

# Red Hat Enterprise Linux for Real Time 8

# Optimizing RHEL 8 for Real Time for low latency operation

Configuring the Linux real-time kernel on Red Hat Enterprise Linux 8

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#### **Abstract**

As an administrator, you can configure your workstations on the Real-Time RHEL kernel. Such adjustments bring performance enhancements, easier troubleshooting, or an optimized system.

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#### **CHAPTER 1. REAL-TIME KERNEL TUNING IN RHEL 8**

Latency, or response time, is defined as the time between an event and system response and is generally measured in microseconds ( $\mu$ s).

For most applications running under a Linux environment, basic performance tuning can improve latency sufficiently. For those industries where latency must be low, accountable, and predictable, Red Hat has a kernel replacement that can be tuned so that latency meets those needs. **RHEL for Real Time 8** provides seamless integration with **RHEL 8** and offers clients the opportunity to measure, configure, and record latency times within their organization.

**RHEL for Real Time 8** is designed to be used on well-tuned systems, for applications with extremely high determinism requirements. Kernel system tuning offers the vast majority of the improvement in determinism.

Before you begin, perform general system tuning of the standard **RHEL 8** system before using **RHEL** for **Real Time 8**. For more information on performing general **RHEL 8** system tuning, refer to the *RHEL 8 Tuning Guide*.



#### **WARNING**

Failure to perform these tasks may prevent getting consistent performance from a RHEL Real Time deployment.

#### 1.1. TUNING GUIDELINES

- Real-time tuning is an iterative process; you will almost never be able to tweak a few variables and know that the change is the best that can be achieved. Be prepared to spend days or weeks narrowing down the set of tuning configurations that work best for your system.
   Additionally, always make long test runs. Changing some tuning parameters then doing a five minute test run is not a good validation of a set of tunes. Make the length of your test runs adjustable and run them for longer than a few minutes. Try to narrow down to a few different tuning configuration sets with test runs of a few hours, then run those sets for many hours or days at a time to try and catch corner-cases of highest latency or resource exhaustion.
- Build a measurement mechanism into your application, so that you can accurately gauge how a
  particular set of tuning changes affect the application's performance. Anecdotal evidence (for
  example, "The mouse moves more smoothly.") is usually wrong and varies from person to
  person. Do hard measurements and record them for later analysis.
- It is very tempting to make multiple changes to tuning variables between test runs, but doing so means that you do not have a way to narrow down which tune affected your test results. Keep the tuning changes between test runs as small as you can.
- It is also tempting to make large changes when tuning, but it is almost always better to make incremental changes. You will find that working your way up from the lowest to highest priority values will yield better results in the long run.
- Use the available tools. The tuna tuning tool makes it easy to change processor affinities for threads and interrupts, thread priorities and to isolate processors for application use. The taskset and chrt command line utilities allow you to do most of what Tuna does. If you run into

performance problems, the **ftrace** and **perf** utilities can help locate latency issues.

 Rather than hard-coding values into your application, use external tools to change policy, priority and affinity. Using external tools allows you to try many different combinations and simplifies your logic. Once you have found some settings that give good results, you can either add them to your application, or set up startup logic to implement the settings when the application starts.

#### 1.2. THREAD SCHEDULING POLICIES

Linux uses three main thread scheduling policies.

- SCHED\_OTHER (sometimes called SCHED\_NORMAL)

  This is the default thread policy and has dynamic priority controlled by the kernel. The priority is changed based on thread activity. Threads with this policy are considered to have a real-time priority of O (zero).
- SCHED\_FIFO (First in, first out)
   A real-time policy with a priority range of from 1 99, with 1 being the lowest and 99 the highest.
   SCHED\_FIFO threads always have a higher priority than SCHED\_OTHER threads (for example, a SCHED\_FIFO thread with a priority of 1 will have a higher priority than any SCHED\_OTHER thread). Any thread created as a SCHED\_FIFO thread has a fixed priority and will run until it is blocked or preempted by a higher priority thread.
- SCHED\_RR (Round-Robin)
   SCHED\_RR is a modification of SCHED\_FIFO. Threads with the same priority have a quantum and are round-robin scheduled among all equal priority SCHED\_RR threads. This policy is rarely used.

#### CHAPTER 2. SPECIFYING THE RHEL KERNEL TO RUN

You can boot any installed kernel, standard or Real Time. You can select the required kernel manually in the GRUB menu during booting. You can also configure which kernel boot by default.

When the RHEL for Real Time kernel is installed, it is automatically set to be the default kernel and is used on the next boot.

#### 2.1. DISPLAYING THE DEFAULT KERNEL

You can display the kernel configured to boot by default.

#### **Procedure**

• To view the default kernel:

~]# grubby --default-kernel /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-80.rt9.138.el8.x86\_64

The rt in the output of the command shows that the default kernel is a real time kernel.

#### 2.2. DISPLAYING THE RUNNING KERNEL

You can display the currently running kernel

#### **Procedure**

To show which kernel the system is currently running.

~]# **uname -a** Linux rt-server.example.com 4.18.0-80.rt9.138.el8.x86\_64 ...



#### NOTE

When the system receives a minor update, for example, from 8.3 to 8.4, the default kernel might automatically change from the Real Time kernel back to the standard kernel.

#### 2.3. CONFIGURING THE DEFAULT KERNEL

You can configure the default boot kernel.

#### **Procedure**

1. List the installed Real Time kernels.

~]# **Is** /boot/vmlinuz\*rt\* /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-80.rt9.138.el8.x86\_64

2. Set the default kernel to the listed Real Time kernel.

~]# grubby --set-default real-time-kernel

Replace *real-time-kernel* with the Real Time kernel version. For example:

~]# grubby --set-default /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-80.rt9.138.el8.x86\_64

#### Verification steps

• Display the default kernel:

~]# grubby --default-kernel /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-80.rt9.138.el8.x86\_64

# CHAPTER 3. RUNNING AND INTERPRETING HARDWARE AND FIRMWARE LATENCY TESTS

You can test and verify that a potential hardware platform is suitable for real-time operations by running the **hwlatdetect** program with the RHEL Real Time kernel.

#### **Prerequisites**

- Ensure that the **RHEL-RT** (RHEL for Real Time) and **rt-tests** packages are installed.



#### **WARNING**

Red Hat strongly recommends that you do not completely disable SMIs, as it can result in catastrophic hardware failure.

#### 3.1. RUNNING HARDWARE AND FIRMWARE LATENCY TESTS

You do not need to run any load on the system while running the **hwlatdetect** program, because the test is looking for latencies introduced by the hardware architecture or BIOS/EFI firmware. The default values for **hwlatdetect** are to poll for 0.5 seconds each second, and report any gaps greater than 10 microseconds between consecutive calls to fetch the time. **hwlatdetect** returns the **best** maximum latency possible on the system.

Therefore, if you have an application that requires maximum latency values of less than 10us and **hwlatdetect** reports one of the gaps as 20us, then the system can only guarantee latency of 20us.



#### **NOTE**

If **hwlatdetect** shows that the system cannot meet the latency requirements of the application, try changing the BIOS settings or working with the system vendor to get new firmware that meets the latency requirements of the application.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Ensure that the **RHEL-RT** and **rt-tests** packages are installed.

#### **Procedure**

• Run **hwlatdetect**, specifying the test duration in seconds.

**hwlatdetect** looks for hardware and firmware-induced latencies by polling the clock-source and looking for unexplained gaps.

#### # hwlatdetect --duration=60s

hwlatdetect: test duration 60 seconds

detector: tracer parameters:

Latency threshold: 10us

Sample window: 1000000us Sample width: 500000us Non-sampling period: 500000us

Output File: None

Starting test test finished

Max Latency: Below threshold

Samples recorded: 0

Samples exceeding threshold: 0

#### Additional resources

- hwlatdetect man page.
- Interpreting hardware and firmware latency tests

### 3.2. INTERPRETING HARDWARE AND FIRMWARE LATENCY TEST RESULTS

This provides information about the output from the **hwlatdetect** utility.

#### Examples

• The following result represents a system that was tuned to minimize system interruptions from firmware. In this situation, the output of **hwlatdetect** looks like this:

#### # hwlatdetect --duration=60s

hwlatdetect: test duration 60 seconds

detector: tracer parameters:

Latency threshold: 10us

Sample window: 1000000us Sample width: 500000us Non-sampling period: 500000us

Output File: None

Starting test test finished

Max Latency: Below threshold

Samples recorded: 0

Samples exceeding threshold: 0

• The following result represents a system that could not be tuned to minimize system interruptions from firmware. In this situation, the output of **hwlatdetect** looks like this:

#### # hwlatdetect --duration=10s

hwlatdetect: test duration 10 seconds

detector: tracer parameters:

Latency threshold: 10us
Sample window: 1000000us
Sample width: 500000us
Non-sampling period: 500000us

Output File: None

Starting test test finished Max Latency: 18us Samples recorded: 10

Samples exceeding threshold: 10

SMIs during run: 0

ts: 1519674281.220664736, inner:17, outer:15
ts: 1519674282.721666674, inner:18, outer:17
ts: 1519674283.722667966, inner:16, outer:17
ts: 1519674284.723669259, inner:17, outer:18
ts: 1519674285.724670551, inner:16, outer:17
ts: 1519674286.725671843, inner:17, outer:17
ts: 1519674287.726673136, inner:17, outer:16
ts: 1519674288.727674428, inner:16, outer:18
ts: 1519674289.728675721, inner:17, outer:17
ts: 1519674290.729677013, inner:18, outer:17----

This result shows that while doing consecutive reads of the system clocksource, there were 10 delays that showed up in the 15-18 us range.

**hwlatdetect** used the tracer mechanism to detect unexplained latencies.



#### NOTE

Previous versions used a kernel module rather than the **ftrace** tracer.

#### Understanding the results

The output shows the testing method, parameters, and results.

Table 3.1. Testing method, parameters, and results

Parameter	Value	Description
test duration	10 seconds	The duration of the test in seconds
detector	tracer	The utility that runs the <b>detector</b> thread
parameters		
Latency threshold	10us	The maximum allowable latency

Parameter	Value	Description	
Sample window	1000000us	1 second	
Sample width	500000us	1/2 second	
Non-sampling period	<b>500000us</b> 1/2 second		
Output File	None	The file to which the output is saved.	
Results			
Max Latency	18us	The highest latency during the test that exceeded the <b>Latency threshold</b> . If no sample exceeded the <b>Latency threshold</b> , the report shows <b>Below threshold</b> .	
Samples recorded	10	The number of samples recorded by the test.	
Samples exceeding threshold	10	The number of samples recorded by the test where the latency exceeded the <b>Latency</b> threshold.	
SMIs during run	0	The number of System  Management Interrupts (SMIs)  that occurred during the test run.	

The detector thread runs a loop which does the following pseudocode:

```
t1 = timestamp()
loop:
t0 = timestamp()
if (t0 - t1) > threshold
outer = (t0 - t1)
t1 = timestamp
if (t1 - t0) > threshold
inner = (t1 - t0)
if inner or outer:
print
if t1 > duration:
goto out
goto loop
out:
```

t0 is the timestamp at the start of each loop. t1 is the timestamp at the end of each loop. The inner loop comparison checks that t0 - t1 does not exceed the specified threshold (10 us default). The outer loop

comparison checks the time between the bottom of the loop and the top t1 - t0. The time between consecutive reads of the timestamp register should be dozens of nanoseconds (essentially a register read, a comparison, and a conditional jump) so any other delay between consecutive reads is introduced by firmware or by the way the system components were connected.



#### **NOTE**

The values printed out by the **hwlatdetector** utility for inner and outer are the best case maximum latency. The latency values are the deltas between consecutive reads of the current system clocksource (usually the Time Stamp Counter or TSC register, but potentially the HPET or ACPI power management clock) and any delays between consecutive reads, introduced by the hardware-firmware combination.

After finding the suitable hardware-firmware combination, the next step is to test the real-time performance of the system while under a load.

# CHAPTER 4. RUNNING AND INTERPRETING SYSTEM LATENCY TESTS

RHEL for Real Time provides the **rteval** utility to test the system real-time performance under load.

#### 4.1. PREREQUISITES

- The **RHEL for Real Time** package group is installed.
- Root permissions for the system.

#### 4.2. RUNNING SYSTEM LATENCY TESTS

You can run the **rteval** utility to test system real-time performance under load.

#### **Prerequisites**

- The **RHEL for Real Time** package group is installed.
- Root permissions for the system.

#### **Procedure**

• Run the **rteval** utility.

#### # rteval

The **rteval** utility starts a heavy system load of **SCHED\_OTHER** tasks. It then measures real-time response on each online CPU. The loads are a parallel **make** of the Linux kernel tree in a loop and the **hackbench** synthetic benchmark.

The goal is to bring the system into a state, where each core always has a job to schedule. The jobs perform various tasks, such as memory allocation/free, disk I/O, computational tasks, memory copies, and other.

Once the loads have started up, **rteval** starts the **cyclictest** measurement program. This program starts the **SCHED\_FIFO** real-time thread on each online core. It then measures the real-time scheduling response time.

Each measurement thread takes a timestamp, sleeps for an interval, then takes another timestamp after waking up. The latency measured is t1 - (t0 + i), which is the difference between the actual wakeup time t1, and the theoretical wakeup time of the first timestamp t0 plus the sleep interval i.

The details of the **rteval** run are written to an XML file along with the boot log for the system. This report is displayed on the screen and saved to a compressed file.

The file name is in the form **rteval-<date>-N-tar.bz2**, where **<date>** is the date the report was generated, **N** is a counter for the Nth run on **<date>**.

The following is an example of an **rteval** report:

System: Statistics:

Samples: 1440463955 Mean: 4.40624790712us

Median: 0.0us
Mode: 4us
Range: 54us
Min: 2us
Max: 56us

Mean Absolute Dev: 1.0776661507us Std.dev: 1.81821060672us

CPU core 0 Priority: 95

Statistics:

Samples: 36011847

Mean: 5.46434910711us

Median: 4us
Mode: 4us
Range: 38us
Min: 2us
Max: 40us

Mean Absolute Dev: 2.13785341159us

Std.dev: 3.50155558554us

The report includes details about the system hardware, length of the run, options used, and the timing results, both per-cpu and system-wide.



#### **NOTE**

To regenerate an **rteval** report from its generated file, run

# rteval --summarize rteval-<date>-N.tar.bz2

## CHAPTER 5. SETTING PERSISTENT KERNEL TUNING PARAMETERS

When you have decided on a tuning configuration that works for your system, you can make the changes persistent across reboots.

By default, edited kernel tuning parameters only remain in effect until the system reboots or the parameters are explicitly changed. This is effective for establishing the initial tuning configuration. It also provides a safety mechanism. If the edited parameters cause the machine to behave erratically, rebooting the machine returns the parameters to the previous configuration.

#### 5.1. MAKING PERSISTENT KERNEL TUNING PARAMETER CHANGES

You can make persistent changes to kernel tuning parameters by adding the parameter to the /etc/sysctl.conf file.



#### **NOTE**

This procedure does *not* change any of the kernel tuning parameters in the current session. The changes entered into /etc/sysctl.conf only affect future sessions.

#### **Prerequisites**

Root permissions

#### **Procedure**

- 1. Open /etc/sysctl.conf in a text editor.
- 2. Insert the new entry into the file with the parameter's value.

  Modify the parameter name by removing the /proc/sys/ path, changing the remaining slash (/) to a period (.), and including the parameter's value.

For example, to make the command **echo 0 > /proc/sys/kernel/hung\_task\_panic** persistent, enter the following into /etc/sysctl.conf:

```
# Enable gettimeofday(2)
kernel.hung task panic = 0
```

- 3. Save and close the file.
- 4. Reboot the system for changes to take effect.

#### Verification

• To verify the configuration:

```
~]# cat /proc/sys/kernel/hung_task_panic
0
```

# CHAPTER 6. IMPROVING PERFORMANCE BY AVOIDING RUNNING UNNECESSARY APPLICATIONS

Every running application uses system resources. Ensuring that there are no unnecessary applications running on your system can significantly improve performance.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Root permissions for the system.

#### **Procedure**

- 1. Do not run the **graphical interface** where it is not absolutely required, especially on servers. Check if the system is configured to boot into the GUI by default:
  - # systemctl get-default
- 2. If the output of the command is **graphical.target**, configure the system to boot to text mode:
  - # systemctl set-default multi-user.target
- 3. Unless you are actively using a **Mail Transfer Agent (MTA)** on the system you are tuning, disable it. If the MTA is required, ensure it is well-tuned or consider moving it to a dedicated machine.

For more information, refer to the MTA's documentation.



#### **IMPORTANT**

MTAs are used to send system-generated messages, which are executed by programs such as **cron**. This includes reports generated by logging functions like **logwatch**. You will not be able to receive these messages if the MTAs on your machine are disabled.

4. **Peripheral devices**, such as mice, keyboards, webcams send interrupts that may negatively affect latency. If you are not using a graphical interface, remove all unused peripheral devices and disable them.

For more information, refer to the devices' documentation.

5. Check for automated **cron** jobs that might impact performance.

#### # crontab -l

Disable the **crond** service or any unneeded **cron** jobs.

For more information, refer to the CRON(8) man page.

6. Check your system for third-party applications and any components added by external hardware vendors, and remove any that are unnecessary.

## CHAPTER 7. MINIMIZING OR AVOIDING SYSTEM SLOWDOWNS DUE TO JOURNALING

The order in which journal changes are written to disk may differ from the order in which they arrive. The kernel I/O system can reorder the journal changes to optimize the use of available storage space. Journal activity can result in system latency by re-ordering journal changes and committing data and metadata. As a result, journaling file systems can slow down the system.

**XFS** is the default filesystem used by RHEL 8. This is a journaling file system. An older file system called **ext2** does not use journaling. Unless your organization specifically requires journaling, consider using **ext2**. In many of Red Hat's best benchmark results, the **ext2** filesystem is used. This is one of the top initial tuning recommendations.

Journaling file systems like **XFS**, record the time a file was last accessed ( **atime**). If you need to use a journaling file system, consider disabling **atime**.

#### 7.1. DISABLING ATIME

Disabling **atime** increases performance and decreases power usage by limiting the number of writes to the filesystem journal.

#### **Procedure**

To disable atime:

- 1. Open the /etc/fstab file using your chosen text editor and locate the entry for the root mount point.
  - /dev/mapper/rhel-root / xfs defaults…
- 2. Edit the options sections to include the terms **noatime** and **nodiratime**. The **noatime** option prevents access timestamps being updated when a file is read, and the **nodiratime** option stops directory inode access times being updated.

/dev/mapper/rhel-root / xfs noatime,nodiratime…



#### **IMPORTANT**

Some applications rely on **atime** being updated. Therefore, this option is reasonable only on systems where such applications are not used.

Alternatively, you can use the **relatime** mount option, which ensures that the access time is only updated if the previous access time is older than the current modify time.

#### 7.2. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- mkfs.ext2(8) man page
- mkfs.xfs(8) man page
- mount(8) man page

## CHAPTER 8. DISABLING GRAPHICS CONSOLE OUTPUT FOR LATENCY SENSITIVE WORKLOADS

The kernel starts passing messages to **printk** as soon as it starts. The kernel sends messages to the log file and also displays on the graphics console even in the absence of a monitor attached to a headless server.

In some systems, the output sent to the graphics console might introduce stalls in the pipeline. This might cause potential delay in task execution while waiting for data transfers. For example, outputs sent to **teletype0** (/dev/tty0), might cause potential stalls in some systems.

To prevent unexpected stalls, you can limit or disable the information that is sent to the graphic console by:

- Removing the **tty0** definition.
- Changing the order of console definitions.
- Turning off most printk functions and ensuring that you set the ignore\_loglevel to not configured.

This section includes procedures to prevent graphics console from logging on the graphics adapter and control the messages that print on the graphics console.

### 8.1. DISABLING GRAPHICS CONSOLE LOGGING TO GRAPHICS ADAPTER

**teletype (tty)**, the default kernel console, enables your interaction with the system by passing input data to the system and displaying the output information on the graphics console.

Not configuring the graphics console, prevents it from logging on the graphics adapter. This makes **tty0** unavailable to the system and helps disable printing messages on the graphics console.



#### NOTE

Disabling graphics console output does not delete information. The information prints in the system log and you can access them using the **journalctl** or **dmesg** utilities.

#### Procedure

- 1. Open the /etc/sysconfig/grub file.
- 2. Remove the **console=tty0** value from the **GRUB\_CMDLINE\_LINUX** key.
- 3. Run the grub2-mkconfig command to re-generate the /boot/grub2/grub.cfg file:

# grub2-mkconfig -o /boot/sysconfig/grub2/grub.cfg

The **grub2-mkconfig** command collects the new configuration changes and re-generates the /boot/grub2/grub.cfg file.

#### 8.2. DISABLING MESSAGES FROM PRINTING ON GRAPHICS CONSOLE

You can control the amount of output messages that are sent to the graphics console by configuring the required log levels in the /proc/sys/kernel/printk file.

#### **Procedure**

1. View the current console log level:

\$ cat /proc/sys/kernel/printk 7 4 1 7

The command prints the current settings for system log levels. The numbers correspond to current, default, minimum, and boot-default values for the system logger.

2. Configure the desired log level in the /proc/sys/kernel/printk file.

\$ echo "1" > /proc/sys/kernel/printk

The command changes the current console log level. For example, setting log level 1, will print only alert messages and prevent display of other messages on the graphics console.

# CHAPTER 9. MANAGING SYSTEM CLOCKS TO SATISFY APPLICATION NEEDS

Multiprocessor systems such as NUMA or SMP have multiple instances of hardware clocks. During boot time the kernel discovers the available clock sources and selects one to use. To improve performance, you can change the clock source used to meet the minimum requirements of a real-time system.

#### 9.1. HARDWARE CLOCKS

Multiple instances of clock sources found in multiprocessor systems, such as non-uniform memory access (NUMA) and Symmetric multiprocessing (SMP), interact among themselves and the way they react to system events, such as CPU frequency scaling or entering energy economy modes, determine whether they are suitable clock sources for the real-time kernel.

The preferred clock source is the Time Stamp Counter (TSC). If the TSC is not available, the High Precision Event Timer (HPET) is the second best option. However, not all systems have HPET clocks, and some HPET clocks can be unreliable.

In the absence of TSC and HPET, other options include the ACPI Power Management Timer (ACPI\_PM), the Programmable Interval Timer (PIT), and the Real Time Clock (RTC). The last two options are either costly to read or have a low resolution (time granularity), therefore they are suboptimal for use with the real-time kernel.

#### 9.2. VIEWING THE AVAILABLE CLOCK SOURCES IN YOUR SYSTEM

The list of available clock sources in your system is in the /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/available clocksource file.

#### **Procedure**

• Display the available clocksource file.

# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/available\_clocksource tsc hpet acpi pm

In this example, the available clock sources in the system are TSC, HPET, and ACPI\_PM.

#### 9.3. VIEWING THE CLOCK SOURCE CURRENTLY IN USE

The currently used clock source in your system is stored in the /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource file.

#### **Procedure**

• Display the **current\_clocksource** file.

 $\label{lem:condition} \mbox{\# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource} \mbox{\ tsc}$ 

In this example, the current clock source in the system is TSC.

#### 9.4. TEMPORARILY CHANGING THE CLOCK SOURCE TO USE

Sometimes the best-performing clock for a system's main application is not used due to known problems on the clock. After ruling out all problematic clocks, the system can be left with a hardware clock that is unable to satisfy the minimum requirements of a real-time system.

Requirements for crucial applications vary on each system. Therefore, the best clock for each application, and consequently each system, also varies. Some applications depend on clock resolution, and a clock that delivers reliable nanoseconds readings can be more suitable. Applications that read the clock too often can benefit from a clock with a smaller reading cost (the time between a read request and the result).

In these cases it is possible to override the clock selected by the kernel, provided that you understand the side effects of this override and can create an environment which will not trigger the known shortcomings of the given hardware clock.



#### **IMPORTANT**

The kernel automatically selects the best available clock source. Overriding the selected clock source is not recommended unless the implications are well understood.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Root permissions on the system.

#### **Procedure**

1. View the available clock sources.

# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/available\_clocksource tsc hpet acpi\_pm

In this example, the available clock sources in the system are TSC, HPET, and ACPI\_PM.

 Write the name of the clock source you want to use to the /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource file.

# echo hpet > /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource



#### NOTE

This procedure changes the clock source currently in use. When the system reboots, the default clock is used. To make the change persistent, see Making persistent kernel tuning parameter changes.

#### Verification steps

 Display the current\_clocksource file to ensure that the current clock source is the specified clock source.

# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource hpet

In this example, the current clock source in the system is HPET.

### 9.5. COMPARING THE COST OF READING HARDWARE CLOCK SOURCES

You can compare the speed of the clocks in your system. Reading from the TSC involves reading a register from the processor. Reading from the HPET clock involves reading a memory area. Reading from the TSC is faster, which provides a significant performance advantage when timestamping hundreds of thousands of messages per second.

#### **Prerequisites**

- Root permissions on the system.
- The clock\_timing program must be on the system. For more information, see the clock\_timing program.

#### **Procedure**

1. Change to the directory in which the **clock\_timing** program is saved.

# cd clock\_test

2. View the available clock sources in your system.

# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/available\_clocksource tsc hpet acpi\_pm

In this example, the available clock sources in the system are TSC, HPET, and ACPI\_PM.

3. View the currently used clock source.

# cat /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource tsc

In this example, the current clock source in the system is **TSC**.

4. Run the **time** utility in conjunction with the ./ **clock\_timing** program. The output displays the duration required to read the clock source 10 million times.

#### # time ./clock timing

real 0m0.601s user 0m0.592s sys 0m0.002s

The example shows the following parameters:

- **real** The total time spent beginning from program invocation until the process ends. **real** includes user and kernel times, and will usually be larger than the sum of the latter two. If this process is interrupted by an application with higher priority, or by a system event such as a hardware interrupt (IRQ), this time spent waiting is also computed under **real**.
- **user** The time the process spent in user space performing tasks that did not require kernel intervention.

- **sys** The time spent by the kernel while performing tasks required by the user process. These tasks include opening files, reading and writing to files or I/O ports, memory allocation, thread creation, and network related activities.
- 5. Write the name of the next clock source you want to test to the /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource file.

# echo hpet > /sys/devices/system/clocksource/clocksource0/current\_clocksource

In this example, the current clock source is changed to HPET.

- 6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 for all of the available clock sources.
- 7. Compare the results of step 4 for all of the available clock sources.

#### Additional resources

• time(1) man page

#### 9.6. THE CLOCK\_TIMING PROGRAM

The **clock\_timing** program reads the current clock source 10 million times. In conjunction with the **time** utility it measures the amount of time needed to do this.

#### Procedure

To create the **clock\_timing** program:

- 1. Create a directory for the program files.
  - \$ mkdir clock\_test
- 2. Change to the created directory.
  - \$ cd clock\_test
- 3. Create a source file and open it in a text editor.
  - \$ vi clock\_timing.c
- 4. Enter the following into the file:

```
#include <time.h>
void main()
{
  int rc;
  long i;
  struct timespec ts;

  for(i=0; i<10000000; i++) {
  rc = clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC, &ts);
  }
}</pre>
```

- 5. Save the file and exit the editor.
- 6. Compile the file.

\$ gcc clock\_timing.c -o clock\_timing -lrt

The **clock\_timing** program is ready and can be run from the directory in which it is saved.

## CHAPTER 10. CONTROLLING POWER MANAGEMENT TRANSITIONS

You can control power management transitions to improve latency.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Root permissions for the system.

#### 10.1. POWER SAVING STATES

Modern processors actively transition to higher power saving states (C-states) from lower states. Unfortunately, transitioning from a high power saving state back to a running state can consume more time than is optimal for a real-time application. To prevent these transitions, an application can use the Power Management Quality of Service (PM QoS) interface.

With the PM QoS interface, the system can emulate the behavior of the **idle=poll** and **processor.max\_cstate=1** parameters, but with a more fine-grained control of power saving states. **idle=poll** prevents the processor from entering the **idle** state. **processor.max\_cstate=1** prevents the processor from entering deeper C-states (energy-saving modes).

When an application holds the /dev/cpu\_dma\_latency file open, the PM QoS interface prevents the processor from entering deep sleep states, which cause unexpected latencies when they are being exited. When the file is closed, the system returns to a power-saving state.

#### 10.2. CONFIGURING POWER MANAGEMENT STATES

You can write a value to the /dev/cpu\_dma\_latency file to change the maximum response time for processes, in microseconds. You can also reference this file in an application or script.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Root permissions on the system.

#### Procedure

- Open the /dev/cpu\_dma\_latency file. Keep the file descriptor open for the duration of the low-latency operation.
- 2. Write a 32-bit number to the file. This number represents a maximum response time in microseconds. For the fastest possible response time, use **0**.

#### Example

The following is an example of a program that uses this method to prevent power transitions and maintain low latency.

```
main()
static int pm_qos_fd = -1;
void start_low_latency(void)
{
    s32_t target = 0;
```

#### 10.3. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

• Linux System Programming by Robert Love.

## CHAPTER 11. SETTING BIOS PARAMETERS FOR SYSTEM TUNING

This section contains information about various BIOS parameters that you can configure to improve system performance.



#### **NOTE**

Every system and BIOS vendor uses different terms and navigation methods. Therefore, this section contains only general information about BIOS settings.

If you need help locating a particular setting, check the BIOS documentation or contact the BIOS vendor.

### 11.1. DISABLING POWER MANAGEMENT TO IMPROVE RESPONSE TIMES

BIOS power management options help save power by changing the system clock frequency or by putting the CPU into one of various sleep states. These actions are likely to affect how quickly the system responds to external events.

To improve response times, disable all power management options in the BIOS.

### 11.2. IMPROVING RESPONSE TIMES BY DISABLING ERROR DETECTION AND CORRECTION UNITS

Error Detection and Correction (EDAC) units are devices for detecting and correcting errors signaled from Error Correcting Code (ECC) memory. Usually EDAC options range from no ECC checking to a periodic scan of all memory nodes for errors. The higher the EDAC level, the more time the BIOS uses. This may result in missing crucial event deadlines.

To improve response times, turn off EDAC. If this is not possible, configure EDAC to the lowest functional level.

### 11.3. IMPROVING RESPONSE TIME BY CONFIGURING SYSTEM MANAGEMENT INTERRUPTS

System Management Interrupts (SMIs) are a hardware vendors facility to ensure that the system is operating correctly. The BIOS code usually services the SMI interrupt. SMIs are typically used for thermal management, remote console management (IPMI), EDAC checks, and various other housekeeping tasks.

If the BIOS contains SMI options, check with the vendor and any relevant documentation to determine the extent to which it is safe to disable them.



#### WARNING

While it is possible to completely disable SMIs, Red Hat strongly recommends that you do not do this. Removing the ability of your system to generate and service SMIs can result in catastrophic hardware failure.

## CHAPTER 12. MINIMIZING SYSTEM LATENCY BY ISOLATING INTERRUPTS AND USER PROCESSES

Real-time environments need to minimize or eliminate latency when responding to various events. To do this, you can isolate interrupts (IRQs) from user processes from one another on different dedicated CPUs.

#### 12.1. INTERRUPT AND PROCESS BINDING

Isolating interrupts (IRQs) from user processes on different dedicated CPUs can minimize or eliminate latency in real-time environments.

Interrupts are generally shared evenly between CPUs. This can delay interrupt processing when the CPU has to write new data and instruction caches. These interrupt delays can cause conflicts with other processing being performed on the same CPU.

It is possible to allocate time-critical interrupts and processes to a specific CPU (or a range of CPUs). In this way, the code and data structures for processing this interrupt will most likely be in the processor and instruction caches. As a result, the dedicated process can run as quickly as possible, while all other non-time-critical processes run on the other CPUs. This can be particularly important where the speeds involved are near or at the limits of memory and available peripheral bus bandwidth. Any wait for memory to be fetched into processor caches will have a noticeable impact in overall processing time and determinism.

In practice, optimal performance is entirely application-specific. For example, tuning applications with similar functions for different companies, required completely different optimal performance tunings.

- One firm saw optimal results when they isolated 2 out of 4 CPUs for operating system functions and interrupt handling. The remaining 2 CPUs were dedicated purely for application handling.
- Another firm found optimal determinism when they bound the network related application processes onto a single CPU which was handling the network device driver interrupt.



#### **IMPORTANT**

To bind a process to a CPU, you usually need to know the CPU mask for a given CPU or range of CPUs. The CPU mask is typically represented as a 32-bit bitmask, a decimal number, or a hexadecimal number, depending on the command you are using.

Table 12.1. Examples

CPUs	Bitmask	Decimal	Hexadecimal
0	0000000000000 00000000000000 0001	1	0x0000001
O, 1	0000000000000 00000000000000 0011	3	0x00000011

#### 12.2. DISABLING THE IRQBALANCE DAEMON

The **irqbalance** daemon is enabled by default and periodically forces interrupts to be handled by CPUs in an even manner. However in real-time deployments, **irqbalance** is not needed, because applications are typically bound to specific CPUs.

#### Procedure

1. Check the status of **irqbalance**.

```
# systemctl status irqbalance
irqbalance.service - irqbalance daemon
Loaded: loaded (/usr/lib/systemd/system/irqbalance.service; enabled)
Active: active (running) ...
```

2. If irqbalance is running, disable it, and stop it.

```
# systemctl disable irqbalance
# systemctl stop irqbalance
```

#### Verification

• Check that the **irqbalance** status is inactive.

~]# systemctl status irqbalance

## 12.3. EXCLUDING CPUS FROM IRQ BALANCING

You can use the IRQ balancing service to specify which CPUs you want to exclude from consideration for interrupt (IRQ) balancing. The **IRQBALANCE\_BANNED\_CPUS** parameter in the /etc/sysconfig/irqbalance configuration file controls these settings. The value of the parameter is a 64-bit hexadecimal bit mask, where each bit of the mask represents a CPU core.

### Procedure

1. Open /etc/sysconfig/irqbalance in your preferred text editor and find the section of the file titled IRQBALANCE\_BANNED\_CPUS.

```
# IRQBALANCE_BANNED_CPUS

# 64 bit bitmask which allows you to indicate which cpu's should

# be skipped when reblancing irqs. Cpu numbers which have their

# corresponding bits set to one in this mask will not have any

# irq's assigned to them on rebalance

#

#IRQBALANCE_BANNED_CPUS=
```

- 2. Uncomment the **IRQBALANCE\_BANNED\_CPUS** variable.
- 3. Enter the appropriate bitmask to specify the CPUs to be ignored by the IRQ balance mechanism.
- 4. Save and close the file.



## **NOTE**

If you are running a system with up to 64 CPU cores, separate each group of eight hexadecimal digits with a comma. For example:

## IRQBALANCE\_BANNED\_CPUS=00000001,0000ff00

#### Table 12.2. Examples

CPUs	Bitmask
0	0000001
8 - 15	0000ff00
8 - 15, 33	0000001,0000ff00



#### NOTE

In RHEL 7.2 and higher, the **irqbalance** utility automatically avoids IRQs on CPU cores isolated via the **isolcpus** kernel parameter if **IRQBALANCE\_BANNED\_CPUS** is not set in /etc/sysconfig/irqbalance.

## 12.4. MANUALLY ASSIGNING CPU AFFINITY TO INDIVIDUAL IRQS

Assigning CPU affinity enables binding and unbinding processes and threads to a specified CPU or range of CPUs. This can reduce caching problems.

### Procedure

1. Check the IRQs in use by each device by viewing the /proc/interrupts file.

# ~]# cat /proc/interrupts

Each line shows the IRQ number, the number of interrupts that happened in each CPU, followed by the IRQ type and a description.

```
CPU0 CPU1
0: 26575949 11 IO-APIC-edge timer
1: 14 7 IO-APIC-edge i8042
```

2. Write the CPU mask to the **smp\_affinity** entry of a specific IRQ. The CPU mask must be expressed as a hexadecimal number.

For example, the following command instructs IRQ number 142 to run only on CPU 0.

# ~]# echo 1 > /proc/irq/142/smp\_affinity

The change only takes effect when an interrupt occurs.

## Verification steps

1. Perform an activity that will trigger the specified interrupt.

2. Check /proc/interrupts for changes.

The number of interrupts on the specified CPU for the configured IRQ increased, and the number of interrupts for the configured IRQ on CPUs outside the specified affinity did not increase.

## 12.5. BINDING PROCESSES TO CPUS WITH THE TASKSET UTILITY

The **taskset** utility uses the process ID (PID) of a task to view or set its CPU affinity. You can use the utility to launch a command with a chosen CPU affinity.

To set the affinity, you need to get the CPU mask to be as a decimal or hexadecimal number. The mask argument is a bitmask that specifies which CPU cores are legal for the command or PID being modified.



#### **IMPORTANT**

The taskset utility works on a NUMA (Non-Uniform Memory Access) system, but it does not allow the user to bind threads to CPUs and the closest NUMA memory node. On such systems, taskset is not the preferred tool, and the **numactl** utility should be used instead for its advanced capabilities.

For more information, see the **numactl(8)** man page.

#### **Procedure**

- Run taskset with the necessary options and arguments.
  - You can specify a CPU list using the -c parameter instead of a CPU mask. In this example, **my embedded process** is being instructed to run only on CPUs 0,4,7-11.
    - ~]# taskset -c 0,4,7-11 /usr/local/bin/my\_embedded\_process

This invocation is more convenient in most cases.

- To set the affinity of a process that is not currently running, use **taskset** and specify the CPU mask and the process.
  - In this example, **my\_embedded\_process** is being instructed to use only CPU 3 (using the decimal version of the CPU mask).
    - ~]# taskset 8 /usr/local/bin/my\_embedded\_process
- You can specify more than one CPU in the bitmask. In this example,
   my\_embedded\_process is being instructed to execute on processors 4, 5, 6, and 7 (using the hexadecimal version of the CPU mask).
  - ~]# taskset 0xF0 /usr/local/bin/my\_embedded\_process
- You can set the CPU affinity for processes that are already running by using the **-p** (**--pid**) option with the CPU mask and the PID of the process you wish to change. In this example, the process with a PID of 7013 is being instructed to run only on CPU 0.
  - ~]# taskset -p 1 7013



# NOTE

You can combine the listed options.

## Additional resources

- taskset(1) man page
- numactl(8) man page

## **CHAPTER 13. MANAGING OUT OF MEMORY STATES**

Out of Memory (OOM) refers to a computing state where all available memory, including swap space, has been allocated. Normally this causes the system to panic and stop functioning as expected.

The following provides instructions for avoiding OOM states on your system.

## 13.1. PREREQUISITES

• Root permissions on the system.

## 13.2. CHANGING THE OUT OF MEMORY VALUE

The /proc/sys/vm/panic\_on\_oom file contains a value which is the switch that controls Out of Memory (OOM) behavior. When the file contains 1, the kernel panics on OOM and stops functioning as expected.

The default value is **0**, which instructs the kernel to call the **oom\_killer** function when the system is in an OOM state. Usually, **oom\_killer** terminates unnecessary processes, which allows the system to survive.

You can change the value of /proc/sys/vm/panic\_on\_oom.

#### Procedure

1. Display the current value of /proc/sys/vm/panic on oom.

```
# cat /proc/sys/vm/panic_on_oom
0
```

To change the value in /proc/sys/vm/panic\_on\_oom:

2. Echo the new value to /proc/sys/vm/panic on oom.

```
# echo 1 > /proc/sys/vm/panic_on_oom
```



#### NOTE

It is recommended that you make the Real-Time kernel panic on OOM (1). Otherwise, when the system encounters an OOM state, it is no longer deterministic.

#### Verification steps

1. Display the value of /proc/sys/vm/panic\_on\_oom.

```
# cat /proc/sys/vm/panic_on_oom
1
```

2. Verify that the displayed value matches the value specified.

# 13.3. PRIORITIZING PROCESSES TO KILL WHEN IN AN OUT OF MEMORY STATE

You can prioritize the processes that get terminated by the **oom\_killer** function. This can ensure that high-priority processes keep running during an OOM state. Each process has a directory, /**proc**/*PID*. Each directory includes the following files:

- **oom\_adj** Valid scores for **oom\_adj** are in the range -16 to +15. This value is used to calculate the performance footprint of the process, using an algorithm that also takes into account how long the process has been running, among other factors.
- oom\_score Contains the result of the algorithm calculated using the value in oom\_adj.

In an Out of Memory state, the **oom\_killer** function terminates processes with the highest **oom\_score**.

You can prioritize the processes to terminate by editing the **oom adj** file for the process.

## **Prerequisites**

• Know the process ID (PID) of the process you want to prioritize.

#### **Procedure**

1. Display the current **oom\_score** for a process.

```
# cat /proc/12465/oom_score 79872
```

2. Display the contents of **oom adj** for the process.

```
# cat /proc/12465/oom_adj
13
```

3. Edit the value in **oom\_adj**.

```
# echo -5 > /proc/12465/oom_adj
```

#### Verification steps

1. Display the current **oom score** for the process.

```
# cat /proc/12465/oom_score
78
```

2. Verify that the displayed value is lower than the previous value.

## 13.4. DISABLING THE OUT OF MEMORY KILLER FOR A PROCESS

You can disable the **oom\_killer** function for a process by setting **oom\_adj** to the reserved value of **-17**. This will keep the process alive, even in an OOM state.

#### **Procedure**

• Set the value in **oom\_adj** to **-17**.

```
# echo -17 > /proc/12465/oom_adj
```

# Verification steps

1. Display the current **oom\_score** for the process.

# cat /proc/12465/oom\_score 0

2. Verify that the displayed value is **0**.

# CHAPTER 14. LOWERING CPU USAGE BY DISABLING THE PC CARD DAEMON

The **pcscd** daemon manages connections to parallel communication (PC or PCMCIA) and smart card (SC) readers. Although **pcscd** is usually a low priority task, it can often use more CPU than any other daemon. This additional background noise can lead to higher preemption costs to real-time tasks and other undesirable impacts on determinism.

## **Prerequisites**

• Root permissions on the system.

#### **Procedure**

1. Check the status of the **pcscd** daemon.

### # systemctl status pcscd

• pcscd.service - PC/SC Smart Card Daemon

Loaded: loaded (/usr/lib/systemd/system/pcscd.service; indirect; vendor preset: disabled)

Active: active (running) since Mon 2021-03-01 17:15:06 IST; 4s ago

TriggeredBy: ● pcscd.socket
Docs: man:pcscd(8)
Main PID: 2504609 (pcscd)
Tasks: 3 (limit: 18732)

Memory: 1.1M CPU: 24ms

CGroup: /system.slice/pcscd.service

-2504609 /usr/sbin/pcscd --foreground --auto-exit

The **Active** parameter shows the status of the **pcsd** daemon.

2. If the **pcsd** daemon is running, stop it.

#### # systemctl stop pcscd

Warning: Stopping pcscd.service, but it can still be activated by: pcscd.socket

3. Configure the system to ensure that the **pcsd** daemon does not restart when the system boots.

## # systemctl disable pcscd

Removed /etc/systemd/system/sockets.target.wants/pcscd.socket.

#### Verification steps

1. Check the status of the **pcscd** daemon.

#### # systemctl status pcscd

• pcscd.service - PC/SC Smart Card Daemon

Loaded: loaded (/usr/lib/systemd/system/pcscd.service; indirect; vendor preset: disabled)

Active: inactive (dead) since Mon 2021-03-01 17:10:56 IST; 1min 22s ago

TriggeredBy: • pcscd.socket

Docs: man:pcscd(8)

Main PID: 4494 (code=exited, status=0/SUCCESS)

CPU: 37ms

2. Ensure that the value for the **Active** parameter is **inactive** (**dead**).

## CHAPTER 15. BALANCING LOGGING PARAMETERS

The **syslog** server forwards log messages from programs over a network. The less often this occurs, the larger the pending transaction is likely to be. If the transaction is very large, it can cause an I/O spike. To prevent this, keep the interval reasonably small.

The system logging daemon, **syslogd**, is used to collect messages from different programs. It also collects information reported by the kernel from the kernel logging daemon, **klogd**. Typically, **syslogd** logs to a local file, but it can also be configured to log over a network to a remote logging server.

#### Procedure

To enable remote logging:

- 1. Configure the machine to which the logs will be sent. For more information, see Remote Syslogging with rsyslog on Red Hat Enterprise Linux.
- 2. Configure each system that will send logs to the remote log server, so that its **syslog** output is written to the server, rather than to the local file system. To do so, edit the /etc/rsyslog.conf file on each client system. For each of the logging rules defined in that file, replace the local log file with the address of the remote logging server.

# Log all kernel messages to remote logging host. kern.\* @my.remote.logging.server

The example above configures the client system to log all kernel messages to the remote machine at @my.remote.logging.server.

Alternatively, you can configure **syslogd** to log all locally generated system messages, by adding the following line to the /etc/rsyslog.conf file:

# Log all messages to a remote logging server:

. @my.remote.logging.server



### **IMPORTANT**

The **syslogd** daemon does not include built-in rate limiting on its generated network traffic. Therefore, Red Hat recommends that when using RHEL for Real Time systems, only log messages that are required to be remotely logged by your organization. For example, kernel warnings, authentication requests, and the like. Other messages should be logged locally.

#### Additional resources

- syslog(3) man page
- rsyslog.conf(5) man page
- rsyslogd(8) man page

# CHAPTER 16. IMPROVING LATENCY USING THE TUNA CLI

You can use the **tuna** CLI to improve latency on your system. The options used with the **tuna** command determine the method invoked to improve latency.

## 16.1. PREREQUISITES

- The **RHEL for Real Time** package group and the **tuna** package are installed.
- Root permissions for the system.

## 16.2. THE TUNA CLI

The tuna command-line interface (CLI) is a tool to help you make tuning changes to your system.



#### **NOTE**

A new graphical interface is being developed for **tuna**, but it has not yet been released.

The **tuna** CLI can be used to adjust scheduler tunables, tune thread priority, IRQ handlers, and isolate CPU cores and sockets. **tuna** aims to reduce the complexity of performing tuning tasks. The tool is designed to be used on a running system, and changes take place immediately. This allows any application-specific measurement tools to see and analyze system performance immediately after changes have been made.

The **tuna** CLI has both action options and modifier options. Modifier options must be specified on the command-line before the actions they are intended to modify. All modifier options apply to the actions that follow until the modifier options are overridden.

## 16.3. ISOLATING CPUS USING THETUNA CLI

You can use the **tuna** CLI to isolate interrupts (IRQs) from user processes on different dedicated CPUs to minimize latency in real-time environments. For more information about isolating CPUs, see Interrupt and process binding.

#### **Prerequisites**

- The RHEL for Real Time package group and the tuna package are installed.
- Root permissions for the system.

## **Procedure**

Isolate one or more CPUs.

# tuna --cpus=cpu\_list --isolate

where *cpu\_list* is a comma-separated list of the CPUs to isolate.

For example:

# tuna --cpus=0,1 --isolate

### 16.4. MOVING INTERRUPTS TO SPECIFIED CPUS USING THETUNA CLI

You can use the **tuna** CLI to move interrupts (IRQs) to dedicated CPUs to minimize or eliminate latency in real-time environments. For more information about moving IRQs, see Interrupt and process binding.

## **Prerequisites**

- The **RHEL for Real Time** package group and the **tuna** package are installed.
- Root permissions for the system.

#### **Procedure**

1. List the CPUs to which a list of IRQs is attached.

```
# tuna --irqs=irq_list --show_irqs
```

where irq\_list is a comma-separated list of the IRQs for which you want to list attached CPUs.

For example:

```
# tuna --irqs=128 --show_irqs
# users affinity
128 iwlwifi 0,1,2,3
```

2. Attach a list of IRQs to a list of CPUs.

```
# tuna --irqs=irq_list --cpus=cpu_list --move
```

where *irq\_list* is a comma-separated list of the IRQs you want to attach and *cpu\_list* is a comma-separated list of the CPUs to which they will be attached.

For example:

```
# tuna --irqs=128 --cpus=3 --move
```

## Verification steps

Compare the state of the selected IRQs before and after moving any IRQ to a specified CPU.

```
# tuna --irqs=128 --show_irqs
# users affinity
128 iwlwifi 3
```

# 16.5. CHANGING PROCESS SCHEDULING POLICIES AND PRIORITIES USING THE TUNA CLI

You can use the **tuna** CLI to change process scheduling policy and priority.

## **Prerequisites**

• The RHEL for Real Time package group and the tuna package are installed.

• Root permissions for the system.



#### NOTE

Assigning the OTHER and NATCH scheduling policies does not require root permissions.

#### **Procedure**

1. View the information for a thread.

# tuna --threads=thread\_list --show\_threads

where *thread\_list* is a comma-separated list of the processes you want to display.

For example:

```
# tuna --threads=rngd --show_threads
thread ctxt_switches
pid SCHED_ rtpri affinity voluntary nonvoluntary cmd
3571 OTHER 0 0,1,2,3 167697 134 rngd
```

2. Modify the process scheduling policy and the priority of the thread.

# tuna --threads=thread\_list --priority scheduling\_policy:priority\_number

where:

- **thread\_list** is a comma-separated list of the processes whose scheduling policy and priority you want to display.
- **scheduling\_policy** is one of the following:
  - OTHER
  - BATCH
  - FIFO First In First Out
  - RR Round Robin
- priority\_number is a priority number from 0 to 99, where 0 is no priority and 99 is the highest priority.



#### NOTE

The **OTHER** and **BATCH** scheduling policies do not require specifying a priority. In addition, the only valid priority (if specified) is **0**. The **FIFO** and **RR** scheduling policies require a priority of **1** or more.

For example:

# tuna --threads=rngd --priority FIFO:1

## Verification steps

• View the information for the thread to ensure that the information changes.

#### # tuna --threads=rngd --show\_threads thread ctxt\_switches

## **CHAPTER 17. INSTALLING KDUMP**

The **kdump** service is installed and activated by default on the new Red Hat Enterprise Linux installations. The following sections explain what **kdump** is and how to install **kdump** when it is not enabled by default.

## 17.1. WHAT IS KDUMP

**kdump** is a service which provides a crash dumping mechanism. The service enables you to save the contents of the system memory for analysis. **kdump** uses the **kexec** system call to boot into the second kernel (a *capture kernel*) without rebooting; and then captures the contents of the crashed kernel's memory (a *crash dump* or a *vmcore*) and saves it into a file. The second kernel resides in a reserved part of the system memory.



#### **IMPORTANT**

A kernel crash dump can be the only information available in the event of a system failure (a critical bug). Therefore, operational **kdump** is important in mission-critical environments. Red Hat advise that system administrators regularly update and test **kexec-tools** in your normal kernel update cycle. This is especially important when new kernel features are implemented.

You can enable **kdump** for all installed kernels on a machine or only for specified kernels. This is useful when there are multiple kernels used on a machine, some of which are stable enough that there is no concern that they could crash.

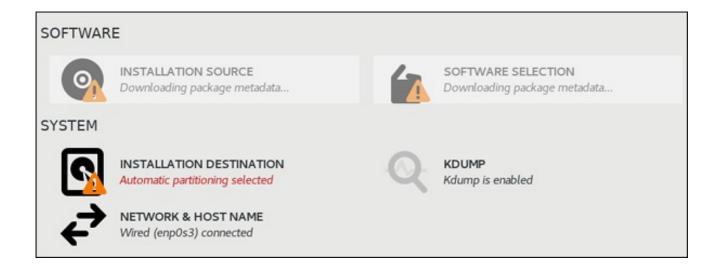
When **kdump** is installed, a default /**etc/kdump.conf** file is created. The file includes the default minimum **kdump** configuration. You can edit this file to customize the **kdump** configuration, but it is not required.

## 17.2. INSTALLING KDUMP USING ANACONDA

The **Anaconda** installer provides a graphical interface screen for **kdump** configuration during an interactive installation. However, only limited configuration is allowed.

#### **Procedure**

- 1. Go to the **Kdump** field.
- 2. Enable **kdump**.
- 3. Define how much memory should be reserved for **kdump**.



# 17.3. INSTALLING KDUMP ON THE COMMAND LINE

Some installation options, such as custom **Kickstart** installations, in some cases do **not** install or enable **kdump** by default. If this is your case, follow the procedure below.

## **Prerequisites**

- An active RHEL subscription
- The **kexec-tools** package
- Fulfilled requirements for **kdump** configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.

## Procedure

- 1. Check whether **kdump** is installed on your system:
  - \$ rpm -q kexec-tools

Output if the package is installed:

kexec-tools-2.0.17-11.el8.x86\_64

Output if the package is not installed:

- package kexec-tools is not installed
- 2. Install **kdump** and other necessary packages by:
  - # yum install kexec-tools



#### **IMPORTANT**

Starting with kernel-3.10.0-693.el7 the **Intel IOMMU** driver is supported with **kdump**. For prior versions, kernel-3.10.0-514[.XYZ].el7 and earlier, it is advised that **Intel IOMMU** support is disabled, otherwise the capture kernel is likely to become unresponsive.

# **CHAPTER 18. ENSURING THAT DEBUGFS IS MOUNTED**

The **debugfs** file system is specially designed for debugging and making information available to users. It is mounted automatically in RHEL 8 in the **/sys/kernel/debug/** directory.



## **NOTE**

The **debugfs** file system is mounted using the **ftrace** and **trace-cmd** commands.

#### **Procedure**

To verify that **debugfs** is mounted:

• Run the following command:

# mount | grep ^debugfs debugfs on /sys/kernel/debug type debugfs (rw,nosuid,nodev,noexec,relatime,seclabel)

If **debugfs** is mounted, the command displays the mount point and properties for **debugfs**.

If **debugfs** is not mounted, the command returns nothing.

# CHAPTER 19. CONFIGURING KDUMP ON THE COMMAND LINE

The following sections explain how to plan and build your **kdump** environment.

### 19.1. ESTIMATING THE KDUMP SIZE

When planning and building your **kdump** environment, it is important to know how much space the crash dump file requires.

The **makedumpfile --mem-usage** command estimates how much space the crash dump file requires. It generates a memory usage report. The report helps you determine the dump level and which pages are safe to be excluded.

#### **Procedure**

• Execute the following command to generate a memory usage report:

# makedumpfile --mem-usage /proc/kcore

TYPE	PAGES	EXCLU	DABLE	DESCRIPTION
ZERO CACHE	501635 51657	yes yes	•	es filled with zero ne pages
CACHE_	PRIVATE 5	442	yes	Cache pages + private
USER	16301	yes	User	process pages
FREE KERN_D	7773821 ATA 133	•		e pages Dumpable kernel data



## **IMPORTANT**

The **makedumpfile --mem-usage** command reports required memory in pages. This means that you must calculate the size of memory in use against the kernel page size.

## 19.2. CONFIGURING KDUMP MEMORY USAGE

The memory for **kdump** is reserved during the system boot. The memory size is configured in the system Grand Unified Bootloader (GRUB) 2 configuration file. The memory size depends on the value of the **crashkernel=** option specified in the configuration file and the size of the system physical memory.

The **crashkernel=** option can be defined in multiple ways. You can either specify the **crashkernel=** value or configure the **auto** option. The **crashkernel=auto** parameter reserves memory automatically, based on the total amount of physical memory in the system. When configured, the kernel will automatically reserve an appropriate amount of required memory for the capture kernel. This helps to prevent Out-of-Memory (OOM) errors.



#### **NOTE**

The automatic memory allocation for **kdump** varies based on system hardware architecture and available memory size.

If the system has less than the minimum memory threshold for automatic allocation, you can configure the amount of reserved memory manually.

## **Prerequisites**

- Root permissions.
- Fulfilled requirements for kdump configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.

#### **Procedure**

- 1. Edit the /etc/default/grub file.
- 2. Set the **crashkernel=** option.

  For example, to reserve 128 MB of memory, use the following:

crashkernel=128M

Alternatively, you can set the amount of reserved memory to a variable depending on the total amount of installed memory. The syntax for memory reservation into a variable is **crashkernel=**/**crange1>:**<**size1>**,<**range2>:**<**size2>**. For example:

crashkernel=512M-2G:64M,2G-:128M

The above example reserves 64 MB of memory if the total amount of system memory is between 512 MB and 2 GB. If the total amount of memory is more than 2 GB, 128 MB is reserved.

Offset the reserved memory.
 Some systems require to reserve memory with a certain fixed offset since crashkernel reservation is very early, and it wants to reserve some area for special usage. If the offset is set, the reserved memory begins there. To offset the reserved memory, use the following syntax:

crashkernel=128M@16M

In the example above **kdump** reserves 128 MB of memory starting at 16 MB (physical address 0x01000000). If the offset parameter is set to 0 or omitted entirely, **kdump** offsets the reserved memory automatically. You can also use this syntax when setting a variable memory reservation. In that case, the offset is always specified last (for example, **crashkernel=512M-2G:64M,2G-:128M@16M**).

3. Use the following command to update the GRUB2 configuration file:

# grub2-mkconfig -o /boot/grub2/grub.cfg



#### **NOTE**

The alternative way to configure memory for **kdump** is to append the **crashkernel=** <**SOME\_VALUE>** parameter to the **kernelopts** variable with the **grub2-editenv** command, which will update all of your boot entries. Or you can use the **grubby** utility to update one boot entry, more boot entries, or all of your boot entries.

#### Additional resources

- Memory requirements for kdump
- Configuring kernel command-line parameters
- The grub2-mkconfig script silently ignores options in GRUB\_CMDLINE\_LINUX
- How to manually modify the boot parameter in grub before the system boots
- How to install and boot custom kernels in Red Hat Enterprise Linux 8
- grubby(8) manual page

## 19.3. CONFIGURING THE KDUMP TARGET

The crash dump is usually stored as a file in a local file system, written directly to a device. Alternatively, you can set up for the crash dump to be sent over a network using the **NFS** or **SSH** protocols. Only one of these options to preserve a crash dump file can be set at a time. The default behavior is to store it in the /var/crash/ directory of the local file system.

## **Prerequisites**

- Root permissions.
- Fulfilled requirements for **kdump** configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.

#### **Procedure**

• To store the crash dump file in /var/crash/ directory of the local file system, edit the /etc/kdump.conf file and specify the path:

path /var/crash

The option **path** /**var/crash** represents the path to the file system in which **kdump** saves the crash dump file. When you specify a dump target in the /**etc/kdump.conf** file, then the **path** is relative to the specified dump target.

If you do not specify a dump target in the /etc/kdump.conf file, then the path represents the absolute path from the root directory. Depending on what is mounted in the current system, the dump target and the adjusted dump path are taken automatically.

**kdump** saves the crash dump file in /var/crash/var/crash directory, when the dump target is mounted at /var/crash and the option **path** is also set as /var/crash in the /etc/kdump.conf file. For example, in the following instance, the ext4 file system is already mounted at /var/crash and the path are set as /var/crash:

grep -v ^# etc/kdump.conf | grep -v ^\$
ext4 /dev/mapper/vg00-varcrashvol
path /var/crash
core\_collector makedumpfile -c --message-level 1 -d 31

This results in the /var/crash/var/crash path. To solve this problem, use the option path / instead of path /var/crash

- To change the local directory in which the crash dump is to be saved, as **root**, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file as described below.
  - 1. Remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the **#path** /**var/crash** line.
  - 2. Replace the value with the intended directory path. For example:

path /usr/local/cores



#### **IMPORTANT**

In RHEL 8, the directory defined as the kdump target using the **path** directive must exist when the **kdump** systemd service is started - otherwise the service fails. This behavior is different from earlier releases of RHEL, where the directory was being created automatically if it did not exist when starting the service.

- To write the file to a different partition, as root, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file as
  described below.
  - 1. Remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the #ext4 line, depending on your choice.
    - device name (the #ext4 /dev/vg/lv\_kdump line)
    - file system label (the **#ext4 LABEL=/boot** line)
    - UUID (the #ext4 UUID=03138356-5e61-4ab3-b58e-27507ac41937 line)
  - 2. Change the file system type as well as the device name, label or UUID to the desired values. For example:

ext4 UUID=03138356-5e61-4ab3-b58e-27507ac41937



#### **IMPORTANT**

It is recommended to specify storage devices using a **LABEL=** or **UUID=**. Disk device names such as /dev/sda3 are not guaranteed to be consistent across reboot.

- To write the crash dump directly to a device, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file:
  - 1. Remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the **#raw** /dev/vg/lv\_kdump line.
  - 2. Replace the value with the intended device name. For example:

raw /dev/sdb1

- To store the crash dump to a remote machine using the **NFS** protocol, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file:
  - 1. Remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the **#nfs my.server.com:/export/tmp** line.
  - 2. Replace the value with a valid hostname and directory path. For example:
    - nfs penguin.example.com:/export/cores
- To store the crash dump to a remote machine using the SSH protocol, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file:
  - 1. Remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the **#ssh user@my.server.com** line.
  - 2. Replace the value with a valid username and hostname.
  - 3. Include your **SSH** key in the configuration.
    - Remove the hash sign from the beginning of the #sshkey /root/.ssh/kdump\_id\_rsa line.
    - Change the value to the location of a key valid on the server you are trying to dump to. For example:

ssh john@penguin.example.com sshkey /root/.ssh/mykey

## 19.4. CONFIGURING THE KDUMP CORE COLLECTOR

The **kdump** service uses a **core\_collector** program to capture the crash dump image. In RHEL, the **makedumpfile** utility is the default core collector. It helps shrink the dump file by:

- Compressing the size of a crash dump file and copying only necessary pages using various dump levels
- Excluding unnecessary crash dump pages
- Filtering the page types to be included in the crash dump.

#### **Syntax**

core\_collector makedumpfile -I --message-level 1 -d 31

#### **Options**

- -c, -l or -p: specify compress dump file format by each page using either, zlib for -c option, lzo for -l option or snappy for -p option.
- -d (dump\_level): excludes pages so that they are not copied to the dump file.
- --message-level: specify the message types. You can restrict outputs printed by specifying message\_level with this option. For example, specifying 7 as message\_level prints common messages and error messages. The maximum value of message level is 31

### **Prerequisites**

- Root permissions
- Fulfilled requirements for **kdump** configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.

#### **Procedure**

- As root, edit the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file and remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the #core\_collector makedumpfile -I --message-level 1 -d 31.
- 2. To enable crash dump file compression, execute:

core\_collector makedumpfile -I --message-level 1 -d 31

The **-I** option specifies the **dump** compressed file format. The **-d** option specifies dump level as 31. The **-message-level** option specifies message level as 1.

Also, consider following examples with the **-c** and **-p** options:

• To compress a crash dump file using -c:

core\_collector makedumpfile -c -d 31 --message-level 1

• To compress a crash dump file using -p:

core\_collector makedumpfile -p -d 31 --message-level 1

## Additional resources

- makedumpfile(8) manual page
- The kdump configuration file

# 19.5. CONFIGURING THE KDUMP DEFAULT FAILURE RESPONSES

By default, when **kdump** fails to create a crash dump file at the configured target location, the system reboots and the dump is lost in the process. To change this behavior, follow the procedure below.

## **Prerequisites**

- Root permissions.
- Fulfilled requirements for kdump configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.

## **Procedure**

- 1. As **root**, remove the hash sign ("#") from the beginning of the **#failure\_action** line in the /etc/kdump.conf configuration file.
- 2. Replace the value with a desired action.

failure\_action poweroff

#### Additional resources

Configuring the kdump target

## 19.6. THE KDUMP CONFIGURATION FILE

The **kdump** configuration file, /**etc/kdump.conf**, contains options and commands for the kernel crash dump.

The first part of the file provides comments explaining the available options and commands. The second part of the file includes a default configuration. Options that are not in the default configuration are commented out using a hash mark at the start of each option. This makes it easy to modify the file correctly.



#### **NOTE**

The information here includes only some of the options that can be configured in this file.

## 19.7. KDUMP.CONF CONFIGURATION OPTIONS

#### Memory to reserve

The **crashkernel** parameter defines the amount of memory reserved for the kernel crash dump. The following options are available:

- An absolute value in megabytes
   For example: crashkernel=128M for 128 megabytes of reserved memory.
- Some systems require that kdump memory is reserved with a fixed offset. This is because
  the crashkernel reservation is very early in the boot, and the system needs to reserve some
  memory for special usage. If an offset is configured, the reserved memory begins there.
  For example, crashkernel=128M@16M for 128 megabytes of reserved memory offset by 16
  megabytes
- Variable amounts. The amount of memory reserved is based on the amount of memory in the system.

For example, **crashkernel=512M-2G:64M,2G-:128M@16M** for reserving 64 megabytes in a system with between 1/2 a megabyte and two gigabybtes of memory and 128 megabytes for systems with more than two gigabybtes of memory.



#### **NOTE**

You can combine variable amounts with offsets.

For example, crashkernel=512M-2G:64M,2G-:128M@16M.

auto - Automatically allocates memory for the crash kernel dump based on the system
hardware architecture and available memory size.
 If the system has less than the minimum memory threshold for automatic allocation, you can
configure the amount of reserved memory manually.

## **Target**

The location where the kernel crash dump will be saved. The following options are available:

- **raw** Defines a device to which the kernel crash dump will be sent. Use persistent device names for partition devices, such as /dev/vg/
- path Defines the device, file system type, and the path to a directory on the local file system. You can specify the device using the device name (for example, /dev/vg/lv\_kdump), file system label (for example, LABEL=/boot), or the UUID (for example, UUID=03138356-5e61-4ab3-b58e-27507ac41937).
- nfs Defines an NFS target with a hostname and directory path. For example, nfs penguin.example.com:/export/cores.
- **ssh** Defines an SSH target (for example, **ssh** *john@penguin.example.com*. The **sshkey** variable defines the location of the SSH key on the server.

## Shrinking the dump file

The **makedumpfile** utility is a dump program that helps shrink the dump file using the following methods:

- Compressing the size of a dump file using one of the following options:
  - -c Compresses the file using the **zlib** utility
  - -I Compresses the file using Izo utility
  - -p Compresses the file using the **snappy** utility
- Excluding unnecessary pages by using the **-d** option and specifying the pages to exclude. **makedumpfile** needs the first kernel debug information to understand how first kernel uses the memory. This helps it detect the pages that are needed for the dump.
- Filtering the pages to be included in the dump using the **--message-level** option and specifying the page types to include by adding the following filtering options:
  - 1 zero pages
  - 2 cache pages
  - 4 cache private pages
  - 8 user pages
  - o 16 free pages

For example, to specify that only cache pages, cache private pages, and user pages are included in the dump, specify **--message-level 14** (2 + 4 + 8).



#### NOTE

The **makedumpfile** command supports removal of transparent **huge pages** and **hugetlbfs** pages from RHEL 7.3 and later. Consider both these types of pages user pages and remove them using the **-8** option.

## 19.8. THE KDUMP DEFAULT FAILURE RESPONSE

When **kdump** fails to create a core dump, the default failure response of the operating system is to reboot. However, you can configure the **kdump** utility to perform a different operation in case it fails to save the core dump to the primary target.

Use the **failure\_action** parameter to specify one of the following available default failure actions:

Option	Description	
dump_to_rootfs	kdump tries to save the core dump to the root file system.  This option is especially useful in combination with a network target. If the network target is unreachable, this option configures kdump to save the core dump locally. The system reboots afterwards.	
reboot	<b>kdump</b> reboots the system. The core dump is lost.	
halt	kdump halts the system. The core dump is lost.	
poweroff	<b>kdump</b> powers down the system. The core dump is lost.	
shell	<b>kdump</b> opens a shell session from within the <b>initramfs</b> utility. This allows the user to record the core dump manually.	

#### Additional resources

etc/kdump.conf

## 19.9. TESTING THE KDUMP CONFIGURATION

You can test that the crash dump process works and is valid before the machine enters production.



## **WARNING**

The commands below cause the kernel to crash. Use caution when following these steps, and never carelessly use them on active production system.

### Procedure

- 1. Reboot the system with **kdump** enabled.
- 2. Make sure that **kdump** is running:

~]# systemctl is-active kdump active

3. Force the Linux kernel to crash:

echo 1 > /proc/sys/kernel/sysrq echo c > /proc/sysrq-trigger



#### **WARNING**

The command above crashes the kernel, and a reboot is required.

Once booted again, the *address-YYYY-MM-DD-HH:MM:SS*/vmcore file is created at the location you have specified in the /etc/kdump.conf file (by default to /var/crash/).



## **NOTE**

This action confirms the validity of the configuration. Also it is possible to use this action to record how long it takes for a crash dump to complete with a representative work-load.

## Additional resources

• Configuring the kdump target

## **CHAPTER 20. ENABLING KDUMP**

This section provides the information and procedures necessary to enable and start the **kdump** service for all installed kernels or for a specific kernel.

## 20.1. ENABLING KDUMP FOR ALL INSTALLED KERNELS

You can enable and start the **kdump** service for all kernels installed on the machine.

### **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges

#### **Procedure**

1. Add the **crashkernel=auto** command-line parameter to all installed kernels:

#/grubby --update-kernel=ALL --args="crashkernel=auto"

2. Enable the **kdump** service.

# systemctl enable --now kdump.service

#### Verification

• Check that the **kdump** service is running:

# systemctl status kdump.service

o kdump.service - Crash recovery kernel arming

Loaded: loaded (/usr/lib/systemd/system/kdump.service; enabled; vendor preset:

disabled)

Active: active (live)

## 20.2. ENABLING KDUMP FOR A SPECIFIC INSTALLED KERNEL

You can enable the **kdump** service for a specific kernel on the machine.

#### **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges

#### **Procedure**

1. List the kernels installed on the machine.

# ls -a /boot/vmlinuz-\* /boot/vmlinuz-0-rescue-2930657cd0dc43c2b75db480e5e5b4a9 /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-330.el8.x86\_64 /boot/vmlinuz-4.18.0-330.rt7.111.el8.x86\_64

2. Add a specific **kdump** kernel to the system's Grand Unified Bootloader (GRUB) 2 configuration file.

For example:

# grubby --update-kernel=vmlinuz-4.18.0-330.el8.x86\_64 --args="crashkernel=auto"

3. Enable the **kdump** service.

# systemctl enable --now kdump.service

#### Verification

• Check that the **kdump** service is running:

# systemctl status kdump.service

o kdump.service - Crash recovery kernel arming

Loaded: loaded (/usr/lib/systemd/system/kdump.service; enabled; vendor preset:

disabled)

Active: active (live)

## 20.3. DISABLING THE KDUMP SERVICE

To disable the **kdump** service at boot time, follow the procedure below.

## **Prerequisites**

- Fulfilled requirements for **kdump** configurations and targets. For details, see Supported kdump configurations and targets.
- All configurations for installing kdump are set up according to your needs. For details, see Installing kdump.

#### Procedure

- 1. To stop the **kdump** service in the current session:
  - # systemctl stop kdump.service
- 2. To disable the **kdump** service:
  - # systemctl disable kdump.service



#### **WARNING**

It is recommended to set **kptr\_restrict=1**. In that case, the **kdumpctl** service loads the crash kernel regardless of Kernel Address Space Layout (KASLR) being enabled or not.

## **Troubleshooting step**

When **kptr\_restrict** is not set to (1), and if KASLR is enabled, the contents of /**proc/kcore** file are generated as all zeros. Consequently, the **kdumpctl** service fails to access the /**proc/kcore** and load the crash kernel.

To work around this problem, the /usr/share/doc/kexec-tools/kexec-kdump-howto.txt file displays a warning message, which recommends the kptr\_restrict=1 setting.

To ensure that **kdumpctl** service loads the crash kernel, verify that **kernel.kptr\_restrict = 1** is listed in the **sysctl.conf** file.

#### Additional resources

• Configuring basic system settings in RHEL

## **CHAPTER 21. SETTING SCHEDULER PRIORITIES**

Red Hat Enterprise Linux for Real Time kernel allows fine-grained control of scheduler priorities. It also allows application-level programs to be scheduled at a higher priority than kernel threads.



#### **WARNING**

Setting scheduler priorities can carry consequences and may cause the system to become unresponsive or behave unpredictably if crucial kernel processes are prevented from running as needed. Ultimately, the correct settings are workload-dependent.

## 21.1. VIEWING THREAD SCHEDULING PRIORITIES

Thread priorities are set using a series of levels, ranging from **0** (lowest priority) to **99** (highest priority). The **systemd** service manager can be used to change the default priorities of threads after the kernel boots.

#### **Procedure**

• To view scheduling priorities of running threads, use the tuna utility:

```
# tuna --show threads
            thread
                     ctxt switches
  pid SCHED_ rtpri affinity voluntary nonvoluntary
                                                   cmd
     OTHER 0 0xfff
                          451
                                    3
                                          kthreadd
3
     FIFO
            1
                  0
                      46395
                                      ksoftirad/0
                    0
                                      kworker/0:0H
     OTHER
               0
                          11
                                   1
     FIFO 99
                   0
                         9
                                 1 posixcputmr/0
 ...[output truncated]...
```

## 21.2. CHANGING THE PRIORITY OF SERVICES DURING BOOTING

Using **systemd**, you can set up real-time priority for services launched during the boot process.

Unit configuration directives are used to change the priority of a service during boot process. The boot process priority change is done by using the following directives in the service section of /etc/systemd/system/service.system.d/priority.conf:

## CPUSchedulingPolicy=

Sets the CPU scheduling policy for executed processes. Takes one of the scheduling classes available on Linux:

- other
- batch
- idle

- fifo
- rr

## CPUSchedulingPriority=

Sets the CPU scheduling priority for an executed processes. The available priority range depends on the selected CPU scheduling policy. For real-time scheduling policies, an integer between 1 (lowest priority) and 99 (highest priority) can be used.

## **Prerequisites**

- Administrator privileges.
- A service that runs on boot.

## **Procedure**

For an existing service:

1. Create a supplementary service configuration directory file for the service.

# cat <<-EOF > /etc/systemd/system/mcelog.system.d/priority.conf

2. Add the scheduling policy and priority to the file in the **[SERVICE]** section. For example:

[SERVICE]
CPUSchedulingPolicy=fifo
CPUSchedulingPriority=20
EOF

- 3. Reload the **systemd** scripts configuration.
  - # systemctl daemon-reload
- 4. Restart the service.

# systemctl restart mcelog

#### Verification

• Display the service's priority.

\$ tuna -t mcelog -P

The output shows the configured priority of the service.

For example:

```
thread ctxt_switches
pid SCHED_ rtpri affinity voluntary nonvoluntary cmd
826 FIFO 20 0,1,2,3 13 0 mcelog
```

#### Additional resources

• Working with systemd unit files.

## 21.3. CONFIGURING THE CPU USAGE OF A SERVICE

Using **systemd**, you can specify the CPUs on which services can run.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges.

#### **Procedure**

1. Create a supplementary service configuration directory file for the service.

# md sscd

2. Add the CPUs to use for the service to the file using the **CPUAffinity** attribute in the **[SERVICE]** section.

For example:

[SERVICE]
CPUAffinity=0,1
EOF

3. Reload the systemd scripts configuration.

systemctl daemon-reload

4. Restart the service.

systemctl restart \_service\_

#### Verification

• Display the CPUs to which the specified service is limited.

```
$ tuna -t mcelog -P
```

where **service** is the specified service.

The following output shows that the **mcelog** service is limited to CPUs 0 and 1.

```
thread ctxt_switches
pid SCHED_ rtpri affinity voluntary nonvoluntary cmd
12954 FIFO 20 0,1 2 1 mcelog
```

## 21.4. PRIORITY MAP

Scheduler priorities are defined in groups, with some groups dedicated to particular kernel functions.

Table 21.1. Thread priority table

Priority	Threads	Description
1	Low priority kernel threads	This priority is usually reserved for the tasks that need to be just above <b>SCHED_OTHER</b> .
2 - 49	Available for use	The range used for typical application priorities.
50	Default hard-IRQ value	This priority is the default value for hardware-based interrupts.
51 - 98	High priority threads	Use this range for threads that execute periodically and must have quick response times. Do <b>not</b> use this range for CPU-bound threads, because it will prevent responses to lower level interrupts.
99	Watchdogs and migration	System threads that must run at the highest priority.

# 21.5. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

• Working with systemd unit files

# **CHAPTER 22. NON-UNIFORM MEMORY ACCESS**

The **taskset** utility only works on CPU affinity and has no knowledge of other NUMA resources such as memory nodes. If you want to perform process binding in conjunction with NUMA, use the **numactl** command instead of **taskset**.

For more information about the NUMA API, see Andi Kleen's whitepaper An NUMA API for Linux.

## Additional resources

- Andi Kleen's whitepaper, An NUMA API for Linux
- numactl(8) man page

# **CHAPTER 23. INFINIBAND IN RHEL FOR RT**

Infiniband is a type of communications architecture often used to increase bandwidth, improve quality of service (QOS), and provide for failover. It can also be used to improve latency using the Remote Direct Memory Access (RDMA) mechanism.

Support for Infiniband under RHEL for Real Time is the same as that offered under RHEL 8.

## Additional resources

Getting Started with Infiniband

# CHAPTER 24. USING ROCE AND HIGH-PERFORMANCE NETWORKING

**RoCE** (RDMA over Converged Ethernet) is a protocol that implements Remote Direct Memory Access (RDMA) over Ethernet networks. It allows you to maintain a consistent, high-speed environment in your data centers, while providing deterministic, low latency data transport for critical transactions.

**High Performance Networking** (HPN) is a set of shared libraries that provides **RoCE** interfaces into the kernel. Instead of going through an independent network infrastructure, **HPN** places data directly into remote system memory using standard Ethernet infrastructure, resulting in less CPU overhead and reduced infrastructure costs.

Support for **RoCE** and **HPN** under RHEL for Real Time does not differ from the support offered under RHEL 8.



## **NOTE**

For more information on how to set up ethernet networks, see Configuring RoCE.

# **CHAPTER 25. NETWORK DETERMINISM TIPS**

TCP can have a large effect on latency. TCP adds latency in order to obtain efficiency, control congestion, and to ensure reliable delivery. When tuning, consider the following points:

- Do you need ordered delivery?
- Do you need to guard against packet loss?
   Transmitting packets more than once can cause delays.
- Do you need to use TCP?
   Consider disabling the Nagle buffering algorithm by using TCP\_NODELAY on your socket. The Nagle algorithm collects small outgoing packets to send all at once, and can have a detrimental effect on latency.

There are numerous tools for tuning the network. This section provides information on some of the more useful tools.

## 25.1. COALESCING INTERRUPTS

In systems that transfer large amounts of data where throughput is a priority, using the default value or increasing coalescence can increase throughput and lower the number of interrupts hitting CPUs. For systems requiring a rapid network response, reducing or disabling coalescence is advised.

To reduce the number of interrupts, packets can be collected and a single interrupt generated for a collection of packets.

## Prerequisites

Administrator privileges.

## Procedure

To enable coalescing interrupts, run the ethtool command with the --coalesce option.

# ethtool -C tun0

## Verification

Verify that coalescing interrupts are enabled.

## # ethtool -c tun0

Coalesce parameters for tun0: Adaptive RX: n/a TX: n/a stats-block-usecs: n/a sample-interval: n/a pkt-rate-low: n/a pkt-rate-high: n/a

rx-usecs: n/a rx-frames: 0 rx-usecs-irq: n/a rx-frames-irq: n/a

tx-usecs: n/a

tx-frames: n/a tx-usecs-irq: n/a tx-frames-irq: n/a

rx-usecs-low: n/a rx-frame-low: n/a tx-usecs-low: n/a tx-frame-low: n/a

rx-usecs-high: n/a rx-frame-high: n/a tx-usecs-high: n/a tx-frame-high: n/a

CQE mode RX: n/a TX: n/a

## 25.2. AVOIDING NETWORK CONGESTION

I/O switches can often be subject to back-pressure, where network data builds up as a result of full buffers. You can change pause parameters and avoid network congestion.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges

## **Procedure**

• To change pause parameters, run the **ethtool** command with the **-A** option.

# ethtool -A enp0s31f6

## Verification

Verify that the pause parameter changed.

## # ethtool -a enp0s31f6

Pause parameters for enp0s31f6:

Autonegotiate: on

RX: on TX: on

## 25.3. MONITORING NETWORK PROTOCOL STATISTICS

The **netstat** command can be used to monitor network traffic.

#### Procedure

To monitor network traffic:

## \$ netstat -s

lp:

Forwarding: 1

30817508 total packets received

2927 forwarded

0 incoming packets discarded 30813320 incoming packets delivered 19184491 requests sent out 181 outgoing packets dropped 2628 dropped because of missing route Icmp 29450 ICMP messages received 213 input ICMP message failed ICMP input histogram: destination unreachable: 29431 echo requests: 19 10141 ICMP messages sent 0 ICMP messages failed ICMP output histogram: destination unreachable: 10122 echo replies: 19 IcmpMsg: InType3: 29431 InType8: 19 OutType0: 19 OutType3: 10122 Tcp: 162638 active connection openings 89 passive connection openings 38908 failed connection attempts 17869 connection resets received 48 connections established 8456952 segments received 9323882 segments sent out 69885 segments retransmitted 1143 bad segments received 56209 resets sent Udp: 21929780 packets received 1319 packets to unknown port received 712919 packet receive errors 10134989 packets sent 712919 receive buffer errors 180 send buffer errors IgnoredMulti: 39231

## 25.4. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- ethtool(8)
- netstat(8)

## CHAPTER 26. TRACING LATENCIES WITH TRACE-CMD

The **trace-cmd** utility is a front end to the **ftrace** utility. It can enable **ftrace** actions, without the need to write to the /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/ directory. **trace-cmd** does not add any overhead when it is installed.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges.

## 26.1. INSTALLING TRACE-CMD

The **trace-cmd** utility provides a front-end to the **ftrace** utility.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges

#### Procedure

Install trace-cmd.

# yum install trace-cmd

## 26.2. RUNNING TRACE-CMD

You can use the **trace-cmd** utility to access all **ftrace** functionality.

## **Prerequisites**

• Administrator privileges.

#### Procedure

 Enter trace-cmd command where command is an ftrace option.



#### **NOTE**

See the **trace-cmd(1)** man page for a complete list of commands and options. Most of the individual commands also have their own man pages, **trace-cmd-command**.

## 26.3. TRACE-CMD EXAMPLES

This provides a number of trace-cmd examples.

## **Examples**

• Enable and start recording functions executing within the kernel while myapp runs.

# trace-cmd record -p function myapp

This records functions from all CPUs and all tasks, even those not related to myapp.

Display the result.

# trace-cmd report

• Record only functions that start with **sched** while *myapp* runs.

# trace-cmd record -p function -l 'sched\*' myapp

Enable all the IRQ events.

# trace-cmd start -e irq

• Start the **wakeup\_rt** tracer.

# trace-cmd start -p wakeup\_rt

• Start the **preemptirgsoff** tracer, while disabling function tracing.

# trace-cmd start -p preemptirqsoff -d



#### **NOTE**

The version of **trace-cmd** in RHEL 8 turns off **ftrace\_enabled** instead of using the **function-trace** option. You can enable **ftrace** again with **trace-cmd start -p** function.

• Restore the state in which the system was before **trace-cmd** started modifying it.

# trace-cmd start -p nop

This is important if you want to use the **debugfs** file system after using **trace-cmd**, whether or not the system was restarted in the meantime.

Trace a single trace point.

# trace-cmd record -e sched\_wakeup ls /bin

Stop tracing.

# trace-cmd record stop

## 26.4. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

• trace-cmd(1) man page

# CHAPTER 27. ISOLATING CPUS USING TUNED-PROFILES-REALTIME

To give application threads the most execution time possible, you can isolate CPUs. Therefore, remove as many extraneous tasks from a CPU as possible. Isolating CPUs generally involves:

- Removing all user-space threads.
- Removing any unbound kernel threads (bound kernel threads are tied to a specific CPU and may not be moved).
- Removing interrupts by modifying the /proc/irq/N/smp\_affinity property of each Interrupt Request (IRQ) number N in the system.

This section shows how to automate these operations using the **isolated\_cores=cpulist** configuration option of the **tuned-profiles-realtime** package.

## **Prerequisites**

• Administrator privileges.

## 27.1. CHOOSING CPUS TO ISOLATE

Choosing the CPUs to isolate requires careful consideration of the CPU topology of the system. Different use cases may require different configuration:

- If you have a multi-threaded application where threads need to communicate with one another by sharing cache, they may need to be kept on the same NUMA node or physical socket.
- If you run multiple unrelated real-time applications, separating the CPUs by NUMA node or socket may be suitable.

The **hwloc** package provides utilities that are useful for getting information about CPUs, including **Istopo-no-graphics** and **numactl**.

## **Prerequisites**

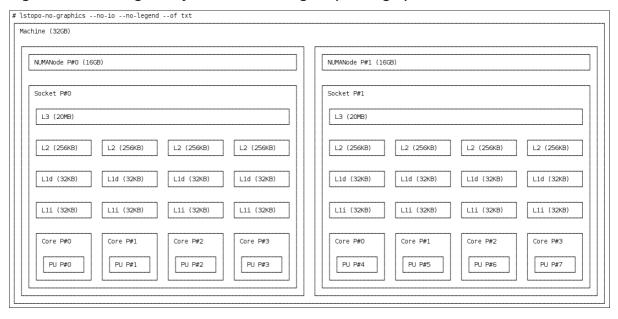
• The **hwloc** package must be installed.

## Procedure

1. View the layout of available CPUs in physical packages:

# Istopo-no-graphics --no-io --no-legend --of txt

Figure 27.1. Showing the layout of CPUs using Istopo-no-graphics



This command is useful for multi-threaded applications, because it shows how many cores and sockets are available and the logical distance of the NUMA nodes.

Additionally, the **hwloc-gui** package provides the **Istopo** utility, which produces graphical output.

2. View more information about the CPUs, such as the distance between nodes:

# numactl --hardware available: 2 nodes (0-1) node 0 cpus: 0 1 2 3 node 0 size: 16159 MB node 0 free: 6323 MB node 1 cpus: 4 5 6 7 node 1 size: 16384 MB node 1 free: 10289 MB node distances: node 0 1 0: 10 21 1: 21 10

## Additional resources

hwloc(7) man page

# 27.2. ISOLATING CPUS USING TUNED'S ISOLATED\_CORES OPTION

The initial mechanism for isolating CPUs is specifying the boot parameter **isolcpus=cpulist** on the kernel boot command line. The recommended way to do this for RHEL for Real Time is to use the **tuned** daemon and its **tuned-profiles-realtime** package.

## **Prerequisites**

• The **tuned** and **tuned-profiles-realtime** packages are installed.

#### Procedure

- 1. As a root user, open /etc/tuned/realtime-variables.conf in a text editor.
- 2. Set **isolated\_cores=***cpulist* to specify the CPUs that you want to isolate. You can use CPU numbers and ranges.

## **Examples:**

isolated\_cores=0-3,5,7

This isolates cores 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7.

In a two socket system with 8 cores, where NUMA node 0 has cores 0-3 and NUMA node 1 has cores 4-8, to allocate two cores for a multi-threaded application, specify:

isolated\_cores=4,5

This prevents any user-space threads from being assigned to CPUs 4 and 5.

To pick CPUs from different NUMA nodes for unrelated applications, specify:

isolated\_cores=0,4

This prevents any user-space threads from being assigned to CPUs 0 and 4.

3. Activate the realtime **tuned** profile using the **tuned-adm** utility.

# tuned-adm profile realtime

4. Reboot the machine.

## Verification

• Search for the **isolcpus** parameter in the kernel command line:

\$ cat /proc/cmdline | grep isolcpus

BOOT\_IMAGE=/vmlinuz-4.18.0-305.rt7.72.el8.x86\_64 root=/dev/mapper/rhel\_foo-root ro crashkernel=auto rd.lvm.lv=rhel\_foo/root rd.lvm.lv=rhel\_foo/swap console=ttyS0,115200n81 isolcpus=0,4

# CHAPTER 28. ISOLATING CPUS USING THE NOHZ AND NOHZ\_FULL PARAMETERS

The **nohz** and **nohz\_full** parameters modify activity on specified CPUs. To enable these kernel boot parameters, you need to use one of the following tuned profiles: **realtime-virtual-host**, **realtime-virtual-guest**, or **cpu-partitioning**.

#### nohz=on

Reduces timer activity on a particular set of CPUs.

The **nohz** parameter is mainly used to reduce timer interrupts on idle CPUs. This helps battery life by allowing idle CPUs to run in reduced power mode. While not being directly useful for real-time response time, the **nohz** parameter does not directly impact real-time response time negatively. But the **nohz** parameter is required to activate the **nohz\_full** parameter that does have positive implications for real-time performance.

## nohz full=cpulist

The **nohz\_full** parameter treats the timer ticks of a list of specified CPUs differently. If a CPU is specified as a **nohz\_full** CPU and there is only one runnable task on the CPU, then the kernel stops sending timer ticks to that CPU. As a result, more time may be spent running the application and less time spent servicing interrupts and context switching.

#### Additional resources

Configuring Kernel Tick Time

# CHAPTER 29. LIMITING SCHED\_OTHER TASK MIGRATION

You can limit the tasks that **SCHED\_OTHER** migrates to other CPUs using the **sched\_nr\_migrate** variable.

## **Prerequisites**

• Administrator privileges.

# 29.1. TASK MIGRATION

If a **SCHED\_OTHER** task spawns a large number of other tasks, they will all run on the same CPU. The **migration** task or **softirq** will try to balance these tasks so they can run on idle CPUs.

The **sched\_nr\_migrate** option can be adjusted to specify the number of tasks that will move at a time. Because real-time tasks have a different way to migrate, they are not directly affected by this. However, when **softirq** moves the tasks, it locks the run queue spinlock, thus disabling interrupts.

If there are a large number of tasks that need to be moved, it occurs while interrupts are disabled, so no timer events or wakeups will be allowed to happen simultaneously. This can cause severe latencies for real-time tasks when **sched\_nr\_migrate** is set to a large value.

# 29.2. LIMITING SCHED\_OTHER TASK MIGRATION USING THE SCHED NR MIGRATE VARIABLE

Increasing the **sched\_nr\_migrate** variable provides high performance from **SCHED\_OTHER** threads that spawn many tasks at the expense of real-time latency.

For low real-time task latency at the expense of **SCHED\_OTHER** task performance, the value must be lowered. The default value is **8**.

#### **Procedure**

- To adjust the value of the sched\_nr\_migrate variable, echo the value directly to /proc/sys/kernel/sched\_nr\_migrate:
  - ~]# echo 2 > /proc/sys/kernel/sched\_nr\_migrate

## Verification

• View the contents of /proc/sys/kernel/sched nr migrate:

~]# cat > /proc/sys/kernel/sched\_nr\_migrate 2

## CHAPTER 30. REDUCING TCP PERFORMANCE SPIKES

Generating TCP timestamps can result in TCP performance spikes. The **sysctl** command controls the values of TCP related entries, setting the timestamps kernel parameter found at /proc/sys/net/ipv4/tcp\_timestamps.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges.

## 30.1. TURNING OFF TCP TIMESTAMPS

Turning off TCP timestamps can reduce TCP performance spikes.

## Procedure

• Turn off TCP timestamps:

```
# sysctl -w net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps=0 net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps = 0
```

The output shows that the value of **net.ip4.tcp\_timestamps** options is **0**. That is, TCP timestamps are disabled.

## 30.2. TURNING ON TCP TIMESTAMPS

Generating timestamps can cause TCP performance spikes. You can reduce TCP performance spikes by disabling TCP timestamps. If you find that generating TCP timestamps is not causing TCP performance spikes, you can enable them.

## Procedure

• Enable TCP timestamps.

```
# sysctl -w net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps=1
net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps = 1
```

The output shows that the value of **net.ip4.tcp\_timestamps** is **1**. That is, TCP timestamps are enabled.

## 30.3. DISPLAYING THE TCP TIMESTAMP STATUS

You can view the status of TCP timestamp generation.

#### **Procedure**

Display the TCP timestamp generation status:

```
# sysctl net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps
net.ipv4.tcp_timestamps = 0
```

The value  ${\bf 1}$  indicates that timestamps are being generated. The value  ${\bf 0}$  indicates timestamps are being not generated.

# **CHAPTER 31. REDUCING CPU PERFORMANCE SPIKES**

The kernel command line **skew\_tick** parameter smooths jitter on moderate to large systems with latency-sensitive applications running. A common source of latency spikes on a real time Linux system is when multiple CPUs contend on common locks in the Linux kernel timer tick handler.

## **Prerequisites**

• You have administrator permissions.

## Procedure

• Set the **skew\_tick** boot parameter to **1**.

# CHAPTER 32. IMPROVING CPU PERFORMANCE BY USING RCU CALLBACKS

The **Read-Copy-Update** (**RCU**) system is a lockless mechanism for mutual exclusion of threads inside the kernel. As a consequence of performing RCU operations, call-backs are sometimes queued on CPUs to be performed at a future moment when removing memory is safe.

To improve CPU performance using RCU callbacks:

- You can remove CPUs from being candidates for running CPU callbacks.
- You can assign a CPU to handle all RCU callbacks. This CPU is called the housekeeping CPU.
- You can relieve CPUs from the responsibility of awakening RCU offload threads.

This combination reduces the interference on CPUs that are dedicated for the user's workload.

## **Prerequisites**

- Administrator privileges.
- The **tuna** package is installed

## 32.1. OFFLOADING RCU CALLBACKS

You can offload **RCU** callbacks using the **rcu\_nocbs** and **rcu\_nocb\_poll** kernel parameters.

## **Procedure**

• To remove one or more CPUs from the candidates for running RCU callbacks, specify the list of CPUs in the **rcu\_nocbs** kernel parameter, for example:

or

The second example instructs the kernel that CPU 3 is a no-callback CPU. This means that RCU callbacks will not be done in the **rcuc/\$CPU** thread pinned to CPU 3, but in the **rcuo/\$CPU** thread. You can move this trhead to a housekeeping CPU to relieve CPU 3 from being assigned RCU callback jobs.

## 32.2. MOVING RCU CALLBACKS

You can assign a housekeeping CPU to handle all RCU callback threads. To do this, use the **tuna** command and move all RCU callbacks to the housekeeping CPU.

## **Procedure**

• Move RCU callback threads to the housekeeping CPU:

# tuna --threads=rcu --cpus=x --move

where  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is the CPU number of the housekeeping CPU.

This action relieves all CPUs other than CPU X from handling RCU callback threads.

# 32.3. RELIEVING CPUS FROM AWAKENING RCU OFFLOAD THREADS

Although the RCU offload threads can perform the RCU callbacks on another CPU, each CPU is responsible for awakening the corresponding RCU offload thread. You can relieve a CPU from this responsibility,

#### Procedure

Set the rcu\_nocb\_poll kernel parameter.
 This command causes a timer to periodically raise the RCU offload threads to check if there are callbacks to run.

## 32.4. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

• Avoiding RCU Stalls in the real-time kernel

# CHAPTER 33. REAL TIME SCHEDULING ISSUES AND SOLUTIONS

This section provides information about real time scheduling issues and the available solutions.

## Real time scheduling policies

The two real time scheduling policies in RHEL for Real Time share one main characteristic: they run until they are preempted by a higher priority thread or until they "wait", either by sleeping or performing I/O. In the case of **SCHED\_RR**, a thread may be preempted by the operating system so that another thread of equal **SCHED\_RR** priority may run. In either of these cases, no provision is made by the POSIX specifications that define the policies for allowing lower priority threads to get any CPU time.

This characteristic of real-time threads means that it is easy to write an application which monopolizes 100% of a given CPU. However, this causes problems for the operating system. For examplem, the operating system is responsible for managing both system-wide and per-CPU resources and must periodically examine data structures describing these resources and perform housekeeping activities with them. But if a core is monopolized by a **SCHED\_FIFO** thread, it cannot perform its housekeeping tasks. Eventually the entire system becomes unstable, potentially crashing.

On the RHEL for Real Time kernel, interrupt handlers run as threads with a **SCHED\_FIFO** priority. (he default priority is **50**. A cpu-hog thread with a **SCHED\_FIFO** or **SCHED\_RR** policy higher than the interrupt handler threads can prevent interrupt handlers from running. This causes programs waiting for data signaled by those interrupts to be starved and fail.

## Real time scheduler throttling

Red Hat Enterprise Linux for Real Time comes with a safeguard mechanism that allows the system administrator to allocate bandwith for use by real time tasks. This safeguard mechanism is known as real time scheduler throttling. Real time scheduler throttling is controlled by two parameters in the /proc file system:

## /proc/sys/kernel/sched\_rt\_period\_us

Defines the period in  $\mu$ s (microseconds) to be considered 100% of CPU bandwidth. The default value is **1,000,000**  $\mu$ s (1 second). Changes to the value of the period must be very well thought out, as a period too long or too small are equally dangerous.

## /proc/sys/kernel/sched\_rt\_runtime\_us

The total bandwidth available for all real time tasks. The default value is **950,000 \mus** (0.95 s) or, in other words, 95% of the CPU bandwidth. Setting the value to **-1** means that real time tasks may use up to 100% of CPU time. This is only adequate when the real time tasks are well engineered and have no obvious caveats, such as unbounded polling loops.

The default values for the real time throttling mechanism define that the real time tasks can use 95% of the CPU time. The remaining 5% will be devoted to non-real time tasks, such as tasks running under **SCHED\_OTHER** and similar scheduling policies. It is important to note that if a single real time task occupies that 95% CPU time slot, the remaining real time tasks on that CPU will not run. Only non-real time tasks use the remaining 5% of CPU time.

The impact of the default values include the following:

- Rogue real time tasks do not lock up the system by not allowing non-real time tasks to run.
- Real time tasks have at most 95% of CPU time available for them, which can affect their performance.

## Additional resources

• Real-Time group scheduling

## CHAPTER 34. TRACING LATENCIES USING FTRACE

The **ftrace** utility is one of the diagnostic facilities provided with the RHEL for Real Time kernel. **ftrace** can be used by developers to analyze and debug latency and performance issues that occur outside of the user-space. The **ftrace** utility has a variety of options that allow you to use the utility in a number of different ways. It can be used to trace context switches, measure the time it takes for a high-priority task to wake up, the length of time interrupts are disabled, or list all the kernel functions executed during a given period.

Some of the **ftrace** tracers, such as the function tracer, can produce exceedingly large amounts of data, which can turn trace log analysis into a time-consuming task. However, you can instruct the tracer to begin and end only when the application reaches critical code paths.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges.

## 34.1. USING THE FTRACE UTILITY TO TRACE LATENCIES

You can trace latencies using the **ftrace** utility.

#### Procedure

1. View the available tracers on the system.

# cat /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/available\_tracers function\_graph wakeup\_rt wakeup preemptirqsoff preemptoff irqsoff function nop

The user interface for **ftrace** is a series of files within **debugfs**.

The **ftrace** files are also located in the /**sys/kernel/debug/tracing/** directory.

2. Move to the /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/ directory.

# # cd /sys/kernel/debug/tracing

The files in this directory can only be modified by the root user, because enabling tracing can have an impact on the performance of the system.

- 3. To start a tracing session:
  - a. Select a tracer you want to use from the list of available tracers in /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/available\_tracers.
  - b. Insert the name of the selector into the /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/current\_tracer.





#### NOTE

If you use a single '>' with the echo command, it will override any existing value in the file. If you wish to append the value to the file, use '>>' instead.

4. The function-trace option is useful because tracing latencies with wakeup\_rt, preemptirqsoff, and so on automatically enables function tracing, which may exaggerate the overhead. Check if function and function\_graph tracing are enabled:

# cat /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/options/function-trace 1

- A value of 1 indicates that **function** and **function\_graph** tracing are enabled.
- A value of 0 indicates that function and function graph tracing are disabled.
- 5. By default, **function** and **function\_graph** tracing are enabled. To turn **function** and **function\_graph** tracing on or off, echo the appropriate value to the /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/options/function-trace file.

# echo 0 > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/options/function-trace # echo 1 > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/options/function-trace



## **IMPORTANT**

When using the **echo** command, ensure you place a space character in between the value and the > character. At the shell prompt, using **0**>, **1**>, and **2**> (without a space character) refers to standard input, standard output, and standard error. Using them by mistake could result in an unexpected trace output.

6. Adjust the details and parameters of the tracers by changing the values for the various files in the /debugfs/tracing/ directory.

For example:

The **irqsoff**, **preemptoff**, **preempirqsoff**, and **wakeup** tracers continuously monitor latencies. When they record a latency greater than the one recorded in **tracing\_max\_latency** the trace of that latency is recorded, and **tracing\_max\_latency** is updated to the new maximum time. In this way, **tracing\_max\_latency** always shows the highest recorded latency since it was last reset.

• To reset the maximum latency, echo **0** into the **tracing max latency** file:

# echo 0 > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/tracing\_max\_latency

• To see only latencies greater than a set amount, echo the amount in microseconds:

# echo 200 > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing\_max\_latency

When the tracing threshold is set, it overrides the maximum latency setting. When a latency is recorded that is greater than the threshold, it will be recorded regardless of the maximum latency. When reviewing the trace file, only the last recorded latency is shown.

• To set the threshold, echo the number of microseconds above which latencies must be recorded:

# echo 200 > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/tracing\_thresh

7. View the trace logs:

## # cat /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/trace

8. To store the trace logs, copy them to another file:

# cat /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/trace > /tmp/lat\_trace\_log

9. View the functions being traced:

# cat /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter

- Filter the functions being traced by editing the settings in /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter. If no filters are specified in the file, all functions are traced.
- 11. To change filter settings, echo the name of the function to be traced. The filter allows the use of a '\*' wildcard at the beginning or end of a search term.

  For examples, see ftrace examples.

## 34.2. FTRACE FILES

The following are the main files in the /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/ directory.

#### ftrace files

#### trace

The file that shows the output of an **ftrace** trace. This is really a snapshot of the trace in time, because the trace stops when this file is read, and it does not consume the events read. That is, if the user disabled tracing and reads this file, it will report the same thing every time it is read.

## trace\_pipe

The file that shows the output of an **ftrace** trace as it reads the trace live. It is a producer/consumer trace. That is, each read will consume the event that is read. This can be used to read an active trace without stopping the trace as it is read.

## available\_tracers

A list of ftrace tracers that have been compiled into the kernel.

## current\_tracer

Enables or disables an ftrace tracer.

#### events

A directory that contains events to trace and can be used to enable or disable events, as well as set filters for the events.

## tracing\_on

Disable and enable recording to the **ftrace** buffer. Disabling tracing via the **tracing\_on** file does not disable the actual tracing that is happening inside the kernel. It only disables writing to the buffer. The work to do the trace still happens, but the data does not go anywhere.

## 34.3. FTRACE TRACERS

Depending on how the kernel is configured, not all tracers may be available for a given kernel. For the RHEL for Real Time kernels, the trace and debug kernels have different tracers than the production kernel does. This is because some of the tracers have a noticeable overhead when the tracer is

configured into the kernel, but not active. Those tracers are only enabled for the **trace** and **debug** kernels.

#### **Tracers**

#### function

One of the most widely applicable tracers. Traces the function calls within the kernel. This can cause noticeable overhead depending on the number of functions traced. When not active, it creates little overhead.

## function\_graph

The **function\_graph** tracer is designed to present results in a more visually appealing format. This tracer also traces the exit of the function, displaying a flow of function calls in the kernel.



## **NOTE**

This tracer has more overhead than the **function** tracer when enabled, but the same low overhead when disabled.

#### wakeup

A full CPU tracer that reports the activity happening across all CPUs. It records the time that it takes to wake up the highest priority task in the system, whether that task is a real time task or not. Recording the max time it takes to wake up a non-real time task hides the times it takes to wake up a real time task.

## wakeup\_rt

A full CPU tracer that reports the activity happening across all CPUs. It records the time that it takes from the current highest priority task to wake up to until the time it is scheduled. This tracer only records the time for real time tasks.

## preemptirqsoff

Traces the areas that disable preemption or interrupts, and records the maximum amount of time for which preemption or interrupts were disabled.

## preemptoff

Similar to the preemptirqsoff tracer, but traces only the maximum interval for which pre-emption was disabled.

## irqsoff

Similar to the preemptirqsoff tracer, but traces only the maximum interval for which interrupts were disabled.

#### nop

The default tracer. It does not provide any tracing facility itself, but as events may interleave into any tracer, the **nop** tracer is used for specific interest in tracing events.

## 34.4. FTRACE EXAMPLES

The following provides a number of examples for changing the filtering of functions being traced. You can use the \* wildcard at both the beginning and end of a word. For example: \*irq\\* will select all functions that contain irq in the name. The wildcard cannot, however, be used inside a word.

Encasing the search term and the wildcard character in double quotation marks ensures that the shell will not attempt to expand the search to the present working directory.

## **Examples of filters**

- Trace only the **schedule** function:
  - # echo schedule > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter
- Trace all functions that end with **lock**:
  - # echo "\*lock" > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter
- Trace all functions that start with **spin**\_:
  - # echo "spin\_\*" > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter
- Trace all functions with **cpu** in the name:
  - # echo "cpu" > /sys/kernel/debug/tracing/set\_ftrace\_filter

## **CHAPTER 35. APPLICATION TUNING AND DEPLOYMENT**

The following sections provide tips about enhancing and developing RHEL for Real Time applications.



#### NOTE

In general, try to use **POSIX** (Portable Operating System Interface) defined APIs. RHEL for Real Time is compliant with POSIX standards. Latency reduction in RHEL for Real Time kernel is also based on POSIX.

## 35.1. SIGNAL PROCESSING IN REAL-TIME APPLICATIONS

Traditional **UNIX** and **POSIX** signals have their uses, especially for error handling, but they are not suitable as an event delivery mechanism in real-time applications. This is because the current Linux kernel signal handling code is quite complex, mainly due to legacy behavior and the many APIs that need to be supported. This complexity means that the code paths that are taken when delivering a signal are not always optimal, and long latencies can be experienced by applications.

The original motivation behind UNIX signals was to multiplex one thread of control (the process) between different "threads" of execution. Signals behave somewhat like operating system interrupts. That is, when a signal is delivered to an application, the application's context is saved and it starts executing a previously registered signal handler. Once the signal handler completes, the application returns to executing where it was when the signal was delivered. This can get complicated in practice.

Signals are too non-deterministic to trust in a real-time application. A better option is to use POSIX Threads (pthreads) to distribute your workload and communicate between various components. You can coordinate groups of threads using the pthreads mechanisms of mutexes, condition variables, and barriers. The code paths through these relatively new constructs are much cleaner than the legacy handling code for signals.

#### Additional resources

Requirements of the POSIX Signal Model

## 35.2. SYNCHRONIZING THREADS

The **sched\_yield** command is a synchronization mechanism that can allow lower priority threads a chance to run. This type of request is prone to failure when issued from within a poorly-written application.

A higher priority thread can call **sched\_yield** to allow other threads a chance to run. The calling process gets moved to the tail of the queue of processes running at that priority. When this occurs in a situation where there are no other processes running at the same priority, the calling process continues running. If the priority of that process is high, it can potentially create a busy loop, rendering the machine unusable.

When a **SCHED\_DEADLINE** task calls **sched\_yield()**, it gives up the configured CPU, and the remaining runtime is immediately throttled until the next period. The **sched\_yield()** behavior allows the task to wake up at the start of the next period.

The scheduler is better able to determine when, and if, there actually are other threads waiting to run. Avoid using **sched\_yield** on any real-time task.

#### Procedure

• To call the **sched\_yield()** system code, run the following code:

```
for(;;) {
         do_the_computation();
         /*
     * Notify the scheduler the end of the computation
         * This syscall will block until the next replenishment
         */
     sched_yield();
     }
```

The **SCHED\_DEADLINE** task gets throttled by the conflict-based search (CBS) algorithm until the next period (start of next execution of the loop).

#### Additional resources

- pthread.h(P)
- sched\_yield(2)
- sched\_yield(3p)
- Techniques that can have its behavior changed when the kernel is replaced .

## 35.3. REAL-TIME SCHEDULER PRIORITIES

The **systemd** command can be used to set real-time priority for services launched during the boot process. This is described in *Changing the priority of services during booting*.

In the example given in that procedure, some kernel threads can be given a very high priority. This allows the default priorities to integrate well with the requirements of the **Real Time Specification for Java** (RTSJ). **RTSJ** requires a range of priorities from 10 to 89.

For deployments where RTSJ is not in use, there is a wide range of scheduling priorities below 90 that can be used by applications. Use extreme caution when scheduling any application thread above priority 49 because it can prevent essential system services from running, because it can prevent essential system services from running. This can result in unpredictable behavior, including blocked network traffic, blocked virtual memory paging, and data corruption due to blocked filesystem journaling.

If any application threads are scheduled above priority 89, ensure that the threads run only a very short code path. Failure to do so would undermine the low latency capabilities of the RHEL for Real Time kernel.

## Setting real-time priority for non-privileged users

By default, only root users are able to change priority and scheduling information. To grant non-privileged users the ability to adjust these settings, the best method is to add the non-privileged user to the **realtime** group.



## **IMPORTANT**

You can also change user privileges by editing the /etc/security/limits.conf file. However, this can result in duplication and render the system unusable for regular users. If you decide to edit this file, exercise caution and always create a copy before making changes.

# 35.4. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

• HOWTO: Build an RT-application

# CHAPTER 36. IMPROVING NETWORK LATENCY USING TCP NODELAY

By default, **TCP** uses Nagle's algorithm to collect small outgoing packets to send all at once. This can cause higher rates of latency.

## **Prerequisites**

Administrator privileges.

# 36.1. THE EFFECTS OF USING TCP\_NODELAY

Applications that require low latency on every packet sent must be run on sockets with **TCP\_NODELAY** enabled. This sends buffer writes to the kernel as soon as an event occurs.

Note that for **TCP\_NODELAY** to be effective, applications must avoid doing small, logically related buffer writes. Otherwise, these small writes cause TCP to send these multiple buffers as individual packets, resulting in poor overall performance.

If applications have several buffers that are logically related and must be sent as one packet, apply one of the following workarounds to avoid poor performance:

- Build a contiguous packet in memory and then send the logical packet to TCP on a socket configured with **TCP\_NODELAY**.
- Create an I/O vector and pass it to the kernel using the **writev** command on a socket configured with **TCP\_NODELAY**.
- Use **TCP\_CORK**. **TCP\_CORK** tells TCP to wait for the application to remove the cork before sending any packets. This command causes the buffers it receives to be appended to the existing buffers. This allows applications to build a packet in kernel space, which can be required when using different libraries that provide abstractions for layers.

When a logical packet has been built in the kernel by the various components in the application, the socket should be uncorked, allowing TCP to send the accumulated logical packet immediately.

# 36.2. ENABLING TCP NODELAY

**TCP\_NODELAY** sends buffer writes to the kernel when events occur, with no delays. Enable **TCP\_NODELAY** using the **setsockopt** command.

#### **Procedure**

1. Enable **TCP NODELAY** using the **setsockopt** command.

```
# int one = 1;
# setsockopt(descriptor, SOL_TCP, TCP_NODELAY, &one, sizeof(one));
```

- 2. Apply one of the following workarounds to prevent poor performance:
  - Build a contiguous packet in memory and then send the logical packet to TCP on a socket configured with TCP\_NODELAY.

 Create an I/O vector and pass it to the kernel using writev on a socket configured with TCP\_NODELAY.

# 36.3. ENABLING TCP\_CORK

**TCP\_CORK** prevents TCP from sending any packets until the socket is 'uncorked'.

#### Procedure

1. Enable TCP\_CORK using the setsockopt command.

```
# int one = 1;
# setsockopt(descriptor, SOL_TCP, TCP_CORK, &one, sizeof(one));
```

2. After the logical packet has been built in the kernel by the various components in the application, disable TCP\_CORK.

```
# int zero = 0;
# setsockopt(descriptor, SOL_TCP, TCP_CORK, &zero, sizeof(zero));
```

TCP sends the accumulated logical packet immediately, without waiting for any further packets from the application.

## 36.4. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- tcp(7)
- setsockopt(3p)
- setsockopt(2)

# **CHAPTER 37. LOADING DYNAMIC LIBRARIES**

When developing your real-time application, consider resolving symbols at startup to avoid non-deterministic latencies during program execution. Note that resolving symbols at startup can slow down program initialization.

You can instruct Dynamic Libraries to load at application startup by setting the **LD\_BIND\_NOW** variable with **Id.so**, the dynamic linker/loader.

For example, the following shell script exports the **LD\_BIND\_NOW** variable with a value of **1**, then runs a program with a scheduler policy of FIFO and a priority of 1.

#!/bin/sh

LD\_BIND\_NOW=1 export LD\_BIND\_NOW

chrt --fifo 1 /opt/myapp/myapp-server &

#### Additional resources

• Id.so(8)

# CHAPTER 38. PREVENTING RESOURCE OVERUSE BY USING MUTEX

Mutual exclusion (mutex) algorithms are used to prevent overuse of common resources.

## 38.1. MUTEX OPTIONS

Mutual exclusion (mutex) algorithms are used to prevent processes simultaneously using a common resource. A fast user-space mutex (futex) is a tool that allows a user-space thread to claim a mutex without requiring a context switch to kernel space, provided the mutex is not already held by another thread.

When you initialize a **pthread\_mutex\_t** object with the standard attributes, a private, non-recursive, non-robust, and non-priority inheritance-capable mutex is created. This object does not provide any of the benfits provided by the **pthreads** API and the RHEL for Real Time kernel.

To benefit from the **pthreads** API and the RHEL for Real Time kernel, create a **pthread\_mutexattr\_t** object. This object stores the attributes defined for the futex.



#### **NOTE**

The terms **futex** and **mutex** are used to describe POSIX thread ( **pthread**) mutex constructs.

## 38.2. CREATING A MUTEX ATTRIBUTE OBJECT

To define any additional capabilities for the **mutex**, create a **pthread\_mutexattr\_t** object. This object stores the defined attributes for the futex.

## Procedure

- Create the mutex attribute object using one of the following:
  - o pthread\_mutex\_t(my\_mutex);
  - pthread\_mutexattr\_t(&my\_mutex\_attr);
  - pthread\_mutexattr\_init(&my\_mutex\_attr);

For more information about advanced mutex attributes, see Advanced mutex attributes.



## **NOTE**

This section does not include a check of the return value of the function. This is a basic safety procedure that you must always perform.

## 38.3. CREATING A MUTEX WITH STANDARD ATTRIBUTES

When you initialize a **pthread\_mutex\_t** object with the standard attributes, a private, non-recursive, non-robust, and non-priority inheritance-capable mutex is created.

#### **Procedure**

- Create a mutex object under **pthreads** using one of the following:
  - pthread\_mutex\_t(my\_mutex);
  - pthread\_mutex\_init(&my\_mutex, &my\_mutex\_attr);
     where &my\_mutex\_attr; is a mutex attribute object.

## 38.4. ADVANCED MUTEX ATTRIBUTES

The following advanced mutex attributes can be stored in a mutex attribute object:

#### Mutex attributes

#### Shared and private mutexes

Shared mutexes can be used between processes, however they can create a lot more overhead. pthread\_mutexattr\_setpshared(&my\_mutex\_attr, PTHREAD\_PROCESS\_SHARED);

## Real-time priority inheritance

You can avoid priority inversion problems by using priority inheritance. pthread\_mutexattr\_setprotocol(&my\_mutex\_attr, PTHREAD\_PRIO\_INHERIT);

#### **Robust mutexes**

When a pthread dies, robust mutexes under the pthread are released. However, this comes with a high overhead cost. \_NP in this string indicates that this option is non-POSIX or not portable. pthread\_mutexattr\_setrobust\_np(&my\_mutex\_attr, PTHREAD\_MUTEX\_ROBUST\_NP);

## Mutex initialization

Shared mutexes can be used between processes, however, they can create a lot more overhead. pthread mutex init(&my mutex attr, &my mutex);

## 38.5. CLEANING UP A MUTEX ATTRIBUTE OBJECT

After the mutex has been created using the mutex attribute object, you can keep the attribute object to initialize more mutexes of the same type, or you can clean it up. The mutex is not affected in either case.

#### Procedure

 Clean up the attribute object using the \_destroy command. pthread\_mutexattr\_destroy(&my\_mutex\_attr);

The mutex now operates as a regular **pthread\_mutex**, and can be locked, unlocked, and destroyed as normal.

## 38.6. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- futex(7)
- pthread\_mutex\_destroy(P)
- pthread\_mutexattr\_setprotocol(3p)

• pthread\_mutexattr\_setprioceiling(3p)

# **CHAPTER 39. ANALYZING APPLICATION PERFORMANCE**

**Perf** is a performance analysis tool. It provides a simple command line interface and abstracts the CPU hardware difference in Linux performance measurements. **Perf** is based on the **perf\_events** interface exported by the kernel.

One advantage of **perf** is that it is both kernel and architecture neutral. The analysis data can be reviewed without requiring a specific system configuration.

## **Prerequisites**

- The **perf** package must be installed on the system.
- Administrator privileges.

## 39.1. COLLECTING SYSTEM-WIDE STATISTICS

The **perf record** command is used for collecting system-wide statistics. It can be used in all processors.

## Procedure

• Collect system-wide performance statistics.

```
# perf record -a
```

^C[ perf record: Woken up 1 times to write data ]

[perf record: Captured and wrote 0.725 MB perf.data (~31655 samples)]

In this example, all CPUs are denoted with the **-a** option, and the process was terminated after a few seconds. The results show that it collected 0.725 MB of data and stored it to a newlycreated **perf.data** file.

## Verification

Ensure that the results file was created.

# **Is** perf.data

## 39.2. ARCHIVING PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS

You can analyze the results of the **perf** on other systems using the **perf archive** command. This may not be necessary, if:

- Dynamic Shared Objects (DSOs), such as binaries and libraries, are already present in the analysis system, such as the ~/.debug/ cache.
- Both systems have the same set of binaries.

#### **Procedure**

1. Create an archive of the results from the **perf** command.

# perf archive

2. Create a tarball from the archive.

# tar cvf perf.data.tar.bz2 -C ~/.debug

## 39.3. ANALYZING PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS

The data from the **perf record** feature can now be investigated directly using the **perf report** command.

#### Procedure

• Analyze the results directly from the **perf.data** file or from an archived tarball.

## # perf report

The output of the report is sorted according to the maximum CPU usage in percentage by the application. It shows if the sample has occurred in the kernel or user space of the process.

The report shows information about the module from which the sample was taken:

- A kernel sample that did not take place in a kernel module is marked with the notation **[kernel.kallsyms]**.
- A kernel sample that took place in the kernel module is marked as [module], [ext4].
- For a process in user space, the results might show the shared library linked with the process.

The report denotes whether the process also occurs in kernel or user space.

- The result [.] indicates user space.
- The result [k] indicates kernel space.

Finer grained details are available for review, including data appropriate for experienced **perf** developers.

## 39.4. LISTING PRE-DEFINED EVENTS

There are a range of available options to get the hardware tracepoint activity.

#### **Procedure**

• List pre-defined hardware and software events:

## # perf list

```
List of pre-defined events (to be used in -e):
 cpu-cycles OR cycles
                                        [Hardware event]
 stalled-cycles-frontend OR idle-cycles-frontend [Hardware event]
 stalled-cycles-backend OR idle-cycles-backend
                                                  [Hardware event]
 instructions
                                   [Hardware event]
 cache-references
                                       [Hardware event]
 cache-misses
                                      [Hardware event]
 branch-instructions OR branches
                                             [Hardware event]
 branch-misses
                                      [Hardware event]
 bus-cycles
                                    [Hardware event]
```

cpu-clock
task-clock
page-faults OR faults
minor-faults
major-faults
context-switches OR cs
cpu-migrations OR migrations
alignment-faults
emulation-faults
...[output truncated]...

[Software event]

## 39.5. GETTING STATISTICS ABOUT SPECIFIED EVENTS

You can view specific events using the **perf stat** command.

## Procedure

1. View the number of context switches with the **perf stat** feature:

# perf stat -e context-switches -a sleep 5 ^Performance counter stats for 'sleep 5':

15,619 context-switches

5.002060064 seconds time elapsed

The results show that in 5 seconds, 15619 context switches took place.

2. View file system activity by running a script. The following shows an example script:

# for i in {1..100}; do touch /tmp/\$i; sleep 1; done

3. In another terminal run the **perf stat** command:

# perf stat -e ext4:ext4\_request\_inode -a sleep 5

Performance counter stats for 'sleep 5':

5 ext4:ext4\_request\_inode

5.002253620 seconds time elapsed

The results show that in 5 seconds the script asked to create 5 files, indicating that there are 5 **inode** requests.

## 39.6. ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- perf help COMMAND
- perf(1) man page

# CHAPTER 40. STRESS TESTING REAL-TIME SYSTEMS WITH STRESS-NG

The **stress-ng** tool measures the system's capability to maintain a good level of efficiency under unfavorable conditions. The **stress-ng** tool is a stress workload generator to load and stress all kernel interfaces. It includes a wide range of stress mechanisms known as stressors. Stress testing makes a machine work hard and trip hardware issues such as thermal overruns and operating system bugs that occur when a system is being overworked.

There are over 270 different tests. These include CPU specific tests that exercise floating point, integer, bit manipulation, control flow, and virtual memory tests.



#### **NOTE**

Use the **stress-ng** tool with caution as some of the tests can impact the system's thermal zone trip points on a poorly designed hardware. This can impact system performance and cause excessive system thrashing which can be difficult to stop.

# 40.1. TESTING CPU FLOATING POINT UNITS AND PROCESSOR DATA CACHE

A floating-point unit is the functional part of the processor that performs floating point arithmetic operations. Floating point units handle mathematical operations and make floating numbers or decimal calculations simpler.

Using the **--matrix-method** option, you can stress test the CPU floating point operations and processor data cache.

#### **Prerequisites**

• Root privileges for the systems

#### **Procedure**

• To test the floating point on one CPU for 60 seconds, use the **--matrix** option:

# # stress-ng --matrix 1 -t 1m

• To run multiple stressors on more than one CPUs for 60 seconds, use the **--times** or **-t** option:

```
# stress-ng --matrix 0 -t 1m
```

```
stress-ng --matrix 0 -t 1m --times
stress-ng: info: [16783] dispatching hogs: 4 matrix
stress-ng: info: [16783] successful run completed in 60.00s (1 min, 0.00 secs)
stress-ng: info: [16783] for a 60.00s run time:
stress-ng: info: [16783] 240.00s available CPU time
stress-ng: info: [16783] 205.21s user time (85.50%)
stress-ng: info: [16783] 0.32s system time (0.13%)
stress-ng: info: [16783] 205.53s total time (85.64%)
stress-ng: info: [16783] load average: 3.20 1.25 1.40
```

The special mode with 0 stressors, query the available number of CPUs to run, removing the need to specify the CPU number.

The total CPU time required is  $4 \times 60$  seconds (240 seconds), of which 0.13% is in the kernel, 85.50% is in user time, and **stress-ng** runs 85.64% of all the CPUs.

To test message passing between processes using a POSIX message queue, use the -mq option:

# stress-ng --mq 0 -t 30s --times --perf

The **mq** option configures a specific number of processes to force context switches using the POSIX message queue. This stress test aims for low data cache misses.

## 40.2. TESTING CPU WITH MULTIPLE STRESS MECHANISMS

The **stress-ng** tool runs multiple stress tests. In the default mode, it runs the specified stressor mechanisms in parallel.

## **Prerequisites**

Root privileges for the systems

#### **Procedure**

• Run multiple instances of CPU stressors as follows:

# stress-ng --cpu 2 --matrix 1 --mq 3 -t 5m

In the example, **stress-ng** runs two instances of the CPU stressors, one instance of the matrix stressor and three instances of the message queue stressor to test for five minutes.

• To run all stress tests in parallel, use the **-all** option:

# stress-ng --all 2

In this example, **stress-ng** runs two instances of all stress tests in parallel.

• To run each different stressor in a specific sequence, use the **--seq** option.

# stress-ng --seq 4 -t 20

In this example, **stress-ng** runs all the stressors one by one for 20 minutes, with the number of instances of each stressor matching the number of online CPUs.

• To exclude specific stressors from a test run, use the **-x** option:

# stress-ng --seq 1 -x numa,matrix,hdd

In this example, **stress-ng** runs all stressors, one instance of each, excluding **numa**, **hdd** and **key** stressors mechanisms.

## 40.3. MEASURING CPU HEAT GENERATION

To measure the CPU heat generation, the specified stressors generate high temperatures for a short time duration to test the system's cooling reliability and stability under maximum heat generation. Using the **--matrix-size** option, you can measure CPU temperatures in degrees Celsius over a short time duration.

## **Prerequisites**

• Root privileges for the system.

#### Procedure

1. To test the CPU behavior at high temperatures for a specified time duration, run the following command:

```
# stress-ng --matrix 0 --matrix-size 64 --tz -t 60

stress-ng: info: [18351] dispatching hogs: 4 matrix
stress-ng: info: [18351] successful run completed in 60.00s (1 min, 0.00 secs)
stress-ng: info: [18351] matrix:
stress-ng: info: [18351] x86_pkg_temp 88.00 °C
stress-ng: info: [18351] acpitz 87.00 °C
```

In this example, the **stress-ng** configures the processor package thermal zone to reach 88 degrees Celsius over the duration of 60 seconds.

2. (Optional) To print a report at the end of a run, use the --tz option:

```
# stress-ng --cpu 0 --tz -t 60

stress-ng: info: [18065] dispatching hogs: 4 cpu
stress-ng: info: [18065] successful run completed in 60.07s (1 min, 0.07 secs)
stress-ng: info: [18065] cpu:
stress-ng: info: [18065] x86_pkg_temp 88.75 °C
stress-ng: info: [18065] acpitz 88.38 °C
```

## 40.4. MEASURING TEST OUTCOMES WITH BOGO OPERATIONS

The **stress-ng** tool can measure a stress test throughput by measuring the bogo operations per second. The size of a bogo operation depends on the stressor being run. The test outcomes are not precise, but they provide a rough estimate of the performance.

You must not use this measurement as an accurate benchmark metric. These estimates help to understand the system performance changes on different kernel versions or different compiler versions used to build **stress-ng**. Use the **--metrics-brief** option to display the total number of available bogo operations and the matrix stressor performance on your machine.

## **Prerequisites**

Root privileges on the systems

## Procedure

• To measure test outcomes with bogo operations, use with the **--metrics-brief** option:

## # stress-ng --matrix 0 -t 60s --metrics-brief

stress-ng: info: [17579] dispatching hogs: 4 matrix

stress-ng: info: [17579] successful run completed in 60.01s (1 min, 0.01 secs)

stress-ng: info: [17579] stressor bogo ops real time usr time sys time bogo ops/s bogo ops/s

stress-ng: info: [17579] (secs) (secs) (real time) (usr+sys time) stress-ng: info: [17579] matrix 349322 60.00 203.23 0.19 5822.03 1717.2

The **--metrics-brief** option displays the test outcomes and the total number of real-time bogo operations run by the **matrix** stressor for 60 seconds.

## 40.5. GENERATING A VIRTUAL MEMORY PRESSURE

When under memory pressure, the kernel starts writing pages out to swap. You can stress the virtual memory by using the **--page-in** option to force non-resident pages to swap back into the virtual memory. This causes the virtual machine to be heavily exercised. Using the **--page-in** option, you can enable this mode for the **bigheap**, **mmap** and virtual machine (**vm**) stressors. The **--page-in** option, touch allocated pages that are not in core, forcing them to page in.

## **Prerequisites**

• Root privileges for the system.

#### Procedure

• To stress test a virtual memory, use the **--page-in** option:

```
# stress-ng --vm 2 --vm-bytes 2G --mmap 2 --mmap-bytes 2G --page-in
```

In this example, **stress-ng** tests memory pressure on a system with 4GB of memory, which is less than the allocated buffer sizes, 2 x 2GB of **vm** stressor and 2 x 2GB of **mmap** stressor with **--page-in** enabled.

# 40.6. TESTING LARGE INTERRUPTS LOADS ON A DEVICE

Running timers at high frequency can generate a large interrupt load. The **–timer** stressor with an appropriately selected timer frequency can force many interrupts per second.

## **Prerequisites**

• Root privileges on the system.

#### **Procedure**

• To generate an interrupt load, use the **--timer** option:

# stress-ng --timer 32 --timer-freq 1000000

In this example, **stress-ng** tests 32 instances at 1MHz.

## 40.7. GENERATING MAJOR PAGE FAULTS IN A PROGRAM

With **stress-ng**, you can test and analyze the page fault rate by generating major page faults in a page that are not loaded in the memory. On new kernel versions, the **userfaultfd** mechanism notifies the fault finding threads about the page faults in the virtual memory layout of a process.

## **Prerequisites**

• Root privileges on the system.

#### **Procedure**

• To generate major page faults on early kernel versions, use:

```
# stress-ng --fault 0 --perf -t 1m
```

• To generate major page faults on new kernel versions, use:

# stress-ng --userfaultfd 0 --perf -t 1m

## 40.8. VIEWING CPU STRESS TEST MECHANISMS

The CPU stress test contains many mechanisms to exercise a CPU. You can print an output to view all mechanisms using the **which** function.

If you do not specify the test method, by default, the stressor checks all the stressors in around-robin fashion to test the CPU with each stressor.

## Prerequisites

Root privileges on the system.

## Procedure

1. Print all available stressor mechanisms, use the **which** option:

## # stress-ng --cpu-method which

cpu-method must be one of: all ackermann bitops callfunc cdouble cfloat clongdouble correlate crc16 decimal32 decimal64 decimal128 dither djb2a double euler explog fft fibonacci float fnv1a gamma gcd gray hamming hanoi hyperbolic idct int128 int64 int32

2. Specify a specific CPU stress method using the **--cpu-method** option:

# stress-ng --cpu 1 --cpu-method fft -t 1m

## 40.9. USING THE VERIFY MODE

The **verify** mode validates the results when a test is active. It sanity checks the memory contents from a test run and reports any unexpected failures.

All stressors do not have the **verify** mode and enabling one will reduce the bogo operation statistics because of the extra verification step being run in this mode.

## Prerequisites

• Root privileges on the system.

## Procedure

• To validate a stress test results, use the **--verify** option:

In this example, **stress-ng** prints the output for an exhaustive memory check on a virtually mapped memory using the  $\mathbf{vm}$  stressor configured with **--verify** mode. It sanity checks the read and write results on the memory.

# CHAPTER 41. TUNING CONTAINERS FOR RHEL FOR REAL-TIME

The main RHEL kernels enable the real time group scheduling feature, **CONFIG\_RT\_GROUP\_SCHED**, by default. However, for real-time kernels, this feature is disabled.

The **CONFIG\_RT\_GROUP\_SCHED** feature was developed independently of the **PREEMPT\_RT** patchset used in the **kernel-rt** package and is intended to operate on real time processes on the main RHEL kernel. The **CONFIG\_RT\_GROUP\_SCHED** feature might cause latency spikes and is therefore disabled on **PREEMPT\_RT** enabled kernels. Therefore, when testing your workload in a container running on the main RHEL kernel, some real-time bandwidth must be allocated to the container to be able to run the **SCHED\_FIFO** or **SCHED\_RR** tasks inside it.

#### Procedure

- 1. Configure the following global setting before using podman's **--cpu-rt-runtime** command line option:
  - # echo 950000 > /sys/fs/cgroup/cpu,cpuacct/machine.slice/cpu.rt\_runtime\_us
- 2. For CPU isolation, use the existing recommendations for setting aside a set of cores for the RT workload.
- 3. Run **podman run --cpuset-cpus** with the list of isolated CPU cores to be used.
- 4. Specify the Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA) memory nodes to use. **podman run --cpuset-mems=**[number\_of\_memory\_nodes]

This avoids cross-NUMA node memory access.

5. To make sure that the minimal amount of memory required by the real time workload running on the container is set aside at container start time, use the **podman run --memory-reservation=**[*limit*] command.

#### Additional resources

• podman-run(1) manual page