the lifetime of a file in PVFS.

Client library

The PVFS client library enables applications to interact with the server. It is a C library for use in user level programs, and does not require any special interaction with the Linux kernel for communication. It provides a native PVFS interface that is derived from the standard Unix I/O API. Among other things, it in-

for opening, closing, reading, and writing to PVFS files. It also allows users to specify PVFS specific parameters for files, such as physical stripe size, and I/O daemons to use.

The native PVFS library also provides the ability to make direct read/write requests. This is an important feature for parallel applications that do not use the standard Unix interfaces. This is done by using a *partitioned file*. File partitioning allows a process to alter its view of a file logical file so that it can access discontinuous regions with single read or write requests. It is similar to file partitioning [9] and to file views provided by MPI-IO [12, 18].

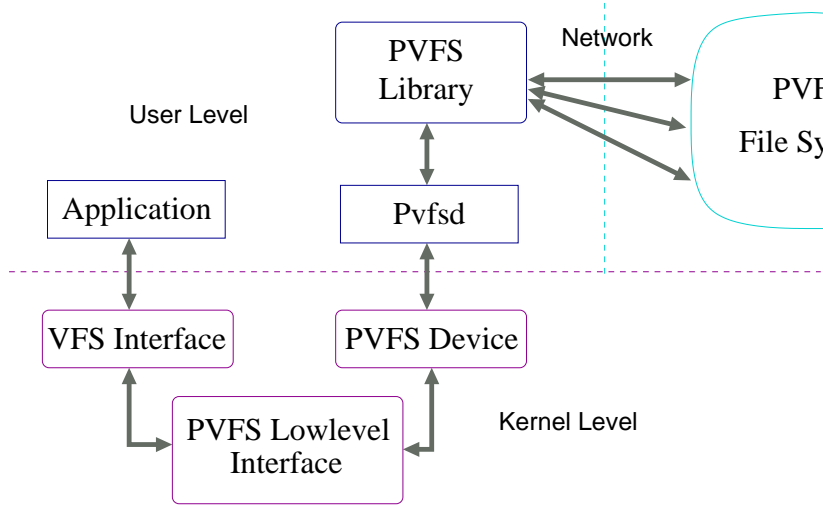
The PVFS library is responsible for orchestrating communication between the manager and any I/O daemons as necessary. For large systems, this may involve communicating with hundreds of servers. All of this is hidden from the application.

2.1.3 Low level I/O

All PVFS data is stored on standard local file systems. Each I/O daemon stores its portion of the data files on a local file system, and the manager stores its information on its local file system as well. This is in contrast to other implementations which write raw data to disks. By avoiding the use of raw disks, complexity is reduced, and PVFS benefits from features of the local file system such as caching or journaling.

All inter-node communication is carried out using the standard TCP/IP. This was the primary communication mechanism available for Linux clusters when PVFS was first designed. It provides reliable, ordered delivery and flow control for data communications. It is also available on almost every Linux cluster.

Figure 2.2: PVFS kernel architecture



2.1.4 Unix I/O compatibility

The PVFS client library provides an optimized path for applications using PVFS. It also provides access to PVFS specific parameters. However, it is not compatible with existing applications. This prompted the design of the pvfsd package as an alternative. It provides a kernel path for PVFS so that applications can interact with it just as they would any other file system. When used in this way, PVFS is mostly indistinguishable from a more traditional file system from the user's point of view.

The architecture of the PVFS kernel implementation is shown in Figure 2.2. It consists of both a user level and kernel level component. The kernel level components are implemented as a module, while the user level components are implemented as a client side daemon known as the pvfsd. The pvfsd is responsible for translating incoming file requests to native PVFS requests and communicating them over the network to the PVFS file system. This is done at user level because it provides better compatibility than a full kernel implementation. It allows the client to utilize the same mechanism that is required (some of which may not be available with

system kernel). It also allows the use of the standard PVFS library requests, rather than maintaining an independent interface within the kernel.

Communication between the user level pvfsd process and the kernel is carried out through use of a special device file. Requests are read out of the device file by the pvfsd, and responses are written back into it. Several methods of transferring bulk data through this interface are provided, but their operation is beyond the scope of this document.

This implementation attempts to be as modular and portable as possible so that it can survive multiple generations of file system design. All code specific to a particular file system implementation is maintained within a strict interface.

2.2 Virtual Interface Architecture

2.2.1 User level networking background

Communications hardware has advanced rapidly in recent years, creating many alternatives for high performance communications. Most Linux clusters are traditionally constructed with 10 Mbit or 100 Mbit Ethernet, but such networks have recently been augmented with more advanced commodity options, such as Gigabit Ethernet as well as specialized system area networks, such as Myrinet [3].

These advances in hardware have prompted research into the software side of cluster communication as well. Cluster specific system area networks, in particular, benefit from software interfaces and protocols which take advantage of hardware features that do not apply to general case local area networks. There are several areas of research at this level of communication that may be targeted for improvement. One of the major weaknesses in the use of general purpose communications in clusters is the amount of protocol complexity and the amount of operating system interaction that takes place during data transfer [4]. Protocol complexity arises from mul-

implementations that provide a wide abstraction from hardware, as inclusion of a large suite of features which may or may not be utilized. System overhead arises from relying on the system kernel to provide protection and resource allocation. These issues can be addressed by designing systems that more closely match the ability of the underlying hardware, removing the kernel as much as possible from the critical path of data.

This broad approach to optimizing application interaction with hardware has been termed *user level networking*. This approach was largely pioneered by the Messages project [29], which also encompassed several other topics such as protection and network interaction. This work continues today and has prompted research to include specific vendor offerings, such as GM [19], as well as industry initiatives such as VIA [28].

2.2.2 VIA specification

The Virtual Interface Architecture is an attempt at standardizing both the hardware and interface to user level networking across a variety of hardware architectures and implementors. It officially came into being in 1997 with the Virtual Interface Architecture Specification, which was the result of the efforts of several leading vendors, including Microsoft, Compaq, and Intel. The document outlines the architecture of VIA from both an implementation and a user's point of view. It draws heavily from well known research efforts such as *Architecture for User Level Networking* but its aim is to provide a usable, production level standard for user level networking on system area networks.

2.2.3 Architectural overview

The Virtual Interface Architecture model consists of several components: the *VI Provider*, *VI Consumer*, *Virtual Interfaces*, and *Completion*.

The VI Provider is made up of the hardware and software components that act to provide the resources necessary for a virtual interface. These resources include memory protection, connection setup and teardown, and error management. The hardware utilized is generally a network interface card. The hardware is specifically designed to support VIA (and is thus considered “VIA aware”) rather than a more traditional design, for which certain features of the VIA architecture are emulated. The software component of the VI Provider is usually a kernel driver. Note that this kernel driver is only responsible for a limited number of operations; it is typically only invoked during initial setup of communication between the provider and consumer, and is not directly involved in the data path for communication.

The VI Consumer can roughly be thought of as the user of the virtual interface. This is of course includes the application, but also encompasses the operating system components that the application uses to interact with the other VI components. The user interface is normally implemented as a user level library, and it has a set of functions that are used to invoke communication mechanisms. The user interface triggers the necessary kernel level setup mechanisms and abstracts the details of the other components.

The Virtual Interface itself is the mechanism that allows the consumer to interact with the provider in order to actually transfer data. The Virtual Interface per peer that the host wishes to communicate with maintains work queues for both send and receive operations. These work queues are a key concept in understanding how VIA operates. The queues do not actually hold data to be transferred in communication operations. Instead, they contain *descriptors* that describe the data to be transferred, as well as other information (such as status information) that are necessary to describe the communication. When the VI posts descriptors to the work queues, it uses *doorbells* to indicate to the network adapter that new work is available. Doorbells are very small, simple

intended to be implemented directly from the hardware so that no software intervention is required to notify the hardware. The doorbells may not always be needed, however. The goal is to provide information to the network driver as efficiently as possible so that it can use hardware mechanisms such as DMA transfers to move application data, rather than relying on additional software buffers for this purpose.

Completion Queues are provided as a mechanism for the VI to notify the application that messages have been completed. Once descriptors have been processed in the work queues, their status is filled in to indicate success or failure. The descriptors are then transferred to completion queues that were specified by the Consumer. The application can be made aware of the completion. Again, the goal is to minimize status changes and to transfer information about communication without requiring a kernel context switch or unnecessary interrupts.

2.2.4 Usage

The VIA model for communication implies that the application has more control and capabilities in the communication process than would be expected of traditional network interfaces. First of all, the application must be able to create and manage descriptors, descriptor and doorbell structures that are necessary for initiating data transfers. The application must explicitly post these structures and inspect them upon completion.

Additional constraints are also placed upon the memory regions that the application may use for communication. Networking hardware normally requires that the data to be locked into physical memory and specified in terms of physical addresses before being sent across the network. Traditional network driver implementations allow the operating system driver to handle this requirement, rather than expose it to the user. VIA, however, requires that the user explicitly register this memory registration before submitting a descriptor that references the memory.

Only memory that has been registered with the VI Provider may be used. Advance registration allows the Provider to directly access the region without an intermediate buffer. These regions may also be reused, so that the registration need not be incurred for every message.

The communication semantics of VIA are very lightweight. For example, message buffering is provided for receive operations. This means that applications must be posted before the message data arrives, or else it may be lost. This introduces more management responsibilities on the part of the application programmer to ensure that buffers are provided in a timely manner. In addition, the VIA specification outlines three levels of reliability which may optionally be provided. These levels of reliability differ in the amount of assurance that the application is guaranteed the successful arrival of messages. If a VIA implementation does not provide an enough level or reliability for the needs of an application, it may require the use of software in order to provide this functionality.

Due to the above application implementation requirements, VIA is often used as a foundation for a higher level API, such as MPI [18], or for the development of system software. These environments can take advantage of the Virtual Interface Architecture without requiring a new learning curve for applications programmer.

2.2.5 Implementations

There have been several adopters of the VIA specification thus far. The implementations are listed below with a brief outline of the approach taken to provide the specified features. This is a sampling of the level of acceptance within the high performance computing community.

Berkeley VIA

The Berkeley VIA project (based at UC Berkeley) is a research oriented project that has provided cross platform VIA implementations for Myricom's Myrinet [3]. They seek to provide a high quality VIA implementation, explore performance characteristics, and investigate possible improvements to the architecture. It is a full implementation of the specification, but it provides enough functionality to provide adequate performance and support most VIA applications. The Myrinet architecture it utilizes, though not designed explicitly for use with VIA, is highly optimized and provides most of the hardware features suggested for VIA implementation.

M-VIA

M-VIA is a research prototype VIA implementation from the National Institute of Standards and Technology Research Scientific Computing Center [16]. Its primary features include a modular design which should ease the work of porting to new hardware. It is a full implementation of the VIA standard and also allows coexistence with other protocols which may be supported by target hardware devices. M-VIA currently runs on a variety of Ethernet hardware by emulating in software some of the non-VIA features, though it can also take advantage of VIA accelerated hardware. Future releases target a more ambitious range of networking hardware.

Giganet

Giganet is a vendor hardware offering from Emulex Corporation [10]. It includes a full VIA software implementation, and network interface cards that are designed with VIA support in mind.

2.3 Virtual Machine Interface

The Virtual Machine Interface [21] is a high performance messaging API. The University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign and the National Center for Supercomputing Applications. It provides a uniform interface for interacting with heterogeneous networking systems. This interface may be used directly by an application, or as the foundation for implementing a higher level interface such as MPI. It provides connectionless, reliable, ordered delivery. It also requires no shared buffers to be registered, much like VIA [28].

VMI also provides several other advanced features that make it suitable for other network abstraction implementations:

- Different network types are supported through the use of dynamic device driver modules. This means that applications do not need to be recompiled to take advantage of new devices, nor to accommodate changes in cluster topology.
- VMI provides collective notification of process failure. If a single process in a computation crashes, then all peer processes are notified. This allows for graceful termination of the computation as a whole.
- VMI is intended to be portable across dissimilar platforms. It has been tested with both Linux and Microsoft Windows cluster environments, and is designed to interact on the same computation.
- A single host is allowed to communicate over multiple devices. This allows VMI to be used in heterogeneous network environments. Furthermore, extensions to VMI allow it to serve as a bridge across dissimilar networks, thus allowing full interprocess communication when only a limited number of nodes share connections to both networking systems.

As of this writing, VMI supports shared memory, VIA, and TCP communications. Support is planned for Myrinet and SCI networks as well.

2.3.1 Shared memory

The VMI shared memory device is used between processes that are on the same physical node within a cluster. It operates by providing a unique lock and synchronization structure between each pair of communicating processes. The shared buffer consists of a contiguous 1 Mbyte region that is writable by one process and read only for another. It may be allocated in 1 Kbyte pages. Synchronization is handled through a bounded circular queue that indicates the send and receive pointers for a pair of nodes. Lock based synchronization is avoided because the buffer is writable by one process at any given time.

2.3.2 VIA

The VIA device has been implemented using the Giganet device driver. The driver provides many of the primitives required for VMI module implementation. However, it does not provide flow control. VMI therefore implements a credit based flow control mechanism on top of VIA within the module.

2.3.3 TCP/IP sockets

The TCP/IP socket interface is not as close of a match to the VMI module requirements as VIA or shared memory communications are. Thus implementing a reliable protocol is more difficult. VMI currently supports a proof of concept implementation that has not yet been optimized for performance.

2.4 Message Passing Interface

The Message Passing Interface is a specification for application level message passing. It was defined by the MPI Forum in an attempt to provide a standard interface for message passing between parallel computers from a variety of vendors and researchers. In the process of the drafting of the MPI specification, many vendors provided their own libraries for message passing which made it difficult to create portable code. Many of these libraries shared the same fundamental features but differed in the terms of interfaces and syntax.

The initial MPI Standard (Version 1.0) was completed in May of 1994. This standard was later continued, resulting in the 1.1, 1.2, and 2.0 versions [17].

The MPI Standard encompasses both the application interfaces and the message passing system. This system provides many features, including point to point as well as collective communication. It also provides other features such as consistent process naming, virtual topologies, heterogeneous data types, performance monitoring tools, and profiling interfaces. The MPI-2 Standard includes enhancements such as parallel I/O, remote memory operations, and dynamic process management.

MPI has quickly become the default message passing library for many applications. There are implementations available for every major modern architecture.

2.4.1 MPICH

MPICH (or MPI Chameleon) is a portable implementation of the MPI standard supported by Argonne National Laboratory [11]. MPICH is unique in that its development began while the initial standard was still being drafted. The MPI Forum with immediate feedback from a design that tracked the

was developed. This also resulted in the availability of a working MPI as soon as the standard was finalized, which aided in its acceptance.

MPICH was originally constructed by taking advantage of existing preceding systems. One of these was parallel programming library which provided portable shared memory and message passing components was Chameleon, a package which focused on portability over a variety of message passing architectures. The final precursor was zipcode, which provided scalable libraries, such as contexts and groups.

The two most important design goals of MPICH were portability and performance. MPICH runs on a variety of systems and provides low level interfaces for portability to quickly port it to other environments. However, it strives to maintain performance by sacrificing overall performance.

MPICH architecture

The MPICH architecture was carefully designed to meet the goals of portability and performance. It can best be described in terms of three major components:

- *High level code*: The highest level MPICH code includes many components (such as groups, communicators, and opaque objects) which are independent of the underlying communications mechanism. Therefore, this portion of the design is implemented as a portable implementation that can be expressed in terms of high level abstractions.
- *Abstract Device Interface*: All high level MPICH code is written against the Abstract Device Interface (ADI). There are many separate implementations of the ADI for different architectures. It provides an interface for portability to quickly integrate new architectures without having to rewrite the entire library from scratch.

- *Channel Interface*: One implementation of the ADI uses the channel interface. The channel interface is a very small abstraction of the communication mechanism which can be implemented with as few as five functions. It is the quickest path to implement a new device, but at the cost of

The idea is for implementors to rapidly prototype a new device and get support for it at the channel interface level. As the implementation progresses, levels of abstraction can be replaced by device specific code, so that eventually has its own ADI implementation and perhaps even optimization functionality. Implementors therefore have the advantage of a portable solution for rapid prototyping but are not constrained by it in the long term.

2.5 Bringing together related work

Three distinct messaging abstractions have been discussed in the past: the Virtual Interface Architecture, the Virtual Machine Interface, and the Passing Interface. These tools are all currently available and perform their tasks quite well. However, the realm of parallel I/O on Linux clusters has needs which are not yet met by any single message passing implementation.

In order to be successful within the field of parallel I/O, a new network needs to bring together a hybrid of several features. It must be robust to small network failures so that errors on individual hosts do not impede activity. It furthermore must be capable of sustained client/server activity. Unexpected hosts may connect and disconnect from a file system mount while the system is running.

A network abstraction for parallel I/O must also be efficient for the problem domain that it is solving. There are many features critical to general purpose messaging tools that simply are not applicable in a client/server based system.

Supporting unnecessary features is almost undoubtedly a source of maintenance difficulties.

Finally, the network abstraction must share the file system's ability to operate efficiently and reliably on a variety of existing cluster architectures. Most clusters can not afford to experiment with sweeping system level changes because of disrupting ongoing computational work. We want to support traditional systems while also leaving the door open for work with more exotic architectures where possible.

Chapter 3

Design of the network transfer layer

The Buffered Message Interface (BMI) has been designed to serve as a network transfer layer for a next generation parallel file system. It is implemented as a library that provides a standard interface for communication between system components. Although designed for use within the Parallel Virtual File System, it is an independent entity which may be useful in other environments as well.

3.1 Communications model

BMI is a message passing system that provides reliability, ordering, and flow control. If a particular underlying network protocol does not provide one or more of these, then BMI is responsible for implementing it.

All communications operations in BMI are nonblocking. In order to send a message, the user must first *post* the message to the interface, then *test* it. The same holds for receiving messages. Once testing indicates that the message is completed, the user must check the status of the message in order to determine if it was completed successfully or not. Partial completion is not allowed.

In fact, every function defined as part of the BMI interface is non-blocking. A function may perform work before completing, but this work is guaranteed to complete within a bounded amount of time. This restriction implies that it may be necessary to test for completion of a message several times before it actually completes. There is no mechanism that allows the interface to “wait” indefinitely for the completion of a particular operation. This design decision was made because blocking calls (especially in large parallel systems) are prone to problems with deadlock and scalability. They may cause an application to hang in the event of a programming error. This is not acceptable within low level system programming.

When posting receive operations, the user must specify the address of the remote host and the size of the message to accept. The user cannot post receive operations to wildcard addresses. The only exceptions to this rule are unexpected errors as defined in section 3.3.

BMI is a connectionless interface; the user does not have to establish or maintain any link between hosts before sending messages. The BMI implementation may maintain connections internally if needed for a particular network or protocol. These details are not exposed to the user.

3.2 Memory buffers

The user must specify a memory buffer to use when posting send and receive operations. This buffer may be a normal memory region, or it may be a region of memory allocated using BMI memory management functions. If the user does not use the memory using the BMI facilities, then BMI has the opportunity to use a special buffer for the type of network being used. This mode of operation allows for achieving optimal performance. However, normal memory buffers are used in order to better support certain scenarios common to file system operations.

file system operations act upon existing memory regions (for example, Unix `read()` system call). In these situations, we would like to avoid in-copy, and instead give the BMI layer the flexibility to handle the buffer level if possible.

If a memory buffer is allocated using BMI function calls, then it must be located using BMI. These buffers are not guaranteed to be managed by operating system libraries.

3.3 Tags and unexpected messages

The BMI interface allows the user to specify a *tag* for each message. A message with a specific tag may only be accepted by a receive operation that specifies the same tag. This therefore provides for the user a mechanism to differentiate distinct classes of messages. However, one particular tag is reserved to have special meaning. This tag marks a message as *unexpected*. Unexpected messages are messages that are sent without the receiving host explicitly requesting communication. In other words, the receiving host does not post a receive for this type of message. Instead, it must periodically check to see if any messages have arrived in order to receive them successfully. This is similar to “listening” for new requests in a more traditional networking system. Unexpected messages may come from any host on the network. Communication between hosts is typically initiated by one of the hosts sending an unexpected message to the other.

3.4 Client/Server paradigm

The BMI system is better suited for client/server application models than peer models. This is made evident by the concept of unexpected messages.

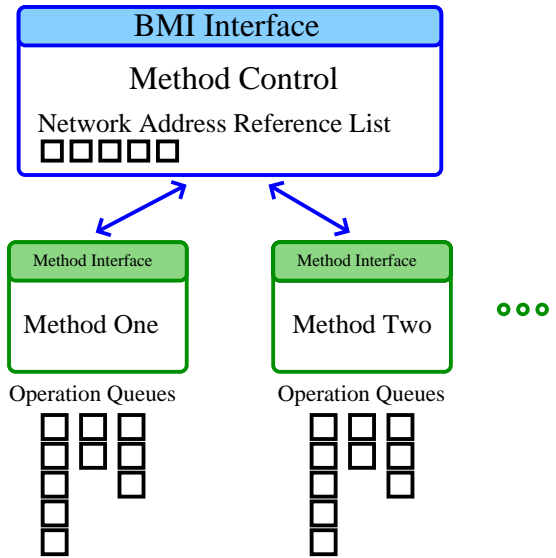


Figure 3.1: BMI Architecture

above. Consider the simple example of communication between two hosts. In this example, only one of the hosts will look for unexpected messages. This is the server. The other host acts as a “client” by sending unexpected messages to the server. The server then acts on it to perform some service. This service may involve the exchange of files or data between the two hosts.

3.5 Architecture

The overall architecture of BMI is shown in Figure 3.1. Support for incoming and outgoing protocols is provided by BMI *methods*. There may be any number of methods active at a given time. This collection of methods is managed by the *method control* layer. The method control layer is also responsible for presenting the top level of the interface to the application.

3.6 Method control

From a high level, the method control layer is responsible for orchestrating operations and managing the network methods. This includes several functions including address resolution, method multiplexing, and providing a user interface. It also provides a library of support functions that may be used by implementors.

One of the most important tasks of the method control layer is the management of network methods. When an operation is posted by the user, it is up to the method control to decide which method will service the operation. Likewise, when tests for completion, the method control must test the appropriate operations of interest.

The method control layer provides the BMI user interface. This is the interface for applications that communicate using BMI. The BMI interface functions translate user level requests into the appropriate low level method requests that are needed to complete the operation.

Address resolution is the final major responsibility of the method control layer. The method control manages the BMI level addresses and makes sure that the address space is consistent to the user, regardless of which methods are in use. This is done by maintaining an internal *reference list* for addresses. Each network method has a unique reference that provides mappings between BMI user level addresses and the representation of addresses, and the method specific representation of addresses. The BMI user level addresses are handles for network hosts that the application uses when calling BMI functions. The string representation is the ASCII host name that is used before they are resolved by BMI (as read from a “hosts” file, for example). The method address is the representation that that methods use for identifying hosts, which may contain information specific to that particular protocol. Network addresses are never, under any circumstances, exposed to the application. They are reserved for internal BMI use only.

3.7 Methods

Each method is implemented as a dynamically loadable module. They provide (and strictly adhere to) a predefined *method interface*. It specifies the ordered delivery and flow control for the protocol that it controls. Aside from these semantics and adhering to the method interface, there are no constraints on how the method should be implemented. Support libraries are provided for features that are common to many methods, but their use is optional.

Each method is responsible for maintaining the collection of operations it is currently working on, usually through operation queues. These collections are private to each method.

3.8 BMI user interface

The BMI interface can be separated into four small categories of functions: message initiation, message testing, memory management, and utilities.

The message initiation functions are used by an application to request or receiving of network buffers:

- **BMI_post_send(id, destination, buffer, size, buffer_flags, ...)**
Posts a send operation from the specified buffer. The id is returned by the function and serves as a unique handle for the operation to be used for completion. The buffer_flags are used to indicate whether the buffer is allocated by the application or by BMI.
- **BMI_post_rcv(id, source, buffer, size, buffer_flags, ...)**
Posts a receive operation. The argument semantics are the same as in BMI_post_send().

- **BMI_unpost(id)**: Forcefully aborts a previously posted operation. The target operation should still be retrieved through the `bmi_get()` function(), however. It may have completed successfully before it was processed.
- **BMI_addr_lookup(new_addr, id_string)**: Performs a local lookup of the actual representation of the host address specified by `id_string`. The BMI specific address handle is filled into the `new_addr` parameter and is used for subsequent network initiation functions.

The message testing functions are used to check for completion of operations:

- **BMI_test(id, outcount, state)**: Tests for completion of a single operation, as specified by the `id` argument. `Outcount` indicates the number of operations completed (which will either be zero or one in this case) and `state` parameter is filled in with the state of the operation in question when it completes.
- **BMI_testsome(incount, id_array, outcount, index_array, state_array)**: Tests for completion of any of a specified set of operations. The set of operations to look for is specified by an array of `id`'s of size `incount`. `Outcount` and `index_array` indicate how many of the target operations completed, while `state_array` indicate exactly which operations completed and what their state was. `BMI_testsome()` ignores any `id`'s within the `id_array` that are set to the null value of zero.
- **BMI_testglobal(incount, id_array, outcount, state_array)**: Tests for completion of *any* operations that are currently in progress. `incount` specifies how many operations the caller is willing to accept with one or more of the `id`'s in `id_array`.

BMI_testglobal. Id_array, outcount, and state_array are filled with information about which operations completed and what their final state was.

- **BMI_testunexpected(incount, outcount, info_array):** Returns information about the reception of any newly arrived unexpected messages. The incount parameter is the number of many operations the caller is willing to accept, while the outcount parameter is the number of how many actually completed. The info_array is filled in with information about each of each completed operation, including the source address, buffer address, and buffer size. These parameters are not known in advance by the caller (hence the *unexpected* nomenclature).

The BMI memory management functions are used to control memory allocation and deallocation. They are optimized for use with BMI:

- **BMI_memalloc(address, size, send_recv_flag):** Allocates a memory buffer of the requested size. The address parameter is the IP address of the remote host that will participate in the transmission of the buffer. The send_recv_flag indicates whether the buffer will be sent or received from the host.
- **BMI_memfree(address, buffer, send_recv):** Frees a memory buffer that was allocated with BMI_memalloc(). The address and send_recv parameters possess the same semantics as those used in BMI_memalloc().

The final collection of functions perform various utility tasks that are not directly involved in network I/O:

- **BMI_initialize(module_string, listen_addr, flags):** Initializes the BMI system. This function must be called before any other BMI initialization functions. The module string is a comma separated list of dynamic method names to be used. The listen addr is a comma separated list of parameters to be used by the methods use for receiving messages (if needed).

- **BMI_finalize()**: Shuts down the BMI library. This function is called once all network communication is completed. It will force any outstanding operations.
- **BMI_set_info(address, option, parameter)**: Sets options and parameters. If the address is specified, the function will only affect the operations responsible for that address. Otherwise, the function has a global effect on the BMI methods.
- **BMI_get_info(address, option, parameter)**: Queries the current values of the parameters.

3.9 Immediate completion

The default model for each network operation is to first post it and then wait for completion. However, there are often instances in which operations complete immediately (during the post procedure) and thus do not require the test phase. Examples of this occur when TCP sockets buffers are large enough to hold all data to be sent in one step without blocking. This may also occur on the receive side of communications if the required data has already been buffered by the operating system when the receive operation is posted.

In these situations, it would be good to avoid the overhead of posting and testing the test function. We therefore allow *immediate completion* from any network operation. Immediate completion is indicated from post functions by a return value of `BMI_SUCCESS`. BMI library users should always check this return value so that they can take advantage of opportunities to skip the test phase of communication.

3.10 Method interface

The method interface is very similar to the BMI user interface. It implements the same functions. However, it includes minor variations that take into account the fact that operations at this level are targeted for a single specific method.

The following listing describes the BMI method interface. Note that the arguments in this interface (*source*, *destination*, and *new_addr*) are of the *method address* structure type. Each method address contains binary information that can only be understood by the specific method that created it.

- **BMI_method_post_send(id, destination, buffer, size, buffer_flags, message_tag)**: Posts a send operation from the specified buffer. The *id* argument is returned by the function and serves as a unique handle for the operation. The *message_tag* argument is used when testing for completion. The *buffer_flags* are used to indicate whether the buffer was allocated by the application or by BMI.
- **BMI_method_post_recv(id, source, buffer, size, buffer_flags, message_tag)**: Posts a receive operation. The argument semantics are the same as those used in `BMI_method_post_send()`.
- **BMI_method_unpost(id)**: Forcefully aborts a previously posted operation. The status of the target operation should still be retrieved through the use of a `BMI_method_test()` function, however. It may have completed successfully before the `BMI_method_unpost()` was processed.
- **BMI_method_addr_lookup(id_string)**: Performs a lookup of the *id_string* to obtain a representation of the host address specified by *id_string*. The function returns the resulting method address structure as generated by the `method_addr_create()` function. The *id_string* is the address.

- **BMI_method_test(id, outcount, state):** Tests for completion of a single network operation, as specified by the id argument. Outcount indicates how many operations completed (which will either be zero or one in this case). The state parameter is filled in with the state of the operation in question when it completes.
- **BMI_method_testsome(incount, id_array, outcount, info_array, state_array):** Tests for completion of any of a specified set of operations. The set of operations to look for is specified by an array of id's of size incount. Outcount indicates how many of the target operations completed, while info_array and state_array indicate exactly which operations completed and what their final state was.
- **BMI_method_testglobal(incount, id_array, outcount, info_array, state_array):** Tests for completion of *any* operations that are currently in progress in a single method. Incount specifies how many operations the caller is willing to accept with one invocation of BMI_method_testglobal. Id_array, info_array, and state_array are filled in to indicate which operations completed and what their final state was.
- **BMI_method_testunexpected(incount, outcount, method_unexpected_info_array):** Tests for completion of any newly arrived unexpected messages. Incount indicates how many operations the caller is willing to accept, while outcount indicates how many actually completed. The method_unexpected_info_array is filled in with a description of each completed operation. Note that this array is different from the info_array argument to the top level BMI_test function. This is because it contains information that is private to the library and therefore should not be visible to a BMI user.

- **BMI_method_memalloc(size, send_recv_flag)**: Allocates a memory buffer of the requested size. The send/recv flag indicates whether the buffer will be sent or received from the local host. No address is needed because the top level interface has already used that data to create the method to use. It is not needed at this level.
- **BMI_method_memfree(buffer, send_recv)**: Frees a memory buffer that was allocated with BMI_method_memalloc(). The send_recv parameter has the same semantics as in BMI_method_memalloc().
- **BMI_method_initialize(listen_addr, method_id, flags)**: Initializes a method. This function must be called before any operations are performed on the method. The listen_addr is a method address that contains information on how the method should listen for new messages. The method_id is used to inform the method of the id handle that will be used to identify the method and its address structures. This is assigned by the method to prevent collisions between method identifiers.
- **BMI_method_finalize()**: Shuts down the method. This function can only be called once all network communication is completed. It will terminate any outstanding operations. Each individual method is shut down independently without disrupting any other operations.
- **BMI_method_set_info(address, option, parameter)**: Sets method specific parameters.
- **BMI_method_get_info(address, option, parameter)**: Queries method info for optional parameters.

3.11 Support libraries

The BMI library provides several support functions which may aid method implementers when implementing support for new protocols. Each method or protocol must declare the functions to be visible to it once it has been dynamically loaded. These functions are intended to be as generic as possible so that they can be used by a variety of different methods.

3.11.1 Operation queues

Every prototype method implemented so far makes use of FIFO queues to manage a set of pending operations. Operations are described by generic operation structures which include common parameters (such as buffer size and location). The `op_queue` module includes abstract storage space for private method specific parameters (such as control or device management information). The operation queue module is based heavily on the doubly linked list implementation found in several series Linux kernels. This implementation is used throughout the kernel, such as CPU scheduling and the TCP/IP stack which require data structures that are optimized for speed.

- **`op_queue_new()`**: Creates a new operation queue.
- **`op_queue_cleanup(old_op_queue)`**: Destroys an existing operation queue as well as any operations contained within it.
- **`op_queue_add(target_op_queue, method_op)`**: Adds a new operation onto the tail of a queue.
- **`op_queue_remove(method_op)`**: Removes a specific operation from the queue in which it resides.

- **op_queue_search(target_op_queue, key)**: Searches for an operation that matches the characteristics specified by the key. All searches are performed on the target operation queue.
- **op_queue_empty(target_op_queue)**: Determines whether the target operation queue is empty or not.
- **op_queue_count(target_op_queue)**: Counts the number of operations in an operation queue. This function requires iteration through all elements of the queue. It is therefore only suitable for debugging purposes where performance is not critical.
- **op_queue_dump(target_op_queue)**: Prints out information about each operation in the queue. Only used for debugging and prototyping.

Two related functions are also provided for managing the creation and destruction of operation structures:

- **alloc_method_op(payload_size)**: Allocates a new operation structure, including enough room for the private data payload that a programmer may wish to store within it. Note that this private data is provided contiguous to the generic structure for efficiency.
- **dealloc_method_op(target_op)**: Deallocates an existing method operation structure.

3.11.2 Method address support

Method address structures are used by methods to identify network operation structures, they contain private storage for internal method functions are provided to aid in managing these structures:

- **alloc_method_addr(method_id, payload_size)**: Creates a method address structure. The `method_id` field is used to tag the structure as the method that created it. The `payload_size` indicates how much space is set aside within the structure for private use by the method.
- **dealloc_method_addr(old_method_addr)**: Destroys an existing method address structure.
- **bmi_method_addr_reg_callback(target_method_addr, callback)**: Registers a callback by a method to inform the method control layer that it should be destroyed. The method address structure. The function is typically invoked when an expected message arrives and the method must autonomously create a new method address structure to represent the source host. The new method address structure must be registered with the method control layer so that it is accounted for in the method address structure for bookkeeping purposes.

3.11.3 Logging and debugging

The BMI library includes a set of functions known as the *gossip* library. These functions can be used for reporting errors, logging messages, or providing debugging information. The *gossip* library was created to provide a consistent interface for performing these tasks. It also can be implemented with various backends that can be used at runtime to control where the log messages are actually recorded. At present, it supports `stderr`, `syslog`, and file based logging. In the future it will support other mechanisms such as in core ring buffers.

Gossip also supports setting debugging masks, which can control which log messages are actually recorded. This is useful in BMI for selecting which log messages actually display debugging output.

- **gossip_set_debug_mask(debug_on, mask)**: Controls whether debug messages are on or off. The mask parameter specifies what class of messages will be displayed if debugging is turned on. Note that debug messages *cannot* be disabled.
- **gossip_enable_syslog(priority)**: Enables the syslog logging facility and the syslog priority that will be assigned to each message.
- **gossip_enable_stderr()**: Enables the printing of error messages to the standard error stream.
- **gossip_enable_file(filename, mode)**: Enables the logging of messages to a specific file. The mode parameter is useful for specifying if the file should be truncated or appended.
- **gossip_disable()**: Turns off the gossip library.
- **gossip_debug(level, format, ...)**: Logs a printf() style message at the specified debugging level.
- **gossip_err(format, ...)**: Logs a printf() style error message. The message will be recorded regardless of the current debugging mask.
- **gossip_ldebug(level, format, ...)**: Same as the gossip_debug() function, except that it also displays the file name and line number from which the message originated on systems with preprocessors that support this feature.
- **gossip_lerr(format, ...)**: Same as the gossip_err() function, except that it also displays the file name and line number from which the message originated on systems with preprocessors that support this feature.

3.11.4 Operation id's

Each method is responsible for creating opaque id's that can be used to refer to operations that are currently in progress. Typically these id's will be used to map user requests to specific operation structures. The *id_generator* library provides a set of functions to aid methods in performing this mapping operation. This functionality is provided within a discrete interface to allow for multiple implementations which can use hash tables or other data structures to store mapping information. It also ensures that the id space is consistent across all methods.

- **id_gen_fast_register(new_id, void* item)**: Registers a new operation with the interface and creates a new id that may be used to refer to that operation.
- **id_gen_fast_lookup(id)**: Returns a pointer to the original operation that was associated with the given id.

All of the interfaces listed in the preceding section come together to form the *method support libraries* that method implementors should take advantage of when creating new methods.

3.12 Method control implementation

The method control layer (as introduced in section 3.6) is responsible for handling the conversions between the BMI user interface and the method interface and the method multiplexing that this implies. This is a relatively thin layer but it plays a critical role in providing core BMI features. Some of the tasks that it performs are outlined in the following sections.

3.12.1 Method initialization

The BMI library must perform several steps when it is first initialized. At the point at which it must enable all of the active modules and initialize bookkeeping information. The steps that it performs at this time are outlined as follows:

1. Parse the list of modules that will be used by the library.
2. Create a table to track each method and its instantiation of the method interface.
3. Load each method module one at a time and verify that it provides the symbols required by the method interface.
4. Create a reference list to use for mapping host addresses between the method faces.
5. Initialize each method individually.

If any of these steps fails, then the initializer cleans up any work done up to that point and exits.

3.12.2 Posting and testing single operations

Posting and testing individual operations is relatively simple because it involves interacting with only one method at a time. These functions are carried out as follows:

1. Verify any arguments passed in by the user so that the method can safely assume that they are safe.
2. Search through the reference list for an entry that matches the operation requested by the caller.

3. If such an entry is not found, return an error because the user's address is invalid.
4. Find the method interface that matches the address (as indicated by the reference structure) and call the appropriate method to carry out the operation.

3.12.3 Aggregate operation tests

Testing operations from multiple methods within one library call is a complicated version of the scenario outlined in section 3.12.2. This situation is handled by the `BMI_testsome()` and `BMI_testglobal()` function calls. The ability to interact with multiple operations at once.

In the `BMI_testsome()` case, the array of operations that the user wants to test is segregated based on which methods control which operations. Each method is tested in a round robin manner to determine if any of those operations are successful. The results of the tests are aggregated back into a single array and returned to the user.

In the `BMI_testglobal()` function is similar except that the set of operations to be tested is known in advance; therefore the initial sorting phase can be skipped.

The order in which round robin testing occurs is determined by the user. If the user previously specified the list of method modules at initialization, then high throughput interfaces can be given a somewhat higher priority than others. If not, then they are tested first in the set of available method modules.

3.12.4 Address resolution

Address resolution is the final critical component of the method component. The following steps are performed in order to lookup an address based on a host name:

1. Search the reference list to determine if this lookup has already been performed. If so, immediately return the correct BMI address.
2. Contact each active method until one of them indicates that it can successfully parse the host name.
3. Create a new reference structure to track the address.
4. Fill in the reference structure with information about which method is responsible for it and which address handles may be used to refer to it.
5. Store the reference structure and return a valid BMI address to the caller.

Note that since BMI is a connectionless interface, there is no way to know that an address is truly valid until a user attempts to communicate with it.

3.13 Bringing together the BMI library

The preceding sections outline all of the components that make up the agnostic portion of the BMI architecture. All of these components are constructed to limit each interface to only those components that are necessary. A user has no mechanism for directly interacting with method data or functionality, nor does any method have the ability to interfere with the operation of other methods. Modularity is preserved by only providing the abstract interface of each interface to a given component. This helps to provide a safe and consistent interface for both the BMI user and the method implementer. It also insures

portions of the BMI architecture may be modified or optimized with core functionality. This is important in supporting future research.

The method control layer, support libraries, and user interface framework for the use of various network protocols, however. The real-time communications and emulating necessary network features is carried out by the BMI methods. The design of a set of prototype methods is discussed in the following chapters.

Chapter 4

BMI method case studies

For BMI to be successful, we must be able to efficiently implement highly diverse networking environments. Thus we have chosen two different systems as examples of the potential of the Buffered Message Interface. The first is TCP/IP. TCP/IP is a well known and widely adopted network protocol. It is stream based and connection oriented, and provides full flow control. The second is GM. GM is a user level protocol that is supported on many series of network adapters. GM is connectionless and provides no flow control.

These two protocols were chosen for two reasons. The first is their diversity. If BMI can be shown to work efficiently over both protocols, that provides at least some indication that the design is flexible. The implementation will outline the challenges that were overcome for each method in many environments. Secondly, both protocols are mature and readily available on production systems. Their behavior is well known and does not introduce any unexpected surprises. This makes them ideal for studying network implementations.

Note that both implementations are essentially reference designs. Other implementations are available then have been implemented. Some of these have

for future work and will be noted where appropriate. The primary concern is on obtaining dependable behavior and evaluating the Buffered Message

4.1 Method support libraries

Several support functions are provided for use by the BMI methods. Some of these functions were previously outlined beginning in section 3.11. The most important of functions provide queuing capability. Almost every network method uses queues to keep track of network operations. Other support functions manage two important data structures: the method addresses and method handles. Method addresses are used as handles for hosts on the network. Operation handles are used to represent individual operations that are posted by the application. These structures contain generic fields that apply to all methods while also providing space for each method to store its own private information.

4.2 TCP/IP

4.2.1 Challenges

- **Connectionless emulation:** The TCP/IP socket interface is connection-oriented. This means that a connection must be established between two hosts before communication can occur between them. It should also be closed after all communication is complete. BMI, however, is a connectionless interface. The act of setting up and tearing down connections must be done below the application interface, transparent to the application.
- **Data streams:** TCP/IP sockets operate as data streams. There is no explicit concept of message boundaries. Any amount of data can be sent or received in a single operation, but it may not necessarily be

Partial sends and receives are legal when using nonblocking T. This behavior does not match the BMI model of communication each message as an atomic unit that is either sent correctly or

- **Error recovery:** Recovery from communication failure using T what complicated within the BMI environment. TCP/IP socket a bit of state because of the presence of a connection and a d single operation fails, it is important to properly tear down a and safely handle any further pending operations that intended socket.

4.2.2 Approach

Building blocks

The TCP/IP method implementation is based on three primary build first is the sockio library, which provides a very small abstraction of t interface. It implements the basic operations, such as creating soc sockets, setting TCP options, and performing read and write operati library has been used extensively in the current PVFS implementation to perform reliably.

The second building block is the socket collection library. The s library provides a mechanism for managing groups of active socke added to it as they are created, and removed from it as they are socket collection tracks all of the sockets and determines which ones send or receive data. When the TCP/IP method is prompted to do collection is tested to determine which sockets are ready to handle o internal polling set is dynamically resized as necessary to accommo large collections of sockets. This interface also allows the possibilit

ing new polling strategies without compromising code that depends on message collections.

The final building block for the TCP/IP method is the operation control layer provided by the method control layer. The queues are necessary to maintain the ordering of messages and to keep track of operations that are currently in progress. There are a fixed number of queues available that are used for communication with all hosts. This approach is chosen over maintaining separate queues for each host for reasons of simplicity and maintainability. We intend to show that the use of method queues is not detrimental to performance as long as the queue management and searching is performed in an efficient manner.

Message modes

The TCP/IP method offers three modes of operation depending on the size of the message to be sent. The first, unexpected mode, is specifically designed for when sending unexpected messages as outlined in section 3.3. The other two modes, rendezvous and rendezvous mode, are transparent to the user and are internally implemented using the TCP/IP method based on the size of the data region to be transferred.

The semantics of each mode of operation are defined as follows:

- **rendezvous:** This is the simplest messaging mode supported by the TCP/IP method. It is chosen for larger messages (the default threshold is 16 Kbytes). In rendezvous mode will be used for any message over 16 Kbytes. In this situation, the sender will first send a header describing the message. The receiver will immediately follow it with message data. The receiving method will not read the header at any time. However, it will not begin to read in the data region until the receiving user has posted a matching receive operation. This mechanism is termed “rendezvous” mode; the bulk data transfer is handled by the TCP/IP method.

allowed to occur until both the sending and receiving user has completed the operation.

- **eager**: This messaging mode is chosen by the TCP/IP method. The message sizes (by default, less than 16 Kbyte in size). The sender (in the rendezvous case) first transmits a header describing the message, then follows it with the actual message data. The receiver will accept the message, then make a decision about how the message data should be handled. If a matching receive operation has already been posted by the user, the message data will be read into the receive buffer for that operation. If no receive has not yet been posted, then the receiving method will allocate a temporary buffer for the data to be stored in. This allows the operation to make progress even if the receiving user is not yet ready. Once the matching receive operation is posted, the data can be moved to the final buffer and the temporary buffer is destroyed.

- **unexpected**: Unexpected messages are handled in an almost identical manner to eager messages. The only variation is that there is no final buffer. The sender transmits data before the receiver is ready. Instead, the data buffer is passed to the user when the user checks to see if any unexpected messages have been received. The semantics of unexpected messages is that the receiver does not get a chance to specify the destination of the message. It is created by the method.

It is interesting to note that in all three cases the sending method is the same. This seems counter-intuitive at first because it would appear (in the rendezvous case) that the sender should wait until the receiver is ready before transmitting the actual message data. However, we can rely on the behavior of the TCP/IP sockets interface in this context. TCP/IP

sender to start sending data before a receiver is ready. The data is stored in a buffer at the operating system level until it can be transferred. This buffering can increase overall latency and throughput because the operating system does not respond to user intervention to begin moving data once the opportunity arises.

Queuing model

As mentioned earlier, the TCP/IP method uses queues to keep track of pending operations that are either in progress, awaiting resources, or completed. The following queues are used:

- **Send queue:** Contains all send operations (for any mode of operation) that cannot be initiated yet. Operations are typically queued here because a previous operation to the same address has not yet completed. This queue ensures the correct message ordering when multiple send operations are posted.
- **Completed queue:** Contains all operations that have completed, regardless of whether successful or not. Operations are removed from this queue when the user has queried with the appropriate `BMI_test` function.
- **In-flight receive queue:** Contains a list of receive operations that have been begun but are not yet completed. It provides a fast mechanism for determining where incoming data should be placed once a socket has data available.
- **Eager receive queue:** Contains receive operations that are ready to be accepted in eager mode. These operations have not yet received data. Once data begins to arrive for a particular operation, it will be moved from the in-flight receive queue.
- **Rendezvous receive queue:** Contains receive operations that are ready to be accepted using rendezvous mode. These operations have not yet received data.

data begins to arrive for a particular operation, it will be moved to the receive queue.

- **Buffering receive queue:** Contains eager or unexpected receive operations which have begun buffering data before the user posted a match. This queue is searched when an eager message is posted to determine if the operation has already been completed.

Notice that there are more receive queues available than send queues for two reasons for this design. First of all, as noted earlier, all send operations are treated the same from the method's point of view. There is no distinction between TCP/IP sends that occur for different message modes. Secondly, the receive operations requires more queue searching than in the send case. This gain a measurable boost in performance by simply splitting up the queue search time.

Scenarios

The internal workings of the TCP/IP method can best be summarized with a few simple examples. The first example is an eager mode send operation. Figure 4.1. The operation begins with the user calling `BMI_post_send()`. The method will first check to see if there are any sends already scheduled for the socket. If it finds one, the message is immediately queued to preserve order. If not, the method makes an attempt to send the message envelope and as soon as it can (without blocking) before queuing. If the message is completed successfully, it is never queued, and the return value of `BMI_post_send()` indicates its completion.

If the send does not complete on the first try, it will remain in the queue until the internal socket collection indicates that work may continue on the socket. Since the TCP/IP method does not possess its own thread of control,

Figure 4.1: TCP method (typical send scenario)

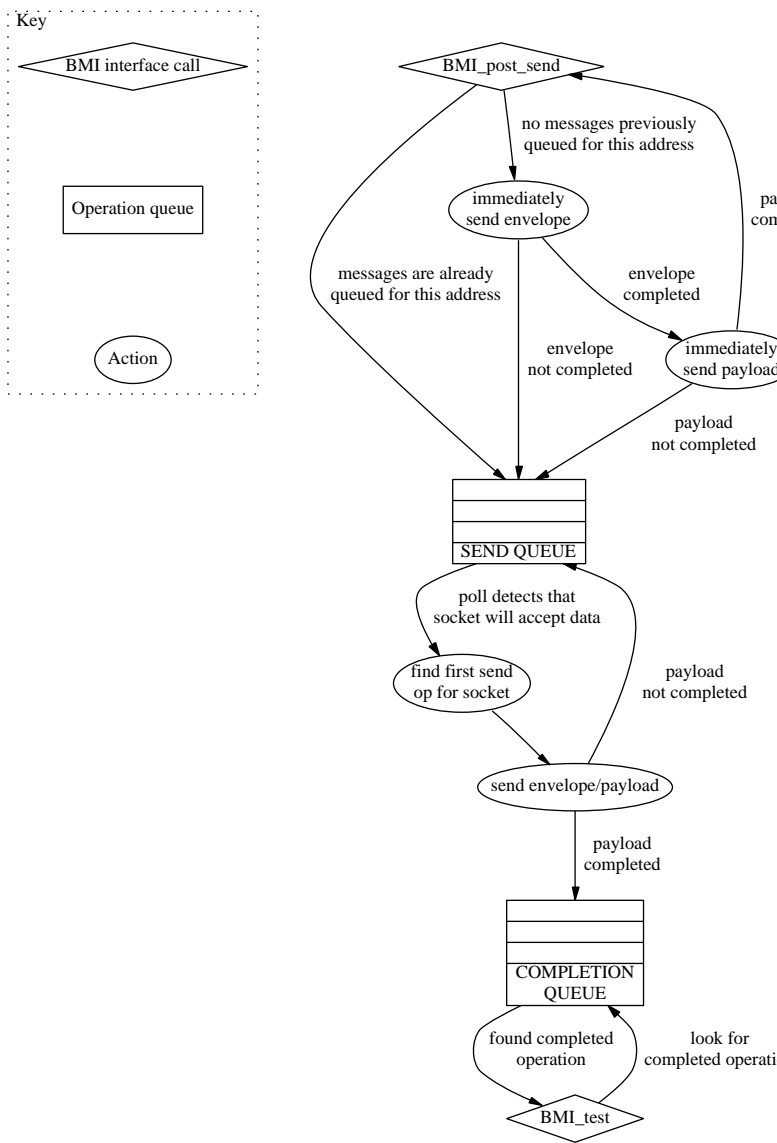
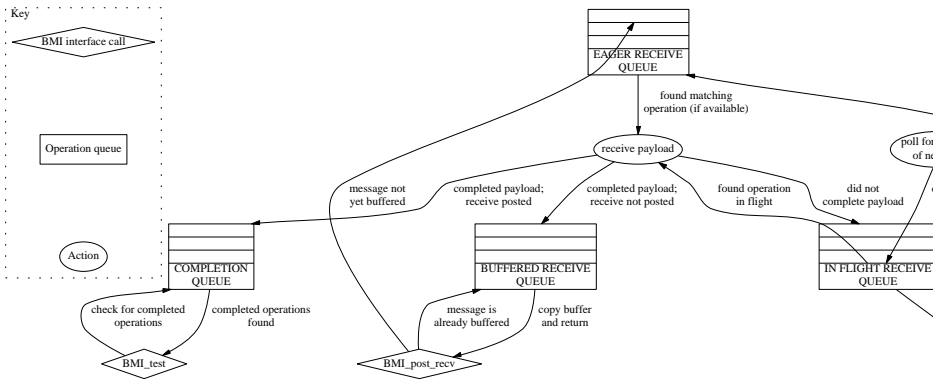


Figure 4.2: TCP method (typical receive scenario)



work until the user calls `BMI_test()`. Once an operation is finished, it is moved to the completion queue, where it will be recovered by the user in subsequent calls to `BMI_test()`.

The common receive scenario is slightly more complicated than the one outlined in Figure 4.2. Figure 4.2 outlines the flow of events for an eager mode receive. When `BMI_test` is called by the user, it first checks to see if the receive has already completed. If so, it copies the payload out of the temporary buffer and returns it to the user. Otherwise, the receive operation is queued.

When the socket collection indicates that data is available, the method polls the in flight receive queue to see if the data belongs to an operation that is in progress. If the method finds a match, it continues receiving data. If no matching operation in flight, then the method reads the envelope from the socket to determine the parameters of the message.

If an operation completes before the matching receive has been posted, it will be stored in the buffered receive queue. Otherwise, the operation is moved to the completion queue where it remains until the user tests to see if it

4.2.3 Possible optimizations

The approach outlined thus far for implementing a TCP/IP BMI method to provide the correct messaging semantics. However, there are several optimizations which may be implemented to improve performance. Some of these are presented below. A few of them will be explored more fully in section 4.3.

- **Nagle's algorithm:** Nagle's algorithm [20] attempts to improve performance in distributed networks by limiting the number of small packets sent over a given time. If TCP/IP messages have been sent for which no acknowledgment has been received, then Nagle's algorithm prevents packets below a certain size threshold from being transmitted until all acknowledgments have been received. This may cause excessive delay for small messages if the network is congested. It does not need such a conservative approach to small messages. Modern TCP/IP implementations have a mechanism for disabling Nagle's algorithm from the application level.
- **Eager receive opportunities:** Immediate completion of any pending receive operation is beneficial to performance because it avoids the overhead of completing later. The TCP/IP method does not yet take advantage of such opportunity in the receive case. One example occurs if a receive is pending when no other receive is queued for that address. In this situation, the receiver takes the optimistic approach and immediately check the matching address. If the sender has already begun transmitting, then the receiver can immediately make progress before it is even queued.
- **Tuning socket buffers:** The amount of data that can be buffered for a send or receive is determined by the operating system's TCP/IP buffer size. This parameter may be specified globally for the entire system or may be specified on a per socket basis. If it is set on a per socket basis,

method has the ability to adjust the buffer size dynamically based on the type of operations being handled. It may be lowered to conserve resources, or increased in order to allow the kernel to do more work per call.

- **Reducing memory allocation:** Dynamic allocation of memory is an expensive operation. At this time, the TCP/IP method allocates internal bookkeeping structures as needed, rather than reusing allocated structures. This may be hindering small message latency in some cases. In particular, the method operation structure (which tracks state for network messages) is allocated for almost every message that is processed. This could be alleviated by simply replacing the method operation structure with an implementation that maintains a pool of structures that are pre-initialized and ready for use. Similar techniques are used in other operating system kernels to limit the overhead of acquiring common data structures.
- **Queue separation:** The range of available operation queues represents a compromise between method complexity and queue search time. The current queues may not be optimal for all work loads. The queues could be reorganized to provide more information about search times. This may indicate areas that could be targeted for improvement in queue layout.
- **Alternative polling algorithms:** The current implementation processes sockets in the same order through the socket collection on each iteration. This could be replaced with a round robin or other simple polling mechanism that evenly distributes work among active sockets. We may also be able to handle situations in which more than one message can be placed in a socket during an iteration. Right now the test functions try to send or receive one message per socket for each function call.

4.3 GM

4.3.1 Challenges

- **Memory management:** GM requires all data buffers to be pinned to physical memory before transmission. We can take advantage of this by using the memory management functions. However, we must also support arbitrary user buffers at the BMI interface level. This requires either memory copies or memory registration to maintain interface semantics.
- **Flow control:** GM does not provide any form of message level flow control. In fact, it requires that all receive buffers be posted before message transmission begins. Therefore, the BMI method must implement flow control. We cannot relax the message ordering semantics. BMI does not guarantee ordering between sender and receiver.
- **Matching posted buffers:** There is no way to specify which incoming message will match a given receive buffer posted by the GM user. The user must ensure that a buffer is only to be used for messages from a particular host. Therefore, once a message is received, the method must analyze the message to its origin and perform a memory copy if necessary to put the data at the user specified location.
- **Limited token resources:** The GM interface forces the user to limit message posting sends or receives unless it possesses an appropriate token. There is a finite number of tokens. They are consumed when a send or receive buffer is posted. The tokens are then returned when a message transmission completes.

4.3.2 Approach

The BMI GM method implementation relies heavily on the queuing provided by BMI to preserve message ordering and maintain the state. It also takes advantage of several features specific to the GM library that assist in managing message completion.

Message modes

The GM method supports two messaging modes. The decision to use one or the other is based solely on the message size. The most complex messaging mode is the *eager handshake mode*. It is used by default for any message larger than a certain threshold, which is tunable. This mode is considered eager because it requires the message to be buffered at the receiving side before the user posts a matching receive operation. However, the sending and receiving hosts must negotiate at the sender side before transmitting the message.

Smaller messages are sent using *immediate mode*. Immediate mode does not require handshaking at all. The sender assumes that the receiver is always prepared to receive messages of this size.

The GM method is capable of sending and receiving control messages as well as actual message data. These control messages may contain flow control information, handshaking information, or actual message data in the case of immediate mode messages. When the GM method is initialized, its first task is to allocate a certain number of receive buffers for accepting control messages. These buffers are freed after processing control messages and are replaced as quickly as possible to ensure that there are always buffers available to handle new control messages.

When a sender initiates an eager handshake communication, it first sends a control message to the receiver to announce that it wishes to transmit. The receiver then prepares a buffer of the appropriate size for receiving the message.

is ready, it sends a control message back to the receiver in response to the buffer is ready. The actual message payload is then transferred.

When a sender initiates an immediate communication, it simply sends the payload as payload on a control message. The receiver will accept these messages without negotiating in advance.

Flow control

The GM method implements very basic flow control mechanisms. The communications mechanism on Myrinet networks are extremely reliable and flow control is not to avoid congestion or lost packets, but rather to conserve resources. Only a finite number of receive buffers may be posted at a time and one must be careful not to exhaust the memory resources of a host node.

There are two types of buffers which may be posted by a receiver. The first is the large data payload buffer used during eager handshake communications. The use of these buffers can be easily controlled by the receiver since they are only used in this specific mode. Once the receiver processes a control message and posts a buffer of this type, the receiver has the option of waiting as long as it wants before posting the buffer. If it runs out of memory resources, it simply sends a control response until the resources are available. This prevents the sender from transmitting the payload too quickly.

Control message buffers are the second resource that must be conserved. The GM method attempts to keep as many of these available as possible, but it is possible for a client to overrun the available buffers by sending small messages faster than they can be processed. In order to prevent this situation, a limit is placed on the number of send messages that may be in flight between hosts at any given time. A message is considered to no longer be in flight once the sender is sure that the receiver has processed it. The number of messages allowed per host is tunable.

parameter improves performance because it allows deeper pipelining in which multiple messages are allowed to be transmitted back to back. However, this parameter is not used in larger networks to ensure that each host can accept messages from multiple sources simultaneously without exhausting memory resources.

Message pipelining

Note that *pipelining* is used extensively in eager handshake mode. The GM library uses multiple steps to carrying out eager handshake messages. One message may be in step one while another message is in step two, and so on. The available resources determine how many messages may carry out the same step at the same time. If resources are exhausted, other steps are allowed to continue up until stalling on that step. This approach is very similar to instruction pipelining in modern microprocessors.

Retransmission

Even with the above flow control scheme, the scalability of the GM method is limited. With enough hosts on the network, any finite number of available resources will be consumed in a degenerate case, such as a many to one communication. Therefore, the method must be able to recover from packet loss that occurs when messages are sent before buffers are ready.

The GM library provides extensions to detect and recover from packet loss. However, the documentation for these extensions is incomplete at the time of writing because these features have undergone modifications during development cycles. Implementation of a retransmission policy for the BMI GM method is being postponed for future work.

Scenarios

The GM method can be understood more fully by observing a few immediate mode messages are just a simplified version of the eager messages, so we will focus on eager handshake mode. Keep in mind that not implemented using threads. Therefore, the state machine is only caller invokes BMI function calls.

A state diagram of the send case is shown in Figure 4.3. When posts a send buffer, the method first checks to see if the data need into a suitable buffer. Once the buffer is ready, it must check three continuing. First it makes sure that a send token is available. Then if any messages are queued ahead of it. Finally, it checks to see how many already in flight to the target host. If any requirement is not met, the is queued. Otherwise, it continues by sending a control request to the

If the target host responds and grants permission to send the data the method must again either obtain a send token or queue the token is available. Finally the data payload is sent and the operation completion queue to be recovered when the application calls BMI_test()

The matching receive example is shown in Figure 4.4. When a control received from a sending host, the method must obtain a token to the payload. If no token is available, the operation is temporarily queued then posted to accept the payload, and a control response is sent to inform that it may proceed. The operation is then queued until the data arrive

Once the data arrives, the method checks to see if a matching response has been posted in the control match queue. If so, the operation is moved to the completion queue to be recovered during a BMI_test() operation is placed in the receive post queue to wait until BMI_post()

Figure 4.3: GM method (typical send scenario)

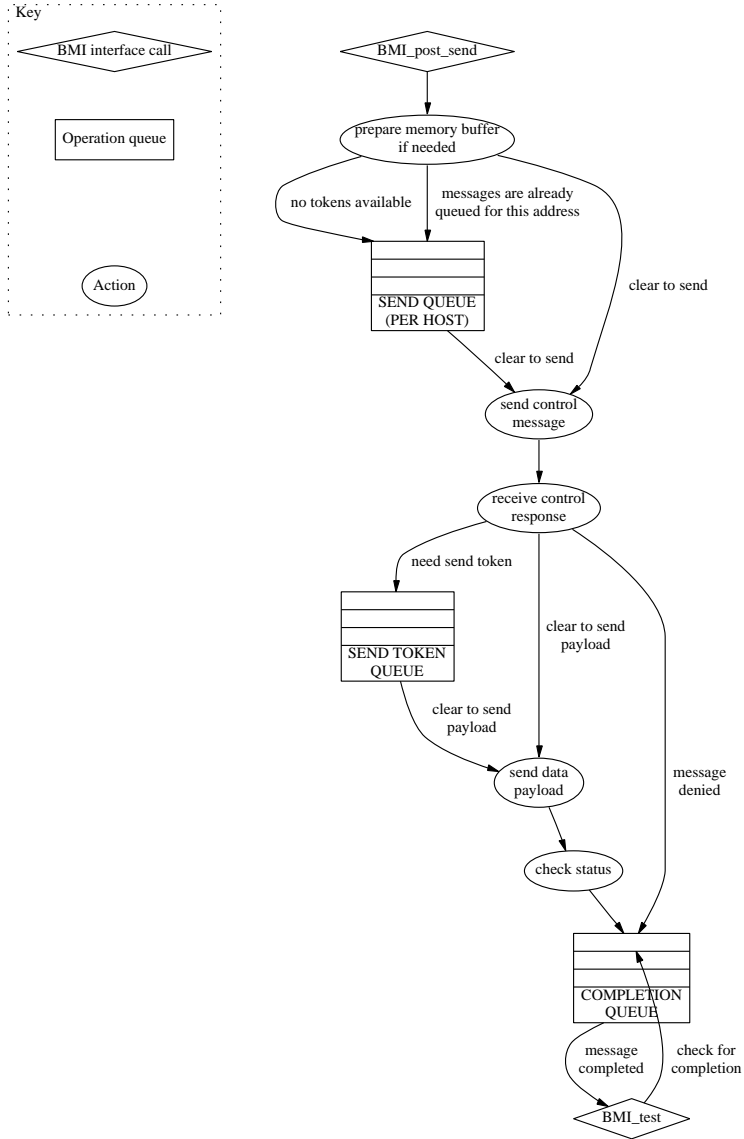
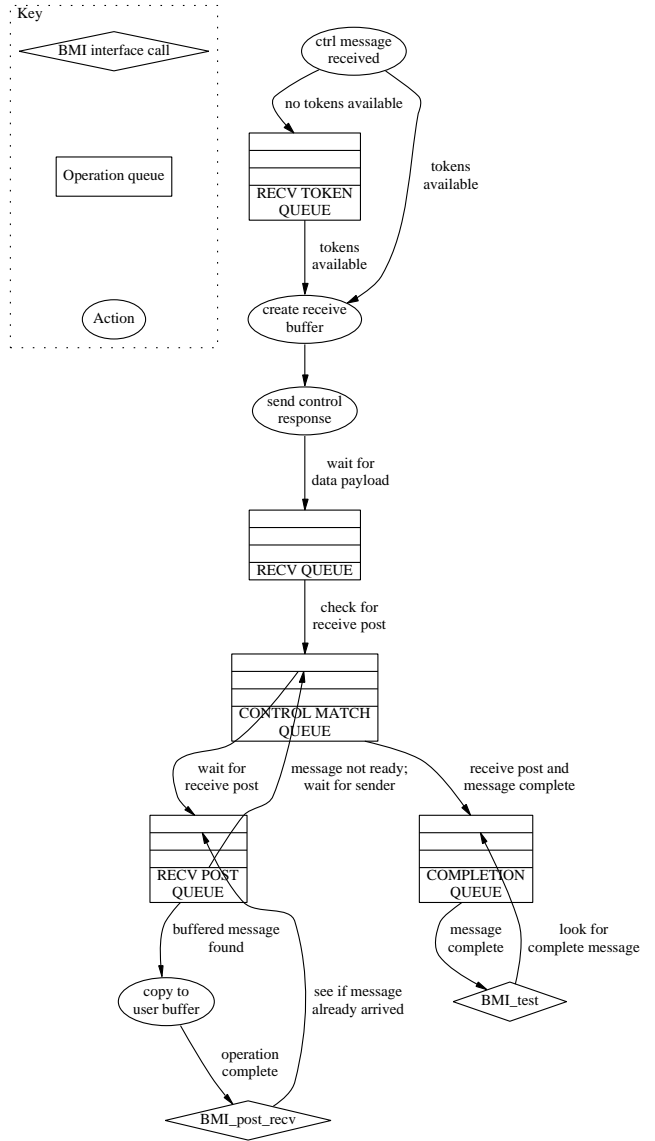


Figure 4.4: GM method (typical receive scenario)



BMI_post_recv() will complete immediately in this case because the data is already available before the function is invoked.

4.3.3 Possible optimizations

The GM messaging library provides tools for implementing many possible optimizations. The original GM method implementation is focused on correctness rather than speed, so several of these possibilities have been left for future work.

- **Registering memory:** All memory buffers transmitted using GM methods should be allocated by the GM library or registered by the GM library. If a BMI user passes in a buffer that was not preallocated, the library will allocate, create and the data is copied into it. This is done so that enough space can be provided in the buffer for storing header information. However, it would probably be much faster to register the existing buffer. Allocating a new header could be avoided by transmitting the data using control packets.
- **Fast GM messages:** GM optimizes for very small messages by placing them within the low level GM control packet. If the application uses this type of message, it can operate directly on the data buffer without the control packet. If it ignores this type of message, then the data is copied into a normal GM buffer and handled just like any other message. This buffer copy could be avoided if the method processed this special type of message (called “fast” messages by GM).
- **Avoiding memory copy on receive:** Since the GM methods allow the caller to specify which incoming messages are placed in which buffers, incoming messages are always copied to ensure that they end up in the correct buffer. In some cases, this is unnecessary because the caller knows exactly where the data is placed. We could take advantage of this

special type of receive operation that provides the buffer to the operation completes, rather than specifying it in advance. This is a modification to the BMI interface.

- **Advanced flow control:** The BMI GM method implements a primary flow control scheme. A more advanced approach could provide a speedup, but is beyond the scope of this document.
- **Pooling control buffers:** As mentioned earlier, control records are pooled and reused once they are processed to avoid the overhead of new memory regions. This is not done in the send case, however, it is more difficult to locate available buffers when they are needed. A lookaside list implementation could resolve this issue, however, it would increase memory allocation time.
- **Reducing memory allocation for bookkeeping:** The BMI currently creates several structures to track pending operations and network state. If these structures were allocated in advance and reused as needed, it would help to cut down on message latency.

Chapter 5

Results

We must measure the performance of the BMI implementation in order to evaluate its efficiency. MPICH will be used for comparison purposes as a point of reference for observing the results. MPICH was chosen because it is capable of providing almost all of the messaging ability that BMI provides. There is an MPICH device available for both TCP/IP and GM (the two network implementations).

In all cases, the benchmarks were implemented using MPI functions that closely match the capabilities of BMI. However, since MPI is a much more general implementation, there are often MPI functions available that would be more appropriate. These functions are ignored for this comparison, however, because we are interested in general purpose baseline performance.

It must be emphasized that this is not a direct comparison of the two approaches. In general they solve very different problems and thus are subject to different constraints. BMI has an advantage in these tests because it is a much more direct interface and the test applications do not always take advantage of the MPI application approach.

The first analysis of BMI performance will focus on point to point round trip latency, and many to one and one to many communication. The two classes of tests will hopefully point out fundamental strengths and weaknesses of the interfaces, while the latter tests will attempt to evaluate BMI in a manner similar to what would occur in a real life file server implementation.

5.1 Test environment

These tests were all carried out on the Chiba City scalable cluster at AIST Tsukuba Laboratory [7]. The cluster was configured as follows at the time of our tests. There were 256 nodes, each with two 500-MHz Pentium III processors, 1 GB of RAM, a 100 Mbits/sec Intel EtherExpress Pro Fast Ethernet network interface card in full-duplex mode, and a 64-bit Myrinet card (Revision 3). The nodes were running Linux 2.4.2. There were two MPI implementations: MPICH 1.2.1 for Ethernet and MPICH-GM 1.2.0 for Myrinet. None of the tests were performed on more than 65 nodes at a time.

5.2 Initial TCP/IP results

All TCP/IP tests were performed using the Ethernet network on Chiba City. We used MPICH 1.2.1. In addition, baseline bandwidth measurements were performed using the `ttcp` test utility, version 1.12 [25]. The `ttcp` utility operates directly on raw sockets with no abstraction layer. It should therefore give a good indication of the maximum obtainable TCP/IP bandwidth.

5.2.1 Bandwidth

Bandwidth was measured by transmitting a predetermined amount of data between two hosts using a variety of message sizes. The data was marked with a unique identifier and timing began so that its correctness could be verified after receipt. A message was posted in order before testing for completion. Timing for both sender and receiver hosts includes the time required to post and test for completion of all messages. MPI tests were performed using the `MPI_Isend()`, `MPI_Irecv()` and `MPI_Wait()` functions. BMI tests were performed using `BMI_post_send()`, `BMI_post_recv()` and `BMI_wait()`.

Memory buffers were not allocated using the BMI interface in this test. This sort of allocation has no impact on performance in the TCP/IP stack. The TCP/IP stack has no mechanism for optimizing message buffers.

All figures shown are the result of averaging five measurements. MPI tests were run within seconds of each other in each case in order to ensure the system was in a consistent state for each test.

Figure 5.1 shows the TCP/IP bandwidth as measured from the very small message sizes, ranging from 100 bytes to 1000 bytes. The amount of data transferred in every case was 1,000,000 bytes, or nearly one Mb, so that the total number of messages sent for each data point ranged from 1000 to 10 messages.

The raw TCP performance (as measured by `ttcp`) shows negligible variation with choice of message size. However, both MPI and BMI demonstrate the effect of MPI from an extra layer of abstraction over the sockets interface. BMI demonstrates its peak bandwidth capability until the message size is 500 bytes or greater. MPI also show that the BMI interface imposes an overhead of about 5% compared to socket communications for message sizes larger than 500 bytes. MPI reaches its peak capacity within this message range.

Figure 5.1: Small message TCP/IP bandwidth (send)

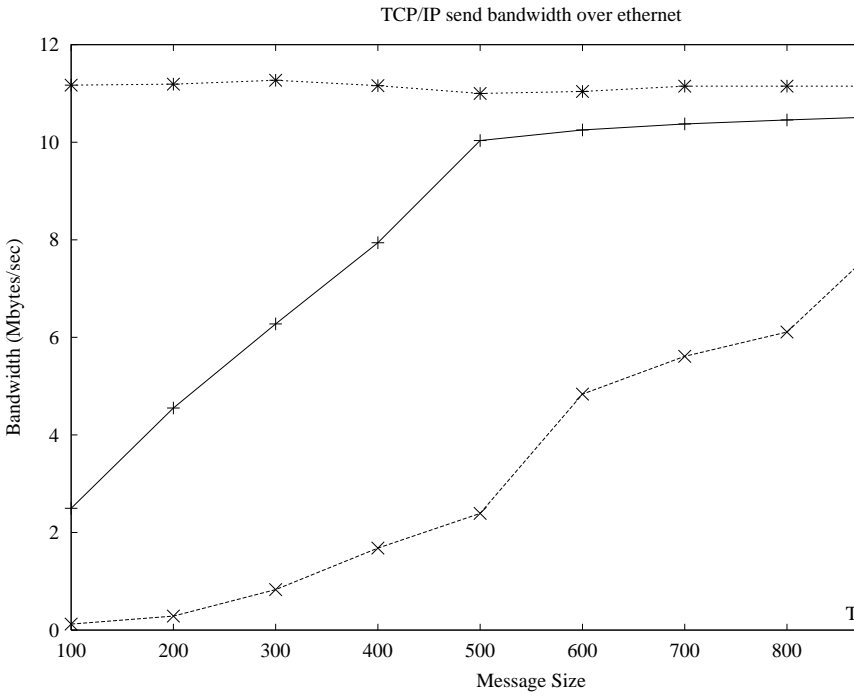


Figure 5.2: Small message TCP/IP bandwidth (receive)

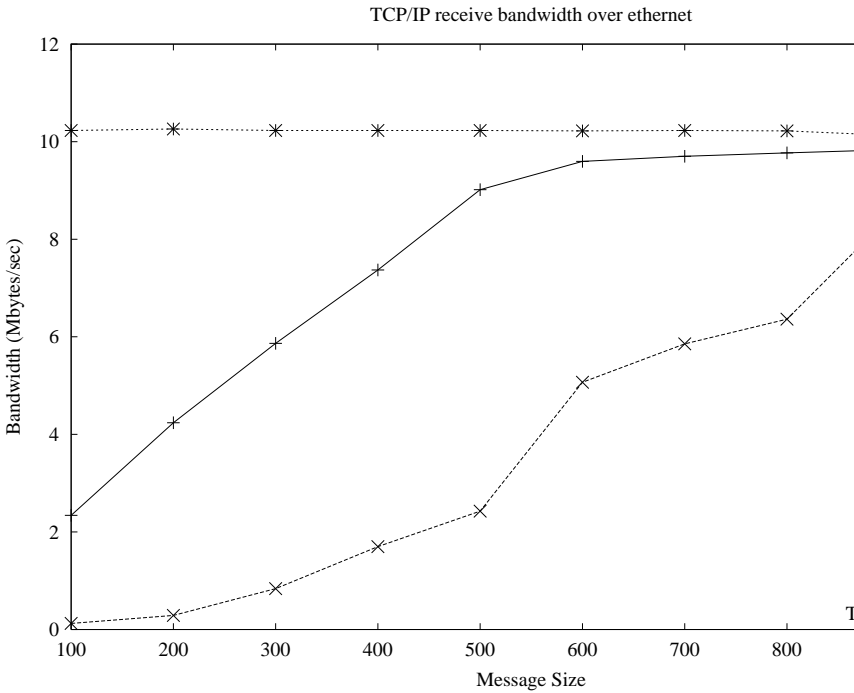


Figure 5.3: Larger message TCP/IP bandwidth (send

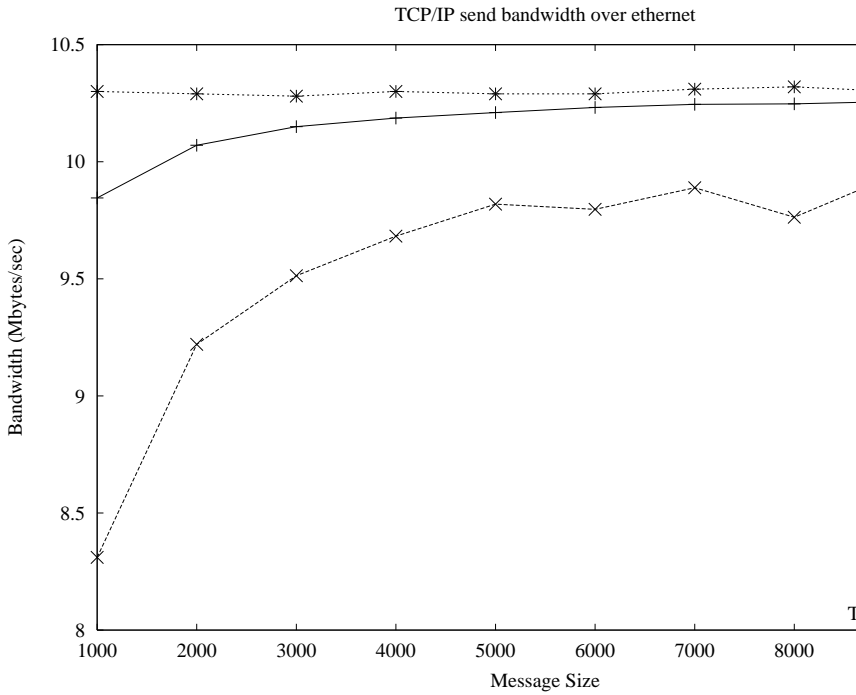
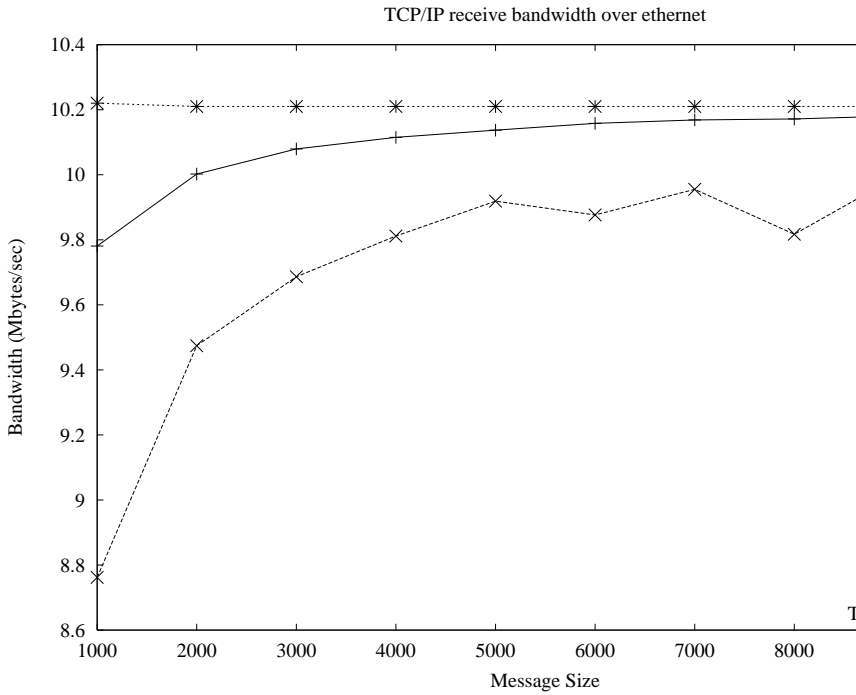


Figure 5.2 shows very similar results for bandwidth measured from host.

Figures 5.3 and 5.4 show bandwidth results for the transfer of 10 Mbytes (nearly 10 Mbytes) of data, using message sizes ranging from 1,000 bytes. This means that the number of message needed to complete the transfer is between 10,000 and 1000, just as in the previous case.

Notice that with 10,000 byte messages, the BMI method only obtained 10 Mbytes/sec for a 10 Mbyte transfer, as opposed to 10.75 Mbytes/sec transfer shown in the previous graphs. This shows that both message size and number of messages sent have an impact on performance. Again, the interface shows a noticeable overhead when a large number of messages are queued up

Figure 5.4: Larger message TCP/IP bandwidth (receive)



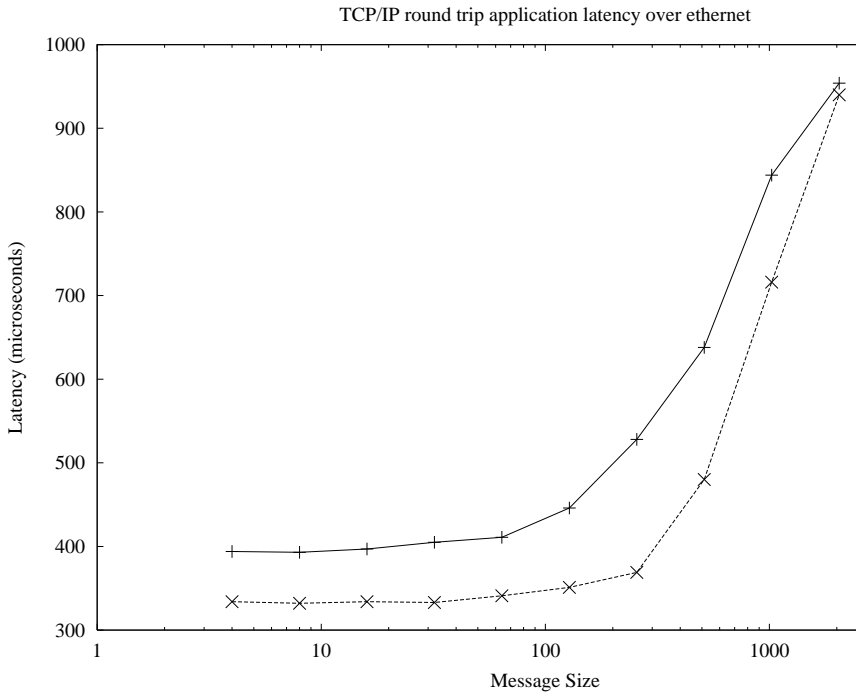
As the message size gets larger and the total number of messages decreases, the BMI performance begins to match the raw TCP/IP performance. For large messages the overhead imposed by the interface is less than 1%.

5.2.2 Latency

Latency results were obtained by measuring the round trip transmission time of a message between two machines. All communications were done using MPI function calls. Timing started just before posting the first send operation and ended just after the receipt of the response message completed successfully. The measurements were carried out from the application level.

Figure 5.5 shows the round trip latency as measured using both MPI and BMI. The message sizes ranged from 4 bytes to 4 Kbytes (on a logarithmic scale). MPI latency is much lower than the BMI latency in this test, though

Figure 5.5: TCP/IP round trip latency



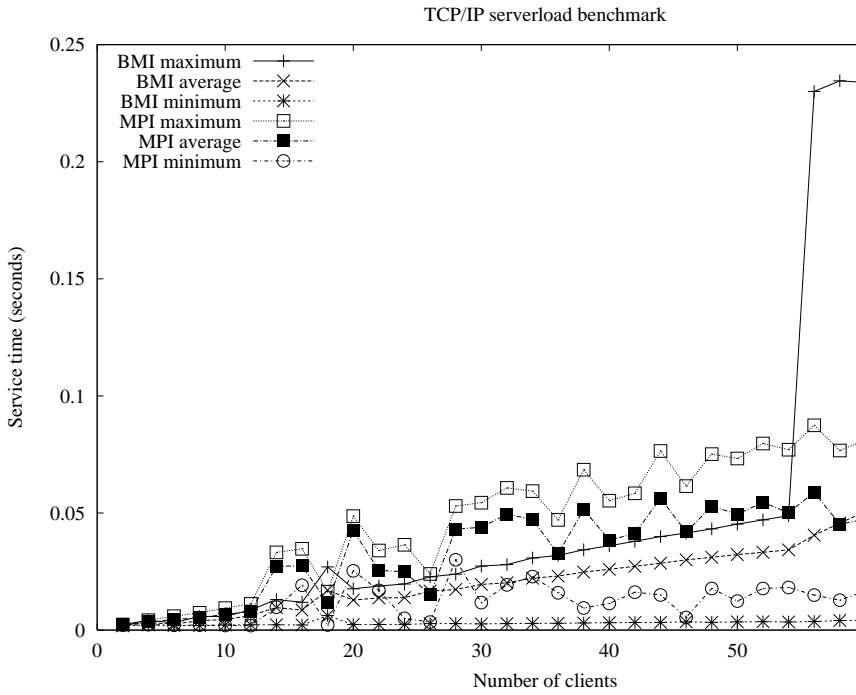
converge for larger message sizes. Section 5.4.1 explores techniques to reduce the latency found in the BMI TCP/IP method.

5.2.3 Simulated server load

This test is structured as follows. A single host is setup to listen for incoming messages. When it receives a message (formatted as a small request), it sends another message of the requested size back to the sender. Multiple clients that communicate with it are synchronized using MPI so that they all attempt to connect to the server simultaneously. This is intended to measure BMI performance under a load that resembles what would happen if many clients were to connect to the server simultaneously for a small data read operation.

In addition, the server is given no advance knowledge of which client will connect to it, nor in what order they will communicate. The BMI portion of

Figure 5.6: TCP/IP many to one performance (10K mess



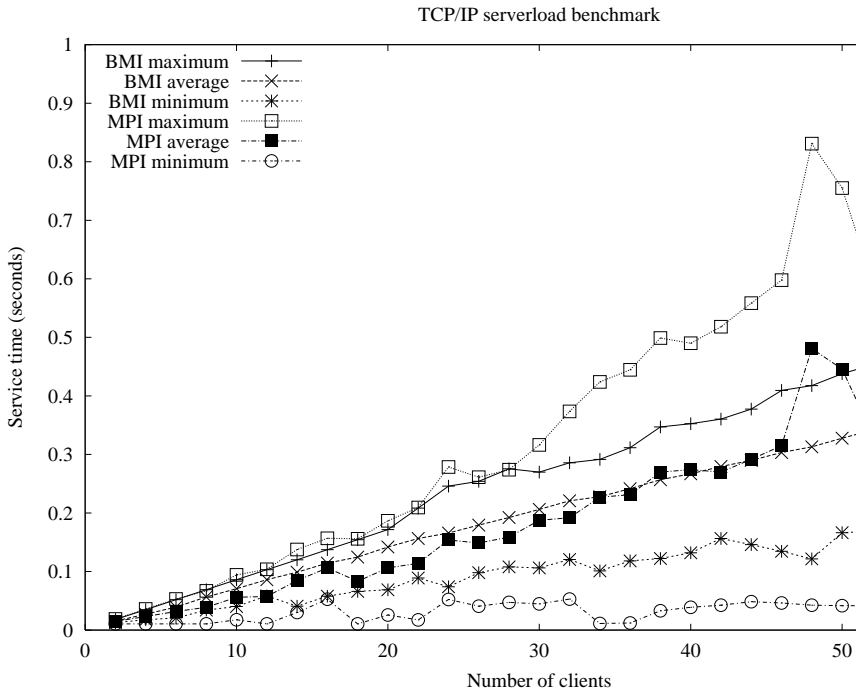
with this by using the BMI unexpected message facility. The MPI server handles it by posted a collection of receives that will match a sender.

Timing information (round trip application latency) is measured on the server side. The average, maximum, and minimum times among all clients are reported across five test runs. Figure 5.6 shows the results of this test using 10K messages for anywhere from 2 to 64 clients.

The BMI method performs well for this message size and exhibits a relatively flat performance curve.

Figure 5.7 shows results from the same test scenario, but with a message size of 100 Kbytes rather than 10 Kbytes. The interesting behavior from this test is that the BMI and MPI tests exhibit very similar average performance across all client counts. However, the MPI interface obtains this average through a maximum

Figure 5.7: TCP/IP many to one performance (100K mess



of individual client measurements. MPI obtains much lower latency while also obtaining much higher latency on other clients when comp

5.3 Initial GM results

All GM tests were performed using the Myrinet network on Chiba Ci GM 1.2.0. All tests were setup in an identical manner to those pres 5.2, but using the GM method for BMI and Myricom’s MPICH-GM for MPI.

5.3.1 Bandwidth

The bandwidth was measured again by transmitting a fixed amount variety of message sizes. The BMI GM method has the ability to ta

optimized buffers, so the performance was also measured with the buffers pre-allocated in advance using `BMI_memalloc()`. In test cases with this BMI method, the memory allocation time was not included in the timing. This is different from the normal test cases in which the time needed to `malloc()` the data is included in communication timing. All data points shown are the result of five test runs.

The original intent was to measure performance over the same message sizes used in the TCP/IP tests. However, it was discovered that the BMI implementation was incapable of completing the 1 Mbyte bandwidth test with 1 MByte message sizes. The test generally failed with memory allocation errors.

As a result, performance measurements had to be taken from a smaller message size range to provide data points from both interfaces.

Figure 5.8 shows bandwidth as measured for the transfer of a 1,000,000 byte message using message sizes ranging from 1,000 bytes to 10,000 bytes. This represents a number of messages ranging from 1,000 to 10,000.

Both MPICH-GM and BMI were configured by default to switch to non-blocking handshake mode at the 8 Kbyte message size. This can clearly be seen from the jumps in the curve. BMI performance (both for normal and pre-allocated memory) dropped off at 8 Kbytes, while the MPICH-GM performance dropped off at 16 Kbytes. The MPI performance below 8 Kbytes was surprisingly poor.

Figure 5.9 results from the same test run as measured from the receive side. The results are very similar, except that MPICH-GM performance was quite as much on the 8 Kbyte boundary as it did in the send case.

Figures 5.10 and 5.11 show the bandwidth as measured for the transfer of 100,000 bytes of data using message sizes ranging from 10,000 bytes to 100,000 bytes. The BMI method plateaus at about 27 Mbytes/sec if the memory buffers are pre-allocated in advance. The steps carried out for this transfer are identical to those in Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8: Small message GM bandwidth (send)

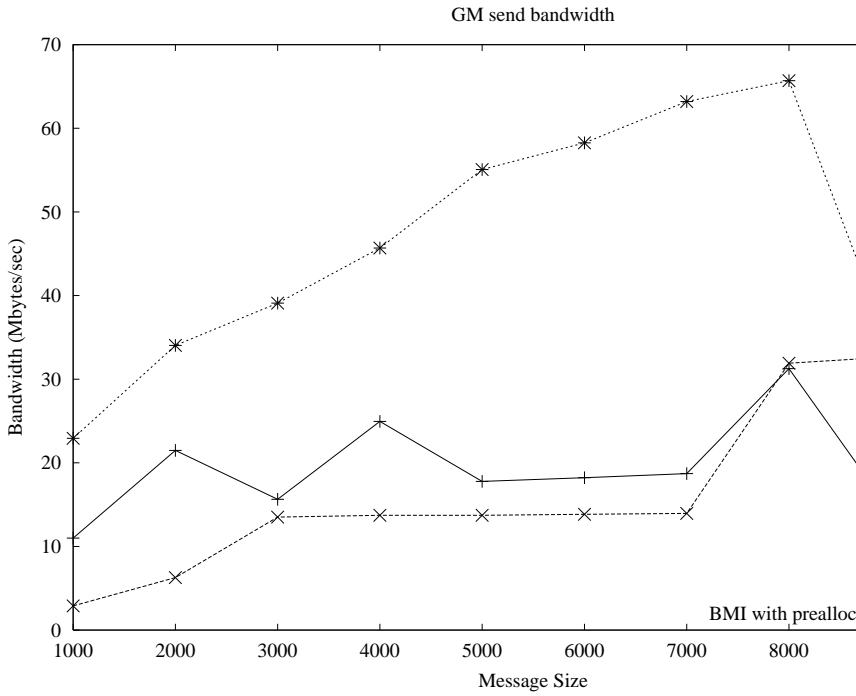


Figure 5.9: Small message GM bandwidth (receive)

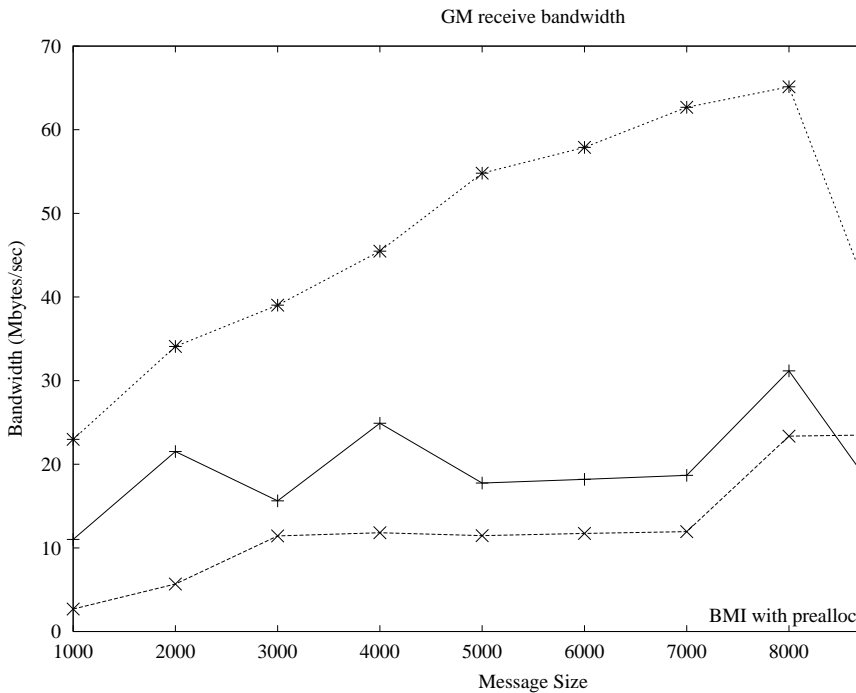


Figure 5.10: Large message GM bandwidth (send)

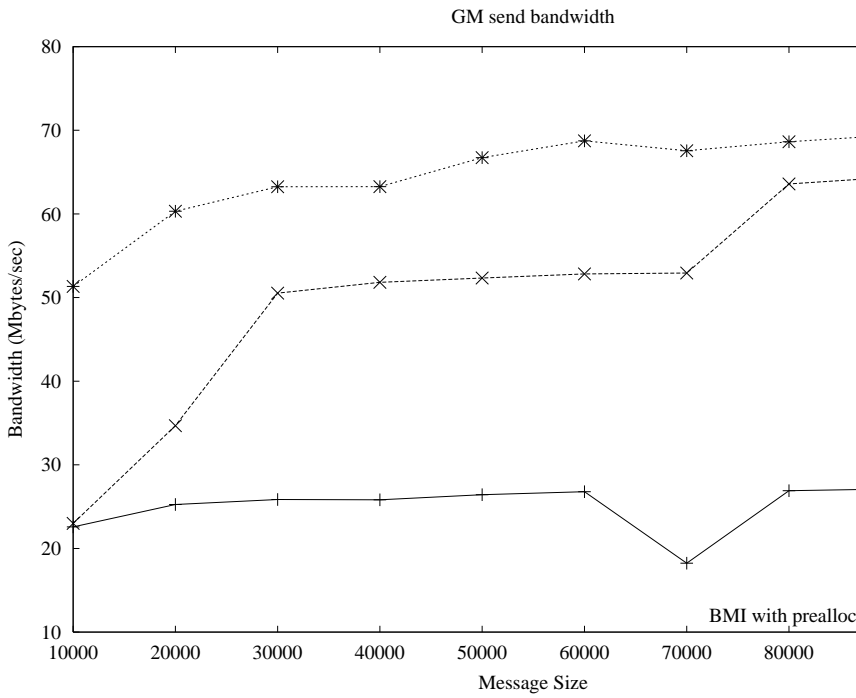


Figure 5.11: Large message GM bandwidth (receive)

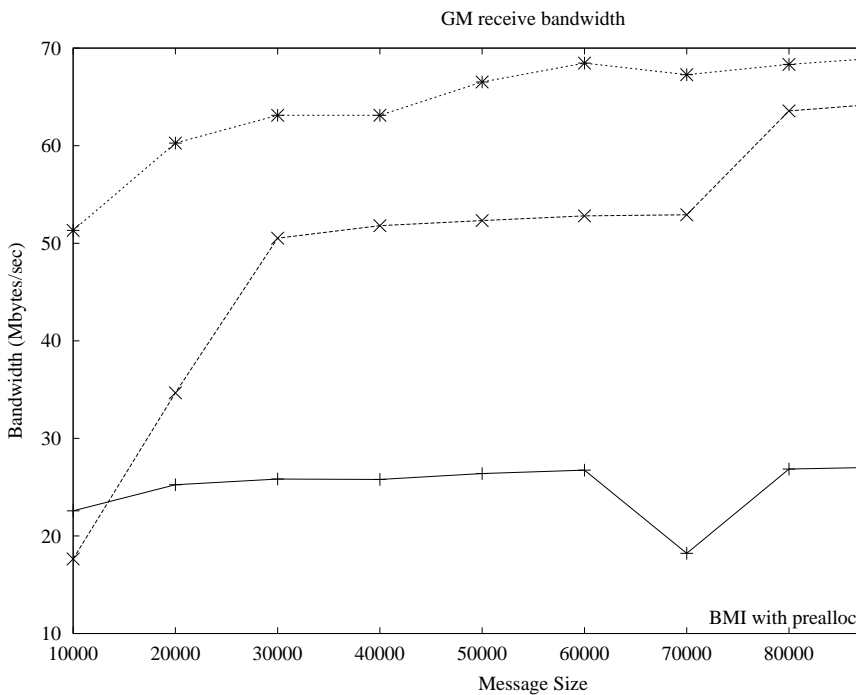
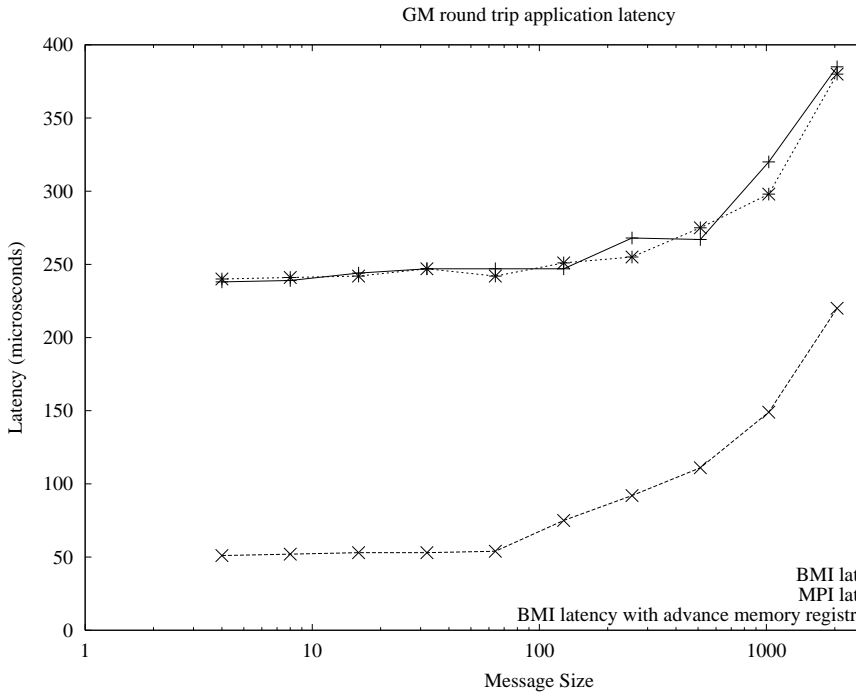


Figure 5.12: GM round trip latency



with preallocation except that an extra memory copy is incurred for
The penalty introduced by this approach is quite evident here. S
plores methods of reducing this overhead for memory buffers that a
in advance.

5.3.2 Latency

Round trip application was measured for GM in the same manner
preceding TCP/IP tests. The results are shown on a logarithmic
5.12.

Preallocation of memory buffers had negligible impact on overa
which demonstrates that the additional memory copy is not terrib
buffers in this size range.

Figure 5.13: GM many to one performance (10K message)

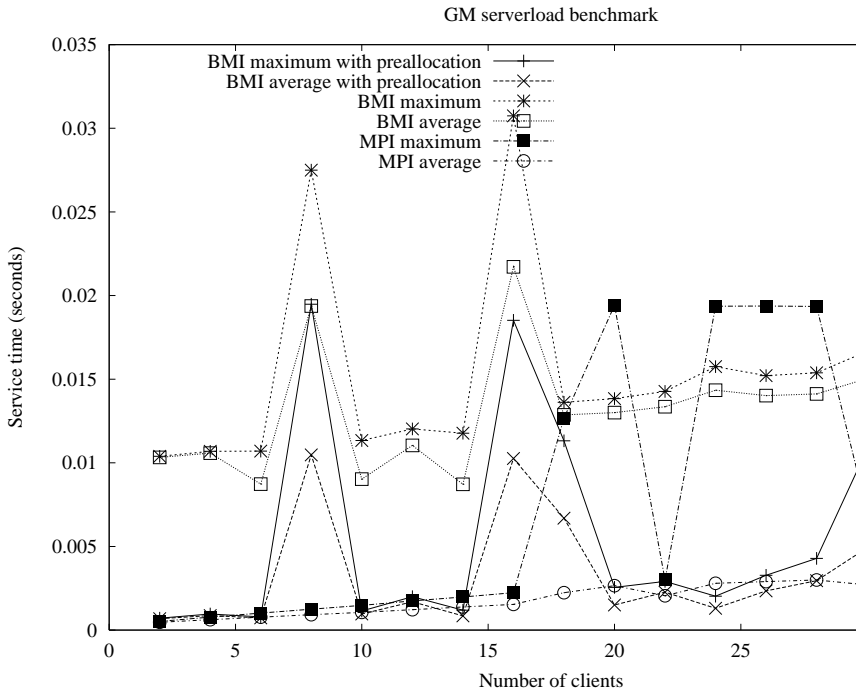


Figure 5.12 also shows that the BMI method was unable to obtain consistency figures demonstrated by MPI at any message size. The discrepancy is large, with the BMI approach taking at least four times as long as the MPI implementation.

5.3.3 Simulating server load

The serverload benchmark was executed over GM following the same methodology as in the TCP/IP tests in section 5.2.3. Figure 5.13 shows the results of the benchmark for 10,000 byte message sizes.

Performance was erratic for all three cases (MPI, BMI, and BMI with preallocation). The MPI performance was very similar to the BMI performance with preallocation. The BMI performance without preallocation was found to be significantly slower.

Figure 5.14: GM many to one performance (100K messa

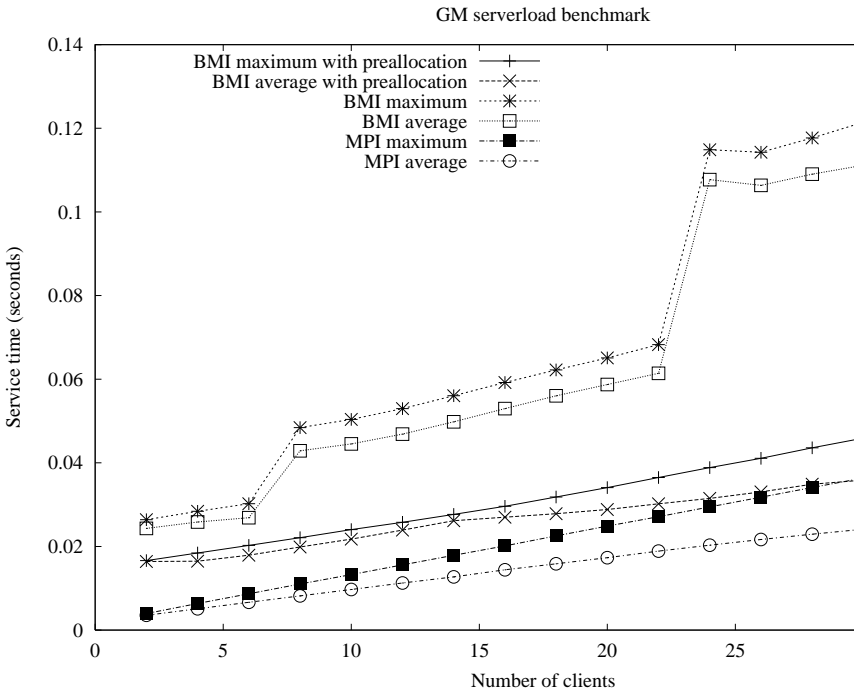
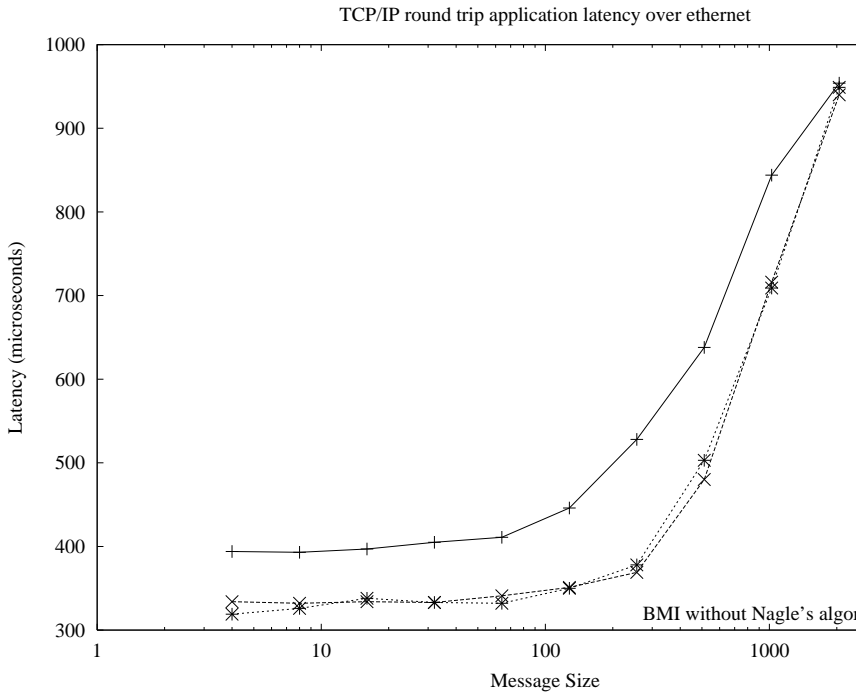


Figure 5.14 shows the results of the same tests when using 100,000 message sizes. The performance is much more predictable in this case. MPI performance exceeded that of BMI. The margin was especially large when buffers were not preallocated.

5.4 Evaluating problem areas

The initial BMI performance results indicate that some aspects of BMI are limiting the potential offered by the underlying communications systems. In the future we will attempt to analyze and address these issues.

Figure 5.15: TCP/IP round trip latency



5.4.1 TCP/IP method latency

Figure 5.5 indicates that the BMI method is exhibiting relatively poor performance in terms of latency. The MPICH TCP/IP implementation is as much as 10 times faster in round trip application measurements.

In order to find the source of this problem, the MPICH implementation was analyzed first. It was discovered that MPICH disables Nagle's algorithm on BSD based systems that support this option. This option is controlled by the TCP_NODELAY flag in the setsockopt() function. See section 4.2.3 for more information about Nagle's algorithm.

Figure 5.15 shows the results of the same latency test with the TCP_NODELAY option set for all sockets controlled by the BMI method. MPI and BMI exhibit identical behavior with this approach.

Figure 5.16: small message TCP/IP bandwidth (send)

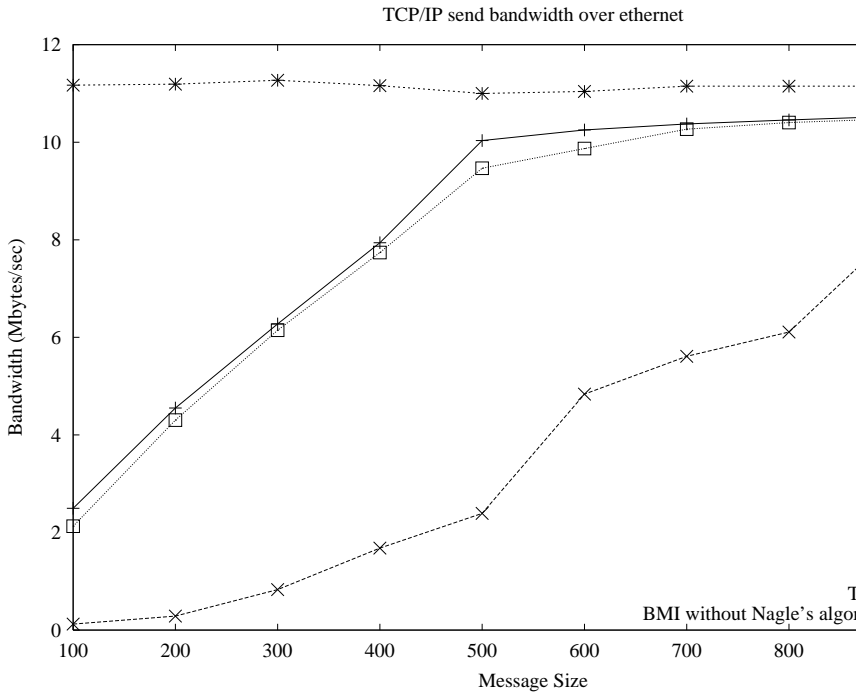
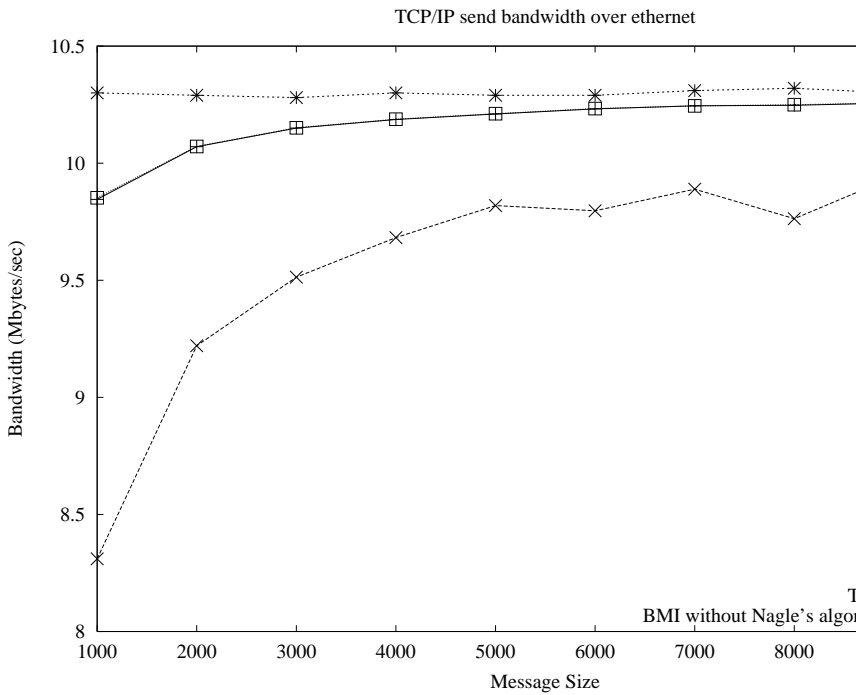


Figure 5.17: larger message TCP/IP bandwidth (send)



The raw bandwidth tests were also reevaluated to see if this applied to BMI bandwidth results. Figures 5.16 and 5.17 show that this optimization had a small effect on the overall TCP/IP bandwidth. The only measurable improvement was for messages smaller than 700 bytes. In order to reduce even this impact, it is possible to implement an adaptive delay policy. Such a policy could be implemented or enable Nagle's algorithm on a per socket basis depending on the characteristics of the messages that are queued up to be sent for that socket.

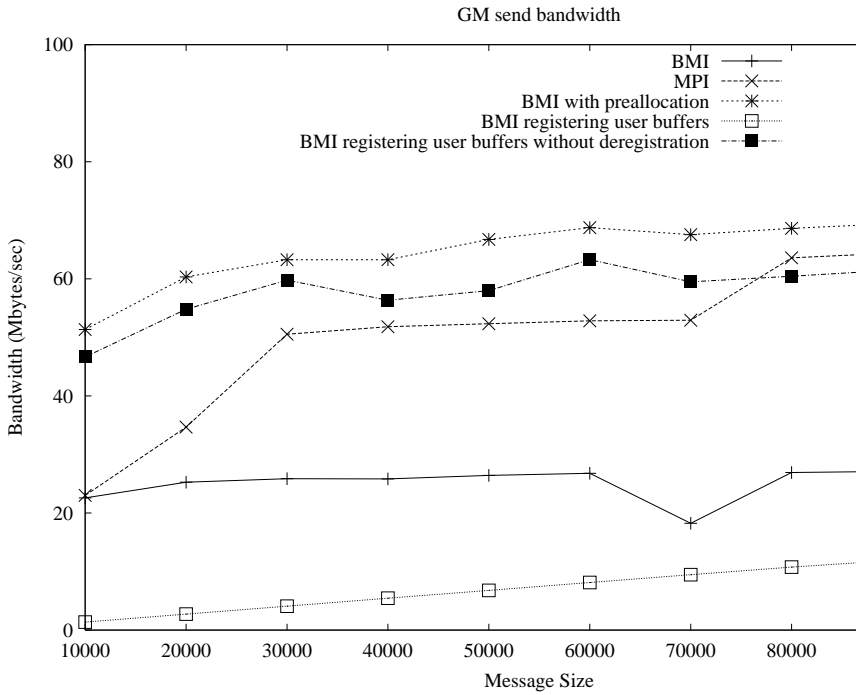
5.4.2 GM bandwidth for large messages

Initial bandwidth measurements for the GM method indicate that performance was quite good *if user buffers were allocated in advance using the BMI library*. If existing user buffers were utilized, then the performance was limited to about 10 Mbytes/sec (see Figure 5.10). This is not acceptable. The MPI performance tests indicate that a much higher performance can be obtained without using the GM method.

As explained in section 4.3.1, the GM library requires that all buffers must be permitted be located in regions of memory that have been prepared in advance for these purposes. The initial BMI implementation met this requirement by allocating DMA-able buffers for each message and copying the user buffer into these buffers. This operation clearly was consuming a relatively large amount of time for large message sizes.

The alternative is to actually register the existing user buffers using the `gm_register_memory` function call. Buffers registered in this manner must later be deregistered using the `gm_deregister_memory` function. One drawback to this approach is that BMI header information can no longer be piggy-backed onto the message header because there is no way to append contiguous memory to the message header. Header information is not necessary for BMI messages that are transmitted

Figure 5.18: Large message GM bandwidth (send)



handshaking protocol, because the control messages contain a copy of the message.

To explore this possibility, the BMI GM implementation was modified to register user buffers that had not been allocated using BMI. Each buffer was registered, posted, and then deregistered on completion. This would avoid the copy step. However, Figure 5.18 shows that the performance for the “BMI registering user buffers” implementation is absolutely terrible (see the “BMI bandwidth registering user buffers” series in the graph).

The MPICH-GM implementation was then inspected to discover the root cause of this problem. As it turns out, the MPICH device uses a buffer management system that registers user buffers as needed, but does not deregister them upon message completion. The buffers remained registered to the user. This optimization is intended to be helpful if buffers are

The MPICH device keeps up with which memory regions have been only deregisters regions if system memory resources run low.

The BMI bandwidth benchmark used for the preceding experiment is 1 Mbyte of system memory per host. Therefore, for experimentation it is possible to disable deregistration entirely to observe the impact. Figure 5.4.3 shows the “bandwidth registering without unregistering user buffers” data point as a result. The performance was *much* higher, and in fact exceeded MPICH for most message sizes shown. Note that each buffer was used only once and that unregistering buffers was not an issue.

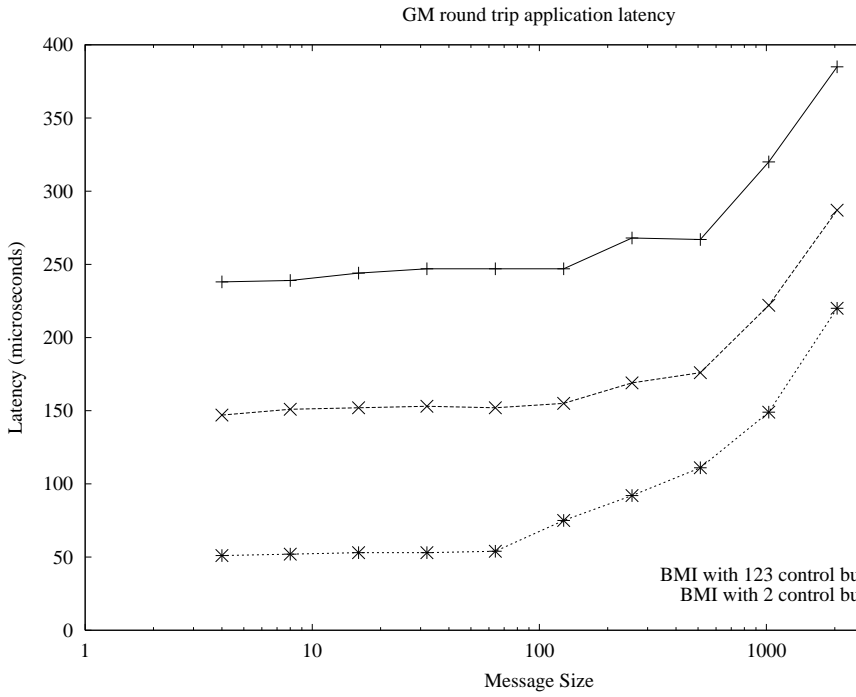
This experiment revealed that the act of deregistering GM memory has a tremendous high overhead, which was an unexpected result. In order for BMI to compete with existing buffers to achieve the same level of MPICH, the BMI implementation must implement a similar memory management library which takes a large overhead of deregistering system memory.

Note that receive buffers in the BMI GM implementation are always pinned. There is no easy way to relax this constraint, due to the messaging system’s inability to track the role of each receive buffer posted. Each time a message is received, it is analyzed to determine which user buffer it matches. The data is then placed in the user buffer.

5.4.3 GM method latency

Earlier GM method measurements (particularly for the round trip latency and load applications) show that the latency of the implementation is far from its expected potential. The MPICH-GM implementation is as much as 10x faster in terms of latency.

Figure 5.19: GM round trip latency



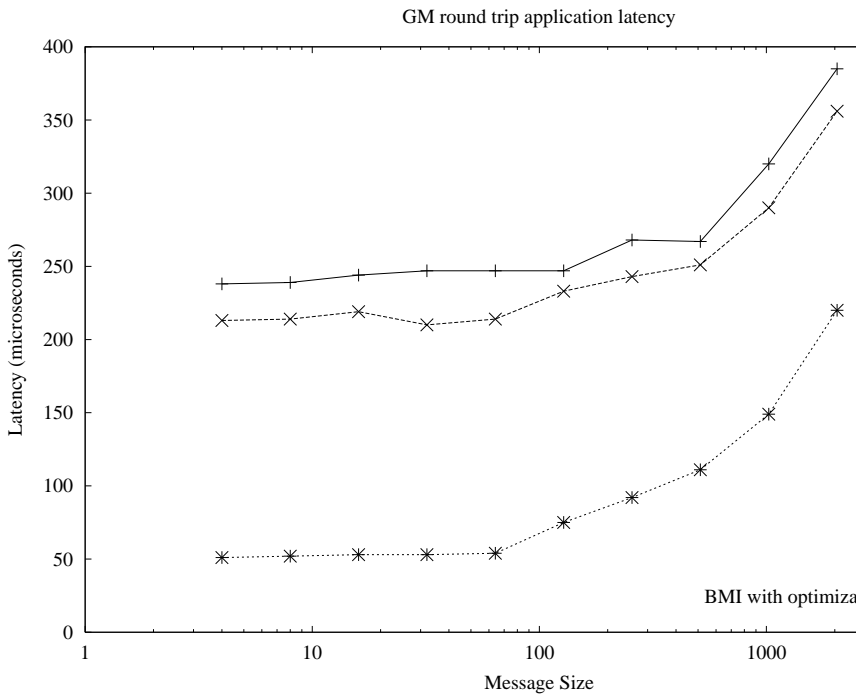
We therefore set out to investigate this discrepancy. A variety of configurations were attempted, ranging from alternative GM interface functions to changes in the organization of internal structures. A few interesting results were found.

Note that the GM method implementation (like the MPICH-GM implementation) requires that a collection of receive buffers be posted as soon as the message is received. This ensures that it will be able to accept control messages from its neighbors. It was discovered that tuning the number of buffers that were provided had a significant impact on latency, as shown in Figure 5.19.

The extra line in this graph indicates performance if only 2 buffers were provided in advance, rather than the typical 123. Note that the time required to post these buffers is not included in these measurements.

The difference in performance is nearly 100 microseconds. This is nearly *double* the total round trip time of the MPICH-GM implementation.

Figure 5.20: GM round trip latency



because the MPICH-GM implementation defaults to posting 123 buffers, clearly it does not suffer from the same performance penalty that the standard implementation does. This seems to indicate that there is a subtle difference between the MPICH-GM and BMI methods approach communication management that needs to be discovered. This may be caused by an operation that scales with the number of posted buffers that should be avoided.

Note that a production quality method implementation *must* provide at least two control buffers at startup time. Otherwise the user risks the danger of running out of the amount of available buffers when too many control messages flood the system.

The algorithm that determines how much work should be done during a `gm_send` function call was also found to have a significant impact on latency. The original approach was to only perform one `gm_receive` operation per cycle. The implementation was modified so that after each call to `gm_receive()`, `gm_receive_per`

called to determine if there was any more work that could be immediately processed. If so, `gm_receive()` was called repeatedly (up to a bounding limit) until the queue was emptied. This cuts down on the overall number of function calls to the BMI interface per communication. The results of this optimization are shown in Figure 5.20. This trimmed around 20 microseconds from the total round-trip time.

Despite these discoveries, the BMI method still displays inferior performance in latency sensitive applications. The servload application is sensitive to latency and thus will not be re-evaluated until a solution is found to the latency problem.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

We presented the Buffered Message Interface in order to meet the work abstraction layer for implementing parallel file systems on Linux. The interface provides a simple application interface for accessing all the communications network necessary for high performance I/O.

BMI demonstrates that a modular mechanism can be built and used for communicating over various dissimilar networks. None of the performance applications were recompiled to adapt to the protocols used. All that was the presence of the proper BMI module and (in this case) a call indicating which module to use.

The BMI interface was also capable of communicating with multiple protocols simultaneously. The performance testing of this feature is beyond the scope of this document, but the semantics are implemented correctly.

We also observed that the efficiency of this implementation was on par with other implementations in the majority of the tested scenarios. We hope that the obvious limitations will be addressed in future work on the method modules.

BMI will be a key component of the forthcoming Parallel Virtual File System version 2. PVFS2 is being designed with collaboration between Clermont

Argonne National Laboratory, and Goddard Space Flight Center to step in parallel I/O technology to Linux clusters. BMI will insure that the implementation keeps pace with trends in networking technology without the need for changes of the core file system. Once this new PVFS implementation has been implemented, it will be able to evaluate the performance and usability of BMI within the context of the new file system implementation.

6.1 Future work

There is still much research and development to be performed with the Buffered Message Interface. This work revolves around three critical areas: improving existing protocol methods, expansion into new protocols, and bringing the current implementation up to production level availability.

6.1.1 Improvement of existing methods

Both the TCP/IP and GM method implementations were quite successful, but both messaging systems have room for improvement. Sections 4.2 and 4.3 discuss several possible optimizations, only a few of which have been realized. The latency performance of the GM module is of particular interest after the discussion in section 5.4.3.

6.1.2 Expansion of supported methods

TCP/IP and GM methods were implemented as a proof of concept for distributed networks. There are several other method implementations that could be considered, however. Some possibilities include shared memory, VIA, and UDP. Most of these should be feasible within the previously defined Buffered Message Interface. VIA in particular should be relatively straightforward to implement b

several overall concepts with the GM interface. A shared memory perhaps be most interesting in terms of proving BMI's success in abstraction. This does not fall into the broad category of message passing communication, but is interesting because it would prove the feasibility of implementing a shared memory within a BMI method.

6.1.3 Scheduling

BMI was designed so that it will be possible to couple it with a higher level scheduler capable of making scheduling decisions. This is of particular interest in a real-time design. A scheduling mechanism should be able to obtain load information by using the `get_info()` function. Policy hints may be provided using the `set_policy()` function. This approach remains untested at this time, however.

6.1.4 Production level availability

The Buffered Message Interface is relevant not only as a research tool, but also as a production level component of a true parallel file system. The emphasis is on its ability to provide production level robustness. In particular, it should be very resilient (or at least very predictable) in the face of individual node failures. A file system cannot tolerate deadlock or critical failure of the underlying communication subsystem.

Extensive stress testing will be necessary to bring BMI to production. All of the tests performed in this document were done with an emphasis on throughput and performance. More rigorous testing should examine degenerate conditions and network failures to ensure that the interface is robust.

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