Advanced Unix System Administration

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- Memory use from user space
 - Each process sees its own private virtual address space
 - Code is mapped into memory from disk
 - A few pages are mapped for local storage as the stack – this grows as needed
 - Process can explicitly request memory from the heap using malloc() – though this can be lazy!
 - Files can be mapped into memory using mmap()

- Efficient VM operation
 - Kernel must keep track of many things about pages:
 - Which bits of disk and RAM correspond to an address
 - Whether the disk and RAM are in sync (dirty bit)
 - Purpose of the allocation (data, code, mmap file, cache)
 - Ideally, the stuff that's in use and/or used most often should stay in RAM even when memory pressure strikes

- Efficient VM operation con't
 - Without prescience, figuring out what's going to be used next is a difficult art
 - Getting it wrong is a very large performance penalty
 - Lots of different algorithms for doing this: FIFO, random, NRU, LRU, NFU, aging; performance varies by application
 - All of the generally useful ones need to keep track of when pages are used

- Fragmentation
 - Kernel's keeping track of lots and lots of stuff per page, so the fewer pages the better
 - Keeping large allocations together means less work for the kernel and faster allocations
 - Some applications (i.e. DBs) actually need contiguous blocks of physical memory
 - Various strategies for keeping memory allocations together

- Large pages
 - Bigger pages means fewer pages, of course
 - Advantage: less overhead for large allocations, ensure contiguous physical memory
 - Disadvantages: difficult to allocate in presence of fragmentation and/or memory pressure, reduces flexibility
 - Not fully supported by all OSes

- Files
 - The file is (in principle) the fundamental abstraction behind Unix I/O
 - "Everything is a file" the famous Unix mantra that's maybe true
 - As far as user-space programs are concerned, a "file" should be a stream of data which can be read from and written to
 - Could be a file on disk, a network socket, a device, etc.
 - Whether the file is opened via a filesystem is another story

- Synchronous I/O
 - At simplest: process makes syscall to I/O facility, kernel does I/O, returns
 - This is what read(), write(), and friends do
 - Because we treat network sockets and various other things as files, they can be handled in a similar way
 - This model has some inefficiencies context switches, copies, and blocked processes

- Asynchronous I/O
 - Allows the process to do something else while I/O is running
 - Different ways of doing this: don't bother notifying the process, polling, event loop, signals/callbacks
- Memory-mapped I/O
 - Processes and kernel arrange to read/write from memory in orderly fashion
 - Fundamentally async

- I/O scheduling
 - When multiple requests to a particular I/O source come, we should try to arrange them efficiently
 - Simple first in, first out model works fine for networks – not so well for rotational disk media
 - On rotational disks, try to arrange requests so that reads and writes are near each other on the platter
 - When multiple devices are concerned, take into account which device data is on
 - If we're going to schedule, we might as well do priority scheduling too ...

• Filesystems

- At the core, a FS is just a way of collecting files efficiently
- Construction: usually laid out as blocks of various types
- Directories contain pointers to other directories and inodes
- inodes store filenames, metadata (permissions, ACLs, timestamps), and pointers to the actual data blocks

- POSIX filesystems
 - Unix filesystems traditionally make various guarantees – i.e. creating links will be atomic
 - This means that applications make assumptions about the way they operate on files (example: the standard way of safely replacing a file – especially a binary – while in use)
 - NFS breaks quite a few of these assumptions
 hence random tricks and workarounds