

# Exposing RDMA NIC Resources for Software-Defined Scheduling

Yibo Huang  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA  
yiboh@umich.edu

Yiming Qiu  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA  
UC Berkeley  
Berkeley, California, USA  
yimingq@umich.edu

Yunming Xiao  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA  
yunming.xiao@u.northwestern.edu

Archit Bhatnagar  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA  
architb@umich.edu

Sylvia Ratnasamy  
UC Berkeley  
Berkeley, USA  
sylvia\_ratnasamy@berkeley.edu

Ang Chen  
University of Michigan  
Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA  
chenang@umich.edu

## Abstract

Remote Direct Memory Access (RDMA) is emerging as a critical utility for large-scale datacenters, delivering significant performance improvements over the traditional TCP networking stack. Recent studies indicate that numerous applications can benefit from RDMA integration, and RDMA hardware resources are being shared among these diversifying applications. However, today's RDMA frameworks mostly view their software and hardware stacks as two independent subsystems, making it difficult for developers to align the performance objectives of RDMA applications with the limited resources in RDMA hardware.

We are developing a framework called SwiftRDMA, with the vision of enabling *software-defined RDMA scheduling*. SwiftRDMA views RDMA resource sharing as a scheduling problem. SwiftRDMA pinpoints the root causes of RDMA resource contentions and SLO violations, linking them to a set of trackable signals and controllable actions. A software scheduler then translates various operator demands into scheduling policies, which leverage the exposed signals and actions to achieve intended performance objectives. We describe our progress so far, and demonstrate the potential benefits of our approach.

## CCS Concepts

• **Networks** → **Data center networks**; **Transport protocols**; • **Hardware** → *Networking hardware*; • **Software and its engineering** → *Operating systems*.

## Keywords

RDMA, RNIC, software-defined scheduling, software-hardware co-design, scheduling

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## 1 Introduction

Remote Direct Memory Access (RDMA) has been widely adopted in modern datacenters to provide high-performance networking with minimal CPU overhead [1, 6, 7]. As the scale of RDMA deployment grows, the range of workloads that share RDMA-enabled servers has also expanded. Notable applications consist of model inference and training, distributed storage, and graph computations [2, 8, 9, 13, 36, 38], each possessing unique performance characteristics and service-level objectives (SLOs). To improve the hardware utilization, leading datacenter operators such as Alibaba and Google are colocating diverse workloads on the same end hosts [20, 31, 32]. This growing trend has led to significant concerns about the coordination of multiple workloads on shared RDMA hardware, with recent work attempting to avoid inter-workload resource contention via better performance isolation [16, 18, 29] and message scheduling [33, 39] mechanisms.

However, existing efforts lack a principled design for how RDMA software can best utilize the underlying RDMA hardware to meet diverse application performance goals. Today, application developers generally perceive RDMA hardware (e.g., RNICs) as opaque entities that are hard to control, while the hardware treats applications as non-cooperative parties vying for resources. This creates a context gap which can lead to a mismatch between an application's performance goals and how the RNIC handles the application's demands. Developers may want to cooperatively schedule applications based on their demands, thus optimizing overall performance, but the RNIC only provides performance isolation interfaces that trade efficiency for fairness; developers may have customized application quality of service (QoS) objectives [4, 20], but such intentions are oblivious to the RNIC internals. This context gap could easily introduce resource under-utilization or over-subscription.

In this position paper, we argue for a vision that we call *software-defined RDMA scheduling*. Our insight is that *RDMA resource sharing can be modeled as a scheduling problem, where applications coordinate with each other to optimize for global objectives*. As a concrete



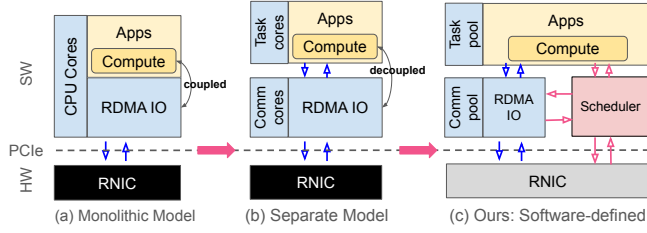
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**Figure 1: Existing RDMA frameworks vs. our vision—Software-defined RDMA Scheduling.**

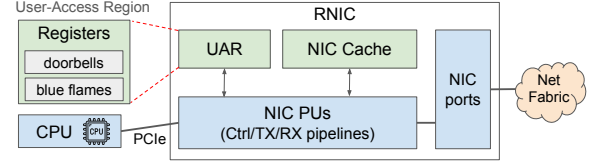
example, best-effort workloads can yield RNIC resources to latency-sensitive applications during traffic bursts to achieve SLO-aware scheduling. To realize this vision, RNIC should expose controllable actions (e.g., QP reuse) and useful signals (e.g., cache miss rate) to the scheduler, and the scheduler should be able to meet global (e.g., hardware utilization) and application-specific (e.g., QoS) demands by automatically tuning action knobs according to relevant signals. This would allow applications to share RNIC resources in a *context aware* and *cooperative* manner, bringing significant performance improvements while meeting customized developer requirements.

In pursuing this vision, we are faced with a set of domain-specific challenges. To begin with, we must identify why today’s RDMA deployments struggle to meet various demands by pinpointing the root causes of RDMA resource contentions [14] and SLO violation. This necessitates a thorough understanding of the intrinsic related to RDMA NIC hardware. Moreover, we need to link these root causes to trackable signals and controllable actions that the software stack can use for efficient scheduling. Since we aim at commodity RDMA stack (meaning no reliance on specialized ASICs such as DPUs or FPGAs, nor changes to RNIC driver or verb semantics), we cannot easily instrument customized signals or actions out of the box. This is compounded by the fact that, unlike CPU scheduling, RDMA NICs do not expose direct actions to allocate its resource units, requiring us to systematically explore indirect ones. Finally, it is crucial for the proposed scheduler to automatically convert developer objectives (such as application QoS requirements) into hardware scheduling strategies. This enables the scheduler to effectively interpret incoming signals and swiftly enforce actions to adapt to evolving workload dynamics. This process should also remain transparent to existing applications, so that no drastic changes are needed to adopt the framework.

The rest of this paper outlines our technical roadmap to address these challenges, along with some initial evidence from our prototype implementation. Concretely, we (1) provide an architecture overview of software-defined RDMA scheduling with software-hardware co-design (§2.3); (2) give a comprehensive dissection into RNIC resource contention points, and innovatively link them to a set of novel signals and actions as the basic building blocks (§3); and (3) demonstrate a case study where software demands could be translated into hardware scheduling policies (§4).

## 2 Motivation

In this section, we discuss the trend of RDMA resource sharing, highlight the problems of current efforts, and outline the workflow for software-defined RDMA scheduling.



**Figure 2: The limited internal resources of RDMA NIC (RNIC) subsystems and their interactions.**

### 2.1 Background: RDMA resource sharing

To improve hardware efficiency, datacenter operators [20, 31, 32] are increasingly colocating multiple workloads on the same RDMA-enabled end hosts. These colocated workloads present diverse Service-Level Objectives (SLOs). On the one hand, high-performance data stores such as Redis [30] are typically classified as latency sensitive applications, which come with strict latency requirements (e.g., 99th percentile tail latency of  $\leq 50\mu s$ ). On the other hand, machine learning model (e.g., DLRM [11, 24]) inference prioritizes latency-bounded throughput, demanding higher throughput under a less strict tail latency constraint (e.g.,  $\leq 100ms$ ). This is further complicated by low-priority best-effort workloads that do not have performance objectives, yet still consume large amounts of resources if not controlled.

Inherently, when colocated RDMA workloads share resources, they encounter a “noisy neighbors” issue: Colocated workloads make concurrent invocations to RDMA control verbs (e.g., `ibv_create_qp()`) and data verbs (e.g., `ibv_post_send()`), which compete for shared RNIC resource units, causing significant performance interference in terms of latency and bandwidth. As Figure 2 shows, RNIC contains many hardware components, such as NIC processing units (PU) that drive control, send, and receive pipelines, user access region (UAR) that manages doorbell and blue flame registers, NIC cache that preserves frequently accessed RDMA context metadata, and NIC ports that interact with network fabric. All of these components can independently cause resource contentions. As an example, suppose we are colocating Redis workload with DLRM inference, the latter, which requires many fan-out requests to remote parameter servers, has to establish large amounts of RDMA connections, occupying a major portion of NIC cache space and making it hard for the former to meet its SLO.

The challenge of RDMA resource sharing is well recognized in both industry and academia, particularly in multitenant scenarios, where multiple virtual machines belonging to different users are hosted on the same end host and utilize a common RNIC. This has led to extensive work on RNIC performance isolation [16, 18, 29], which attempts to guarantee fairness among tenants in terms of bandwidth or latency. These methods operate on the premise that different tenants are non-cooperative parties or even malicious competitors unaware of each other’s demand. Our work instead focuses on scheduling workloads in an SLO-aware manner so that they can share RNIC resources cooperatively.

### 2.2 State-of-the-art & limitations

How to orchestrate the interactions between application compute logic and RDMA hardware has been a long-standing discussion. As shown in Figure 1(a), early-day RDMA applications [6, 15, 19, 21] leveraged a *monolithic model*, where the compute logic and

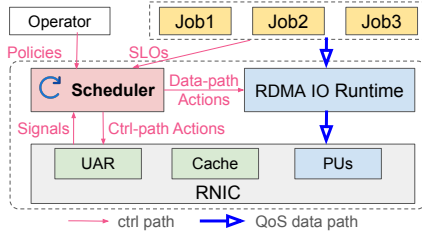


Figure 3: Software-defined RDMA scheduling.

RDMA I/O are tightly coupled on the same set of run-to-completion CPU cores. This model offers ultra-low latency as it minimizes the context switch between software and hardware, at the cost of lower resource efficiency: The RDMA I/O has to wait for the compute logic to complete, resulting in head-of-line blocking.

Consequently, modern-day RDMA application deployments [12, 13, 38] are instead dominated by what we call a *separate model* as shown in Figure 1(b), where the application compute logic runs on a set of task cores, and RDMA I/O runs on a separate set of communication cores. This allows for the efficient reuse of RDMA software resources across multiple applications, thereby removing head-of-line blocking caused by the execution of compute logic. Nonetheless, the vanilla separate model still exhibits considerable drawbacks in addressing hardware resource contentions and fulfilling application-specific needs. This stems from its inability to provide adequate coordination among application workloads, RDMA I/O and RNIC resources, leaving a substantial amount of untapped performance potential.

To improve this status quo, recent work has explored how the software stack can actively control the behavior of the RNIC hardware [33, 39], so that applications can share the underlying RNIC resources more efficiently. For instance, projects on RDMA message scheduling [33] attempted to reorder or slice work requests (WR) in the RNIC drivers so that messages with higher priority could be put into the RNIC before others. As another example, efforts on RDMA performance isolation [16, 18, 35, 40] aimed to rate limit traffic from different tenants or applications so that they do not oversubscribe to RNIC resources reserved for other parties. However, they typically require substantial changes to existing RDMA practices, either by changing the RNIC driver and the RDMA verb semantics, or by making use of hardware accelerators such as SmartNICs [40], programmable switches [18], and FPGAs [16, 35].

### 2.3 SwiftRDMA: An extensible framework for software-defined RDMA scheduling

As illustrated in Figure 1(c), SwiftRDMA is designed to establish a development framework in which a central scheduler orchestrates the interaction between application workloads, RDMA I/O, and RNIC resources. Figure 3 further provides an overview of the SwiftRDMA system architecture. The scheduler initially takes a set of user-defined policies (e.g., maximizing throughput or ensuring QoS) as input. It then gathers RNIC signals and application SLOs to understand the hardware contention level along with workload requirements. Once the scheduler decides that the current RNIC state or I/O runtime no longer meets user-defined policies, it invokes a set of actions to actively navigate away from the situation. Specifically,

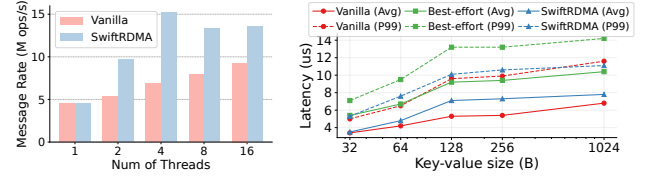


Figure 4: SwiftRDMA mitigates UAR contention (§3.1).

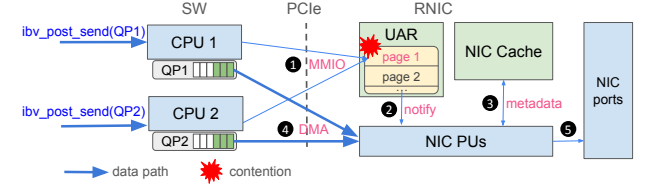


Figure 5: SwiftRDMA mitigates inter-QP RNIC port contention (§3.4).

the scheduler leverages RDMA control verbs (e.g., `ibv_create_qp`) to enforce control-path actions (e.g., load-balancing QPs across UARs), and manipulates RDMA data verbs (e.g., `ibv_post_send`) to roll out data-path actions (e.g., controlling enqueue rate of workloads). Together, this forms a reasoning loop that enables context-aware and cooperative RDMA resource sharing.

## 3 Linking RNIC Contentions to Signals and Actions

In this section, we identify 5 types of RNIC contentions and link their root causes to the corresponding trackable signals and controllable actions, leveraged as the basic building blocks of software-defined RDMA scheduling.

### 3.1 Cause 1: UAR Contention

User Access Region (UAR) is a critical but scarce memory region provided by RNICs. It is mapped into the software layer and allows CPUs to access RNIC resources, such as ringing DoorBells, from userspace. The UAR contains a limited number of pages. For example, only 16 UAR pages are exposed in every Mellanox ConnectX-6 RNIC device context [22]. Each time an applications uses `ibv_create_qp()` to create an RDMA Queue Pair (QP), the RNIC places the QP in a UAR page, the index of which is typically decided in a random or round-robin manner.

**Root cause.** Concurrent QPs sharing the same UAR page can introduce non-negligible data-path overhead when they are driven by different CPU cores. As Figure 6 shows, QP1 and QP2 share UAR page1 but are driven by CPU1 and CPU2, respectively. When QP1 and QP2 concurrently post work requests via data verb `ibv_post_send()`, their CPUs first issue Memory-Mapped IO (MMIO) write to UAR page1 to ring the DoorBell, so that RNIC PU is notified to fetch QPs' context metadata and then read Work Requests' (WR) payloads via DMA. However, this causes multiple CPUs to compete for the same UAR page protected by a lock [23], causing workload performance degradation. In our key value store benchmark, the throughput of a get workload is reduced by up to 57% due to UAR contention.



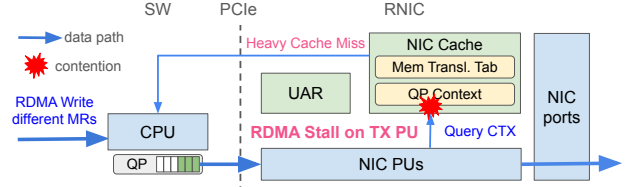
**UAR-aware QP scheduling.** Resource domain is an efficient RDMA resource management abstraction that contains a set of RDMA resources (e.g., UAR, QP) and allows them to be accessed from the same execution context. In our case, the resource domain is leveraged as a control knob to make newly created RDMA QPs bound with a specific in-RNIC UAR page. Every CPU core for RDMA IO runs over a resource domain and exclusively uses the context-specific UAR page to manage its QPs. Next, we present the initial evidence on the effectiveness of the proposed solution. Clients synthesize the key-value get workload with 512B key-value size over 64 RDMA QPs to key-value servers. We vary the number of threads each pinned with one CPU core to evenly drive QPs. We measure the aggregate message rate (that is, get operations per second). The paper uses the same testbed, which includes two interconnected servers each equipped with 32 Intel Xeon CPUs, 128GB memory, and a 100Gbps Mellanox CX-5 RNIC. The vanilla case with the worst-case UAR contention is used as the baseline. As Figure 4 illustrates, SwiftRDMA outperforms vanilla by up to 2.22 $\times$ , significantly mitigating the contentions over UAR.

**Signals and actions.** To resolve the runtime load imbalance across different UAR pages, we first identify three available signals that can be combined to indicate imbalances: (i) the congestion level (e.g., doorbell ringing) per UAR page, (ii) the number of active RDMA QPs per UAR page, and (iii) the Work Request rate (e.g., WRs per second) per QP. The first signal, which can be detected from the doorbell congestion event in RNIC event queues by enabling event reporting [22], reveals the rate of doorbell ringing on UAR pages. If this rate is higher than the rate that the RNIC can handle, then it becomes a contention source. The second signal, which can be indirectly tracked using a connection counter per resource domain, manifests the load pressure by counting the number of connections. The third signal is used mainly to identify the most overloaded QP as a target for taking actions, which can be computed from the per QP WR counter.

To mitigate the UAR load imbalance, we abstract away two critical actions: (i) assign new QPs into a UAR page with lighter load for latency sensitive workloads, and (ii) migrate an overloaded QP from high-load UAR page to low-load UAR page. For example, when a QP from latency sensitive workload is scheduled to be created, we could take the first action based on signals (i) and (ii), ensuring its service-level latency objective. When an overloaded QP is detected running on a high-load UAR page using signals (i)/(ii)/(iii), the second action could be taken to identify a low-load UAR page (using signal (i)) and then migrate the QP to it.

### 3.2 Cause 2: RNIC Cache Contention

The on-chip cache in RNIC is another performance-critical but scarce resource. When processing send work requests (WR) from QPs, the RNIC PU directly interacts with the cache to query the QP context metadata and memory region (MR) information from QP Context (QPC) table and Memory Translation/protection Table (MTT) respectively. A cache hit avoids the overhead of RNIC PU fetching metadata from host memory. Besides QPC and MTT, RNIC cache also needs to maintain other essential metadata, including Completion Queue Context (CQC), and Event Queue Context (EQC). However, the RNIC cache size is quite limited (the cache size of



**Figure 7: RDMA data verbs cause severe RNIC cache contention.**

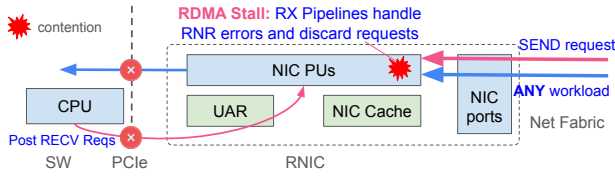
commodity Mellanox CX-5 is  $\sim 2\text{MB}$  [13]), and cannot scale well as the number of RDMA entities (e.g., QP, MR, CQ) grow.

**Root cause.** As Figure 7 shows, suppose that a large amount of RDMA QPs and Memory Regions (MRs) have been used and overflow the RNIC cache [34]. When processing a RDMA Write WR from a QP, the PUs first attempt to query the context metadata from the NIC cache but fails, leading to large amount cache misses. The metadata have to be fetched from host via DMA read, introducing an extra PCIe round-trip. Meanwhile, RDMA PU is stalled to wait for the metadata. In one of our microbenchmarks, the throughput of the workload degrades from 96.6Gbps to 48Gbps as the cache miss rate increases from 17.2% to 49.1% [14].

**Practical mitigation.** RNIC cache contention mainly results from MTT and QPC cache misses. The principle of mitigating cache contention is to reduce the number of cached RDMA objects, thus reducing cache consumption. In terms of MTT cache, instead of using 4KB page size by default, huge pages (e.g., 2MB and 1GB) are well known to significantly reduce virtual-physical memory translation entries. Our framework adopts a huge page pool by default. In terms of QPC cache, QP reuse is often leveraged to reduce the number of QPs. For instance, QPs that have identical source and destination pairs might be optimized by combining them into a single QP. However, QP reuse may hurt workload SLOs by introducing queuing delays, thereby requiring a trade-off between reducing cache miss rate and optimizing queuing delay.

**Signals and actions.** We recognize multiple available signals to directly or indirectly indicate RNIC cache contentions: (i) QPC cache miss rate and MTT cache miss rate, (ii) the total number of active QPs, and (iii) tail latency of work request completion. The first signal, which can be queried from RNIC hardware counters using tools, shows the current contention level of the RNIC cache in terms of amount of RDMA entities. The latter two signals can be indirectly obtained through connection counter and completion events in RDMA IO runtime, pointing to global RDMA QP and work request states. Signal (iii) can help judge whether workload SLOs are violated and whether a violation stems from RNIC cache contention combined with the other two signals.

We further define two actions for cache contention mitigation: (i) QP reuse, and (ii) QP scale up. When the scheduler detects a high QPC cache miss rate (e.g.,  $\geq 30\%$ ) under total QP number exceeding a warning threshold (e.g., 512), and increased work request completion tail latency, it could take action (i) by merging multiple QPs to reduce the RNIC QPC cache contention guided by target workloads' SLOs; by contrast, when the QPC cache miss rate is low (e.g.,  $\leq 15\%$ ) with a small amount of total QPs below a safety threshold but the WR tail latency is approaching target workloads' SLOs, the scheduler could take action (ii) to create new QPs for higher



**Figure 8: RX pipeline PU contention due to error handling, such as Receive-Not-Ready (RNR).**

parallelism and evenly distribute tasks to them, thus reducing WR tail latency.

### 3.3 Cause 3: RX Pipeline PU Contention

**Root cause.** A third cause arises from an RNIC mechanism for handling the Receive-Not-Ready (RNR) error in SEND/RECV primitives. Specifically, when using SEND/RECV, the receiver-side CPU must post RECV requests for the target QP before the data arrives. The RNIC's RX pipeline processes these requests, storing pointers to available buffers. Upon receiving a SEND request, the RX pipeline checks for a matching RECV request. If a valid RECV request is available, the data is placed in the pre-registered buffer. However, if no RECV request has been posted in advance, the RNIC cannot accept the data, triggering an RNR error.

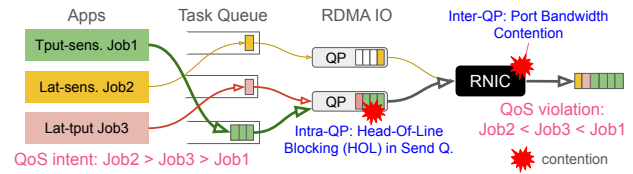
When an RNR error occurs, the RX pipeline PUs discard the incoming SEND request and send an RNR NACK, prompting the sender to retry after a backoff. Crucially, such error handling consumes RX pipeline processing cycles. As Figure 8 shows, this leads to resource contention and potentially stalling the entire RX pipeline. As a result, not only is the workload associated with the RNR error affected, but other workloads may also experience delays. Prior studies [14] have demonstrated that RNR on one QP can drastically reduce the bandwidth of another QP, dropping it from over 90 Gbps to just 0.018 Gbps – only 0.02% of its original bandwidth.

**Signals and actions.** We identify two key signals for tracking the RX pipeline PU contention: (i) the length of RECV queues and (ii) the RNR hardware counter in RNIC. The former is an indirect signal that reflects delays in processing RECV requests, where both excessively high and low values can be problematic, while the latter is a direct signal that indicates whether an RNR error has occurred.

Our action plan is as follows: If the RECV queue length falls below a predefined low threshold, it indicates a high likelihood of RNR errors due to insufficient available RECV requests. Similarly, an increasing RNR hardware counter signals that RNR errors have already occurred. In either case, we proactively allocate and post a batch of new RECV requests using `ibv_post_recv()`. Conversely, if the RECV queue length stays above a high threshold for too long, some QPs may be blocked from posting RECVs. To prevent this, we selectively remove excess RECV requests to free up resources and sustain RX pipeline health.

### 3.4 Cause 4: Inter & Intra QP Contention

**Root cause.** The final cause stems from QP contention, which can occur both within a single QP (intra-QP contention) and across multiple QPs (inter-QP contention). To illustrate this issue, we consider three jobs with different QoS requirements, where Job1



**Figure 9: (1) Intra-QP send Q. contention—head-of-line (HOL) blocking, and (2) inter-QP port BW contention.**

and Job3 share the same QP, while Job2 uses a separate QP, as shown in Figure 9. For simplicity, we focus on the sender side.

At the RDMA I/O level, intra-QP contention arises because a QP processes requests in a FIFO manner. Since Job1 and Job3 share the same QP, their requests are processed sequentially based on posting order, irrespective of their QoS requirements. This can lead to head-of-line (HOL) blocking, where a low-priority request delays a high-priority one, disrupting the intended QoS for both jobs.

Further contention arises within the RNIC due to inter-QP port bandwidth (BW) contention. Modern RNICs support QP-level traffic classes with priority queuing mechanisms [26], enabling differentiation between workloads with varying QoS requirements. However, our experience is that application developers often fail to properly configure or be aware of RNIC priorities, resulting in unintended QoS degradation despite the available hardware support.

*Potential of proper inter-QP QoS.* We evaluate the benefits of using proper inter-QP QoS to and mitigate port BW contention. The client machine generates latency-sensitive key-value get workloads with various key-value sizes to the server machine. Meanwhile, we continuously generate 64KB requests and responses between these two machines as background best-effort (BE) workloads. Our baselines include (1) *Vanilla* only running key-value workload, and (2) *w/ BE* running two workloads with the same traffic class (TC) of QPs by default. SwiftRDMA assigns higher TC to the QPs used in the key value workload when co-locating it with the BE workload. As Figure 5 shows, SwiftRDMA achieves near *Vanilla*’s latency and reduces average and P99 latency than baseline *w/ BE* by up to 35% and 25%, respectively.

**Signals and actions.** We identify three signals for tracking the intra-QP send queue contention: (i) bandwidth utilization, (ii) queueing latency of the QP, and (iii) the tail latency for high-priority traffic. The first signal, which can be retrieved from hardware counters, indicates whether resources are fully utilized. For instance, low bandwidth utilization suggests that resources are underutilized, potentially pointing to send queue contention. The second and third signals require computation, where high queueing latency and increased tail latency for high-priority traffic suggest impending contention and QoS degradation. To mitigate these issues, we introduce priority task queues before applications write to the QP send queues, as illustrated in Figure 9. If bandwidth utilization remains low while queueing latency and tail latency increase, we then act to dynamically adjust the weights of traffic within the shared QP to prioritize critical workloads.

For inter-QP port bandwidth contention, we track two key signals: (i) bandwidth utilization and (ii) tail latency for high-priority traffic. Unlike intra-QP contention, high bandwidth utilization in this case signals potential port bandwidth saturation, which can

lead to contention among QPs. Note that various forms of inter-QP contention exist, but port bandwidth contention – our primary focus here – only manifests when utilization is high. The second signal further confirms whether this high utilization negatively impacts high-priority workloads (e.g., latency-sensitive ones). If both signals are high, our action is then to assign high-priority traffic to elevated traffic classes supported by the RNIC, ensuring better QoS differentiation.

#### 4 Case Study: A QoS Scheduling Policy

As illustrated in Figure 3, the central scheduler is a core design of SwiftRDMA: it optimizes RDMA resource sharing by monitoring both software and hardware signals while considering application SLOs. This is achieved by enforcing pre-defined policies through adaptive actions. Policies, defined as state-action pairs, bridge application intent to concrete actions. A state is determined by job SLOs and real-time system signals, while actions involve control-path and data-path adjustments, as detailed in Section 3. Policies are created by operators (e.g., cloud providers) or users, and the scheduler enforces them to achieve the intended behavior.

We demonstrate a case study of a QoS scheduling policy. Using the setup from Section 3.4, we consider three jobs with different SLOs: throughput-sensitive (*TS*) job  $j_1$ , latency-sensitive (*LS*) job  $j_2$ , and latency-throughput-balanced (*LT*) job  $j_3$ . Here, the application QoS intention is  $j_2 > j_3 > j_1$ . Note that SLOs can be expressed in different ways, such as priority levels or concrete specifications (e.g., the 99th percentile latency should remain below  $10\mu s$ ), as long as they align with policy definitions.

Let  $u_p$  denote the bandwidth utilization for port  $p$  and  $L_{qp}$  represent the queueing latency of QP  $qp$ . The 99th percentile latency of job  $j$  is denoted as  $L_j^{99}$ , with  $L_j^{99'}$  representing its last reading. Let  $w_j$  represent job  $j$ 's weight in the task queue  $w_j$ , and  $c_j$  denote its assigned traffic class.

To mitigate intra-QP head-of-line (HOL) blocking, we have the following formally-defined policy:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} & (TS = \{j_1\}, LS = \{j_2\}, LT = \{j_3\}) \wedge \\ \text{STATE:} & ((\exists j \in LT \cup LS, L_j^{99} > L_j^{99'}) \\ & \wedge (j \in p, u_p < 80\%) \wedge (j \in qp, L_{qp} > 5\mu s)) \\ \text{ACTION:} & w_j \leftarrow w_j + 1 \end{array} \right.$$

This policy first specifies job classifications and their SLOs, then outlines the example conditions under which intra-QP HOL contention is detected. When the specified state is met, the corresponding action is to increase the affected job's task queue weight to prioritize its processing. This adjustment may be applied iteratively until HOL blocking is resolved, ensuring that latency-sensitive and latency-throughput workloads take precedence over throughput-sensitive ones.

Similarly, a policy for resolving inter-QP port bandwidth contention can be written as:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} & (TS = \{j_1\}, LS = \{j_2\}, LT = \{j_3\}) \wedge \\ \text{STATE:} & ((\exists j \in LS, L_j^{99} > L_j^{99'}) \wedge (j \in p, u_p > 80\%)) \\ \text{ACTION:} & c_j \leftarrow c_j + 1 \end{array} \right.$$

**Policy compilation.** The above policies should be automatically compiled from high-level application QoS intentions and contention criteria, translating abstract user-defined goals into enforceable scheduling decisions. In future work, we aim to explore this compilation process, ensuring efficient and automated policy generation. Moreover, real-world scenarios often involve multiple simultaneous contention issues in Section 3, which we plan to investigate further. **Scheduling loop.** The scheduler runs in a continuous loop, where each iteration efficiently gathers runtime signals and evaluates predefined policies. It systematically checks for conditions that require action and, if met, executes the corresponding actions to adjust resource allocation. Our goal is to implement the scheduler using a single CPU core while achieving fast decision making as timely as possible.

#### 5 Discussion

##### Interaction with virtualization and cluster-level scheduling.

In modern datacenters, RDMA scheduling can interact with surrounding environments in complex ways. As an example, Single Root IO Virtualization (SR-IOV) [25] can affect SwiftRDMA by evenly partitioning a NIC's resources into multiple virtual instances. If the partitions are known to be static, then SwiftRDMA can be applied seamlessly. But if the setting involves dynamic repartitioning of NIC resources (e.g. due to container autoscaling), then its interaction with SwiftRDMA becomes an interesting direction for future works. Across machines/RNICs, cluster-level scheduling decisions may also affect the behavior of SwiftRDMA, even if SwiftRDMA focuses on lower-level scheduling. Thus, developing hierarchical techniques that integrate cluster-level scheduling with SwiftRDMA is also a promising direction for further exploration.

**New scheduling policies.** The software-defined RDMA scheduling framework should be extensible, supporting various policies across application workloads and NIC hardware. In particular, as multi-path transport is increasingly adopted in AI/storage workloads [5], SwiftRDMA should enable software-defined multi-path hashing policies to enhance load balancing across RDMA links. The trend toward dual NICs and ports in the host further introduces the need for workload-specific reliability policies, such as NIC backup and TCP fallback [6, 17]. Extending SwiftRDMA from single NIC scheduling to dual NIC scheduling would be an interesting research endeavor. Moreover, SwiftRDMA should enable policies that narrow the gap between heterogeneous NIC hardware—those from different generations or vendors. All of these go beyond the QoS guarantee policy that SwiftRDMA has tested, and we leave their development to future work.

**Extending to other emerging hardware.** While SwiftRDMA focuses on RDMA hardware resource scheduling, we believe that its core paradigm—software-defined scheduling for domain specific hardware resources—can be effectively extended to other emerging hardware platforms, such as XPU [28, 37], and PCIe interconnect [3, 10]. This paradigm converts hardware resource scheduling from traditional black-box modeling to a gray-box approach, substantially narrowing the context gap between low-level hardware behavior and high-level application objectives. As an example, it could turn GPU workload collocation into a scheduling problem: we

start by profiling various forms of GPU contention at the microarchitecture level (e.g., streaming multiprocessors, high-bandwidth memory and GPU cache), accompanied by identifying accurate contention signals via GPU hardware counters and job-level metrics, then derive effective mitigation actions from composable CUDA programming abstractions. Therefore, we believe co-designing the software scheduler with other domain-specific hardware represents a broad direction for future exploration.

**Integration with collective communication over RDMA.** We reckon that as the RDMA-based collective communication frameworks (e.g., NCCL) continue to scale up in AI training and inference workloads, smarter scheduling mechanisms become increasingly crucial, especially for the purpose of addressing the RNIC contentions arising from collective operations. For example, NCCL employs several multi-GPU parallelization techniques, including those that involve multi-thread and multi-process [27] models, making SwiftRDMA well suited to mitigate related RNIC contentions and enhance the performance of collective primitives such as all-reduce. We plan to integrate SwiftRDMA into RDMA-based collective communication systems in the future.

## 6 Conclusion & Future Work

This paper presents SwiftRDMA, a software-defined RDMA scheduling framework that ensures co-located workloads meet their SLOs while maintaining hardware efficiency. RDMA resource management is challenging due to the opaque nature of commodity RNICs. To address them, SwiftRDMA dissects the root causes of various RNIC contentions, links them to various control signals and actions, and converts user demands into scheduling policies. The case study and preliminary results demonstrate the potential of SwiftRDMA in mitigating RNIC contention and meeting application SLOs.

For future work, we plan to: (1) define a declarative policy and task QoS programming model, (2) develop lightweight components for signal gathering, decision-making, and action enforcement, and (3) explore more use cases of extensible SwiftRDMA in a plug-and-play manner. *This work does not raise any ethical issues.*

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