

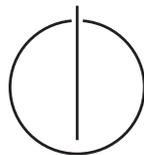
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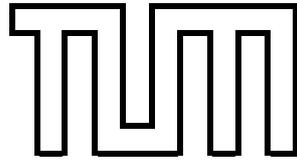
TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT MÜNCHEN

Bachelor's Thesis in Informatics

# **Effects of Linux VFIO for User Space I/O**

Adrian Simon Würth





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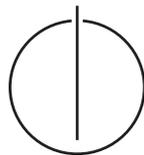
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**Effects of Linux VFIO for User Space I/O**

**Effekt von Linux VFIO auf User Space E/A**

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Submission Date:	August 15, 2024



I confirm that this bachelor's thesis in informatics is my own work and I have documented all sources and material used.

Munich, August 15, 2024

Adrian Simon Würth

# Abstract

Peripheral devices like SSDs need access to main memory in order to perform I/O operations. High-performance drivers take advantage of Direct Memory Access (DMA), a feature that allows devices to access system memory independently of the CPU. This can be a huge security risk as malicious firmware attacks or faulty operations could lead to detrimental consequences, potentially extracting data or corrupting the system. The workaround to this is the IOMMU (Input-Output Memory Management Unit), which maps physical to I/O virtual addresses, similar to the CPU's MMU, providing access rights enforcement. As address translation can be a memory- and performance-intensive operation, it is necessary to examine how impactful the IOMMU is on the whole driver's performance. In this thesis, we implement IOMMU support for a user space NVMe driver written in Rust and examine its performance, directly comparing DMA performance with physical addresses and IOMMU I/O virtual addresses. We demonstrate that essentially identical performance may be achieved with 2 MiB pages, along with enhanced system security and the ability to run the driver without root privileges. We also add support for the new user API IOMMUFD, which can be used as a modern backend for VFIO.

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# 1 Introduction

During his speech "Null Reference: The Billion Dollar Mistake" in 2009, Tony Hoare, a renowned computer scientist well known for the invention of Quick-sort, proposed the idea of how null pointers are the reason for at least a billion dollars in damages [18]. This quote could not be more important than at this time. In July 2024, Microsoft devices faced what has been described as the "most spectacular IT meltdown the world has ever seen" [22]. This meltdown affected 8.5 million Microsoft Windows devices and severely impacted public institutions, including critical infrastructure like hospitals and airports [5]. In the root cause analysis paper, CrowdStrike, the cybersecurity company that deployed the faulty code, revealed that improper compile time validation and missing runtime array bounds checks were a big part of the error [9].

The damage that can be caused by a single ring 0 driver like CrowdStrike's Falcon software shows how critical it is to ensure memory safety. By using Rust, a memory-safe yet highly performant programming language with a restrictive compiler, we could drastically improve security and memory safety. We can witness Rust's influence on the systems development community since even the Linux kernel, which has been using C for almost 30 years without accepting other languages like C++, now allows Rust code in its codebase [21].

However, it is also essential to consider Rust's safety limits. While using Rust for a driver improves the overall safety of the process, direct memory and I/O operations have to be implemented in a memory-unsafe way. A user space driver using physical DMA addresses enables a device to have full access to the memory and potentially do detrimental I/O operations. To enforce safety at the device level, we need to use the IOMMU, a safe way of performing direct memory access. The IOMMU acts as a layer of isolation between devices and memory, through which memory access rights are enforced [2].

The primary goal of this thesis is to examine how the IOMMU impacts performance in the context of user space I/O. We demonstrate this by implementing IOMMU support on vroom, an NVMe driver written in Rust [20], and comparing it to using physical addresses. We use the Linux framework VFIO to implement the IOMMU functionality, which has the additional benefit of enabling the driver to run without root privileges. We will also implement IOMMUFD, a modern user API for managing I/O page tables from user space, which can replace the backend for VFIO.

## 2 Background

### 2.1 vroom

vroom is a user space NVMe driver written in Rust. As of this writing, it offers high performance and the functionality required for general I/O operations, but it is not yet production-ready. Unlike interrupt-driven drivers, vroom uses polling to determine the state of the I/O operations. Polling is often preferable in high-performance applications, as interrupts are relatively performance-intensive operations [24]. When using vroom without the IOMMU, the device registers are accessed via the pseudo-filesystem `sysfs`. Direct memory access is performed on hugepages using physical addresses.

An NVMe driver consists of submission and completion queues implemented as ring buffers. The driver adds commands to the submission queue, which the NVMe controller reads and executes. The executed command gets placed on a corresponding completion queue. A deeper explanation of the steps will be provided in chapter 4. As vroom does not have a kernel driver part that can bind to the driver slot, we unbind the kernel driver and bind it to PCI-STUB. PCI-STUB is a dummy driver that occupies the PCI driver such that the kernel or another application cannot bind to the device.

### 2.2 Memory Management Unit

Memory Management Units (MMU) for the CPU have been used since the 1980s. After their first integrated application featuring on Intel's 80286 chip [13], they have since become the de facto standard for addressing computer memory. By providing processes with virtual addresses instead of physical addresses, every process is isolated and only has access to memory assigned to its virtual address space. Each translated address points to a region of memory called a page. These pages can have different sizes, with the default being 4 KiB pages on modern x86-64 architectures.

The translations of these pages are stored in so-called page tables. As one page table does not offer enough address space, multiple tables are linked together, consisting of pointers to a lower-level page table. One page table walk thus includes fetching multiple tables from memory, resulting in a high latency. To avoid performing a page walk every time an address is used, a Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) is used to

cache translations.

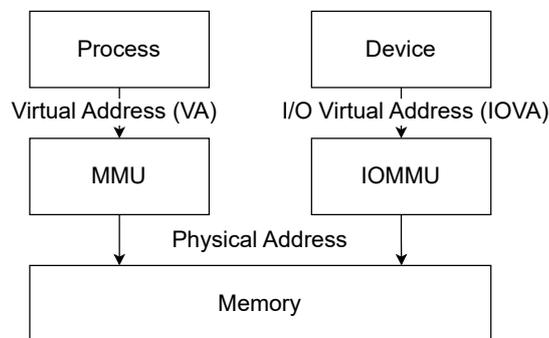
The TLB is very performant to access. Frequent access to the same address can be done at a fraction of the time needed for a page table walk. A TLB miss describes the scenario in which a physical address needs to be translated, but it has no entry in the TLB, resulting in an expensive page walk.

### 2.3 I/O Memory Management Unit

The advantages and success of the CPU's MMU and the introduction of the PCIe bus specification have incentivized hardware manufacturers to apply this concept to peripheral device buses. In 2006, Intel introduced their "Virtualization Technology for Directed I/O" (Intel VT-d) and AMD their "AMD I/O Virtualization Technology" (AMD-Vi/IOMMU). In this thesis, the term IOMMU references both technologies. The IOMMU was originally only used for "solving the addressing problems of devices with limited address space" [26], but nowadays is used mainly for virtualization and device isolation.

The IOMMU works similarly to the MMU, but instead of mapping memory to a process's virtual address space, it maps it to an I/O virtual address space for device access. The addresses used are called I/O Virtual Addresses (IOVA).

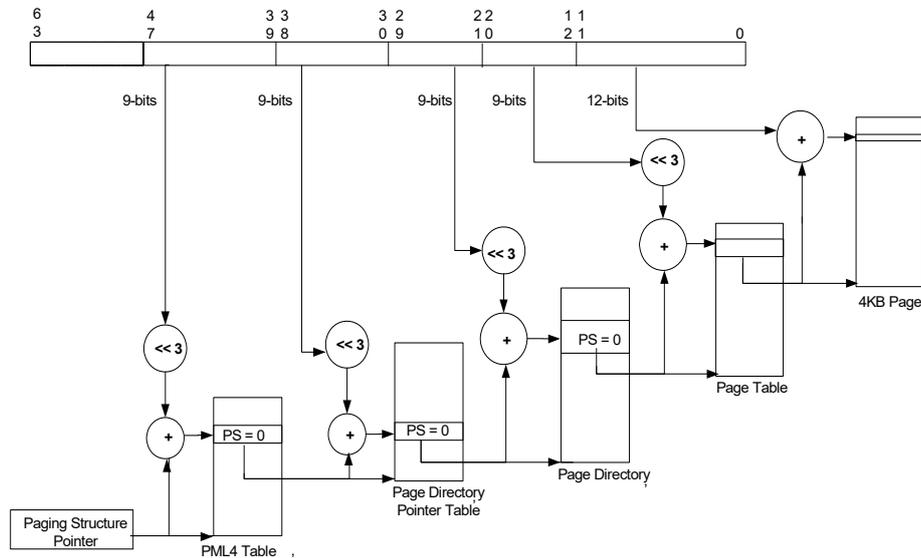
The IOMMU, like the MMU, has a TLB called the I/O Translation Lookaside Buffer (IOTLB). The size of the IOTLB is not officially documented by Intel nor AMD [11].



**Figure 2.1:** MMU and IOMMU relation to physical memory, adapted from [19]

The IOMMU paging structures of Intel's VT-d consist of 4 KiB page tables storing 512 8-byte entries. The IOMMU uses the upper portions to determine the location of the stored page tables and the lower portion of the address as page offset. In the case of 4 KiB pages this offset consists of 12 bits, for 2 MiB pages it consists of 21 bits. In

Figure 2.2, a 4-level page table structure for translating a 48-bit address to a 4 KiB page with Intel VT-d is shown. A page table walk for one 4 KiB page results in four memory accesses.



**Figure 2.2:** Intel VT-d Paging structure for translating a 48-bit address to a 4 KiB page, from [14]

## 2.4 Direct Memory Access

Using Direct Memory Access, we can bypass the CPU for I/O operations. Previously, this was handled by a separate DMA-controller hardware (third-party DMA), but using PCI, we can directly access it through bus mastering (first-party DMA) [6]. Using the IOMMU, the request is intercepted and translated to the physical address.

## 2.5 Hugepages

As the demand for bigger memory mappings, e.g., for big files, increased, the amount of TLB cache misses rose proportionally. With modern CPUs, a TLB typically has space for only 4096 4 KiB pages, and so, only an address space of 16 MiB can be stored and accessed quickly [8]. To increase the virtual memory space, hardware producers reacted by providing bigger page sizes on their architectures than the default 4 KiB. Linux currently provides two ways of using Hugepages. In the optimal case, using a 2 MiB

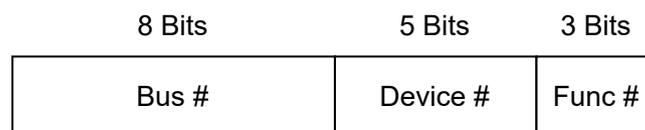
or 1 GiB page size should result in a 512- or 262144-times reduction in cache misses compared to 4 KiB pages. This makes a huge difference, especially in high-performance computing.

- **Persistent Hugepages:** Persistent Hugepages are reserved in the kernel and cannot be swapped or used for another purpose [12]. These hugepages can be mounted as a (pseudo) filesystem called `hugetlbfs`. The amount and size of the pages can be specified either during boot on the kernel command line with, e.g., `hugepagesz=1g hugepages=16` or dynamically using the Linux `proc` virtual filesystem [12].
- **Transparent Hugepages:** Transparent Hugepages (THP) are a more recent addition to the kernel. THPs are not fixed or reserved in the kernel and therefore provide a way of utilizing the TLB effectively without reserving vast amounts of memory [25].

vroom currently uses hugepages for DMA and locks them with the Linux syscall `mlock` to prevent the kernel from swapping them out. When using 4 KiB pages with `mlock`, it is not guaranteed that the kernel does not migrate the page to another physical location. This is the reason why persistent hugepages have to be used. The kernel cannot move these pages like 4 KiB pages. Other user space drivers like SPDK or DPDK also rely on this to perform DMA without the IOMMU.

## 2.6 Peripheral Component Interconnect Express

PCIe is a standard for peripheral device buses. Each device on the PCI bus has a unique PCI address, segmented into three parts, as seen in Figure 2.3.



**Figure 2.3:** Segmented PCI identifier

Each device on the bus uses a PCIe configuration space, which includes registers for controlling the device’s behavior, e.g., enabling DMA in the command register. It also includes the Base Address Registers (BAR), which are used to access the device’s actual

controller. The configuration space can be seen on Figure 2.4. The marked fields are needed for vroom.

	0x0	0x1	0x2	0x3	0x4	0x5	0x6	0x7
0x00	Vendor ID		Device ID		Command Register		Status Register	
0x08	Revision ID	Class Code			Cache Line	Latency Timer	Header Type	BIST
0x10	Base Address 0				Base Address 1			
0x18	Base Address 2				Base Address 3			
0x20	Base Address 4				Base Address 5			
0x28	CardBus				Subsystem vendor ID		Subsystem ID	
0x30	Expansion ROM Base Address				Cap. Pointer	Reserved		
0x38	Reserved				Interrupt Line	Interrupt Pin	MIN_GNT	MAX_LAT

} Base Address Registers

Figure 2.4: PCIe configuration space, adapted from [20]

## 2.7 Rust

While user space drivers can be written in any language having access to syscalls and aligned structs, as proven by the network driver Ixy [15], Rust excels as it offers high performance and memory safety without garbage collection. This is especially important, as garbage-collected languages have overhead and latency spikes, which can lower performance. Another critical factor is that, like C, Rust does not use exceptions. Being forced to handle errors ensures that no unhandled exception can take down critical code infrastructure. Additionally, Rust provides low-level access while offering a high-level development experience through zero-cost abstractions.

## 3 Related Work

### 3.1 Ixy

Ixy is a network interface card (NIC) driver for Intel's 82599 10GbE NICs (ixgbe family) [8]. Ixy has been implemented in many languages, e.g., C, Go, and Rust. Ixy.rs is the Rust implementation of the Ixy driver [7]. Stefan Huber implemented IOMMU support for the Ixy.rs driver. It was concluded that while using the IOMMU with 2 MiB pages, the performance matches the performance without the IOMMU. On the other hand, it was found that using 4 KiB pages can lead to a potential 75% performance decrease. Additionally, Huber found that the tested Intel Xeon E5-2620 v3 6-core 2.4GHz CPU IOMMU TLB has a maximum size of 64 entries [11]. Rolf Neugebauer et al. determined the same 64 IOTLB size on the tested Intel Xeon E5-2630v4 2.2GHz [17].

### 3.2 Data Plane Development Kit

The Data Plane Development Kit (DPDK) is a framework for developing user space network card drivers. It allows for high-performance network applications. It can run using direct memory access with physical addresses or with VFIO [1]. DPDK offers polling drivers for a variety of network cards. It is one of the most successful projects in the world of user space drivers and has influenced many advances in the IOMMU space.

### 3.3 Storage Performance Development Kit

The demand for high-speed user space drivers in storage applications inspired the development of the Storage Performance Development Kit (SPDK). SPDK uses some shared libraries and architecture with DPDK. Primarily through the wide adoption of the NVMe protocol and the standardization of said protocol, only one driver for all NVMe SSDs has to be developed. NVMe is a storage protocol that is widely used, modern, and highly performant. Therefore, it is a protocol for which many drivers, including user space drivers, have been written. The Storage Performance Development Kit (SPDK) provides "a collection of tools and libraries for writing high

performance, scalable, user-mode storage applications" [23]. It includes a user space NVMe driver, which is fast and production-ready. While this driver supports using the driver without the IOMMU, the SPDK Documentation recommends using the IOMMU as it is the "future proof...long-term foundation" for SPDK [4]. Even though SPDK is the established user space NVMe driver option, the drawbacks include its high complexity, even for simple applications, as well as it being written in C, potentially causing memory safety issues.

## 4 Implementation

The VFIO implementation of Ixy.rs [16] was used as a reference but was massively changed to fit the project structure and use case. The implementation for IOMMU support includes the initialization of the IOMMU, the steps needed to create mappings to the I/O virtual address space, and the access to the device registers. The complete code of the driver can be found on GitHub [27].

### 4.1 Virtual Function I/O

Virtual Function I/O (VFIO) is an IOMMU agnostic framework for exposing devices to user space. VFIO acts like the kernel module to user space drivers, allowing unprivileged, regulated access to physical memory and device registers.

As seen on Figure 4.2a, VFIO consists of an IOMMU API for management of IOMMU mappings (VFIO backend) and a device API for device access, which uses the backend to perform the access. With the new introduction of IOMMUFD, the native backend of VFIO is considered the "legacy" backend. Legacy VFIO uses the type1 IOMMU API for x86 architectures or the SPAPR IOMMU API for ppc64 architectures. As our implementation is for x86, we will equate legacy VFIO with the type1 API.

The `vfio-pci` driver (device API) is used for interaction with the device, i.e., reading, writing, and mapping the device registers. Only the backend gets replaced when VFIO is used with IOMMUFD, as IOMMUFD still relies on `vfio-pci` to access device registers. We will first focus on the legacy VFIO implementation and then compare it to the implementation of IOMMUFD. The layers of VFIO with both backends can be seen on Figure 4.2.

To use `vroom` with the IOMMU, we need to initialize the IOMMU, VFIO, DMA, and the NVMe device:

1. **IOMMU container initialization:** As the first step, the VFIO container for IOVAs is initialized. With this container and the NVMe IOMMU group, we obtain the device file descriptor.
2. **Device register access:** Using the device fd, we write to the PCIe configuration space to enable DMA and map the NVMe BAR to memory.

3. **DMA (Un-)Mapping:** Using the container `fd`, we create a mapping in the IOMMU and, therefore, place it in the virtual address space of the NVMe controller for DMA.
4. **NVMe initialization:** The final step is to initialize the NVMe controller for I/O operations.

Interaction with the VFIO interface works using `ioctl` system calls. `ioctl` or control device syscall, uses a file descriptor (`fd`), operation id (`op`), and optional arguments to perform actions on devices that are not covered by other system calls. The operation IDs used for VFIO are defined as constants or enums in the `vfio.h` header file in the Linux kernel. To use these constants in Rust, they must be defined manually or with a crate like `bindgen`, which automates bindings for C and C++ libraries [3]. We chose the manual implementation to keep the binary and dependency list as small as possible. Many `ioctl` calls used for VFIO also take in a mutable reference to a struct, which is used for specific input and output. These structs are also defined in `vfio.h` and can be ported over to Rust using the `#[repr(C)]` attribute, which ensures the same struct alignment as in C.

To model the IOMMU, we implement the struct `Vfio` and the enum `VfioBackend`, as seen in Listing 4.1. The shared functionality, e.g., accessing the device registers, is implemented on the struct `Vfio`, while the enum `VfioBackend` takes care of the backend-specific behavior, i.e., mapping DMA addresses.

**Listing 4.1:** Structs used to model VFIO

```
pub struct Vfio {
    pci_addr: String,
    device_fd: RawFd,
    page_size: Pagesize,
    iommu: VfioBackend,
}

enum VfioBackend {
    Legacy {
        container_fd: RawFd,
    },
    IOMMUFD {
        ioas_id: u32,
        iommufd: RawFd,
    },
}
```

### 4.1.1 Groups and Containers

VFIO works using (IOMMU-)groups and containers. Each group can contain one or multiple devices. As many devices use DMA between each other, a single IOMMU group has to be created, as these devices cannot function in an isolated environment. The other way round can also be the case, with one device exposing two interfaces, which get their own group each. Therefore, groups are the smallest unit that can be isolated by the IOMMU. While groups are supposed to provide the highest amount of isolation, the need for shared memory between devices often exists. This need can be solved by using containers. Containers consist of one or more groups. The groups in one container share the same I/O virtual address space created by the IOMMU, allowing both to access the same memory. A new container can be created by opening the file `/dev/vfio/vfio`. The groups of devices bound to `vfio-pci` can be found under the path `/dev/vfio/$GROUP`.

### 4.1.2 Binding NVMe to `vfio-pci`

To use the IOMMU for the driver, we first need to initialize the VFIO kernel module using `modprobe` and bind the `vfio-pci` driver to the NVMe device. By changing the owner of the container and group file to an unprivileged user, `vroom` can use the VFIO driver to create memory mappings and interact with the device without root.

### 4.1.3 IOMMU container initialization

To initialize the IOMMU, we first need to get the container file descriptor. The container is accessible under the path `/dev/vfio/vfio`. Using the raw container file descriptor, we can use the following `ioctl` calls:

**Listing 4.2:** `ioctl` calls needed for VFIO container initialization

```
ioctl_unsafe!(container_fd, VFIO_GET_API_VERSION)
ioctl_unsafe!(container_fd, VFIO_CHECK_EXTENSION, VFIO_TYPE1_IOMMU)
ioctl_unsafe!(group_fd, VFIO_GROUP_GET_STATUS, &group_status)
ioctl_unsafe!(group_fd, VFIO_GROUP_SET_CONTAINER, &container_fd)
ioctl_unsafe!(container_fd, VFIO_SET_IOMMU, VFIO_TYPE1_IOMMU)
ioctl_unsafe!(group_fd, VFIO_GROUP_GET_DEVICE_FD, pci_addr)
ioctl_unsafe!(container_fd, VFIO_IOMMU_GET_INFO, &iommu_info)
```

Excluding the status and info calls, the functionality consists of initializing the IOMMU for the device groups by setting the container on the groups, enabling Type1 for the IOMMU, and fetching the device file descriptor. With the device file descriptor,

we gain access to the device regions through the VFIO device API, allowing us to access the device registers.

### 4.1.4 Device register access

Previously, device access was done through the `sysfs` (pseudo-)filesystem. `sysfs` exposes the device registers under the path `/sys/bus/pci/devices/$PCI_ADDRESS/`. As seen in Figure 2.4, we need to access the command register and the NVMe BAR0 register. In `sysfs`, these are the `config` and `resource0` files in the device directory. The `config` file points to the address `0x0` of the PCI configuration space. By adding the command register offset (`0x4`), we can access the command register.

Using the offset `0x2` in the command register, we can set the bit for bus mastering, allowing the device to perform DMA. To map the BAR0 register to memory, we can use `mmap` with a file descriptor to `resource0`.

To do the same using VFIO, we use the VFIO device API. We can access the device registers using the `VFIO_DEVICE_GET_REGION_INFO` `ioctl` operation on the device `fd`. This operation requires the struct `vfio_region_info` as the third parameter, which needs to be initialized with a given index from `vfio.h`. We use the indices `VFIO_PCI_CONFIG_REGION_INDEX` and `VFIO_PCI_BAR0_REGION_INDEX` to access the `config` and `BAR` register respectively. The struct is used as an input/output struct. After performing the syscall, the other fields are set, e.g., `size` or `offset`, and can be used to read/write or memory map device registers.

Using `VFIO_PCI_CONFIG_REGION_INDEX` as the index, we again get the PCIe configuration space address `0x0`. By adding the command register offset, we can set the bus mastering bit to enable DMA. After this, we can map the NVMe base address register to memory using the `VFIO_PCI_BAR0_REGION_INDEX` index. The `offset` and `size` can be directly passed into `mmap` to map the BAR0 register to memory, as seen on Listing 4.3.

**Listing 4.3:** Mapping the BAR0 NVMe register to memory

```
let mut region_info = vfio_region_info {
    argsz: mem::size_of::<vfio_region_info>() as u32,
    flags: 0,
    index: Self::VFIO_PCI_BAR0_REGION_INDEX,
    cap_offset: 0,
    size: 0,
    offset: 0,
};

ioctl_unsafe!(
    self.device_fd,
    IoctlOp::VFIO_DEVICE_GET_REGION_INFO,
    &mut region_info
)?;

let len = region_info.size as usize;

let ptr = mmap_unsafe!(
    ptr::null_mut(),
    len,
    libc::PROT_READ | libc::PROT_WRITE,
    libc::MAP_SHARED,
    self.device_fd,
    region_info.offset as i64
)?;
```

### 4.1.5 DMA (Un-)Mapping

When using physical addresses for DMA, several steps have to be performed to ensure that the page is not moved. Firstly, hugepages must be used, as the kernel cannot move these. The allocated memory is also locked using `mlock` to prevent the page from being swapped out of memory. The hugepage file is created in the directory where `hugetlbfs` is mounted, in our case `/mnt/huge`. By using `mmap` with the file descriptor and locking it, we can create a statically mapped page in memory. To get the physical address for DMA, the address translation entry in the MMU needs to be fetched from `/proc/self/pagemap`. As `mmap` uses 4 KiB by default, we have to specify the use of hugepages with the `MAP_HUGETLB` flag. The resulting pagesize depends on the default

hugepage size of the system but can be specified with either the `MAP_HUGE_2MB` or the `MAP_HUGE_1GB` flag.

As seen in Listing 4.4, VFIO greatly simplifies this, as using IOVAs alleviates the need for ensuring the physical address does not change. This is handled by VFIO. Firstly, we can either allocate or map a file to the process virtual space using `mmap`. As we do not have the restriction of using hugepages, we can also perform the mapping using the default 4 KiB pages. To get the IOVA for a corresponding page in memory, we need to use the `vfio_iommu_type1_dma_map` struct with the VFIO operation `VFIO_IOMMU_MAP_DMA`. To map an address correctly, we need to specify the address mapping in the struct. `vaddr` is the address in the process virtual address space, i.e., the address returned by `mmap`. By setting the field `iova` to the same address, we can conveniently use the same address for the IOVA. We do this to avoid manually managing the IOVAs. Finally, the size has to be specified to the length passed to `mmap`. In the `flags` field, we can specify if the memory is accessible with read and/or write. By default, we set both. This IOVA can then be used just like the physical address by the NVMe controller.

**Listing 4.4:** Mapping memory for DMA

```
let mut iommu_dma_map = vfio_iommu_type1_dma_map {
    argsz: mem::size_of::<vfio_iommu_type1_dma_map>() as u32,
    flags: IoctlFlag::VFIO_DMA_MAP_FLAG_READ
        | IoctlFlag::VFIO_DMA_MAP_FLAG_WRITE,
    vaddr: ptr as u64,
    iova: ptr as u64,
    size,
};

ioctl_unsafe!(
    *container_fd,
    IoctlOp::VFIO_IOMMU_MAP_DMA,
    &mut iommu_dma_map
)?;

let iova = iommu_dma_map.iova as usize;
```

**Unmapping DMA** The implementation includes a function for unmapping IOVAs. As the mappings automatically get unmapped when the driver exits, it is still nice to have when repeatedly mapping huge files. Using the `VFIO_IOMMU_UNMAP_DMA` `ioctl` operation, we can unmap the memory and finally free it using `munmap`.

### 4.1.6 NVMe initialization

Using the mapped NVMe BAR and the ability to create DMA mappings, we can now initialize the NVMe controller. This mainly consists of allocating the queues and mapping them to be accessed by the NVMe controller through DMA. The IOVAs of the admin queues can be written to the mapped BAR. The BAR is also used to configure the NVMe, e.g., setting the queue entry sizes. When the NVMe is configured and ready, an I/O queue pair can be created using the admin queues.

### 4.1.7 I/O operations with VFIO

After initialization, the NVMe is ready to use. An example for an I/O operation is shown in Figure 4.1.

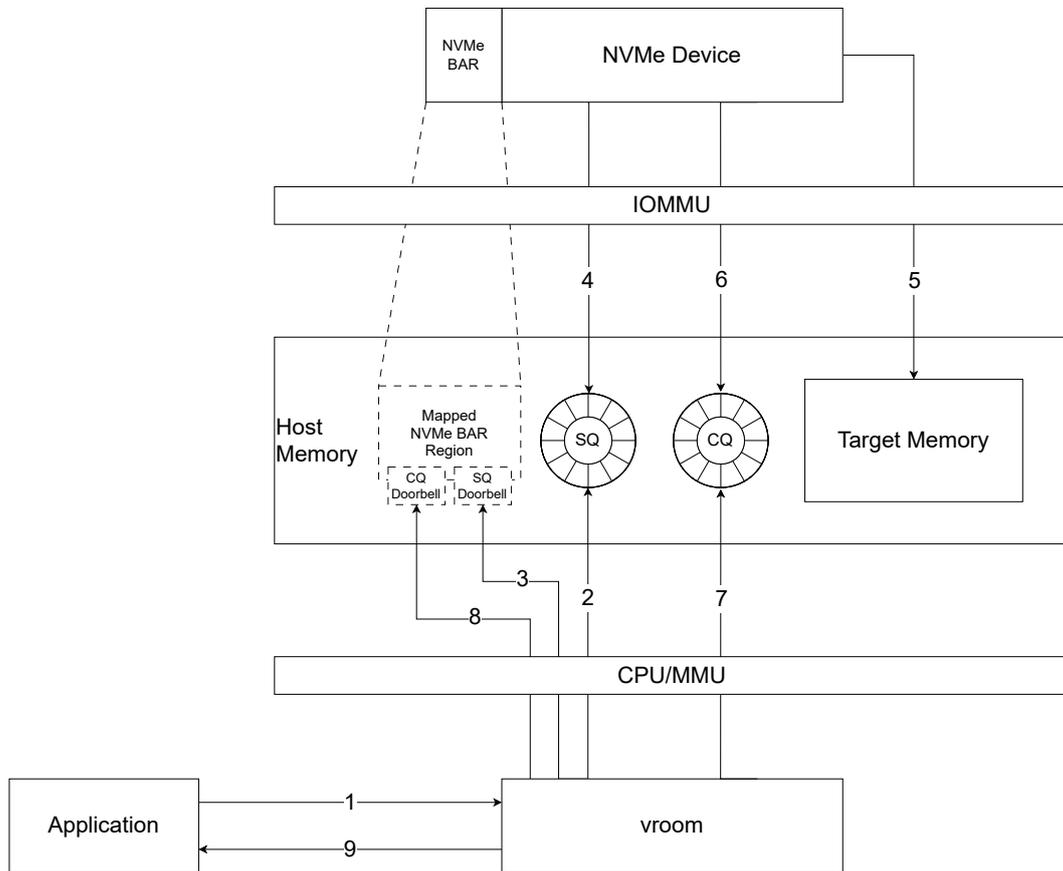


Figure 4.1: I/O operation using vroom with enabled IOMMU

The sequence of events in Figure 4.1 are as followed:

1. **I/O function call:** The application calls a read/write method on vroom
2. **Command Submission:** vroom creates a `NvmeCommand` struct and places it on the Submission Queue (SQ) head.
3. **Ring SQ Doorbell:** vroom places the submission queue head address in the doorbell register in the mapped NVMe BAR.
4. **Take Command:** The NVMe takes the command from the SQ using DMA.
5. **Perform I/O:** The NVMe uses the IOMMU to access the host memory via DMA and performs the read/write command.
6. **Complete I/O:** The NVMe uses DMA to place a `NvmeCompletion` struct instance on the head of the Completion Queue (CQ).
7. **Polled CQ:** By polling the CQ, vroom can process the CQ entry.
8. **Ring CQ Doorbell:** After processing the CQ entry, vroom rings the CQ Doorbell to notify the NVMe controller that the Completion Queue has been processed.
9. **Notify application :** vroom notifies the application of the success of the I/O operation. The application can continue running.

### 4.2 IOMMUFD

The IOMMU File Descriptor user API (IOMMUFD) offers a way of controlling the IOMMU subsystem using file descriptors in user space [10]. IOMMUFD offers a more granular management of the IOMMU, using devices instead of groups. Additionally, it supports a more user-friendly interface, allowing the user to manage IOVAs easily. Although IOMMUFD could be used as a standalone to provide simple IOMMU functionality like mapping or unmapping, it is not suited user space drivers without VFIO. Device registers still need to be accessed through the `vfio-pci` driver. Consequently, IOMMUFD is used with VFIO, replacing its backend, i.e., the interaction with the IOMMU, but still relying on the functionality of parts of VFIO. IOMMUFD was only recently added to the Linux Kernel in December 2022. For example, Debian 12 does not include it. Considering that it is not widely available or enabled on many distributions, our driver offers both options of using the IOMMU. Instead of containers or groups, IOMMUFD uses I/O address spaces (IOAS) and character device file descriptors. Just like containers, IOAS can be used to provide shared memory mappings for multiple

devices. Implementing IOMMUFD is similar to VFIO, but there are some key differences. As with VFIO, to interact with IOMMUFD, we use the syscall `ioctl`. The needed bindings, flags, and operations are defined in the Linux kernel under the path `include/uapi/linux/iommufd.h`. Again, we manually port the needed structs and constants to Rust.

The first change is the acquisition of the group/device and the container/IOMMU fd. In VFIO, a container can be created using the file `/dev/vfio/vfio`. For IOMMUFD, the `iommu` fd must first be acquired from `/dev/iommu`. Using the `IOMMU_IOAS_ALLOC` `ioctl`, a new IOAS can be allocated. The device file descriptor, which was previously acquired with `VFIO_GROUP_GET_DEVICE_FD`, can now simply be obtained through opening the character device `/dev/vfio/devices/vfioX` [26]. In order to use the device with VFIO, it still has to be bound to IOMMUFD, using `VFIO_DEVICE_BIND_IOMMUFD`.

The IOAS can then be assigned to the device using `VFIO_DEVICE_ATTACH_IOMMUFD_PT`. As with containers, this operation can be performed on multiple devices for a shared IOAS. The equivalent in VFIO is `VFIO_GROUP_SET_CONTAINER`.

When using VFIO with IOMMUFD, the interaction with `vfio-pci` stays the same. Primarily, the functionality of reading, writing, and mapping to the device registers is unchanged, except that instead of the VFIO device fd, the character device fd is used.

As for (un-)mapping DMA, the `IOMMU_IOAS_MAP` and `IOMMU_IOAS_UNMAP` are used instead of `VFIO_IOMMU_MAP_DMA` and `VFIO_IOMMU_UNMAP_DMA`.

**Listing 4.5:** Mapping memory for DMA with IOMMUFD

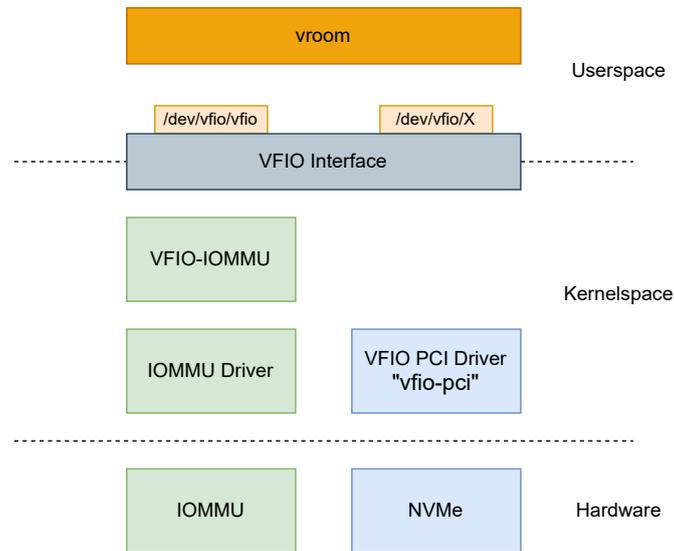
```
let mut ioas_map = iommu_ioas_map {
    size: mem::size_of::<iommu_ioas_map>() as u32,
    flags: IoctlFlag::IOMMU_IOAS_MAP_WRITEABLE | IoctlFlag::
        ↪ IOMMU_IOAS_MAP_READABLE,
    ioas_id: *ioas_id,
    __reserved: 0,
    user_va: ptr as u64,
    length: size as u64,
    iova: 0,
};

ioctl_unsafe!(*iommufd, IoctlOp::IOMMU_IOAS_MAP, &mut ioas_map)?;

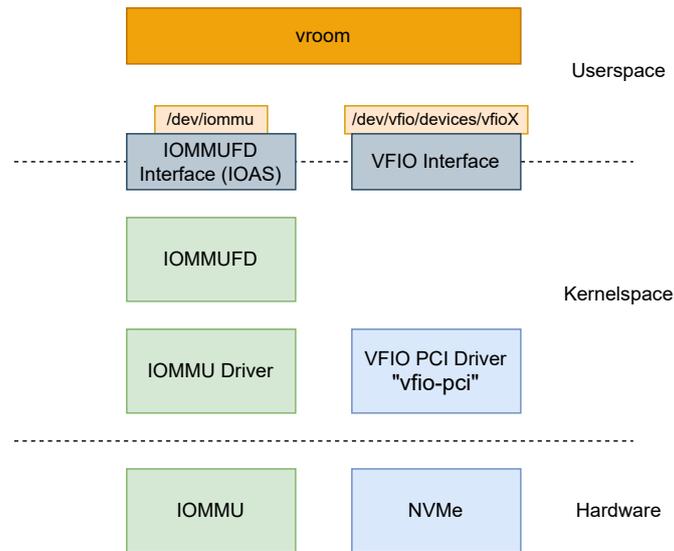
let iova = ioas_map.iova as usize;
```

## 4 Implementation

---



(a) VFIo with Containers



(b) VFIo with IOMMUFD (IOAS)

**Figure 4.2:** Layer diagrams of VFIo with VFIo Container API and IOMMUFD, adapted from [28]

### 4.3 Linux Systemcalls

A variety of Linux Systemcalls (syscalls) are used in vroom. The syscalls that are used by vroom are `mmap`, `ioctl`, `pread`, `pwrite` (and `mlock` for the non-IOMMU version). While there are crates that implement the syscall functionality, we only use the `libc` crate to avoid inflating the dependency list and executable size. As these require C-like syntax and unsafe code in Rust, we implement wrapper macros to provide locality of behavior and secure error handling. In Listing 4.6, the macro for the `mmap` syscall can be seen. As part of our error handling, we introduce an error enum variant for each syscall. To not hide the innate unsafety of these macros, we add the suffix `"_unsafe"`.

**Listing 4.6:** Syscall `mmap` macro, with own error variant

```
#[macro_export]
macro_rules! mmap_unsafe {
    ($addr:expr, $len:expr, $prot:expr, $flags:expr, $fd:expr, $offset:
        ↪ expr) => {{
        let ptr = unsafe { libc::mmap($addr, $len, $prot, $flags, $fd,
            ↪ $offset) };
        if ptr == libc::MAP_FAILED {
            Err(Error::Mmap {
                error: (format!("Mmap_{}_with_{}_{}_failed", $len)),
                io_error: (std::io::Error::last_os_error()),
            })
        } else {
            Ok(ptr)
        }
    }};
}
```

## 5 Evaluation

In this chapter, we analyze the performance impact of the IOMMU, directly comparing it to the physical address approach. To compare both approaches fairly, we allocate and map the memory upfront. The focus lies on the IOMMU itself and how it performs. All performance tests use legacy VFIO instead of IOMMUFD as it currently remains the widely supported way of using the IOMMU.

### 5.1 Setup

We use two systems to benchmark the driver’s performance. Both systems run Ubuntu 23.10 with Linux kernel version 6.5.0-42 and are NUMA systems with two nodes each. We stick to NUMA locality, ensuring that the tested processes access memory from their nearest available memory node to improve performance.

CPU	Memory	NVMe	Capacity	Count
Intel Xeon E5-2660v2	251 GiB	Samsung Evo 970 Plus	1 TB	1
AMD EPYC 7713	1007 GiB	Samsung PM9A3	1.92 TB	8

**Table 5.1:** Specifications of systems used in performance testing

CPU	Clock	Cores	Virtualization	Year
Intel Xeon E5-2660v2	2.2 GHz	10	VT-d	2012
AMD EPYC 7713	2.0 GHz	64	AMD-V	2021

**Table 5.2:** CPUs of the systems

---

NVMe	Maximum Queue Count	Maximum Queue Size	Turbowrite	Usage
Samsung Evo 970 Plus	128	16384	Yes	Consumer
Samsung PM9A3	128	16384	No	Enterprise

---

**Table 5.3:** NVMe(s) of the systems

Despite the NVMe specification’s maximum capability of 65536 I/O queues, our SSDs support a more reasonable amount of 128 I/O queues, which seems to be typical for modern SSDs. Turbowrite is a Samsung technology that drastically speeds up write latencies in the so-called "Turbowrite" buffer with the size of 42 GB of the NVMe, as shown in [20]. All NVMe SSDs used were formatted to 512-byte blocks.

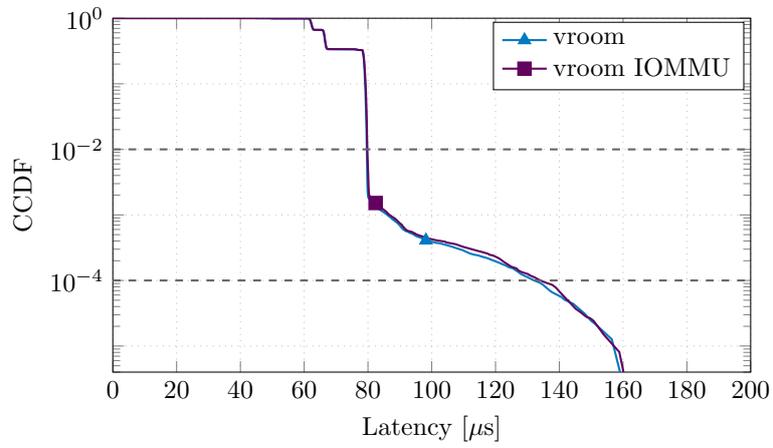
We use one thread per 1 I/O queue in our multithreaded tests. All writes are performed on an empty SSD to avoid overhead through garbage collection on the NVMe. As the NVMe can optimize reads on an empty SSD, all reads will be performed on a full SSD. We exclusively use random writes/reads for the tests, as the NVMe can drastically optimize sequential requests, which can lead to altered results. Unless stated otherwise, we configure the submission and completion queue length to the maximum amount supported by the NVMe. Additionally, all standard tests are run with the `iommu.strict=1` kernel parameter. When this parameter is set, the IOMMU invalidates the complete IOTLB when an unmapping occurs. As we unmap IOVAs in between tests, this ensures that the IOTLB is flushed before each test.

## 5.2 Results

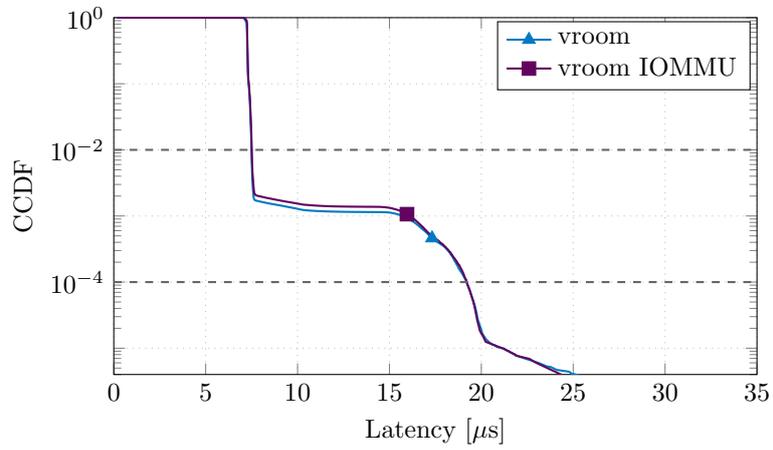
For the following performance tests, we will compare the latencies and throughput of vroom without the IOMMU and with the IOMMU, both utilizing 2 MiB pages. All latency and throughput tests are run with a 1 GiB buffer in memory. For 2 MiB pages, this equates to 512 pages being accessed. We use a unit size of 4 KiB, i.e., each I/O operation reads/writes 4 KiB to the the NVMe.

### 5.2.1 Latencies

All latency performance measurements are done singlethreaded with queue depth 1 over a timespan of 60 seconds.

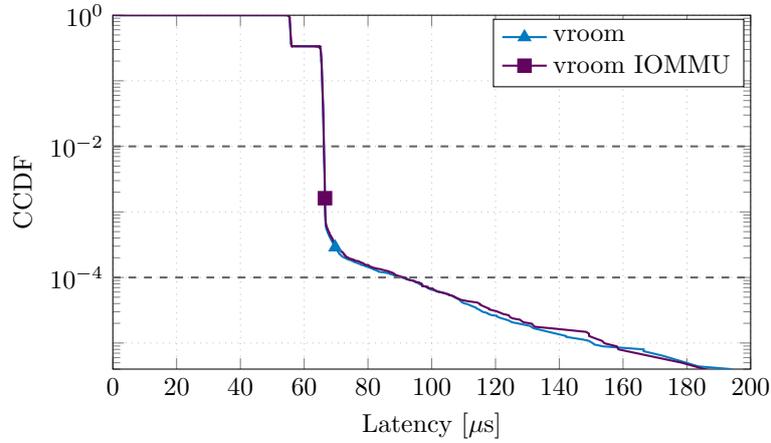


(a) Random read

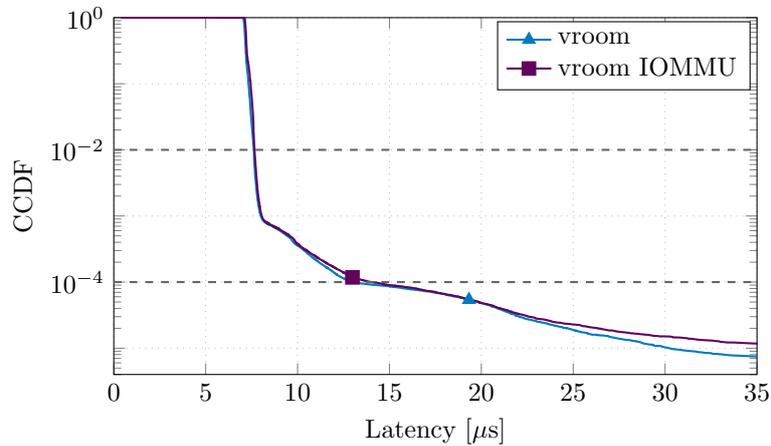


(b) Random write

Figure 5.1: Tail latencies (60s) on Intel System



(a) Random read



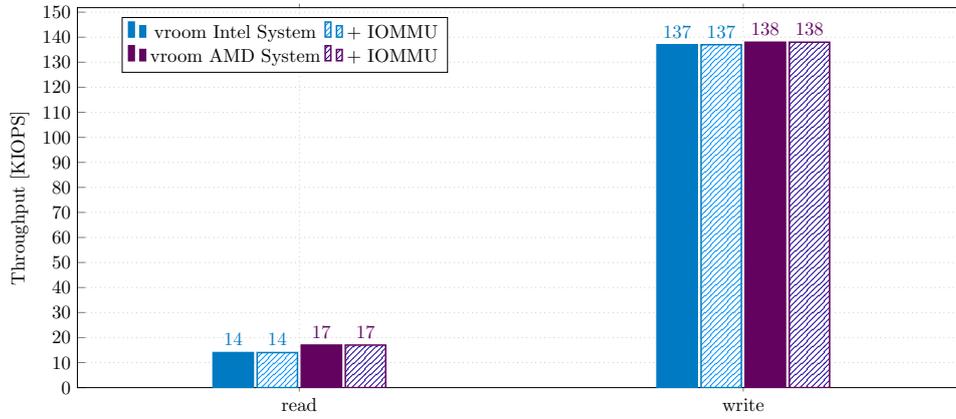
(b) Random write

**Figure 5.2:** Tail latencies (60s) on AMD System

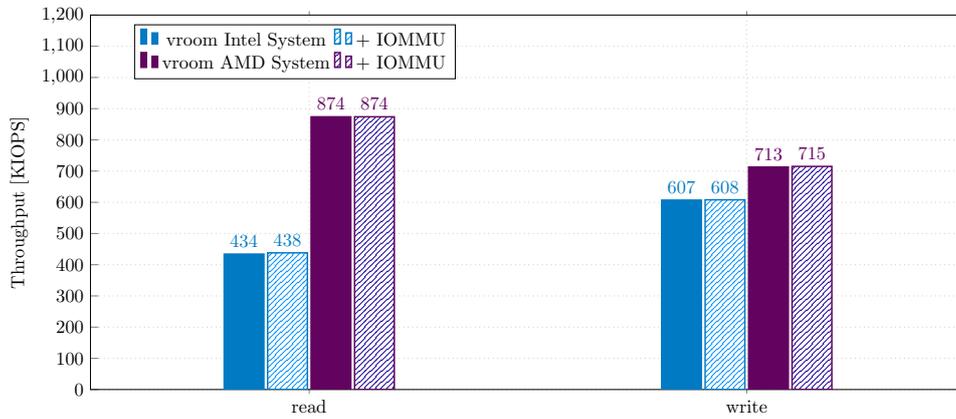
Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2 show that the latency distribution is the same with IOMMU as without. The lines are mostly overlapping. This shows that there are no significant latency spikes that occur due to the IOMMU.

## 5.2.2 Throughput

To test the overall throughput we perform random reads/writes over 60 seconds once with singlethreaded I/O and queue depth 1 and once with queue depth 32 and 4 threads. As seen on Figure 5.3, the IOMMU has no noticeable performance impact. Even with the higher queue depth and thread count, the performance is identical.



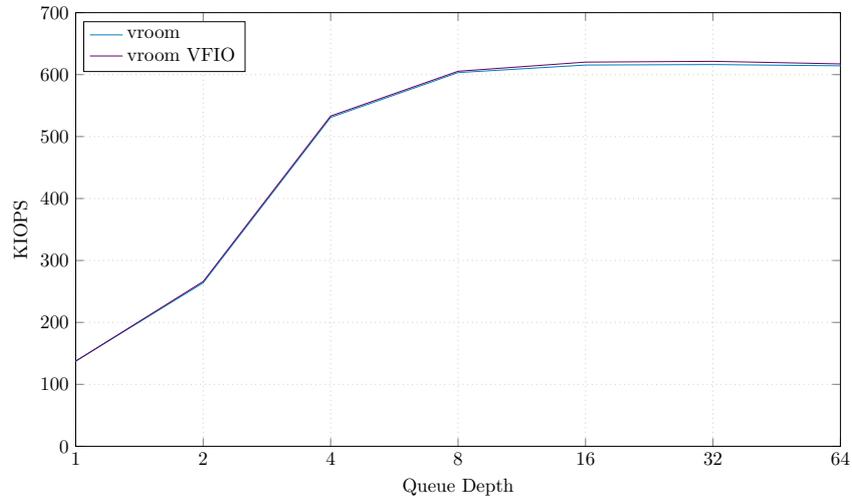
(a) Queue depth 1 and 1 thread



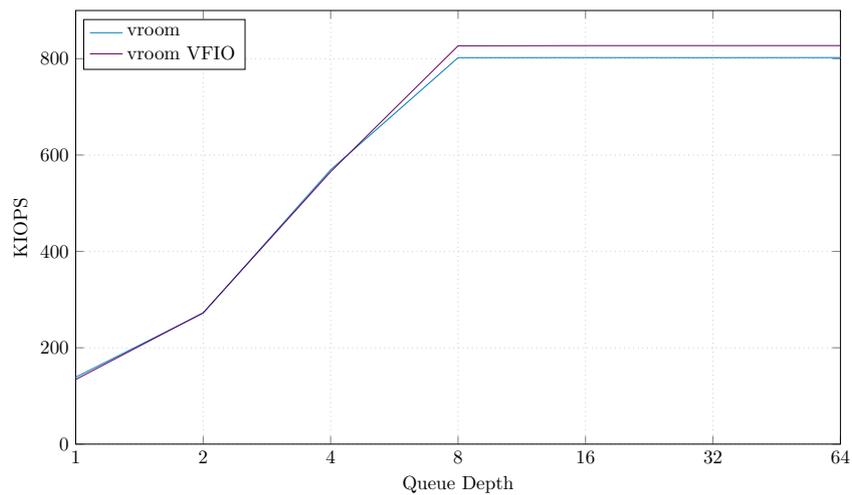
(b) Queue depth 32 and 4 threads

**Figure 5.3:** Throughput of singlethreaded and multithreaded I/O over 60s

We also take a look at throughput performance with larger queue depths. The performance is mostly the same, but a slight performance difference is noticeable on the AMD system, where the maximum throughput of vroom with IOMMU is around 3% higher than without the IOMMU.



(a) Intel System

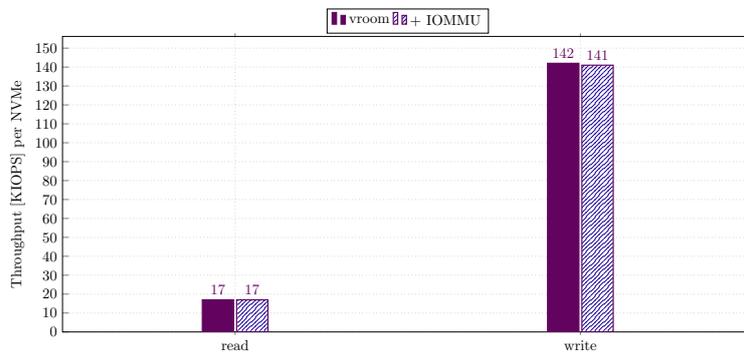


(b) AMD System

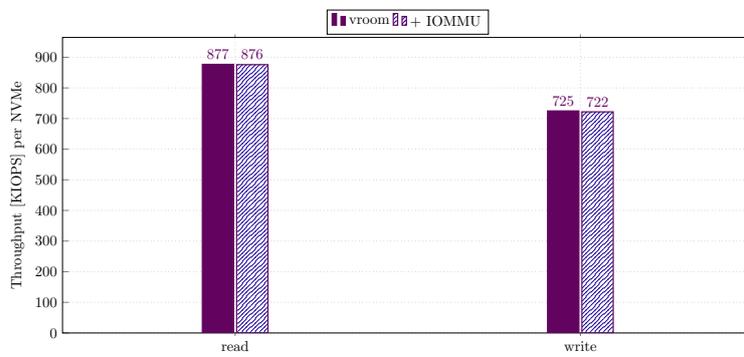
**Figure 5.4:** Random write throughput with increasing Queue Depth over 60s

**Using multiple SSDs** We further push the throughput by using 8 NVMe's with high queue depth and thread counts in parallel in Figure 5.5. Again, no significant performance impact occurs. Each NVMe has a slightly higher throughput than when tested alone.

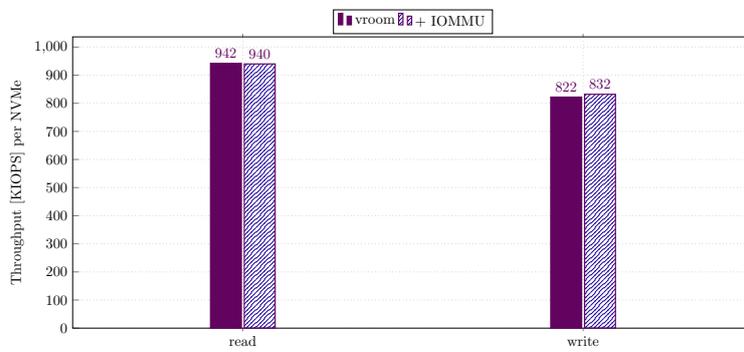
## 5 Evaluation



(a) Queue depth 1 and 1 thread



(b) Queue depth 32 and 4 threads



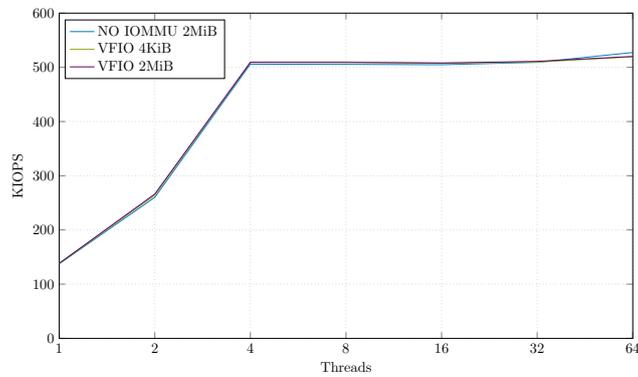
(c) Queue depth 128 and 16 threads

Figure 5.5: Throughput over 60s on 8 NVMe SSDs on the AMD system

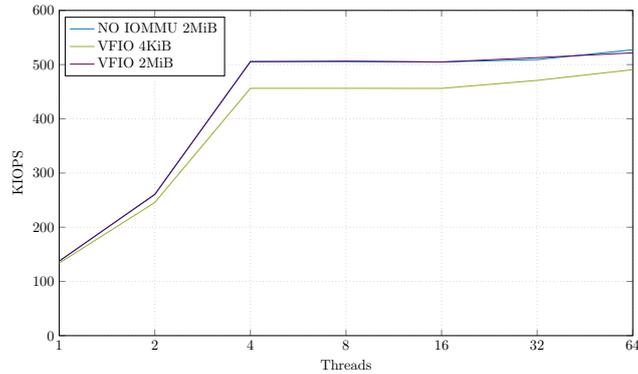
## 5.3 Impact of 4 KiB pages

### 5.3.1 Throughput

As Linux, as well as our IOMMUs, support 4 KiB, 2 MiB and 1 GiB page sizes, we will test and analyze how it affects the latencies and overall performance. A performance impact should be noticeable, especially using 4 KiB pages. As we use a typical unit size of 4 KiB, using 4 KiB pages should result in TLB-thrashing, i.e., every I/O operation resulting in a page walk. To test this hypothesis, we focus on the Intel system and only write to the Turbowrite buffer of the Samsung Evo 970 Plus to reach the maximum performance and lowest latencies. We test this using an increasing number of threads in Figure 5.6 and an increasing queue depth in Figure 5.7.



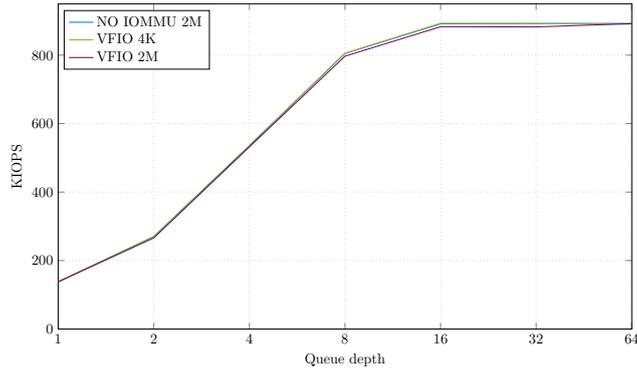
(a) 1 4 KiB buffer per thread



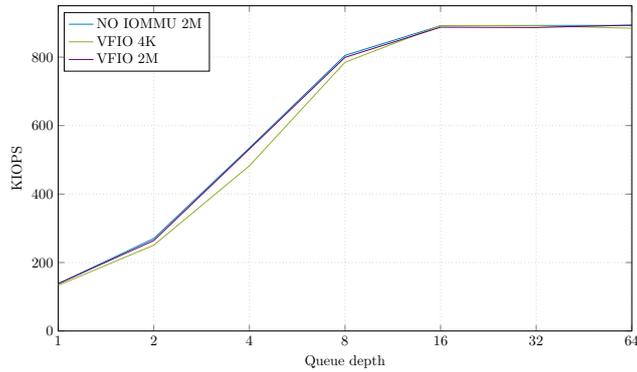
(b) 1 2 MiB buffer per thread

**Figure 5.6:** Random write throughput over 20s with increasing thread count and queue depth 1 on the Intel system

In Figure 5.6, when comparing the performance of vroom without the IOMMU against vroom with IOMMU using 4 KiB and 2 MiB pages on a 2MiB buffer, a performance difference of around 10% between 4 KiB pages and 2 MiB pages can be observed. This stems from the aforementioned IOTLB-thrashing. Noticeable is that no performance impact can be seen when using a 4KiB buffer, as all pages can fit into the IOTLB. The lines of both implementations using 2 MiB pages overlap with both buffer sizes.



(a) 1 4 KiB buffer per thread



(b) 1 2 MiB buffer per thread

**Figure 5.7:** Singlethreaded random write throughput over 20s with increasing queue depth on the Intel system

In Figure 5.7, a 10% performance decrease can be seen at queue depth 4. This difference grows smaller as we further increase the queue depth, though. At 16 or more queue depth the throughput caps at around 890KIOPS, and no more substantial difference between the implementations can be measured. As we have seen a constant decrease of 10% in performance when testing multiple threads in Figure 5.6, we suspect

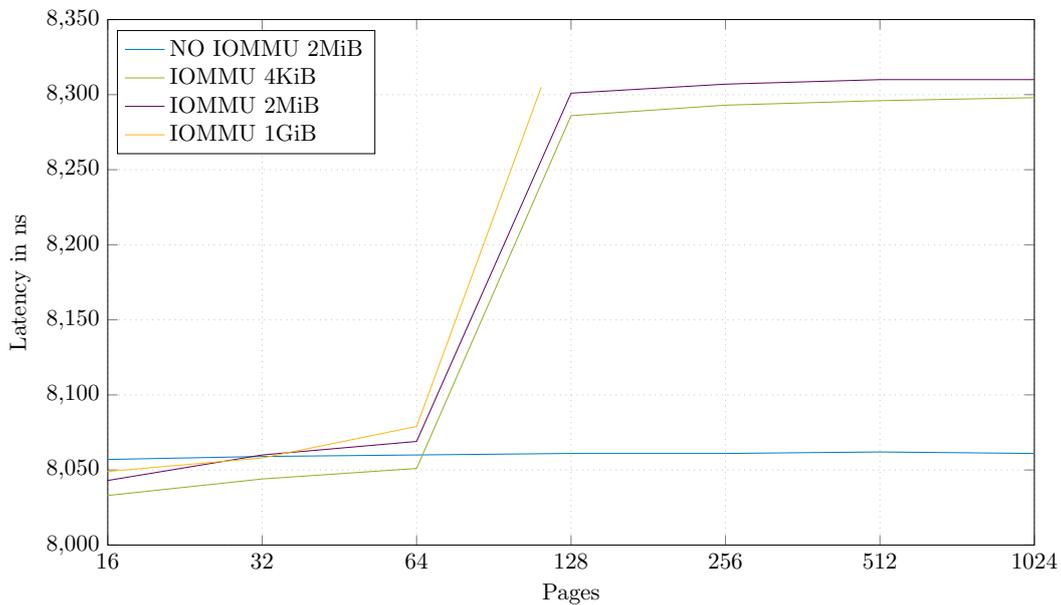
that the PCIe bus is the bottleneck and limiting the performance.

**PCIe limitations** The Intel System SSD is mounted on a PCIe 3.0 4x width bus with a maximum payload of 256 bytes. This PCI bus has a maximum throughput of 3.938 GB/s. Using the SSD to its full capability, i.e. using random writes with high queue depths in the Turbowrite buffer, can result in the bus being the bottleneck. With the highest throughput measured being 890K IOPS with one I/O operation containing 4096 bytes of data, we achieve 3.64 GB/s. Including the headers for each TLP and submission- and completion queue entries, we come to a result of 3.908 GB/s. This roughly equates the PCIe bus limit and leads us to conclude, that the missing overhead of using 4 KiB pages on high queue depths stems from this bottleneck.

### 5.3.2 Determining IOTLB size

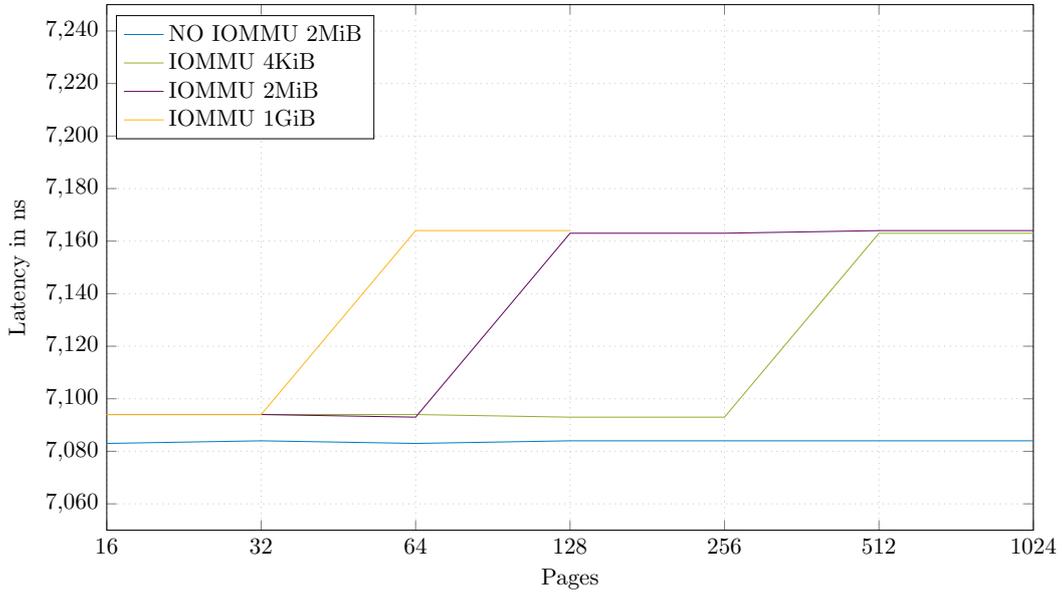
As the size of the IOTLB is not stated in hardware and VT-d or AMD-V specifications, we use a latency test to analyze the behaviour of the IOMMU. In order to isolate the effect of the IOMMU we track the latencies of the fastest operation the NVMe can perform. The lowest latency is achieved by carrying out a random write using the smallest block size of 512 B.

If we then write from a single block from each page to the NVMe, repeat it 65536 times on an increasing page count that are a power of two, we can figure out where a latency spike occurs. The page count right before the latency spike should equal the IOTLB entry count. We configure the queues, buffer and prp-list to each take up one page, resulting in a maximum of 6 pages in the IOTLB before the actual workload. The test is performed with VFIO with 4 KiB, 2 MiB and 1 GiB pages and without the IOMMU with 2 MiB pages as reference. As we have limited available memory, the 1 GiB pages could only be tested to 112 pages on the Intel system and 128 on the AMD system.



**Figure 5.8:** Latencies of random writes on an emptied SSD with increasing pages in memory on the Intel system

**Results of Intel Xeon E5-2660v2** In the resulting graph Figure 5.8 we can observe a performance spike of around 250 nanoseconds for each write between 64 and 128 allocated pages. In the case of 4 KiB pages, this is a memory size of only 512 KiB. Using this information, we can assume that the IOTLB has the same size for each pagesize, as well as it **being 64 entries of size**. This matches the page size Stefan Huber and Rolf Neugebauer found [11][17].



**Figure 5.9:** Latencies of random writes on an emptied SSD with increasing pages in memory on the AMD system

**Results of AMD EPYC 7713** On the AMD IOMMU, we can see three performance spikes. Each occurs between 32-64 pages for 1 GiB pages, 64-128 pages for 2 MiB, and 256-512 for 4 KiB pages. We can therefore assume that the IOTLB size depends on the pagesize unlike on the Intel CPU. This leads us to suspect an **IOTLB size of 32 for 1 GiB pages, 64 for 2 MiB pages and 256 for 4 KiB pages**. The latencies only decrease by about 60 ns, which is a about four times less than page walks on the Intel system.

## 6 Conclusion

In this thesis, we investigated the effects of using Linux VFIO for user space I/O. As part of our implementation, we added support for the IOMMU in the user space NVMe driver vroom. We tested the performance and discussed the security benefits of VFIO. Additionally, we implemented the new IOMMUFD user API and compared it to legacy VFIO.

Our findings include the IOTLB size of two IOMMU models by Intel and AMD, which, when exceeded, can introduce address translation overhead for 4 KiB pages, reaching up to a 10% decrease in throughput. When not exceeding the IOTLB or using hugepages, the IOMMU performs exceptionally well, and we could not measure any overhead versus using physical addresses. As the IOMMU provides bigger address spaces, access rights enforcement, and the ability for the driver to run without root privileges, it is a clear improvement for driver security and versatility.

Considering that in recent years, IOMMU technology has seen a rise in popularity in the use of hardware passthrough for virtualization, it is likely that in the future, the IOMMU performance and the IOTLB size will increase, further closing any existing gap. The ability to improve security drastically and increase address space while not compromising on performance is the reason the MMU succeeded, and it is likely that the IOMMU will as well.

**Future Work** Future Work on the driver could include expanding the NVMe capabilities. Currently, the driver is fixed to one namespace. Furthermore, the driver does not support a block device layer or file system. Exploring these areas could enhance the functionality and versatility of the driver. Also, it could be investigated if and how many threads could operate on one I/O queue to further push the throughput. Finally, a performance investigation into IOMMUFD could be conducted, as we only tested the legacy VFIO implementation's performance.

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