

**DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION
OF A UDP/IP OFFLOAD ENGINE**

Burak BATMAZ
Master of Science Thesis

Electrical and Electronics Engineering Program

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	<u>Adı Soyadı</u>	<u>İmza</u>
Üye (Tez Danışmanı) :	Doç. Dr. Atakan DOĞAN	
Üye :	Doç. Dr. Hakan Güray ŞENEL	
Üye :	Yrd. Doç. Dr. M. Mustafa ATANAK	

Anadolu Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yönetim Kurulu'nun tarih ve sayılı kararıyla onaylanmıştır.

Enstitü Müdürü

ABSTRACT

Master of Science Thesis

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF A UDP/IP OFFLOAD ENGINE

Burak BATMAZ

Anadolu University

Graduate School of Sciences

Electrical and Electronics Engineering Program

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Atakan DOĞAN

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Network packet processing in high data rates has become a major problem especially for the processors. Fortunately, this thesis offers a solution to this problem by means of an IP core that provides the hardware acceleration of UDP/IP protocol stack together with few other network protocols. Furthermore, the IP core is equipped with PCI Express (PCIe) interface so as to communicate with applications running on PC. Consequently, a processor core deals with only the data processing, while the IP core takes care of the packet processing as per the protocol. The design and implementation of the IP core are verified and tested on a Xilinx XUVP5-LX110T board. Moreover, its area utilization and supported features are compared against several competitive designs from the literature. According to these results, the proposed IP core is proved to be a usefull one for those applications that require a hardware-accelerated network protocol stack for data communication.

Keywords: FPGA, UDP/IP, PCIe, Network Protocols, Digital Design

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

UDP/IP OFFLOAD ENGINE TASARIMI VE GERÇEKLENMESİ

Burak BATMAZ

Anadolu Üniversitesi

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

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Yüksek hızlarda ağ paketlerinin işlenmesi özellikle işlemciler için bir problem haline gelmeye başlamıştır. Bu tez bu probleme UDP/IP protocol yığımlarıyla birlikte diğer birkaç ağ protokolünün donanım ile hızlandırılmasını sağlayan bir IP çekidek vasıtasıyla çözüm sunmaktadır. Ayrıca, IP çekidek bilgisayarda çalışan uygulamalarla haberleşebilmesi için PCI Express (PCIe) arayüzü ile donatılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, IP çekidek ilgili protokol gereğince paket işleme ile ilgilenirken, işlemci çekirdeği sadece veri işleme ile ilgilenir. IP çekirdeğin tasarımı ve gerçekleştirilmesi Xilinx XUVP5-LX110T kartı üzerinde doğrulanmış ve test edilmiştir. Ayrıca, alan kullanımı ve desteklenen özellikleri, literatürde yer edinmiş benzer çalışmalarla karşılaştırılmıştır. Bu sonuçlara göre, sunulan IP çekirdeğin veri iletişimi için donanım ile hızlandırılmış ağ protokol yığını gerektiren uygulamalar için kullanışlı olduğu kanıtlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: FPGA, UDP/IP, PCIe, Ağ protokolleri, Sayısal Tasarım

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ABBREVIATIONS

API	: Application programming interface
ARP	: Address Resolution Protocol
BOOTP	: Bootstrap Protocol
CPU	: Central processing unit
CRC	: Cyclic redundancy check
CSMA/CD	: Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Detection
DHCP	: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol
Din	: Data input
DLLP	: Data Link Layer Packet
DNS	: Domain Name System
ECRC	: End-to-end CRC
EMAC	: Ethernet MAC
FPGA	: Field Programmable Gate Array
FSM	: Finite State Machine
FSMD	: Finite State Machine with Datapath
HTTP	: Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol
ICMP	: Internet Control Message Protocol
IFG	: Inter-frame Gap
IHL	: Internet Header Length
IP	: Internet Protocol
IP Core	: Intellectual Property Core
LAN	: Local Area Network
LCRC	: Link CRC
LLC	: Logical Link Control
LUT	: Look-up Table
MAC	: Media Access Control
MTU	: Maximum Transmission Unit
NIC	: Network Interface Card
OS	: Operating system
OSI	: Open System Interconnection
PCIe	: PCI Express

RARP	: Reverse Address Resolution Protocol
SFD	: Start of Frame Delimiter
SMTP	: Simple Mail Transfer Protocol
TCP	: Transmission Control Protocol
TLP	: Transaction Layer Packet
TOE	: TCP Offload Engine
TOS	: Type of Service
TTL	: Time to Live
UDP	: User Datagram Protocol
UOE	: UDP Offload Engine
VoIP	: Voice over IP

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Motivation

Nowadays many applications need high-speed data transfers which are enabled by a stack of network protocols. These protocols are traditionally implemented by means of a software running on the host central processing unit (CPU); and they may require encapsulation, decapsulation, checksum computing, memory copying, etc., all of which are briefly called as *packet processing*. In high-speed networks, on the other hand, the packet processing requires an extensive amount of CPU power, which results in less CPU cycles for applications running on the host. Fortunately, the computing power of CPU spared for the packet processing can be saved provided that the packet processing tasks are delegated to a so-called *offload engine* that can perform them on the network adapter. An offload engine can be implemented with a network processor and firmware, ASICs or FPGAs, or a mixture of these. Within the scope of thesis, a set of network protocols that are enough to provide data communication in Internet will be offloaded to hardware on a FPGA.

An offload engine purely implemented in hardware is usefull for system-on-chip (SoC) systems as well. A processor or an application logic in a SoC system can exploit a hardware-based offload engine for the data communication without the need for running the software-implemented network processes.

1.2. Thesis Goals and Contributions

Motivated by aferomentined facts, the main goals of this thesis are designing a gigabit speed Offload Engine for the network protocol stack which includes User Datagram Protocol (UDP) [1], Internet Protocol (IPv4) [2], Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) [3], Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) [4] and Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) [5], equipping this Offload Engine with a PCIe [6] interface for those applications running on a PC and with

Ethernet [7] for the network connection and implementing and verifying it on Virtex 5 FPGA-based development board.

Different from the previous studies, this thesis contributes to the literature in a few dimensions:

- Offload Engine is the first to use a third party PCIe IP core to interface with user applications.
- It is the first to implement DHCP protocol on hardware.
- It can simultaneously support multiple data streams from different applications.
- It has a pipelined design for achieving higher data throughputs and clock rates.

1.3. Thesis Organization

Organization of the thesis is as follows: Section 2 gives the background information about the implemented protocols in Offload Engine, Ethernet and PCIe interface. In Section 3, the overall system design is given, a few third party IP cores used in the design are introduced and an application programming interface for the design is presented. In Section 4, Offload Engine is described in detail. Section 5 presents the synthesis results of Offload Engine, compares them with the previous designs from the literature. It further includes the functional verification of the implemented network protocols and the experimental results for the achieved data throughputs under different scenarios. In Section 6, conclusions and future avenues of research are given.

2. BACKGROUND

2.1. OSI Layers

International Standards Organization published Open System Interconnection Reference Model in 1984. This model has introduced seven layers, each of which has different responsibilities and functionalities. These layers are further elaborated by Open System Interconnection (OSI) and TCP/IP reference models in [8]. Figure 2.1 shows the layered architecture of these reference models. The layers are briefly explained in the following sections.

2.1.1. Physical layer

Physical layer is the bottom layer of the OSI reference model and every network device has this layer. The layer is concerned with transmission and reception of electrical or optical signals over a physical medium. Messages reach this layer as electrical or optical signals, they are converted to data bits and finally delivered to upper layers, or vice versa. Furthermore, the specifications of connectors, physical medium, network topology, etc. are defined in this layer.

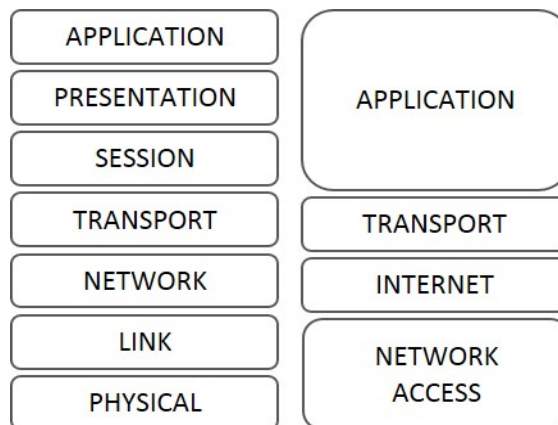


Figure 2.1. OSI and TCP/IP reference models

2.1.2. Data link layer

Data Link layer is the second layer of the OSI reference model, and it is composed of two sublayers, namely Media Access Control and Logical Link Control.

2.1.2.1. Media access control

Media Access Control (MAC) sublayer is placed between Physical layer and Logical Link Control sublayers. This layer is primarily responsible for providing a data communication channel among the network nodes that share a common medium. In order to avoid collisions in the shared medium, MAC sublayer runs a medium access control algorithm such as Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Detection (CSMA/CD). In addition, MAC sublayer deals with framing as well. Before sending a packet, MAC layer appends a preamble, MAC source and destination addresses, etc. at the head of packet and a cyclic redundancy check (CRC) at the tail of packet. While receiving packets, their CRCs are calculated and checked for possible errors.

2.1.2.2. Logical link control

Logical Link Control (LLC) sublayer is a bridge between Network layer and Media Access Control sublayer. LLC adds two bytes to the head of any packet received from Network layer to specify the packet type (IP or ARP). These two bytes are known as LLC header. For the packets that are received from MAC sublayer, LLC header field is controlled and they are delivered to the appropriate protocol.

2.1.3. Network layer

Network layer is the third layer of the OSI reference model. The most commonly used network protocol is IPv4, and also preferred in this study. Its

main tasks include forwarding, routing, and logical addressing, fragmentation of those packets bigger than the maximum transmission unit (MTU) and defragmentation of the received fragmented packets.

2.1.4. Transport layer

Transport layer is the fourth layer of OSI reference model. Mostly used transport layer protocols are Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) and User Datagram Protocol (UDP). TCP [9] is a reliable and connection oriented protocol. It can provide end-to-end reliable packet transmission, end-to-end flow control and end-to-end congestion control. Unlike TCP, UDP [1] is an unreliable protocol and does not guarantee that packets will be delivered to their destination hosts. Applications that require low latency packet transmission such as Domain Name System (DNS), Voice over IP (VoIP) use UDP protocol. Both TCP and UDP need to deal with multiplexing/demultiplexing of packets as well. In this study, UDP is implemented as Transport layer protocol.

2.1.5. Session layer

Session layer is the fifth layer of the OSI reference model. As the name implies, this layer is responsible for establishing, managing and terminating sessions between application processes on the same or different machines. Sockets are placed in this layer. A network socket is an application programming interface (API) that helps network programmers to start sessions between applications and use the lower layer protocols without knowing their implementation details.

2.1.6. Presentation layer

Presentation layer is the sixth layer of the OSI reference model. Applications can use different syntaxes and this layer transforms them to a common format. When receiving data, it transforms the data back to the format

that application uses. Data compression and encryption are also handled by this layer.

2.1.7. Application layer

Application layer is the highest layer of the OSI reference model. This layer offers several protocols to applications to use the network. For example, web browser applications use Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol (HTTP) [10] and e-mail applications use Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP) [11] in this layer.

2.2. User Datagram Protocol

User Datagram Protocol (UDP) is a connectionless, unreliable transport layer protocol [1]. UDP does not establish a connection between hosts, so there is no packets for setting up a connection or closing it. UDP is an unreliable protocol and it gives no guarantee for packet delivery. Thus, applications are responsible for detecting duplicate packets. UDP has no congestion control or flow control either. Therefore, applications need to keep their sending rate under control so that they will not congest the network or overwhelm the receiver side. Because of these inherent features, UDP is preferred by applications that are time critical and do not require reliability.

Each protocol in the network stack encapsulates the data with a header. Similarly, UDP header structure is in Figure 2.2 [1].

According to Figure 2.2, UDP header consists of four fields, each of which is 16-bit long:

Source Port (16 bits)	Destination Port (16 bits)
Length (16 bits)	Checksum (16 bits)
Application Data	

Figure 2.2. UDP header structure [1]

- **Source Port:** Each application on a computer has a port number that is associated with it so that different applications can send and receive data at the same time. Transport layer protocols multiplex outgoing packets and demultiplex incoming packets according to these port numbers. So, this defines the port number of a sender application.
- **Destination Port:** This defines the port number of a receiver application. If a client is sending UDP packets to a server, destination port numbers are usually well known.
- **Length:** This field carries the length in bytes of UDP header (8 byte) and Application Data.
- **Checksum:** Checksum is the 16-bit one's complement of the one's complement 16-bit sum of a pseudo-header of information from IP header, which is shown in Figure 2.3, UDP header, and Application Data. This field is used for error checking of the received packets by a receiving host. However, the checksum field does not have to be filled, and it can be filled all zeros.

In this study, UDP will be implemented as an IP core in which UDP header is added to or removed from packets, and the checksum calculation during sending and the checksum verification during receiving are not supported.

2.3. Internet Protocol

Internet Protocol (IP) is the network layer protocol of the network protocol stack. IP is a connectionless and unreliable protocol such as UDP, and upper layer protocols have to deal with reliability. IP is mainly responsible for addressing hosts using IP addresses and routing datagrams based on the host IP addresses.

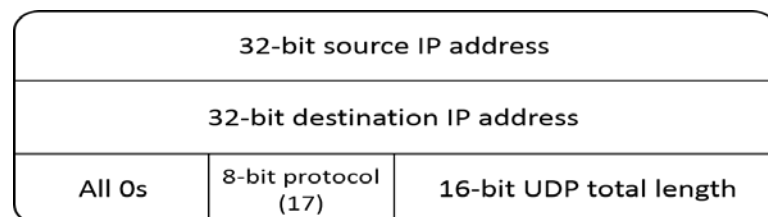


Figure 2.3. Pseudo-header for UDP checksum computing [1]

Each device connected to a network has a unique IP address, which is 32-bit for IPv4 and 128-bit long for IPv6. Since IPv4 is the most commonly used Internet protocol in today's network [2], it is chosen to be implemented on hardware by this thesis. Figure 2.5 shows the IPv4 header structure, and its fields are explained below:

- **Version:** It is 4-bit field that specifies the version of IP protocol. For our design, this field is fixed to 4 since it supports only IPv4.
- **Internet Header Length (IHL):** It is 4-bit field that indicates the total length of IP header. This number must be multiplied by four to find out the header byte count in bytes. If Options field is not used, this field is set to 5 since the standard IPv4 header is 20 bytes long, which is the case in our design.
- **Total Length:** This 16-bit field represents the total number of data bytes in IP datagram, which results in the maximum data size of 64 Kbytes. However, if the maximum transfer unit (MTU) of network does not support such big datagrams, IP has to fragment them into smaller chunks. In our design, IP fragmentation is not supported, which requires that upper layer protocol need to send smaller packets than the MTU of network. Furthermore, if a fragmented packet is received by our receiver, it will be dropped.

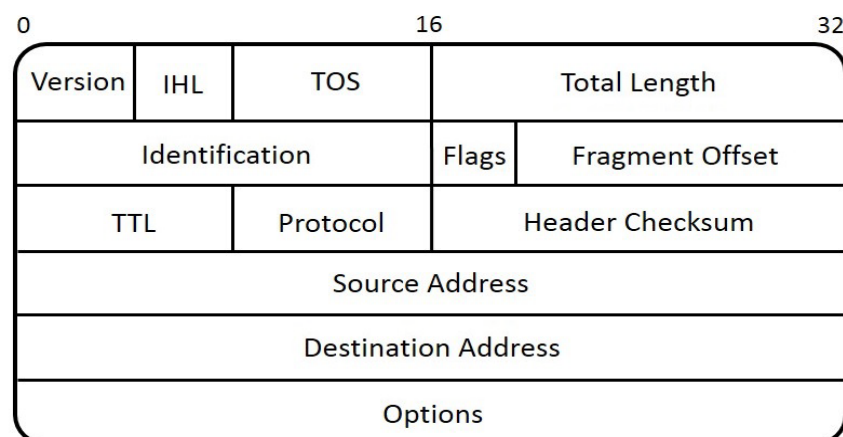


Figure 2.4. IPv4 header structure [2]

- Type of Service (TOS): This 8-bit field is used to specify the quality of service desired, such as low latency, high throughput or high reliability for IP datagrams. In our design, TOS field is not used and set to zero.
- Identification: This 16-bit field is used for identifying the fragmented IP datagrams. In our study, this field is also set to 0 when sending and ignored when receiving a datagram because of the lack of the fragmentation support.
- Flags: It is a 3-bit field related to the datagram fragmentation. Thus, Flags field is set to 0 in our design.
- Fragment Offset: It is 13 bits long field and carries an offset value if datagram is fragmented. This field is set to 0 as well.
- Time to Live (TTL): This 8-bit field determines the lifetime of a datagram. It is set by the sender and is decremented by one every time it traverses a hop. When TTL value becomes zero, datagram is discarded and an ICMP message is sent back to the sender of this datagram, which prevents them to get stuck in the network indefinitely. TTL is set to 128 by default in our design.
- Protocol: IP provides IP level demultiplexing through this 8-bit field that indicates which protocol is used in the upper layer. In our design, only two upper layer protocols exist: Code 1 tells IP to deliver this message to ICMP and code 17 to UDP.
- Header Checksum: This field is 16 bits long and used for error checking. In our design, it is calculated and placed in IP header when sending datagrams; but, Header Checksum is not checked by our receiver, since MAC Layer checks the CRC of all received frames.
- Source Address: This 32-bit field represents the IP address of the sender.
- Destination Address: This 32-bit field represents the IP address of the receiver. In our design, IP receiver checks this field of any datagram, and if it is not equal to the IP address of receiver, incoming datagrams are simply discarded. However, the broadcast packets will not be dropped.

- Options: This field is variable length and not present in every datagram, since it is optional. It represents a list of options such as security or record route. It is not used in our design.

In this study, IPv4 will be implemented as an IP core in which IP header is added to or removed from UDP and ICMP packets.

2.4. Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) [4] which runs over UDP is a network protocol that provides static or dynamic IP addresses from a DHCP server to DHCP clients on the network. A DHCP client is a user that requests an IP address from a DHCP server when it connects to the network or boots its computer. This protocol was first released in 1993, and then, the current DHCP definition for IPv4 was released in 1997. DHCP is built on Bootstrap Protocol (BOOTP) [12] which was the protocol that had taken the place of Reverse Address Resolution Protocol (RARP).

DHCP packet format is shown in Figure 2.5. DHCP has a standard format except for Options field. The fields of DHCP packet are explained below.

- Operation Code: This is an 8-bit field to indicate the type of packets. Clients send request packets with code 1 and server sends reply packets with code 2. Since our design implements a DHCP client, it is code 1.
- Hardware Type: This 8-bit field is set to 1 for Ethernet.
- Hardware Address Length: It specifies the length of MAC address in 8-bit field and is fixed at 6 by default.
- Hop Count: This field is set to 0 by client.
- Transaction Identifier: This field holds a 32-bit number defined by client to identify the packets that belong to different DHCP transactions. This field is set to Hexadecimal 000000BB in our design.
- Number of Seconds: It is filled by clients and represents the seconds passed from the beginning of the request process. This field is set to zero in our design.

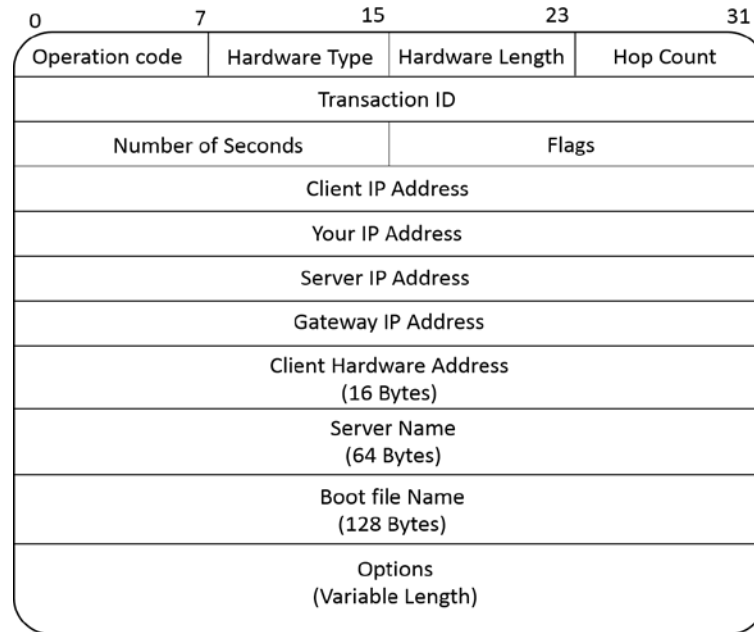


Figure 2.5. DHCP packet format [4]

- **Flags:** This 16-bit field is set 0 or 1 by a client while sending a request if it expects a broadcast reply or unicast reply from the server, respectively. In our design, it is fixed at 0 for the unicast reply.
- **Client IP Address:** If client has already taken an IP address and now renewing or rebinding it, it fills this 32-bit field with its own IP address. Otherwise, it fills with zeros even if it is requesting a specific IP address.
- **Your IP Address:** Server fills this 32-bit field with the IP address that has been assigned to a client.
- **Server IP Address:** This 32-bit field holds the IP address of the server that client will use for the renewing and rebinding processes. This field is not used and set to zero in our design.
- **Gateway IP Address:** This 32-bit field holds the IP address of a relay agent. A relay agent is required if a client and server are placed on different networks. It is not used and fixed at zero in our design.
- **Client Hardware Address:** It represents the MAC address of a client. Since this field is 16 bytes long and MAC address is 6 bytes long, it is padded with zeroes.

- Server Name: This 64-byte field is usually not used, but server can put its name here. It is not used and set to zero in our design.
- Boot File Name: This 128-byte field is usually not used. It is filled with zeros in our design.
- Options: This variable length field is used for basic DHCP operations. There are over 100 different DHCP options, and some of them are included in most of DHCP messages. For example, Option 53 is included in every DHCP message since it represents the message type. In our design, DHCP Message Type, Client Identifier and Requested IP Address options are used.

There are 8 different DHCP message types as shown in Figure 2.6. These messages are used in the DHCP state diagram [4] in Figure 2.7 in order to show how a client obtains an IP address, and renews or releases an already-taken IP address. According to this state diagram, for example, the initial IP assignment to a client is achieved by means of traversing the states from INITILAZE, SELECT, REQUEST to BOUND and using messages DHCPDISCOVER, DHCPOFFER, DHCPREQUEST and DHCPACK.

Code	Message Type
1	DHCPDISCOVER
2	DHCPOFFER
3	DHCPREQUEST
4	DHCPDECLINE
5	DHCPACK
6	DHCPNAK
7	DHCPRELEASE
8	DHCPINFORM

Figure 2.6. DHCP message types

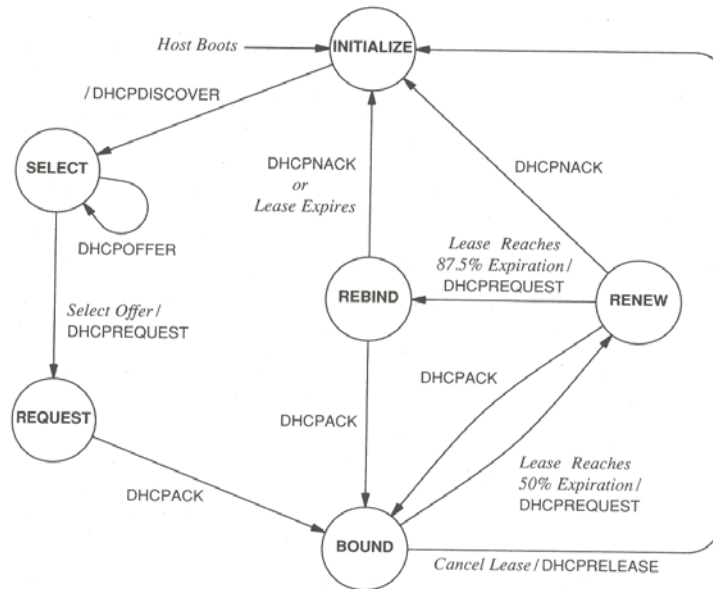


Figure 2.7. DHCP state diagram [13]

In this study, DHCP will be implemented as an IP core that handles only the IP address leasing process by sending and receiving the aforementioned DHCP packets.

2.5. Internet Control Message Protocol

Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) [3] is a protocol used for checking the condition of a host or reporting errors in datagram transfers so as to provide feedback about communication problems. ICMP messages are sent over IP protocol. ICMP message consists of header and data fields where ICMP header structure is given in Figure 2.9.

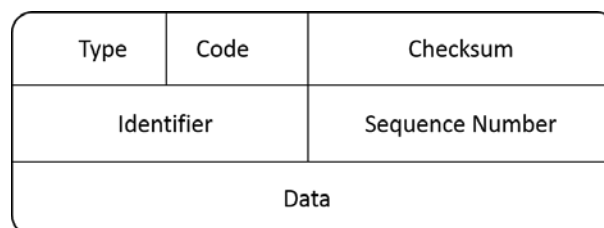


Figure 2.8. ICMP header structure for the ping messages [3]

- **Type:** This field is 8 bits long and specifies the type of ICMP message. Our design supports two types of ICMP messages, namely Echo (Ping) Request and Reply. That is, it can receive ping requests and generate a ping reply, but cannot generate a ping request.
- **Code:** This 8-bit field is an extension of Type field. For Echo Request and Reply messages, it is set to 0. On the other hand, if a datagram cannot be delivered to its destination for some reason, Type field is set to 3 and Code field takes a value from 0 to 15 depending on the reason, such as destination network unreachable, destination node unreachable, etc.
- **Checksum:** This 16-bit field is defined in RFC792 [3] as the 16-bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of the ICMP message starting with the ICMP type. Only one field is different in the ping reply packet and the ping request packet. In our design, checksum in the ping reply is calculated by a simple subtraction from checksum value in the received ping request packet.
- **Identifier:** This field is 16 bits long and present only in echo request/reply messages. It is used for matching the request and reply packets.
- **Sequence Number:** This 16-bit field is also present only in echo request/reply messages, and is used for keeping the count of the echo request messages.
- **Data:** It may be present in an ICMP message. In our design, the data in this field of the received ping request is saved into a FIFO and placed in the ping reply message. This field is used for validating the ICMP packet on the receiver side.

In this study, ICMP will be implemented as an IP core that can receive ping request packets and generates ping reply packets in return.

2.6. Address Resolution Protocol

Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) [5] is a bridge between the network and the data link layers of the OSI reference model, and runs on top of MAC layer in

order to map IP addresses to physical hardware addresses. According to ARP, a host broadcasts a message that asks for the MAC address for an IP address to all computers on the network; the host which uses that IP address sends its MAC address in another message to the requester host. ARP packet structure is given in Figure 2.9.

- **Hardware Type:** This field is 16-bit for specifying the network protocol type and it is set to 1 for Ethernet.
- **Protocol Type:** This 16-bit field is set to 2048 for IPv4.
- **Hardware Length:** It is 8-bit field and fixed at 6 to represent the length of MAC address.
- **Address Length:** This field is 8-bit and set to 4 to indicate the length of IP address.
- **ARP Operation:** This 16-bit field specifies the message type, where ARP Request and ARP Reply are represented by 1 and 2, respectively.
- **Sender MAC Address:** In ARP Request, this field is used to indicate the address of the host sending the request. In ARP Reply, it represents the address of the host that the request was looking for.
- **Source IP Address:** This is 32-bit IP address of the sender.
- **Destination MAC Address:** It is set to the MAC address who made the request in ARP Reply and it is ignored in ARP Request messages.
- **Destination IP Address:** This is 32-bit IP address of the intended receiver.

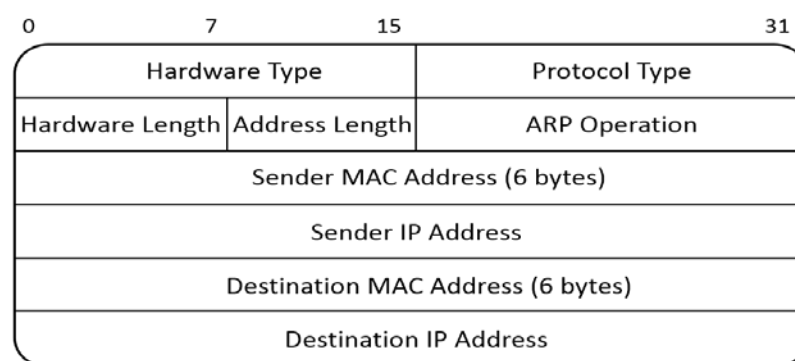


Figure 2.9. ARP packet structure [5]

ARP keeps a table which saves the IP addresses and their corresponding MAC addresses. By this way, host does not send an ARP request for every packet, which reduces the network traffic and speeds up the data transfers. If ARP cache becomes full and a new ARP Reply is received, then the least recently used IP and MAC address couple is replaced with the new one.

In this study, ARP will be implemented as an IP core in which ARP Request and ARP Reply packets are both received and sent, ARP cache is saved for the MAC addresses. ARP Request and ARP Reply packets are received, processed and delivered to the related component by ARP receive sub component. ARP requests are created in ARP sender by an order from the IP Tx component and ARP replies are created for received ARP requests. The received MAC addresses are kept in a cache in the ARP control&cache sub component to prevent sending ARP request for each IP packet.

2.7. Ethernet

Ethernet is the most widely used Local Area Network (LAN) protocol [7]. It was originally developed in 1980 and standardized by IEEE as IEEE 802.3 in 1983. A standard Ethernet packet structure is given in Figure 2.10.

- Preamble: It is 7 bytes of bit sequence of “10101010” for the synchronization on the receiver side.
- Start of Frame Delimiter (SFD): This is 1 byte bit sequence of “10101011”. It tells the receiver that the part coming after this byte is the actual frame.
- Destination/Source MAC Address: It represents the hardware address of the receiver and sender, respectively.

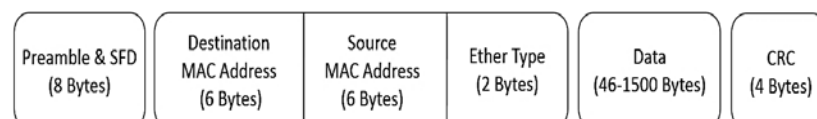


Figure 2.10. Ethernet packet structure [7]

- Ether Type: This field represents the protocol that is included in the Ethernet frame. Hexadecimal 0800 specifies an IP datagram and 0806 specifies an ARP packet.
- Data: This field carries a packet of upper layer protocol. This field needs to be minimum 46 bytes. As a result, if data is smaller than 46 bytes, Data field is padded with zeros.
- Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): This 32-bit checksum is calculated by means of the 32-bit cyclic redundancy check algorithm, and it is used for error detection on the receiver side. The CRC computation includes the destination and source MAC addresses, ether type and data fields.

It is required that idle time called as *Inter-frame Gap* (IFG) between two successive frames must be present. The standard minimum IFG is 96 “bit times”. This time gap naturally changes with the Ethernet line speed, e.g., 9.6 μ s for 10 Mbit/s, 0.96 μ s for 100 Mbit/s and 96 ns for the Gigabit Ethernet.

Ethernet uses Carrier Sense Multiple Access/Collision Detection (CSMA/CD) protocol to physically monitor the traffic on the channel and prevent any possible collision. CSMA/CD is placed on the Media Access Control (MAC) sub-layer of the Ethernet. This protocol allows multiple computers to share a channel. If two computer try to send packets at the same time, this causes a collision. If a collision occurs, computers try to send again after a randomly selected time, which is known as the *exponential back-off*.

In this study, Ethernet will be implemented by a third party IP core in which preamble, SFD and CRC are added to the packets to be sent and received packets are checked for error and delivered to upper layers.

2.8. PCI Express

PCI Express (PCIe) is the third generation I/O bus used to interconnect peripheral devices in computing or communication systems [6]. PCIe has replaced the second generation buses PCI, AGP and PCI-X, and it is backward compatible with PCI and PCI-X. In PCIe jargon, a connection between two devices over PCIe is called a *link*, and a pair of signals in both directions is called a *lane*. A link can

consist of either x1, x2, x4, x8, x16 or x32 lanes. The transmission rate of a lane is 5 Gbits/s (2.5 Gbits/s in each direction). PCIe uses the 8B/10B encoding, which results in the fact that 250 Mbytes/s (2 Gbits/s) per lane is the highest achievable throughput in a direction.

PCIe uses Transaction Layer Packets (TLPs) to accomplish data transfers, and has a layered architecture. Figure 2.11 shows the layers of PCIe [6].

- Transaction Layer: The top layer of PCIe is responsible for creating TLPs and resolving them. This layer adds a header and end-to-end CRC (ECRC) to the data.
- Data Link Layer: Placed between Transaction and Physical layers, it is mainly responsible for the link management and error handling. The packets generated for the link management by this layer are called Data Link Layer Packets (DLLPs). Data Link Layer appends a sequence number to the head of TLP and Link CRC (LCRC) to the tail of TLP.
- Physical Layer: This layer takes care of serializing the information that is received from Data Link layer and sending over a link at a width and frequency compatible with the receiver, or vice versa.

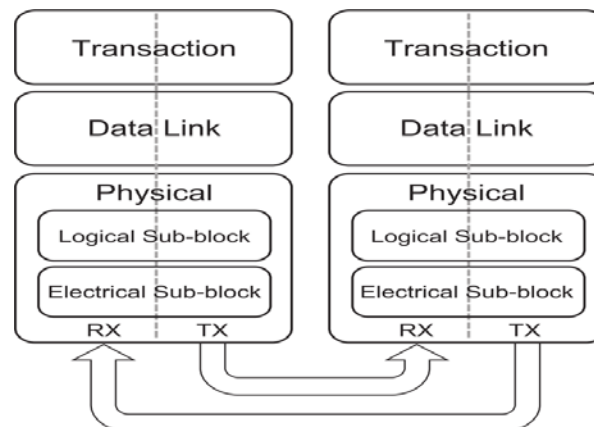


Figure 2.11. PCIe layers [6]

2.9. Network Packet Processing Overview

There are many layers involved in the network packet processing and most of them are currently handled by CPU. Figure 2.12 shows a simplified structure

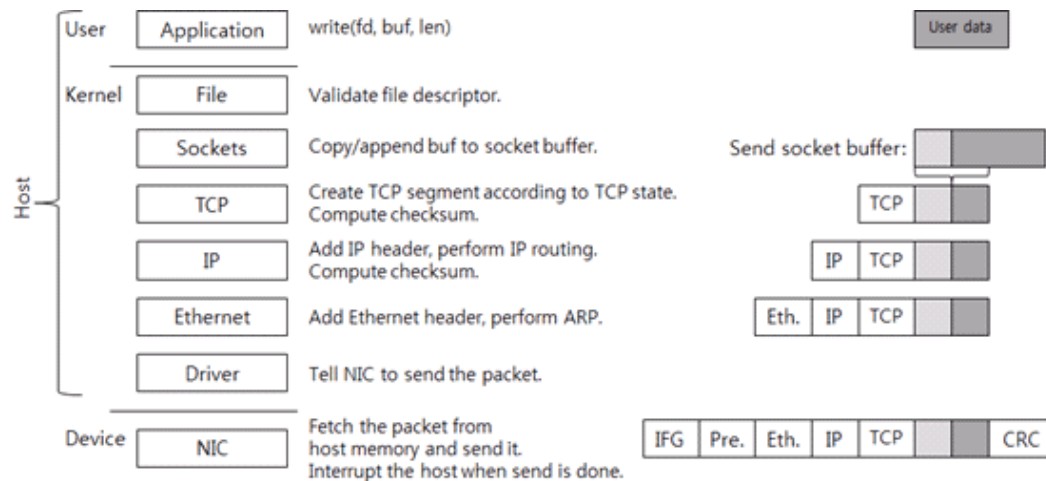


Figure 2.12. Operational structure of the network stack [14]

of the packet processing [14], where it is run in three different system mode of operation, namely *user*, *kernel* and *device*. User and kernel modes together are called *host* and device is a *Network Interface Card* (NIC).

Applications use *sockets* that are placed in the kernel space to send data. A socket is equipped with sending and receiving buffers. When an application wants to send data, it calls a system call which results in a change in the system mode from user to kernel, and then, data in the user space is copied to the sending buffer of the related socket in the kernel space. When data is copied to the socket buffer, a transport layer protocol is called to encapsulate it by the related protocol header. The same procedure is applied by the network and data link layer protocols as well. After an Ethernet frame is partially formed, NIC driver is called upon in order to copy frames from the main memory to the NIC memory. Finally, NIC adds preamble, CRC and Interframe Gap to every frame and sends them to the network.

The data receiving process is similar to the data transmitting one. When an Ethernet frame is received, NIC writes it into its memory. It checks its CRC, and if it is valid, NIC copies it to the main memory. After copying, NIC sends an interrupt request to the host operating system (OS). It should be noted here that nearly 60 packets are processed per interrupt for 10 GbE and 7 packets for 1 GbE [15]. A driver changes these frames to a form that OS can understand. Ethernet, network and transport layers process the related header field, respectively, and

then, each layer removes it. Finally, the received data is written to the receive buffer of the socket. When application calls the read system call, data is copied from the kernel to user space and removed from the socket buffer.

This network stack processing puts a large amount of load on CPU. In [15], the core utilization related to the network packet processing for 10 Gbps was studied. The experiments in [15] showed that two cores of Quad-Core Intel Xeon 5355 processor which are running at 2.66 GHz are saturated in order to reach the line rate throughput. The amount of core utilization was about 225%.

In addition to [15], the core utilization of network packet processing for 1 Gbps is presented in several studies [16,17,18] as well. The core utilization values measured by these works are given below in Figure 2.13, 2.14 and 2.15.

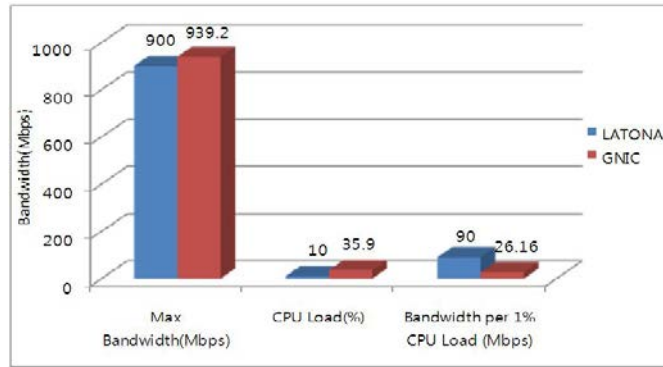


Figure 2.13. CPU load and throughput comparison between Latona and GNIC [16]

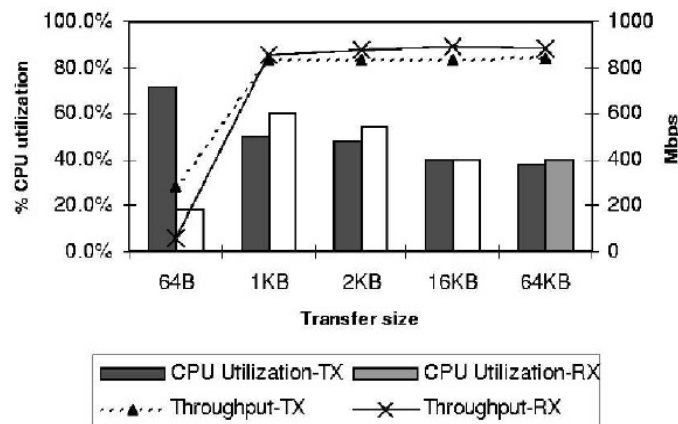


Figure 2.14. CPU Utilization of Tx and Rx sides at 2.4 GHz system [17]

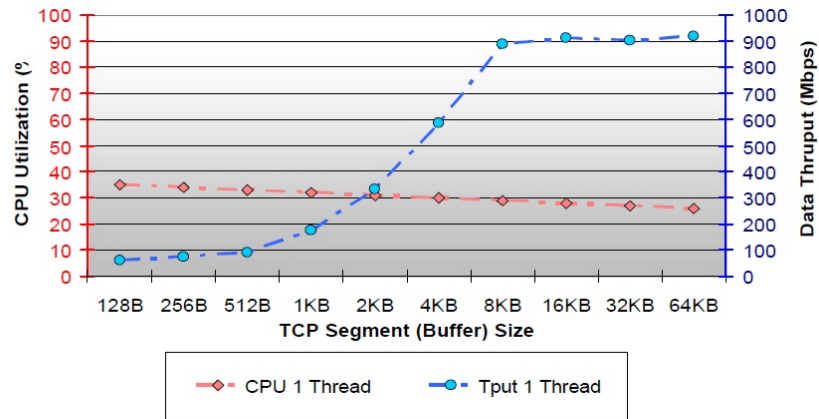


Figure 2.15. CPU Utilization of network stack processing at 1 Gbps [18]

It can be seen in these figures that the average CPU utilization for 1 Gbps is about 35%. There are different studies to reduce the load on CPU caused by network packet processing. Motivated by these studies, we present an Offload Engine that takes the most of the packet processing tasks from CPU to hardware. Figure 2.16 shows the overall structure of our system: (i) The tasks related to UDP and IP are moved to the hardware. (ii) The socket buffers are implemented on the hardware. The driver in the kernel space returns a file descriptor to applications to read or write. This file descriptor, on the other hand, is a device file that is connected to the socket buffers on the hardware. In this way, data is copied only once from the user space to the socket buffers on the hardware. This design reduces the system load and relieves the CPU to spend more clock cycles on application processes.

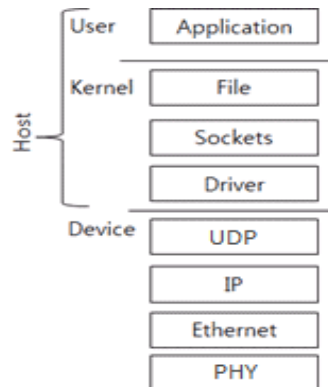


Figure 2.16. Operational structure of our design

2.10. Related Work

In the literature, there are several examples of design and implementation of UDP/IP and TCP/IP protocol stacks on hardware. Löfgren et al. [19] presented three cores as minimum, medium, and advanced for different network system requirements. All of these three cores are based on the same architecture. The minimum core is designed mostly for one way network traffic, either send or receive. Since it is designed for minimal systems, it is very area effective but not flexible. Medium core is based on the Minimum core implementation. ARP and ICMP functionalities are included in this design, and it offers higher flexibility than Minimum. This is a mediocre core between Minimum and Advanced cores. Advanced core can operate at gigabit speed and can handle packets with the length of 1518 bytes (1472 bytes of application data). Minimum and Medium designs can handle packet sizes up to 256 bytes. Additionally, Reverse Address Resolution Protocol (RARP) is implemented by Advanced core.

In [20], an efficient communication between PC and FPGA is aimed. In order to minimize the I/O operation for the data transmission between PC-FPGA, they present a core design. PC and FPGA are connected with an Ethernet cable. This design contains an Ethernet MAC (EMAC) core for Ethernet connection.

Their design has components that handles transport layer and internet layer level packets encapsulation and decapsulation processes. UDP and IPv4 protocols are used for the transport and internet layers. A look up table (LUT) is used for the static fields of the UDP and IPv4 protocols.

Alachiotis et al. [21] proposed an extended version of their previous work which takes more area in exchange for a better performance and flexibility. The main difference is that the static header field is controlled by an initialization packet from PC. The extended version also offers a communication protocol and provides a software/hardware interface and communication library implementation for the use of design.

Herrmann et al. [22] present a UDP/IP stack on FPGA. Transport, network and link layers are implemented on hardware, and UDP, IPv4 and Ethernet protocols are used for these layers respectively. Different from our work, this

study does not use a provided IP core for the ethernet connectivity, and it is based on its IP component that is designed to handle the MAC layer processes. This design offers a theoretical 1960 Mbps of full duplex throughput.

Dollas et al. [23] present a TCP/IP stack on FPGA. This is one of the most comprehensive works in the literature and it implements TCP, UDP, IP, ARP ICMP protocols. Virtex 2 FPGA is used for the implementation of the system. Overall design has a 37.5 MHz maximum working frequency and an 8-bit datapath, so the system can achieve 350 Mbps throughput. TCP is the slowest component in this design. If TCP is removed and UDP is kept as the only protocol in the transport layer, the system frequency would go higher and a better throughput would be achieved.

Vishwanath et al. [24] combine the better sides of TCP and UDP protocols and offer an emulated UDP Offload Engine (UOE). This design is based on the Chelsio T110 TCP Offload Engine (TOE) [25], and it implements high performance UDP/IP sockets for applications to use the design.

In [26], two different versions of a UDP/IP core are presented. The only difference between two versions is UDP checksum calculation. This core can operate at gigabit speed and implements UDP, IP and ARP protocols. The core implementation is realized on Spartan 6 FPGA.

In [27], the socket processing in addition to the TCP/IP processing is offloaded to the hardware to reduce the system overhead. A software-hardware codesign on system-on-chip is presented in [28] to improve the performance of the network protocol processing and provide quality of service functionality for the real-time applications. This core can operate at 100 Mbps. In [29], ARP protocol is implemented on Virtex 5 FPGA. In [30], a minimal UDP/IP stack on FPGA is presented so that it can be used for the real-time transmission of sensor data in sonar systems. In [31], a 10 G TOE with low latency is proposed, and it is implemented on several FPGAs such as Virtex 5, Virtex 6, Spartan 6 and Zynq platforms. In [32], the network stack processing is offloaded to a dedicated processor core. Only one core deals with the protocol stack tasks and other cores deal with other system tasks. In [33], a UDP/IP ASIC is used to accelerate

multimedia transmission. The design uses jumbo frames to reduce the packet number and interrupt durations.

3. SYSTEM DESIGN

In this chapter, we present the system architecture of the IP core proposed, introduce a few third party IP components and an API in order for the network applications to use Offload Engine.

3.1. Overall System Architecture

The system architecture of the IP core proposed consists of three main components, namely *Xillybus*, *Offload Engine* and *EMAC Core*, as shown in Figure 3.1. Each of these components is responsible for different tasks. For example, Xillybus provides PC-FPGA communication over PCIe interface; Offload Engine handles full-duplex UDP/IP packet processing; EMAC Core is responsible for MAC layer packet processing, sending and receiving packets from and to the network.

It should be emphasized here that Xillybus and EMAC Core are the third party components from different IP core companies, while the design and implementation of Offload Engine and its interfaces to Xillybus and EMAC Core are the subject of this thesis. In the following, Xillybus and EMAC Core are described in some detail, while Section 4 is devoted to Offload Engine.

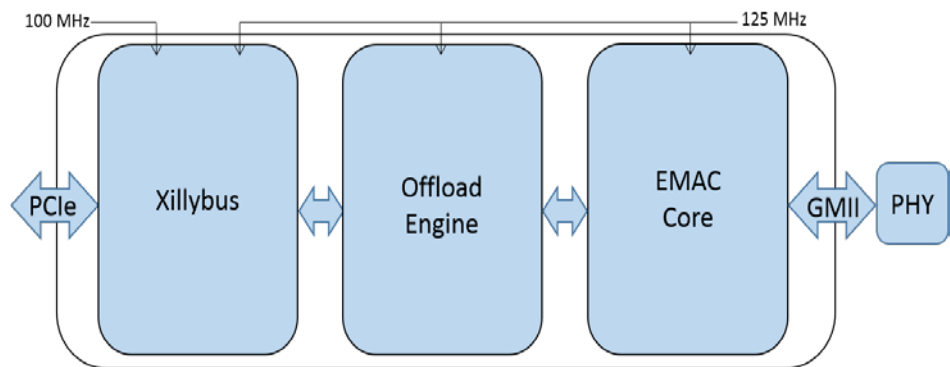


Figure 3.1. System architecture of the IP core proposed

3.2. Xillybus

This third-party component deals with PC-FPGA data communication. It is composed of three components, namely *PCIe Interface*, *Xillybus IP* and *Tx/Rx FIFO*, as shown in Figure 3.2. Each of these components is described in detail below.

3.2.1. PCIe Interface IP core

Xilinx Endpoint Block Plus 1.14 [34] is a hard IP by Xilinx and it is used for PCIe Interface IP core in our design. The latest version of this core is 1.15. However, since Xillybus IP core is working only with version 1.14, our design is based on version 1.14. Xilinx Endpoint Block Plus is for use with the family of Virtex-5 FPGAs. Note that our design is implemented on Virtex5-LX110T [35].

This core compliant with the PCIe Base 1.1 Specification [6] provides the full functionality of the all three layers of PCIe as follows: Its implementation of Transaction layer, which is the highest layer, takes TLPs from user logic and sends them to Data Link layer. Furthermore, it implements a flow control mechanism which ensures not to overwhelm the receiver side. However, it does not support ECRC. Its Data Link layer implementation sends TLPs with sequence number and LCRC; receives TLPs, checks their integrity, and then deliver them to

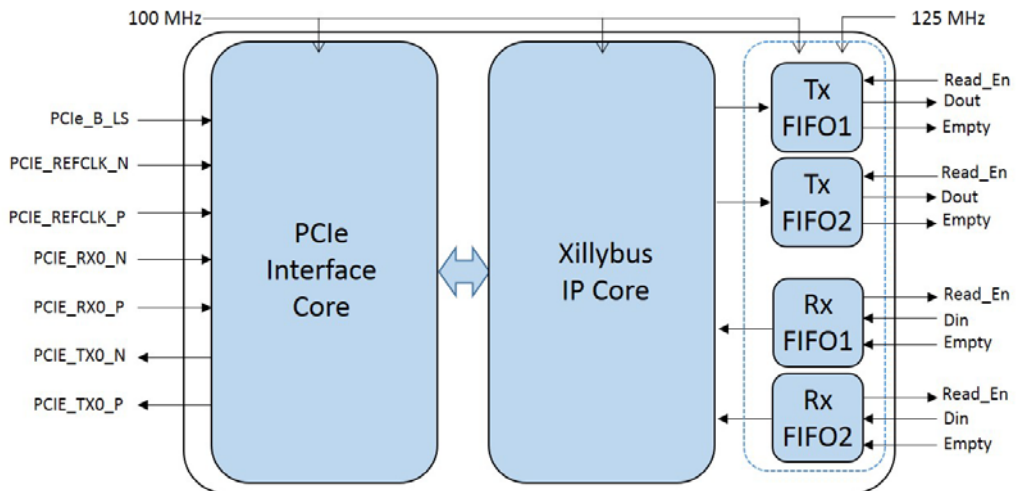


Figure 3.2. Overview of Xillybus architecture

Transaction layer. It can also handle error detection and correction, and request retransmissions for the corrupted packets. Its Physical layer implementation is responsible for transmitting, receiving the packets to and from the link.

There are seven signals for PCIe Interface core in Figure 3.2: PCIe_B_LS is a reset signal, PCIE_REFCLK_N and PCIE_REFCLK_P are 100 MHz differential clock signals. Other four differential signals are used for the data communication, where TX and RX are for transmitting and receiving, respectively.

3.2.2. Xillybus IP core

Xilinx Endpoint Block Plus alone is too primitive in nature to harness the power of PCIe interface immediately. Consequently, a user must still encode or decode data to form packets while obeying the many rules of the PCIe specification for addressing, packet size, etc. [6]. Once packets have been created, there are still several design hurdles and a great deal of effort that must be spent in order to turn these primitive interfaces into a useful one. Fortunately, Xillybus [36] provides a soft IP core that offers an immediate solution to the adoption of PCIe interface in custom designs.

Xillybus provides host-FPGA data communication over PCIe interface, where it uses simple FIFO interfaces for the communication with user logic on FPGA and basic file descriptors for the interaction with user applications running on host. Furthermore, this IP core can be built with the selected features such as channel count, channel width and maximum throughput through Xillybus IP factory from Xillybus web page [37].

Xillybus works with a 100 MHz clock and the rest of the system must be designed according to this. Xillybus has three different data widths as 8 bits, 16 bits and 32 bits. Higher data widths allow higher performance. However, Xillybus does not guarantee a continuous data flow, and there may be gaps between data blocks in any time during the data transmission. In our design, a Xillybus IP core with 32-bit send and receive interfaces is used for achieving 1 Gbit/s data throughput. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 3.2, Xillybus has two read (Rx FIFO) and two write (Tx FIFO) interfaces. Beside these interfaces, it has also a

memory interface for the configuration of Offload Engine, which is not shown in Figure 3.2.

3.2.3. Xilinx FIFOs

Offload Engine provides two independent transmission channels in each direction. As a result, two different applications running on a host can send and receive data at the same time. Since there are two channels, Xillybus must be interfaced with two Tx FIFOs and two Rx FIFOs as shown in Figure 3.2.

Tx and Rx FIFOs in Figure 3.2 are 2 Kbyte buffers generated using Xilinx FIFO generator IP core, where Tx FIFOs are wrapped with a First Word Fall Through (FWFT) wrapper and Rx FIFOs, on the other hand, are standard ones. Since Xillybus works with 100 MHz and the rest of the system is designed to use a 125 MHz clock signal, these FIFOs are chosen to have independent read and write clock signals so as to alleviate clock domain crossing problems. Furthermore, FIFOs provide data width conversion as well, where Xillybus-FIFO data bus interface is 32-bit, while Offload Engine-FIFO one is 8-bit.

With respect to Figure 3.2, a standard or FWFT FIFO has three signals in each side: *Write Enable*, *Data Input* and *Full* signals are available for the write interface, while *Read Enable* (*Read_En*), *Data Output* (*Dout*) and *Empty* signals are present for the read interface. It should be noted here that the difference between a standard FIFO and FWFT FIFO is only about reading data from FIFO. Standard FIFOs have a read latency of one clock cycle, whereas FWFT FIFOs can provide data in the same clock cycle in which *Read_En* is asserted.

3.3. MAC IP Core

MAC IP core [38] is from Xilinx and it is responsible for MAC layer encapsulation, sending and receiving packets to and from the network over the PHY chip on the board. MAC IP core has three components: Tx/Rx FIFOs, EMAC core and GMII physical interface. Figure 3.3 shows the architecture of MAC IP core.

EMAC Core has two FIFOs connected to it. These FIFOs work with active low signals. As far as Tx FIFO is concerned, the first byte of data should be sent while *src_rdy* (write enable) and *i_sof* signals are both set to zero. If *dst_rdy* (FIFO is not full) signal is zero, then data is accepted by FIFO and the next byte of data can be sent in the next clock cycle. Note that the last byte of data should be sent while *src_rdy* and *i_eof* signals are both set to zero. In a similar manner to Tx FIFO, Rx FIFO provides *o_sof* signal for the first byte of a received packet and *o_eof* signal for the last one.

EMAC core is the main part of MAC IP core. This core handles the encapsulation and decapsulation of packets. For the encapsulation, for example, it takes a data fragment, which is marked with start of frame (*i_sof*) and end of frame (*i_eof*) signals, and encapsulates it with preamble and start of frame delimiter. Furthermore, it computes the 32-bit CRC and adds it to end of the fragment. Finally, it leaves a 12-cycle Inter Frame Gap between successive Ethernet frames.

GMII is the interface component between EMAC core and the PHY chip on the board. This component provides physical data transactions over an Ethernet socket. There are four signals for both transmitting and receiving packets:

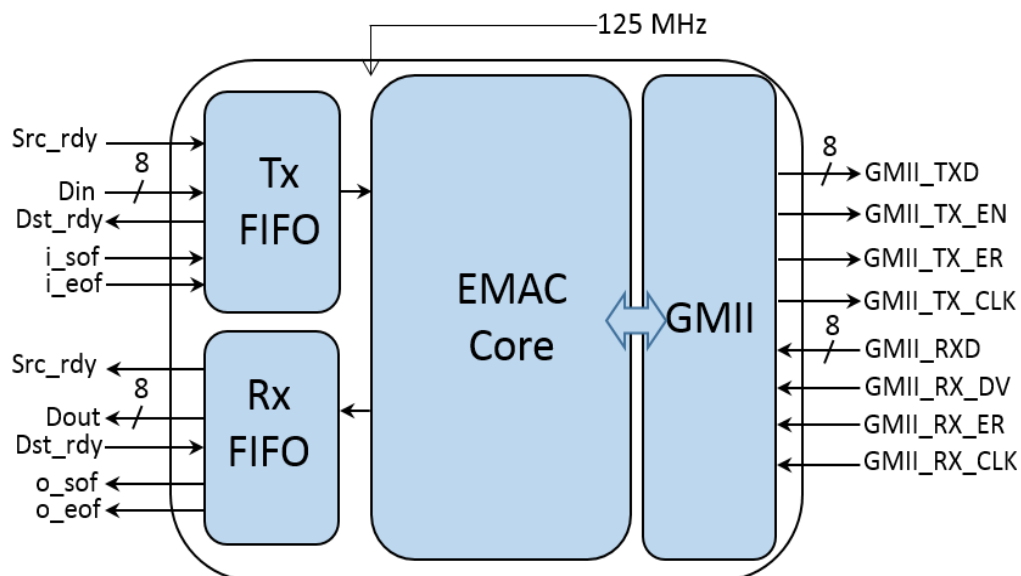


Figure 3.3. MAC IP core architecture

GMII_TXD is 8-bit data out bus. When the data on GMII_TXD is valid, GMII_TX_EN is set to 1. GMII_TX_ER is used for error cases. GMII_TX_CLK is used for the synchronization of data on the receiver. The receiver signals are basically the counterparts of these transmit signals.

It should be emphasized that the sender and receiver functionalities of MAC IP core are mostly independent and the IP can work in full-duplex mode. Since the IP is designed for gigabit speed communication, 2 Gbit/s is the theoretically achievable throughput in full-duplex mode.

3.4. Custom FIFOs

In addition to Xilinx FIFOs used by Xillybus, the design of Offload Engine relies on custom FWFT FIFO buffers as well. These FWFT FIFOs in Offload Engine are generated by means of a generic FWFT FIFO design, which is configurable according to its width and depth parameters, developed within the scope of the thesis. Furthermore, their write and read interfaces are similar to Xilinx FIFOs.

In Offload Engine, all components except for the ICMP use two-entry, custom design FWFT FIFOs. ICMP has an extra 128-entry FWFT FIFO for saving the data in a ping request.

3.5. API for Offload Engine

An application programming interface (API) is designed for applications running on a host to exploit Offload Engine. This API has 4 different functions: *udp_offload_send*, *udp_offload_receive*, *udp_offload_config* and *udp_offload_socket*. Each of these functions have a *udp_offload* prefix to prevent mixing these functions with *sendto* and *recvfrom* functions that are normally used for sending and receiving data using network protocols available in the operating system. Applications can send data to FPGA and receive data from it using these API functions. These functions are explained in detail below.

- *udp_offload_socket (int pnum)*: This function returns an integer that represents the socket number to application. Application then can send and receive data using this socket number. Application can select the source port number by specifying *pnum* parameter. If the parameter is not used, then API assigns a random source port number for the socket.
- *udp_offload_send (int snum, int dip, int port, int len, const char *buf)*: This is used for sending data to FPGA and takes five parameters: socket number (*snum*), destination IP address (*dip*), destination port number (*port*), data length in bytes (*len*) and character pointer to data (**buf*) respectively. Note that API zero-extends 16-bit destination port number to 32-bit so that 32-bit Xillybus driver can be used by default.
- *udp_offload_receive (int snum, int len, char *buf)*: This function takes three parameters and is used for receiving data from FPGA. When application calls this function and if there is received data in FPGA, API writes the data to the given buffer parameter and returns the amount of the written data.

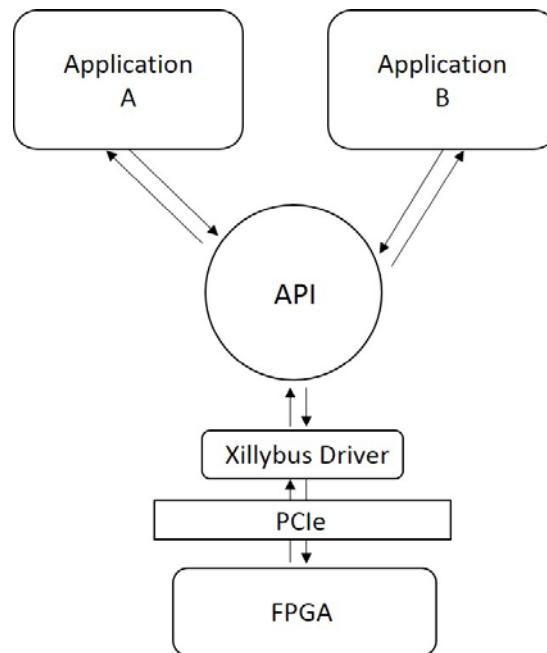


Figure 3.4. API implementation architecture

- *udp_offload_config (int mip, int dhcpon)*: This function is used for controlling the IP address assignment. *Mip* parameter represents a

manual IP address that is given by a user. *Dhcpon* parameter activates or deactivates the DHCP component in Offload Engine.

Figure 3.4 shows how this API helps applications to use Offload Engine. Applications send and receive data using the aforementioned API functions. Once an application calls *udp_offload_send* API function to send data, API writes the data to the device file created by the Xillybus driver. Then, the driver copies the device file to FPGA over PCIe channel. When FPGA sends data to host, it is taken by the Xillybus device file and the API reads the data from this device file, then delivers it to the appropriate application.

4. OFFLOAD ENGINE

Offload Engine is the IP core that has been fully designed and implemented in this thesis. The architecture of Offload Engine is given in Figure 4.1, where it comprises ten different components. All of these components except for Configuration have a similar architecture and they consist of a Finite State Machine with Datapath (FSMD) [39] and a FWFT FIFO. Furthermore, these they all have *sender side* (Tx) and *receiver side* (Rx).

Channel Selector, Configuration and UDP Rx components are connected to Xillybus, whereas Arbitrator, ARP and IP Rx components are interfaced with MAC IP core. As far as the connection between two Offload Engine components is concerned, they all expect FWFT FIFO behavior for a seamless integration.

Implemented protocols can be different depending on the purpose of the design. Our design includes UDP, IP, ARP, ICMP and DHCP protocols. Compared to the similar works in the literature, DHCP protocol has not been implemented in any of the previous designs. The implemented protocols in our design and related works are given in Table 4.1.

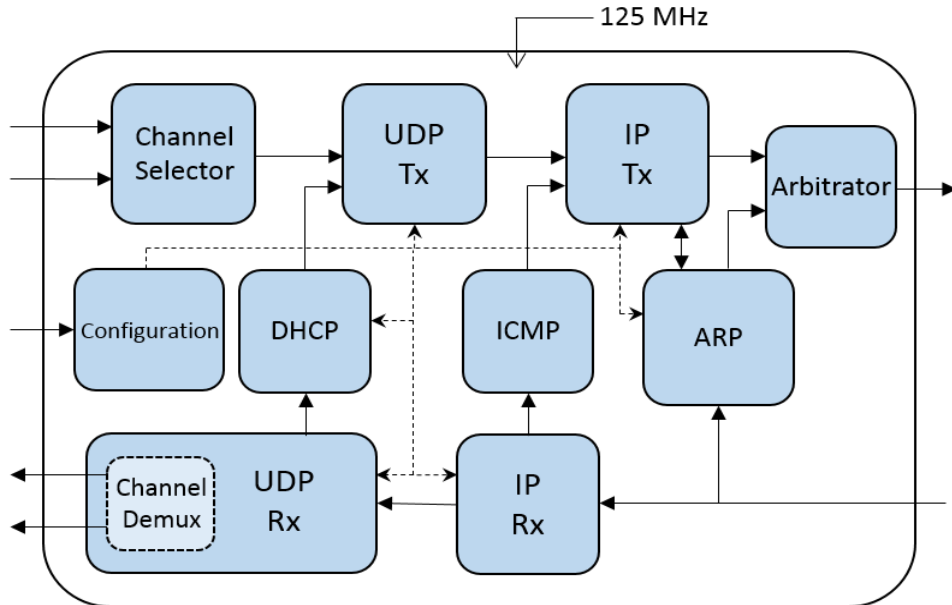


Figure 4.1. Offload Engine architecture

Table 4.1. Implemented protocols in our design and related works

	Löfgren			Alachiotis	Herrmann	Dollas	Our IP core
	Minimum	Medium	Advanced				
UDP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
IP	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ARP	x	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	✓
ICMP	x	✓	✓	x	x	✓	✓
DHCP	x	x	x(RARP)	x	x	x	✓

Overall design architectures of different offload engines can be very different. However, they are usually connected to the application logic on one side and an EMAC core or PHY chip on the other side. The design architectures of some of the similar works are given below.

Alachiotis et al. design [20] is given in Figure 4.2. It is similar to our design in terms of using a provided EMAC core for the link layer. A single component is designed for UDP and IP encapsulation and decapsulation. Since a minimal design is aimed for PC-FPGA communication, ARP, ICMP and DHCP protocols are not included in the design.

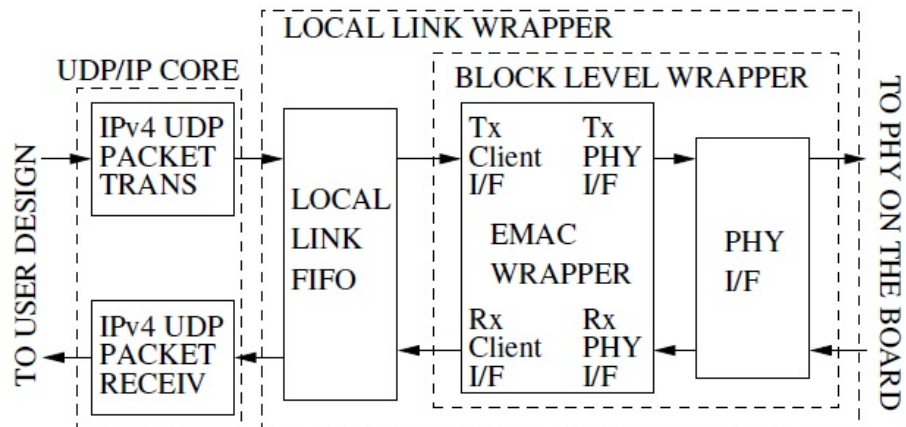


Figure 4.2. Alachiotis et al. IP core architecture [20]

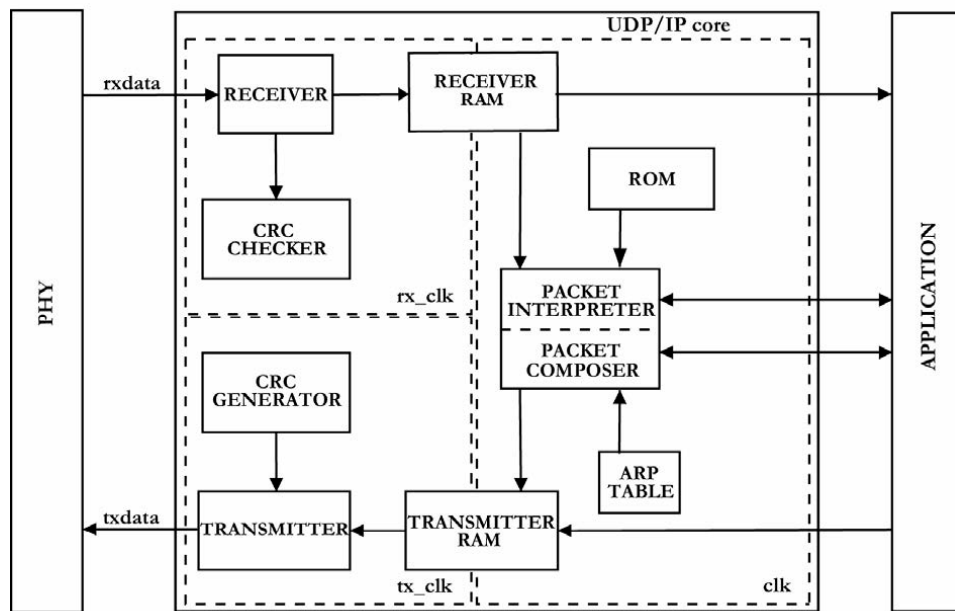


Figure 4.3. Löffgren et al. IP core architecture [19]

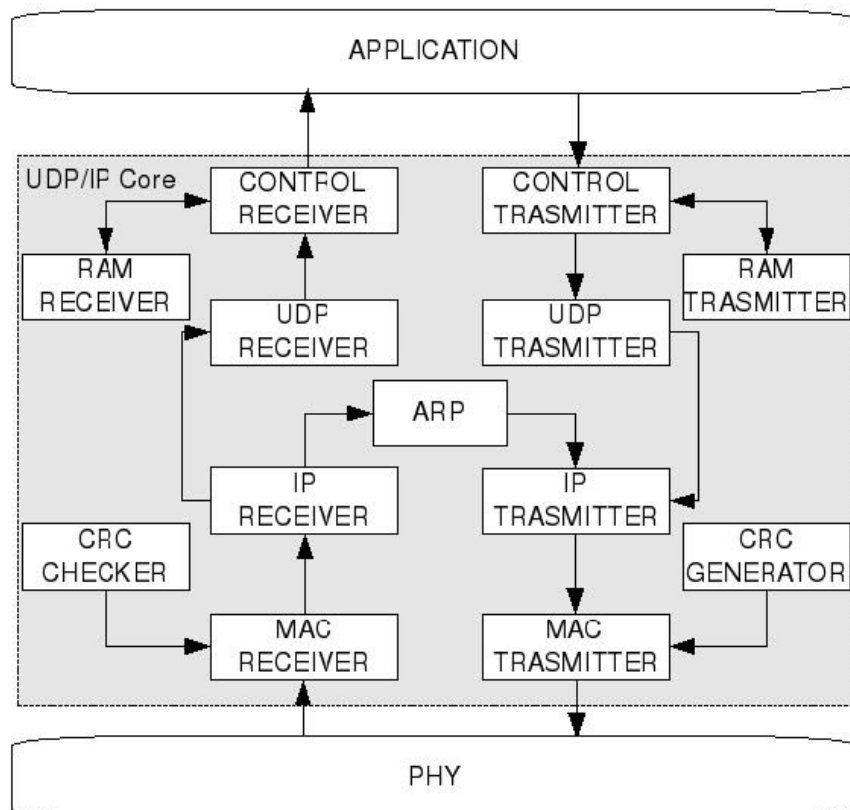


Figure 4.4. Herrmann et al. IP core architecture [22]

Löfgren et al. design [19] is given in Figure 4.3. They used the same architecture for all of the three cores in [9]. This design, different from ours, does not include a provided EMAC core, instead four components as Transmitter, Receiver, CRC Generator and CRC Checker does the link layer processes. The Advanced core includes UDP, IP, ARP, ICMP and RARP protocols.

Herrmann et al. design [22] is given in Figure 4.4. This design is very similar to [9] in terms of its overall design. This one neither includes a provided EMAC core nor ICMP and DHCP protocols. The design, however, implements ARP protocol.

4.1. Channel Selector

Channel Selector is the first component in the Tx path of Offload Engine, and it is employed to select one of the two channels connected to it. The architecture of Channel Selector is given in Figure 4.5, in which the main components are 8-bit two entry FIFO buffer and a finite state machine (FSM). The FSM whose state diagram is given in Figure 4.6 controls the operation of Channel Selector as follows:

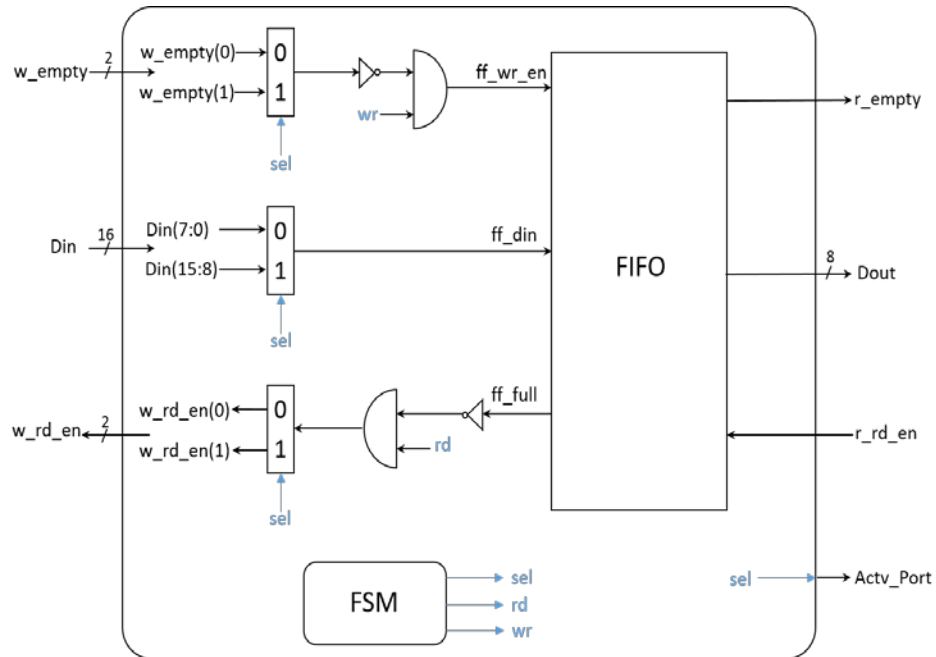


Figure 4.5. Channel Selector architecture

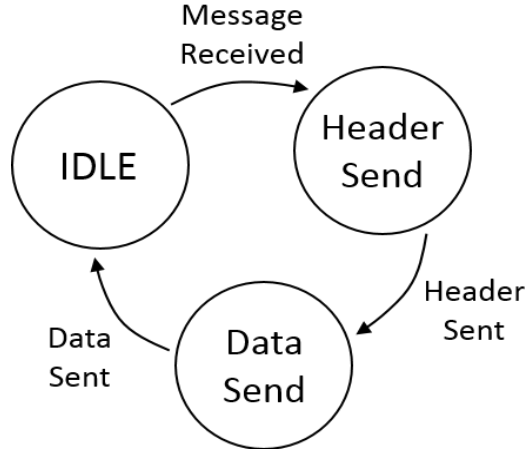


Figure 4.6. FSM state diagram of Channel Select

- *IDLE*: After reset, FSM goes into this state and stays here as long as both channels are empty (both w_empty signals are set to 1). If only one of the channels makes a request to send data, the selector picks that channel and goes to *Header Send* state. If both channels have data to send, there are two cases: (i) If this is the first request for both channels after reset, FSM picks channel-1, which is connected to $w_empty(0)$, $Din(7:0)$ and $w_rd_en(0)$. (ii) Otherwise, FSM chooses the least recently used channel in order to provide fairness. In both cases, after the selection of a channel, the selector makes a transition to *Header Send* state.

In *IDLE* state, FIFO is empty, so r_empty is 1 and r_rd_en is ignored. Furthermore, FIFO is simply disconnected from the input. That is, wr and rd signals are both set to 0 in order to mask w_empty signal for ff_wr_en and mask ff_full signal for w_rd_en .

- *Header Send*: The data format received from the host is shown in Figure 4.7 where its header consists of three 4-byte parts, namely *Destination IP*, *Destination Port* and *Data Length*. FSM copies Data Length field into a register and zero-extend 16-bit Destination Port field to 32-bit while writing the header into FIFO. While the last byte of the header is being put into FIFO, FSM goes to *Data Send* state. In *Header Send* state, both wr and rd signals are set to 1. As a result, a new word is written into FIFO when w_empty is 1 and ff_full is 0. Note that $Actv_Port$ signal is provided to indicate the currently selected channel as well.

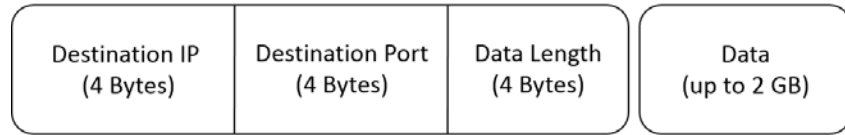


Figure 4.7. Host data format

- *Data Send*: FSM counts the number of data bytes that are put into FIFO by a counter, waits for the counter to reach Data Length value kept in the register, and then, makes a transition to IDLE state. Note that data may come in an on-and-off fashion, which will be nicely handled by FSM.

According to the aforementioned FSM operation, it takes at least $N+13$ clock cycles to write header and N -byte of data into FIFO. After the first word is written into FIFO, it will take $N+12$ clock cycles to read them.

4.2. UDP Tx

UDP Tx component is the sender implementation of UDP protocol, and its architecture is given in Figure 4.8. According to Figure 4.8, two different components, namely Channel Selector or DHCP IP core, can be a source of data. As a result, UDP Tx is responsible for encapsulating the data that are received from either Channel Selector or DHCP IP core with UDP header and sending UDP datagrams to IP Tx component. Note that DHCP IP core has the priority over Channel Selector in our design and these two components are not usually active at the same time.

UDP Tx further relies on Configuration IP to provide a UDP source port number related to the chosen channel by Channel Selector. Thus, Configuration IP provides two 16-bit UDP source port numbers, each of which is exclusively assigned to a channel, through 32-bit *Cfg_Ports* signal. According to *Actv_Port* signal coming from Channel Selector, UDP Tx inserts the correct source port number into UDP datagrams. For DHCP packets, however, the source port number is fixed at Hexadecimal 0044 and it is chosen by setting *src_sel* signal to one.

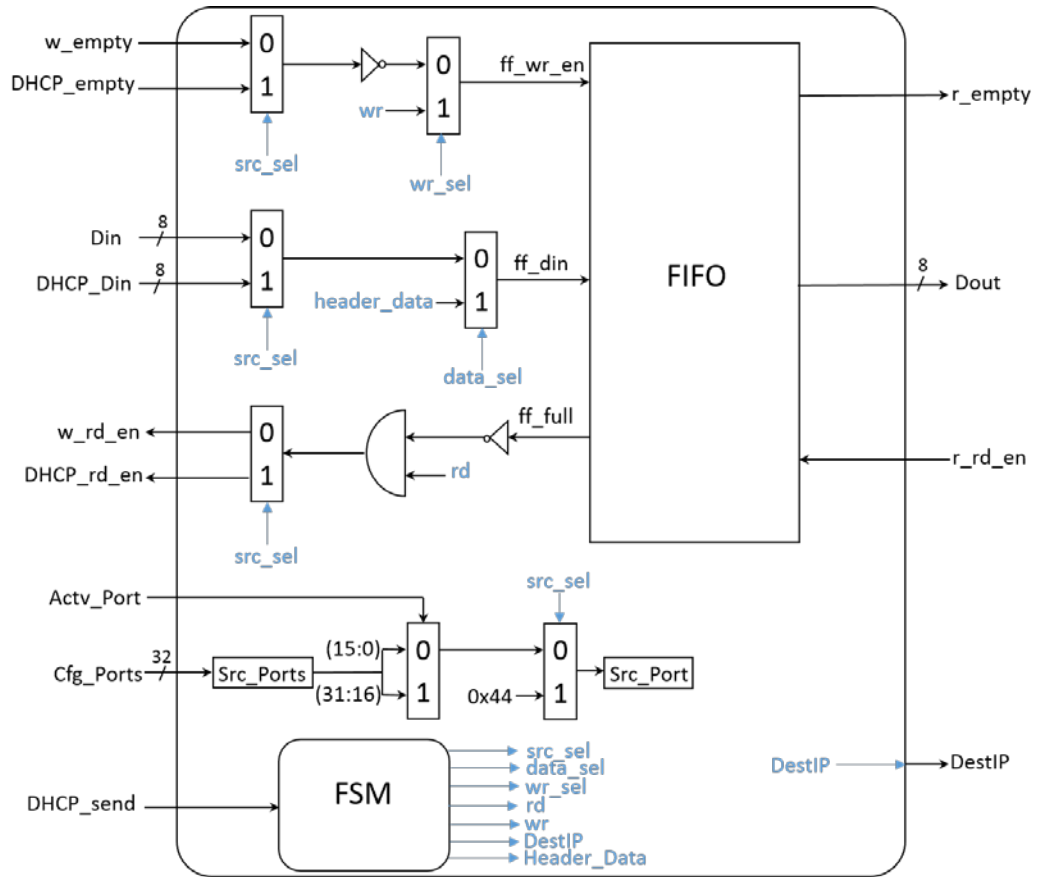


Figure 4.8. UDP Tx architecture

In addition to the encapsulation, UDP Tx does a kind of packet fragmentation as well. That is, it splits data whose size is bigger than MTU into separate UDP datagrams and sends them accordingly. Figure 4.9 shows the FSM state diagram of UDP Tx component.

- *IDLE*: When a channel or DHCP makes a request for sending data, state goes to *Header Take* state.
- *Header Take*: Twelve byte header in Figure 4.7 is taken and saved to several registers in twelve clock cycles, then FSM goes to *Length Calculation* state. Note that DHCP IP core will send the same twelve byte header as well.
- *Length Calculation*: It checks the 32-bit register (*app_data_length*) that keeps Data Length field of the header. If *app_data_length* register is zero, FSM goes to *IDLE* state. If the non-zero value in *app_data_length* is smaller than or equal to the MTU, FSM copies this register to 16-bit

udp_data_length register and sets *app_data_length* to zero. Otherwise, it subtracts the MTU value from the content of *app_data_length* and writes the result back into *app_data_length* register. In addition, FSM sets *udp_data_length* register to MTU. Then, it goes to *Header Send* state.

- *Header Send*: In this state, UDP header is written FIFO in eight clock cycles, in which UDP source port number is set as follows: If this is a DHCP packet, *src_sel* signal is set to 1 so that Hexadecimal 44 is used. Otherwise, this is an UDP packet and *Actv_Port* signal selects between two source port numbers available from Configuration IP core. In addition, UDP destination port number is copied from the register which it was written in *Header Take* state; UDP length is obtained from *udp_data_length* register. Since UDP checksum is not supported and this field is filled with zeros. Then, it goes to *Data Send* state.
- *Data Send*: UDP Tx receives 8-bit data input from either Channel Selector or DHCP IP core and writes into FIFO until the number of data bytes copied into FIFO reaches the value of *udp_data_length* register, and it makes a transition to *Length Calculation* state.

According to the FSM operation in Figure 4.9, if a single UDP datagram will be sent, it takes at least $N+23$ clock cycles for N -byte of application data. If multiple UDP datagrams will be send due to the fragmentation of application data, the first UDP datagram takes $N+23$ clock cycles, while the following ones require $N+2$ clock cycles.

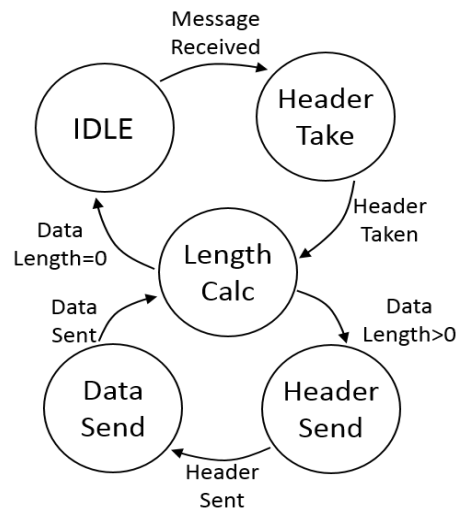


Figure 4.9. FSM state diagram of UDP Tx

4.3. IP Tx

IP Tx component is the sender implementation of IPv4 protocol. This component is responsible for encapsulating the UDP datagrams that are received from UDP Tx or the ICMP messages from ICMP IP core with IPv4 header and sending the IP datagrams to Arbitrator component. The architecture of IP Tx is given in Figure 4.10 and its FSM state diagram in Figure 4.11.

- *IDLE*: Initially, FSM is on the IDLE state. If UDP Tx or ICMP component makes request for sending data, it goes to *UDP Send* or *ICMP Send* respectively. ICMP messages has priority since they need to be replied as soon as possible.
- *UDP Send*: UDP packet is received until the UDP length field of UDP header is completely received in six clock cycles. It goes to *MAC Request* state.

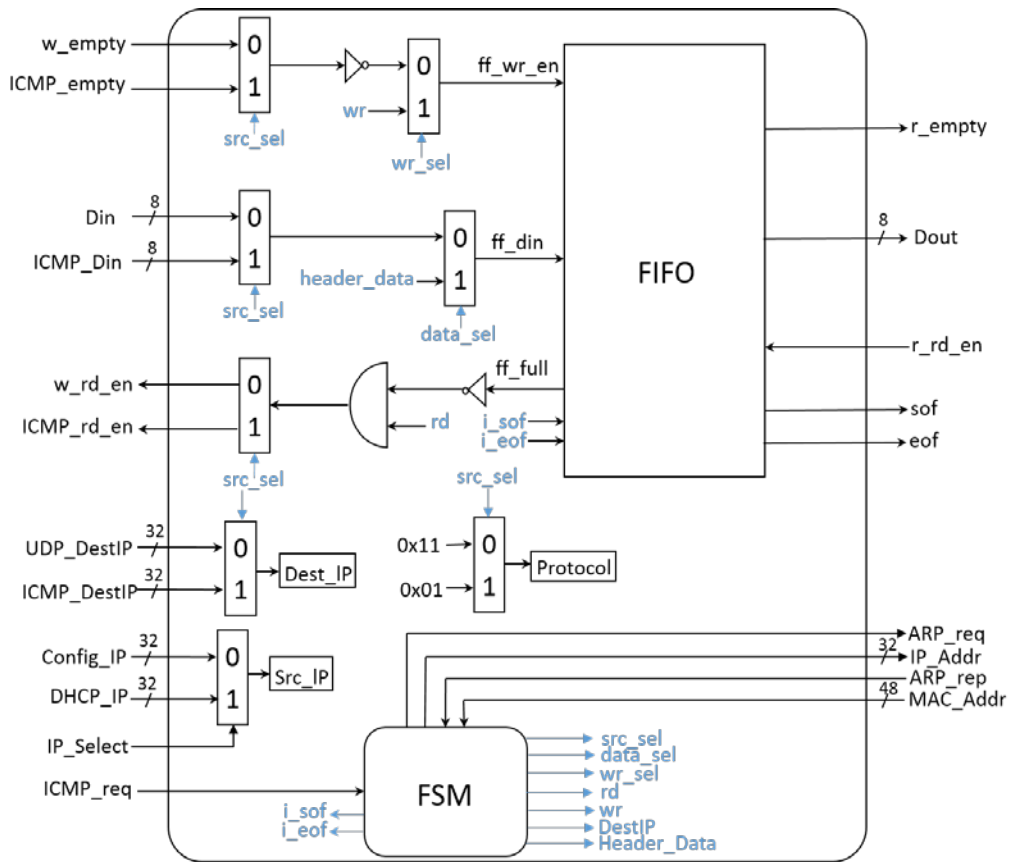


Figure 4.10. IP Tx architecture

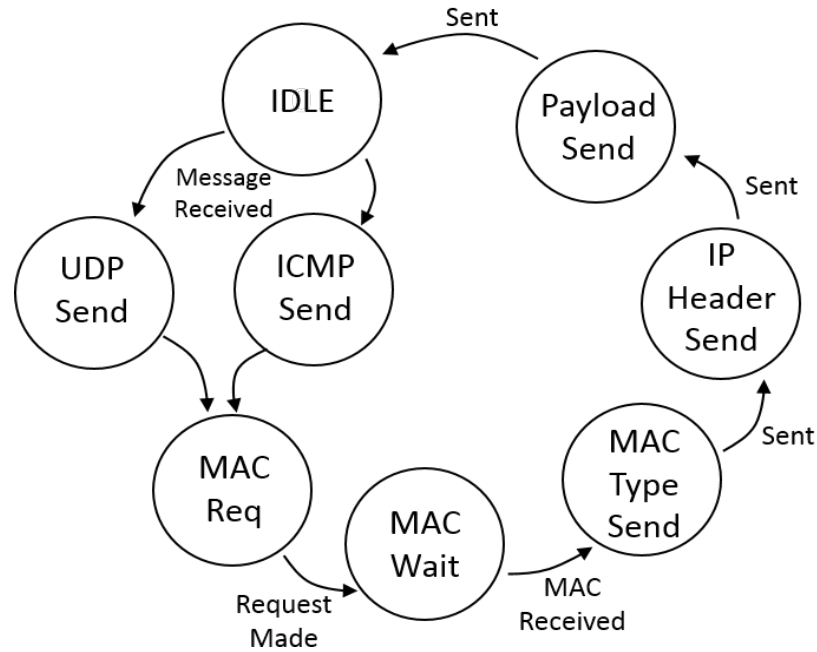


Figure 4.11. FSM state diagram of IP Tx

- *ICMP Send*: The length of upcoming ICMP packet is received from ICMP IP core in two clock cycles, and goes to *MAC Request* state.
- *MAC Request*: A destination IP address is provided by either UDP Tx or ICMP IP core together with their respective request. IP Tx asks ARP IP core for the associated MAC address with the destination IP address, and makes a transition to *MAC Wait* state.
- *MAC Wait*: FSM stalls in this state until a reply is received from ARP IP core. Then, it goes to *MAC&Type Send* state. Note that if the requested MAC address is in ARP cache, the stall lasts for just two clock cycles.
- *MAC&Type Send*: The source and destination MAC addresses, and Ether Type (Hexadecimal 0800 for IP datagram) are written into FIFO in fourteen clock cycles, and it goes to *IP Header Send* state.
- *IP Header Send*: In this state, IP header is written to the FIFO in twenty clock cycles, in which some of the IP header fields are already predefined. Some of them are unused, and thus, they are filled with zeros. Version, Header Length and Time to Live fields are predefined as Hexadecimal 4, 5, 80, respectively. Type of Service, Identification, Flags and Fragment Offset fields are filled with zeros. Total Length field is calculated by

adding 20 to the length of data received from either ICMP IP core or UDP Tx in *ICMP_Send* or *UDP_Send* states, respectively. Protocol field is selected with *src_sel* signal as Hexadecimal 1 for ICMP and Hexadecimal 11 for UDP. Header Checksum is calculated dynamically from the header fields. Source IP and destination IP addressed are obtained from *Src_IP* and *Dest_IP* registers, respectively. After an IP header is sent, FSM goes to *Payload Send* state.

- *Payload Send*: IP Tx receives 8-bit data input from either UDP Tx or ICMP IP core and writes into FIFO until the number of data bytes copied into FIFO reaches the length value that received on the *UDP send* or *ICMP send* respectively and then, FSM goes to *IDLE* state.

The FIFO used in this component is slightly different from the standard FIFO structure. It uses two extra signals (*sof* and *eof* signals) to mark the beginning and the ending of a packet. These signals are required for the FIFOs that MAC component use.

IP Tx component has a eleven clock cycle latency for the UDP packets and seven for the ICMP packets. ARP cache is assumed to have the requested MAC address for this latency.

4.4. Arbitrator

Arbitrator component is the last component on the Tx path of Offload Engine. It is basically a multiplexer with FIFO that selects between the outputs of IP Tx and ARP IP core. The architecture of Arbitrator is given in Figure 4.12.

According to Figure 4.12, Arbitrator uses two extra signals for receiving and sending packets, which is different from the other components. These are start of frame (*sof*) and end of frame (*eof*) signals. Note that they are supplied by either IP Tx or ARP IP core accordingly and written into FIFO as if they were data signals so as to associate them with the right data packets. The output of Arbitrator is also the output of Offload Engine. Thus, Arbitrator is interfaced with MAC IP core. Since MAC IP core works with active-low signals, a few output signals need to be driven over *not* gates.

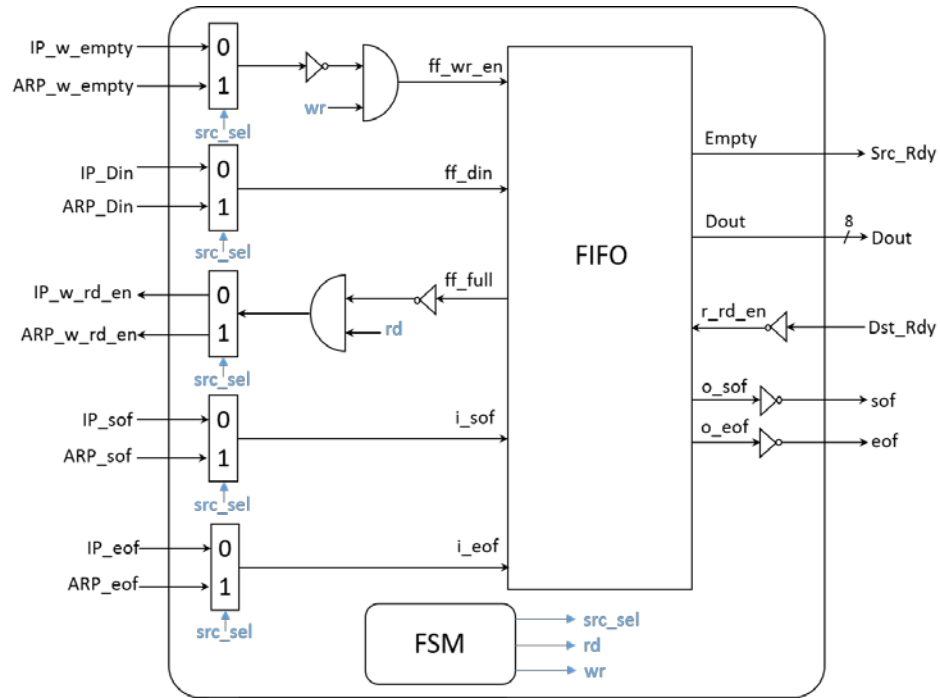


Figure 4.12. Arbitrator architecture

There is no need to draw a FSM state diagram for Arbitrator, since it consists of only two states as *IDLE* and *SEND*. Arbitrator waits in *IDLE* state. When IP Tx or ARP IP makes a request, it goes to *SEND* state, where it stays until the end of packet that will be marked by an end of frame signal. Then, it returns to *IDLE* state.

Arbitrator has a two clock cycle latency. The total latency on the Tx path for an N -byte of application data is $N+40$ (12 clock cycles for application header + 28 clock cycles for Offload Engine) clock cycles.

4.5. IP Rx

IP Rx is the first component on the Rx path of Offload Engine. It accepts only those IP packets that are addressed to this host, and drops any multicast and broadcast packets. Furthermore, it delivers a received packet to either UDP Rx or ICMP IP core. Figure 4.13 shows the architecture of IP Rx component. Note that IP Rx does not include a FIFO buffer, and it is basically an FSM together with a

couple of multiplexers and demultiplexers. This component has a simple FSM with five states as shown in Figure 4.14.

- *IDLE*: When a new packet is received, MAC IP core starts to deliver it to Offload Engine. IP Rx is the first component to process a newly arriving packet. So, FSM goes to *MAC Type In* state to handle a new packet.
- *MAC Type In*: The destination and source MAC address fields are ignored, but Ether Type field in the received Ethernet frame is checked. If this field is equal to Hexadecimal 0800 (IP datagram), the packet is accepted. Otherwise, it is dropped.
- *IP Header In*: It checks some of the IP header fields: Protocol, Flags and Destination IP address. After checking these fields, if the packet is approved, it is delivered either UDP Rx or ICMP IP core depending on Protocol field in the IP header, and FSM goes to *Deliver Packet* state. If it is disapproved, FSM goes to *Drop* state.

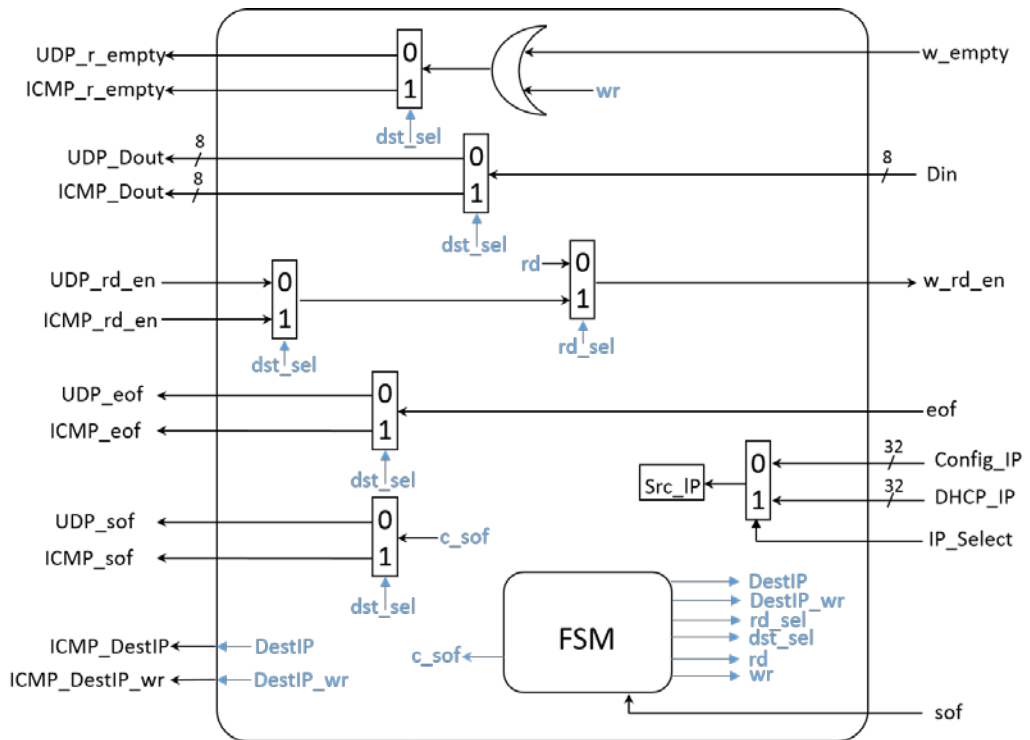


Figure 4.13. IP Rx architecture

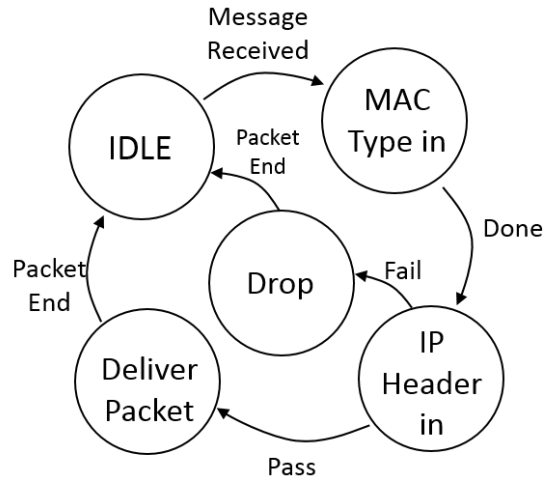


Figure 4.14. FSM state diagram of IP Rx

- *Deliver Packet*: The received ICMP or UDP packet is delivered to the related component. Once it is completely received, FSM goes to *IDLE* state.
- *Drop*: FSM stays in this state until the packet is fully received, and then it goes to *IDLE* state.

4.6. UDP Rx

UDP Rx component is the second and the last component on the Rx path of Offload Engine. It is responsible for receiving the UDP datagrams from IP Rx and delivering them to either appropriate channel (channel demultiplexing) or DHCP IP core. Furthermore, UDP Rx drops those packets that are not addressed to one of its UDP source ports. Figure 4.15 shows architecture of UDP Rx component.

Similar to IP Rx, UDP Rx is composed of an FSM and several multiplexers and demultiplexers. The FSM of UDP Rx is shown in Figure 4.16. FSM checks the Destination Port field of the UDP header and if the packet is addressed to DHCP or one of the applications running on the host, it delivers the packet to DHCP or Xillybus component respectively.

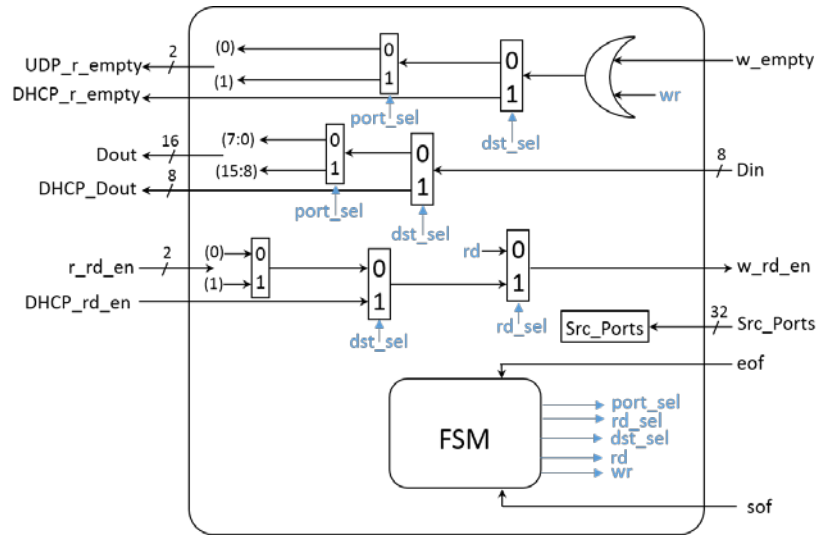


Figure 4.15. UDP Rx architecture

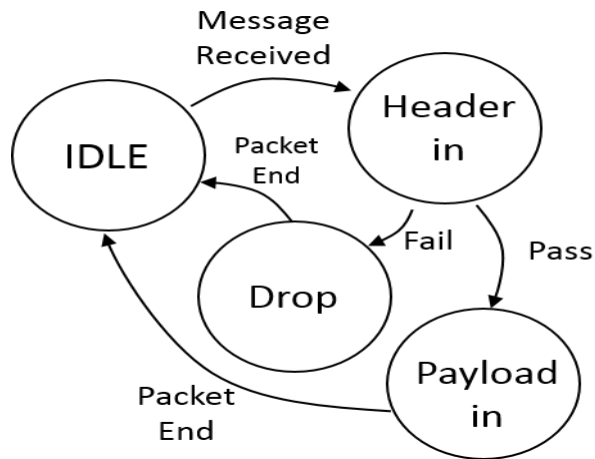


Figure 4.16. FSM state diagram of UDP Rx

4.7. DHCP IP Core

DHCP IP core is responsible for leasing an IP address. DHCP IP core makes use of UDP Tx and UDP Rx components in order to perform this leasing transaction. Note that DHCP is the highest level protocol implemented by Offload Engine.

DHCP IP core is simply an FSMD, rather than a group of FIFOs, multiplexers and demultiplexers as in the other IP cores. Figure 4.17 shows the

simplified FSM state diagram of DHCP IP core for leasing an IP address. Note in this FSM that four types of DHCP packets are involved in the leasing transaction, two of which are from DHCP IP core (DHCP client) and two of which are from DHCP server.

- *IDLE*: It is initially in this state. It is activated by a 1-bit flag signal (*IP_select* signal) supplied by Configuration IP core. When *IP_select* signal goes high, FSM goes to *Send Discover* state.
- *Send Discover*: DHCP IP core makes a request to UDP Tx by setting *DHCP_Send* signal to 1. Once this request has been approved by UDP Tx, it sends a *DHCP Discover* packet, and then makes a transition to *Take Offer* state.
- *Take Offer*: When a *DHCP Offer* packet is received through UDP Rx, it extracts the necessary information from this packet, creates a *DHCP Request* packet and goes to *Send Request* state.
- *Send Request*: It makes a request to UDP Tx by setting *DHCP_Send* signal to 1. Once the request has been accepted, it sends a *DHCP Request* packet, and then goes to *Take Ack* state.
- *Take Ack*: When DHCP IP core receives a *DHCP Ack* packet via UDP Rx, the IP leasing transaction finishes and FSM goes to a passive state called *IP Taken*.

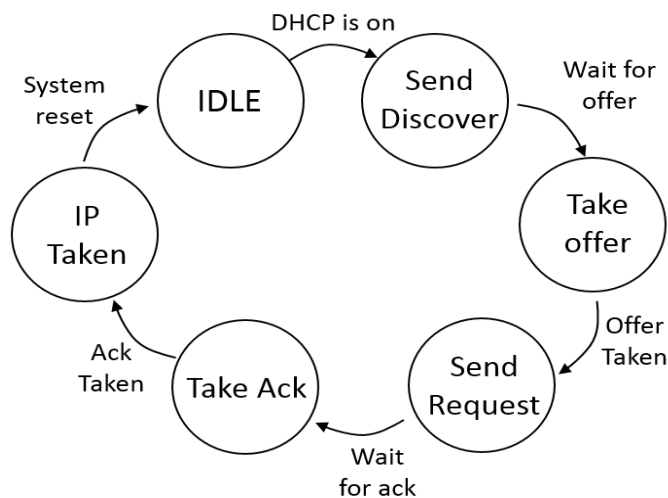


Figure 4.17. FSM state diagram of DHCP

- *IP Taken:* FSM stays here until either the host changes the IP address configuration or system is reset. DHCP IP core presents the leased IP address to IP Tx, IP Rx and ARP components.

4.8. ICMP IP Core

ICMP IP core is responsible for sending ping replies to ping requests. It can neither send a ping request nor handle other types of ICMP messages. This component is placed between IP Tx and IP Rx components. Figure 4.18 shows the architecture of ICMP IP core.

When IP Rx component receives an ICMP packet, it writes the Source IP address field in the IP header to the *DestIP_reg* register in the ICMP IP core and delivers the packet to the ICMP IP core. ICMP IP core reads the ICMP header in the received packet and saves the data field of the packet into the FIFO on the left. Generates an ICMP header for the reply and adds the data in the FIFO on the left to this header. It writes the packet length into the FIFO on the right and sets the *ICMP req* signal to 1. IP Tx component approves the request and ICMP writes the reply packet to the second FIFO after the length information.

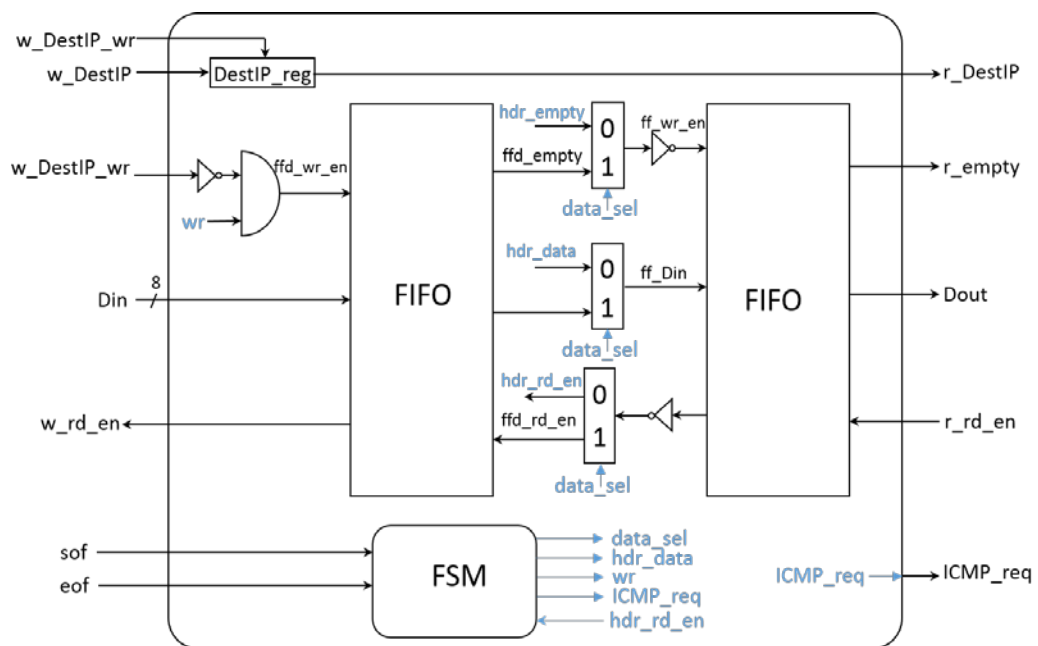


Figure 4.18. ICMP architecture

4.9. ARP IP Core

ARP IP core is the lowest level protocol component of Offload Engine, and it consists of three components: *ARP Control&Cache*, *ARP Send* and *ARP Receive*. Figure 4.19 shows the architecture of ARP IP core and the interconnection among these components. How these components together implement ARP protocol is explained in the following.

ARP Send is responsible for both sending ARP requests and ARP replies. ARP requests (inquiry for the MAC address of a given IP address) are created in response to *ARP_req_snd* and 32-bit *ARP_req_DestIP* signals from ARP Control&Cache; ARP replies (response with the MAC address of this host) are due to *ARP_rep_snd*, 32-bit *ARP_rep_DestIP* and 48-bit *ARP_rep_MAC* signals from ARP Receive component.

ARP Receive deals with both ARP request and ARP reply messages. If the received message is an ARP request and the destination IP address in ARP request matches with the IP address of this host, then ARP Receive makes ARP Send to send an ARP reply message to the sender of ARP request. If it is an ARP reply, ARP Receive extracts the IP and MAC address couple from the reply and delivers them to ARP Control&Cache.

ARP Control&Cache receives requests from IP Tx through *ARP_req* and 32-bit *IP_Addr* signals, where *IP_Addr* signal carries an IP address for which the related MAC address is sought. ARP Control&Cache first checks its four-entry ARP cache for the IP address. If it is found in the cache, the associated MAC address is delivered over 48-bit *MAC_Addr* signal to IP Tx. Otherwise, it issues a request to ARP Send to create an ARP request message for this IP address, and waits for ARP reply. When ARP Control&Cache gets a reply from ARP Receive, it first compares the IP address with the sender IP address in ARP reply message. If they match, then it writes the IP address and the received MAC address into ARP cache. Finally, it delivers the MAC address to IP Tx.

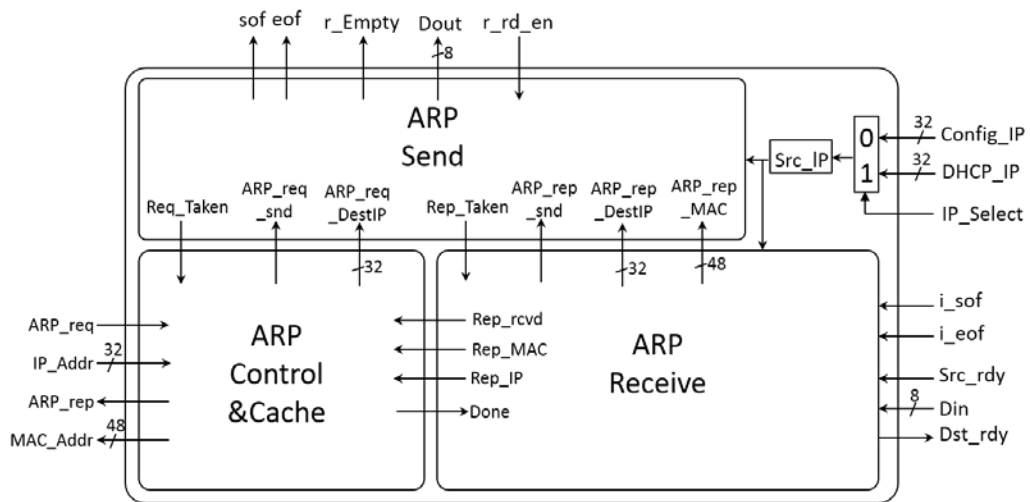


Figure 4.19. ARP architecture

4.10. Configuration Component

Configuration component is simply a RAM like component. It is responsible for setting the configuration parameters entered by the host into some of the components. Figure 4.20 shows the Configuration component structure.

Host writes the parameters to the RAM inside the component by setting write enable (Wr_En), data input (Din) and write address (Wr_Address). Manual IP address (Config_IP), source ports (Config_Ports) and the IP selection which decides if IP address will be taken by DHCP or manual IP will be used are outputs of the component. In other words, IP selection bit is an on-off button for the DHCP component.

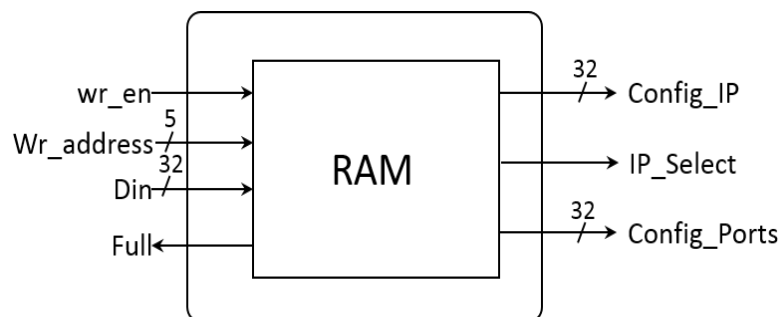


Figure 4.20. Configuration architecture

5. IMPLEMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this chapter, implementation details of the design and a comparison with the related previous studies are given. Experimental test setup and results, functional verification of the protocols are also presented in this chapter.

5.1. Implementation Results

The proposed design elaborated in Section 3 and 4 is described in VHDL hardware description language, and it is synthesized by means of Xilinx ISE 14.2 [40] for the target FPGA device XUV5P5-LX110T. The synthesis results are given in Table 5.1.

According to Table 1, overall design has a 144 MHz and Offload Engine has a 198 MHz maximum achievable frequency on Virtex 5. Overall design occupies 4700 slices for Virtex 5, which is about 25% of the available slices on Virtex 5. Our design is compared against the related work from the literature in Table 5.2.

It is quite fair to say that, each design is created for different specific purposes, comparing them directly may not give us the true results. The important point is the systems can operate at gigabit speed theoretically and experimental results give near results.

Table 5.1. Synthesis results of the design

	Slices	BRAMs	Frequency (MHz)	Latency (# cycles)
Xillybus	2820	12	144	?
Offload Engine	1421	1	198	28
EMAC Core	270	2	260	12+?
Overall Design	4240	15	144	40+?

Table 5.2. Implementation details comparison

	Löfgren Advanced [19]	Alachiotis [21]	Herrmann [22]	Dollas [23]	Our Design	Our Design
FPGA	Spartan 3	Virtex 5	Spartan 3	Virtex 2	Virtex 5	Spartan 3
Slices	1584	105	1321	10007	1424	2500
BRAMs	5	-	?	10	1	1
Fmax	105.6	262	122	37,5	198	102
Packet Length	1518		?	?	1518	
Speed	10/100/1000			10/100	10/100/1000	

According to Table 5.2, the resource utilization of our Offload Engine is more than [19] and [22], and it is clearly less than [23]. It should be recalled that [22] does not support ICMP and DHCP. As compared to [19], on the other hand, Offload Engine uses less BRAM resources and it has a support for multiple data streams. It is not fair to compare Offload Engine with [21] that implements only UDP and IP, and aims for a fairly simple PC-FPGA communication.

5.2. Experimental Results

After the implementation of the proposed IP core on Virtex 5 FPGA, a set of experiments are conducted in order to verify its functionality and test its achievable maximum data throughput. For these experiments, the FPGA board is inserted into a PCIe slot of a desktop PC with i5 processor, and the PC is connected to the network over the Ethernet port on the board. In addition, a laptop with i5 processor is connected to the same network with the goals of measuring data throughput, checking if the file transfers were successful and verifying the operation of ARP, ICMP and DHCP protocols. Figure 5.1 shows the experimental setup. In this setup, packets are transmitted over a network switch and Offload Engine leases an IP address from a DHCP server on the network.

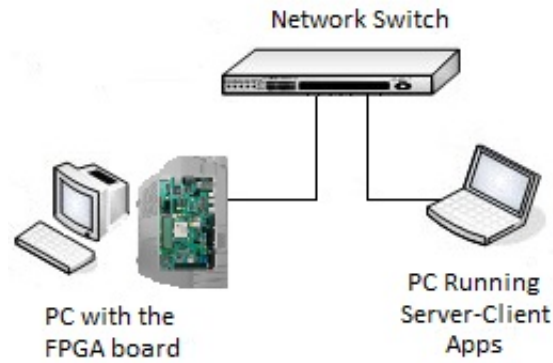


Figure 5.1. Experimental setup for the system tests

Four different applications were run on two computers. Two of them were run on the PC, where one is for configuring the IP core and pumping packets into Offload Engine, and the other one is for receiving packets and verifying the receive path of the IP core. Both of these applications are based on the API presented in Section 3. The applications running on the laptop, on the other hand, are simple client-server programs which use the network protocols available from the host OS in order to perform the related measurements and controls.

5.2.1. Throughput results

During the throughput experiments, an application running on the PC uses our API to transfer a predetermined file to the server application executing on the laptop. With the end of a file transfer, the server application compares the newly received file with its original version that has been copied there before the transmission, and reports the measured throughput in addition to the elapsed time, total number of received packets and total size of the received file. Figure 5.2 shows the results of an example throughput test. According to Figure 5.2, the achieved throughput is about 528.5 Mbps, while 43625 packets are received in 0.927 sec for the transmission of a file with 64215140 bytes.

```
C:\windows\system32\cmd.exe
Microsoft Windows [Sürüm 6.1.7601]
Telif Hakkı (c) 2009 Microsoft Corporation. Tüm hakları saklıdır.
C:\Users\SAMSUN-ULTRA>cd..
C:\Users>cd..
C:\>D:\Server-Client\project\udpreceiver\Release\udpreceiver.exe
Server is ready and waiting for messages at UDP port 20000
Gecen Sure: 0.927000
Throughput: 528.503385 Mbps
No packets for 5 seconds
Total received packet: 43625 , Total Size: 64215140
C:\>
```

Figure 5.2. Command window output - an example throughput test

After testing the system with different file sizes up to 500 MByte over a hundred times, the average throughput is obtained as 540 Mbps. Meanwhile, the maximum achieved throughput is observed as 570 Mbps. In these tests, the MTU was set to 1472 bytes to achieve the maximum throughput, which results in splitting files into the MTU-sized packets by Offlad Engine. However, it is a known fact that the packet size has an impact on the throughput as well. Consequently, the tests are repeated for different MTU sizes, and the results are presented in Figure 5.3.

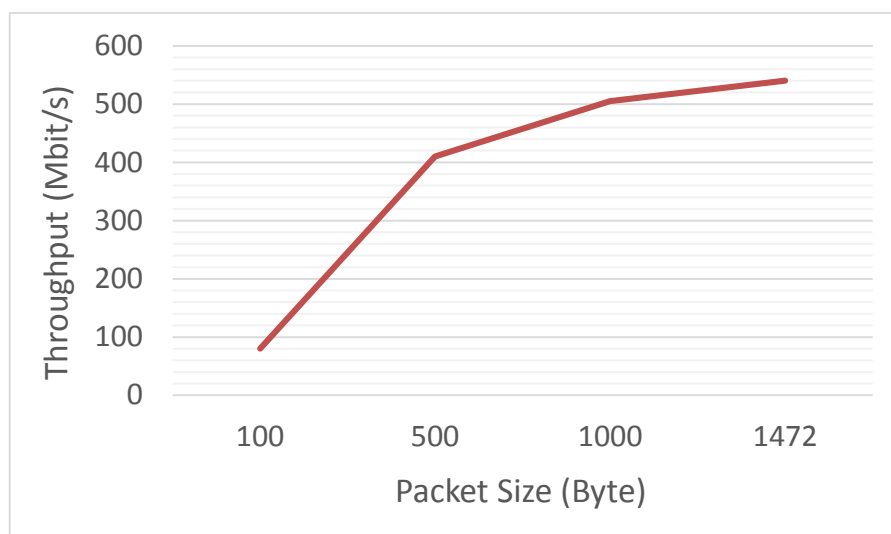


Figure 5.3. The impact of packet size on throughput

The achieved throughput value of 540 Mbps by the IP core proposed can be attributed to several facts: (i) The file transfer client application on the PC is still running on the host OS and experiences the overhead related to the OS. (ii) Xillybus can send data over gigabit speed with its 32-bit interface. But, because of the uncontinious data provided by Xillybus, the clock domain crossing and data with conversation by the Xilinx FIFOs, data reaches at a slower speed than the gigabit speed to Offload Engine.

In order to prove that Offload Engine is capable of providing better data throughputs than 540 Mbps, a different experimental setup is created. In this setup, the IP core proposed is slightly modified to be composed of only Offload Engine and MAC IP core (Xillybus is removed). Then, a hardware application module on the FPGA instead of an application running on the computer is implemented to provide data with Offload Engine. In these tests, Offload Engine achieves a maximum data throughput of 865 Mbps, which is clearly superior.

It should be noted here that actual throughput that can be achieved at gigabit speed is slightly lower than 1 Gbps. That is, the maximum Ethernet packet size is 1518 bytes (1472 bytes application data, 8 bytes UDP header, 20 bytes IP header, 12 bytes MAC addresses, 2 bytes packet type, 4 bytes CRC). Furthermore, there is 8 bytes preamble and 12 bytes IFG. All of these overheads result in the maximum achievable data throughput of 957 Mbps. Fortunately, 865 Mbps throughput of Offload Engine is quite near to 957 Mbps and Offload Engine can be used for those applications that seek for near-gigabit performance.

Finally, all of these throughput tests clearly prove that the IP core proposed is working as expected, which further leads to the fact that the send and receive functions of both UDP and IP protocols are correctly implemented in hardware. Figure 5.4 shows a wireshark output obtained during a throughput test on the laptop. According to Figure 5.4, the wireshark observes UDP packets coming from the source (the PC) with IP address 10.10.96.100.

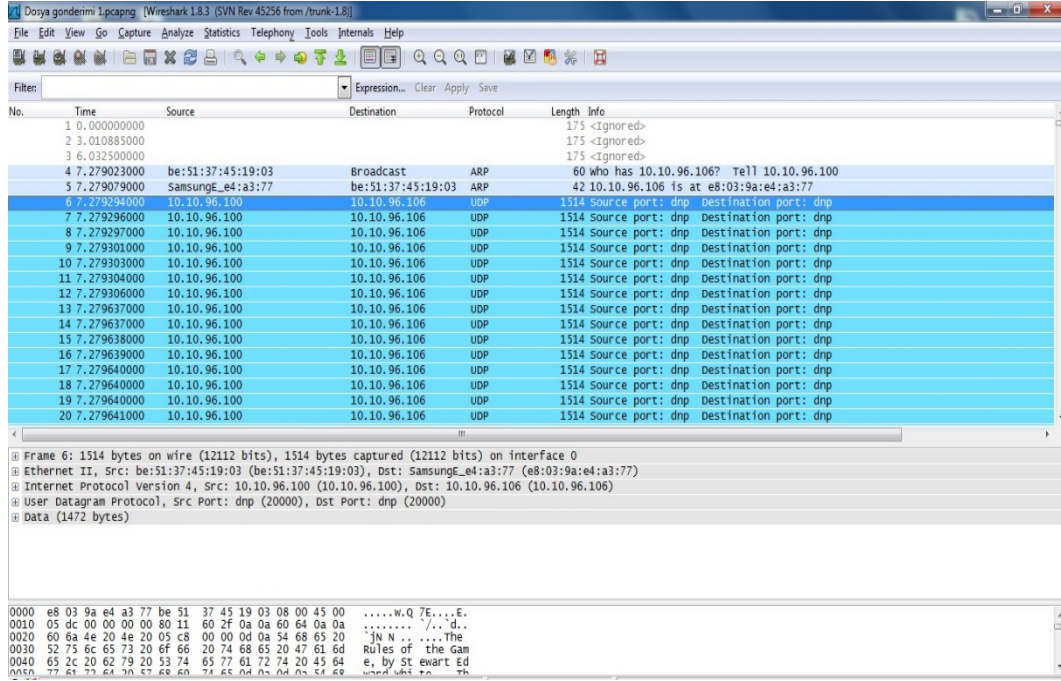


Figure 5.4. Wireshark output of an example throughput test

5.2.2. ICMP verification

The verification of ICMP IP core is done by a simple ping request from the command window as shown in Figure 5.5. Since the packets are transmitted over a single switch, the ping reply from Offload Engine is received in less than 1 ms.

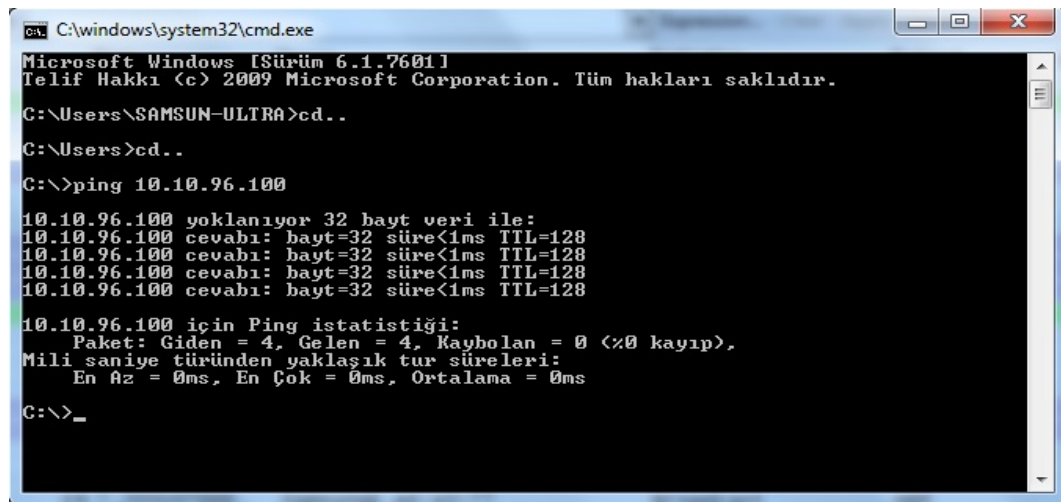


Figure 5.5. ICMP functionality verification command window output

No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info
3	4.892668000	SamsungE_e4:a3:77	Broadcast	ARP	42	Who has 10.10.96.100? Tell 10.10.96.106
4	4.892735000	be:51:37:45:19:03	SamsungE_e4:a3:77	ARP	60	10.10.96.100 is at be:51:37:45:19:03
5	4.892750000	10.10.96.106	10.10.96.100	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) request id=0x0001, seq=37/9472, ttl=128
6	4.892989000	be:51:37:45:19:03	Broadcast	ARP	60	Who has 10.10.96.100? Tell 10.10.96.100
7	4.893037000	SamsungE_e4:a3:77	be:51:37:45:19:03	ARP	42	10.10.96.106 is at e8:03:9a:e4:a3:77
8	4.893268000	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.106	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) reply id=0x0001, seq=37/9472, ttl=128
9	5.895862000	10.10.96.106	10.10.96.100	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) request id=0x0001, seq=38/9728, ttl=128
10	5.895993000	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.106	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) reply id=0x0001, seq=38/9728, ttl=128
11	6.001855000				175	<Ignored>
12	6.316967000				42	<Ignored>
13	6.317065000				42	<Ignored>
14	6.317272000				42	<Ignored>
15	6.896964000	10.10.96.106	10.10.96.100	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) request id=0x0001, seq=39/9984, ttl=128
16	6.897097000	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.106	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) reply id=0x0001, seq=39/9984, ttl=128
17	7.205061000				42	<Ignored>
18	7.205091000				42	<Ignored>
19	7.205107000				42	<Ignored>
20	7.897904000	10.10.96.106	10.10.96.100	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) request id=0x0001, seq=40/10240, ttl=128
21	7.898038000	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.106	ICMP	74	Echo (ping) reply id=0x0001, seq=40/10240, ttl=128
22	8.204755000				42	<Ignored>

Figure 5.6. ICMP functionality verification wireshark output

According to Figure 5.6, source 10.10.96.106 (the laptop) sends a ping request four times, and source 10.10.96.100 (the PC) sends a ping reply successfully for each request. Based on Figure 5.5 and 5.6, it is concluded that ICMP IP core is functioning correctly.

5.2.3. DHCP verification

DHCP verification is done by changing the IP address configuration of the IP core and sending packets with each configuration. In the first case, DHCP is off and a manual IP address is not given to the PC either. Figure 5.7 shows the packet transmission under this configuration. It can be seen in Figure 5.7 that source IP field is 0.0.0.0, which is the default IP address used by the IP core. Since this is the first data transmission between two computers, there is an ARP request by the PC before the start of data transmission.

In the second case, DHCP is still off, but a manual IP address (10.10.96.100) is given to the PC. Figure 5.8 shows the packet transmission with this configuration of the IP core. It is clear that the received IP packets are coming from the PC.

No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info
1	0.00000000	be:51:37:45:19:03	Broadcast	ARP	60	who has 10.10.96.91? Tell 0.0.0.0
2	0.00004300	samsung_e4:a3:77	be:51:37:45:19:03	ARP	42	10.10.96.91 is at e8:03:9a:e4:a3:77
3	0.00032000	0.0.0.0	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
4	0.00032200	0.0.0.0	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
5	0.00032400	0.0.0.0	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000

Figure 5.7. Packet transmission with no IP configuration

No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info
1	0.00000000	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
2	0.00000200	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
3	0.00000400	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
4	0.00046100	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
5	0.00046200	10.10.96.100	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000

Figure 5.8. Packet transmission with manual IP configuration

In the third case, DHCP component is made on, which overrides a given valid manual IP address (10.10.96.100) in the IP core. Under this scenario, it is expected that DHCP IP core will lease a new IP address (different from 10.10.96.100) through a DHCP server, and use this address in the subsequent data communication. Figure 5.8 shows that the packets are coming from a source with IP address of 10.10.96.90, which is in fact the IP address leased by DHCP IP core for the PC. Thus, DHCP IP core is proved to working as designed.

5.2.1. ARP verification

ARP packets can be observed in Figure 5.4 for the throughput tests, in Figure 5.6 for the ICMP tests, and in Figure 5.7 and 5.9 in the DHCP tests. Based on these figures, it is evident that ARP IP core can broadcast ARP requests to the network.

No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info
49	7.18706200	be:51:37:45:19:03	Broadcast	ARP	60	who has 10.10.96.91? Tell 10.10.96.90
50	7.18710000	samsung_e4:a3:77	be:51:37:45:19:03	ARP	42	10.10.96.91 is at e8:03:9a:e4:a3:77
51	7.18715700	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
52	7.18715800	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
53	7.18716000	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
54	7.18716200	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
55	7.18716300	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
56	7.18716400	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
57	7.18716500	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
58	7.18716600	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
59	7.18716800	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
60	7.18717000	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
61	7.18854400	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
62	7.18854500	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
63	7.18854600	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000
64	7.18854700	10.10.96.90	10.10.96.91	UDP	1514	Source port: 20000 Destination port: 20000

Figure 5.9. Packet transmission with DHCP configuration

In Figure 5.9, for example, after an ARP request and ARP reply are observed before the first data transmission by the wireshark, there is no other ARP request messages present during the transmission of other following packets. This clearly shows that ARP IP core receives ARP reply messages, creates an entry in its ARP cache and provides IP Tx with the correct MAC addresses for its inquiries.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The need for an offload engine in high-speed networks so as to relieve CPUs from networking tasks has been the main motivation behind this thesis. Based on this motivation, the IP core with full hardware acceleration of UDP, IP, DHCP, ICMP and ARP protocols is designed and implemented on a Virtex 5 FPGA, where the IP core is composed of three main components, namely Xillybus, Offload Engine and MAC IP. It is shown in the previous section that the IP core has relatively small resource utilization and can be implemented on most of the FPGAs. Furthermore, it is fast enough to handle gigabit speed data communication, and it has low latency to be used for real-time applications. On the other hand, Offload Engine is designed in a modular fashion so that the individual components can be reused or easily modified for new features.

There are still further avenues of research that can be conducted in the future to extend the results of thesis as follows:

- Offload Engine should be enhanced to handle 10 Gbit/s data communication. In order to achieve 10 Gbit/s packet throughput, Offload Engine needs to be modified to have 64-bit datapath (instead of 8-bit datapath in the current design) and working clock frequency of about 250 MHz (instead of 198 MHz). Furthermore, Xillybus and MAC IP core should be updated to support 10 Gbit/s packet throughput as well.
- UDP should support checksum calculation and checksum verification.
- IPv6 in addition to IPv4 should be implemented as the other network layer protocol.
- ICMP IP core currently generates replies to only ping requests. This core can be modified so that it can handle the ICMP error messages as well. Furthermore, it can be further enhanced to be OS-aware. That is, upon receiving a ping request, a reply is returned only if the host OS is still up and running.
- Four-entry ARP cache can be expanded and implemented on block RAMs. Furthermore, a timeout for the MAC addresses can be set and ARP IP core can automatically renew its ARP cache upon its expiry.

- Different virtual MAC addresses can be assigned to the channels and DHCP IP core can be changed to lease a unique IP address for each MAC address so as to create virtual network adapters.

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