

Unikernel Linux (UKL)

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Abstract

This paper presents Unikernel Linux (UKL), a path toward integrating unikernel optimization techniques in Linux, a general purpose operating system. UKL adds a configuration option to Linux allowing for a single, optimized process to link with the kernel directly, and run at supervisor privilege. This UKL process does not require application source code modification, only a re-link with our, slightly modified, Linux kernel and `glibc`. Unmodified applications show modest performance gains out of the box, and developers can further optimize applications for more significant gains (e.g. 26% throughput improvement for Redis). UKL retains support for co-running multiple user level processes capable of communicating with the UKL process using standard IPC. UKL preserves Linux’s battle-tested codebase, community, and ecosystem of tools, applications, and hardware support. UKL runs both on bare-metal and virtual servers and supports multi-core execution. The changes to the Linux kernel are modest (1250 LOC).

1 Introduction

There is growing evidence that the structure of today’s general-purpose operating systems is problematic for a number of key use cases. For example, applications that require high-performance I/O often bypass the kernel by using frameworks like DPDK [1] and SPDK [7] to gain direct access to hardware devices [19, 46]. In the cloud, there is a mismatch between client workloads and the kernels that support them: workloads are often single-user and single-process, while general purpose OSes support multi-user and multi-process environments [49].

In response, there has been a resurgence of research systems exploring the idea of a libraryOS, or a *unikernel*, where an application is linked with a specialized kernel and deployed directly on virtual hardware [17]. Compared with Linux, unikernels have demonstrated significant

advantages in boot time [23, 29], security [50], resource utilization [14, 31], and I/O performance [47].

As with any operating system, widespread adoption of a unikernel will require significant and ongoing investment by a large community. Justifying this investment is difficult because unikernels target only niche portions of the broad use cases of general-purpose OSes. In addition to their intrinsic limitation as single application environments, with few exceptions, existing unikernels support only virtualized environments. Further, in many cases, they only run on a single processor core. Finally, they do not support accelerators (e.g., GPUs and FPGAs) that are increasingly critical to achieving high performance in a post-Dennard-scaling world.

Some systems have demonstrated that it is possible to create a unikernel that reuses much of the battle-tested code of a general-purpose OS and supports a wide range of applications. Examples include NetBSD-based Rump Kernel [21], Windows-based Drawbridge [41], and Linux-based Linux Kernel Library (LKL) [42]. These systems, however, require significant changes to the general-purpose OS, resulting in a fork of the codebase and community. As a result, ongoing investments in the base operating system are typically not incorporated into the forked unikernels.

To avoid the investment required to create a new OS, the recent Lupine [26] and X-Containers [48] projects exploit Linux’s innate configurability to enact application-specific customization. These projects avoid the hardware overhead of system calls between user and kernel mode but do not explore deeper optimizations. Essentially these systems preserve the API between the application and the underlying kernel, giving up on unikernel performance advantages that depend on linking the application and kernel code together.

The Unikernel Linux (UKL) project started as an effort to exploit Linux’s configurability to try to create a new unikernel in a fashion that would avoid forking the kernel. If this were possible, we hypothesized that we could create

a unikernel that would support a wide range of Linux applications and hardware while becoming a standard part of the ongoing investment by the Linux community. Our experience has led us to a more general goal: creating a kernel that can be configured to span the spectrum between a general-purpose operating system, amenable to a large class of applications, and a highly optimized, possibly application and hardware specialized unikernel.

If all UKL configurations are disabled, a standard Linux kernel is generated. When the *base model* UKL configuration is used, we start on the general purpose end of the spectrum. This simplest configuration of UKL supports many applications, albeit with only modest performance advantages. Like many unikernels, a single application is statically linked with the kernel and executed in supervisor mode. However, the base model of UKL preserves most of the invariants and design of Linux, including a separate page-able application portion of the address space and a pinned kernel portion, distinct execution modes for application and kernel code, and the ability to run multiple processes. As a result, this base model provides an avenue toward supporting all hardware and applications of the original kernel and the entire Linux ecosystem of tools for deployment, debugging, and performance tuning. Both the changes to Linux to support the UKL base model (~550 LOC¹) and the resulting performance improvement (e.g., 5% for syscall) are modest.

Once an application runs in the UKL base model, a developer can move along the spectrum towards a specialized unikernel by 1) adapting additional configuration options that may improve performance but will not work for all applications and/or 2) modifying the applications to directly invoke kernel functionality. Example configuration options we have explored avoid costly transition checks between application and kernel code, use `ret` instruction (rather than `iret`) to return from page faults and interrupts, and use shared stacks for application and kernel execution. Application modifications can, for example, avoid scheduling and exploit application knowledge to reduce the overhead of synchronization and polymorphism. Experiments show up to 83% improvement in syscall latency and substantial performance advantages for real workloads, e.g., 26% improvement in Redis throughput while improving tail latency by 22%. The full UKL patch to Linux, including the base model and all configurations, is 1250 LOC.

Our research focuses on runtime performance and not the many other benefits (e.g., security, boot time, resource utilization) demonstrated by other unikernel research. With that caveat, contributions of this work include:

1. An existence proof that unikernel techniques can be integrated into a general-purpose OS in a fashion that does not need to fragment/fork it.

2. A demonstration that a single kernel can be adopted across a spectrum between a general-purpose OS and a specialized unikernel.
3. A demonstration that performance advantages are possible; applications achieve modest gains with no changes, and incremental effort can achieve more significant gains.

2 Motivation & Goals

UKL seeks to explore a spectrum of unikernel optimization levels. At one end is a general-purpose operating system supporting a wide class of applications and hardware. At the other is a highly optimized unikernel which may be specialized down to the specifics of a single application and platform. In doing this, we aim to (1) enable unikernel optimizations demonstrated by earlier systems while preserving a general-purpose operating system's (2) broad application support, (3) broad hardware support, and (4) the ecosystem of developers, tools, and operators. We motivate and describe each of these four goals.

2.1 Unikernel optimizations

Unikernels fundamentally enable optimizations that rely on linking the application and kernel together in the same address space. Example optimizations that previous systems have adopted include 1) avoiding ring transition overheads [26, 30]; 2) exploiting the shared address space to pass pointers rather than copying data [47]; 3) exploiting fine-grained control over scheduling decisions, e.g., deferring preemption in latency-sensitive routines; 4) enabling interrupts to be efficiently dispatched to application code [47]; 5) exploiting knowledge of the application to remove code that is never used [29]; 6) employing kernel-level mechanisms to optimize locking and memory management [22], for instance, by using Read-Copy-Update (RCU) [33], per-processor memory, and DMA-aided data movement; and 7) enabling compiler, link-time, and profile-driven optimizations between the application and kernel code.

Ultimately our goal with UKL is to enable the full spectrum between general-purpose and highly specialized unikernels. For this paper, our goal is to enable applications to be linked into the Linux kernel and explore what performance improvements can be achieved, first in the context of unmodified application source plus a re-compilation and link step, then by modest changes to the application and general-purpose system.

2.2 Application support

One of the fundamental problems with unikernels is the limited set of applications that they support. In their purest form, unikernels only execute a single process; this excludes any application that requires helper processes, scripts, etc. Moreover, the limited set of interfaces typically requires substantial porting effort for any application and libraries that the application uses.

¹UKL base model was submitted as a 'Request for Comments' (RFC) to the Linux community

UKL seeks to enable unikernel optimizations while remaining broadly compatible. Our goal is to enable any unmodified Linux application and library to use UKL with a re-compilation, as long as only one application needs to be linked into the kernel. Once the application runs as a unikernel, the developer can incrementally enable unikernel optimizations/configurations. A large set of applications should be able to achieve some gain on the general-purpose end of the spectrum, while a much smaller set of applications will be able to achieve more substantial gains as we move toward the specialized unikernel end.

2.3 Hardware support

Another fundamental problem with unikernels is the lack of support for physical machines and devices. While recent unikernel research has mostly focused on virtual systems, some recent [20, 47] and previous [10, 15, 17, 27, 35] systems have demonstrated the value of per-application specialized operating systems on physical machines. Unfortunately, even these systems were limited to very specific hardware platforms with a restricted set of device drivers. This precludes a wide range of infrastructure applications (e.g., storage systems, schedulers, networking toolkits) that are typically deployed bare metal. Moreover, the lack of hardware support is an increasing problem in a post-Dennard scaling world, where performance depends on taking advantage of the revolution of heterogeneous computing.

Our goal with UKL is to provide a unikernel environment capable of supporting the complete hardware compatibility list of Linux, allowing applications to exploit any hardware (e.g., GPUs, TPUs, FPGAs) enabled in Linux. Our near-term goal, while supporting all Linux devices, is to focus on x86-64 systems. Much like KVM became a feature of Linux on x86 and was then ported to other platforms, we expect that, if UKL is accepted upstream, communities interested in non-x86 architectures will take on porting and optimizing UKL for their platforms.

2.4 Ecosystem

While application and hardware support are normally considered the fundamental barriers to unikernel adoption, the problem is much larger. Linux has a huge developer community, operators that know how to configure and administer it, a massive body of battle-tested code, and a rich set of tools to support functional and performance debugging and configuration.

Our goal with UKL is to preserve the entire ecosystem on the general-purpose end of the spectrum while enabling developers to adopt extreme optimizations inconsistent with the broader ecosystem. This means operational, functional, and performance debugging tools should just work. Standard application and library testing systems should, similarly,

just work.² Most of all, the base changes to enable UKL must preserve the assumptions of the battle-tested Linux code, must be testable and maintainable as development on the system progresses, and must be in a form that can be accepted by the community.

3 Design

UKL's base model preserves almost all the properties of the general-purpose operating systems; importantly, the base model preserves the (known and unknown) invariants and assumptions of applications and Linux, except system calls are replaced by function calls and application code is linked with kernel code and executes in kernel mode. From this starting point, an expert programmer can adopt specific unikernel optimizations that are valuable and safe for their specific application by choosing (additional) configuration options and/or modifying the application to invoke kernel functionality directly. Here we describe the base model and then some of the unikernel optimizations we have explored.

3.1 Base Model

UKL is similar to many unikernels in that it involves modifications to a base library and a kernel and has a build process that enables a single application to be statically linked with kernel code to create a bootable kernel. In the case of UKL, the modifications are to `glibc` and the Linux kernel. As a result of the wide variety of architectures supported by `glibc` and Linux, it was possible to introduce the majority of changes we required in a new UKL target architecture; most of the hooks we require to override code already exist in the common code of these projects.

The base model of UKL differs from unikernels in 1) support for multiple processes, 2) address space layout, and 3) maintaining distinct execution models for applications and the kernel.

Support for multiple processes: One key area where UKL differs from unikernels is that, while only one application can be linked into the kernel, UKL enables other applications to run unmodified on top of the kernel. Support for multiple processes is critical to support many applications that are logically composed of multiple processes (§ 2.2), standard configuration and initialization scripts for device bring-up (§ 2.3), and the tooling used for operations, debugging, and testing (§ 2.4).

It is important to note that while UKL supports multiple processes, other processes are not protected from the performance-optimized one linked into the kernel. Similar to unikernels, our security model assumes other work that needs to be protected is isolated by a hypervisor or by techniques for securing bare metal machines [8, 36].

²In fact, we used a great deal of `glibc` and `libpthread`'s internal unit tests to identify and fix problems within UKL.

Address space layout: UKL preserves the standard Linux virtual address space split between application and kernel. The application heap, stacks, and mmaped memory regions are all created in the user portion of the address space. Kernel data structures (e.g., task structs, file tables, buffer cache) and kernel memory management services (e.g., vmalloc and kmalloc) all use the kernel portion of the address space. Since the kernel and application are compiled and linked together, the application (and kernel) code and data are all allocated in the kernel portion of the virtual address space. See figure 1.

We found it necessary to adapt this address space layout because Linux performs a check to see if an address being accessed is pinned or not; modifying this layout would have resulted in changes that may have been difficult to upstream (§ 2.4). Unfortunately, this layout has two negative implications for application compatibility. First, (see § 4) applications must be compiled with different flags to use the higher portion of the address space. Second, it may be problematic for applications with large initialized data sections that, in UKL, are now pinned.

Execution models: Even though the application and kernel are linked together, UKL differs from unikernels in providing fundamentally different execution models for application and kernel code. Application code uses large stacks (allocated from the application portion of the address space), is fully preemptable, and uses application-specific libraries. This model is critical to supporting a large set of applications without source modification (§ 2.2).

On the other hand, kernel code runs on pinned stacks, accesses pinned data structures, and uses kernel implementation of common routines. This model was required to avoid substantial modifications to Linux that may prohibit acceptance by the community (§ 2.4).

On the transition between the execution models, UKL performs the same entry and exit code of the Linux kernel, with the difference that: 1) transitions to kernel code are done with a procedure call rather than a `syscall`, and 2) transitions from the kernel to application code are done via a `ret` rather than a `sysret` or `iret`; see "Base Model" figure 2. This transition code includes changing between application and kernel stacks, RCU handling, checking if the scheduler needs to be invoked, and checking for signals. In addition, it includes setting a per-thread `ukl_mode` to identify the current mode of the thread so that subsequent interrupts, faults, and exceptions will go through normal transition code when resuming interrupted application code. This is how we minimize affecting kernel invariants in the base model.

3.2 Unikernel Optimizations

While preserving existing execution modes enables most applications to run with no source modifications on UKL, the performance advantages of just avoiding `syscall`, `sysret`, and `iret` operations are, as expected, modest. However, once

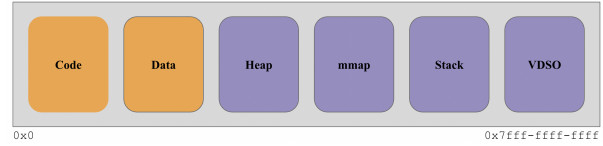


Figure 1. The 64-bit virtual address space layout for non-UKL user process. In orange are the segments that are relocated to the kernel half for the UKL process.

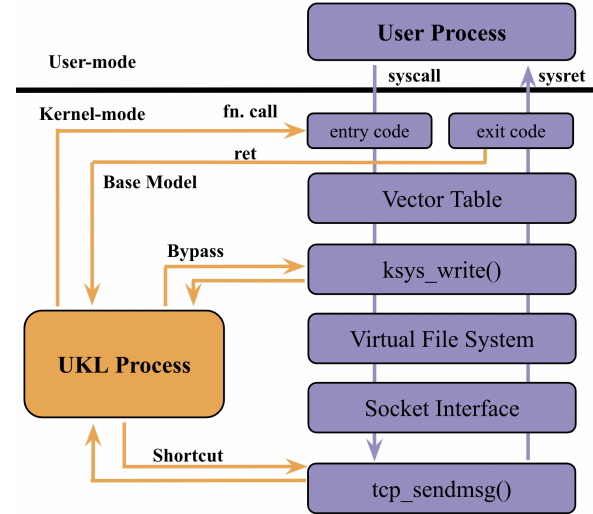


Figure 2. A schematic of a write system call destined for a network device. The three alternative internal entry points that a UKL process exercises are shown in orange.

an application is linked into the kernel, different unikernel optimizations are possible. First, a developer can apply a number of configuration options that may improve performance. Second, a knowledgeable developer³ can improve performance by modifying the application to call internal kernel routines and violating, in a controlled fashion, the normal assumptions and invariants of kernel versus application code.

3.2.1 Configuration Options. Once an application is running, a developer can easily explore a number of configuration options that, while not safe for **all** applications, may be safe and offer performance advantages for their application.

Bypassing entry/exit code: On Linux, whenever control transitions between application and kernel through system calls, interrupts, and exceptions, some entry and exit code (§ 3.1 Execution models) is executed; this is expensive. We introduced a configuration (UKL_BYB) that allows the application, on a per-thread basis, to tell UKL to bypass entry and exit code for some transitions between application and

³Expertise is needed to perform these customizations. For example, the kernel will fail if an application calls an internal kernel routine, passing a pointer to an application data structure that resides on a page that has not yet been accessed/allocated. We are just starting to develop a body of use cases and examples that should inform developers about the care they should take for different optimizations.

kernel code; see "Bypass" figure 2. As we will see, this model results in significant performance gains for applications that make many small kernel requests.

A developer can invoke an internal kernel routine directly, where no automatic transition paths exist, e.g., invoking `vmalloc` to allocate pinned pre-allocated kernel memory rather than normal application routines. Using such memory avoids subsequent faults and results in less overhead when kernel interfaces have to copy data to and from that memory.

Avoiding stack switches: Linux runs applications on dynamically sized user stacks and kernel code on fixed-sized, pinned kernel stacks. Every time kernel functionality is invoked, this stack switch breaks the compiler's view and limits cross-layer optimizations, e.g., link-time optimizations, etc.⁴ The developer can select between two UKL configurations that avoid stack switching (`UKL_NSS` and `UKL_NSS_PS`), where (see implementation) each is appropriate for a different class of application.

ret versus iret: Linux uses `iret` when returning from interrupts, faults and exceptions. `iret` is an expensive instruction that atomically changes the privilege level, instruction pointer, stack pointer, etc. `UKL_RET` configuration option uses `ret` and ensures atomicity by enabling interrupts only after returning to the application stack.

3.2.2 Application Modifications. Along with the above configurations, developers can explore deeper optimizations by taking advantage of application knowledge. For example, they may be able to assert that only one thread is accessing a file descriptor and avoid costly locking operations. As another example, they may know *a priori* that an application uses TCP and not UDP and that a particular write operation in the application will always be to a TCP socket, avoiding the substantial overhead of polymorphism in the kernel's VFS implementation. As we optimize specific operations, we are building up a library of helper functions that simplify common operations; see "Shortcut" figure 2.

UKL base model ensures that the application and kernel execution models stay separate, with proper transitions between the two. Applications can toggle a per-thread flag which switches them to the kernel-mode execution, allowing application threads to be treated as kernel threads, so they won't be preempted. This can be used as a 'run-to-completion' mode where performance-critical paths of the application can avoid perturbation.

4 Implementation

The size of the UKL base model patch to Linux kernel 5.14 is approximately 550 lines, and the full UKL patch (base model

plus all the configuration options) is 1250 lines. Most of these changes are target-specific, i.e., in the x86 architecture directory.

UKL takes advantage of the existing kernel `Kconfig` and `glibc` build systems. These allow target-specific functionality to be introduced that doesn't affect generic code or code for other targets. All UKL changes are wrapped in macros which can be turned on or off through kernel and `glibc` build time config options; they are compiled out when Linux and `glibc` are configured for a different target.

We found that the UKL patch can be small due to recent favorable design decisions by the Linux community. For instance, Linux's low-level transition code has recently undergone massive rewriting to reduce assembly code and move functionality to C language. This has allowed UKL transition code changes to be localized to that assembly code. Further, the ABI for application threads dedicates a register (`fs`) to point to thread-local storage, while kernel threads have no such concept but instead dedicate a register (`gs`) to point to processor-specific memory. If a register was used by both Linux and `glibc`, UKL would have had to add code to save and restore it on transitions; instead, both registers can be preserved.

In addition to the kernel changes, about 5,439 lines of code are added or changed in `glibc`. This number is inflated because according to the `glibc` development approach, any file that needs to be modified has to be first copied to a new sub-directory and then modified. The actual number of lines changed in `glibc` is 1,720. All the UKL changes are well contained in a separate directory. The `glibc` build process, configured for UKL, first searches the UKL specific directory for a target file at build time before searching the default location.

Building UKL binary: Our current implementation does not support dynamically loaded libraries, requiring the application code and associated user libraries to be compiled and statically linked with the kernel. This code is built with two special flags. The first flag disables the red zone optimization (`-mno-red-zone`) as is standard when building kernel code. The second kernel memory model flag (`-mcmmodel=kernel`) enables the generated code to be loaded into the highest 2GB of address space instead of the lower 2GB, the default for user code.

While a limitation of our current implementation that attempts to minimize changes to Linux, we do believe future work could enable binary compatibility. The kernel already supports dynamic linking, and extending the dynamic linker to support application libraries seems feasible. Previous work [40] has shown how all faults, interrupts, and exceptions can be made to use dedicated stacks through the Intel interrupt stack table (IST); such an approach would eliminate the need to disable red zones. Finally, the application and libraries could be loaded into the lower 2GB of address space, with some extra work at the transition between application and kernel code.

⁴Unfortunately, today LTO in Linux is only possible with CLANG while `glibc` can only be compiled with GCC. Efforts are underway in the community to enable `glibc` to be compiled with CLANG and enable Linux LTO with GCC. We are excited to explore the advantages of LTO as soon as one of these efforts completes.

After the application and libraries are compiled, a modified kernel build system combines them and the kernel into a final `vmlinux` binary which can be booted bare-metal or virtual. To avoid name collisions, all application symbols (including library ones) are prefixed with `ukl_` using the `objcopy` utility before linking the application and kernel together. Kernel code typically has no notion of thread-local storage or C++ constructors, so the kernel's linker script is modified to link with userspace code and ensure that thread-local storage and C and C++ constructors and destructors work. Appropriate changes to the kernel loader are also made to load the new ELF sections along with the kernel.

Transition between application and kernel code: On transitions between application and kernel code, the normal entry and exit code of the Linux kernel is executed, with the main change being that transitions code use `call/ret` instead of `syscall/sysret`. The `syscall` instruction puts return address in `rcx` register, but `call` puts it on the user stack. After the register state is pushed to the kernel stack in UKL, the return address on the kernel stack needs to be updated with the correct address.

The different configurations of UKL involve changes to the transitions between application and kernel code. All changes were made through Linux `SYSCALL_DEFINE` and `glibc INLINE_SYSCALL` macros. For example, to enable UKL_BYB mode, we add a stub in the kernel macro that is invoked by the corresponding `glibc` macro. A per-thread flag (`ukl_byb`) is used to identify if the bypass optimization is turned on or off for that thread.

Linux tracks whether a process runs in user or kernel mode through the `CS` register, but UKL-optimized applications are always in kernel mode. So the UKL thread tracks this in a flag (`ukl_mode`) in the kernel's thread `task_struct`.

The UKL_RET configuration option replaces `iret` after the application code is interrupted by a page fault or an interrupt, with a `ret`. A challenge is that we cannot enable interrupts until we have switched from the kernel stack to the application stack, or the system might land in an undefined state. To support this, UKL copies the return address and user flags from the kernel stack to the user stack, switches to the user stack, and only then pops the flags (which might enable interrupts), and does a `ret` to the application code.

Enabling shared stacks: In the UKL base model, a switch between the user and kernel stack occurs when code transitions between the two domains, limiting cross-layer compiler optimization. We have developed two configurations to avoid these stack switches.

The UKL_NSS configuration option simply executes kernel code on the application stack. With this configuration, while applications can run before and after the UKL application, the developer must ensure that other applications do not run concurrently with the UKL application. In the case of an inter-processor interrupt, e.g., for a TLB invalidation, Linux

can store information on the current process stack. If the interrupt interrupts a non-UKL thread, the kernel will inherit that other process's page tables and then try to access the information stored on the UKL thread's user stack that is not mapped in the current page tables, resulting in a kernel panic.

The UKL_NSS_PS configuration option allocates fixed-sized stacks in the kernel part of the address range. This configuration allows multiple processes to run concurrently but is impractical for applications that assume many threads with huge virtual stacks, pre-allocating and pinning all that memory in the kernel address space.

Page-faults: If the UKL_NSS configuration option is on, if a page fault occurs, it can result in two problems. First, deadlocks can occur if the fault happens when kernel memory management code is being executed, e.g., `mmap`. If the thread is holding a lock on the memory control struct (`mm_struct`), then the page fault handler will deadlock when it tries to acquire that same lock to read which virtual memory area (VMA) the faulting address belongs to. To address this problem, UKL saves a reference to the user stack VMA when a UKL thread or process is created. In case of page faults, while user stacks are used throughout, we first check if the faulting address is a stack address by comparing it against the address range of a saved VMA. If so, we know it's a stack address, and the code knows how to handle it without taking any further lock. If not, we first take a lock to retrieve the correct VMA and move forward normally.

Second, since in kernel mode the hardware simply saves the state on the current (user) stack, the kernel will fail on a double fault. The UKL_PF_DF configuration option addresses this by adding code to the double fault handler to check if the fault is to a stack page, and if so, branch to the regular page fault code. Alternatively, the UKL_PF_SS configuration option solves this problem by updating the IDT to ensure that the page fault handler always switches to a dedicated stack through the Interrupt Stack Table (IST) mechanism.

Fork, Clone: Userspace processes running on UKL can fork as expected. We have implemented a modified fork for the UKL-optimized application, where any state in the user portion of the address space is treated as expected, but the data in the kernel portion of the address space is shared. We have used this, for example, to run multiple optimized UKL processes for the `LEBench` microbenchmark [45]. Again, loading process data into the user portion of the address space would enable full fork support.

To create UKL threads, the userspace `pthread` library runs `pthread_create`, which calls `clone`. We modified this library to pass a new flag `CLONE_UKL` to ensure the correct initial register state is copied into the new task either from the user stack or kernel stack, depending on whether the parent is configured to switch to the kernel stack or not.

Changes to `execve`: Userspace processes running on UKL can `exec` as expected. The UKL process is started by invoking `exec` with a program name specified by a configuration; again, if called twice, it will result in two processes sharing the portion of data in the kernel address space. While most of `execve` is unmodified, we skip loading the (nonexistent) binary and jump directly to the `glibc` entry point. `glibc` initialization happens almost as normal, but when initializing thread-local storage, changes had to be made to read symbols set by the kernel linker script instead of an ELF binary. C and C++ constructors run the same way as in a normal process. Command-line parameters to `main` are extracted from a part of the Linux kernel command line. While we have not yet done so, we believe only modest effort is required to enable a UKL-optimized process to call `fork` and then `exec` a (non-optimized) application.

5 Evaluation

The main goals of UKL are to integrate optimizations explored by different unikernels into a general-purpose operating system while preserving its application and hardware compatibility and its ecosystem of tools, utilities, and community of developers. We want to evaluate if UKL can achieve those goals and if there are any performance advantages compared to Linux and other unikernels or library operating systems.

We discuss our experience with UKL preserving Linux's application and hardware compatibility, and ecosystem in § 5.1. In § 5.3, microbenchmarks are used to evaluate the performance of UKL on simple system calls (§ 5.3.1), more complex system calls (§ 5.3.2) and page faults (§ 5.3.3). We also explore if any improvements in the microbenchmarks translate to speed-ups in I/O (§ 5.4) and find a 36% improvement in a latency-sensitive benchmark. We find that the advantage of adopting unikernel optimizations is large for simple kernel calls (e.g., 83%) and still significant for expensive kernel calls that transfer 8KB of data (e.g., 24%).

Sections 5.5 and 5.6 evaluate UKL performance for a single-threaded application virtualized and bare metal as well as a complex multi-threaded application in a virtualized setting. We find that UKL can enable significant throughput (e.g., up to 26%) and latency (e.g., up to 22%) advantages over Linux.

5.1 Linux application hardware & ecosystem

The fundamental goals of the UKL project are to integrate unikernel optimizations without losing Linux's broad support for applications, hardware, and ecosystem.

Application support: After compilation and linking, we expected no significant challenges in running different unmodified applications as optimization targets with the UKL base model. Our hypothesis was largely true. We tested dozens of unmodified applications without any additional UKL-specific effort, including Memcached [34], Redis [44], Nginx [38], FIO [11], a multi-party computation benchmark [28], a

small TCP echo server, simple programs to test C++ constructors and the C++ Standard Template Library (STL), the GAP Benchmark Suite [13] (a complex C++ graph based benchmark suite) and LEBench [45] (a Linux system call benchmark).

Although the experience of running different applications with UKL was largely smooth, we did experience three (anticipated) challenges. First, it can be challenging to recompile and statically link applications with complex dependencies and Makefiles. Second, we have hit some programs that by default invoke `fork` followed by `exec`, e.g., Postgres, or depend on the dynamic loader. Third, we have run into issues with proprietary applications available in only binary form, e.g., user-level libraries for GPUs.

Hardware support: For hardware, we have not run into any compatibility issues and have booted or `kexec`-ed to UKL on a wide variety of x86-64 servers, virtualization platforms, and laptops with different Intel, Brocade and virtual NICs, as well as NVMe, SATA controllers, and virtual block devices. The scripts and tools used to deploy and manage normal Linux machines were used for UKL deployments without modification. Although we could not exploit GPUs without access to the source code for key libraries, we enabled UKL on Linux and deployed it bare-metal, which is the first step in enabling accelerators. We expect no major issues using accelerators with UKL if we have access to source code or binaries compiled with UKL-specific flags (see § 4).

Ecosystem: We have been able to run all the different applications, utilities, and tools that can run on unmodified Linux. This has been extremely critical in building UKL, i.e., we use all the debugging tools and techniques available in Linux. We have been able to profile UKL workloads with `perf` and identify code paths that could be squashed for performance benefits (see fig. 5).

The UKL patch size for the base model is around 550 LOC, and the full UKL patch with all the configurations we have explored so far is 1250 lines. We have spent several months discussing and presenting the concept of unikernels and the UKL approach to kernel developers within Red Hat. We posted the base model as an RFC to the public Linux kernel mailing list in October 2022 [6]. We had several commenters with specific technical suggestions that can be readily addressed and one maintainer with extensive and constructive feedback that we will be incorporating. Only one maintainer seemed strongly opposed for philosophical reasons.

To provide context for the size of the UKL patch, table 1 compares the base UKL patch to a selection of Linux features described in Linux Weekly News (LWN) [37] articles in 2020. UKL's patch size is smaller, and it modifies fewer files and Linux subsystems than many other patches accepted into Linux. For comparison, the KML[30] patch, used in the recent Lupine work, which runs applications in kernel mode, is 3177 LOC, a complexity that may have contributed to the patch not being accepted upstream. While UKL goes beyond the

Project	LOC	Files	SubSys	Outcome
Popcorn	7763	64	14	Out of tree
NetGPU	3827	45	14	Rejected
DAMON	3805	24	3	Accepted
KML	3177	70	16	Out of tree
BPFStruct	2639	32	10	Accepted
BPFDump	2343	32	8	Accepted
ArmMTE	1764	63	14	Accepted
NFTOffload	1579	56	24	Accepted
UKL	550	33	10	-
KRSI	1085	29	11	Accepted
LoopFS	891	27	5	Rejected
FSGSBASE	562	16	9	Accepted
BPFDisp	501	11	9	Accepted
ArmAsym	370	13	9	Rejected
BPFsleep	315	23	9	Accepted
IOURestrictions	194	2	2	Accepted
CapPerfMon	98	18	14	Accepted

Table 1. Comparison of the UKL base model patch to Kernel-Mode Linux (KML) and a selection of Linux features described in Linux Weekly News (LWN) articles in 2020. We show patch size, files touched (how complex it is to reason about), subsystems impacted (number of upstream kernel maintainers who need to review and approve it), and the current status of the change.

optimizations that KML does, both run applications in kernel mode and replace syscalls with function calls. UKL base model goes beyond this and links the applications with the kernel. So one question we had was why the implementation of the UKL base model was so much simpler compared to KML. After reviewing the code, we realized this simplicity is due to some fortuitous changes since KML was introduced (discusses in § 4). In addition, the UKL base model supports only x64-64, while KML was introduced when it was necessary to support i386 to be relevant. Furthermore, the UKL base model does not deal with older hardware, like the i8259 PIC, that had to be supported by KML. The combined patch for the UKL base model and all the optimizations explored in UKL so far is still only 1250 LOC (well below KML’s). These optimizations go beyond KML, enabling the broader specializations we discuss later.

5.2 Experimental Setup

Unless otherwise stated, experiments are run on Dell R620 servers configured with 128G of RAM across two sockets on a single NUMA node. Each socket contains an Intel Xeon CPU E5-2660 0 @ 2.20GHz with 8 cores. The processors are configured to disable Turbo Boost, hyper-threads, sleep states, and dynamic frequency scaling. They are connected through a 10Gb link and use Broadcom NetXtreme II BCM57800 1/10 Gigabit Ethernet NICs. Multi-node experiments use identically configured nodes attached to the same top-of-rack switch to reduce external noise. When comparing Linux and

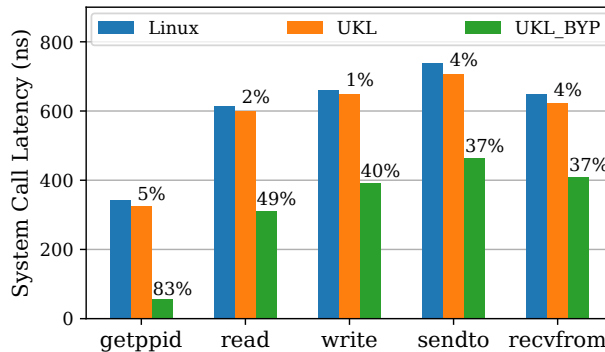


Figure 3. Comparison of Linux, UKL base model, and UKL with bypass configuration for simple system calls. With modern hardware, the UKL advantage of avoiding the system call overhead is modest (<5%). However, there appears to be a significant advantage for simple calls with UKL_BYP to avoid transition checks between application and kernel code.

UKL, we use the same application, kernel (5.14), and library versions for both (e.g., glibc version 2.31). Further, we use identical Linux configurations (modulo the UKL options) and boot command line options. Both systems run with the following settings: SMAP and SMEP disabled, and all Specter and Meltdown mitigations (e.g., KPTI) disabled.

5.3 Microbenchmarks

Unikernels offer the opportunity to dramatically reduce the overhead of interactions between the application and kernel code. We evaluate how UKL optimizations impact the overhead of simple system calls (§ 5.3.1), more expensive system calls (§ 5.3.2), and page faults (§ 5.3.3). Our results contradict recent work [26] that suggests that the advantages are modest; we see that the reduction in overhead is large (e.g., 90%) and has a significant impact even for requests with large payloads (e.g., 24% with 8KB recvfrom()).

5.3.1 System call base performance. We measure the latency of five commonly used system calls, i.e., getppid, read, write, sendto, and recvfrom. We compare the UKL base model and UKL_BYP to unmodified Linux. We use LEBench [45] to measure the latency of each system call for each system at least 10,000 times. To ensure that we only measure the intended operation, all buffers to store timing results are pre-allocated and pre-faulted into memory. We do the same with buffers required for reading and writing data for read, write, sendto, and recvfrom system calls.

Figure 3 shows the results. As expected, the advantage of the UKL base model over Linux is marginal (less than 5%) because the syscall instruction on modern systems is so optimized that replacing it with call instruction does not provide huge benefits. The real win comes with the UKL_BYP configuration option, which shows, compared to Linux, 83% improvement in getppid, 49% for read, 40% for write, and 37% for both sendto and recvfrom system calls. These

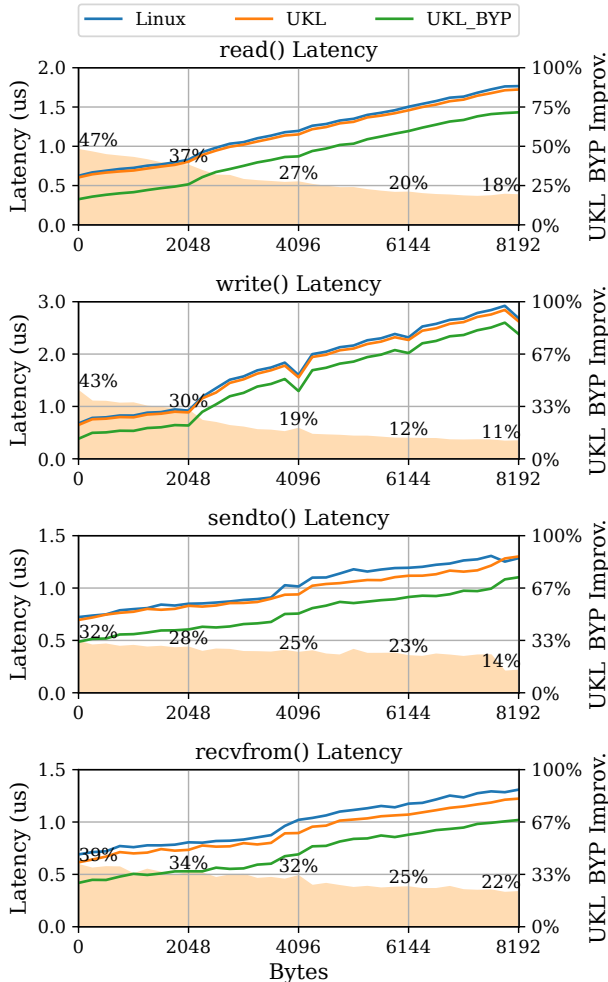


Figure 4. Comparison of Linux, UKL base model, and UKL with bypass configuration for four simple system calls. With increasing payload for each system call, UKL shows modest improvement over Linux. But there is a significant advantage for UKL, which bypasses the entry and exit code (UKL_BYP). The orange area shows a percentage improvement of UKL_BYP over Linux, which decreases as the payload increases but is still significant for the 8KB payload.

results show that Linux entry and exit code is the primary source of latency in system calls, as opposed to the hardware cost of the `syscall` instruction, and UKL_BYP can greatly benefit workloads that make many small system calls.

5.3.2 Large requests. After evaluating base system call latency in § 5.3.1, we now want to measure the effect of increasing the input size on the latency of `read`, `write`, `sendto`, and `recvfrom` system calls. We again use LEBench [45] to measure the latency. We increase the input size from 1 byte to 8 KB, with 256-byte increments. The experiment is repeated 10,000 times for each size for each system (Linux, UKL base model, and UKL_BYP).

No. of Pages	UKL_RET Improv. over Linux
1	7.66%
2	9.14%
3	8.34%
4	9.65%
5	9.85%
6	11.65%
7	10.82%
8	11.88%
9	11.30%
10	11.45%

Table 2. Improvement of UKL_RET configuration option, which uses `ret` instruction to return from kernel to user code, over Linux, which uses the `iret` instruction instead, with an increasing number of pages.

Figure 4 shows that the UKL base model provides a negligible performance improvement over Linux, and UKL_BYP offers some performance improvement (percentage improvement over Linux shown in the shaded region). The performance improvement given by UKL_BYP is due to bypassing the entry and exit code and is not affected by the system call input size. We can see the percentage improvement decreasing as the input size increases, but even for sizes up to 8 KB, the percentage improvement is still significant, i.e., between 11% and 22%. This means that UKL_BYP can also benefit workloads that make system calls with larger payloads.

It is interesting to contrast our results with those from the recent Lupine Linux [26], which shows (like us) that, other than a null system call, the benefit of replacing `syscall` instruction with `call` instruction is minimal (less than 5%). From these results, authors of Lupine Linux conclude that the benefit of optimizing the transition between application and kernel code is minimal. But our results suggest that the major performance gain comes not from eliminating the hardware cost but from eliminating all the checks on the transition between the application and kernel code. Reducing this overhead significantly impacts even expensive system calls.

5.3.3 `ret` versus `iret`. In this section, we measure the improvement of the UKL_RET configuration option, which uses `ret` instruction to return from kernel to user code, over Linux, which uses the `iret` instruction instead. We used LEBench again to run a page fault benchmark. For both Linux and UKL_RET, a character array of size equal to one page was allocated, and time was measured to write a character to the first index of that array, which would result in a page fault. This would include a return from kernel to application code once the page fault was handled. To increase the number of returns, the array was incremented by a page size every time, and only the first index of every page was written to, forcing a page fault on every write. The experiment was repeated a thousand times for each array size. Table 2 shows the percentage improvement of

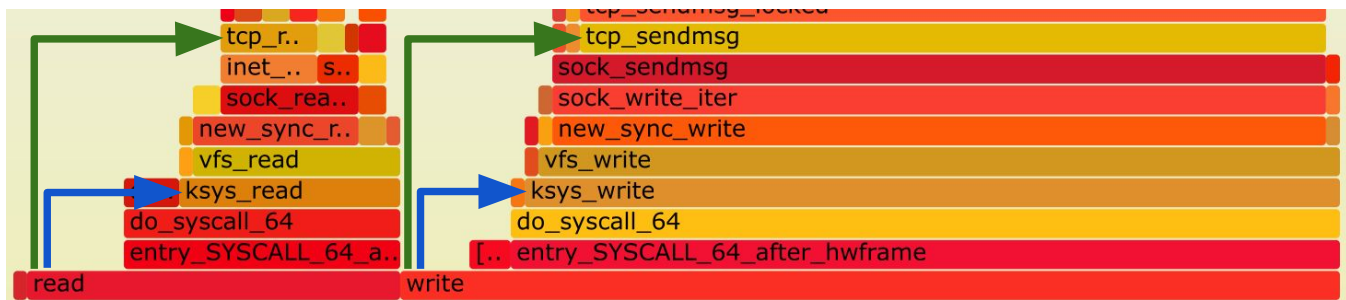


Figure 5. Part of a flame graph generated after profiling Redis-UKL base model with `perf`. The `read` and `write` functions at the bottom reside in Redis code. Blue arrows show the code bypassed in `UKL_BYP`, and green arrows show deeper shortcuts.

System	Read		Write	
	No. of Ops	Tput (Mb/s)	No. of Ops	Tput (Mb/s)
Linux	324K	42.14	323K	42.09
UKL_RET_BYP	441K	57.37	439K	57.2
Improvement	36.1 %		35.9 %	

Table 3. No. of operations completed and throughput in Mb/s of `fiio` when run with Linux and `UKL_RET_BYP`. UKL showed a 36% improvement in operation count and throughput.

`UKL_RET` over Linux, which shows the `ret` instruction gives around 10% improvement over the `iret` instruction.

5.4 I/O Latency

Latency-sensitive applications, e.g., high-frequency trading, require high-speed I/O. Section 5.3 showed the impact of different optimizations on system call latency. This section explores how those optimizations, and the resulting speed-up in system call latency, impact I/O latency.

To study I/O latency with UKL, we used the Flexible I/O (`fiio`) [11] benchmarking tool. We configured `fiio` with an I/O depth of 1 so that any speed-ups directly translate to latency gains, performing randomly interleaved 4KB reads and writes using direct I/O to an 8GB file for 30 seconds. This experiment was done on a 2021 Lenovo X1 laptop with 64G of RAM and a 1TB NVMe disk formatted with EXT4. Since each request has to wait for the prior one to finish, improvement in the latency of the requests directly translates into an increase in the number of requests serviced in a fixed period. We compare the throughput of Linux with `UKL_RET_BYP`. As seen in table 3, `UKL_RET_BYP` provides a 36% performance advantage over Linux for read and write operations. This shows that UKL can have a large impact on latency-sensitive applications.

5.5 Single Threaded Application - Redis

To understand the implication of UKL’s design on applications, we evaluated it with Redis, a widely used in-memory database. The simple design of Redis has made it a popular target for unikernel research.

Figure 5 shows part of a flame graph [18] we generated using `perf`. We see two clear opportunities for performance

improvement. Blue arrows show how we could shorten the execution path by bypassing the entry and exit code for `read` and `write` system calls and invoke the underlying functionality directly; that is, using `UKL_BYP`. The green arrows show that `read` and `write` calls, after all the polymorphism, eventually translate into `tcp_recvmsg` and `tcp_sendmsg` respectively. This suggests that further gains could be obtained if we could create a shortcut that enabled an application like Redis that always uses TCP to call the underlying routines directly.

We developed a kernel call “`shortcut`” that would directly invoke the underlying TCP routines. The change to Redis to invoke this routine required only 10 LOC to be modified.

5.5.1 Comparison with other Systems. In this section, we compare UKL’s performance with Lupine [26] and Unikraft [24] using the experimental setup done by Unikraft[24]; Redis server was deployed inside a single-core virtual machine, and `redis-benchmark` deployed outside the virtual machine, on the host, with 30 connections, 100k requests, and pipelining of 16 requests. Since Lupine uses Linux 4.0 and the patch of UKL used for this evaluation is based on Linux 5.14, we show those as baseline comparison points.

Table 4 shows that, compared to Linux 5.14, Unikraft performs 50% better for GETs and 44% better for SETs⁵. Linux 5.14 underperforms compared to Linux 4.0 due to differences in compile-time configuration options, kernel versions 4.0 and 5.14, and in C libraries (`musl` for Linux 4.0 and Lupine versus `glibc` for Linux 5.14 and UKL). Lupine and the UKL base model show no advantage over their respective baseline comparison points, showing the cost of a `syscall` instruction is not high.

`UKL_RET_BYP` shows no improvement over Linux 5.14 and `UKL_RET_BYP` (shortcut) has around 7% improvement for GETs and around 5% improvement for SETs over Linux 5.14. With modest changes, `UKL_RET_BYP` (shortcut) is only 29% worse than Unikraft, a highly specialized unikernel written from scratch, while preserving Linux’s ecosystem and application and hardware compatibility.

⁵We don’t see 70% to 170% improvement for Unikraft over Linux VM, as reported by authors of Unikraft [24], because we turned off the security mitigations for Linux.

System	No. of vCPUs	GET (Mil. req/s)	SET (Mil. req/s)
Unikraft	1	1.08	0.91
Linux 4.0	1	0.80	0.68
Lupine	1	0.80	0.68
Linux 5.14	1	0.72	0.63
UKL base model	1	0.71	0.62
UKL_RET_BYP	1	0.72	0.63
UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut)	1	0.77	0.66

Table 4. Redis throughput comparison of UKL with Unikraft [24] and Lupine [26] on single-core VMs. Linux 4.0 is shown as a baseline comparison for Lupine, and Linux 5.14 is shown as a baseline comparison for UKL.

System	No. of vCPUs	GET (Mil. req/s)	SET (Mil. req/s)
Linux 5.14	2	0.94	0.77
UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut)	2	1.00	0.82

Table 5. Repeat of the experiment in table 4, except with Linux 5.14 and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) run in a 2-core virtual machine.

Using the `ps` utility on Linux and UKL showed many kernel background threads that contend with Redis for CPU time. To remove this contention, we re-ran the same experiment with two cores. Through Linux boot parameter `isolcpus`, we isolated one of those cores so nothing would be scheduled on that core, and using the `taskset` utility, we pinned Redis to that core. Table 5 show the results. Unikraft and Lupine are not shown because they only support a single core. UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) gives more than 6% better throughput for SETs and GETs compared to Linux 5.14, and single core Unikraft is around 11% better for SETs and 8% better for GETs. Adding a core is simple in UKL since it preserves Linux’s hardware compatibility, while adding that support can be a huge engineering effort for a from-scratch unikernel.⁶

5.5.2 Bare Metal Experiment. While many unikernels can run Redis virtualized, few can run it bare-metal. In this section, we evaluate the bare-metal performance advantages of Redis with different configurations of UKL. For this experiment, instead of `redis-benchmark`, used in § 5.5.1, we use the `memtier_benchmark` which generates a more realistic load than `redis-benchmark` [3] to fully drive Redis server.

We build and deploy unmodified Linux and different configurations of UKL on a bare metal node to be the server (see § 5.2 for hardware and network description) and connect it over a VLAN to another bare metal node running Fedora 30,

⁶It must be noted here that all this performance advantage is not just due to removing CPU contention; some might be due to interrupt processing parallelism, i.e., network interrupts can now be serviced on two cores instead of one.

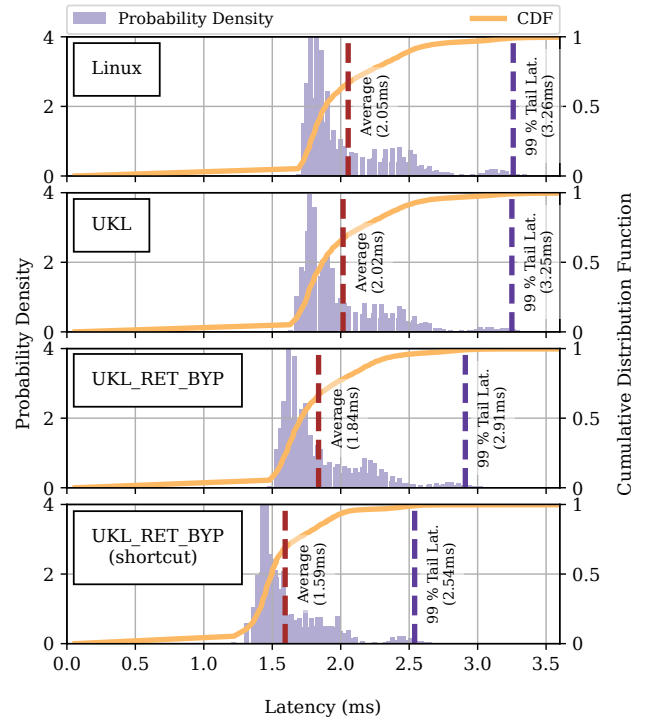


Figure 6. Probability Density (purple bars) and CDF (orange line) of Redis deployed on Linux, UKL, UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) and tested with the `memtier_benchmark`. Average latency (broken red line) and 99th percentile tail latency (broken purple line) are also shown.

to host the `memtier_benchmark` (client), which we configure to create three threads, each creating 100 clients. Each client generates 100,000 requests for the Redis server. We also tried many other configurations but had to find the one that would drive the Redis server as much as possible without saturating the 10Gb network link between the client and the server.

Figure 6 shows the results of our experiment; we plot the probability density and cumulative density function for Linux, UKL base model, UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut). Average and 99th percentile tail latencies are also shown. The UKL base model shows a negligible advantage over Linux. UKL_RET_BYP outperforms Linux and the UKL base model in average and tail latency. Table 6 shows that UKL_RET_BYP has an 11% better tail latency and a 12% improvement in throughput over Linux. Also, UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) outperforms both UKL_RET_BYP and Linux. UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) shows a 22% improvement in tail latency and 26% improvement in throughput over Linux (table 6). As with the virtual results, we see that significant gains can be obtained if applications are modified to use custom paths inside the kernel, e.g., UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut). Further, due to virtualization overhead, UKL shows a larger performance improvement bare-metal compared to virtualized deployment.

System	99 % tail lat		Throughput	
	(ms)	Improv.	(Kb/s)	Improv.
Linux	3.26	-	6375.20	-
UKL base model	3.25	0.3%	6479.20	1.6%
UKL_RET_BYP	2.91	11%	7154.68	12%
UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut)	2.54	22%	8022.54	26%

Table 6. Redis throughput and latency improvements of UKL base model, UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) over Linux

	Linux	UKL	UKL_RET_BYP	UKL_RET_BYP (sc)
Instruc.	358.61 B	360.64 B	357.84 B	313.01 B
Reduc. vs Linux		-0.57%	0.21%	12.72%
Cycles	438.19 B	440.12 B	401.55 B	342.39 B
Reduc. vs Linux		-0.44%	8.36%	21.86%
Branches	72.02 B	72.37 B	72.09 B	63.16 B
Reduc. vs Linux		-0.47%	-0.09%	12.31%
Branches Mispred.	0.34 B	0.42 B	0.34 B	0.09 B
% Mispred.	0.47%	0.58%	0.47%	0.15%
L1 dCache Accesses	168.86 B	170.69 B	165.37 B	141.77 B
Reduc. vs Linux		-1.08%	2.07%	16.04%
LLC Ac-cesses	6.07 B	6.16 B	5.54 B	4.78 B
Reduc. vs Linux		-1.44%	8.77%	21.28%
LLC Misses	1.41 B	1.4 B	0.85 B	0.79 B
Miss %	23.16%	22.72%	15.38%	16.59%
Time (s)	200.87	201.85	184.04	156.93
Reduc. vs Linux		-0.49%	8.38%	21.87%
Inst/Cycle	0.82	0.82	0.89	0.91
Imp. over Linux		0.12%	8.89%	11.71%

Table 7. Selected perf events for Redis

5.5.3 perf Analysis of Redis. To better understand where the gains in Redis results (§ 5.5.2) come from, we use perf [5] to profile Redis on Linux and different configurations of UKL. We re-run the same bare metal experiment described in § 5.5.2. The machine has a single NUMA node with two sockets, each containing 8 cores. We disable hyperthreading, so each core runs a single thread. Each core has a 32KB L1 instruction cache, a 32KB L1 data cache, and a unified 256KB L2 cache.

All 8 cores on a socket share a 20MB last-level cache. We pin the Redis server on one of these cores through the taskset utility. Table 7 summarizes a few of the key results from perf.

The UKL base model has a slightly higher number of instructions than Linux. This is because it adds a few new instructions in the transition code between the application and Linux kernel for environment tracking and to ensure that the stored register state on the stack is correct during those transitions. UKL_RET_BYP bypasses the entry and exit code which gives it a slight improvement over Linux, and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) shows a 12.72 % decrease in the number of instructions executed due to the deep shortcuts.

This difference in the number of instructions executed does not proportionally translate into the number of cycles taken. UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) show a much larger decrease in CPU cycles compared to the decrease in the number of instructions executed. This means that bypassing those instructions improved the efficiency of the remaining ones. Below we discuss some potential reasons for that.

Table 7 shows that the percentage decrease in the number of branches encountered by each system is similar to the decrease in the number of instructions executed. The percentage of mispredicted branches by UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut), i.e., 0.15%, is one-third of that of Linux, i.e., 0.47%.

Table 7 shows that for L1 data cache accesses for UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) show 2.07% and 16.04% decrease compared to Linux. So not only did these systems execute fewer instructions (leading to a decrease in L1 instruction cache accesses), but the fewer instructions also touched a smaller percentage of data structures, etc., leading to a decrease in L1 data cache accesses. A decrease in L1 instruction (due to fewer total instructions executed) and data cache accesses would result in better cache efficiency for the remaining contents of these caches, which would further result in improved L2 performance as well, since it is a unified cache for both instructions and data.

Cache efficiency is apparent in last-level cache (LLC) numbers in table 7. UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) show 8.77% and 21.28% fewer LLC accesses compared to Linux. Remember that L1 and L2 are per-core caches, but LLC is shared among 8 cores on a socket on this machine and thus is expensive to access. The decrease in LLC accesses correlates with the decrease in CPU cycles taken by UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut), i.e., around 8% and 21%, respectively. UKL_RET_BYP and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) also show fewer LLC misses compared to Linux, which further improves their performance. But the main result is that not having to access LLC in the first place due to better L1 and L2 cache efficiency might be a major factor in UKL's performance.

The improvement in CPU cycles translates to an improvement in the time taken by the Redis server to complete the requests, showing similar improvement, i.e., around 8% for UKL_RET_BYP and around 21% for UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut). A fewer number of instructions executed and improved

Conns. per Thread	Linux	UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut)	% Improv.
1	0.22	0.22	0.36%
2	0.27	0.25	6.33%
3	0.33	0.29	10.76%
4	0.40	0.36	10.36%
5	0.50	0.47	7.30%
6	0.61	0.56	8.78%
7	0.71	0.64	9.90%
8	0.82	0.73	10.01%
9	0.94	0.84	10.60%
10	1.03	0.94	8.60%

Table 8. 99th percentile tail latency, in msec, of Memcached running on Linux and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut). Percentage improvement of UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) over Linux is also shown. UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) gets up to 10% tail latency improvement over Linux, even as the load on the Memcached server increases.

efficiency of the remaining instructions lead to improved instructions per cycle, i.e., 8.9% improvement for UKL_RET_BYP and 11.7% improvement for UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut).

This analysis helps us understand the existing performance improvements and point to potential future directions that can result in the biggest improvements. The fact that utilities like `perf` can run with UKL, but not with other unikernels, is also an important result for UKL and shows how preserving Linux’s ecosystem helps developers, users, and operators bring the shared knowledge over to UKL.

5.6 Multi-threaded Application - Memcached

Many unikernels have shown results on Redis, a single-threaded application, but only a few target a more complex application like Memcached [34], a multi-threaded key-value store that relies heavily on the `pthread` library and `glibc`’s internal synchronization mechanisms and `libevent` [2], an event notification library that must be compiled and linked with.

We deploy Memcached like it is mostly deployed in data centers, i.e., in a VM, and the client deployed on a separate physical node, sending requests over a physical network. We deploy Memcached inside a 6-core VM; we ensure that all the vCPUs are pinned to separate physical cores on the host. We configure Memcached to run with 4 threads, each pinned to a separate vCPU. We compare Linux and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut), both built with `virtio` network para-virtualization drivers. On the host end, we use the `vhost` mechanism to share network queues between the host and the guest, taking the QEMU userspace out of the critical path. This gives the VM a very high-speed network. Inside the VM, we pin the `virtio` network queues to the separate vCPUs as well to avoid cross-core interference of network interrupts.

We run the `memtier_benchmark` on a separate physical node on Fedora 30. We configure the benchmark to have 4

threads, each pinned to a separate physical core and generating traffic of 100,000 requests. We increase the number of connections per thread from 2 to 10, to increase the load on the Memcached server and measure the 99th percentile tail latency. The 99th percentile tail latency for Linux and UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) is shown in table 8, along with the percentage improvement over Linux, which shows that UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) has up to 10% improvement over Linux, even when experiencing higher load. Although UKL_RET_BYP (shortcut) had around 22% improvement in tail latency on Redis bare-metal, that number is now around 10%. This might be because Redis experiments measured latency improvements without saturating the network, but this experiment is measuring latency while the system is under heavy load and the network is also saturated. Also, this points to the opportunity for further improvement for UKL in virtualized settings.

6 Related Work

There has been significant research on unikernels; we categorize them here as clean slate designs, forks of existing operating systems, and incremental systems.

Clean Slate Unikernels: Many unikernel projects are written from scratch or use a minimal kernel like MiniOS [12] for bootstrapping. These systems have demonstrated improved security and smaller attack surfaces, e.g., Xax [16] and MirageOS [29], fast boot times, e.g., ClickOS [32] and LightVM [31], efficient memory use, e.g., OSv [22], and better runtime performance by application specialization, e.g., EbbRT [47], Unikraft [24], SUESS [14] and Minicache[25]. The UKL effort was inspired by the tremendous results demonstrated by clean slate unikernels. Our research targets trying to find ways to integrate some of the advantages these systems have shown into a general-purpose OS.

Some researchers have directly confronted the problem of compatibility, e.g., OSv [22] is almost Linux ABI compatible, and Hermitux is fully ABI compatible with Linux binaries [40]. Other projects aim to make building unikernels easier, e.g., EbbRT [47], Libra [9], and Unikraft [24]. We believe that UKL can adopt some of the ideas from Hermitux to enable API compatibility and hope that some of the ideas of EbbRT and Unikraft may point to a path to managing the complexity of evolving a complex, customizable system.

Forks of General Purpose Operating Systems: Some projects either fork an existing general-purpose OS code base or reuse a significant portion of one. Examples include Drawbridge [41], which harvests code from Windows, Rump kernel [21], which uses NetBSD drivers, and Linux Kernel Library (LKL) [42], which borrows code from Linux. Although constrained by the original OS’s design and structure, these systems generally have better compatibility with existing applications [41]. The codebases these systems fork are well-tested [42] and can serve as building blocks for other research

projects, e.g., Rump [21] has been used in other projects [39]. UKL builds on this research while attempting to find a way to integrate unikernel optimizations in the OS/community.

Incremental Systems: Kernel Mode Linux (KML) [30], Lupine [26], and X-Containers [48] use an existing general-purpose operating system (Linux) but, like UKL, try to maintain the OS/community. UKL differs from these systems in going past reducing the hardware cost of the transition between the application and kernel but also avoiding software transition costs and enabling some of the deeper optimizations explored by systems like EbbRT [47] and Unikraft [24].

Lupine [26] and X-Containers [48] demonstrate opportunities in customizing Linux through build time configurations, which is orthogonal and complementary to UKL, and we hope to adapt some of their optimizations in the future.

Finally, UKL was motivated by our prior work [43] that showed how a simple TCP echo server could achieve major performance advantages when linked into the Linux kernel. This work introduces the functionality needed to make it possible to achieve those advantages for real applications on diverse systems, including configurable features and optimizations, co-running userspace processes, application preemption, user library support, C and C++ constructors, execution mode tracking (user/kernel), stack switching, etc.

7 Conclusion

UKL demonstrates that a modern, general purpose, monolithic operating system can be transformed into a system where unikernel optimizations become possible. Further, this can be done as a configuration option, in 550 lines of kernel changes. The system can then be moved towards a highly specialized unikernel by applying different unikernel optimizations, some of which have been explored in this work. In particular, we demonstrate how shortcutting can be used to allow applications to interface directly with internal kernel paths. We show three different system call entry points that trade off between specialization and performance. We quantify optimization of real workloads, e.g., 26% improvement in Redis throughput while improving tail latency by 22%.

UKL differs from existing unikernels. First, while application and kernel code are statically linked together, UKL provides very different execution environments for each, enabling applications to run in UKL with no source modifications, and minimal changes to kernel invariants. Second, UKL enables incremental performance optimization by modifying the application to take advantage of kernel capabilities directly, violating the traditional separation between kernel and application code. Third, user processes can run on top of UKL, enabling the entire ecosystem of Linux tools and scripting to just work. Finally, it neither follows a clean-slate approach, nor hard-forks an existing codebase.

We have only begun performance-optimizing UKL. A whole series of optimizations have become apparent beyond

the current efforts, e.g., zero-copy interfaces, and cross layer link-time optimization. From an application perspective, we believe that UKL will provide a natural path for improving performance and reducing the complexity of concurrent workloads. When user code moves into the kernel and runs at privilege, some operations might become faster, or possible in the first place, e.g., in a garbage collector, it might be necessary to detect, or prevent concurrent accesses. With easy and fast access to the memory infrastructure (e.g., page tables) and the scheduler, many situations in which explicit, slow synchronization is needed may be eliminated.

If the Linux community accepts UKL, we believe it will not only impact industrial deployment, but will become a useful platform for future research. While the benefits of broad application and hardware support may be obvious, a key contribution may be enabling the reuse of existing testing and performance tools to study the inner workings of unikernels.

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