IBM eServer Certification Study Guide - AIX 5L Performance and System Tuning

Developed specifically for the purpose of preparing for AIX certification
Makes an excellent companion to classroom education
For experienced AIX professionals

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Stephen Sommer

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Note: Before using this information and the product it supports, read the information in “Notices” on page xiii.

Second Edition (December 2002)

This edition applies to AIX 5L Version 5.1 (5765-E61) and subsequent releases running on an IBM @server pSeries or RS/6000 server.

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Preface

The AIX and IBM pSeries Certifications offered through the Professional Certification Program from IBM are designed to validate the skills required of technical professionals who work in the powerful and often complex environments of AIX and IBM pSeries. A complete set of professional certifications is available. It includes:

- IBM Certified AIX User
- IBM Certified Specialist - Business Intelligence for RS/6000
- IBM Certified Specialist - Domino for RS/6000
- IBM Certified Specialist - p690 Solutions Sales
- IBM Certified Specialist - p690 Technical Support
- IBM Certified Specialist - pSeries Sales
- IBM Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Administration
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- IBM Certified Advanced Technical Expert - pSeries and AIX 5L

Each certification is developed by following a thorough and rigorous process to ensure the exam is applicable to the job role and is a meaningful and appropriate assessment of skill. Subject matter experts who successfully perform the job participate throughout the entire development process. They bring a wealth of experience into the development process, making the exams much more meaningful than the typical test that only captures classroom knowledge and ensuring the exams are relevant to the real world. Thanks to their effort, the test content is both useful and valid. The result of this certification is the value of appropriate measurements of the skills required to perform the job role.

This IBM Redbook is designed as a study guide for professionals wishing to prepare for the AIX 5L Performance and System Tuning certification exam as a selected course of study in order to achieve the IBM Certified Advanced Technical Expert - pSeries and AIX 5L certification.

This IBM Redbook is designed to provide a combination of theory and practical experience needed for a general understanding of the subject matter. It also provides sample questions that will help in the evaluation of personal progress.
and provide familiarity with the types of questions that will be encountered on the exam.

This publication does not replace practical experience, nor is it designed to be a stand-alone guide for any subject. Instead, it is an effective tool that, when combined with education activities and experience, can be a very useful preparation guide for the exam.

For additional information about certification and instructions on how to register for an exam, visit our Web site at:

http://www.ibm.com/certify

The team that wrote this redbook

This redbook was produced by a team of specialists from around the world working at the International Technical Support Organization, Austin Center.

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Chapter 1. Certification overview

This chapter provides an overview of the skill requirements needed to obtain an IBM Advanced Technical Expert certification. The following chapters are designed to provide a comprehensive review of specific topics that are essential for obtaining the certification IBM @server Certified Advanced Technical Expert - pSeries and AIX 5L.

This level certifies an advanced level of AIX knowledge and understanding, both in breadth and depth. It verifies the ability to perform in-depth analysis, apply complex AIX concepts, and provide resolution to critical problems, all in a variety of areas within AIX.
1.1 Certification requirements

To attain the IBM Certified Advanced Technical Expert - pSeries AIX 5L certification, you must pass four tests.

One test is the prerequisite in either pSeries AIX System Administration or pSeries AIX System Support. The other three tests are selected from a variety of pSeries and AIX topics. These requirements are explained in greater detail in the sections that follow.

1.1.1 Required prerequisite

Prior to attaining the IBM Certified Advanced Technical Expert - pSeries and AIX 5L certification, you must be certified as either an:

- IBM Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Administration
- IBM Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Support

1.1.2 Recommended prerequisite

A minimum of six to 12 months experience in performing in-depth analysis and applying complex AIX concepts in a variety of areas within AIX is a recommended prerequisite.

1.1.3 Information and registration for the certification exam

For the latest certification information, see the following Web site:

http://www.ibm.com/certify

1.1.4 Core requirements

Select three of the following exams. You will receive a Certificate of Proficiency for tests when passed.

AIX 5L Installation and System Recovery

Test 233 was developed for this certification.

Preparation for this exam is the topic of IBM Certification Study Guide - AIX Installation and System Recovery, SG24-6183.
AIX 5L Performance and System Tuning

The following objectives were used as a basis when the certification test 234 was developed. Some of these topics have been regrouped to provide better organization when discussed in this publication.

Preparation for this exam is the topic of this publication.

Section I - Measurements and baseline
Section I cover measurements and baseline.

1. Determine successful operating levels for stable/comparable system.
   a. Run the `oslevel` command to determine current OS version.
   b. Run the `ls1pp` command to list installed software.
   c. Run `errpt` to determine if there are any unresolved hardware problems.
2. Take snapshot/baseline of system.
   a. Install `perfagent.tools` fileset.
   b. Install `bos.perf` fileset.
   c. Install `bos.adt.samples` fileset.
   d. Verify that you have the latest filesets for all of the above steps; if not, obtain the latest and install them.
   e. Identify time to take performance measurements.
   f. Run `perfpmr` to gather operating statistics.
   g. Run `no, nfso, vmtune, or schedtune` to gather tuning parameters if appropriate.
   h. Run `wlm` (Workload Manager) to gather tuning parameters.
   i. Run `topas` (Performance Monitoring Tool) to gather tuning parameters.
3. Establish performance policies for the new system (system to be tuned).
   a. Determine which measurements are relevant.
   b. Define (using Service Level Agreements) what a well-behaved system is.

Section II - Performance monitoring and analysis
Section II covers performance monitoring and analysis.

1. Determine if CPU bound.
   a. Run `vmstat, iostat, sar, or topas` to gather CPU utilization information.
   b. Add `%user and %sys` to determine if CPU bound.
2. If CPU bound, run additional tools like `tprof` and `ps` to determine which process is causing the bottleneck. Determine if memory bound.
a. Run `vmstat` to gather memory utilization information.
b. Look at pi and po output columns to determine if memory bound.
c. Use `/proc` to determine if the system is memory bound.
d. If memory bound, run tools like `svmon` and `ps` to determine which process is causing the bottleneck.

3. Determine if I/O bound.
   a. Run `iostat` or `topas` to gather disk I/O utilization information.
   b. Look at `%iowait` and `%tm_act` to determine if I/O bound.
   c. If I/O bound, run tools like `filemon`, `fileplace`, and `ls1v` to determine which process, disk, or adapter is causing the bottleneck.

4. Determine if network bound.
   a. Run `netpmone`, `netstat`, or `nfsstat` to gather network utilization information.
   b. Run `entstat` or `fddistat` to gather adapter-specific information.
   c. Look at output to determine if network bound.
   d. If network bound, run tools like `no`, `netpmone`, `nfso`, or `lsattr` to assist in determining the cause of the bottleneck.

Section III - Tuning
Section III covers tuning.

1. Tune application.
   Analyze application with profiling tools like `tprof`, `gprof`, and `prof` to identify potential code optimization opportunities.

2. Tune CPU.
   a. Balance system workload.
   b. Tune scheduler using `nice`/`renice` to give different priorities to running processes (prevent CPU hogging).
   c. Tune scheduler algorithm using `schedtune` to fine tune priority formulas, setting timeslices.

3. Tune memory.
   a. Add more real memory to increase available memory.
   b. Tune virtual memory manager using `vmtune` command.
   c. Tune memory overcommitment algorithm using `schedtune` command to prevent thrashing.

4. Tune I/O.
a. Place data on physical disks appropriately (striping) using tools such as `reorgvg`, `migratemp`, or `ch1v`.
b. Use `vmtune` to modify file system, lvm, and paging parameters.
c. Use `chgsys` to tune high/low water marks for pending write I/Os (I/O pacing).
d. Place JFS logs on different physical disks from file system data.
e. Defragment files; make them contiguous.

5. Tune network.
   a. Tune transmit and receive queues using `chdev`.
   b. Use `no` to tune TCP/IP options.
   c. Use `ifconfig` or `no` to adjust MTU size appropriate for your network topology.
   d. Use `/etc/netsvc.conf` or `NSORDER` environment variable to override default order for name resolution.
   e. Tune NFS options (if appropriate).

Section IV - System sizing
Section IV covers system sizing.

1. Gather additional information.
   a. Run performance monitoring tools to gather additional information.
   b. Analyze data to predict future system requirements.

2. Use sizing tools.
   Analyze results of sizing tool.

AIX 5L Problem Determination Tools and Techniques
Test 235 was developed for this certification.
Preparation for this exam is the topic of IBM® Certification Study Guide - AIX Problem Determination Tools and Techniques, SG24-6185.

AIX 5L Communications
Test 236 was developed for this certification.
Preparation for this exam is the topic of IBM® Certification Study Guide - AIX Communications, SG24-6186.

pSeries HACMP for AIX
Test 187 was developed for this certification.
Preparation for this exam is the topic of IBM Certification Study Guide - pSeries HACMP for AIX, SG24-6187.

RS/6000 SP and PSSP V3.1
Test 188 was developed for this certification.

Preparation for this exam is the topic of IBM Certification Study Guide - RS/6000 SP, SG24-5348.

p690 Technical Support
Test 195 was developed for this certification.

An IBM Redbook is planned for first quarter 2003 on this subject.

1.2 Certification education courses

Courses are offered to help you prepare for the certification tests. For a current list, visit the following Web site, locate your test number, and select the education resources available:

Performance tuning: Getting started

In this chapter, the following topics are covered:

▶ Introduction to concepts and tools
▶ Performance tuning flowchart

In general, the performance tuning issues can be divided into two areas:

▶ System management
▶ Application development

The application developer will usually view performance more from a user's perspective than a system perspective; for example, the user response time and system interactions are the concerns addressed during the design phase, not the overall system performance. This aspect of performance tuning, optimization of code, is outside the scope of this publication. This publication focuses on the system management aspects.

Many of the commands introduced in this chapter are discussed in detail throughout this publication (as referenced).
2.1 Introduction to concepts

Performance management, from a system management point of view, is usually concentrated on the allocation of existing resources, but also includes allocation of additional resources and establishment of system policies. Therefore, performance tuning can be defined as the application and allocation of resources to best meet the defined requirements and goals.

From this definition of performance tuning, the following list provides a set of tasks that are part of performance tuning:

1. Identify the workload.

   If the system to tune is a workstation, then the most probable goal is fast response time.

   If the system is a multiuser environment, the goal is to maximize throughput within a given response time or minimize response time under a consistent workload.

   If the system is a server, maximizing throughput for a given response time is usually the goal.

2. Define and prioritizing goals.

   Before starting a tuning exercise, you need to have clear goals in mind. In other words, how will you know when you have finished tuning the system? Bear in mind that response time and throughput are not the same thing and that you need to focus on one or the other for each application. It is also important to realize that tuning is a process of compromise—that you will likely be taking resources away from one application to give to another. A clear understanding of the relative priorities that operate in your environment is also an essential prerequisite to tuning your system.

3. Identify the required resources.

   Performance of a given workload is determined by the availability and speed of certain critical resources. Resources can be divided into two areas: Physical resources and logical resources. Table 2-1 provides examples of hardware resources with their logical resources.

   From the points discussed, steps 1 through 3 are part of planning and researching.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hardware resource</th>
<th>Logical resource</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPU</td>
<td>Process time slice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-1 Hardware resources and logical resources
4. Minimize resource requirements.

   Resource requirements can be minimized by using optimized code, organizing data efficiently, rescheduling low-prioritized jobs, making the right choice when to use remote resources, and so on. This is the stage where the actual hands-on tuning will occur.

5. Control allocation of resources.

   Resources to control include disk space and process priority control. Disk space for users, or groups of users, can easily be managed with a quota, and process priority can be handled with the Workload Manager or by manipulating the scheduler.

6. Repeat steps 3 to 5 as necessary.

7. Add additional resources as required.

In the following section, a common performance tuning flowchart will be briefly discussed.

### 2.2 CPU performance overview

When investigating a performance problem, CPU constraint is probably the easiest to find. That is why most performance analysts start by checking for CPU constraints, and then work their way through the flowchart shown in Figure 2-1 on page 10.
If a system is CPU bound, investigation should focus on the two entities using the CPU: Processes and threads. The CPU's basic work unit is the thread, so a process must have at least one thread. Commonly (on AIX Version 4), a process is multi-threaded, which means that a process can use multiple threads to accomplish its task. In Figure 2-2 on page 11, the relationship between processes and threads is symbolized.

When initiating a process, the first resource to be allocated is a slot in the process table; before this slot is assigned, the process is in SNONE state. While the process is undergoing creation (waiting for resources [memory] to be allocated) it is in SIDL state. These two states are together called the I state.
When a process is in the A state, one or more of its threads are in the R state. This means they are ready to run. A thread in this state has to compete for the CPU with all other threads in the R state. Only one process can use the CPU at any given time.

If a thread is waiting for an event or for the I/O, the thread is said to be sleeping, or in the S state. When the I/O is complete, the thread is awakened and placed in the ready-to-run queue.

If a thread is stopped with the SIGSTOP signal (to be awakened with the SIGCONT signal), it is in the T state while suspended.

Manipulating the run queue, the process and thread dispatcher, and priority calculation are all ways to tune (and misstune, if not carefully done) the CPU. The run queue and how to decide which thread is to be prioritized is discussed in Chapter 6, “Performance management tools” on page 205.

When tuning the CPU, you need to know what can be tuned on a process level and what can be tuned on a thread level and choose accordingly. Table 2-2 on
page 12 provides a list that associates several process-related properties with thread-related properties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process properties</th>
<th>Thread properties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PID and PGID</td>
<td>TID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UID and GID</td>
<td>Stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Scheduling policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cwd</td>
<td>Pending signals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>File descriptors</td>
<td>Blocked signals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When working in the area of CPU performance tuning, you should use historical performance information for comparison reasons. Usually, performance has subjective viewpoints. To avoid confusion, hard copies of performance statistics, from a time when users did not report poor system performance, should be filed. A very useful tool for this task is the `sar` command.

### 2.2.1 The sar command

Two shell scripts, `/usr/lib/sa/sa1` and `/usr/lib/sa/sa2`, are structured to be run by the `cron` command and provide daily statistics and reports. Sample stanzas are included (but commented out) in the `/var/spool/cron/crontabs/adm crontab` file to specify when the cron daemon should run the shell scripts. The sa1 script creates one output file each day and the sa2 script collects data and saves the data for one week. Another useful feature of `sar` is that the output can be specific about the usage for each processor in a multiprocessor environment, as seen in the following output. The last line is an average output.

```
# sar -P ALL 2 1
AIX client1 3 4 0008C6D0C000 07/06/00
14:46:52 cpu %usr %sys %wio %idle
14:46:54 0 0 0 0 100
  1 0 1 0  99
  2 0 0 0 100
  3 0 0 0 100
-  0 0 0 100
```

More information on the `sar` command can be found in 3.1, “The sar command” on page 40.
Occasionally, the time spent in an application execution or an application startup can be useful to have as reference material. The `time` command can be used for this.

## 2.3 The time command

Use the `time` command to understand the performance characteristics of a single program and its synchronous children. It reports the real time, that is, the elapsed time from beginning to end of the program. It also reports the amount of CPU time used by the program. The CPU time is divided into user and sys components. The user value is the time used by the program itself and any library subroutines it calls. The sys value is the time used by system calls invoked by the program (directly or indirectly). An example output follows:

```bash
# time ./tctestprg4
real    0m5.08s
user    0m1.00s
sys     0m1.59s
```

The sum of user + sys is the total direct CPU cost of executing the program. This does not include the CPU costs of parts of the kernel that can be said to run on behalf of the program, but which do not actually run on the program's thread. For example, the cost of stealing page frames to replace the page frames taken from the free list when the program started is not reported as part of the program's CPU consumption. Another example of the `time` command is provided in 7.1, "CPU performance scenario" on page 250.

When starting to analyze a performance problem, most analysts start with the `vmstat` command, because it provides a brief overall picture of both CPU and memory usage.

### 2.3.1 The vmstat command

The `vmstat` command reports statistics about kernel threads, virtual memory, disks, traps, and CPU activity. Reports generated by the `vmstat` command can be used to balance system load activity. These system-wide statistics (among all processors) are calculated as averages for values expressed as percentages, and as sums otherwise. Most interesting from a CPU point of view are the highlighted two left-hand columns and the highlighted four right-hand columns in the following output:

```bash
# vmstat 2 4
kthr memory page faults cpu
----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
 r b avm fre re pi po fr sr cy in sy cs us sy id wa
```
The r column shows threads in the R state, while the b column shows threads in S state, as shown in Figure 2-2 on page 11. The four right-hand columns are a breakdown in percentages of CPU time used on user threads, system threads, CPU idle time (running the wait process), and CPU idle time when the system had outstanding disk or NFS I/O requests. For further discussion on the \texttt{vmstat} command, see 3.2, “The \texttt{vmstat} command” on page 53.

If a system has poor performance because of a lot of threads on the run queue or many threads waiting for I/O, then the \texttt{ps} command output is useful to determine which process has used the most CPU resources.

### 2.3.2 The \texttt{ps} command

The \texttt{ps} command is a flexible tool for identifying the programs that are running on the system and the resources they are using. It displays statistics and status information about processes on the system, such as process or thread ID, I/O activity, CPU, and memory utilization. In 3.3, “The \texttt{ps} command” on page 61, the \texttt{ps} command output relevant to a CPU tuning perspective is discussed.

When looking for a run-away process, the next step in the analysis is to find out which part of the process uses the CPU. For this, a profiler is needed. The AIX profiler of preference is \texttt{tprof}.

### 2.3.3 The \texttt{tprof} command

The \texttt{tprof} command can be run over a time period to trace the activity of the CPU. The CPU utilization is divided into kernel, user, shared, and other to show how many clock timer ticks were spent in each respective address space. If the user column shows high values, application tuning may be necessary. More information about the \texttt{tprof} command can be found in 3.4, “The \texttt{tprof} command” on page 67.

When finding a process that cannot be optimized, another way to tune the process is to lessen its priority in the run queue. This can be accomplished by grouping processes together to be handled by AIX Version 4.3 Workload Manager or by use of the \texttt{nice} and \texttt{renice} commands.
2.3.4 The nice and renice commands

The `nice` command can run a process at a priority lower than the process’ normal priority. You must have root user authority to run a process at a higher priority. The priority of a process is often called its `nice` value, but while the priority of a process is recalculated at every clock timer tick, the nice value is stable and manipulated with the `nice` or `renice` commands. The nice value can range from 0 to 39, with 39 being the lowest priority. For example, if a process normally runs with a default nice value of 20, resetting the nice value with an increment of 5 runs the process at a lower priority, 25, and the process may run slower. More information about the priorities and nice values can be found in 6.1.1, “Priority calculation on AIX versions prior to 4.3.2” on page 207, 6.1.2, “Priority calculation on AIX Version 4.3.2 and later” on page 210, and 6.3.2, “The nice and renice commands” on page 218.

Finally, in the list of common performance tools, there is the `schedtune` command. This command is mentioned last for a reason: Do not manipulate the scheduler without thorough knowledge of the scheduler mechanism.

2.3.5 The schedtune command

The priority of most user processes varies with the amount of CPU time the process has used recently. The CPU scheduler's priority calculations are based on two variables, SCHED_R (the weighting factor) and SCHED_D (the decay factor). More information about the scheduler and the `schedtune` command is covered in 6.1, “The AIX scheduler” on page 206, and in 6.3.1, “The schedtune command” on page 214.

2.4 Memory performance overview

Memory in AIX is handled by the Virtual Memory Manager (VMM). The Virtual Memory Manager is a facility that makes real memory appear larger than its physical size. The virtual memory system is composed of real memory plus physical disk space where portions of memory that are not currently in use are stored.

The physical part of the virtual memory is divided into three types of segments that reflect where the data is stored. This is symbolized in Figure 2-3 on page 16.
The three types of segments are as follows:

- **Persistent segment**
  
  A persistent segment persists after use by a process and has (and uses) permanent storage locations on disks. Files containing data or executable programs are mapped to persistent segments. AIX accesses all files as mapped files. This means that programs or file access are started with only a few initial disk pages, which are copied into virtual storage segments. Further pages are page-faulted in on demand.

- **Working segment**
  
  A working segment is transitory and only exists during use by the owning process. It has no permanent disk storage location and therefore is stored to paging space if free page frames in real memory are needed. For example, kernel text segments and the process stack are mapped onto working segments.

- **Client segment**
  
  A client segment is where the pages are brought in by CDRFS, NFS, or any other remote file system.
A process can use all of these segments, but from a process perspective the VMM is logically divided into:

- **Code and data segments**
  
The code segment is the executable. This could be placed in a persistent (local) or a client (remote executable) segment. The data segment is data needed for the execution, for example, the process environment.

- **Private and shared segments**
  
The private segment can be a working segment containing data for the process, for example, global variables, allocated memory, and the stack. Segments can also be shared among processes, for example, processes can share code segments, yet have private data segments.

The relationship between the segments is shown in Figure 2-4.

From a process point of view, the memory is further divided into 16 segments, each pointed to by a segment register. These segment registers are hardware registers located on the processor. When a process is active, the registers contain the addresses of the 16 segments addressable by that process. Each segment contains a specific set of information. A generic example is shown in Figure 2-5 on page 18.
Each segment is further divided into 4069-byte pages of information. Each page sits on a 4 KB partition of the disk known as a slot. The VMM is responsible for allocating real memory page frames and resolving references to pages that are not currently in memory. In other words, when the system needs to reference a page that is not currently in memory, the VMM is responsible for finding and resolving the reference of the disk frame.

The VMM maintains a list of free page frames that is used to accommodate pages that must be brought into memory. In memory-constrained environments, the VMM must occasionally replenish the free list by moving some of the current data from real memory. This is called page stealing. A page fault is a request to load a 4-KB data page from disk. A number of places are searched in order to find data.

First, the data and instruction caches are searched. Next, the Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) is searched. This is an index of recently used virtual addresses with their page frame IDs. If the data is not in the TLB, the Page Frame Table (PTF) is consulted. This is an index for all real memory pages, and this index is held in pinned memory. The table is large; therefore, there are
indexes to this index. The Hash Anchor Table (HAT) links pages of related segments in order to get a faster entry point to the main PTF.

To the page stealer, memory is divided into computational memory and file memory.

- Computational memory consists of pages that belong to the working segment or program text segment.
- File memory consists of the remaining pages. These are usually pages from the permanent data file in persistent memory.

The page stealer tries to balance these two types of memory usage when stealing pages. The page replacement algorithm can be manipulated.

When starting a process, a slot is assigned, and when a process references a virtual memory page that is on the disk, the referenced page must be paged in and probably one or more pages must be paged out, creating I/O traffic and delaying the start up of the process. AIX attempts to steal real memory pages that are unlikely to be referenced in the near future, using a page replacement algorithm. If the system has too little memory, no RAM pages are good candidates to be paged out, as they will be reused in the near future. When this happens, continuous page in and page out occurs. This condition is called thrashing.

When discussing memory, the allocation algorithm is commonly mentioned. The following is a discussion from AIX Version 4.3 System Management Concepts: Operating System and Devices, SC23-4311, on the allocation algorithm:

The operating system uses the PSALLOC environment variable to determine the mechanism used for memory and paging space allocation. If the PSALLOC environment variable is not set, is set to null, or is set to any value other than early, the system uses the default late allocation algorithm.

The late allocation algorithm does not reserve paging space when a memory request is made; it approves the request and assigns paging space when pages are touched. Some programs allocate large amounts of virtual memory and then use only a fraction of the memory. Examples of such programs are technical applications that use sparse vectors or matrices as data structures. The late allocation algorithm is also more efficient for a real-time, demand-paged kernel such as the one in the operating system.

For AIX Version 4.3.2 and later, the late allocation algorithm is modified to further delay the allocation of paging space. As mentioned previously, before AIX Version 4.3.2, paging space was allocated when a page was touched. However, this paging space may never be used, especially on systems with large real memory where paging is rare. Therefore, the allocation of paging space is delayed until it is necessary to page out the page, which results in no
wasted paging space allocation. This does result, however, in additional over-commitment of paging space. On a system where enough virtual memory is accessed that paging is necessary, the amount of paging space required may be as much as was required on previous releases.

It is possible to overcommit resources when using the late allocation algorithm for paging space allocation. In this case, when one process gets the resource before another, a failure results. The operating system attempts to avoid complete system failure by killing processes affected by the resource over-commitment. The SIGDANGER signal is sent to notify processes that the amount of free paging space is low. If the paging space situation reaches an even more critical state, selected processes that did not receive the SIGDANGER signal are sent a SIGKILL signal.

The user can use the PSALLOC environment variable to switch to an early allocation algorithm for memory and paging space allocation. The early allocation mechanism allocates paging space for the executing process at the time the memory is requested. If there is insufficient paging space available at the time of the request, the early allocation mechanism fails the memory request.

The new paging space allocation algorithm introduced with AIX Version 4.3.2 is also named Deferred Page Space Allocation (DPSA). After a page has been paged out to paging space, the disk block is reserved for that page if that page is paged back into RAM. Therefore, the paging space percentage-used value may not necessarily reflect the number of pages only in the paging space, because some of them may be back in RAM. If the page that was paged back in is the working storage of a thread, and if the thread releases the memory associated with that page or if the thread exits, then the disk block for that page is released. This affects the output for the `ps` command and the `svmon` command on Version 4.3.3. For more information on the differences between AIX Version 4.3.2 and Version 4.3.3 refer to AIX Version 4.3 System Management Concepts: Operating System and Devices, SC23-4311.

When working with memory performance tuning, the first command to use is usually the `vmstat` command.

### 2.4.1 The `vmstat` command

The `vmstat` command summarizes the total active virtual memory used by all of the processes running on the system, as well as the number of real-memory page frames on the free list. Active virtual memory is defined as the number of virtual-memory working segment pages that actually have been touched. This number can be larger than the number of real page frames in the machine because some of the active virtual-memory pages may have been written out to paging space.
When determining if a system is short on memory or if some memory tuning is required, use the `vmstat` command over a set interval and examine the pi and po columns on the resulting report. These columns indicate the number of paging space page-ins per second and the number of paging space page-outs per second. If the values are constantly non-zero, there may be a memory bottleneck. Having occasional non-zero values is not a concern, because paging is the main principle of virtual memory.

From a VMM tuning perspective, the middle (highlighted) columns are the most interesting. They provide information about the use of virtual and real memory and information about page faults and paging activity.

```
# vmstat 2 4
```

The highlighted columns are described Table 2-3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>avm</td>
<td>Active virtual pages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fre</td>
<td>Size of the free list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re</td>
<td>Pager input/output list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pi</td>
<td>Pages paged in from paging space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po</td>
<td>Pages paged out to paging space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fr</td>
<td>Pages freed (page replacement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sr</td>
<td>Pages scanned by page-replacement algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cy</td>
<td>Clock cycles by page-replacement algorithm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For more information about the `vmstat` command, see 3.2, “The vmstat command” on page 53.

**Note:** A large portion of real memory is utilized as a cache for file system data. It is not unusual for the size of the free list to remain small.
Another tool used in the initial phase of VMM tuning is the **ps** command.

### 2.4.2 The **ps** command

The **ps** command can also be used to monitor the memory usage of individual processes. The **ps v PID** command provides the most comprehensive report on memory-related statistics for an individual process, as discussed in 3.3, “The **ps** command” on page 61.

In the previous discussion, the paging space function of VMM was mentioned. The **lsps** command is an useful tool to check paging-space utilization.

### 2.4.3 The **lsps** command

The **lsps** command displays the characteristics of paging spaces, such as the paging-space name, physical-volume name, volume-group name, size, percentage of the paging space used, whether the space is active or inactive, and whether the paging space is set to be automatically initiated at system boot. The following is an example of the **lsps** command using the -a flag. The -s flag is useful when a summary and total percentage used over several disks is required.

```bash
# lsps -a
Page Space  Physical Volume   Volume Group    Size   %Used  Active Auto Type
hd6         hdisk2            rootvg        1024MB       1     yes   yes    lv
```

When finding problems with memory usage, the **svmon** command provides a more detailed report on what processes are using what segments of memory.

### 2.4.4 The **svmon** command

The **svmon** command provides a more in-depth analysis of memory usage. It is more informative, but also more intrusive, than the **vmstat** and **ps** commands. The **svmon** command captures a snapshot of the current state of memory. There are some significant changes in the flags and in the output from the **svmon** command between AIX Version 4.3.2 and Version 4.3.3. This is discussed in more detail in 3.5, “The **svmon** command” on page 70.

The command to use when tuning memory management is the **vmtune** command.

### 2.4.5 The **vmtune** command

The memory management algorithm tries to keep the size of the free list and the percentage of real memory occupied by persistent segment pages within specified bounds. These bounds can be altered with the **vmtune** command, which
can only be run by the root user. Changes made by this tool remain in effect until the next system reboot. More information on the \texttt{vmtune} command can be found in 6.5, “The \texttt{vmtune} command” on page 222.

To test how much (or, perhaps, little) memory is needed for a certain server load, use the \texttt{rmss} command.

\subsection*{2.4.6 The \texttt{rmss} command}

The \texttt{rmss} command simulates a system with various sizes of real memory, without having to extract and replace memory boards. By running an application at several memory sizes and collecting performance statistics, you can determine the memory needed to run an application with acceptable performance. The \texttt{rmss} command can be invoked for the following purposes.

\begin{itemize}
  \item To change the memory size and then exit. This lets you experiment freely with a given memory size.
  \item To function as a driver program. In this mode, the \texttt{rmss} command executes a specified command multiple times over a range of memory sizes, and displays important statistics describing command performance at each memory size. The command can be an executable or shell script file, with or without command line arguments.
\end{itemize}

\section*{2.5 Disk I/O performance overview}

The set of operating system commands, library subroutines, and other tools that allow you to establish and control logical volume storage is called the Logical Volume Manager (LVM). The LVM controls disk resources by mapping data between simple and flexible logical views of storage space and the physical disks. The LVM does this using a layer of device driver code that runs above traditional disk device drivers.

The LVM consists of the logical volume device driver (LVDD) and the LVM subroutine interface library. The logical volume device driver is a pseudo-device driver that manages and processes all I/Os. It translates logical addresses into physical addresses and sends I/O requests to specific device drivers. When a process requests a disk read or write, the operation involves the file system, VMM, and LVM, as shown in Figure 2-6 on page 24.
Each individual disk drive, called a physical volume (PV), is named, such as /dev/hdisk0. If the physical volume is in use, it belongs to a volume group (VG). All of the physical volumes in a volume group are divided into physical partitions (PPs) of the same size (by default, 4 MB in volume groups that include physical volumes smaller than 4 GB; 8 MB or more with larger disks).

Within each volume group, one or more logical volumes (LVs) are defined. Each logical volume consists of one or more logical partitions. Each logical partition corresponds to at least one physical partition. If mirroring is specified for the logical volume, additional physical partitions are allocated to store the additional copies of each logical partition. Although the logical partitions are numbered consecutively, the underlying physical partitions are not necessarily consecutive or contiguous.

Figure 2-7 on page 25 shows the relationship and dependencies between the logical picture of the volume group with its corresponding physical layout.
Logical volumes can serve a number of system purposes, such as paging, but each logical volume that holds ordinary system data, user data, or programs contains a single journaled file system (JFS). Each JFS consists of a pool of page-size (4096-byte) blocks. When data is written to a file, one or more additional blocks are allocated to that file. These blocks may or may not be contiguous with one another and with other blocks previously allocated to the file. These blocks may or may not be contiguous with one another and with other blocks previously allocated to the file.

In AIX Version 4, a given file system can be defined as having a fragment size of less than 4096 bytes. A fragment size can be set to 512, 1024, or 2048 bytes, allowing small files to be stored more efficiently.

While an operating system's file is conceptually a sequential and contiguous string of bytes, the physical reality is very different. Fragmentation may arise from multiple extensions to logical volumes, as well as allocation/release/reallocation activity within a file system. A file system is fragmented when its available space consists of large numbers of small chunks of space, making it impossible to write out a new file in contiguous blocks.

Access to files in a highly fragmented file system may result in a large number of seeks and longer I/O response times (seek latency dominates I/O response times).
time). For example, if the file is accessed sequentially, a file placement that consists of many widely separated chunks requires more seeks than a placement that consists of one or a few large contiguous chunks.

If the file is accessed randomly, a placement that is widely dispersed requires longer seeks than a placement where the file’s blocks are close together.

The VMM tries to anticipate the future need for pages of a sequential file by observing the pattern a program uses to access the file. When the program accesses two successive pages of the file, the VMM assumes that the program will continue to access the file sequentially, and the VMM schedules additional sequential reads of the file. This is called \textit{Sequential-Access Read Ahead}. These reads are overlapped with the program processing, and will make the data available to the program sooner than if the VMM had waited for the program to access the next page before initiating the I/O. The number of pages to be read ahead is determined by two VMM thresholds:

\begin{description}
\item[\texttt{minpgahead}] A number of pages read ahead when the VMM first detects the sequential access pattern. If the program continues to access the file sequentially, the next read ahead will be for $2 \times \text{minpgahead}$, the next for $4 \times \text{minpgahead}$, and so on until the number of pages reaches \texttt{maxpgahead}.
\item[\texttt{maxpgahead}] A maximum number of pages the VMM will read ahead in a sequential file.
\end{description}

If the program deviates from the sequential-access pattern and accesses a page of the file out of order, sequential read ahead is terminated. It will be resumed with \texttt{minpgahead} pages if the VMM detects a resumption of sequential access by the program. The values of \texttt{minpgahead} and \texttt{maxpgahead} can be set with the \texttt{vmtune} command. More information on the \texttt{vmtune} command can be found in 6.5, “The vmtune command” on page 222.

To increase write performance, limit the number of dirty file pages in memory, reduce system overhead, and minimize disk fragmentation, the file system divides each file into 16 KB partitions. The pages of a given partition are not written to disk until the program writes the first byte of the next 16 KB partition. At that point, the file system forces the four dirty pages of the first partition to be written to disk. The pages of data remain in memory until their frames are reused. If a program accesses any of the pages before their frames are reused, no I/O is required.

If a large number of dirty file pages remains in memory and do not get reused, the sync daemon writes them to disk, which may result in abnormal disk utilization. To distribute the I/O activity more efficiently across the workload, \textit{write-behind} can be turned on to tell the system how many pages to keep in
memory before writing them to disk. The write-behind threshold is on a per-file basis, which causes pages to be written to disk before the sync daemon runs. The I/O is spread more evenly throughout the workload.

There are two types of write-behind: Sequential and random. The size of the write-behind partitions and the write-behind threshold can be changed with the `vmtune` command.

Normal files are automatically mapped to segments to provide mapped files. This means that normal file access bypasses traditional kernel buffers and block I/O routines, allowing files to use more memory when the extra memory is available (file caching is not limited to the declared kernel buffer area).

Because most writes are asynchronous, FIFO I/O queues of several megabytes can build up, which can take several seconds to complete. The performance of an interactive process is severely impacted if every disk read spends several seconds working its way through the queue. In response to this problem, the VMM has an option called `I/O pacing` to control writes.

I/O pacing does not change the interface or processing logic of I/O. It simply limits the number of I/Os that can be outstanding against a file. When a process tries to exceed that limit, it is suspended until enough outstanding requests have been processed to reach a lower threshold.

Disk-I/O pacing is intended to prevent programs that generate very large amounts of output from saturating the system's I/O facilities and causing the response times of less-demanding programs to deteriorate. Disk-I/O pacing enforces per-segment (which effectively means per-file) high and low water marks on the sum of all pending I/Os. When a process tries to write to a file that already has high water mark pending writes, the process is put to sleep until enough I/Os have completed to make the number of pending writes less than or equal to the low water mark. The logic of I/O-request handling does not change. The output from high-volume processes is slowed down somewhat.

When gathering information on I/O performance, the first command to use is the `iostat` command.

### 2.5.1 The iostat command

The `iostat` command is used for monitoring system input/output device loading by observing the time the physical disks are active in relation to their average transfer rates. This command generates reports that can be used to change the system configuration to better balance the input/output load between physical disks and adapters. The `iostat` command gathers its information on the protocol layer.
AIX Version 4.3.3 and later contain enhancements to the method used to compute the percentage of CPU time spent waiting on disk I/O (wio time). The method used in AIX Version 4.3.2 and earlier versions of the operating system can, under certain circumstances, give an inflated view of wio time on SMPs. The wio time is reported by the commands `sar (%wio)`, `vmstat (wa)`, and `iostat (%iowait)`.

In AIX Version 4.3.2 and earlier, at each clock timer tick interrupt on each processor (100 times a second per processor), a determination is made as to which of the four categories (usr/sys/wio/idle) to place the last 10 ms of time. If the CPU was busy in usr mode at the time of the clock interrupt, then usr gets the clock tick added into its category. If the CPU was busy in kernel mode at the time of the clock interrupt, then the sys category gets the tick. If the CPU was not busy, a check is made to see if any I/O-to-disk is in progress. If it is in progress, the wio category is incremented. If no disk I/O is in progress and the CPU is not busy, the idle category gets the tick.

The inflated view of wio time results from all idle CPUs being categorized as wio regardless of the number of threads waiting on I/O. For example, systems with just one thread doing I/O could report over 90 percent wio time, regardless of the number of CPUs it has.

The change in AIX Version 4.3.3 is to mark only an idle CPU as wio if an outstanding I/O was started on that CPU. This method can report much lower wio times when just a few threads are doing I/O and the system is otherwise idle. For example, a system with four CPUs and one thread doing I/O will report a maximum of 25 percent wio time. A system with 12 CPUs and one thread doing I/O will report a maximum of 8.3 percent wio time.

Also, NFS now goes through the buffer cache and waits in those routines are accounted for in the wa statistics.

Another change is that the wa column details the percentage of time the CPU was idle with pending disk I/O to not only local, but also NFS-mounted disks.

More information about the `iostat` command can be found in 4.2, “The iostat command” on page 118.

When experiencing performance problems due to disk I/O, the next step is to find the file system causing the problem. This can be done with the `filemon` command.

2.5.2 The filemon command

The `filemon` command uses the trace facility to obtain a detailed picture of I/O activity during a time interval on the various layers of file system utilization,
including the logical file system, virtual memory segments, LVM, and physical disk layers. Both summary and detailed reports are generated. More information about the filemon command can be found in 4.5.1, “The filemon command” on page 141.

If a file is identified as the problem, the fileplace command can be used to see how the file is stored.

2.5.3 The fileplace command

The fileplace command displays the placement of a specified file within the logical or physical volumes containing the file. By default, the fileplace command lists, to standard output, the ranges of logical volume fragments allocated to the specified file. More information about the fileplace command can be found in 4.6.2, “Enhanced journaled file system (JFS2)” on page 152.

If a logical volume is identified as a problem, the lslv command can provide useful information.

2.5.4 The lslv command

The lslv command shows, among other information, the logical volume fragmentation. If the workload shows a significant degree of I/O dependency, you can use the lslv command to investigate the physical placement of the files on the disk to determine if reorganization at some level would yield an improvement. More information about the lslv command can be found in 4.4.2, “Logical volume fragmentation” on page 138, and 4.9.3, “The lslv command” on page 165.

2.6 Network performance overview

When performance problems arise and you look for the cause, your local system may not have a problem, while the real problem is buildings away. An easy way to tell if the network is affecting overall performance is to compare those operations that involve the network with those that do not. If you are running a program that does a considerable amount of remote reads and writes and it is running slowly, but everything else seems to be running normally, then it is probably a network problem. Some of the potential network bottlenecks can be caused by the following:

- Client-network interface
- Network bandwidth
- Network topology
A large part of network tuning involves tuning TCP/IP to achieve maximum throughput. With the high-bandwidth interfaces such as FIDDI and Gigabit Ethernet, this has become even more important. Before attempting to tune network parameters, it helps to understand their use in the processing layer they affect. Figure 2-8 shows the layers involved in a read or write activity across TCP/IP and provides the network parameters used in each layer.

Chapter 5, “Network performance tools” on page 171, discusses, in more detail, how to set mbufs and clusters, network packet settings, and adapter settings for network performance tuning.
The first command to use for gathering information on network performance is the netstat command.

### 2.6.1 The netstat command

The `netstat` command symbolically displays the contents of various network-related data structures for active connections. The `netstat` command can also provide useful information on a per-protocol basis. For more information on the `netstat` command, see 5.4.3, “The netstat command” on page 180.

If the performance problem is due to NFS load, the nfsstat command is useful.

### 2.6.2 The nfsstat command

NFS gathers statistics on types of NFS operations performed, along with error information and performance indicators. You can use the `nfsstat` command to identify network problems and observe the type of NFS operations taking place on your system. The `nfsstat` command displays statistical information about the NFS and Remote Procedure Call (RPC) interfaces to the kernel. The `nfsstat` command splits its information into server and client parts. For example, use the command:

- **netstat** -r to see how an application uses NFS
  
The output is divided into server connection- and connectionless-oriented, as well as client connection- and connectionless-oriented.

- **nfsstat** -s to see the server report
  
The NFS server displays the number of NFS calls received (calls) and rejected (badcalls) due to authentication, as well as the counts and percentages for the various kinds of calls made.

- **nfsstat** -c to see the client part
  
The NFS client displays the number of calls sent and rejected, as well as the number of times a client handle was received (clgets) and a count of the various kinds of calls and their respective percentages. For performance monitoring, the `nfsstat -c` command provides information on whether the network is dropping UDP packets. A network may drop a packet if it cannot handle it. Dropped packets can be the result of the response time of the network hardware or software or an overloaded CPU on the server. Dropped packets are not actually lost, because a replacement request is issued for them.

A high badxid count implies that requests are reaching the various NFS servers, but the servers are too loaded to send replies before the client's RPC calls time out and are retransmitted. The badxid value is incremented each
time a duplicate reply is received for a transmitted request (an RPC request retains its XID through all transmission cycles). Excessive retransmissions place an additional strain on the server, further degrading response time. The retrans column displays the number of times requests were retransmitted due to a time-out while waiting for a response. This situation is related to dropped UDP packets. If the retrans number consistently exceeds five percent of the total calls in column one, it indicates a problem with the server keeping up with demand.

For example, to display the number of RPC and NFS call-related information for the client and server, enter:

```
# nfsstat -rs
```

Server rpc:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>calls</th>
<th>badcalls</th>
<th>nullrecv</th>
<th>badlen</th>
<th>xdrcall</th>
<th>dupchecks</th>
<th>dupreqs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Connectionless

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>calls</th>
<th>badcalls</th>
<th>nullrecv</th>
<th>badlen</th>
<th>xdrcall</th>
<th>dupchecks</th>
<th>dupreqs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RPC output for the server is as follows:

- **calls**: Total number of RPC calls received from clients.
- **badcalls**: Total number of calls rejected by the RPC layer.
- **nullrecv**: Number of times an RPC call was not available when it was thought to be received. If the number starts to grow, it may mean there are too many nfsd daemons.
- **badlen**: Packets truncated or damaged (number of RPC calls with a length shorter than a minimum-sized RPC call).
- **xdrcall**: Number of RPC calls whose header could not be External Data Representation (XDR) decoded.
- **dupchecks**: Number of RPC calls looked up in the duplicate request cache.
- **dupreqs**: Number of duplicate RPC calls found.

When requiring a more detailed output, the `netpmon` command, a trace facility, is useful.

### 2.6.3 The netpmon command

The `netpmon` command monitors a trace of system events, and reports on network activity and performance during the monitored interval. By default, the
netpmon command runs in the background while one or more application programs or system commands are being executed and monitored. The netpmon command automatically starts and monitors a trace of network-related system events in real time. More information on the netpmon command can be found in Chapter 5, “Network performance tools” on page 171.

2.7 The performance diagnostic tool (PDT)

The performance diagnostic tool attempts to identify performance problems automatically by collecting and integrating a wide range of performance, configuration, and availability data. The data is regularly evaluated to identify and anticipate common performance problems.

PDT assesses the current state of a system and tracks changes in workload and performance. It attempts to identify incipient problems and suggests solutions before the problems become critical.

For the most part, PDT functions with no required user input. PDT data collection and reporting are easily enabled, and then no further administrator activity is required. Periodically, data is collected and recorded for historical analysis, and a report is produced and mailed to the adm user. Normally, only the most significant apparent problems are recorded on the report. If there are no significant problems, that fact is reported. PDT can be customized to direct its report to a different user or to report apparent problems of a lower severity level.

2.7.1 Installing and enabling PDT

PDT is installed through the installp command as the bos.perf.diag_tool filesset. PDT must be enabled in order to begin collecting data and writing reports. Enable PDT by executing the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config script. Only the root user is permitted to run this script.

The following example shows the message displayed when the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config script is run:

```
# /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config
________________PDT customization menu________________
1) show current PDT report recipient and severity level
2) modify/enable PDT reporting
3) disable PDT reporting
4) modify/enable PDT collection
5) disable PDT collection
6) de-install PDT
7) exit pdt_config
```

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Please enter a number:

When you respond with 4, default PDT collection and reporting is enabled. The crontab entry for user adm is updated to add the PDT entries. The entries execute a shell script called Driver_ in the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool directory. This script is passed to three different parameters, each representing a collection profile, at three different collection times. To terminate the pdt_config program, respond with 7. To disable collection, respond with 5.

Table 2-4 lists the performance diagnostic tool's configurable attributes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PDT configurable attribute</th>
<th>PDT configuration method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PDT report recipient</td>
<td>Execute the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDT security level</td>
<td>Execute the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDT report on demand</td>
<td>Execute the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_report script.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of files monitored by PDT</td>
<td>Edit the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.files file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifying the list of hosts monitored by PDT</td>
<td>Edit the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.nodes file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical-record retention period for PDT reports</td>
<td>Edit the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.retention.list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDT collection, retention, and reporting times</td>
<td>Use the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.collection.control file. Use the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.retention.control file. Use the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.reporting.control file. The default time can be changed by altering the crontab for user adm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDT thresholds</td>
<td>Uses the /var/perf/cfg/diag_tool/.thresholds file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDT error reporting</td>
<td>View the /var/ftmp/.stderr file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninstalling PDT</td>
<td>Execute the /usr/sbin/perf/diag_tool/pdt_config script Use installp to remove the bos.perf.diag_tool fileset.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.8 Service level agreement

To allow the service provider and the client to manage the environment, a service level agreement should be created.
A service level agreement (SLA) is a contract between a service provider and a client that specifies, usually in measurable terms, what service the service provider will furnish. The service level agreement should include the following metrics in order to safeguard the service provider and the customer, for example:

- Reporting policies
- Roles and responsibilities
- What percentage of the time service will be available
- The number of users that can be served simultaneously
- Specific performance benchmarks to which actual performance will be periodically compared
- Goals and objectives
- The schedule for notification in advance of changes that may affect users
- Help desk response time for various classes of problems
- Penalties
- Dial-in access availability
- Usage statistics that will be provided
- Incentives

### 2.9 Summary

Figure 2-1 on page 10 (shown in the beginning of this chapter) is used in the summary (Figure 2-9 on page 36). It is modified to include performance suggestions.
2.10 Quiz

The following assessment question helps verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this chapter.

1. When paging, cache, and Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) metrics or statistics are analyzed for performance, which of the following resources is being analyzed?

A. CPU
B. Memory
C. Disk I/O
D. Network I/O
2.10.1 Answers

The following is the preferred answer to the question provided in this section.

1. B
CPU and memory performance monitoring tools

This chapter takes a detailed look at several CPU and memory performance monitoring tools. The provided examples will assist you in culling the valuable information from the verbose output generated by these tools.
3.1 The sar command

The `sar` command (System Activity Report) can be used in two ways to collect data: One is to view system data in real time, and the other is to view data previously captured.

The `sar` command is one of the first performance monitors to be used by an administrator. Although the `sar` command does give useful information on most system functions, it should be noted that there are other tools that will give more accurate system utilization reports on specific sections within the environment.

3.1.1 Accounting software

The `sar` command requires the `bos.perf.perfstat` default installation fileset and the `bos.acct` additional fileset to be installed. To view the files in `bos.acct`, type the following command:

```
# lslpp -f bos.acct
```

3.1.2 Examples of using the sar command

The `sar` command, without any flags, will give an output of every line in the file for the current day as collected by the `sai` command. The time slice can be set up in the crontab file and. In the following example, it uses the default in the `/var/spool/cron/crontabs/adm` file:

```
# sar
08:00:00  %usr  %sys  %wio  %idle
08:20:00    0    0    0   100
08:40:00    0    0    0   100
09:00:00    0    0    0   100
Average    0    0    0   100
```

The `sar` command, using only interval and number flags, will have the output shown in the following example. This is the same as running the `sar -u 1 10` command. The 1 specifies the interval in seconds and the 10 specifies the number of times the data is captured.

```
# sar 1 10
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00 06/30/00
09:14:57  %usr  %sys  %wio  %idle
09:14:58    54   18   28    0
09:14:59    40   20   40    0
09:15:00    44   19   38    0
```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Value1</th>
<th>Value2</th>
<th>Value3</th>
<th>Value4</th>
<th>Value5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09:15:01</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:02</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:03</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:04</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:05</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:06</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:15:07</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `sar -a` command reports the use of file access system routines specifying how many times per second several of the system file access routines have been called.

```bash
# sar -a 1 10
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Value1</th>
<th>Value2</th>
<th>Value3</th>
<th>Value4</th>
<th>Value5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09:28:44</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1169</td>
<td>277</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:45</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:47</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1467</td>
<td>137</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1775</td>
<td>153</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:51</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2303</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:52</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2832</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:28:53</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>883</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1144</td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `sar -c` command reports system calls.

```bash
# sar -c 1 10
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Value1</th>
<th>Value2</th>
<th>Value3</th>
<th>Value4</th>
<th>Value5</th>
<th>Value6</th>
<th>Value7</th>
<th>Value8</th>
<th>Value9</th>
<th>Value10</th>
<th>Value11</th>
<th>Value12</th>
<th>Value13</th>
<th>Value14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>09:33:04</td>
<td>scall/s</td>
<td>sread/s</td>
<td>swrit/s</td>
<td>fork/s</td>
<td>exec/s</td>
<td>rchar/s</td>
<td>wchar/s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:05</td>
<td>1050</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>911220</td>
<td>5376749</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:06</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3272</td>
<td>3226417</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:07</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3272</td>
<td>3277806</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:08</td>
<td>2996</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>314800</td>
<td>2284933</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:09</td>
<td>3304</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>167733</td>
<td>848174</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:10</td>
<td>4186</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>228196</td>
<td>509414</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:11</td>
<td>1938</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>153703</td>
<td>1297872</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:12</td>
<td>3263</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>242048</td>
<td>1003364</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:13</td>
<td>2751</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>155082</td>
<td>693801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09:33:14</td>
<td>2827</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>174059</td>
<td>1155239</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The `sar -d` command reads disk activity with read and write and block size averages. This flag is not documented in the AIX documentation, but is used by some AIX gurus. Use the `iostat` command instead of the `sar -d` command.

```
# sar -d 5 3
```

```
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00     06/30/00
10:08:19     device    %busy    avque    r+w/s   blks/s   avwait   avserv
10:08:24     hdisk0  0  0.0  0  4  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  0  0.0  0  3  0.0  0.0
10:08:29     hdisk0  44  1.0  366  3569  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  36  0.0  47  2368  0.0  0.0
10:08:34     hdisk0  84  2.0  250  1752  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  16  1.0  19  950  0.0  0.0
10:08:39     hdisk0  42  1.0  205  1775  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  17  0.3  22  1107  0.0  0.0
10:08:44     hdisk0  0  0.0  0  0  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  0  0.0  0  0  0.0  0.0
```

The `sar -q` command reports queue statistics.

```
# sar -q 1 10
```

```
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00     06/30/00
11:08:33  runq-sz %runocc swpq-sz %swpocc
11:08:34  1.0  100
11:08:35  1.0  100
11:08:36  1.0  100
11:08:37  1.0  100
11:08:38  1.0  100  1.0  100
11:08:39  1.0  100  1.0  100
11:08:40  1.0  100  1.0  100
11:08:41  1.0  100
11:08:42  1.0  100
11:08:43  1.0  100
```

```
Average  1.0  50  1.0  80
```
The `sar -r` command reports paging statistics.

```bash
# sar -r 1 10
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00 06/30/00
11:16:11 slots cycle/s fault/s odio/s
11:16:12 130767 0.00 472.82 66.02
11:16:13 130767 0.00 989.00 800.00
11:16:14 130767 0.00 44.00 1052.00
11:16:15 130767 0.00 43.00 1040.00
11:16:16 130767 0.00 47.00 1080.00
11:16:17 130767 0.00 43.00 808.00
11:16:18 130767 0.00 40.00 860.00
11:16:19 130767 0.00 46.00 836.00
11:16:20 130767 0.00 47.00 852.00
11:16:21 130767 0.00 48.00 836.00
Average 130767 0 183 821
```

The `sar -v` command reports the status of the process, kernel-thread, inode, and file tables.

```bash
# sar -v 1 5
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00 06/30/00
11:12:39 proc-sz inod-sz file-sz thrd-sz
11:12:40 49/262144 229/42942 315/511 59/524288
11:12:41 46/262144 221/42942 303/511 56/524288
11:12:42 45/262144 220/42942 301/511 55/524288
11:12:43 45/262144 220/42942 301/511 55/524288
11:12:44 45/262144 220/42942 301/511 55/524288
```

The `sar -y` command reports TTY device activity per second.

```bash
# sar -y 1 10
AIX server2 3 4 000FA17D4C00 06/30/00
11:48:36 rawch/s canch/s outch/s rcvin/s xmtin/s mdmin/s
11:48:37 0 0 104 63 60 0
11:48:38 0 0 58 9 60 0
11:48:39 0 0 58 69 61 0
11:48:40 0 0 58 68 60 0
11:48:41 0 0 58 69 3 0
11:48:42 0 0 58 68 52 0
11:48:43 0 0 58 69 60 0
11:48:44 0 0 58 25 60 0
11:48:45 0 0 58 42 23 0
```
11:48:46  0  0  58  68  9  0
Average  0  0  63  55  45  0

Although this is not an exhaustive list of the `sar` command and command output, it is an indication of what the main flags can do. When running the `sar` command, a combination of the flags can be used to obtain the output required for analyses, as in the following example:

```bash
# sar -y -r 1 5
AIX server2 3 4 000FA1704C00  06/30/00
11:48:56 rawch/s canch/s outhch/s rcvin/s xmtin/s mdmin/s
      slots cycle/s fault/s odio/s
11:48:57  0  0  147  67  3  0
       130767  0.00  3.96  0.00
11:48:58  0  0  102  69  58  0
       130767  0.00  0.00  0.00
11:48:59  0  0  102  68  60  0
       130767  0.00  0.00  0.00
11:49:00  0  0  102  69  17  0
       130767  0.00  0.00  0.00
11:49:01  0  0  102  68  6  0
       130767  0.00  1.00  4.00

Average  0  0  111  68  28  0
Average  130767  0  1  1
```

### 3.1.3 The `sar` command summary

The `sar` command writes the contents of selected cumulative activity counters in the operating system to standard output.

The `sar` command syntax is as follows:

```bash
sar [ { -A | [ -a ] [ -b ] [ -c ] [ -k ] [ -m ] [ -q ] [ -r ] [ -u ] [ -v ] [-w ] [ -y ] } ] [ -P ProcessorIdentifier, ... | ALL ] [-ehh [ :mm [ :ss ] ] ] [ -fFile ] [-iSeconds ] [-oFile ] [-shh [ :mm [ :ss ] ] ] [ interval [ number ] ]
```

The accounting system, based on the values in the interval and number parameters, writes information at the specified intervals in seconds the specified number of times. The default sampling interval for the number parameter is 1.
second. The collected data can also be saved in the file specified by the -o file flag.

If CPU utilization is near 100 percent (user + system), the workload sampled is CPU-bound. If a considerable percentage of time is spent in I/O wait, it implies that CPU execution is blocked while waiting for disk I/O. The I/O may be from file accesses or it may be I/O associated with paging due to a lack of sufficient memory.

**Note:** The time the system spends waiting for remote file access is not accumulated in the I/O wait time. If CPU utilization and I/O wait time for a task are relatively low, and the response time is not satisfactory, consider investigating how much time is being spent waiting for remote I/O. Since no high-level command provides statistics on remote I/O wait, trace data may be useful in observing this.

The `sar` command calls a command named `sadc` to access system data. Two shell scripts, `/usr/lib/sa/sa1` and `/usr/lib/sa/sa2`, are structured to be run by the `cron` command and provide daily statistics and reports. Sample stanzas are included (but commented out) in the `/var/spool/cron/crontabs/adm crontab file to specify when the cron daemon should run the shell scripts. Collection of data in this manner is useful to characterize system usage over a period of time and determine peak usage hours.

The commonly used flags of the `sar` command are provided in Table 3-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-A</td>
<td>Without the -P flag, this is equivalent to specifying -abckmqruvwy. With the -P flag, this is equivalent to specifying -acmuw.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Flag | Description
--- | ---
-a | Reports use of file access system routines, specifying how many times per second several of the system file access routines have been called. When used with the -P flag, the information is provided for each specified processor; otherwise, it is provided only system-wide. The following values are displayed:
  ▶ dirblk/s
  Number of 512-byte blocks read by the directory search routine to locate a directory entry for a specific file.
  ▶ iget/s
  Number of calls to any of several inode lookup routines that support multiple file system types. The iget routines return a pointer to the inode structure of a file or device.
  ▶ lookuppn/s
  Calls to the directory search routine that finds the address of a v-node, given a path name.
Chapter 3. CPU and memory performance monitoring tools

### Flag Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| -b   | Reports buffer activity for transfers, accesses, and cache (kernel block buffer cache) hit ratios per second. Access to most files in AIX Version 3 bypasses kernel block buffering, and therefore does not generate these statistics. However, if a program opens a block device or a raw character device for I/O, traditional access mechanisms are used, making the generated statistics meaningful. The following values are displayed:  
  - bread/s, bwrit/s  
    Reports the number of block I/O operations. These I/Os are generally performed by the kernel to manage the block buffer cache area, as discussed in the description of the lread/s value.  
  - lread/s, lwrit/s  
    Reports the number of logical I/O requests. When a logical read or write to a block device is performed, a logical transfer size of less than a full block size may be requested. The system accesses the physical device units of complete blocks and buffers these blocks in the kernel buffers that have been set aside for this purpose (the block I/O cache area). This cache area is managed by the kernel, so that multiple logical reads and writes to the block device can access previously buffered data from the cache and require no real I/O to the device. Application read and write requests to the block device are reported statistically as logical reads and writes. The block I/O performed by the kernel to the block device in management of the cache area is reported as block reads and block writes.  
  - pread/s, pwrit/s  
    Reports the number of I/O operations on raw devices. Requested I/O to raw character devices is not buffered as it is for block devices. The I/O is performed to the device directly.  
  - %rcache, %wcachr |

Reports caching effectiveness (cache hit percentage). This percentage is calculated as: \( [(100) \times (lreads - breads) / (lreads)] \).
-c Reports system calls. When used with the -P flag, the information is provided for each specified processor; otherwise, it is provided only system-wide. The following values are displayed:
  - exec/s, fork/s
    Reports the total number of fork and exec system calls.
  - sread/s, swrit/s
    Reports the total number of read/write system calls.
  - rchar/s, wchar/s
    Reports the total number of characters transferred by read/write system calls.
  - scall/s
    Reports the total number of system calls.

-e hh[:mm[:ss]] Sets the ending time of the report. The default ending time is 18:00.

-f file Extracts records from file (created by -o file flag). The default value of the file parameter is the current daily data file (the /var/adm/sa/sadd file).

-i seconds Selects data records at seconds as close as possible to the number specified by the seconds parameter. Otherwise, the sar command reports all seconds found in the data file.

-k Reports kernel process activity. The following values are displayed:
  - kexit/s
    Reports the number of kernel processes terminating per second
  - kproc-ov/s
    Reports the number of times kernel processes could not be created because of enforcement of process threshold limit
  - ksched/s
    Reports the number of kernel processes assigned to tasks per second.
### Flag Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| `-m`  | Reports message (sending and receiving) and semaphore (creating, using, or destroying) activities per second. When used with the `-P` flag, the information is provided for each specified processor; otherwise, it is provided only system-wide. The following values are displayed:  
  - `msg/s`  
    Reports the number of IPC message primitives  
  - `sema/s`  
    Reports the number of IPC semaphore primitives |
| `-o File` | Saves the readings in the file in binary form. Each reading is in a separate record and each record contains a tag identifying the time of the reading. |
| `-P ProcessorIdentifier, ... | ALL` | Reports per-processor statistics for the specified processor or processors. Specifying the ALL keyword reports statistics for each individual processor, and globally for all processors. Of the flags that specify the statistics to be reported, only the `-a`, `-c`, `-m`, `-u`, and `-w` flags are meaningful with the `-P` flag. |
| `-q`  | Reports queue statistics. The following values are displayed:  
  - `runq-sz`  
    Reports the average number of kernel threads in the run queue  
  - `%runocc`  
    Reports the percentage of the time the run queue is occupied  
  - `swpq-sz`  
    Reports the average number of kernel threads waiting to be paged in  
  - `%swpocc`  
    Reports the percentage of the time the swap queue is occupied |
### Flag Description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| -r   | Reports paging statistics. The following values are displayed:  
  - cycle/s  
    Reports the number of page replacement cycles per second.  
  - fault/s  
    Reports the number of page faults per second. This is not a count of page faults that generate I/O, because some page faults can be resolved without I/O.  
  - slots  
    Reports the number of free pages on the paging spaces.  
  - odio/s  
    Reports the number of nonpaging disk I/Os per second. |
| -s hh[:mm[:ss]] | Sets the starting time of the data, causing the sar command to extract records time-tagged at, or following, the time specified. The default starting time is 08:00. |
| -u   | Reports per processor or system-wide statistics. When used with the -P flag, the information is provided for each specified processor; otherwise, it is provided only system-wide. Because the -u flag information is expressed as percentages, the system-wide information is simply the average of each individual processor's statistics. Also, the I/O wait state is defined system-wide and not per processor. The following values are displayed:  
  - %idle  
    Reports the percentage of time the CPU or CPUs were idle with no outstanding disk I/O requests.  
  - %sys  
    Reports the percentage of time the CPU or CPUs spent in execution at the system (or kernel) level.  
  - %usr  
    Reports the percentage of time the CPU or CPUs spent in execution at the user (or application) level.  
  - %wio  
    Reports the percentage of time the CPU or CPUs were idle waiting for disk I/O to complete. For system-wide statistics, this value may be slightly inflated if several processors are idling at the same time (an unusual occurrence). |
### 3.1.4 The sadc command

The **sadc** command provides a system data collector report.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-v</td>
<td>Reports status of the process, kernel-thread, inode, and file tables. The following values are displayed file-sz, inod-sz, proc-sz, thrd-sz. Reports the number of entries in use for each table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-w</td>
<td>Reports system switching activity. When used with the -P flag, the information is provided for each specified processor; otherwise, it is provided only system-wide. The following value is displayed pswch/s. Reports the number of context switches per second.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>Reports tty device activity per second.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ canch/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ mdmin/s Reports tty modem interrupts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ outch/s Reports tty output queue characters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ rawch/s Reports tty input queue characters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ revin/s Reports tty receive interrupts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ xmtin/s Reports tty transmit interrupts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The **sar** command:

- The **sar** command itself can generate a considerable number of reads and writes, depending on the interval at which it is run. Run the **sar** statistics without the workload to understand the **sar** command's contribution to your total statistics.
- The **sar** command reports system unit activity if no other specific content options are requested.
The syntax for the `sadc` command is as follows:

```
sadc [ interval number ] [ outfile ]
```

It samples system data at a specified interval measured in seconds (`interval`) a specified number of times (`number`). It writes in binary format to the specified file (`outfile`) or to the standard output. When both `interval` and `number` are not specified, a dummy record, which is used at system startup to mark the time when the counter restarts from 0, will be written. The `sadc` command is intended to be used as a backend to the `sar` command.

AIX contains a number of counters that are increased as various system actions occur. The various system actions include:

- System unit utilization counters
- Buffer usage counters
- Disk and tape I/O activity counters
- TTY device activity counters
- Switching and subroutine counters
- File access counters
- Queue activity counters
- Interprocess communication counters

### 3.1.5 The `sa1` and `sa2` commands

The `sa1` command is a shell procedure variant of the `sadc` command and handles all of the flags and parameters of that command. The `sa1` command collects and stores binary data in the `/var/adm/sa/sa1 dd` file, where `dd` is the day of the month.

The syntax for the `sa1` command is as follows:

```
sa1 [ interval number ]
```

The interval and number parameters specify that the record should be written a number times at an interval of seconds. If you do not specify these parameters, a single record is written.

The `sa1` command is designed to be started automatically by the `cron` command. If the `sa1` command is not run daily from the `cron` command, the `sar` command displays a message about the nonexistence of the `/usr/lib/sa/sa1` data file.

The `sa2` command is a variant shell procedure of the `sar` command, which writes a daily report in the `/var/adm/sa/sar dd` file, where `dd` is the day of the month. The `sa2` command handles all of the flags and parameters of the `sar` command.
The `sa2` command is designed to be run automatically by the `cron` command and run concurrently with the `sa1` command.

The syntax for the `sa2` command is as follows:

```
sa2
```

### 3.2 The `vmstat` command

The `vmstat` command reports statistics about kernel threads, virtual memory, disks, traps, and CPU activity. Reports generated by the `vmstat` command can be used to balance system load activity. These system-wide statistics (among all processors) are calculated as averages for values expressed as percentages, and as sums otherwise.

The `vmstat` command syntax is as follows:

```
vmstat [ -f ] [ -i ] [ -s ] [ PhysicalVolume ] [ interval [ count ] ]
```

If the `vmstat` command is invoked without flags, the report contains a summary of the virtual memory activity since system startup. If the `-f` flag is specified, the `vmstat` command reports the number of forks since system startup. The `PhysicalVolume` parameter specifies the name of the physical volume.

An example of the `vmstat` command without any flags follows:

```
# vmstat
kthr     memory             page              faults        cpu
----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
 r  b   avm   fre  re  pi  po  fr   sr  cy  in   sy  cs us sy id wa
0  0 15982  1388   0   0   0   8   22   0 113  281  36  1  0 98  1
```

Below is an example of the `vmstat` command with the `-f` flag:

```
# vmstat -f
51881 forks
```

The interval parameter specifies the amount of time in seconds between each report. The first report contains statistics for the time since system startup. Subsequent reports contain statistics collected during the interval since the previous report. If the interval parameter is not specified, the `vmstat` command generates a single report and then exits. The count parameter can only be specified with the interval parameter. If the count parameter is specified, its value determines the number of reports generated and the frequency data is collected in seconds. If the interval parameter is specified without the count parameter, reports are continuously generated. A count parameter of 0 is not allowed.
The following is an example of the `vmstat` command with the interval and count parameters:

```
# vmstat 1 5
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kthr</th>
<th>memory</th>
<th>page</th>
<th>faults</th>
<th>cpu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>avm</td>
<td>fre</td>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15982</td>
<td>1388</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15982</td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15982</td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15982</td>
<td>1387</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The kernel maintains statistics for kernel threads, paging, and interrupt activity. For disks, the average transfer rate is determined by using the active time and number of transfers information. The percent active time is computed from the amount of time the drive is busy during the report.

The `vmstat` command with additional information regarding a specific disk is as follows:

```
# vmstat hdisk1
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kthr</th>
<th>memory</th>
<th>page</th>
<th>faults</th>
<th>cpu</th>
<th>disk xfer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>avm</td>
<td>fre</td>
<td>re</td>
<td>pi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16273</td>
<td>8385</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the previous example of a report generated by the `vmstat` command, the column headings and their descriptions have the following meaning.

- **kthr**: Kernel thread state changes per second over the sampling interval.
- **r**: Number of kernel threads placed in run queue
- **b**: Number of kernel threads placed in wait queue (awaiting resource, awaiting input or output)

**Memory**

- **avm**: Active virtual pages. When a process executes, space for working storage is allocated on the paging devices (backing store). This can be used to calculate the amount of paging space assigned to executing processes. The number in the avm field divided by 256 will yield the number of megabytes (MB), system wide, allocated to page space. The `lsps -a` command also provides information on individual paging space. It is
recommended that enough paging space be configured on the system so that the paging space used does not approach 100 percent. When fewer than 128 unallocated pages remain on the paging devices, the system will begin to kill processes to free some paging space.

**fre**

Size of the free list. The system maintains a buffer of memory frames, called the free list, that will be readily accessible when the VMM needs space. The nominal size of the free list varies depending on the amount of real memory installed. On systems with 64 MB of memory or more, the minimum value (MINFREE) is 120 frames. For systems with less than 64 MB, the value is two times the number of MB of real memory, minus 8. For example, a system with 32 MB would have a MINFREE value of 56 free frames. The MINFREE and MAXFREE limits can be shown using the `vmtune` command.

**Note:** A large portion of real memory is utilized as a cache for file system data. It is not unusual for the size of the free list to remain small.

**Page**

Information about page faults and paging activity. These are averaged over the interval and given in units per second. The AIX VMM implements a technique called Early Allocation of Paging Space. When a page is allocated in RAM, and it is not a Client (NFS) or a Persistent (disk file) Storage Page, then it is considered a Working Storage Page. Working Storage Pages are commonly an application's stack, data, and any shared memory segments. So, when a program's stack or data area is increased, and RAM is accessed, the VMM will allocate space in RAM and space on the paging device. This means that even before RAM is exhausted, paging space is used.

**re**

Pager input/output list. The number of reclaims per second. During a page fault, when the page is on the free list and has not been reassigned, this is considered a reclaim because no new I/O request has been initiated. It also includes the pages last requested by the VMM for which I/O has not been completed or those prefetched by VMM's read-ahead mechanism but hidden from the faulting segment.
pi  Pages paged in from paging space.
po  Pages paged out to paging space.

Note: pi and po values only include Working Storage Pages, not Persistent Storage Pages.

fr  Pages freed (page replacement).
sr  Pages scanned by page-replacement algorithm.
cy  Clock cycles by page-replacement algorithm.

Faults  Trap and interrupt rate averages per second over the sampling interval.
in  Device interrupts.
sy  System calls.
cs  Kernel thread context switches.

CPU  Breakdown of percentage usage of CPU time.
us  User time.
sy  System time.
id  CPU idle time.
wa  CPU cycles to determine that the current process is waiting and there is pending disk input/output.

Disk xfer  Provides the number of transfers per second to the specified physical volumes that occurred in the sample interval. The PhysicalVolume parameter can be used to specify one to four names. Transfer statistics are given for each specified drive in the order specified. This count represents requests to the physical device. It does not imply an amount of data that was read or written. Several logical requests can be combined into one physical request.

The vmstat command, used with the -s flag, writes to the standard output the contents of the sum structure, which contain an absolute count of paging events since system initialization. The -s option is exclusive of the other vmstat command options.

The following is an example of the vmstat command using the -s flag:

```
# vmstat -s
  8765020 total address trans. faults
  4832918 page ins
```
2989263 page outs
19 paging space page ins
 7 paging space page outs
 0 total reclaims
5417148 zero filled pages faults
12633 executable filled pages faults
15031850 pages examined by clock
118 revolutions of the clock hand
6086090 pages freed by the clock
105808 backtracks
  0 lock misses
  0 free frame waits
  0 extend XPT waits
2025516 pending I/O waits
3031667 start I/Os
3031667 iodones
24786000 cpu context switches
77240518 device interrupts
  0 software interrupts
  0 traps
191650677 syscalls

A list of all the possible events is provided in the following.

**address trans. faults**
Incremented for each occurrence of an address translation page fault. I/O may or may not be required to resolve the page fault. Storage protection page faults (lock misses) are not included in this count.

**page ins**
Incremented for each page read in by the virtual memory manager. The count is incremented for page ins from page space and file space. Along with the page-out statistic, this represents the total amount of real I/O initiated by the virtual memory manager.

**page outs**
Incremented for each page written out by the virtual memory manager. The count is incremented for page-outs to page space and for page-outs to file space. Along with the page-in statistic, this represents the total amount of real I/O initiated by the virtual memory manager.

**paging space page ins**
Incremented for VMM-initiated page-ins from paging space only.

**paging space page outs**
Incremented for VMM-initiated page-outs to paging space only.
total reclaims
Incremented when an address translation fault can be satisfied without initiating a new I/O request. This can occur if the page has been previously requested by VMM, but the I/O has not yet completed; or if the page was pre-fetched by VMM’s read-ahead algorithm, but was hidden from the faulting segment; or if the page has been put on the free list and has not yet been reused.

zero filled pages faults
Incremented if the page fault is to working storage and can be satisfied by assigning a frame and zero-filling it.

executable filled pages faults
Incremented for each instruction page fault.

pages examined by clock
VMM uses a clock-algorithm to implement a pseudo least recently used (LRU) page replacement scheme. Pages are aged by being examined by the clock. This count is incremented for each page examined by the clock.

revolutions of the clock hand
Incremented for each VMM clock revolution (that is, after each complete scan of memory).

pages freed by the clock
Incremented for each page the clock algorithm selects to free from real memory.

backtracks
Incremented for each page fault that occurs while resolving a previous page fault. (The new page fault must be resolved first and then initial page faults can be backtracked.)

lock misses
VMM enforces locks for concurrency by removing address ability to a page. A page fault can occur due to a lock miss, and this count is incremented for each such occurrence.

free frame waits
Incremented each time a process is waited by VMM while free frames are gathered.

extend XPT waits
Incremented each time a process is waited by VMM due to a commit in progress for the segment being accessed.

pending I/O waits
Incremented each time a process is waited by VMM for a page-in I/O to complete.
start I/Os
Incremented for each read or write I/O request initiated by VMM.

iodones
Incremented at the completion of each VMM I/O request.

CPU context switches
Incremented for each CPU context switch (dispatch of a new process).

device interrupts
Incremented for each hardware interrupt.

software interrupts
Incremented for each software interrupt. A software interrupt is a machine instruction similar to a hardware interrupt that saves some state and branches to a service routine. System calls are implemented with software interrupt instructions that branch to the system call handler routine.

traps
Unused by the AIX operating system.

syscalls
Incremented for each system call.

In the following examples, an idle system will be shown, and then load will be put on to the system; the resultant output will be analyzed to investigate potential problems.

The following is the output of the `vmstat` command without any load:

```
# vmstat 1 5
kthr memory page faults cpu
----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
r b avm fre re pi po fr sr cy in sy cs us sy id wa
0 0 16057 1291 0 0 8 22 0 113 281 36 1 0 98 1
0 0 16057 1290 0 0 0 0 0 108 472 25 0 0 99 0
0 0 16057 1290 0 0 0 0 0 109 282 32 0 0 99 0
0 0 16057 1290 0 0 0 0 0 109 285 26 0 0 99 0
0 0 16057 1290 0 0 0 0 0 108 282 29 0 0 99 0
```

The first output line gives the average since system boot and can be left out when calculating system load. This is the same as running the `vmstat` command without any flags.

For the purpose of this exercise, the output of the `vmtune` command is as follows:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/vmtune
vmtune: current values:
  -p       -P        -r          -R         -f       -F       -N        -W
  minperm  maxperm  minpgahead maxpgahead  minfree  maxfree  pd_npages maxrandwrt
  26007   104028       2          8        120      128     524288        0
```
The `vmstat` command, with only an interval parameter and count parameter, is as follows:

```
# vmstat 1 15
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>memory</th>
<th>page</th>
<th>faults</th>
<th>cpu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>avm</td>
<td>fre</td>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>1749</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>1529</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>1398</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>1227</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>1049</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16299</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16285</td>
<td>653</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16284</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As listed, `kthr` (kernel thread), `r` (runnable threads), and `b` (waiting threads) outputs stayed relatively constant and low. The `r` thread should be less than 5 under a stable workload. This `b` value should usually be near 0.

In the memory column, the `avm` (average paging space memory) stayed relatively stable but the `fre` (free memory frames) value dropped from 1749 to its lowest of 120. If the `fre` value had dropped below 120 for an extended period of time, this system would be continuously paging in and out, which would lead to system performance problems.

For the page heading, the `re`, `pi`, `po`, and `cy` values remained relatively constant. The `fr` and `sr` rates, however, increased substantially. The `pi` rate should not go above five; however if a page-in occurs, then there must have been a previous
page-out for that page. It is also likely in a memory-constrained environment that each page-in will force a different page to be stolen and, therefore, paged out. If the system is reading in a significant number of persistent pages, you may see an increase in po without corresponding increases in pi. This situation does not necessarily indicate thrashing, but may warrant investigation into data access patterns of the applications. The fr column represents the number of pages freed and the sr column represents the number of pages scanned by the page placement algorithm. With stable, unfragmented memory, the scan rate and free rate may be nearly equal. On systems with multiple processes using many different pages, the pages are more volatile and disjointed. In this scenario, the scan rate may greatly exceed the free rate.

For the faults heading, the in, sy, and cs values fluctuated at various intervals. There is no steadfast limit to these, as the overhead is minimal, and it is difficult to say what is excessive. The only thing to remember is that the in value will always be higher than 100.

For the cpu heading, the us, sy, id, and wa values also fluctuated dramatically. The output is in percent of CPU utilization. The us output is the amount of time spent by a process executing functions without having to use the system (kernel) mode. The sy time details the amount of time a process spends utilizing system (kernel) resources. Optimum use would have the CPU working 100 percent of the time. This holds true in the case of a single-user system with no need to share the CPU. Generally, if us + sy time is below 90 percent, a single-user system is not considered CPU constrained. However, if us + sy time on a multi-user system exceeds 80 percent, the processes may spend time waiting in the run queue. Response time and throughput might suffer. The id output is the CPU idle time. The wa output is idle time with pending local disk I/O. A wa value over 40 percent could indicate that the disk subsystem may not be balanced properly, or it may be the result of a disk-intensive workload. The four values added together will give a CPU utilization of 100 percent.

3.3 The ps command

In this section, the following topics are covered:

- Use of the ps command in CPU usage study
- Use of the ps command in memory usage study

The ps command determines which processes are running and the resources they use.
3.3.1 Use of the ps command in a CPU usage study

Three of the possible ps command output columns report CPU usage, each in a different way, as shown in Table 3-2. These columns will be the topic of discussion in the sections that follow.

Table 3-2 CPU-related ps output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Recent used CPU time for process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIME</td>
<td>Total CPU time used by the process since it started.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%CPU</td>
<td>Total CPU time used by the process since it started, divided by the elapsed time since the process started. This is a measure of the dependence of the program on CPU.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The C column

The C column can be generated by the -l flag and the -f flag. In this column, the CPU utilization of processes or threads is reported. The value is incremented each time the system clock ticks and the process or thread is found to be running. Therefore, it also can be said to be a process penalty for recent CPU usage. The value is decayed by the scheduler by dividing it by 2 once per second when the process is not using CPU. Large values indicate a CPU-intensive process and result in lower process priority, while small values indicate an I/O intensive process and result in a more favorable priority. In the following example, the tctestprog program is a CPU-intensive program.

Another aspect of the ps command is the formatted output. The following formatting sorts the output according to the third column with the largest value at the top, and shows only five lines of the total output:

```bash
# ps -ef | sort +3 -r | head -n 5
UID     PID  PPID  C   STIME TTY  TIME CMD
root 22656 27028 101  15:18:31 pts/11  7:43 ./tctestprog
root 14718 24618  5  15:26:15 pts/17  0:00 ps -ef
root  4170     1  3  Jun 15 - 12:00 /usr/sbin/syncd  60
root 21442 24618  2  15:26:15 pts/17  0:00 sort +3 -r
```

From the previous example, you can determine that tctestprog is the process using the most CPU, due to the C value of 101.

The following vmstat output shows that the CPU is used about 25 percent by usr processes:

```bash
# vmstat 2 3
kthr memory page faults cpu
```
The TIME column

The TIME column of the `ps` command output is generated with all flags, and it shows the total execution time for the process. This calculation does not take into account when the process was started, as seen in the following output. The same test program is used again, and even though the C column shows that the process gets a lot of CPU time, it is not the process with the largest value in the TIME column:

```
# ps -ef | sort +3 -r |head -n 5

UID   PID  PPID    C   STIME    TTY  TIME CMD
root 18802  27028  120 15:40:28 pts/11  1:10 ./tctestprog
root  9298  24618   3  15:41:38 pts/17  0:00 ps -ef
root 15782  24618   2  15:41:38 pts/17  0:00 head -n 5
root 24618  26172   2  15:40:28 pts/17  0:03 ksh
```

The TIME column

The `ps` command output column TIME is generated with all flags, and it shows the total execution time for the process. This calculation does not take into account when the process was started, as seen in the following output. The same test program is used again, and even though the C column shows that the process gets a lot of CPU time, it is not the process with the largest value in the TIME column:

```
# ps -e |head -n 1 ; ps -e|egrep -v "TIME|0:"|sort +2b -3 -n -r|head -n 10

PID    TTY TIME CMD
18802  pts/11  5:44 ./tctestprog
```

The %CPU column

The %CPU column of the `ps` command output, generated by the `-u` or the `-v` flags, shows the percentage of time the process has used the CPU since the process started. The value is computed by dividing the time the process uses the CPU by the elapsed time of the process. In a multi-processor environment, the value is further divided by the number of available CPUs, because several threads in the same process can run on different CPUs at the same time. Because the time base over which this data is computed varies, the sum of all %CPU fields can exceed 100 percent. In the example below, there are two ways to sort the extracted output from a system. The first example includes kprocs, for example, PID 516, which is a wait process. The other, more complex command syntax, excludes such kprocs:

```
# ps -euyww |head -n 1 ; ps -euy |egrep -v "TIME|0:"|sort +2b -3 -r|head -n 10

USER   PID %CPU %MEM  SZ  RSS   TTY STAT STIME  TIME COMMAND
root  18802 25.0  1.0 4140 4160 pts/11 A  15:40:28 5:44 ./tctestprog
```

The syncd, X, and dtsession are all processes that have been active since IPL; that is why they have accumulated more total TIME than the test program.
From the output, you can determine that the test program, tctestprog, has used about 25 percent of the available CPU resources since the process started.

The commonly used flags of the `ps` command are provided in Table 3-3.

### Table 3-3  Commonly used flags of the `ps` command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-A</td>
<td>Writes to standard output information about all processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-a</td>
<td>Writes to standard output information about all processes, except the session leaders and processes not associated with a terminal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c Clist</td>
<td>Displays only information about processes assigned to the workload management classes listed in the Clist variable. The Clist variable is either a comma-separated list of class names or a list of class names enclosed in double quotation marks (&quot; &quot;), which is separated from one another by a comma or by one or more spaces, or both.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-d</td>
<td>Writes information to standard output about all processes except the session leaders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
<td>Writes information to standard output about all processes except kernel processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-F format</td>
<td>Same as -o format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-f</td>
<td>Generates a full listing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-k</td>
<td>Lists kernel processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l</td>
<td>Generates a long listing. See also the -l flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-m</td>
<td>Lists kernel threads as well as processes. Output lines for processes are followed by an additional output line for each kernel thread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-o format</td>
<td>Displays information in the format specified by the format variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Displays information about all processes with terminals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 3. CPU and memory performance monitoring tools

3.3.2 Use of the ps command in a memory usage study

The `ps` command can also provide useful information on memory usage. The most useful output is presented in Table 3-4 and discussed in the following sections.

Table 3-4 Memory-related `ps` output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIZE</td>
<td>The virtual size of the data section of the process in 1 KB units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RSS</td>
<td>The real-memory size of the process in 1 KB units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%MEM</td>
<td>The percentage of real memory used by this process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The SIZE column**

The `v` flag generates the `SIZE` column. This is the virtual size (in the paging space), in kilobytes, of the data section of the process (displayed as `SZ` by other flags). This value is equal to the number of working segment pages of the process that have been touched times four. If several working segment pages are currently paged out, this number is larger than the amount of real memory being used. `SIZE` includes pages in the private segment and the shared-library data segment of the process, as in the following example:

```
# ps av |sort +5 -r |head -n 5
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PID</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>STAT</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PGIN</th>
<th>SIZE</th>
<th>RSS</th>
<th>LIM</th>
<th>TSIZ</th>
<th>TRS</th>
<th>%CPU</th>
<th>%MEM</th>
<th>COMMAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25298</td>
<td>pts/10</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2924</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>smitty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13160</td>
<td>lft0</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>/usr/sbin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27028</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24618</td>
<td>pts/17</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:04</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The RSS column**

The `v` flag also produces the `RSS` column, as shown in the previous example. This is the real-memory (resident set) size in kilobytes of the process. This number is equal to the sum of the number of working segment and code segment pages in memory times four. Remember that code segment pages are shared among all of the currently running instances of the program. If 26 ksh processes are running, only one copy of any given page of the ksh executable program would be in memory, but the `ps` command would report that code segment size as part of the RSS of each instance of the ksh program.
If you want to sort on the sixth column, you receive the output sorted by the RSS column, as shown in the following example:

```bash
# ps av |sort +6 -r |head -n 5
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PID</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>STAT</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PGIN</th>
<th>SIZE</th>
<th>RSS</th>
<th>LIM</th>
<th>TSIZ</th>
<th>TRS</th>
<th>%CPU</th>
<th>%MEM</th>
<th>COMMAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21720</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27028</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24618</td>
<td>pts/17</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:04</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15698</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>ps av</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The %MEM column

The %MEM column is generated by the `u` and the `v` flags. This is calculated as the sum of the number of working segment and code segment pages in memory times four (that is, the RSS value), divided by the size of the real memory of the machine in KB, times 100, rounded to the nearest full percentage point. This value attempts to convey the percentage of real memory being used by the process. Unfortunately, it tends to exaggerate the cost of a process that is sharing program text with other processes, such as with RSS. The rounding to the nearest percentage point causes all of the processes in the system that have RSS values under .005 times real memory size to have a %MEM of 0.0.

The following is an example of the `ps %MEM` column:

```bash
# ps au |head -n 1; ps au |egrep -v "RSS"|sort +3 -r |head -n 5
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>USER</th>
<th>PID</th>
<th>%CPU</th>
<th>%MEM</th>
<th>SZ</th>
<th>RSS</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>STAT</th>
<th>STIME</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>COMMAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>22750</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>20748</td>
<td>20812</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>17:55:51</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>./tctestprog2 root</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>25298</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3080</td>
<td>pts/10</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Jun 16</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>smitty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>27028</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>14:53:27</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>24618</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>pts/17</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Jun 21</td>
<td>0:04</td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can combine all of these columns into one output by using the `gv` flags. For example:

```bash
# ps gv|head -n 1; ps gv|egrep -v "RSS"|sort +6b -7 -n -r |head -n 5
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PID</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>STAT</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>PGIN</th>
<th>SIZE</th>
<th>RSS</th>
<th>LIM</th>
<th>TSIZ</th>
<th>TRS</th>
<th>%CPU</th>
<th>%MEM</th>
<th>COMMAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15674</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:01</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36108</td>
<td>36172</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>./tctestp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22742</td>
<td>pts/11</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20748</td>
<td>20812</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>./backups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10256</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15628</td>
<td>15692</td>
<td>32768</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>./tctestp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2064</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>2:13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>6448</td>
<td>xx</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6392</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>kproc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1806</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>0:20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6408</td>
<td>xx</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6392</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>kproc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following list, additional columns in the previous examples are explained:

**PGIN**
The number of page-ins caused by page faults. Since all I/O operations are classified as page faults by the `ps` command, this is a measure of I/O volume.
TSIZ
The size of the text (shared-program) image. This is the size of the text section of the executable file. Pages of the text section of the executable program are only brought into memory when they are touched, that is, branched to or loaded from. This number represents only an upper bound on the amount of text that could be loaded. The TSIZ value does not reflect actual memory usage. This TSIZ value can also be seen by executing the dump -ov command against an executable program (for example, dump -ov /usr/bin/ls).

TRS
The size of the resident set (real memory) of text. This is the number of code segment pages multiplied by four. This number exaggerates the memory used for programs where multiple instances are running. The TRS value can be higher than the TSIZ value because other pages may be included in the code segment, such as the XCOFF header and the loader section.

3.4 The tprof command
In this section the following topics are discussed:

- The use of tprof to study general CPU performance
- The use of tprof on a user program

3.4.1 Using the tprof general report
In the AIX operating system, an interrupt occurs periodically to allow a housekeeping kernel routine to run. This occurs 100 times per second. When the tprof command is invoked, it counts every such kernel interrupt as a tick. This kernel routine records the process ID and the address of the instruction executing when the interrupt occurs, for use by the tprof command. The tprof command also records whether the process counter is in the kernel address space, user address space, or shared library address space.

A summary ASCII report with the suffix .all is always produced. If no program is specified, the report is named __prof.all. If a program is specified, the report is named __program.all. This report contains an estimate of the amount of CPU time spent in each process that was executing while the tprof program was monitoring the system. It also contains an estimate of the amount of CPU time spent in each of the three address spaces and the amount of time the CPU was idle.
The `tprof` command uses the AIX Kernel trace facility. Only one user can use the AIX trace facility at a time. Thus, only one `tprof` command can be active in the system at a time.

The files containing the reports are left in the working directory. All files created by the `tprof` command are prefixed by `__` (two underscores).

In the following example, a generic report is generated:

```
# tprof -x sleep 30
Starting Trace now
Starting sleep 30
System: AIX server3 Node: 4 Machine: 000BC6D04C00

Trace is done now
30.907 secs in measured interval
* Samples from __trc_rpt2
* Reached second section of __trc_rpt2
```

In this case, the `sleep 30` parameter directs the `tprof` command to run for 30 seconds.

The `Total` column in the `__prof.all` is useful. The first section indicates the use of ticks on a per process basis.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>PID</th>
<th>TID</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Kernel User</th>
<th>Shared</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wait</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>3237</td>
<td>3237</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tctestprg</td>
<td>14746</td>
<td>13783</td>
<td>3207</td>
<td>3206</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tctestprg</td>
<td>13730</td>
<td>17293</td>
<td>3195</td>
<td>3195</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wait</td>
<td>1032</td>
<td>1033</td>
<td>3105</td>
<td>3105</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wait</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>1291</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swapper</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tprof</td>
<td>14156</td>
<td>5443</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace</td>
<td>16000</td>
<td>14269</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syncd</td>
<td>3158</td>
<td>4735</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tprof</td>
<td>5236</td>
<td>16061</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gil</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>2839</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gil</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>3097</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace</td>
<td>15536</td>
<td>14847</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sh</td>
<td>14002</td>
<td>16905</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>14002</td>
<td>16905</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Since each tick is 1/100 second, 30 seconds requires a total of 3000 ticks. However, when looking at the output, there are over 12000 total ticks. The result
is dependent on the hardware, in this case a four-way F50, so the available ticks are calculated in the following way:

Time (in seconds) x number of available CPUs x 100

In the previous output, you can determine that both `tctestprg` processes use about 3200 ticks, approximately 25 percent of the total available ticks. This is confirmed with the following `ps auxwww` output:

```
USER       PID %CPU %MEM   SZ  RSS    TTY STAT    STIME  TIME COMMAND
root     14020 25.0  0.0  300  320  pts/1 A    15:23:55 16:45 ./tctestprg
root     12280 25.0  0.0  300  320  pts/1 A    15:23:57 16:43 ./tctestprg
```

In the second section of the general report of the `tproc` command, the total amount of ticks used by a specified type of process is noted. In this section, the total ticks used by a process type are in the Total column, and the number of processes representing that type can be seen in the FREQ column.

```
Process   FREQ Total  Kernel  User  Shared  Other
---------  ----  ------  ------  ----  ------  ----
wait      3     6480  6480    0     0      0
         2     6402  1       6401  0      0
swapper   1     10    3       7     3      0
         1     2     2       0     0      0
syncd     1     2     2       0     0      0
         1     1     1       0     0      0
         3     2     2       0     0      0
sh        1     1     1       0     0      0
sleep     1     1     1       0     0      0
         15   12910  6503  6407    0      0
```

### 3.4.2 Using `tprof` on a program

The `tprof` command is also a useful tool for C, C++, or FORTRAN programs that might be CPU bound. It identifies sections of a program that are most heavily using the CPU. The `tprof` command executes a program and then produces a set of files containing reports. The reports are divided down to subroutine level.

The following example is a basic one; there are many more possibilities outside the scope of this document:

```
# tprof ./tctestprg
Starting Trace now
Starting ./tctestprg
System: AIX server3 Node: 4 Machine: 0008C6D04C00
Trace is done now
```
23.258 secs in measured interval
* Samples from __trc_rpt2
* Reached second section of __trc_rpt2
(The tctestprg process was manually killed)

The output file is named __tctestprg.all, and the output is restricted to the process provided as an argument to the command. The first section is the same as shown in a general report. However, it only reflects a single process.

```
# more __tctestprg.all
Process      PID      TID    Total   Kernel     User   Shared    Other
=======      ===      ===    =====   ======     ====   ======    =====
./tctestprg 16276    16081     2156        0     2156        0        0
=======      ===      ===    =====   ======     ====   ======    =====
Total        2156        0     2156        0        0
```

The second section is a trivial report on the single process.

```
Process     FREQ    Total   Kernel     User   Shared    Other
=======      ===    =====   ======     ====   ======    =====
./tctestprg 1     2156        0     2156        0        0
=======      ===    =====   ======     ====   ======    =====
Total        1     2156        0     2156        0        0
```

The third section provides information about the subroutines used in the specified process providing information about areas that require tuning.

```
Total Ticks For ./tctestprg (USER) = 2156
Subroutine                Ticks  %   Source   Address Bytes
=============             ===== ==== ======== ======== ======
.main                      1368 14.5 case.c   10000318 4c
.casework                   788  8.4 case.c   10000364 54
```

### 3.5 The svmon command

The `svmon` command is used to display information regarding the current memory state. Although it is a complicated command, you should understand what it can do to assist you in performance monitoring.

The `svmon` command generates seven types of reports:

- Global
- User
- Process
- Segment
- Detailed segment
Command

Workload management class

To run each of these reports, a report indicator flag needs to be used.

With the exception of the `svmon -G` and `svmon -D` reports, the other report options use the same flags with a similar use. In the following sections, an example of the command and the output generated is provided. This is not an exhaustive list of functions; rather, it is a short demonstration of the versatility of the `svmon` command. For an explanation of the flags, see 3.5.8, “The svmon command flags” on page 90.

### 3.5.1 The svmon global report

The global report is generated when the `-G` flag is specified.

The `svmon -G` command has the following syntax:

```bash
svmon -G [ -i interval [ NumIntervals]] [ -z ]
```

Running the `svmon -G` global report command generates the following output:

```
# svmon -G
size    inuse    free    pin    virtual
memory    131063    119922    11141    6807    15924
pg space    131072    305

    work    pers    clnt
pin    6816    0    0
in use    21791    98131    0
```

The `svmon -G` command with an interval and the number of intervals, and providing the `-z` flag to obtain the maximum memory allocated, provides the following output:

```
# svmon -G -i1 5 -z
size    inuse    free    pin    virtual
memory    131063    125037    5216    6811    15949
pg space    131072    305

    work    pers    clnt
pin    6820    0    0
in use    21950    103087    0
```

```
size    inuse    free    pin    virtual
memory    131063    125037    5216    6811    15949
```

In the previous example, the headings have the following meanings:

- **memory**
  - Specifies statistics describing the use of real memory, including:
    - **size**: Number of real memory frames (size of real memory)
    - **inuse**: Number of frames containing pages
    - **free**: Number of frames free
    - **pin**: Number of frames containing pinned pages
    - **virtual**: Number of pages allocated in the system virtual space

Maximum memory allocated = 432

---

pg space     131072        305
work pers clnt
pin 6820 0 0
in use 21954 103893 0

size inuse free pin virtual
memory 131063 126769 4294 6811 15949
pg space 131072 305
work pers clnt
pin 6820 0 0
in use 21954 104815 0

size inuse free pin virtual
memory 131063 127890 3173 6811 15949
pg space 131072 305
work pers clnt
pin 6820 0 0
in use 21954 105936 0

size inuse free pin virtual
memory 131063 129092 1971 6811 15949
pg space 131072 305
work pers clnt
pin 6820 0 0
in use 21954 107138 0
stolen

Number of frames stolen by \texttt{rmss} (Reduced-Memory System Simulator; see 3.6, “The \texttt{rmss} command” on page 92, for more information) and made unusable by the VMM

\textbf{pg space}

Specifies statistics describing the use of paging space. This data is reported only if the \texttt{-r} flag is not used.

\textbf{size}

Size of paging space

\textbf{inuse}

Number of paging space pages in use

\textbf{pin}

Specifies statistics on the subset of real memory containing pinned pages, including:

\textbf{work}

Number of frames containing pinned pages from working segments

\textbf{pers}

Number of frames containing pinned pages from persistent segments

\textbf{clnt}

Number of frames containing pinned pages from client segments

\textbf{in use}

Specifies statistics on the subset of real memory in use, including:

\textbf{work}

Number of frames containing pages from working segments

\textbf{pers}

Number of frames containing pages from persistent segments

\textbf{clnt}

Number of frames containing pages from client segments

\subsection*{3.5.2 The \texttt{svmon} user report}

The user report is printed when the \texttt{-U} flag is specified.

The \texttt{svmon} \texttt{-U} command has the following syntax:

\texttt{svmon -U [ lognm1...lognmN] [ -n | -s ] [ -w | -f | -c ] [ -t count ] [ -u | -p | -g | -v ] [ -i interval [ NumIntervals]] [ -l ] [ -d ] [ -z ] [ -m ]}

The \texttt{svmon} \texttt{-U} without any options produces output similar to the following:

\begin{verbatim}
# svmon -U
===============================================================================
User root               Inuse      Pin     Pgsp  Virtual
18447     1327      175     7899
===============================================================================
\end{verbatim}
### SYSTEM segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3816</td>
<td>1269</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>kernel seg</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3535</td>
<td></td>
<td>0..32767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65475..65535

- work
- work
- work
- work

### EXCLUSIVE segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12551</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>pers /dev/lv00:17</td>
<td></td>
<td>3511</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3891</td>
<td></td>
<td>0..100987</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2b65

- pers /dev/hd4:4294
- pers /dev/hd3:32
- pers code,/dev/hd2:4536
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10545
- pers /dev/hd2:32545
- pers /dev/hd4:732
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10553
- pers /dev/hd2:14469
- pers /dev/hd2:39225
- pers /dev/hd2:32715
- pers /dev/hd2:98694
- pers code,/dev/hd2:98696
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10679
- pers /dev/hd2:32224
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10673
- pers /dev/hd2:10310
- pers /dev/hd2:10309
- pers code,/dev/hd2:32705
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10734
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10765
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10684
- pers code,/dev/hd2:10718
- pers code,/dev/hd2:32701
- pers code,/dev/hd2:4123

### User guest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>User guest</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 3. CPU and memory performance monitoring tools

To check a particular user's utilization, as well as the total memory allocated, use the following command:

```
# svmon -U root -z
```

```bash
User root Inuse Pin Pgsp Virtual
10980 1322 175 7913
```

SYSTEM segments

```
Vsid Esid Type Description Inuse Pin Pgsp Virtual Addr Range
0 0 work kernel seg 3792 1265 175 3511 0..32767 : 65475..65535
9352 - work 12 1 0 12 0..49746
220 - work 6 1 0 6 0..49746
7a0f - work 4 1 0 4 0..49746
502a - work 2 1 0 2 0..49746
```

EXCLUSIVE segments

```
Vsid Esid Type Description Inuse Pin Pgsp Virtual Addr Range
1be3 2 work process private 580 8 0 579 0..675 :
...
### SHARED segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>shared library text</td>
<td>2080</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>0..65535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e03c</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>code,/dev/hd2:4204</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2865</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>/dev/hd2:32343</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximum memory allocated = 21473

The headings have the following meaning:

- **User**: Indicates the user name
- **Inuse**: Indicates the total number of pages in real memory in segments that are used by the user
- **Pin**: Indicates the total number of pages pinned in segments that are used by the user
- **Pgsp**: Indicates the total number of pages reserved or used on paging space by segments that are used by the user
- **Virtual**: Indicates the total number of pages allocated in the process virtual space

Once the column heading is displayed, **svmon** displays (if the -d flag is specified) information about all the processes run by the specified login user name. It only contains the column heading of the processes, as described in the process report.

Then **svmon** displays information about the segments used by those processes.
This set of segments is separated into three categories:

1. The segments that are flagged as system segments that are shared by all processes
2. The segments that are only used by the set of processes
3. The segments that are shared between several users

If the `-l` flag is specified, then for each segment in the last category, the list of process identifiers that use the segment is displayed. The login user name that executes the process identifier is also displayed.

### 3.5.3 The svmon process report

The process report is generated when the `-P` flag is specified.

The **svmon** `-P` command has the following syntax:

```
svmon [-P [pid1...pidn] [-u | -p | -g | -v] [-n | -s] [-w | -f | -c]
[-t count] [-i interval [NumIntervals]] [-l] [-z] [-m]
```

The **svmon** `-P` command process report has output similar to the following:

```
# svmon -P | pg
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11126</td>
<td>backbyname</td>
<td>32698</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4114</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7162</td>
<td>- pers /dev/lv00:17</td>
<td>26650</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..100362</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 work kernel seg</td>
<td>3790</td>
<td>1265</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3509</td>
<td>0..65535</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d work shared library text</td>
<td>2030</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..100362</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4823</td>
<td>2 process private</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0..65535</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65475..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65310..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2969</td>
<td>f work shared library data</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0..749</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cdb7</td>
<td>3 pers shmat/mmap,/dev/hd2:</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6d28</td>
<td>1 pers code,/dev/hd2:10334</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5920</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd2:32166</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
```

...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>work kernel seg</td>
<td>3790 1265 175 3509 0..32767 : 65475..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8811</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work shared library text</td>
<td>2030 0 0 540 0..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f24</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>106 1 0 106 0..96 : 65306..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fa3f</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>work shared library data</td>
<td>73 0 0 58 0..640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d67b</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd2:32715</td>
<td>1 0 - - 0..0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3406</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>work shmat/mmap</td>
<td>1 0 0 1 0..0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9c13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pers code,/dev/hd2:10763</td>
<td>0 0 - - 0..101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6968</td>
<td>rtcmd</td>
<td>3794</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3513</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6a0d</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>4 1 0 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>516</td>
<td>wait</td>
<td>3792</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3511</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8010</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>2 1 0 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>780f</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>3 1 0 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

The `svmon -P` command can be used to determine the top 10 processes using memory, sorted in decreasing order, by the total pages reserved or being used with the following command:

```
# svmon -Pv -t 10 | pg
```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10294</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>6579</td>
<td>1275</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4642</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>work kernel seg</td>
<td>3792</td>
<td>1265</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3511</td>
<td>0..32767,:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1be3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>0..675 :</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>work shared library text</td>
<td>2080</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>0..65535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4168</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd2:20485</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2965</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd2:20486</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>514a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd9var:2078</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9092</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd4:2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5682</td>
<td>sendmail: a</td>
<td>6081</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4136</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5682</td>
<td>sendmail: a</td>
<td>6081</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>4136</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Each column heading has the following meaning.

**Pid**
Indicates the process ID.

**Command**
Indicates the command the process is running.

**Inuse**
Indicates the total number of pages in real memory from segments that are used by the process.

**Pin**
Indicates the total number of pages pinned from segments that are used by the process.

**Pgsp**
Indicates the total number of pages used on paging space by segments that are used by the process. This number is reported only if the `-r` flag is not used.

**Virtual**
Indicates the total number of pages allocated in the process virtual space.

**64-bit**
Indicates if the process is a 64-bit process (Y) or a 32-bit process (N).

**Mthrd**
Indicates if the process is multi-threaded (Y) or not (N).

### 3.5.4 The svmon segment report

The segment report is printed when the `-S` flag is specified.

The **svmon** `-S` command has the following syntax:

```
svmon [-S [sid1...sidn] [ -u | -p | -g | -v ] [ -n | -s ] [ -w | -f | -c ]
[ -t count ] [ -i interval [N umIntervals ] ] [ -l ] [ -z ] [ -m ] ]
```

The **svmon** `-S` command produces the following output:

```
# svmon -S
Vsid  Esid Type Description      Inuse  Pin  Pgsp Virtual Addr Range
7162  - pers /dev/lv00:17       7638  0   -   -       0..100362
680d  - work misc kernel tables 3819  0   0   3819   0..17054 : 65475..65535
82b0  - pers /dev/hd2:26992     2390  0   -   -       0..2389
8811  - work                    2080  0   0   473   0..65535
```

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To check the memory usage of the top five working segments according to the number of virtual pages, use the following command:

```
# svmon -S -t 5 -w -v
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>680d</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work misc kernel tables</td>
<td>4197</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4197 0..17064 :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 - work kernel seg</td>
<td>3797</td>
<td>1270</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3516 0..32767 :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700e</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work kernel pinned heap</td>
<td>1919</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1920 0..65535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37ad</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>770 0..764 :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a8a</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>770 0..927 :</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To print out the memory usage statistics of segments sorted by the number of reserved paging space blocks, use the following command:

```
# svmon -S 680d 700e -g
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>700e</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work kernel pinned heap</td>
<td>1919</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1920 0..65535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>680d</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>work misc kernel tables</td>
<td>4197</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4197 0..17064 :</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each column heading has the following meaning.

**Vsid**
Indicates the virtual segment ID. Identifies a unique segment in the VMM.

**Esid**
Indicates the effective segment ID. When provided, it indicates how the segment is used by the process. If the VSID segment is mapped by several processes, but with different ESID values, then this field contains a -. In that case, the exact ESID values can be obtained through the
-P option applied on each process identifier using the segment.

**Type**
Identifies the type of the segment: pers indicates a persistent segment, work indicates a working segment, clnt indicates a client segment, map indicates a mapped segment, and rmap indicates a real memory mapping segment.

**Description**
Specifies a textual description of the segment. The value of this column depends on the segment type. If the segment is a persistent segment and is not associated with a log, then the device name and inode number of the associated file are displayed, separated by a colon. (The device name and inode can be translated into a file name with the ncheck command.) If the segment is the primary segment of a large file, then the words large file are prepended to the description. If the segment is a persistent segment and is associated with a log, then the string log is displayed.

If the segment is a working segment, then the svmon command attempts to determine the role of the segment. For instance, special working segments, such as the kernel and shared library, are recognized by the svmon command. If the segment is the private data segment for a process, then private is printed out. If the segment is the code segment for a process, and the segment report is printed out in response to the -P flag, then the word code is prepended to the description.

If the segment is mapped by several processes and used in a different way (for example, a process private segment mapped as shared memory by another process), then the description is empty. The exact description can be obtained through -P flag applied on each process identifier using the segment.

If a segment description is too large to fit in the description space then the description is truncated. The truncated part can be obtained through the -S flag (without -l) on the given segment.

**Inuse**
Indicates the number of pages in real memory in this segment.

**Pin**
Indicates the number of pages pinned in this segment.
**Pgsp**
Indicates the number of pages used on paging space by this segment. This field is relevant only for working segments.

**Virtual**
Indicates the number of pages allocated for the virtual space of the segment. (Only for working segments.)
VMM manages this value for statistical purposes. It may not be updated. Then the value may be less than the inuse counters.

**Address Range**
Specifies the range(s) the segment pages has been allocated. The working segment may have two ranges, because pages are allocated by starting from both ends and moving towards the middle.

If the `-l` flag is present, the list of process identifiers that use that segment is displayed. See the `-l` flag description for special segments processing.

### 3.5.5 The svmon detailed segment report

The `-D` flag is used to get a more detailed listing of a segment.

The syntax of the `svmon -D` command is as follows:
```
svmon [-D sid1...sidn [-b] [-i interval [ NumIntervals]] [-z]]
```

To print out the frames belonging to a segment, the command is as follows:
```
# svmon -D 700e

Segid: 700e
Type: working
Address Range: 0..65535
Size of page space allocation: 0 pages ( 0.0 Mb)
Virtual: 1920 frames ( 7.5 Mb)
Inuse: 1919 frames ( 7.5 Mb)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Frame</th>
<th>Pin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65471</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65535</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
To print out the frames belonging to a segment with the status bit of each frame, use the following command:

```
# svmon -D 700e -b
```

**Segid: 700e**

**Type:** working

**Address Range:** 0..65535

**Size of page space allocation:** 0 pages (0.0 Mb)

**Virtual:** 1920 frames (7.5 Mb)

**Inuse:** 1919 frames (7.5 Mb)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Frame</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Ref</th>
<th>Mod</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65471</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65535</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...
The output headings have the following meanings. The segid, type, address range, size of page space allocation, and virtual and inuse headings are explained at the end of 3.5.4, “The svmon segment report” on page 80.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Relative page number to the virtual space. This page number can be higher than the number of frames in a segment (65532) if the virtual space is larger than a single segment (large file).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frame</td>
<td>Frame number in real memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pin</td>
<td>Indicates if the frame is pinned or not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ref</td>
<td>Indicates if the frame has been referenced by a process (-b option only).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mod</td>
<td>Indicates if the frame has been modified by a process (-b option only).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5.6 The svmon command report

The command report provides a usage summary of specific commands being run. The command report is printed when the -C flag is specified.

The **svmon** -C command has the following syntax:

```
svmon [-C cmd1...cmdn [ -u | -p | -g | -v ] [ -n | -s [ -w | -f | -c ]
[ -t count] [ -i interval [ NumIntervals ] ] [ -d ] [ -l ] [ -z ] [ -m ] ]
```

To check the memory usage of specific commands, use the following command:

```
# svmon -C savevg ftp
# pg /tmp/file
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>ftp</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42104</td>
<td>1271</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3966</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SYSTEM segments</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3798</td>
<td>1270</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3517</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>kernel seg</td>
<td>3798</td>
<td>1270</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3517</td>
<td>0..32767</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65475..65535

-Headers that are not in use are marked with a space, not with a 'Y' or 'N'.
EXCLUSIVE segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36189</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>148</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vsid     Esid Type Description           Inuse   Pin Pgsp Virtual Addr Range
985e - pers /dev/lv00:17         35977     0    -     -   0..40307
322a 2 work process private         112     1    0   109   0..83 :

65257..65535
22c f work shared library data 53 0 0 39 0..849
64e 1 pers code,/dev/hd2:4550 44 0 - - 0..57
1c88 - pers /dev/hd2:32628 3 0 - - 0..2

_SHARED segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2117</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>301</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vsid     Esid Type Description           Inuse   Pin Pgsp Virtual Addr Range
8811 d work shared library text 2117 0 0 301 0..65535

===============================================================================
Command savevg Inuse Pin Pgsp Virtual
savevg *** command does not exist ***

If a command does not own a memory segment, the error, as shown above, will be provided.

To check a command and display the memory statistics for the command, enter the following:

# svmon -C ftp -d

===============================================================================
Command ftp

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46435</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3966</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

===============================================================================

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pid</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
<th>64-bit</th>
<th>Mthrdd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2728</td>
<td>ftp</td>
<td>46435</td>
<td>1266</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3966</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

===============================================================================
SYSTEM segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin Pgsp Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>work kernel seg</td>
<td>3798</td>
<td>1265 175 3517 0..32767 :</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65475..65535

===============================================================================

EXCLUSIVE segments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Chapter 3. CPU and memory performance monitoring tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>985e</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/lv00:17</td>
<td>40308</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..40307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>322a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>work process private</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>0..83 :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65257..65535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22c</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>work shared library data</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0..849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64e</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pers code,/dev/hd2:4550</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1c88</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>pers /dev/hd2:32628</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0..2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SHARED segments**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>work shared library text</td>
<td>2117</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>0..65535</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The column headings have the following meanings:

**Command**
Indicates the command name.

**Inuse**
Indicates the total number of pages in real memory in segments that are used by the command (all process running the command).

**Pin**
Indicates the total number of pages pinned in segments that are used by the command (all process running the command).

**Pgsp**
Indicates the total number of pages reserved or used on paging space by segments that are used by the command.

**Virtual**
Indicates the total number of pages allocated in the virtual space of the command. Once this column heading is displayed, svmon displays (if the -d flag is specified) information about all the processes running the specified command. It only contains the column headings of the processes, as described in a process report. Then svmon displays information about the segments used by those processes.

This set of segments is separated into three categories: The segments that are flagged as systems that are shared by all processes the segments that are only used by the set of processes, and the segments that are shared between several command names.
If the -l flag is specified, then for each segment in the last category, the list of process identifiers that use the segment is displayed. The command name that the process identifier runs is also displayed. See the -l flag description for special segment processing.

### 3.5.7 The svmon Workload Manager (WLM) class report

The WLM (see 6.6, “Workload Manager (WLM)” on page 227, for information on WLM) class report is printed when the -W flag is specified. The `svmon -W` command has the following syntax:

```
svmon [ -W [class1...classn] [ -u | -p | - g | -v ] [ -n | -s ]
[ -w | -f | -c ] [ -t count ] [ -i interval [ NumIntervals ] ] [ -l ] [ -z ]
[ -m ]
```

**Note:** The `svmon -W` command should be run when Workload Manager is started in order to create the printed workload class report.

To check the Workload Manager class statistics, enter the following command:

```
# svmon -W backup
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superclass</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>backup</td>
<td>52833</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50329</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vsid</th>
<th>Esid Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6784</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>27989</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1aa18</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>21887</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14356</td>
<td>- pers</td>
<td>/dev/lv_wlm1:17</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>173f5</td>
<td>- pers</td>
<td>/dev/lv_wlm2:17</td>
<td>1250</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5347</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c34e</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891a</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14636</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5327</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1d83f</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1e33c</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10772</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a84</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15457</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38a1</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>126f0</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The column headings in a Workload Manager class report have the following meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superclass</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11313</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>/dev/hd1:26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e50c</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b549</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12e3</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13351</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14a16</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12970</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6904</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a9c8</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2320</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>/dev/hd1:32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1d39f</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>/dev/hd2:16870</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>834a</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>/dev/hd1:23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once this column’s heading is displayed, svmon displays information about the segments belonging to the workload class.

If the -l option is specified, then for each segment, the list of process identifiers that use the segment is displayed. The workload class the process belongs to is also displayed. See the -l flag description for special segments processing.
3.5.8 The svmon command flags

The same flags for `svmon` are used by the different report types, with the exception of the global and detailed segment reports.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-G</td>
<td>Displays a global report.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-P [ pid1...pidN ]</td>
<td>Displays memory usage statistics for process pid1...pidN. pid is a decimal value. If no list of process IDs (PIDs) is supplied, memory usage statistics are displayed for all active processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-S [ sid1...sidN ]</td>
<td>Displays memory-usage statistics for segments sid1...sidN. sid is a hexadecimal value. If no list of segment IDs (SIDs) is supplied, memory usage statistics are displayed for all defined segments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-U [ lognm1...lognmN ]</td>
<td>Displays memory usage statistics for the login name lognm1...lognmN. lognm is a string. It is an exact login name. If no list of login identifiers is supplied, memory usage statistics are displayed for all defined login identifiers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-C cmd1...cmdN</td>
<td>Displays memory usage statistics for the processes running the command name cmdnm1...cmdnmN. cmdnm is a string. It is the exact base name of an executable file.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-W [ clnm1...clnmN ]</td>
<td>Displays memory usage statistics for the workload management class clnm1...clnmN. clnm is a string. It is the exact name of a class. If no list of class names is supplied, memory usage statistics are displayed for all defined class names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-D sid1...sidN</td>
<td>Displays memory-usage statistics for segments sid1...sidN, and a detailed status of all the frames of each segment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-n</td>
<td>Indicates that only non-system segments are to be included in the statistics. By default, all segments are analyzed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
<td>Indicates that only system segments are to be included in the statistics. By default, all segments are analyzed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-w</td>
<td>Indicates that only working segments are to be included in the statistics. By default, all segments are analyzed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: A process belongs to the workload class if its initial thread belongs to it.
Flag | Description
---|---
-f | Indicates that only persistent segments (files) are to be included in the statistics. By default, all segments are analyzed.
-c | Indicates that only client segments are to be included in the statistics. By default, all segments are analyzed.
-u | Indicates that the objects to be printed are sorted in decreasing order by the total number of pages in real memory. It is the default sorting criteria if none of the following flags are present: -p, -g, and -v.
-p | Indicates that the object to be printed is sorted in decreasing order by the total number of pages pinned.
-g | Indicates that the object to be printed is sorted in decreasing order by the total number of pages reserved or used on paging space. This flag, in conjunction with the segment report, shifts the non-working segment at the end of the sorted list.
-v | Indicates that the object to be printed is sorted in decreasing order by the total number of pages in virtual space. This flag, in conjunction with the segment report, shifts the non-working segment to the end of the sorted list.
-b | Shows the status of the reference and modified bits of all the displayed frames (detailed report -D). Once shown, the reference bit of the frame is reset. When used with the -i flag, it detects which frames are accessed between each interval. This flag should be used with caution because of its performance impact.
-l | Shows, for each displayed segment, the list of process identifiers that use the segment and, according to the type of report, the entity name (login, command, or class) the process belongs to. For special segments, a label is displayed instead of the list of process identifiers.
System segment | This label is displayed for segments that are flagged systems.
Unused segment | This label is displayed for segments that are not used by any existing processes.
Shared library text | This label is displayed for segments that contain text of shared library, and that may be used by most of the processes (libc.a). This is to prevent the display of a long list of processes.
### 3.6 The rmss command

The `rmss` command provides you with a means to simulate different sizes of real memory that are smaller than your actual machine, without having to extract and replace memory boards or reconfigure memory using logical partitions. Moreover, the `rmss` command provides a facility to run an application over a range of memory sizes, displaying, for each memory size, performance statistics such as the response time of the application and the amount of paging.

The main use for the `rmss` command is as a capacity planning tool, to determine how much memory a workload needs. It can also be used as a problem determination tool, particularly for those cases where having more memory degrades performance.

To determine whether the `rmss` command is installed and available, run the following command:

```bash
# lslpp -I perfagent.tools
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-z</code></td>
<td>Displays the maximum memory size dynamically allocated (malloc) by <code>svmon</code> during its execution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-m</code></td>
<td>Displays information about the source segment rather than the mapping segment when a segment is mapping a source segment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-d</code></td>
<td>Displays the memory statistics of the processes belonging to a given entity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-t count</code></td>
<td>Displays memory usage statistics for the top count object to be printed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-i interval [NumIntervals]</code></td>
<td>Instructs the <code>svmon</code> command to print statistics out repetitively. Statistics are collected and printed every <code>interval</code> seconds. <code>NumIntervals</code> is the number of repetitions; if not specified, <code>svmon</code> runs until user interruption (Ctrl+C).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** If no command line flag is given, then the `-G` flag is implicit.

Because it may take a few seconds to collect statistics for some options, the observed interval may be larger than the specified interval.

If none of the `-u`, `-p`, `-g`, and `-v` flags are specified, `-u` is implicit.
The `rmss` command can be invoked two ways:

1. To change the memory size and exit.
2. As a driver program that executes a specified application multiple times over a range of memory sizes and displays important statistics that describe the application’s performance at each memory size.

The first invocation technique is useful when you want to get the look and feel of how your application performs at a given system memory size, when your application is too complex to be expressed as a single command, or when you want to run multiple instances of the application. The second invocation technique is appropriate when you have an application that can be invoked as an executable program or shell script file.

The `rmss` command has the following syntax:

```
rmss -c MemSize
rmss -r
rmss -p
```

The commonly used flags are listed in Table 3-6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-c MemSize</code></td>
<td>Changes the simulated memory size to the MemSize value, which is an integer or decimal fraction in units of megabytes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-d MemSize</code></td>
<td>Specifies the increment between memory sizes to be simulated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-f MemSize</code></td>
<td>Specifies the final memory size.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The memory size simulated by the `rmss` command is the total size of the machine’s real memory, including the memory used by the operating system and any other programs that may be running. It is not the amount of memory used specifically by the application itself.
For example, to change the memory size to 500 MB, enter:

```
# rmss -c 500
Simulated memory size changed to 500 Mb.
```

To reset the memory size to the real memory size of the machine, enter:

```
# rmss -r
```

When any combination of the -s, -f, -d, -n, and -o flags is used, the `rmss` command runs as a driver program, which executes a command multiple times over a range of memory sizes, and displays statistics describing the command's performance at each memory size.

An example of the report produced by the `rmss` command follows:

```
# rmss -s 1000 -f 900 -d 10 -n 1 -o /tmp/rmss.out cp /smit.log /dev/null

Hostname: server4.itsc.austin.ibm.com
Real memory size: 1024 Mb
Time of day: Wed Sep 18 15:24:13 2002
Command: cp/smit.log /dev/null

Simulated memory size initialized to 1000 Mb.

Number of iterations per memory size = 1 warmup + 1 measured = 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Memory size (megabytes)</th>
<th>Avg. Pageins</th>
<th>Avg. Response Time (sec.)</th>
<th>Avg. Pagein Rate (pageins / sec.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>990</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>980</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>106.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>970</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>176.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>960</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>950</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>141.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>940</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>105.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>930</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>248.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>920</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>109.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>910</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>105.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>108.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
Simulated final memory size.

The report consists of four columns.

- The left-most Memory Size column gives the memory size.
- The Avg. Pageins column gives the average number of page-ins that occurred when the application was run at that memory size. It is important to note that the Avg. Pageins column refers to all page-in operations, including code, data, and file reads, from all programs that completed while the application ran.
- The Avg. Response Time column gives the average amount of time it took the application to complete.
- The Avg. Pagein Rate column gives the average rate of page-ins.

3.7 The topas command

The `topas` command reports vital statistics about activity on the local system using a text-based output. It requires the AIX Version 5L (or later) perfagent.tools fileset to be installed on the system. The `topas` command has received updates since the time of writing, so check the AIX product documentation for additional features. This command is a type of compilation of diagnostic commands, such as `sar`, `vmstat`, `iostat`, and `netstat`. It allows you to see all of the statistics on one screen so it is easy to observe interactions between them. The `topas` command has the following syntax:

```
topas [ -d number_of_monitored_hot_disks ] [ -h ]
[ -i monitoring_interval_in_seconds ]
[ -n number_of_monitored_hot_network_interfaces ]
[ -p number_of_monitored_hot_processes ]
[ -w number_of_monitored_hot_WLM_classes ] [ -c number_of_monitored_hot_CPUs ]
[ -P | -W ]
```

The commonly used flags are listed in Table 3-7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-i</td>
<td>Sets the monitoring interval in seconds. The default is 2 seconds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-p</td>
<td>Specifies the number of hot processes to be monitored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-w</td>
<td>Specifies the number of hot WorkLoad Manager (WLM) classes to be monitored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c</td>
<td>Specifies the number of hot CPUs to be monitored.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7.1 Common uses of the topas command

Figure 3-1 on page 100 shows the standard topas command and its output. The system host name is displayed on the top line of the screen. The line below shows the time and date as well as the sample interval used for measurement.

CPU utilization statistics
CPU utilization is graphically and numerically displayed below the date and time and is split up into a percentage of idle, wait, user, and kernel time.

Idle time The percentage of time when the processor is not performing any tasks
Wait time The percentage of time when the CPU is waiting for the response of an input output device such as a disk or network adapter
User time The percentage of time when the CPU is executing a program in user mode
Kernel time The percentage of time when the CPU is running in kernel mode

Network interface statistics
The following network statistics are available over the monitoring period.

Network The name of the interface adapter
KBPS Reports the total throughput of the interface in kilobytes per second
I-Pack Reports the number of packets received per second
O-Pack Reports the number of packets sent per second
KB-In Reports the number of kilobytes received per second
KB-Out Reports the number of kilobytes sent per second

Disk drive statistics
The following disk drive statistics are available.

Disk The name of the disk drive.
Busy% Reports the percentage of time that the disk drive was active.
KBPS Reports the total throughput of the disk in kilobytes per second. This value is the sum of KB-Read and KB-Writ.
TPS Reports the number of transfers per second or I/O requests to a disk drive.
KB-Read Reports the number of kilobytes read per second.
KB-Writ Reports the number of kilobytes written per second.

**Process statistics**

The top hot processes are displayed with the following headings.

**Name**
The name of the process. Where the number of characters in the process name exceeds nine, the name will be truncated. No path name details for the process are displayed.

**PID**
Shows the process identification number for the process. This is useful when a process needs to be stopped.

**CPU%**
Reports on the CPU time utilized by this process.

**PgSp**
Reports on the paging space that has been allocated to this process.

**Owner**
Displays the owner of the process.

**Event and queue statistics**

This part of the report is on the right-hand side of the topas display screen and reports on select system global events and queues over the sampling interval.

**Cswitch**
Reports the number of context switches per second

**Syscall**
Reports the total number of system calls per second

**Reads**
Reports the number of read system calls per second

**Writes**
Reports the number of write system calls per second

**Forks**
Reports the number of fork system calls per second

**Execs**
Reports the number of exec system calls per second

**Runqueue**
Reports the average number of threads that were ready to run, but were waiting for a processor to become available

**Waitqueue**
Reports the average number of threads waiting for paging to complete

**File and tty statistics**

The file and tty part of the topas display is located on the extreme right-hand side at the top. The reported items are listed below.

**Readch**
Reports the number of bytes read through the read system call per second

**Writech**
Reports the number of bytes written through the write system call per second
Rawin  Reports the number of bytes read in from a tty device per second
Ttyout Reports the number of bytes written to a tty device per second
Igets  Reports on the number of calls per second to the inode lookup routines
Namei  Reports the number of calls per second to the path lookup routine
Dirblk Reports on the number of directory blocks scanned per second by the directory search routine

Paging statistics
There are two parts of the paging statistics reported by topas. The first part is total paging statistics. This simply reports the total amount of paging available on the system and the percentages free and used. The second part provides a breakdown of the paging activity. The reported items and their meanings are listed below.

Faults  Reports the number of faults
Steals  Reports the number of 4-KB pages of memory stolen by the Virtual Memory Manager per second
PgspIn Reports the number of 4-KB pages read in from the paging space per second
PgspOut Reports the number of 4-KB pages written to the paging space per second
PageIn Reports the number of 4-KB pages read per second
PageOut Reports the number of 4-KB pages written per second
Sios  Reports the number of input/output requests per second issued by the Virtual Memory Manager

Memory statistics
The memory statistics are listed below.

Real  Shows the actual physical memory of the system in megabytes
%Comp  Reports real memory allocated to computational pages
%Noncomp  Reports real memory allocated to non-computational pages
%Client  Reports on the amount of memory that is currently used to cache remotely mounted files
NFS statistics
Statistics for client and server calls per second are displayed.

WLM classes
This subsection displays a list of hot WorkLoad Manager (WLM) Classes. The maximum number of WLM classes displayed is the number of hot WLM classes being monitored as specified with the -w flag. A smaller number of classes will be displayed if other subsections are also being displayed. Pressing the w key turns off this subsection. The following fields are displayed for each class:

- **%CPU Utilization**: The average CPU utilization of the WLM class over the monitoring interval.
- **%Mem Utilization**: The average memory utilization of the WLM class over the monitoring interval.
- **%Blk I/O**: The average percent of block I/O of the WLM class over the monitoring interval. When this subsection first displays the list of hot WLM classes, the list will be sorted by the CPU% field. However, the list can be sorted by the other fields by moving the cursor to the top of the desired column.

Processes
This subsection displays a list of hot processes. The maximum number of Processes displayed is the number of hot processes being monitored as specified with the -p flag. A smaller number of processes will be displayed if other subsections are also being displayed. Pressing the p key turns off this subsection. The processes are sorted by their CPU usage over the monitoring interval. The following fields are displayed for each process:

- **Name**: The name of the executable program executing in the process. The name is stripped of any path name and argument information and truncated to nine characters in length.
- **Process ID**: The process ID of the process.
- **%CPU Utilization**: The average CPU utilization of the process over the monitoring interval. The first time a process is shown, this value is the average CPU utilization over the lifetime of the process.
Paging Space Used

The size of the paging space allocated to this process. This can be considered an expression of the footprint of the process but does not include the memory used to keep the executable program and any shared libraries it may depend on.

Process Owner (if the WLM section is off)

The user name of the user who owns the process.

WorkLoad Management (WLM) Class (if the WLM section is on)

The WLM class to which the process belongs.

Note: In order to obtain a meaningful output from the `topas` command, the screen or graphics window must support a minimum of 80 characters by 24 lines. If the display is smaller than this, then parts of the output become illegible.

The output of the `topas` command is shown in Figure 3-1.

```
Figure 3-1 The topas command output
```

In AIX 5L Version 5.1, the `topas` program has been enhanced to add two alternate screens, the CPU utilization report has become an optional subsection, and the fixed section includes an additional subsection with NFS statistics, while
the variable section includes a new WLM subsection. The first alternate screen (reachable with the \texttt{P} command or the -\texttt{P} flag), presents the list of busiest processes, similar to the processes subsection of the main screen, but with more columns. This screen is sortable by any of its columns. The second alternate screen (reachable with the \texttt{W} command, or the -\texttt{W} flag), is divided into two sections. The top section is the same list of busiest WLM classes as presented in the WLM subsection of the main screen, also sortable by any of its columns. When the user selects one the WLM classes shown using the arrow keys and the \texttt{f} key, the second section of the screen will show the list of hot processes within the selected WLM class.

While \texttt{topas} is running, it accepts one-character subcommands. Each time the monitoring interval elapses, the program checks for one of the following subcommands and responds to the action requested:

- **a**: The \texttt{a} key shows all of the variable subsections being monitored (CPU, network, disk, WLM, and process). Pressing the \texttt{a} key always returns the \texttt{topas} command to the initial main display.

- **c**: The \texttt{c} key toggles the CPU subsection between the cumulative report, off, and a list of the busiest CPUs. The number of busiest CPUs displayed will depend upon the space available on the screen.

- **d**: The \texttt{d} key toggles the disk subsection between a list of busiest disks, off, and the report on the total disk activity of the system. The number of busiest disks displayed will depend upon the space available on the screen.

- **h**: The \texttt{h} key shows the help screen.

- **n**: The \texttt{n} key toggles the network interfaces subsection between a list of busiest interfaces, off, and the report on the total network activity of the system. The number of busiest interfaces displayed will depend upon the space available on the screen.

- **w**: The \texttt{w} key toggles the WorkLoad Management (WLM) classes subsection on and off. The number of busiest WLM classes displayed will depend upon the space available on the screen.

- **p**: The \texttt{p} key toggles the hot processes subsection on and off. The number of busiest processes displayed will depend upon the space available on the screen.

- **P**: The uppercase \texttt{P} key replaces the default display with the full-screen process display. This display provides more detailed information about processes running on the system than the process section of the main display. When the \texttt{P} key is pressed again, it toggles back to the default main display.
The uppercase W key replaces the default display with the full-screen WLM class display. This display provides more detailed information about WLM classes and processes assigned to classes. When the W key is pressed again, it toggles back to the default main display.

Moving the cursor over a WLM class and pressing the f key displays the list of top processes in the class at the bottom of the WLM screen. This key is valid only when topas is in the full-screen WLM display (by using the W key or the -W flag).

q Quits the program.
r Refreshes the display.

Check the latest documentation for a full set of subcommands and command line options.

3.8 The emstat command

The PowerPC architecture no longer supports, in hardware, 35 POWER instructions. To maintain compatibility with older binaries (which may contain these deleted instructions), the AIX Version 4 kernel includes emulation routines that provide support for the deleted instructions. Attempting to execute a deleted instruction results in an illegal instruction exception. The kernel decodes the illegal instruction, and, if it is a deleted instruction, the kernel runs an emulation routine that functionally emulates the instruction.

The emstat command reports statistics regarding how many instructions the system must emulate. The emulated instruction count should be used to determine if an application needs to be recompiled to eliminate instructions that must be emulated on 601 PowerPC, 604 PowerPC, RS64, or other non-POWER processors. If an instruction must be emulated, more CPU cycles are required to execute this instruction than an instruction that does not have to be emulated.

Most emulation problems are seen on older PowerPC 604 systems. A typical example is a PowerPC 601 system that is upgraded to a 604 system. If performance slows down instead of improving, it is most likely due to emulation.

The solution to emulation is to recompile the application in common mode. The default architecture platform for compilations on AIX Version 4 is common architecture. However, the default architecture on AIX Version 3 was for POWER, POWER2, and PowerPC 601. If these binaries ran on a PowerPC 604, some instructions may be emulated.
To determine whether the `emstat` command is installed and available, run the following command:

```
# lslpp -l bos.adt.samples
```

**Note:** In AIX 5L, the `emstat` command is located in the perfagent.tools fileset.

The `emstat` command works similarly to the `vmstat` command in that you specify an interval time in seconds, and, optionally, the number of intervals. The value in the first column is the cumulative count since system boot, while the value in the second column is the number of instructions emulated during the specified interval. Emulations on the order of many thousands per second can have an impact on performance:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/emstat 2
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>emstat total count</th>
<th>emstat interval count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>965</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>967</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>967</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>967</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>974</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>974</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>974</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>974</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>974</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1284</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2171</td>
<td>887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3325</td>
<td>1154</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once emulation has been detected, the next step is to determine which application is emulating instructions. This is much harder to determine. One way is to run only one application at a time and monitor it with the `emstat` program.

### 3.9 The `/proc` file system

AIX 5L provides support of the `/proc` file system. This pseudo file system maps processes and kernel data structures to corresponding files.
The output of the `mount` and `df` commands showing /proc is provided in the following examples:

```
# mount
node mounted mounted over vfs date options
-------- -------------- --------------- ------ ------------ ---------------
/dev/hd4  /              jfs  Sep 11 16:52  rw,log=/dev/hd8
/dev/hd2  /usr            jfs  Sep 11 16:52  rw,log=/dev/hd8
/dev/hd9var  /var         jfs  Sep 11 16:52  rw,log=/dev/hd8
/dev/hd3  /tmp            jfs  Sep 11 16:52  rw,log=/dev/hd8
/dev/hd1  /home           jfs  Sep 11 16:53  rw,log=/dev/hd8
/proc    /proc            procfs Sep 11 16:53 rw
```

```
# df
Filesystem  512-blocks Free %Used Iused %Iused Mounted on
/dev/hd4           65536  27760  58%     2239   14%  /
/dev/hd2       1507328 242872  84%    22437   12%  /usr
/dev/hd9var     32768   16432  50%      448   11%  /var
/dev/hd3        557056  538008   4%      103    1%  /tmp
/dev/hd1        32768   31608   4%       47    2%  /home
/proc           -       -       -       -     -  /proc
```

The entry in the `/etc/vfs file appears as follows:

```
# lsvfs procfs
procfs 6 none none
```

Each process is assigned a directory entry in the /proc file system with a name identical to its process ID. In this directory, several files and subdirectories are created corresponding to internal process control data structures. Most of these files are read-only, but some of them can also be written to and be used for process control purposes. The interfaces to these files are the standard C language subroutines open(), read(), write(), and close(). It is possible to have several concurrent readers, but for reliability reasons, the first write access should use the exclusive flag, so that subsequent opens for write access fail. The description of the data structures used can be found in `/usr/include/sys/procfs.h`. The ownership of the files in the /proc file system is the same as for the processes they represent. Therefore, regular users can only access /proc files that belong to their own processes.

A simple example illustrates this further. Suppose a process is waiting for standard input (the information in the process data structures is basically static). If you look at an active process, a lot of the information would constantly change:

```
# ls -l /proc/19082/
total 0
dr-xr-xr-x 1 root system 0 Sep 15 15:12 .
dr-xr-xr-x 1 root system 0 Sep 15 15:12 ..
-rw------- 1 root system 0 Sep 15 15:12 as
```
Table 3-8 provides the function of the pseudo files listed in the previous output.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudo file name</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>Read/write access to address space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cred</td>
<td>Credentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ctl</td>
<td>Write access to control process, for example, stop or resume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lwp directory</td>
<td>Kernel thread information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>map</td>
<td>Virtual address map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object directory</td>
<td>Map file names</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>psinfo</td>
<td>Information for the <code>ps</code> command; readable by everyone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sigact</td>
<td>Signal status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>status</td>
<td>Process state information, such as address, size of heap, or stack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sysent</td>
<td>Information about system calls</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pseudo file named `as` allows you to access the address space of the process, and as it can be seen by the rw (read/write) access flags, you can read and write to the memory belonging to the process.

It should be understood that only the user regions of the process' address can be written to under /proc. Also, a copy of the address space of the process is made while tracing under /proc. This is the address space that can be modified. This is done so when the `as` file is closed; the original address space is unmodified.

The `cred` file provides information about the credentials associated with this process. Writing to the `ctl` file allows you to control the process; for example, to stop or to resume it. The `map` file allows access to the virtual address map of the process. Information usually shown by the `ps` command can be found in the `psinfo` file, which is readable for all system users. The current status of all signals
associated with this process is recorded in the sigact file. State information for this process, such as the address and size of the process heap and stack (among others), can be found in the status file. Finally, the sysent file allows you to check for the system calls available to this process.

The object directory contains files with names as they appear in the map file. These files correspond to files mapped in the address space of the process. For example, the content of this directory appears as follows:

```
# ls -l /proc/19082/object
total 13192
dr-x------   1 root     system            0 Sep 15 15:09 .
dr-xr-xr-x   1 root     system            0 Sep 15 15:09 ..
-r-xr-xr-x   1 bin      bin            6264 Aug 24 21:16 a.out
-rwxr-xr-x   1 bin      bin           14342 Aug 22 22:37 jfs.10.5.10592
-r-xr-xr-x   2 bin      bin           6209308 Aug 24 13:03 jfs.10.5.2066
-r--r--r--   1 bin      bin            118267 Aug 24 15:06 jfs.10.5.2076
-r-xr-xr-x   1 bin      bin         6209308 Aug 24 13:03 jfs.10.5.2066
-r--r--r--   1 bin      bin            11009 Aug 24 14:59 jfs.10.5.4129
-r--r--r--   1 bin      bin            377400 Aug 24 15:05 jfs.10.5.4161
-r-xr-xr-x   1 bin      bin            6264 Aug 24 21:16 jfs.10.5.6371
```

The a.out file always represents the executable binary file for the program running in the process itself. Because the example program is written in C and must use the C runtime library, it can be concluded from the size of the entry named jfs.10.5.2066 that this corresponds to the /usr/ccs/lib/libc.a file. Checking this file reveals that the numbers in the file name are the major and minor device numbers, and the inode number, respectively. This can be seen in the following output, where /usr corresponds to /dev/hd2 and the ncheck command is used to find a file belonging to an inode in a specific file system:

```
# ls -l /dev/hd2
brw-rw----   1 root     system    10,  5 Sep 20 16:09 /dev/hd2
# ncheck -i 2066 /dev/hd2
/dev/hd2:      2066    /ccs/lib/libc.a
```

The lwp directory has subdirectory entries for each kernel thread running in the process. The term lwp stands for lightweight process and is the same as the term thread used in the AIX documentation. It is used in the context of the /proc file system to keep a common terminology with the /proc implementation of other operating systems. The names of the subdirectories are the thread IDs. The test program has only one thread with the ID 54891, as shown in the output of the ps command. Therefore, only the content of this one thread directory is shown:

```
# ps -mo THREAD -p 19082
  USER  PID  PPID    TID ST  CP PRI SC    WCHAN        F     TT BND COMMAND
root 19082 20678      - A    0  83  1 700e6244   200001 pts/3 - wc
       -     -     -  54891 S    0  83  1 700e6244    10400      -   - -
# ls -l /proc/19082/lwp/54891
```
The lwpctl, lwpsinfo, and lwpstatus files contain thread-specific information to control this thread, for the \texttt{ps} command, and about the state, similar to the corresponding files in the /proc/pid directory.

As an example of what can be obtained from reading these files, the following lines show the content of the cred file (after the use of the \texttt{od} command):

```
# ls -l /proc/19082/cred
-r-------- 1 root system 128 Sep 15 15:07 /proc/19082/cred
# od -x /proc/19082/cred
0000000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000 0000
0000016 0000 0000 0000 0007 0000 0000 0000 0000
0000020 0000 0000 0000 0002 0000 0000 0000 0003
0000022 0000 0000 0000 0007 0000 0000 0000 0008
0000024 0000 0000 0000 000a 0000 0000 0000 000b
0000026
```

The output shows, in the leftmost column, the byte offset of the file in octal representation. The remainder of the lines are the actual content of the file in hexadecimal notation. Even if the directory listing shows the size of the file to be 128 bytes or 0200 bytes in octal, the actual output is 0260 or 176 bytes in size. This is due to the dynamic behavior of the last field in the corresponding structure. The digit 7 in the line with the number 0160 specifies the number of groups the user ID running this process belongs to. Because every user ID is at least part of its primary group, but belongs possibly to a number of other groups that cannot be known in advance, only space for the primary group is reserved in the cred data structure. In this case, the primary group ID is zero because the user ID running this process is root. Reading the complete content of the file, nevertheless, reveals all the other group IDs the user currently belongs to. The group IDs in this case (2, 3, 7, 8, 0xa (10), and 0xb (11)) map to the groups bin, sys, security, cron, audit, and lp. This is exactly the set of groups the user ID root belongs to by default.

### 3.10 General performance guidelines

Table 3-9 on page 108 lists some general rule-of-thumb formula for investigating system performance.
### Table 3-9  General performance guidelines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formula</th>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%usr + %sys &lt; 80%</td>
<td>sar</td>
<td>If %usr and %sys are greater than 80 percent, then the system may be CPU bound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vmstat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po / fr &gt; 1/h</td>
<td>vmstat</td>
<td>If the ratio of po:fr is greater than 1–6, then the system may be thrashing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fr / sr = high</td>
<td>vmstat</td>
<td>If the ratio of fr:sr is high, then the system may be over committing memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%usr + %sys &gt; 70%</td>
<td>iostat</td>
<td>If utilization is greater than 70 percent processes are waiting longer than necessary for I/O to complete, as most processes sleep while waiting for their I/O request to complete.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.11 Quiz

The following assessment questions help verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this chapter.

1. When monitoring a system with `vmstat`, which of the following values under the cpu heading would indicate that the system is probably CPU bound?
   
   A. The value of wa is greater than 70.
   
   B. The value of id is greater than 70.
   
   C. The sum of us and sy is consistently between 99 and 100.
   
   D. The sum of id and wa is consistently between 99 and 100.

2. Which of the following commands should be used to show the number of system calls per second that are being executed?
   
   A. `pstat`
   
   B. `vmstat`
   
   C. `filemon`
   
   D. `lockstat`

3. When using `vmstat` with intervals, which of the following describes the values of the first line of statistics?
   
   A. Averages since the system boot
   
   B. Averages since the top of the hour
   
   C. Averages since the beginning of the day
   
   D. Averages since the beginning of the month
4. Using the report from `vmstat -s`, as shown in the exhibit, which of the following indicates how the paging statistics can be improved?

```
vmstat -s
  11228009 total address trans. faults
  1791982 page ins
  419439 page outs
  221142 paging space page ins
  231045 paging space page outs
  0 total reclaims
  3461761 zero filled pages faults
  10630 executable filled pages faults
  3298154 pages examined by clock
  52 revolutions of the clock hand
  1199652 pages freed by the clock
  76372 backtracks
  0 lock misses
  0 free frame waits
  0 extend XPT waits
  254265 pending I/O waits
  823719 start I/Os
  823719 iodones
  43493481 cpu context switches
  140637066 device interrupts
  0 software interrupts
  0 traps
  85003313 syscalls
```

A. Add paging space.
B. Increase CPU power.
C. Add physical memory.
D. Reduce the number of system calls.

5. When monitoring a system using `vmstat` with an interval, which of the following conclusions should be drawn about the metrics under page pi and page po?

A. Occasional small numbers are normal.
B. Any non-zero value of pi or po indicates a RAM shortage.
C. Any non-zero value of pi or po indicates a paging space shortage.
D. Large values are normal only on multi-processor systems.
6. When monitoring a system using `/usr/bin/vmstat` with an interval, how does the size of the interval affect the page pi and page po metrics?
   A. It should not; the metric is in pages per second.
   B. The larger the interval, the larger the values.
   C. The interval only affects the first data line of output.
   D. The interval only affects the pi column, not the po column.

7. Which of the following commands will display the total number of pages paged out to paging space since the system was booted?
   A. `lsp`  
   B. `iostat`  
   C. `uptime`  
   D. `/usr/bin/vmstat -s`

8. Which of the following tools should be used to analyze memory usage for the whole system at a point in time?
   A. `iostat`  
   B. `svmon`  
   C. `netstat`  
   D. `filemon`

9. In order to obtain a list of the top memory users on an AIX Version 4 system, which of the following commands should be used?
   A. `pstat`  
   B. `tprof`  
   C. `svmon`  
   D. `filemon`

10. Using the `ps -el` output, as shown in the exhibit, which of the following conclusions is most appropriate to draw?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>UID</th>
<th>PID</th>
<th>PPID</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>PRI</th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>ADDR</th>
<th>SZ</th>
<th>WCAN</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>CMD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>202803 S 0 1 0 0 60</td>
<td>20 1004 528</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>131:33</td>
<td>init</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260801 S 0 140 1 0 60</td>
<td>20 4550 208</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>srcmstr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>240801 S 0 169 1 0 60</td>
<td>20 37cd 176 5a6a02</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0:01</td>
<td>cron</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>260801 S 0 244 1 0 60</td>
<td>20 5d57 144</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3:18</td>
<td>portmap</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>240801 S 0 283 1 0 60</td>
<td>20 34cd 72 5e3439</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>42:42</td>
<td>syncd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. The snmpd process is running at a fixed priority of 60.

B. If both the syncd process and the portmap process become runable at the same time, then the syncd process would get scheduled first.

C. If both the userprog process and the qdaemon process become runable at the same time, then the qdaemon process would get scheduled first.

D. If both the syslogd process and the llbd process become runable at the same time, then the llbd process would get scheduled first.

11. Which of the following general operation techniques will best provide a measurable performance improvement of a system?

A. Attach SCSI devices in ID order.

B. Perform backups at regular intervals.

C. Perform regular preventative maintenance of devices with moving parts.

D. Reschedule the processing to balance the workload.
12. A developer tried to run a sar report and received the following error:

```
sar:0551-201 cannot open /usr/adm/sa/sa12
```

Which of the following procedures should be performed so that the developer can obtain sar reports?

A. Run bosboot -a -L.
B. Edit inittab to collect data.
C. Edit crontab to start collecting data.
D. Run `bosboot -ad /dev/ipldevice` and then reboot.

13. After a migration from an older POWER server to a PowerPC-based server, users complain about decreased performance. Which of the following tools should be used to investigate the performance problem?

A. `netstat`
B. `iostat`
C. `perfpmr`
D. `emstat`

14. To examine the Exhibit, press the Exhibit button. Which of the following conclusions is most appropriate to be drawn from looking at the topas output?

A. The system is an AIX 5.x and WLM has been installed.
B. The system is an AIX 4.x and WLM has been installed.
C. From the command line, `topas -d2 -i4 -n2 -p20 -w2 -c2` was run on an AIX 5.x system.
D. From the command line, `topas -d2 -i2 -n2 -p20 -w2 -c2` was run on an AIX 4.x system.

15. A system administrator wishes to display the five most active processes and the two most active WLM classes but no disk information every 5 seconds. Which of the following commands would accomplish this?

A. `topas -i5 -w0 -p0`
B. `topas -i5 -p5 -n0 -d0 -w0`
C. `topas -i5 -p5 -d0`
16. Which of the following is true about the page-in and page-out metrics produced by `vmstat -s` output?
   A. Only file space for page-ins and page-outs is included.
   B. Only client paging for page-ins and page-outs is included.
   C. Only paging space for page-ins and page-outs is included.
   D. Paging to both the file space and paging space is included.

17. Which of the following is true of `vmstat` on AIX 5L?
   A. The re column always shows 0.
   B. The b column is always 0 for SMP machines.
   C. The sum of us, sys, id, and wa is always 100.
   D. The sum of r and b is equal to the number of CPUs times two.

18. When monitoring a system using `vmstat` with an interval, which of the following conclusions should be drawn about the metrics under page pi and page po?
   A. If pi is twice the value of po then more RAM is needed.
   B. If po is zero and pi is high it does not indicate a memory shortage.
   C. If po is zero and pi is high there is not enough paging on the system.
   D. The pi/po ratio should never be greater than 1 unless both values are 0.

19. Which of the following options from `vmstat` indicates that a system is thrashing?
   A. po/fr > 1/h
   B. (fr/sr) > re
   C. (maxperm/minperm) > po
   D. re > 0

20. What information does the line jfs.10.5.2002 provide in the following example?
   `/proc/9808/object>ls -l
   total 0
   dr-xr-xr-x  1 root  printq  Oct 5 10:34 .
   dr-xr-xr-x  1 root  system  Oct 5 10:34 ..
   -r-xr-xr-x  1 bin   bin    Oct 5 10:34 a.out
   -rwxr-xr-x  1 bin   bin    Oct 5 10:34 jfs.10.5.2002
   A. The first two numbers are the major/minor numbers and the 2002 is the
      inode number for the process.
   B. The first two numbers are date related and the 2002 is the process ID.
C. The `ncheck -s` command is run against the jfs.10.5.2002 file to determine what the inode is for the process.

D. An `od -x /proc/9808/object/jfs.10.5.2002` will give me the primary group, user ID, and current size of the running process.

21. Which of the following commands would a system administrator run to view memory usage by segment?
   A. `svmon`
   B. `tprof`
   C. `dbx`
   D. `bootinfo`

22. To get a general idea of memory utilization of a system at the current moment, which of the following commands should be used?
   A. `ps aux`
   B. `lsp -s`
   C. `bootinfo -r`
   D. `iostat 5 5`

23. Which of the following performance tools will provide source statement profiling and a summary of all CPU usage?
   A. `prof`
   B. `gprof`
   C. `tprof`
   D. `kprof`
3.11.1 Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.
1. C
2. B
3. A
4. C
5. A
6. A
7. D
8. B
9. C
10. D
11. D
12. C
13. D
14. A
15. C
16. D
17. A
18. B
19. A
20. A
21. A
22. A
23. C

3.12 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.
1. Describe how the sar command is set up to collect historical data.
2. Describe the differences between the sa1 and sa2 commands.
3. Describe how the crontab is modified to allow sar to collect data.

4. When running the vmstat command, there are either five or six measurement columns; describe all five or six and show the flag required for the sixth column.

5. Describe how a system could be described as CPU bound using the vmstat command. Also, what are the percentages for single- and multi-processor systems?

6. Name the seven types of reports the svmon command creates and give a brief description of each.

7. Which svmon command flags are used to display a program's resource utilization?

8. Which svmon command flags are used to display a user resource utilization on the system?
Disk I/O performance monitoring tools

The following topics are discussed in this chapter:

- Logical Volume Manager (LVM) performance analysis, using the `lslv` command
- Journaled file system (JFS) performance analysis tools, using the `filemon` and `fileplace` commands

All topics and tools discussed in this chapter will provide you with a set of methods for determining logical volume manager, file system, and disk I/O related performance issues.
4.1 Overview

With the AIX operating system, the handling of disk-related I/O is based upon different functional levels, as shown in Figure 4-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application Level</th>
<th>Logical Level</th>
<th>Physical Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JFS</td>
<td>Logical Volume Manager</td>
<td>Disk Drive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adapter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4-1  Disk, LVM, and file system levels

The lowest level is the physical level and consists of device drivers accessing the physical disks and using the corresponding adapters. The next level is the logical level, managed by the Logical Volume Manager (LVM), which controls the physical disk resources. The LVM provides a logical mapping of disk resources to the application level. The application level can consist of either the journaled file system (JFS) or raw access, for example, used by relational database systems.

The performance analysis tools discussed in the following section focus on the logical level (LVM) and on the application level (JFS). The monitoring of the physical level is primarily done by using the `iostat` command, which is described in 4.2, “The iostat command” on page 118.

Covering the entire subject of the AIX Logical Volume Manager is beyond the scope of this publication. For more background information on the AIX Logical Volume Manager, refer to *AIX Logical Volume Manager From A to Z: Introduction and Concepts*, SG24-5432, as well as the *AIX Version System Management Guide: Operating System and Devices*, SC23-2525.

4.2 The iostat command

The `iostat` command is a useful tool that provides a first indication of I/O-related performance problems. The `iostat` command is capable of reporting CPU statistics, terminal I/O statistics, and disk I/O statistics, which help identify the I/O load on individual components, such as hard disks.
The information from `iostat` reports can be used to modify system configurations to improve I/O load distribution between physical disks. The `iostat` command extracts data from AIX kernel I/O counters in the kernel address space, which are updated at every clock tick (1/100 second) for TTY as well as CPU and I/O subsystem activity.

The syntax of the `iostat` command is as follows:

```
iostat [-d | -t] [physicalVolume ...] [interval [count]]
```

The commonly used flags are provided in Table 4-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-d</td>
<td>This flag displays only the disk utilization report. The -d flag is exclusive of the -t flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-t</td>
<td>This flag displays only the TTY and CPU usage. The -t flag is exclusive of the -d flag.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By using the `physicalVolume` parameter (by specifying the physical volume (PV) name of the individual disk or CD-ROM), `iostat` generates an I/O report only for the specified PVs. If no PVs are specified, the `iostat` command generates a report for all drives.

The interval parameter specifies the amount of time in seconds between each report. The count parameter specifies the number of I/O reports generated. If the interval parameter is specified without the count parameter, the `iostat` command generates reports continuously.

An example of the `iostat` command is as follows:

```
# iostat 1 2
tty:      tin         tout   avg-cpu:  % user    % sys     % idle    % iowait
0.0         41.4              61.1      0.1       38.9       0.0

Disks:        % tm_act     Kbps      tps    Kb_read   Kb_wrtn
hdisk3           0.0       0.3       0.0     258032    224266
hdisk2           0.1       1.1       0.0     258088   1658678
hdisk0           0.0       0.9       0.1     746152    725871
hdisk1           0.1       1.5       0.0     974788   1660027
cd0              0.0       0.0       0.0          0         0
hdisk4           0.0       0.2       0.0     323080     40480
```
This example shows the output of an `iostat` command run that is updated every second (interval=1) and generated only two reports (count = 2).

Each report is a combination of a TTY and CPU utilization report and a disk utilization report. This example shows a system with five hard disks (hdisk0–hdisk4) and one CD-ROM drive. The first report shows the summary statistics since system startup, providing the collective summary of I/O operations on each drive. From the previous example, you can determine that hdisk1 has been the most actively used drive.

The second report provided is the actual drive usage during a one second interval.

During the report, there was a `copy` command started to provide disk I/O activity.

### 4.2.1 Historical disk I/O

In AIX 5L Version 5.1 and later, the system does not collect a history of disk activity by default, as some system resources are consumed for this operation. The system administrator has to decide whether to activate the disk I/O history or not.

If the disk I/O history is disabled, the `iostat` command displays a message similar to the following:

```
# iostat 1 1
```

```
TTY: tin tout avg-cpu: % user % sys % idle % iowait
0.0 41.5 61.2 0.1 38.8 0.0
" Disk history since boot not available. 
```

Collecting disk I/O history is an AIX operating system setting that can be enabled or disabled in SMIT using `smit chgsys`. Figure 4-2 on page 121 shows the corresponding SMIT screen.
4.2.2 Using disk I/O pacing

Disk-I/O pacing is intended to prevent programs that generate very large amounts of output from saturating the system's I/O facilities and causing the response times of less-demanding programs to deteriorate. Disk-I/O pacing enforces per-segment (which effectively means per-file) high and low water marks on the sum of all pending I/Os. When a process tries to write to a file that already has high water mark pending writes, the process is put to sleep until enough I/Os have completed to make the number of pending writes less than or equal to the low water mark. The logic of I/O-request handling does not change. The output from high-volume processes is slowed down somewhat.

The high and low water marks are set with the SMIT command by selecting System Environments -> Change/Show Characteristics of Operating System, as in Figure 4-3 on page 120, and then entering the number of pages for the high and low water marks. The default value for the high and low water marks is 0, which disables pacing. Changes to the maxpout and minpout values take effect immediately and remain in place until they are explicitly changed.
The effect of pacing on performance can be demonstrated with an experiment that consists of starting a vi editor session on a new file while another process is copying a 64 MB file with the cp command. The file is copied from hdisk1 to hdisk0 and the vi executable program is located on hdisk0. For the vi session to start, it must page itself in as well as perform a few other I/Os, which it does randomly one page at a time. This takes about 50 physical I/Os, which can be completed in 0.71 seconds on a slow machine when there is no contention for the disk. With the high water mark set to the default of 0, the logical writes from the cp command run ahead of the physical writes, and a large queue builds up.

Each I/O started by the vi session must wait its turn in the queue before the next I/O can be issued, and thus the vi command is not able to complete its needed I/O until after the cp command finishes. Table 4-2 shows the elapsed seconds for cp execution and vi initialization with different pacing parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High water mark</th>
<th>Low water mark</th>
<th>cp (sec)</th>
<th>vi (sec)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>vi not done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is important to notice that the `cp` duration is always longer when pacing is set. Pacing sacrifices some throughput on I/O-intensive programs to improve the response time of other programs. The challenge for a system administrator is to choose settings that result in a throughput/response-time trade-off that is consistent with the organization's priorities.

The high and low water marks were chosen by trial and error, based on our knowledge of the I/O path. Choosing them is not straightforward because of the combination of write-behind and asynchronous writes. High water marks of \((4 \times n) + 1\), where \(n\) is a positive integer, work particularly well because of the following interaction:

- The write-behind feature sends the previous four pages to disk when a logical write occurs to the first byte of the fifth page.
- If the pacing high water mark were a multiple of 4 (for example, 8), a process would hit the high water mark when it requested a write that extended into the ninth page. It would then be put to sleep before the write-behind algorithm had an opportunity to detect that the fourth dirty page is complete and the four pages were ready to be written.
- The process would then sleep with four full pages of output until its outstanding writes fell below the pacing low water mark.
- If, on the other hand, the high water mark had been set to 9, write-behind would get to schedule the four pages for output before the process was suspended.

One limitation of pacing is that it does not offer as much control when a process writes buffers larger than 4 KB. When a write is sent to the VMM and the high water mark has not been met, the VMM performs start I/Os on all pages in the buffer, even if that results in exceeding the high water mark. Pacing works well on the `cp` command because the `cp` command writes 4 KB at a time; but if the `cp` command wrote larger buffers, the times shown in Table 4-2 on page 122 for starting the `vi` session would increase.

Disk-I/O pacing is a tuning parameter that can improve interactive response time in some situations where foreground or background programs that write large volumes of data are interfering with foreground requests. If not used properly, however, it can reduce throughput excessively. The settings in the previous table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High water mark</th>
<th>Low water mark</th>
<th>cp (sec)</th>
<th>vi (sec)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to notice that the `cp` duration is always longer when pacing is set. Pacing sacrifices some throughput on I/O-intensive programs to improve the response time of other programs. The challenge for a system administrator is to choose settings that result in a throughput/response-time trade-off that is consistent with the organization's priorities.

The high and low water marks were chosen by trial and error, based on our knowledge of the I/O path. Choosing them is not straightforward because of the combination of write-behind and asynchronous writes. High water marks of \((4 \times n) + 1\), where \(n\) is a positive integer, work particularly well because of the following interaction:

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Disk-I/O pacing is a tuning parameter that can improve interactive response time in some situations where foreground or background programs that write large volumes of data are interfering with foreground requests. If not used properly, however, it can reduce throughput excessively. The settings in the previous table
are a good place to start, but some experimenting will be needed to find the best settings for your workload. For the newer systems, view these numbers as the minimum starting point.

Programs whose presence in a workload may make imposition of disk-I/O pacing necessary include:

- Programs that generate large amounts of output algorithmically, and thus are not constrained by the time required to read input. Some such programs may need pacing on comparatively fast processors and not need it on comparatively slow processors.
- Programs that write large, possibly somewhat modified, files that have been read in their entirety shortly before writing begins (by a previous command, for example).
- Filters, such as the `tar` command, that read a file and write it out again with little processing. The need for pacing can be exacerbated if the input is being read from a faster disk drive than the output is being written to.

**Setting automatic reboot**

Set the server to automatically reboot after a system crash with the SMIT command by selecting **System Environments -> Change/Show Characteristics of Operating System**, as in Figure 4-4 on page 123.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change / Show Characteristics of Operating System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Image of SMIT command interface" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Figure 4-4" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 4-4  The smitty chgsys fastpath to set automatic reboot*
### 4.2.3 TTY and CPU utilization report

The first report section displayed by the `iostat` command contains the TTY and CPU utilization report.

The following columns are displayed and their meanings provided:

- **tin** Shows the total characters per second read by all TTY devices
- **tout** Indicates the total characters per second written to all TTY devices
- **% user** Shows the percentage of CPU utilization that occurred while executing at the user level (application)
- **% sys** Shows the percentage of CPU utilization that occurred while executing at the system level (kernel)
- **% idle** Shows the percentage of time that the CPU or CPUs were idle while the system did not have an outstanding disk I/O request
- **% iowait** Shows the percentage of time that the CPU or CPUs was idle during which the system had an outstanding disk I/O request

The TTY information columns, tin and tout, show the number of characters read and written by all TTY devices. This includes both real and pseudo TTY devices. Real TTY devices are those connected to an asynchronous port, such as serial terminals, modems, FAXes, and so on. Pseudo TTY devices are `telnet` sessions and `xterm` (or other X-based terminal emulators, such as `dtterm` and `aixterm`).

Since the processing of character I/O consumes CPU resources, it is important to monitor the relation between increased TTY activity and CPU utilization. If such a relationship exists, the TTY devices, along with the applications using these TTY devices, should be analyzed. For example, a FAX application could be improved by enhancing the speed of the TTY port parameters so that a file transfer would become faster and more efficient.

The CPU statistics columns % user, % sys, % idle, and % iowait provide information about the CPU usage. The same information is also reported in the `vmstat` command output in the columns us, sy, id, and wa.

In general, a high % iowait indicates that the system has a memory shortage due to paging or an inefficient I/O subsystem configuration. Understanding the I/O bottleneck and improving the efficiency of the I/O subsystem requires more data than `iostat` can provide.

On a system that shows 0% iowait when running the `iostat` command, there still might be an I/O bottleneck if the I/O to the disks is running at full capacity, as this will not show up in the % iowait column.
When the `iostat` command report shows that a CPU-bound situation does not exist with a high % idle and a % iowait time greater than 25 percent, this might point to an I/O or disk-bound situation.

The following is an example extracted from an `iostat` command report:

```
... 
tty:      tin         tout   avg-cpu:  % user    % sys     % idle    % iowait
0.0        223.5               0.2      4.2       70.0      25.5

Disks:        % tm_act     Kbps      tps    Kb_read   Kb_wrtn
hdisk3           2.7     163.2      20.4       1632         0
hdisk2           2.8     170.8      21.9       1708         0
hdisk0           0.0       0.0       0.0          0         0
hdisk1           2.1     175.6      17.3       1756         0
cd0              0.0       0.0       0.0          0         0
hdisk4          99.1     715.6     125.0          0      7156
```

The preceding example shows a high % iowait due to an I/O bottleneck on hdisk4.

Depending on the actual system, a high % iowait time could also be caused by excessive paging, due to a lack of real memory. It could also be due to unbalanced disk load, fragmented data, or usage patterns.

For an unbalanced disk load, the same `iostat` report provides the necessary information. But for information about file systems or logical volumes (which are logical resources) you have to use an AIX-specific tool, such as `filemon` or `fileplace`.

Alternatively, the `iostat` command can be used for determining that a performance problem is related to the CPU. Although `vmstat` should be the preferred tool for this analysis, in the absence of `vmstat` reports, `iostat` could be used. A good indication of a CPU bound problem is when % iowait time is 0 and the system is not idle (% idle = 0).

To investigate if a system does not have a memory problem, verify that the physical volume that is used for swapping does not have an excessive load. Use the `lsps -a` command to determine the physical volume of the swap area.

### 4.2.4 The iostat command on SMP systems

The calculation of I/O wait time on symmetrical multiprocessor (SMP) systems has been modified to provide a more accurate accounting of CPU utilization in commands such as `vmstat` and `iostat`. 
Prior to AIX Version 4.3.3, the calculation of I/O wait time on SMP systems could result in inflated values (compared to uniprocessor (UP) systems). This was due to a statistical anomaly of the way AIX counted CPU time. The `vmstat` and `iostat` commands simply reported the CPU breakdown into the four categories of `usr/sys/wio/idle` as tabulated within the kernel. At each clock interrupt on each processor (100 times a second in AIX), a determination is made as to which of the four categories to place the last 10 ms of time in. If the CPU is busy in user mode at the time of the clock interrupt, `usr` gets the clock tick added into its category. If the CPU is busy in kernel mode at the time of the clock interrupt, the `sys` category gets the tick. If the CPU is not busy, a check is made to see if any disk I/O is in progress. If any disk I/O is in progress, the `wio` category is incremented. If no disk I/O is in progress and the CPU is not busy, then the `idle` category gets the tick. Notice in the prior discussion that it does not matter which processor starts the I/O. This fact leads to higher wio times on SMP systems compared to UP systems in some situations.

Since AIX Version 4.3.3, the I/O wait time is no longer inflated; all CPUs are no longer attributed wait time when a disk is busy and the CPU is idle. The decision is based on whether a thread is awaiting an I/O on the CPU being measured. This method can report accurate wio times when just a few threads are doing I/O and the system is otherwise idle.

### 4.2.5 Disk utilization report

Any potential disk I/O performance problem should be analyzed with the `iostat` command first. To only report the disk I/O, use the `iostat` command `-d` flag. In addition, the disk statistics can be limited to the selected disks by listing the physical volume names.

The `iostat` disk utilization report displays the following columns:

- **Disks**: Shows the names of the physical volumes. They are either disk or CD-ROM, followed by a number. By default, all drives are displayed unless the drives are specified in the command line.

- **% tm_act**: Indicates the percentage of time the physical disk was active. A drive is active during data transfer and command processing, such as seeking a new location. An increase in the disk active time percentage implies a performance decrease and response time increase. In general, when the utilization exceeds 40 percent, processes are waiting longer than necessary for I/O to complete, because most UNIX processes sleep while waiting for their I/O requests to complete.

- **Kbps**: Indicates the amount of data transferred (read or write) to the drive in KB per second. This is the sum of `Kb_read` plus `Kb_wrtn`, divided by the seconds in the reporting interval.
tps Indicates the number of transfers per second that were issued to the physical disk. A transfer is an I/O request at the device driver level to the physical disk. Multiple logical requests can be combined into a single I/O request to the disk. A transfer is of indeterminate size.

Kb_read Displays the total data (in KB) read from the physical volume during the measured interval.

Kb_wrtn Displays the amount of data (in KB) written to the physical volume during the measured interval.

When analyzing the drive utilization report and using the different data columns just described, it is important to notice the patterns and relationships between the data types.

There is normally a relationship between disk utilization %tm_act and data transfer rate tps. If the disk busy rate %tm_act is high, then the tps rate should also be high. However, if you get a high disk busy rate and a low disk transfer rate, you may have either a fragmented logical volume, file system, or individual file. Generally, you do need to be concerned about high disk busy when a disk is being used by a single AIX process (for example, a batch job). For example, if an application reads/writes sequentially, you should expect a high disk transfer rate (tps) and a high disk busy rate (%tm_act).

Kb_read and Kb_wrtn can confirm an understanding of an application’s read/write behavior. However, they provide no information on the data access patterns.

An average physical volume utilization greater than 25 percent across all disks indicates an I/O bottleneck. The general conclusion of performance problems on disk, logical volume, and file system is that the more drives you have on your system, the better the disk I/O performance.

However, there is a limit to the amount of data that can be handled by the SCSI adapter; hence, the SCSI adapter could become a bottleneck. Especially on RS/6000 systems with SCSI-1 and SCSI-2 adapters, this could become an issue. To determine if a SCSI adapter is saturated, summarize all the KB/s values for disks located on the same adapter and compare the sum with the SCSI adapter throughput. In general, use 70 percent of the SCSI standard throughput rate. Examples of different SCSI types and their throughput is provided in the following:

- SCSI-1 throughput rate of 3.5 MB/s (70 percent of 5 MB/s)
- SCSI-2 throughput rate of 7 MB/s (70 percent of 10 MB/s)
- Ultra SCSI throughput rate of 28 MB/s (70 percent of 40 MB/s)
Ultra2 SCSI throughput rate of 56 MB/s (70 percent of 80 MB/s)

If a saturated adapter is discovered, solve the problem by moving disks to other, less-used adapters already in the system or add an additional SCSI adapter.

For more information about improving disk I/O, see product documentation.

**Note:** As with the `vmstat` command, `iostat` can only give a first indication about a performance bottleneck. The system administrator will have to use more in-depth analysis tools such as `filemon` to identify the source of the slowdown.

### 4.3 The lockstat command

The `lockstat` command displays lock-contention statistics on SMP systems.

The AIX kernel locks generated on the systems can be verified and possible contentions identified.

**Note:** Before `lockstat` can be used, you must create, as root, a new boot image with the `-L` option to enable lock instrumentation:

```
# bosboot -a -d /dev/hdisk x -L
```

Where `x` is the number of the bootdisk.

The `lockstat` command generates a report for each kernel lock that meets all specified conditions. When no conditions are specified, the default values are used.

The syntax of the `lockstat` command is as follows:

```
lockstat [ -a ] [ -c LockCount ] [ -b BlockRatio ] [ -n CheckCount ] [ -p LockRate ] [ -t MaxLocks ] [ interval [ count ] ]
```

The commonly used flags of the `lockstat` command are provided in Table 4-3.

**Table 4-3** Commonly used flags of the `lockstat` command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-c LockCount</code></td>
<td>Specifies how many times a lock must be requested during an interval in order to be displayed. A lock request is a lock operation, which in some cases cannot be satisfied immediately. All lock requests are counted. The default is 200.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:

As with the `vmstat` command, `iostat` can only give a first indication about a performance bottleneck. The system administrator will have to use more in-depth analysis tools such as `filemon` to identify the source of the slowdown.
If the `lockstat` command is executed with no options, an output similar to the following would be displayed.

```
# lockstat
Subsys   Name                Ocn   Ref/s   %Ref   %Block   %Sleep
-----------------------------------------------------------------
PFS      IRDWR_LOCK_CLASS   259   75356   37.49    9.44     0.21
PROC     PROC_INT_CLASS       1   12842    6.39    17.75    0.00
```

The `lockstat` command report contains the following data columns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-b BlockRatio</code></td>
<td>Specifies a block ratio. When a lock request is not satisfied, it is said to be blocked. A lock must have a block ratio that is higher than BlockRatio to appear in the list. The default of BlockRatio is 5 percent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-n CheckCount</code></td>
<td>Specifies the number of locks that are to be checked. The <code>lockstat</code> command sorts locks according to lock activity. This parameter determines how many of the most active locks will be subject to further checking. Limiting the number of locks that are checked maximizes system performance, particularly if <code>lockstat</code> is executed in intervals. The default value is 40.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-p LockRate</code></td>
<td>Specifies a percentage of the activity of the most-requested lock in the kernel. Only locks that are more active than this will be listed. The default value is 2, which means that the only locks listed are those requested at least 2 percent as often as the most active lock.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-t MaxLocks</code></td>
<td>Specifies the maximum number of locks to be displayed. The default is 10.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the `lockstat` command is executed with no options, an output similar to the following would be displayed.

```
# lockstat
Subsys   Name                Ocn   Ref/s   %Ref   %Block   %Sleep
-----------------------------------------------------------------
PFS      IRDWR_LOCK_CLASS   259   75356   37.49    9.44     0.21
PROC     PROC_INT_CLASS       1   12842    6.39    17.75    0.00
```

The `lockstat` command report contains the following data columns:

- **Subsys**: The subsystem to which the lock belongs.
- **Name**: The symbolic name of the lock class.
- **Ocn**: The occurrence number of the lock in its class.
- **Ref/s**: The reference rate, or number of lock requests per second.
- **%Ref**: The reference rate expressed as a percentage of all lock requests.
- **%Block**: The ratio of blocking lock requests to total lock requests. A block occurs whenever the lock cannot be taken immediately.
- **%Sleep**: The percentage of lock requests that causes the calling thread to sleep.
Some common subsystems are as follows:

**PROC** Scheduler, dispatcher, or interrupt handlers

**VMM** Pages, segment, and freelist

**TCP** Sockets, NFS

**PFS** Inodes, icache

The name of the lock class defined in AIX can be found in the file `/usr/include/sys/lockname.h`. Some common classes are:

**TOD_LOCK_CLASS** All interrupts that need the Time-of-Day (TOD) timer

**PROC_INT_CLASS** Interrupts for processes

**U_TIMER_CLASS** Per-process timer lock

The `lockstat` command can also be run in intervals similar to the `iostat` command, as shown in the following example:

```
# lockstat 10 100
```

The first number passed in the command line specifies the amount of time in seconds between each report. Each report contains statistics collected during the interval since the previous report. If no interval is specified, the system provides information covering an interval of one second and then exits. The second number determines the number of reports generated. It can only be specified if an interval is given.

**Note:** The `lockstat` command can be CPU intensive because there is overhead involved with lock instrumentation. That is the reason why it is not turned on by default. The overhead of enabling lock instrumentation is typically three to five percent. Be aware that AIX trace buffers will fill up much quicker when using this option because there are a lot of locks being used.

### 4.4 LVM performance analysis using the lslv command

There are various factors that affect logical volume (LV) performance; for example, the allocation position on the disk or the mirroring options. To obtain information about the logical volume, you can use the LVM `lslv` command, which provides information on:

**LV attributes** List of the current logical volume settings

**LV allocation** Placement map of the allocation of blocks on the disk

**LV fragmentation** Fragmentation of the LV blocks
4.4.1 Logical volume attributes

Use the `lsv` command with no flags to view logical volume attributes, as shown in the following output:

```
# lsv mirrlv
LOGICAL VOLUME:     mirrlv                 VOLUME GROUP:   stripevg
LV IDENTIFIER:      000bc6fd1202118f.3     PERMISSION:     read/write
VG STATE:           active/complete       LV STATE:       closed/syncd
TYPE:               jfs                    WRITE VERIFY:   on
MAX LPs:            512                    PP SIZE:        16 megabyte(s)
COPIES:             2                      SCHED POLICY:   parallel
LPs:                120                    PPs:            240
STALE PPs:          0                      BB POLICY:      relocatable
INTER-POLICY:       maximum                RELOCATABLE:    yes
INTRA-POLICY:       inner middle           UPPER BOUND:    32
MOUNT POINT:        /u/mirrfs              LABEL:          None
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
```

The previous example shows the LV attributes of a logical volume `mirrlv`, which is a mirrored logical volume located in the volume group `stripevg`.

For performance issues, the following attributes have to be taken into account:

- **COPIES**
  - Indicates the number of physical copies. If copies equal 1, then the LV is un-mirrored. Values of 2 and 3 are used for mirrored LVs. The previous example has a copy value of 2.

- **INTER-POLICY**
  - The inter-physical volume allocation policy specifies which policy should be used for choosing physical devices to allocate the physical partitions of a logical volume.

- **INTRA-POLICY**
  - The intra-physical volume allocation policy specifies which strategy should be used for choosing physical partitions on a physical volume.

- **MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY**
  - The mirror write consistency (MWC) ensures data consistency among mirrored copies of a logical volume during normal I/O processing. For every write to a logical volume, the LVM generates a write request to every mirrored copy. Mirror write consistency recovery should be performed for most mirrored logical volumes.
WRITE VERIFY
Specifies whether to verify all writes to the logical volume with a follow-up read. This option enhances availability, but decreases performance.

SHED-POLICY
Specifies one of the two types of scheduling policies used for logical volumes with multiple copies, sequential or parallel.

BB POLICY
Specifies whether to use Bad Block Relocation, which redirects I/O requests from a bad disk block to a valid one.

RELOCATABLE
Specifies whether to allow the relocation of the logical volume during volume group reorganization.

UPPER BOUND
Specifies the maximum number of physical volumes for allocation.

Mirroring
To enhance the availability of a logical volume, AIX supports data mirroring by providing multiple copies of the logical volumes on different disks.

When using mirroring, the write scheduling policies are:

- The parallel policy
  The parallel policy balances reads between the disks. On each read, the system checks whether the primary is busy. If it is not busy, the read is initiated on the primary. If the primary is busy, the system checks the secondary. If it is not busy, the read is initiated on the secondary. If the secondary is busy, the read is initiated on the copy with the least number of outstanding I/Os. Writes are initiated concurrently.

- The parallel/sequential policy
  The parallel/sequential policy always initiates reads on the primary copy. Writes are initiated concurrently.

- The parallel/round-robin policy
  The parallel/round robin policy is similar to the parallel policy except that instead of always checking the primary copy first, it alternates between the copies. This results in equal utilization for reads even when there is never more than one I/O outstanding at a time. Writes are initiated concurrently.
The sequential policy
The sequential policy results in all reads being issued to the primary copy. Writes happen serially, first to the primary disk; only when that is completed is the second write initiated to the secondary disk.

The parallel write scheduling policy provides the best performance and is the preferred option when creating the mirrored LV.

In general, the following recommendations provide the highest LVM availability:

- Use three logical partition copies (mirror twice) and include at least three physical volumes.
- Write verify should be switched on.
- Inter-disk policy should be set to minimum, which sets the mirroring copies equal to the number of physical volumes.
- Disk allocation policy should be set to strict, which establishes that no LP copies are on the same disk.
- The copies on the physical volumes should be attached to separate busses, adapters, and power supplies.

Providing the highest availability, however, can have a negative impact on LVM performance; therefore, some of the settings may need to be altered depending on your requirements.

Intra policy
The five LVM intra-allocation policies are: Inner edge, inner middle, center, outer middle, outer edge. The corresponding intra-disk positions’ allocation policies are illustrated in Figure 4-5 on page 135.
Chapter 4. Disk I/O performance monitoring tools

In general, the performance of the intra-disk policies is as follows:

- The center allocation policy has the fastest average seek times on disks with < 4 GB of size. On larger disks, the outer edge has the fastest seek times.
- The outer middle and inner middle allocation policies provide reasonable average seek times. This is the default setting when creating a new logical volume.
- The outer edge (on disks < 4 GB) and inner edge policies have the slowest average seek times.

**Inter policy**

The possible inter-disk allocation policies are the MINIMUM and MAXIMUM. The MINIMUM inter-disk policy assigns the physical partitions to the logical volume on the same disk or to as few disks as possible. The MINIMUM policy provides the best availability.

The MAXIMUM inter-disk allocation policy allocates the physical partitions of the logical volume on as many disks as possible. The MAXIMUM policy provides the best performance.

For non-mirrored LVs, the MINIMUM policy indicates that one physical volume should contain all the physical partitions of this logical volume. If the allocation program must use two or more physical volumes, it uses the minimum number possible.

For mirrored LVs, the MINIMUM policy indicates that as many physical volumes as there are copies should be used. Otherwise, the minimum number of physical volumes possible is used to hold all the physical partitions.
Striping

Striping is a technique for spreading the data in a logical volume across several disk drives in such a way that the I/O capacity of the disk drives can be used in parallel to access data on the logical volume. The primary objective of striping is very high-performance reading and writing of large sequential files, but there are also benefits for random access. Figure 4-6 gives a simple example. When a striped LV is created, as many disks as possible should be used. Since AIX Version 4.3.3, mirroring of striped LVs is supported; therefore, the old conclusion that striping does not provide availability due to the lack of mirroring is no longer valid.

![Diagram of striping a logical volume](image)

Figure 4-6   Striping a logical volume

When a striped logical volume is defined, then two additional LV attributes are displayed by the `lslv` command:

- **STRIPE WIDTH**: The number of stripes.
- **STRIPE SIZE**: The fixed size of each stripe block. Stripe size can be any power of 2 from 4 KB to 128 KB, but it is often set to 64 KB to get the highest levels of sequential I/O throughput.

Following is an example of a striped logical volume:

```bash
# lslv testlv
LOGICAL VOLUME: testlv VOLUME GROUP: rootvg
LV IDENTIFIER: 00015f8f00004c00000000ef9d3f4f69.13 PERMISSION:
read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: closed/syncd
```
RAID

Disk arrays are groups of disk drives that act like one disk as far as the operating system is concerned and which provide better availability or performance characteristics than the individual drives operating alone. Depending on the particular type of array that is used, it is possible to optimize availability or performance or to select a compromise between both. A summary of the RAID levels is provided in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4  RAID levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RAID levels</th>
<th>Common name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>I/O request rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disk striping</td>
<td>Data distributed across the disks in the array. No redundant information provided.</td>
<td>Very high for both read and write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mirroring</td>
<td>All data replicated on N separate disks. N is most commonly 2.</td>
<td>Up to N times that of a single disk for read, less than a single disk for write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Parallel transfer disks with parity</td>
<td>Each data sector is subdivided and distributed across all data disks. Redundant information is normally stored on a dedicated parity disk.</td>
<td>Similar to twice that of a single disk</td>
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</table>
4.4.2 Logical volume fragmentation

To check a logical volume for possible fragmentation, use the `lslv -l` command, as shown in the following example:

```
# lslv -l mirrlv
mirrlv:/u/mirrfs
PV                COPIES        IN BAND       DISTRIBUTION
hdisk2            120:000:000   90%           000:000:000:108:012
hdisk1            120:000:000   69%           000:000:000:083:037
```

This example uses the same LV mirrlv as in the last section.

The PV column indicates that the physical volume uses two disks (hdisk1 and hdisk2).

The COPIES column indicates that the total number of logical partitions (LP) is 120, and since it is a mirrored LV, both disks have the same amount of physical partitions (PPs) allocated (240 in total).

The IN BAND column indicates the level of intra-allocation policy as a percentage. If the LVM cannot meet the intra-policy requirement, it chooses the best alternative. In the above example, the intra-policy was `inner middle`, but only 69 percent on hdisk1 and 90 percent on hdisk2 could follow this allocation request.

The DISTRIBUTION column shows how the physical partitions are allocated in each section of the intra policy, as shown in the following relationship:

```
(outer edge) : (outer middle) : (center) : (inner middle) : (inner edge)
```

In this example, hdisk1 has allocated 83 PPs on the requested inner middle and 37 on the outer edge. Disk hdisk2 allocates the intra policy request better, hence the higher IN BAND level.
### 4.4.3 Logical volume allocation

To see the logical volume allocation of placement on the physical volume, use the following command:

```
# lslv -p hdisk1 mirrlv
```

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Chapter 4. Disk I/O performance monitoring tools
The output displays five sections that represent: Outer edge, outer middle, center, inner middle, and inner edge.

Each physical partition is marked with either a number or a keyword, which is described in the following:

**Number** A number indicates the logical partition number of the LV.

**USED** This keyword indicates that the physical partition at this location is used by another logical volume.

**FREE** This keyword indicates that this physical partition is not used by any logical volume. Logical volume fragmentation occurs if logical partitions are not contiguous across the disk.

**STALE** Although not present in the previous example, the STALE keyword indicates a physical partition that cannot be used.

This example shows that the one copy of mirrlv located on hdisk1 is allocated contiguously. The logical partitions (LPs) from 01–83 are allocated in the inner middle section, while the LPs 84–120 are allocated in the inner edge section.

When logical volumes are deleted, the physical partitions are freed, and this enables the space for either new logical volumes or the possibility of reorganizing the logical volumes, so that the LV fragmentation is limited. The LVM command `reorgvg` can reorganize logical volumes so that they comply with the intra-disk policies. By using `reorgvg` and providing both the volume group and the name of the logical volume, the highest priority is given to the listed volume group when performing the reorganization. During the reorganization, the volume group is locked and cannot be used.
4.4.4 Highest LVM performance

The following general recommendations can be used for creating logical volumes with high performance demands. However, keep in mind that when a logical volume is tuned for better performance, the availability may be impacted.

- No mirroring, which means the number of copies equals one (1).
- If mirroring is required then:
  - Write scheduling policy set to parallel.
  - Allocation policy set to strict, which means each copy is on separate physical volumes.
- Write verification set to no.
- Mirror write consistency (MWC) set to off.
- Intra policies:
  - Center: For hot logical volumes
  - Middle: For moderate logical volumes
  - Edge: For cold logical volumes
- Inter-disk allocation policy set to maximum, which mean that read/write operations are spread among physical volumes.

Additional performance improvement can be gained by creating a striped logical volume.

4.5 LVM and file system monitoring

To provide a more complete analysis of file system performance, AIX Version 4.3 provides a monitoring command, `filemon`. This provides information about a specific application or system I/O activity, assisting the problem determination process for performance tuning.

4.5.1 The filemon command

The `filemon` command monitors and presents trace data on the following four levels of file system utilization:

**Logical file system**

The monitored operations include all read, write, open, and lseek system calls, which may or may not result in actual physical I/O, depending on whether the files are already buffered in memory. I/O statistics are kept on a per-file basis.
Virtual memory system  At this level, operations (that is, paging) between segments and their images on disk are monitored. I/O statistics are kept on a per-segment basis.

Logical volumes  I/O statistics are kept on a per-logical-volume basis.

Physical volumes  At this level, physical resource utilizations are obtained. I/O statistics are kept on a per-physical-volume basis.

Using the filemon command
The filemon command is based on the AIX trace facility to monitor I/O activity during a certain time interval. Because of this, filemon can be run only by root, and filemon cannot be executed in parallel with other trace-based commands, such as tprof and netpmon.

Tracing is started implicitly by the filemon command, but the trace can be controlled by the normal trace utilities: trcstop, trcoff, and trcon.

When tracing is stopped with trcstop, filemon writes a report either to stdout or to a specified file.

To specify the levels of data collected on all the layers, or on specific layers, use the -O layer option. The default is to collect data on the VM, LVM, and physical layers. Both summary and detailed reports are both generated.

Note: The filemon command will only collect data for those files opened after filemon was started, unless you specify the -u flag.

The following command sequence provides a simple example of filemon in action:

# filemon -o /tmp/filemonLF.out -O lf

Enter the "trcstop" command to complete filemon processing

# dd count=2048 if=/dev/zero of=/u/mirrfs/testMirrorFile
2048+0 records in.
2048+0 records out.
# dd count=2048 of=/dev/null if=/u/mirrfs/testMirrorFile
2048+0 records in.
2048+0 records out.
# trcstop
[filemon: Reporting started]
[filemon: Reporting completed]

[filemon: 10.666 secs in measured interval]
The `filemon` command is started with the flag `-O`, specifying that only the logical file system (lf) data is to be monitored. This example uses two `dd` commands to write to a file and read from a file. The special devices `/dev/zero` and `/dev/null` are used to get clean read/write figures and make the reports more transparent. The output report of the `filemon` command in this example is placed in a dedicated file using the `-o` flag. The default is to write the report to the standard output.

### 4.5.2 Report analysis

The reports generated by `filemon` are dependent on the output level flag `-O`. The possible values for the output levels are:

- `lf`: Logical file level
- `lv`: Logical volume level
- `pv`: Physical volume level
- `vm`: Virtual memory level

The default value of `-O` is `all`. However, if `-O` is specified without a level, then `lv`, `pv`, and `vm` are the default.

The following section explains the `filemon` output reports using the examples from 4.5.1, “The filemon command” on page 141.

#### Logical file level report

The logical file level report, as shown in the following example, provides two sections, the Most Active Files Report, for information on the active files during the trace, and the Detailed File Stats Report, for detailed statistics on the individual files.

```
# cat /tmp/filemonLF.out
Fri Jul  7 12:51:38 2000
System: AIX server1 Node: 4 Machine: 000BC6FD4C00
Cpu utilization: 100.0%

Most Active Files
------------------------------------------------------------------------
#MBs  #opns   #rds   #wrs  file                     volume:inode
------------------------------------------------------------------------
2.0      2   2048   2048  testMirrorFile   /dev/mirrlv:17
1.0      1   2048      0  zero
```

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Detailed File Stats
------------------------------------------------------------------------

FILE: /u/mirrfs/testMirrorFile  volume: /dev/mirrlv  inode: 17
opens:                  2
total bytes xfrd:       2097152
reads:                  2048    (0 errs)
   read sizes (bytes):   avg   512.0 min     512 max     512 sdev     0.0
   read times (msec):    avg   0.003 min   0.000 max   0.084 sdev   0.005
writes:                 2048    (0 errs)
   write sizes (bytes):  avg   512.0 min     512 max     512 sdev     0.0
   write times (msec):   avg   0.028 min   0.012 max   0.443 sdev   0.044
lseek:                  1

FILE: /dev/zero
opens:                  1
total bytes xfrd:       1048576
reads:                  2048    (0 errs)
   read sizes (bytes):   avg   512.0 min     512 max     512 sdev     0.0
   read times (msec):    avg   0.007 min   0.006 max   0.076 sdev   0.003

FILE: /dev/null
opens:                  1
total bytes xfrd:       1048576
writes:                 2048    (0 errs)
   write sizes (bytes):  avg   512.0 min     512 max     512 sdev     0.0
   write times (msec):   avg   0.001 min   0.000 max   0.023 sdev   0.002

opens:                  3
total bytes xfrd:       24576
reads:                  6       (0 errs)
   read sizes (bytes):   avg  4096.0 min    4096 max    4096 sdev     0.0
   read times (msec):    avg   0.033 min   0.000 max   0.085 sdev   0.036
lseek:                  15

opens:                  2
total bytes xfrd:       8192
reads:                  2       (0 errs)
   read sizes (bytes):   avg  4096.0 min    4096 max    4096 sdev     0.0
read times (msec):    avg   4.380 min   0.000 max   8.760 sdev   4.380
lseek:              10
opens:             1
total bytes xfrd:  8192
reads:            2       (0 errs)
read sizes (bytes): avg  4096.0 min  4096 max  4096 sdev     0.0
read times (msec): avg   0.000 min   0.000 max   0.000 sdev   0.000
lseek:             8

The Most Active Files Report contains summary information of the most frequently used files during the monitoring period, defined in the following list.

#MBS
Total number of megabytes transferred to and from the file. The rows are sorted by this field, in decreasing order.

#opns
Number of times the file was opened during the measurement period.

#rds
Number of read system calls made against the file.

#wrs
Number of write system calls made against the file.

file
Name of the file (full path name is in the detailed report).

volume:inode
Name of volume that contains the file, and the file's inode number. This field can be used to associate a file with its corresponding persistent segment, shown in the virtual memory I/O reports. This field may be blank (for example, for temporary files created and deleted during execution).

The filemon example shows that the file testMirrorFile is the most active, with the 1 MB read and 1 MB write operations. Notice the read and write operations are made in 512 bytes units. This shows that the dd command used a 512-byte block size. The zero and null files do not have inodes because they are not connected to any file system, but are special device files.

From the filemon file-level report, it is very easy to see which files are generating the most I/O demand.

The Detailed File Stats Report provides information about every active file with the following details:

FILE
Name of the file. The full path name is given, if possible.

volume
Name of the logical volume/file system containing the file.

inode
inode number for the file within its file system.

opens
Number of times the file was opened while monitored.

total bytes xfrd
Total number of bytes read/written to/from the file.
reads Number of read calls against the file.
read sizes (bytes) The read transfer-size statistics (avg, min, max, and sdev), in bytes.
read times (msec) The read response-time statistics (avg, min, max, and sdev), in milliseconds.
writes Number of write calls against the file.
write sizes (bytes) The write transfer-size statistics.
write times (msec) The write response-time statistics.
seeks Number of lseek subroutine calls.

The detailed file level report from the previous filemon example is focusing on the file testMirrorFile. Here the read and write size of 512 bytes is even more evident. As it is the only read/write size used, the standard deviation (sdev) becomes 0. The read/write time is an interesting value in the detailed file statistics report. These can show, among other things, how the file system cache is performing.

Logical volume level report
The logical volume level report provides two sections: The Most Active Logical Volumes report and the Detailed Logical Volume Stats report.

The logical volume level report, provided by the following command, was generated from the same example in “Using the filemon command” on page 142, except the output level -O lv flags are used:

```
# filemon -o /tmp/filemonLF.out -O lv
```

The following is an excerpt from the logical volume level report:

```
Most Active Logical Volumes

util #rblk #wblk KB/s volume description
0.07  0  2016  64.5 /dev/mirrlv /u/mirrfs
0.00  8   8  0.3 /dev/loglv00 jfslog
0.00  8   0  0.3 /dev/hd2 /usr

The headings are:
util Utilization of the volume (fraction of time busy). The rows are sorted by this field, in decreasing order.
#rblk Number of 512-byte blocks read from the volume.
#wblk Number of 512-byte blocks written to the volume.
```
**KB/sec**
Total transfer throughput in Kilobytes per second.

**volume**
Name of volume.

**description**
Contents of volume: Either a file system name or logical volume type (paging, jfslog, boot, or sysdump). Also indicates if the file system is fragmented or compressed.

This section of the logical volume level report shows clearly that the mirrlv is the most utilized LV. The report shows the transfer throughput of 64.5 KB/s for the mirrlv and its file system mirrfs. Notice also some activity on the loglv00, which is the jfslog for mirrfs.

**Physical volume level report**
The physical volume level report provides two sections: The Most Active Physical Volumes report and the Detailed Physical Volume Stats report.

The physical volume level report, provided by the following command, was generated with the same example as in “Using the filemon command” on page 142, except the output level -O pv was used:

```
# filemon -o /tmp/filemonLF.out -O pv
```

The following is an extraction of the physical volume level report:

```
...  
Most Active Physical Volumes  
------------------------------------------------------------------------  
util #rblk #wblk   KB/s  volume                   description       
------------------------------------------------------------------------  
0.07  0   2096  66.4  /dev/hdisk1              N/A               
0.07  0   2080  65.9  /dev/hdisk2              N/A               
0.02  0    305   9.7  /dev/hdisk0              N/A               
...  
```

The headings are:

- **util**
  Utilization of the volume (fraction of time busy). The rows are sorted by this field, in decreasing order.

- **#rblk**
  Number of 512-byte blocks read from the volume.

- **#wblk**
  Number of 512-byte blocks written to the volume.

- **KB/s**
  Total volume throughput in Kilobytes per second.

- **volume**
  Name of volume.

- **description**
  Type of volume, for example, 9.1 GB disk or CD-ROM SCSI.
The physical volume level report of the filemon example shows almost equal activity of the two PVs, hdisk1 and hdisk2, because they are the mirrored copies of mirrlv.

Notice that hdisk1 has a slightly higher write block size than hdisk2 (and due to that, a slightly higher throughput). This is because the jfslog loglv00 is located on hdisk1.

**Virtual memory level report**

The virtual memory level report provides two sections: The Most Active Segments report and the Detailed VM Segment Stats report.

The virtual memory level report, provided by the following command, was generated with the same example as in "Using the filemon command" on page 142, except the output level -O vm was used:

```
# filemon -o /tmp/filemonLF.out -O vm
```

The following is an excerpt of a virtual memory level report:

```
Most Active Segments
------------------------------------------------------------------------
#MBs  #rpgs  #wpgs  segid  segtype                  volume:inode
------------------------------------------------------------------------
 1.0    0  252   c473  page table
 0.0    0   1   fefe  log
...  
```

The headings are:

- **#MBs**: Total number of megabytes transferred to and from the segment. The rows are sorted by this field, in decreasing order.
- **#rpgs**: Number of 4096-byte pages read into segment from disk (that is, page-in).
- **#wpgs**: Number of 4096-byte pages written from segment to disk (page-out).
- **segid**: Internal ID of segment.
- **segtype**: Type of segment: Working segment, persistent segment (local file), client segment (remote file), page table segment, system segment, or special persistent segments containing file system data (log, root directory, .inode, .inodemap, .inodex, .inodexmap, .indirect, .diskmap).
volume:inode

For persistent segments, the name of the volume that contains the associated file, and the file's inode number. This field can be used to associate a persistent segment with its corresponding file, shown in the file I/O reports. This field is blank for non-persistent segments.

In this filemon example, the virtual memory level report does not contain any important information; it is merely mentioned for the completeness of the filemon reporting capabilities.

4.5.3 Typical AIX system behavior

When using the filemon command for performance analysis, the following issues should be kept in mind. The items listed are recommendations extracted from the documentation RS/6000 Performance Tools in Focus, SG24-4989.

Frequently accessed files:

- The /etc/inittab file is always very active. Daemons specified in /etc/inittab are checked regularly to determine whether they are required to be respawned.
- The /etc/passwd file is also very active, because file and directory access permissions is checked.

Disk access:

- A long seek time increases I/O response time and decreases performance.
- If the majority of the reads and writes require seeks, you may have fragmented files or overly active file systems on the same physical disk.
- If the number of reads and writes approaches the number of sequences, physical disk access is more random than sequential. Sequences are strings of pages that are read (paged in) or written (paged out) consecutively. The sequence length is the length, in pages, of the sequences. A random file access can also involve many seeks. In this case, you cannot distinguish from the filemon output if the file access is random or if the file is fragmented. If you have to further investigate with the fileplace command, see 4.9.2, “The fileplace command” on page 164, for more information.

Solutions to disk-bound problems:

- If large, I/O-intensive background jobs are interfering with interactive response time, you may want to activate I/O pacing.
- If it appears that a small number of files are being read over and over again, you should consider whether additional real memory would allow those files to be buffered more effectively.
If the `iostat` command indicates that your workload I/O activity is not evenly distributed among the system disk drives, and the utilization of one or more disk drives is often 40-50 percent or more, consider reorganizing your file systems.

If the workload's access pattern is predominantly random, you may want to consider adding disks and distributing the randomly accessed files across more drives.

If the workload's access pattern is predominantly sequential and involves multiple disk drives, you may want to consider adding one or more disk adapters. It may also be appropriate to consider building a striped logical volume to accommodate large, performance-critical sequential files.

## 4.6 File system performance

These are some factors that affect file system performance.

- Dynamic allocation of resources may cause:
  - Logically contiguous files to be fragmented
  - Logically contiguous LVs to be fragmented
  - File blocks to be scattered

- Effects when files are accessed from disk:
  - Sequential access no longer sequential
  - Random access affected
  - Access time dominated by longer seek time

Once the file is in memory, these effects diminish.

Before going into analyzing the file system performance, an overview of how the AIX JFS is organized is in order.

### 4.6.1 AIX file system organization

In a journaled file system (JFS), files are stored in blocks of contiguous bytes. The default block size, also referred to as fragmentation size in AIX, is 4096 bytes (4 KB). The JFS inode contains an information structure of the file together with an array of eight pointers to data blocks. A file that is less than 32 KB is referenced directly from the inode.
A larger file uses a 4 KB block, referred to as an indirect block, for the addressing of up to 1024 data blocks. Using an indirect block, the file size of 4 MB (1024 x 4 KB) is possible.

For files larger than 4 MB, a second block, the double indirect block, is used. The double indirect block points to 512 indirect blocks, providing the possible addressing of 2 GB files (512 x 1024 x 4 KB). Figure 4-7 illustrates the addressing using double indirection.

Since the introduction of AIX Version 4.2, support for even larger files has been added by defining a new type of JFS, the bigfile file system. In the bigfile file system, the double indirect are using references to 128 KB blocks rather than 4 KB blocks. However, the first indirect block still points to a 4 KB block, so that the large blocks are only used when the file size is above 4 MB. This provides a new maximum file size of just under 64 GB.
4.6.2 Enhanced journaled file system (JFS2)

Enhanced journaled file system supports the entire set of file system semantics. The file system uses database journaling techniques to maintain its structural consistency. This prevents damage to the file system when the file system is halted abnormally. Each JFS2 resides on a separate logical volume. The operating system mounts JFS2 during initialization. This multiple file system configuration is useful for system management functions such as backup, restore, and repair. It isolates a part of the file tree to allow system administrators to work on a particular part of the file tree.

The enhanced journaled file system (JFS2) supports multiple file system block sizes of 512, 1024, 2048, and 4096. Smaller block sizes minimize wasted disk space by more efficiently storing the data in a file or directory's partial logical blocks. Smaller block sizes also result in additional operational overhead.

The block size for a JFS2 is specified during its creation. Different file systems can have different block sizes, but only one block size can be used within a single file system.

- Variable number of inodes for enhanced journaled file system:
  JFS2 allocates inodes as needed. Therefore, the number of inodes available is limited by the size of the file system itself.

- Specifying file system block size:
  File system block size is specified during the file system's creation with the crfs and mkfs commands or by using the SMIT. The decision of file system block size should be based on the projected size of files contained by the file system.

- Identifying file system block size:
  The file system block size value can be identified through the lsf command or the System Management Interface Tool (SMIT). For application programs, the statfs subroutine can be used to identify the file system block size.

- Compatibility and migration:
  The enhanced journaled file system (JFS2) is a new file system and is not compatible with any previous version of this operating system.

- Device driver limitations:
  A device driver must provide disk block addressability that is the same or smaller than the file system block size.
Performance costs:

Although file systems that use block sizes smaller than 4096 bytes as their allocation unit might require substantially less disk space than those using the default allocation unit of 4096 bytes, the use of smaller block sizes can incur performance degradation.

Increased allocation activity:

Because disk space is allocated in smaller units for a file system with a block size other than 4096 bytes, allocation activity can occur more often when files or directories are repeatedly extended in size. For example, a write operation that extends the size of a zero-length file by 512 bytes results in the allocation of one block to the file, assuming a block size of 512 bytes. If the file size is extended further by another write of 512 bytes, an additional block must be allocated to the file. Applying this example to a file system with 4096-byte blocks, disk space allocation occurs only once, as part of the first write operation. No additional allocation activity is performed as part of the second write operation since the initial 4096-byte block allocation is large enough to hold the data added by the second write operation.

Increased block allocation map size:

More virtual memory and file system disk space might be required to hold block allocation maps for file systems with a block size smaller than 4096 bytes. Blocks serve as the basic unit of disk space allocation, and the allocation state of each block within a file system is recorded in the file system block allocation map.

Understanding enhanced journaled file system size limitations:

The maximum size for an enhanced journaled file system is architecturally limited to 4 Petabytes. Inodes are dynamically allocated by JFS2, so you do not need to consider how many inodes you may need when creating a JFS2 file system. You need to consider the size of the file system log.

Enhanced journaled file system log size issues:

In most instances, multiple journaled file systems use a common log configured to be 4 MB in size. When file systems exceed 2 GB or when the total amount of file system space using a single log exceeds 2 GB, the default log size might not be sufficient. In either case, scale log sizes upward as the file system size increases. The JFS log is limited to a maximum size of 256 MB.
JFS2 file space allocation:

File space allocation is the method by which data is apportioned physical storage space in the operating system. The kernel allocates disk space to a file or directory in the form of logical blocks. Logical block refers to the division of a file or directory contents into 512, 1024, 2048, or 4096 byte units. When a JFS2 file system is created the logical block size is specified to be one of 512, 1024, 2048, or 4096 bytes. Logical blocks are not tangible entities; however, the data in a logical block consumes physical storage space on the disk. Each file or directory consists of 0 or more logical blocks.

Full and partial logical blocks:

A file or directory may contain full or partial logical blocks. A full logical block contains 512, 1024, 2048, or 4096 bytes of data, depending on the file system block size specified when the JFS2 file system was created. Partial logical blocks occur when the last logical block of a file or directory contains less than the file system block size of data.

For example, a JFS2 file system with a logical block size of 4096 with a file of 8192 bytes is two logical blocks. The first 4096 bytes reside in the first logical block and the following 4096 bytes reside in the second logical block. Likewise, a file of 4608 bytes consists of two logical blocks. However, the last logical block is a partial logical block containing the last 512 bytes of the file's data. Only the last logical block of a file can be a partial logical block.

JFS2 file space allocation:

The default block size is 4096 bytes. You can specify smaller block sizes with the `mkfs` command during a file system's creation. Allowable fragment sizes are 512, 1024, 2048, and 4096 bytes. You can use only one block's size in a file system.

The kernel allocates disk space so that only the last file system block of data receives a partial block allocation. As the partial block grows beyond the limits of its current allocation, additional blocks are allocated.

Block reallocation also occurs if data is added to logical blocks that represent file holes. A file hole is an empty logical block located prior to the last logical block that stores data. (File holes do not occur within directories.) These empty logical blocks are not allocated blocks. However, as data is added to file holes, allocation occurs. Each logical block that was not previously allocated disk space is allocated a file system block of space.

Additional block allocation is not required if existing data in the middle of a file or directory is overwritten. The logical block containing the existing data has already been allocated file system blocks.

JFS tries to maintain contiguous allocation of a file or directory's logical blocks on the disk. Maintaining contiguous allocation lessens seek time because the data for a file or directory can be accessed sequentially and found on the
same area of the disk. The disk space required for contiguous allocation may not be available if it has already been written to by another file or directory.

The file system uses a bitmap called the block allocation map to record the status of every block in the file system. When the file system needs to allocate a new block, it refers to the block allocation map to identify which blocks are available. A block can only be allocated to a single file or directory at a time.

- **Extents:**

  An extent is a sequence of contiguous file system blocks allocated to a JFS2 object as a unit. Large extents may span multiple allocation groups.

  Every JFS2 object is represented by an inode. Inodes contain the expected object-specific information such as time stamps and file type (regular verses directory and others.) They also contain a B+ tree to record the allocation of extents.

  A file is allocated in sequences of extents. An extent is a contiguous variable-length sequence of file system blocks allocated as a unit. An extent may span multiple allocation groups. These extents are indexed in a B+ tree.

  There are two values needed to define an extent, the length and the address. The length is measured in units of the file system block size. 24-bit value represents the length of an extent, so an extent can range in size from 1 to \(2^{24} - 1\) file system blocks. Therefore the size of the maximum extent depends on the file system block size. The address is the address of the first block of the extent. The address is also in units of file system blocks. It is the block offset from the beginning of the file system.

  An extent-based file system combined with user-specified file system block size allows JFS2 to not have separate support for internal fragmentation. The user can configure the file system with a small file system block size (such as 512 bytes) to minimize internal fragmentation for file systems with large numbers of small-sized files.

  In general, the allocation policy for JFS2 tries to maximize contiguous allocation by allowing a minimum number of extents, with each extent as large and contiguous as possible. This allows for larger I/O transfer resulting in improved performance.

- **Data fragmentation:**

  JFS2 supports fragmented file systems. Fragmentation saves disk space by allowing a logical block to be stored on the disk in units or fragments smaller than the full block size of 4096 bytes. In a fragmented file system, only the last logical block of files no larger than 32 KB is stored in this manner, so that fragmented support is only beneficial for file systems containing numerous small files.
The use of fragments increases the potential for fragmentation of disk free space. Fragments allocated to a logical block must be contiguous on the disk. A file system experiencing free space fragmentation might have difficulty locating enough contiguous fragments for a logical block allocation, even though the total number of free fragments may exceed the logical block requirements. The JFS2 alleviates free space fragmentation by providing the defragfs program, which defragments a file system by increasing the amount of contiguous free space. The disk space savings gained from fragments can be substantial, while the problem of free space fragmentation remains manageable.

4.6.3 Journeled file system (JFS) log management

JFS logs enable rapid and clean recovery of file systems if a system goes down. If an application is doing synchronous I/O or is creating and removing many files in a short amount of time, there might be a lot of I/O going to the JFS log logical volume. If both the JFS log logical volume and the file system logical volume are on the same disk, this could cause an I/O bottleneck. We recommend migrating the JFS log device to another physical disk. It is also a good idea to create multiple JFS logs for a volume and assign them to specific file systems, preferably on fast-write cache devices, as these can provide for much better performance for log logical volumes (JFS logs or database logs).

You can have multiple log devices in a volume group. However, a log for a file system must be in the same volume group as that of the file system. A log logical volume or file system logical volume can be moved to another disk using the migratepv command, even while the system is running and in use. Remember to place the log logical volume on a physical volume different from your most active file system logical volume, as this will increase parallel resource usage.

Following is an example of how to create a new JFS log.

1. Create a new JFS log logical volume, as in the following example:

   ```bash
   # mklv -t jfslog -y JFSlog testvg 1 hdisk2
   JFSlog
   ```

   Or use the smitty mklv fastpath command shown in Figure 4-8 on page 157.
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2. Format the log, as in the following example:

```
# /usr/sbin/logform /dev/JFSlog
logform: destroy /dev/JFSlog (y)?y
```

3. Modify /etc/filesystems and the logical volume control block (LVCB), as in the following example:

```
# chfs -a log=/dev/JFSlog /testfilesystem
```

4. Unmount and then mount the file system. The mount option nointegrity may enhance local file system performance for certain write-intensive applications. This optimization eliminates writes to the JFS log. Note that the enhanced performance is achieved at the expense of metadata integrity. Therefore, use this option with extreme caution because a system crash can make a file system mounted with this option unrecoverable. The following is an example of the `mount` command:

```
# mount -o nointegrity /testfilesystem
```

### 4.6.4 The fileplace command

The use of files and file systems, depending on the application, can be very dynamic and can, over time, result in fragmentations that have impact on the file system performance, which influences the application performance.
Access to fragmented files may yield a large number of seeks and longer I/O response time. At some point, the system administrator may decide to reorganize the placement of files within the logical volume to reduce fragmentation and gain a more even distribution.

The **fileplace** command can assist in this task by displaying the placement of blocks in a file within a logical volume or within one or more physical volumes.

The **fileplace** command expects an argument containing the name of the file to examine, as shown in the following example:

```
# fileplace -iv sixMB
```

File: sixMB  Size: 6291456 bytes  Vol: /dev/restlv
Blk Size: 4096  Frag Size: 4096  Nfrags: 1536  Compress: no
Inode: 21  Mode: -rw-r--r--  Owner: root  Group: sys

DOUBLE INDIRECT BLOCK: 77000
INDIRECT BLOCKS: 75321 77001

Logical Fragment
----------------
0149576-0149583            8 frags  32768 Bytes,  0.5%
0075322-0075773           452 frags  1851392 Bytes,  29.4%
0149584-0150147          564 frags  2310144 Bytes,  36.7%
0077002-0077513          512 frags  2097152 Bytes,  33.3%

1536 frags over space of 74826 frags:  space efficiency = 2.1%
4 fragments out of 1536 possible:  sequentiality = 99.8%

This example displays the logical fragmentation of a large file (6 MB). The general information displayed by **fileplace** is:

- **File**: Name of the file.
- **Size**: File size in bytes.
- **Vol**: Name of the logical volume of the file system.
- **Blk Size**: Physical block size 4 KB.
- **Frag Size**: Fragment size; typically also 4 KB, but can be specified to values 512, 1 KB, or 2 KB at file system creation time.
- **Nfrags**: The total amount of fragments used by the file.
- **Compress**: Compression of file system. The default is no.
- **Inode**: The inode reference number.
- **Mode/Owner/Group**: General UNIX file system level inode information.
This file has, due to its size, both indirect blocks (75321, 77001) and a double indirect block (7700). This information is listed using the `fileplace -i` flag.

The first column under Logical Fragment shows the logical block numbers where the different parts of the file are. The next column shows the number of fragments that are contiguous and the amount of bytes in these contiguous fragments. The last number is the percentage of the block range compared to the total size.

Finally, the values for space efficiency and space sequentially are calculated when the `fileplace -v` flag is used. Higher space efficiency means files are less fragmented and will probably provide better sequential file access. Higher sequentially indicates that the files are more contiguously allocated, and this will probably be better for sequential file access.

Using `fileplace -p`, the physical block numbers and physical volume or volumes are shown.

The following is an example using `fileplace` on a mirrored logical volume:

```bash
# fileplace -p /u/mirrfs/t5

File: /u/mirrfs/t5  Size: 504320 bytes  Vol: /dev/mirrlv
Blk Size: 4096  Frag Size: 4096  Nfrags: 124   Compress: no

------------------------------- Logical Fragment
--------------------------
0320104-0320111  hdisk1            8 frags    32768 Bytes,   6.5%
0004168-0004175
0319242-0319305  hdisk1           64 frags   262144 Bytes,  51.6%
0003306-0003369
0319310-0319361  hdisk1           52 frags   212992 Bytes,  41.9%
0003374-0003425

------------------------------- Logical Fragment
--------------------------
0320104-0320111  hdisk2            8 frags    32768 Bytes,   6.5%
0004168-0004175
0319242-0319305  hdisk2           64 frags   262144 Bytes,  51.6%
0003306-0003369
0319310-0319361  hdisk2           52 frags   212992 Bytes,  41.9%
0003374-0003425
```

This example shows the physical addresses used for the file t5 on the logical volume mirrlv. This file is physically located on both hdisk1 and hdisk2.
The `fileplace` command will not display NFS remote files. If a remote file is specified, the `fileplace` command returns an error message.

The `fileplace` command reads the file's list of blocks directly from the logical volume on disk. If the file is newly created, extended, or truncated, the information may not be on disk yet. Use the `sync` command to flush the information to the logical volume.

### 4.6.5 File system defragmentation

During the lifetime of a file system, a large number of files are created and deleted. This leaves, over time, a large number of gaps of free blocks. This fragmentation has a negative impact on the file system performance, as the newly created files become highly fragmented.

There is a simple way of organizing the free gaps in the file system. The `defragfs` command increases a file system's contiguous free space by reorganizing allocations to be contiguous rather than scattered across the disk. It does not increase the actual free space. The `defragfs` command is intended for fragmented and compressed file systems. However, you can also use the `defragfs` command to increase contiguous free space in non-fragmented file systems.

Another simple way of reorganizing the file system is to recreate the file system using a backup of the file system.

### 4.7 General recommendations for I/O performance

By using `lslv`, `fileplace`, `filemon`, and `iostat`, you can identify I/O, volume group, and logical volume problems. The following are general recommendations for how to achieve good LVM and file system performance and when to use the tools described in this chapter.

#### 4.7.1 Logical volume organization for highest performance

The following general recommendations pertain to logical volume organization.

- Allocate hot LVs to different PVs to reduce disk contention.
- Spread hot LVs across multiple PVs so that parallel access is possible.
- Place the hottest LVs in the center of PVs, the moderate LVs in the middle of PVs, and the coldest LVs on edges of PVs so that the hottest logical volumes have the fastest access time.
Mirroring can improve performance for read-intensive applications, but, as writes need to be performed several times, can impact the performance of other applications.

If mirroring is needed, set the scheduling policy to parallel and the allocation policy to strict. Parallel scheduling policy will enable reading from the closest disk, and strict allocation policy allocates each copy on separate PVs.

- Make the LV contiguous to reduce access time.
- Set inter policy to maximum. This will spread each logical volume across as many physical volumes as possible, allowing reads and writes to be shared among several physical volumes.
- Place frequently used logical volumes close together to reduce the seek time.
- Set write verify to no so that there is no follow-up read (similar to a parity check) performed following a write.

### 4.7.2 Logical volume striping recommendations

The following are recommendations for logical volume striping.

- Spread the logical volume across as many physical volumes as possible.
- Use as many adapters as possible for the physical volumes.
- Create a separate volume group for striped logical volumes.
- Set a stripe-unit size of 64 KB.
- Set minpgahead to 2 (`vmtune` command).
- Set maxpgahead to 16 times the number of disk drives (`vmtune` command). This causes page-ahead to be done in units of the stripe-unit size (64 KB) times the number of disk drives, resulting in the reading of one stripe unit from each disk drive for each read-ahead operation.
- Request I/Os for 64 KB times the number of disk drives. This is equal to the maxpgahead value.
- Modify maxfree (`vmtune` command) to accommodate the change in maxpgahead (maxfree = minfree + maxpgahead).
- Use 64-byte aligned I/O buffers. If the logical volume will occupy physical drives that are connected to two or more disk adapters, the I/O buffers used should be allocated on 64-byte boundaries. This avoids having the LVM serialize the I/Os to the different disks. The following code would yield a 64-byte aligned buffer pointer:

```c
char *buffer;
buffer = malloc(MAXBLKSIZE+64);
buffer = ((int)buffer + 64) & ~0x3f;
```
• If the striped logical volumes are on raw logical volumes and writes larger than 1.125 MB are being done to these striped raw logical volumes, increasing the lvm_bufcnt parameter with the vmtune command might increase throughput of the write activity.

• Also, it is not a good idea to mix striped and non-striped logical volumes in the same physical volume. All physical volumes should be the same size within a set of striped logical volumes.

• Limitations of striping:
  – Mirroring with striping prior to AIX Version 4.3.3 is not possible. On AIX 4.3.3 or later, the mirroring of logical volume striping is possible using the superstrict physical allocation policy.
  – Disk striping is mostly effective for sequential disk I/Os. With randomly accessed files, it is not as effective.

4.7.3 RAID recommendations

Select RAID 0 for applications that would benefit from the increased performance capabilities of this RAID level, but, because no data redundancy is provided, do not use RAID 0 for mission-critical applications that require high availability.

Select RAID 1 for applications where data availability is a key concern, and which have high levels of write operations, such as transaction files, and where cost is not a major concern.

Select RAID 3 for applications that process large blocks of data where write performance is not the key factor, and where the reduced cost of RAID 3 compared to mirroring is important.

Select RAID 5 for applications that manipulate small amounts of data, such as transaction processing applications. Since all the disk heads move independently to satisfy multiple requests, this is appropriate for multi-user applications. Also select RAID 5 as a good compromise between high performance, high availability, and low cost.

4.7.4 File system related performance issues

The following are file system performance issues.

• Create an additional log logical volume to separate the log of the most active file system from the default log. This will increase parallel resource usage.

• An lslv usage scenario:
  Determine if hot file systems are better located on a physical drive or spread across multiple physical drives.
Some `filemon` usage scenarios:
- Determine if hot files are local or remote.
- Determine if paging space dominates disk utilization.
- Look for heavy physical volume utilization. Determine if the type of drive (SCSI-1, SCSI-2, tape, and so on) or SCSI adapter is causing a bottleneck.

Some `fileplace` usage scenarios:
- Determine if the application performs a lot of synchronous (non-cached) file I/Os.
- Look for file fragmentation. Determine if the hot files are heavily fragmented.

4.7.5 Paging space related disk performance issues

The following discusses paging space related disk performance issues.
- Never add more than one paging space on the same physical volume.
- Reorganize or add paging space to several physical volumes.

4.8 Overhead of using performance tools

As in any performance measurement on a system, each measurement consumes some resources. This is referred to as the overhead of the performance tools.

- `lslv` This command mainly uses CPU time.

- `filemon` This command can consume some CPU power. Use this tool with discretion, and analyze the system performance while taking into consideration the overhead involved in running the tool. In a CPU-saturated environment with a high disk-output rate, `filemon` slowed the writing program by about five percent.

- `fileplace` Most variations of `fileplace` use fewer than 0.3 seconds of CPU time.

- `iostat` The `iostat` command adds little overhead to the system. It uses about 20 milliseconds of CPU time for each report generated.

Note that the previous computing time measurements are from an RS/6000 Model 320.
4.9 Command summary

The following section provides a list of the key commands discussed in this chapter.

4.9.1 The filemon command

The filemon command monitors the performance of the file system, and reports the I/O activity on behalf of logical files, virtual memory segments, logical volumes, and physical volumes. The command has the following syntax:

```
filemon [ -d ] [ -i file ] [ -o file ] [ -O levels ] [ -P ] [ -T n ] [ -u ] [ -v ]
```

The commonly used flags are provided in Table 4-5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-O levels</td>
<td>Monitors only the specified file system levels. Valid level identifiers are: lf (logical file level), vm (virtual memory level), lv (logical volume level), pv (physical volume level), and all (all is a short for lf, vm, lv, pv). If no -O flag is specified, the vm, lv, and pv levels are implied by default.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-o file</td>
<td>Name of the file where the output report is stored. If no flag is specified, the output is displayed on the standard output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-u</td>
<td>Reports on files that were opened prior to the start of the trace daemon. The process ID (PID) and the file descriptor (FD) are substituted for the file name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.9.2 The fileplace command

The fileplace command displays the placement of file blocks within logical or physical volumes. The command has the following syntax and the flags are provided in Table 4-6:

```
fileplace [ { -l | -p } [ -i ] [ -v ] ] File
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-l</td>
<td>Displays file placement in terms of logical volume fragments for the logical volume containing the file. The -l and -p flags are mutually exclusive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.9.3 The lslv command

The lslv command displays information about a logical volume. The command has the following syntax and the flags are provided in Table 4-7.

Display logical volume information:

```
lslv [ -L ] [ -l|-m ] [ -nPhysicalVolume ] LogicalVolume
```

Display logical volume allocation map:

```
lslv [ -L ] [ -nPhysicalVolume ] -pPhysicalVolume [ LogicalVolume ]
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-L</td>
<td>Lists the fields for each physical volume in the logical volume.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-p</td>
<td>Displays the logical volume allocation map for the PhysicalVolume variable. If you use the LogicalVolume parameter, any partition allocated to that logical volume is listed by logical partition number.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-7  Commonly used flags of the lslv command
4.10 Quiz

The following assessment questions help verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this chapter.

1. While a user is compiling a C program, \texttt{vmstat 120 10} is run to determine the cause of a performance problem. Given the \texttt{vmstat} output as shown in the exhibit indicates an I/O bottleneck, which of the following commands should be run next to get more information about the problem?

   \texttt{/usr/bin/vmstat 120 10}

   \begin{verbatim}
   kthr memory page faults cpu
   ----------- ------------------- -------------------
   01 59903 542 0 0 0 0 0 451 912 478 43 11 15 31
   02 59904 550 0 0 0 0 0 521 1436 650 23 19 4 50
   03 59950 538 0 0 0 0 0 344 649 249 7 7 6 80
   02 59899 578 0 0 0 0 0 467 1829 500 12 14 4 70
   02 59882 589 0 0 0 0 0 600 1292 705 6 8 3 61
   03 59882 420 0 0 0 0 0 452 952 372 11 8 1 80
   02 59954 420 0 0 0 0 0 537 1979 573 13 5 10 72
   02 59954 423 0 0 0 0 0 618 1413 686 15 9 6 70
   03 59954 420 0 0 0 0 0 551 938 634 4 2 2 92
   02 59954 422 0 0 0 0 0 460 1376 496 14 2 4 80
   \end{verbatim}

   A. \texttt{lspv}
   B. \texttt{tprof}
   C. \texttt{iostat}
   D. \texttt{vmtune}

2. Which of the following commands should be used to show the percentage of time that the CPU(s) is idle waiting for pending system I/Os to complete?

   A. \texttt{tprof}
   B. \texttt{pstat}
   C. \texttt{iostat}
   D. \texttt{filemon}

3. Which of the following commands should be used to monitor disk utilization during the time a system is experiencing a disk I/O performance problem?

   A. \texttt{pstat}
   B. \texttt{iostat}
   C. \texttt{vmstat}
   D. \texttt{vmtune}
4. Which of the following utilities should be used to determine which disk or set of disks is experiencing contention on a SCSI bus?
   A. `lspv`
   B. `iostat`
   C. `lsdev`
   D. `vmstat`

5. Which of the following metrics provided by the `iostat` report is used to initially determine if a system is I/O bound?
   A. `tin` and `tout`
   B. `% user` and `% sys`
   C. `% iowait` and `% tm_act`
   D. `Kb_read` and `Kb_wrtn`

6. If the `filemon` command is invoked, which of the following indicates how to stop the command so that the `filemon` reports can be generated?
   A. Run `trcstop`.
   B. Run `filemon -u`.
   C. Perform a `kill -15` on the `filemon` PID.
   D. Perform a `kill -SIGSTOP` on the `filemon` PID.

7. Which of the following tools should be used to examine the details of a file’s indirect inode, assuming it uses indirect inodes?
   A. `df`
   B. `istat`
   C. `filemon`
   D. `fileplace`

8. Which of the following tools will report how much of a logical volume is following its intra-policy request?
   A. `df -k`
   B. `lslv -1`
   C. `lsvg -1`
   D. `fileplace`
9. Which of the following is true of the fileplace command?
   A. A file can be placed in a specific location.
   B. The fragment distribution on a specified file is shown.
   C. Fragmentation is removed by rearranging file fragments.
   D. The distribution of all the files on a specified disk is shown.

10. Which of the following logical volume placement policies most likely provides
    the best performance for a logical volume that has Mirror Write Consistency
    Check turned on?
    A. INTRA-POLICY set to edge
    B. INTRA-POLICY set to center
    C. INTRA-POLICY set to middle
    D. INTRA-POLICY set to inner middle

11. There is a system where all rootvg logical volumes reside on the same disk
    (hdisk0), with the exception of the boot logical volume, which resides on
    another disk (hdisk1).

    # filemon -O lv -o filemon.out;sleep 60;trcstop; cat filemon.out

    Most Active Logical Volumes
    ---------------------------------------------------------------
    | util | #rblk | #wblk | KB/s | volume      | description |
    |------|-------|-------|------|-------------|-------------|
    | 0.84 | 105792| 149280| 177.1| /dev/hd9var | /var        |
    | 0.32 | 0     | 16800 | 11.9 | /dev/hd8    | jfslog      |
    | 0.02 | 4608  | 0     | 3.2  | /dev/hd4    | /           |
    | 0.02 | 55296 | 0     | 5.9  | /dev/hd2    | /usr        |
    | 0.01 | 2976  | 0     | 2.1  | /dev/hd1    | /home       |

    Using the filemon output as shown in the preceding exhibit, the workload
    across the disks should be balanced by:
    A. Moving the /var file system from hdisk0 to hdisk1
    B. Moving the hd5 logical volume from hdisk1 to hdisk0
    C. Creating a separate JFS log for the / (root) file system on hdisk1
    D. Creating a separate JFS log for the /var file system on hdisk1
12. If the percentage of RAM occupied by file pages falls below minperm, the page replacement algorithm steals:
   A. File pages only
   B. Computational only
   C. Both file and computational pages
   D. Persistent memory

13. An SMP system is running slowly and `vmstat` reflects high CPU idle time. Which of the following commands should be used to investigate contention?
   A. `vmtune`
   B. `schedtune`
   C. `filemon`
   D. `lockstat`

14. There is a mount option called `nointegrity` that bypasses the use of JFS logging. All of the following statements are true except:
   A. This option can provide better I/O performance, but can sacrifice a rapid and clean recovery of file systems.
   B. This option enables `fsck` to be done automatically at bootup of the file system should the system go down without a clean shutdown.
   C. This option can reduce I/O bottlenecks caused by a busy logical volume, especially if the system is creating and removing many files in a short amount of time.
   D. Fast-write cache devices can provide better performance for log logical volumes and can be a better option than the `nointegrity`.

15. An application is causing a response time issue. Which of the following can be used to determine the problem?
   A. `filemon`
   B. `fileplace`
   C. `rmss`
   D. `netstat`
4.10.1 Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.

1. C
2. C
3. B
4. B
5. C
6. A
7. D
8. B
9. B
10. A
11. A
12. C
13. D
14. B
15. A

4.11 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

1. On a test system, with preferably two spare disks, create a testvg volume group. Create test logical volumes with the different parameters discussed in this chapter: Mirrored LV, intra-disk policy, inter-disk policy, strict policy, and striping.

2. Use the `lslv` command on the LVs created above and verify LV attributes, LV fragmentation, and LV allocation.

3. Perform a `filemon` trace on your test system using the following command sequence:
   ```sh
   # filemon -u -O lf,lv,pv -o /tmp/filemon.out ; sleep 30; tracestop
   ```
   Identify the most active files, logical volume, and disk drive.

4. On an existing file system, create a large file. Verify its fragmentation as well as space efficiency and sequence with the `fileplace` command.
Network performance tools

The following topics are discussed in this chapter:

- Network performance problems overview
- Network monitoring tools
- Network tuning tools

This chapter looks at network performance problems. It describes network examination and problem-solving procedures.
5.1 Overview

The recommended network performance tools to use first are the `ping` and the `netstat` commands. Usually, they provide you with enough information to discover your problems; if not, this chapter provides you with more insight into the network performance topic.

To understand the performance characteristics of the network subsystem in AIX, you must first understand some of the underlying architecture. Figure 5-1 on page 174 shows the path of data from an application on one system to another application on a remote system. The following discussion matches the diagram:

- As an application writes to a socket, the data is copied from the user space into the socket send buffer in the kernel space. Depending on the amount of data being copied into the socket send buffer, the socket puts the data into either mbufs or clusters. The size of the buffers in virtual memory that are used by the input is limited by the values:
  - `udp_sendspace`
  - `tcp_sendspace`

- Once the data is copied into the socket send buffer, the socket layer calls the transport layer (either TCP or UDP), passing it a pointer to the linked list of mbufs (an mbuf chain).

- If the size of the data is larger than the maximum transfer unit (MTU) of the LAN, one of the following is generally done:
  - TCP breaks the output into segments that comply with the MTU limit.
  - UDP leaves the breaking up of the output to the IP layer.

- If IP receives a packet larger than the MTU of the interface, it fragments the packet and sends the fragments to the receiving system, which reassembles them into the original packet.

- When the interface layer receives a packet from IP, it attaches the link-layer header information to the beginning of the packet and calls the device driver write routine.

- At the device-driver layer, the mbuf chain containing the packet is enqueued on the transmit queue. The maximum total number of output buffers that can be queued is controlled by the system parameter `tx_que_size`.

- Arriving packets are placed on the device driver's receive queue, and pass through the interface layer to IP. The maximum total number of input buffers that can be queued is controlled by the system parameter `rx_que_size`. 
If IP in the receiving system determines that IP in the sending system has fragmented a block of data, it coalesces the fragments into their original form and passes the data to TCP or UDP. If one of the fragments is lost in transmission, the incomplete packet is ultimately discarded by the receiver. The length of time IP waits for a missing fragment is controlled by the ipfragttl parameter.

- TCP reassembles the original segments and places the input in the socket receive buffer.
- UDP simply passes the input on to the socket receive buffer.

The maximum size of IP's queue of packets received from the network interface is controlled by the ipqmaxlen parameter, which is set and displayed with the \texttt{no} command. If the size of the input queue reaches this number, subsequent packets are dropped.

When the application makes a read request, the appropriate data is copied from the socket receive buffer in kernel memory into the buffer in the application's working segment.
5.2 Adapter transmit and receive queue tuning

Most communication drivers provide a set of tunable parameters to control transmit and receive resources. These parameters typically control the transmit queue and receive queue limits, but may also control the number and size of...
buffers or other resources. To check queue size for the ent0 adapter, use the 
lsattr command:

```
# lsattr -El ent0
busio         0x1000100      Bus I/O address                   False
busintr       15             Bus interrupt level               False
intr_priority 3              Interrupt priority                False
tx_que_size   64             TRANSMIT queue size               True
rx_que_size   32             RECEIVE queue size                True
full_duplex   no             Full duplex                       True
use_alt_addr  no             Enable ALTERNATE ETHERNET address True
alt_addr      0x000000000000 ALTERNATE ETHERNET address        True
```

To change queue size parameters, perform the following procedure.

Bring down the interface:
```
# ifconfig en0 detach
```

Change the value of the appropriate parameter:
```
# chdev -l ent0 -a tx_que_size=128
ent0 changed
```

Bring the interface back to the up state:
```
# ifconfig en0 up
```

To check if the queue's size should be changed, run the netstat command or adapter statistics utilities (entstat, tokstat, or others):

```
# netstat -v
ETHERNET STATISTICS (ent0) :
Device Type: IBM PCI Ethernet Adapter (22100020)
Hardware Address: 08:00:5a:fc:d2:e1
Elapsed Time: 0 days 0 hours 19 minutes 16 seconds

Transmit Statistics:                               Receive Statistics:
------------------------                      ------------------------
Packets: 19                              Packets: 0
Bytes: 1140                               Bytes: 0
Interrupts: 0                            Interrupts: 0
Transmit Errors: 0                      Receive Errors: 0
Packets Dropped: 0                        Packets Dropped: 0
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 1
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 0

Broadcast Packets: 19                  Broadcast Packets: 0
Multicast Packets: 0                   Multicast Packets: 0
```
Two parameters should be checked:

- Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue. This is the maximum number of outgoing packets ever queued to the software transmit queue. An indication of an inadequate queue size is if the maximal transmits queued equals the current queue size tx_que_size. This indicates that the queue was full at some point.

- S/W Transmit Queue Overflow. The number of outgoing packets that have overflowed the software transmit queue. A value other than zero indicates that the same actions needed if the Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue reaches the tx_que_size should be taken. The transmit queue size has to be increased.

Adapter statistics utilities are quite useful. For example, the entstat command displays the statistics gathered by the specified Ethernet device driver. The user can optionally specify that the device-specific statistics be displayed in addition to the device-generic statistics. If no flags are specified, only the device-generic statistics are displayed. In the following example, to display the Ethernet device-generic statistics and the Ethernet device-specific statistics for ent0, enter:

```
# entstat -d ent0
```

```
--------------------------------------------
ETHERNET STATISTICS (ent0) :
Device Type: IBM 10/100 Mbps Ethernet PCI Adapter (23100020)
Hardware Address: 00:06:29:b9:1f:08
Elapsed Time: 1 days 1 hours 24 minutes 55 seconds

Transmit Statistics:                    Receive Statistics:
-----------------                        ------------------
Packets: 443312                          Packets: 979962
Bytes: 198577053                         Bytes: 114525647
Interrupts: 2915                         Interrupts: 828638
Transmit Errors: 0                       Receive Errors: 0
Packets Dropped: 1                       Packets Dropped: 0
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 24
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 1
```

### 5.3 Protocols tuning

The main goal in network performance tuning is to balance demands of users against resource constraints to ensure acceptable network performance.
You can do this with the following steps:

- Characterize workload, configuration, and bandwidth.
- Measure performance.
  - Run tools, identify bottlenecks.
  - Useful tools are `netstat`, `tcpdump`, and `iptrace`.
- Tune network parameters.
  - Make adjustments.
  - Useful tuning parameters are `no`, `nfso`, `chdev`, and `ifconfig`.

AIX allocates virtual memory for various TCP/IP networking tasks. The network subsystem uses a memory management facility called an mbuf. Mbufs are mostly used to store data for incoming and outbound network traffic. Having mbuf pools of the right size can have a very positive effect on network performance. Heavy network load can be a reason for low memory for the system, but too little virtual memory for network use can cause packet dropping. The dropped packet, on the other hand, can reduce the effective transmission throughput because of retransmissions or time outs.

The AIX operating system offers the capability for run-time mbuf pool configuration. There are a few system parameters that you can tune for this purpose:

- `thewall` Kernel variable, controls the maximum amount of RAM (in kilobytes) that the mbuf management facility can allocate from the VMM.
- `tcp_sendspace` Kernel variable, sets default socket send buffer. It keeps an application from overflowing the socket send buffer and limits the number of mbufs used by an application. The default value for `tcp_sendspace` is 16384.
- `tcp_recvspace` Kernel variable, used as the default socket receive buffer size when an application opens a TCP socket. The default value for `tcp_recvspace` is 16384.
- `udp_sendspace` Kernel variable, sets the limit for the amount of memory that can be used by a single UDP socket for buffering out-going data. If a UDP application fills this buffer space, it must sleep until some of the data has passed on to the next layer of the protocol stack. The default value for `udp_sendspace` is 9216.
- `udp_recvspace` Kernel variable, sets the size limit of the receive space buffer for any single UDP socket. The default value for `udp_recvspace` is 41920.
rfc1323  If the value of this variable is non-zero, it allows the TCP window size to be the maximum of 32 bits instead of 16 bits. What this means is that you can set tcp_recvspace and tcp_sendspace to be greater than 64 KB.

sb_max  Kernel variable, controls the upper limit for any buffers.

ipqmaxlen  Kernel variable, controls length of the IP input queue. The default is 100 packets long, which is sufficient for single-network device systems. You may increase this value for systems with multiple network devices. The penalty for insufficient queue length is dropped packets.

ipforwarding  Specifies whether the kernel should forward packets. The default value of 0 prevents forwarding of IP packets when they are not for the local system. A value of 1 enables forwarding. ipforwarding is a runtime attribute.

udp_pmtu_discover  Enables or disables path MTU discovery for UDP applications. A value of 0 disables the feature, while a value of 1 enables it. This option is a runtime command.

tcp_pmtu_discover  Enables or disables path MTU discovery for TCP applications. A value of 0 disables the feature, while a value of 1 enables it. This option is a runtime command.

The operating system supports a path MTU discovery algorithm enabled by modifying udp_pmtu_discover and tcp_pmtu_discover with the no command. These options automatically force the size of all packets to not exceed the path MTU. When the path MTU has been discovered for a network route, a separate host route is cloned for the path. These cloned host routes, as well as the path MTU value for the route, can be displayed using the netstat -r command. Route expiration is controlled by the route_expire option of the no command.

Note: The values of the tcp or udp_sendspace and tcp or udp_recvspace variables must be less than or equal to the sb_max, so if you have reduced sb_max from its default, or want to use buffers larger than that default, you must also change the sb_max variable.

A network application that sends data in large bursts, such as a backup over the network, can generate socket buffer overflows. Insufficient buffer space for TCP sockets will merely limit throughput, but not inhibit proper operation. The TCP window limits the amount of data pending to be acknowledged and effectively limits the throughput of the sockets. The tcp_recvspace controls the TCP window size, which cannot be bigger than the socket buffer space. To increase performance of such an application, you have to remove the TCP window size
5.4 Network performance monitoring tools

This section describes the most common monitoring tools used to isolate network performance problems.

5.4.1 The vmstat command

You should invoke network monitoring tools in order to get more statistics for isolating a network bottleneck. When the vmstat command shows significant amounts of idle time that does not fit the problem, the system may be network bound. The following is a typical vmstat command report:

```
# vmstat 120 10

kthr memory page faults cpu
----- ----------- --------------- ------------ -----------
    r   b   avm  fre  re  pi  po  fr  sr  cy  in  sy  cs  us  sy  id  wa
0  1  19331  824  0  0  0  0  0  636 1955 674  0  0  99  0
0  1  19803  996  0  0  0  0  0  533 7466 591  0  0  99  0
0  1  19974  860  0  0  0  0  0  822 4055 892  0  0  99  0
0  1  19815  860  0  0  0  0  0  535 4096 509  0  0  99  0
0  1  19816  855  0  0  0  0  0  577 4582 598  0  0  99  0
0  1  19816  737  0  0  0  0  0  602 2720 672  0  0  99  0
0  1  19895  724  0  0  0  0  0  616 3842 698  0  0  99  0
0  1  17147  724  0  0  0  0  0  649 6427 626  0  0  99  0
0  1  17065  720  0  0  0  0  0  516 3629 543  0  0  99  0
0  1  17163  720  0  0  0  0  0  614 9030 688  0  0  99  0
0  1  17343  720  0  0  0  0  0  420 8777 487  0  0  99  0
0  1  17579  712  0  0  0  0  0  497 3298 310  0  0  99  0
```

The disk I/O wait is in the wa column and the nondisk wait is in the id column. Nondisk wait includes network I/O wait or terminal I/O wait. If there is no terminal I/O wait, then the system is waiting for network I/O to complete. You should run one of the network monitoring tools to find out the reason for the network I/O wait.

The ping command

When you have connection problems, the first tool you should use is the ping command. It is used for investigating basic point-to-point network connectivity problems, answering questions about whether the remote host is attached to the network, and whether the network between the hosts is reliable. Additionally, ping can indicate whether a host name and IP address is consistent across
several machines. To check if the host server3 is *alive*, enter the following command:

```
# ping server3
PING server3: (9.3.240.58): 56 data bytes
64 bytes from 9.3.240.58: icmp_seq=0 ttl=255 time=1 ms
64 bytes from 9.3.240.58: icmp_seq=1 ttl=255 time=0 ms
^C
----server3 PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 2 packets received, 0% packet loss
round-trip min/avg/max = 0/0/1 ms
```

This test checks round-trip times and packet loss statistics, as shown in the previous example.

### 5.4.2 The traceroute command

If you cannot reach a host that is in a different network, you can check the connection using the `traceroute` command. The `traceroute` output shows each gateway that the packet traverses on its way to find the target host, and the delay or network latency associated with that segment. If possible, examine the routing tables of the last machine shown in the `traceroute` output to check if a route exists to the destination from that host. The last machine shown is where the routing is going astray.

```
# traceroute 9.3.240.56
traceroute to 9.3.240.56 (9.3.240.56), 30 hops max, 40 byte packets
 1  server4e (10.47.1.1)  1 ms  1 ms  0 ms
 2  server1 (9.3.240.56)  1 ms  1 ms  1 ms
```

If the connections are performing poorly, packet fragmentation may be a problem. AIX Version 4.3 has a service that allows automatic path MTU discovery. A fixed MTU size can also be set with the `no` command.

### 5.4.3 The netstat command

The most common network monitoring tool is `netstat`. The `netstat` command is used to show the network status. It gives you an indication of the reliability of the local network interface. Traditionally, it is used more for problem determination than for performance measurement. It is useful in determining the amount of traffic on the network, therefore ascertaining whether performance problems are due to congestion.

There are various options to display:

- Active sockets
- Protocol statistics
To display statistics recorded by the memory management routines, use the `netstat` command with the `-m` flag. To enable more extensive statistics for network memory services (for AIX Version 4.3.2 and later), you should set kernel variable extendednetstats to 1 first, as shown in the following:

```
# no -o extendednetstats=1
# netstat -m
```

```
16 mbufs in use:
0 mbuf cluster pages in use
4 Kbytes allocated to mbufs
0 requests for mbufs denied
0 calls to protocol drain routines

Kernel malloc statistics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>By size</th>
<th>inuse</th>
<th>calls failed</th>
<th>free</th>
<th>hiwat</th>
<th>freed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>805</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>41806</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1024</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2048</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4096</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8192</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16384</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>By type</th>
<th>inuse</th>
<th>calls failed</th>
<th>memuse</th>
<th>memmax</th>
<th>mapb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mbuf</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>41218</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4096</td>
<td>19712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mcluster</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socket</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>862</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18048</td>
<td>18688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pcb</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12480</td>
<td>12992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>routetbl</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1312</td>
<td>2080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ifaddr</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mblk</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15104</td>
<td>15488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mblkdata</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16384</td>
<td>35840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strhead</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3232</td>
<td>4256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stqueue</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9216</td>
<td>11776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strmmodsw</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1280</td>
<td>1280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strosr</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strsyncq</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2688</td>
<td>3392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>streams</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14976</td>
<td>16256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devbuf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kernel table</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45920</td>
<td>46432</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
``
temp 8 13 0 7424 15744 0

Streams mblk statistic failures:
0 high priority mblk failures
0 medium priority mblk failures
0 low priority mblk failures

The first paragraph of data shows how much memory is allocated to mbufs. The total number of bytes allocated for mbufs is the first statistic you should review. In this example, 4 KB is allocated out of a possible limit 16 MB. This limit can be regulated by the thewall kernel variable. The second statistic is named requests for mbufs denied. The nonzero value indicates that you should increase the limit by setting the thewall value. To check the thewall value, enter:

```
# no -o thewall
thewall = 16384
```

For network protocol statistics, use the `netstat` command with the `-p` flag and the appropriate protocol name. To receive statistics for IP protocol, use the command as follows:

```
# netstat -p IP
ip:
```

```
59821 total packets received
0 bad header checksums
0 with size smaller than minimum
0 with data size < data length
0 with header length < data size
0 with data length < header length
0 with bad options
0 with incorrect version number
7985 fragments received
0 fragments dropped (dup or out of space)
7 fragments dropped after timeout
3989 packets reassembled ok
55825 packets for this host
....
47289 packets sent from this host
8 packets sent with fabricated ip header
0 output packets dropped due to no bufs, etc.
0 output packets discarded due to no route
11000 output datagrams fragmented
22000 fragments created
0 datagrams that can't be fragmented
....
0 ipintrq overflows
```
When the ipintrq overflows counter has a nonzero value, you should change the length of the IP input queue using the `no` command:

```
# no -o ipqmaxlen=100
```

To display statistics for each protocol, enter:

```
# netstat -s -f inet|more
```

```
ip:
  191583 total packets received
  0 bad header checksums
  0 with size smaller than minimum
  0 with data size < data length
  0 with header length < data size
  0 with data length < header length
  0 with bad options
  0 with incorrect version number
  0 fragments received
  0 fragments dropped (dup or out of space)
  0 fragments dropped after timeout
  0 packets reassembled ok
  164680 packets for this host
  37 packets for unknown/unsupported protocol
  ....
  ....
```

To check the amount of packets that pass through interfaces and the number of input/output errors, use the following command:

```
# netstat -i
```

```
Name  Mtu   Network     Address  Ipkts  Ierrs  Opkts  Oerrs  Coll
lo0   16896 link#1                      282515  0   283832  0   0
lo0   16896 127  localhost.austin.     282515  0   283832  0   0
lo0   16896 ::1                             282515  0   283832  0   0
en0   1500  link#2  8.0.5a.fc.d2.e1     49995  0    27187  3929  0
en0   1500 10.47  server4               49995  0    27187  3929  0
tr0   1492  link#3  0.4.ac.61.73.f7     730283 0    317239 722  0
tr0   1492 9.3.240 server4f              730283 0    317239 722  0
```

### 5.4.4 The `entstat` command

The `entstat` command is a network analysis tool used for Ethernet networks. You should use this command to display the statistics gathered by the specified Ethernet device driver. You can also optionally specify that the device-specific statistics be displayed in addition to the device generic statistics. If no flags are specified, only the device-generic statistics are displayed. This command is also invoked when the `netstat` command is run with the `-v` flag. The `netstat` command does not issue any `entstat` command flags.
For example, to display the device generic statistics for ent0, enter:

```
# entstat ent0
```

```
-------------------------------------------------------------
ETHERNET STATISTICS (ent0) :
Device Type: IBM 10/100 Mbps Ethernet PCI Adapter (23100020)
Hardware Address: 00:06:29:b9:1f:08
Elapsed Time: 1 days 4 hours 54 minutes 56 seconds

Transmit Statistics: .................................................. Receive Statistics: ..............................................
Packets: 16748 ......................................................... Packets: 216281 ..................................................
Bytes: 6778818 .......................................................... Bytes: 29241933 ....................................................
Interrupts: 48 ............................................................. Interrupts: 211132 ..................................................
Transmit Errors: 25 ....................................................... Receive Errors: 0 ..........................................
Packets Dropped: 1 ....................................................... Packets Dropped: 0 ............................................
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 20 ..........................
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0 .....................................
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 1 ..........................

Broadcast Packets: 1160 ..............................................
Multicast Packets: 2 ...................................................
No Carrier Sense: 25 ...................................................
DMA Underrun: 0 .......................................................
Lost CTS Errors: 0 ......................................................
Max Collision Errors: 0 ................................................
Late Collision Errors: 0 ..............................................
Deferred: 0 .............................................................
SQE Test: 1 .............................................................
Timeout Errors: 0 ......................................................
Single Collision Count: 0 ..........................................
Multiple Collision Count: 0 ........................................
Current HW Transmit Queue Length: 1 ..........................

General Statistics: ..................................................
No mbuf Errors: 0 .....................................................
Adapter Reset Count: 0 ..............................................
Adapter Data Rate: 200 .............................................
Driver Flags: Up Broadcast Running
Simplex AlternateAddress 64BitSupport
PrivateSegment DataRateSet
```

5.4.5 The fddistat command

The `fddistat` command is a network analysis tool used for FDDI networks. You should use this command to display the statistics gathered by the specified FDDI
device driver. If no flags are specified, only the device driver statistics are displayed. This command is also invoked when the `netstat` command is run with the `-v` flag. The `netstat` command does not issue any `fddistat` command flags.

If you issue an invalid Device_Name, the `fddistat` command will produce an error message stating that it could not connect to the device.

The `-r` flag resets all the statistics back to their initial values. This flag can only be issued by privileged users.

For example, to display the device driver statistics for fddi0, enter:

```
# fddistat fddi0
FDDI STATISTICS (fddi0) :
Elapsed Time: 0 days 0 hours 1 minutes 3 seconds
Transmit Statistics:
Receive Statistics:
Packets: 100                                Packets: 100
Bytes: 113800                               Bytes: 104700
Interrupts: 100                             Interrupts: 100
Transmit Errors: 0                          Receive Errors: 0
Packets Dropped: 0                          Packets Dropped: 0
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 0        Bad Packets: 0
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0              Broadcast Packets: 0
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 0     Multicast Packets: 0
Broadcast Packets: 0                        Broadcast Packets: 0
Multicast Packets: 0                        Multicast Packets: 0

General Statistics:

No mbuf Errors: 0
SMT Error Word: 00040080                    SMT Event Word: 000004a0
Connection Policy Violation: 0000           Port Event: 0000
Set Count Hi: 0000 Set Count Lo: 0003       Port Event: 0000
Adapter Check Code: 0000                    Purged Frames: 0
ECM State Machine:         IN
PCM State Machine Port A: CONNECT
PCM State Machine Port B: ACTIVE
CFM State Machine Port A: ISOLATED
CFM State Machine Port B: CONCATENATED
CF State Machine:         C_WRAP_B
MAC CFM State Machine:    PRIMARY
RMT State Machine:        RING_OP

Driver Flags: Up Broadcast Running
              Simplex DualAttachStation
```
5.4.6 The tokstat

The *tokstat* command is a network analysis tool used for token ring networks. You should issue this command to display the statistics gathered by the specified token-ring device driver. You can optionally specify that the device-specific statistics be displayed in addition to the device-driver statistics. If no flags are specified, only the device-driver statistics are displayed. This command is also invoked when the *netstat* command is run with the -v flag. The *netstat* command does not issue any *tokstat* command flags.

For example, to display the device-driver statistics for tok0, enter:

```
# tokstat tok0
TOKEN-RING STATISTICS (tok0) :
Device Type: Token-Ring High-Performance Adapter (8fc8)
Hardware Address: 10:00:5a:4f:26:c1
Elapsed Time: 0 days 0 hours 8 minutes 33 seconds
Transmit Statistics: Receive Statistics:
------------------------ -------------------
Packets: 191            Packets: 8342
Bytes: 17081            Bytes: 763227
Interrupts: 156         Interrupts: 8159
Transmit Errors: 0      Receive Errors: 0
Packets Dropped: 0      Packets Dropped: 0
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 17 Bad Packets: 0
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 0

Broadcast Packets: 1    Broadcast Packets: 8023
Multicast Packets: 0    Multicast Packets: 0
Timeout Errors: 0       Receive Congestion Errors: 0
Current SW Transmit Queue Length: 0
Current HW Transmit Queue Length: 0

General Statistics:
-------------------
No mbuf Errors: 0       Lobe Wire Faults: 0
Abort Errors: 0          AC Errors: 0
Burst Errors: 0          Frame Copy Errors: 0
Frequency Errors: 0      Hard Errors: 0
Internal Errors: 0       Line Errors: 0
Lost Frame Errors: 0     Only Station: 0
Token Errors: 0          Remove Received: 0
Ring Recovered: 0        Signal Loss Errors: 0
Soft Errors: 0           Transmit Beacon Errors: 0
```

Driver Flags: Up Broadcast Running
AlternateAddress ReceiveFunctionalAddr
### 5.4.7 The `atmstat` command

The `atmstat` command shows Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) Adapters statistics. You can optionally specify that the device-specific statistics be displayed in addition to the device-generic statistics. If no flags are specified, only the device-generic statistics are displayed.

To display the adapter-generic statistics for `atm0`, enter the following example:

```bash
# atmstat atm0
ATM STATISTICS (atm0) :
Device Type: Turboways 155 MCA ATM Adapter
Hardware Address: 08:00:5a:99:88:d5
Elapsed Time: 2 days 23 hours 38 minutes 18 seconds

Transmit Statistics:  
--------------------
Packets: 50573  
Bytes: 2225182  
Interrupts: 0  
Transmit Errors: 0  
Packets Dropped: 0  
Max Packets on S/W Transmit Queue: 0  
S/W Transmit Queue Overflow: 0  
Current S/W+H/W Transmit Queue Length: 0  
Cells Transmitted: 50573  
Out of Xmit Buffers: 0  
Current HW Transmit Queue Length: 0  
Current SW Transmit Queue Length: 0

Receive Statistics:  
-------------------
Packets: 0  
Bytes: 0  
Interrupts: 12904  
Receive Errors: 0  
Packets Dropped: 0  
Bad Packets: 0  
Cells Received: 0  
Out of Rcv Buffers: 0  
CRC Errors: 0  
Packets Too Long: 0  
Incomplete Packets: 0  
Cells Dropped: 0

General Statistics:  
-------------------
No mbuf Errors: 0  
Adapter Loss of Signals: 0  
Adapter Reset Count: 0  
Driver Flags: Up Running Simplex 64BitSupport  
Virtual Connections in use: 2  
Max Virtual Connections in use: 2  
Virtual Connections Overflow: 0  
SVC UNI Version: auto_detect

Turboways ATM Adapter Specific Statistics:  
------------------------------------------
Packets Dropped - No small DMA buffer: 0
```
5.4.8 The netpmon command

The netpmon command is the tool used for network I/O analysis. It uses trace as a means to collect statistics about events occurring in the network code in the kernel. Tracing must be stopped using a trcstop command. The netpmon command monitors a trace of system events, and reports on network activity and performance during the monitored interval. By default, the netpmon command runs in the background while one or more application programs or system commands are being executed and monitored. The netpmon command automatically starts and monitors a trace of network-related system events in real time. By default, the trace is started immediately; optionally, tracing may be deferred until the user issues a trcon command. When tracing is stopped by a trcstop command, the netpmon command generates all specified reports and exits. In the client-server environment, netpmon gives an excellent picture of how networking affects the overall performance. The netpmon command can be run on both the client and server. The netpmon command focuses on the following physical and logical resources:

**CPU usage**

Monitors CPU usage by all threads and interrupt handlers. It estimates how much of this usage is due to network-related activities.

Packets Dropped - No medium DMA buffer: 0
Packets Dropped - No large DMA buffer: 0
Receive Aborted - No Adapter Receive Buffer: 0
Transmit Attempted - No small DMA buffer: 0
Transmit Attempted - No medium DMA buffer: 0
Transmit Attempted - No large DMA buffer: 0
Transmit Attempted - No MTB DMA buffer: 0
Transmit Attempted - No Adapter Transmit Buffer: 0
Max Hardware transmit queue length: 12
Small Mbuf in Use: 0
Medium Mbuf in Use: 0
Large Mbuf in Use: 64
Huge Mbuf in Use: 0
MTB Mbuf in Use: 0
Max Small Mbuf in Use: 0
Max Medium Mbuf in Use: 0
Max Large Mbuf in Use: 64
Max Huge Mbuf in Use: 0
MTB Mbuf in Use: 0
Small Mbuf overflow: 0
Medium Mbuf overflow: 0
Large Mbuf overflow: 0
Huge Mbuf overflow: 0
MTB Mbuf overflow: 0
Network device-driver I/O Monitors I/O operations through network device drivers. In the case of transmission I/O, the command also monitors utilizations, queue lengths, and destination hosts.

Internet socket calls Monitors all subroutines on IP sockets.

NFS I/O Monitors read and write subroutines on client Network File System (NFS) files, client NFS remote procedure call (RPC) requests, and NFS server read or write requests.

The following example shows how network operation can impact the CPU performance. There was an NFS workload during this netpmon session.

```
# netpmon -O cpu; sleep 10 ; trcstop
on Jul 10 18:08:31 2000
System: AIX server1 Node: 4 Machine: 000BC6FD4C00
```

========================================================================
Process CPU Usage Statistics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Network</th>
<th>PID</th>
<th>CPU Time</th>
<th>CPU %</th>
<th>CPU %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kproc</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>1.4956</td>
<td>24.896</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kproc</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>1.4940</td>
<td>24.870</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kproc</td>
<td>1032</td>
<td>1.4929</td>
<td>24.852</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kproc</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>1.4854</td>
<td>24.727</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kproc</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>0.0089</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>topas</td>
<td>14798</td>
<td>0.0051</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>netpmon</td>
<td>19204</td>
<td>0.0035</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nfsd</td>
<td>25054</td>
<td>0.0026</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ksh</td>
<td>5872</td>
<td>0.0010</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dtterm</td>
<td>17910</td>
<td>0.0009</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>netpmon</td>
<td>22732</td>
<td>0.0007</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace</td>
<td>28206</td>
<td>0.0006</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swapper</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xterm</td>
<td>21984</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>4212</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trcstop</td>
<td>11070</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>java</td>
<td>17448</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>init</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dtwm</td>
<td>10160</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ot</td>
<td>27694</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total (all processes) 5.9933 99.767 0.045
Idle time 0.0000 0.000
Note that only the nfsd daemon consumed the network CPU time. The network CPU time means percentage of total time that the interrupt handler executed on behalf of network-related events. For other statistics, use the netpmon command with the -O flag and the appropriate keyword. The possible keywords are cpu, dd (network device driver I/O), so (Internet socket call I/O), nfs (NFS I/O), and all.

### 5.4.9 The tcpdump and iptrace commands

The tools discussed previously allow you to obtain a various number of statistics and network-type events in the AIX kernel. However, you might get a problem where statistic counters are not enough to find the cause of the problem. You may need to see the real data *crossing the wire*. There are two commands that let you see every incoming and outgoing packet from your interface: tcpdump and iptrace.

The **tcpdump** command prints out the headers of packets captured on a specified network interface. The following example shows a telnet session between hosts 9.3.240.59 and 9.3.240.58:

```
# tcpdump -i tr0 -n -I -t dst host 9.3.240.58
9.3.240.59.44183 > 9.3.240.58.23: S 1589597023:1589597023(0) win 16384 <mss 1452> [tos 0x10]
9.3.240.58.23 > 9.3.240.59.44183: S 1272672076:1272672076(0) ack 1589597024 win 15972 <mss 1452>
9.3.240.59.44183 > 9.3.240.58.23: S 1589597023:0 ack 1589597024 [tos 0x10]
```

The first line indicates that TCP port 44183 on host 9.3.240.59 sent a packet to the telnet port (23) on host 9.3.240.58. The S indicates that the SYN flag was set. The packet sequence number was 1589597023 and it contained no data. There was no piggy-backed ack field; the available receive field win was 16384 bytes and there was a max-segment-size (mss) option requesting a mss of 1452 bytes. Host 9.3.240.58 replies with a similar packet, except it includes a piggy-backed ack field for host 9.3.240.59 SYN. Host 9.3.240.59 then acknowledges the host.
9.3.240.58 SYN. The period (,) means no flags were set. The packet contains no data, so there is no data sequence number. On the eleventh line, host 9.3.240.59 sends host 9.3.240.58 26 bytes of data. The PUSH flag is set in the packet. On the twelfth line, host 9.3.240.58 says it received data sent by host 9.3.240.59 and sends 54 bytes of data; it also includes a piggy-backed ack for sequence number 27.

The iptrace daemon records IP packets received from configured interfaces. Command flags provide a filter so that the daemon traces only packets meeting specific criteria. Packets are traced only between the local host on which the iptrace daemon is invoked and the remote host. To format iptrace output, run the ipreport command. The following example shows the query from host 9.3.240.59 to DNS server 9.3.240.2. The output from the nslookup command is shown in the following:

```bash
# nslookup www.prokom.pl
Server:   dhcp240.itsc.austin.ibm.com
Address:  9.3.240.2

Non-authoritative answer:
Name:     mirror.prokom.pl
Address:  153.19.177.201
Aliases:  www.prokom.pl
```

The data was captured by the iptrace command, similar to the following:

```bash
# iptrace -a -P UDP -s 9.3.240.59 -b -d 9.3.240.2 /tmp/dns.query
```

The output form the iptrace command was formatted by the ipreport command, as follows:

```
TOK: ====( 81 bytes transmitted on interface tr0 )==== 17:14:26.406601066
TOK: 802.5 packet
TOK: 802.5 MAC header:
TOK: access control field = 0, frame control field = 40
TOK: [ src = 00:04:ac:61:73:f7, dst = 00:20:35:29:0b:6d]
TOK: 802.2 LLC header:
TOK: dsap aa, ssap aa, ctrl 3, proto 0:0:0, type 800 (IP)
IP:  < SRC =      9.3.240.59 >  (server4f.itsc.austin.ibm.com)
IP:  < DST =       9.3.240.2 >  (dhcp240.itsc.austin.ibm.com)
IP:  ip_v=4, ip_hl=20, ip_tos=0, ip_len=59, ip_id=64417, ip_off=0
IP:  ip_ttl=30, ip_sum=aecc, ip_p = 17 (UDP)
UDP: <source port=49572, <destination port=53(domain) >
UDP: [ udp length = 39 | udp checksum = 688d ]
DNS Packet breakdown:
    QUESTIONS:
        www.prokom.pl, type = A, class = IN
TOK: ====( 246 bytes received on interface tr0 )==== 17:14:26.407798799
```
TOK: 802.5 packet  
TOK: 802.5 MAC header:  
TOK: access control field = 18, frame control field = 40  
TOK: routing control field = 02c0, 0 routing segments  
TOK: 802.2 LLC header:  
TOK: dsap aa, ssap aa, ctrl 3, proto 0:0:0, type 800 (IP)  
IP: < SRC = 9.3.240.2 > (dhcp240.itsc.austin.ibm.com)  
IP: < DST = 9.3.240.59 > (server4f.itsc.austin.ibm.com)  
IP: ip_v=4, ip_hl=20, ip_tos=0, ip_len=222, ip_id=2824, ip_off=0  
IP: ip_ttl=64, ip_sum=7cc3, ip_p = 17 (UDP)  
UDP: <source port=53(domain), <destination port=49572 >  
UDP: [ udp length = 202 | udp checksum = a7bf ]  
DNS Packet breakdown:  
   QUESTIONS:  
   www.prokom.pl, type = A, class = IN  
   ANSWERS:  
   ->  www.prokom.plcanonical name = mirror.prokom.pl  
   ->  mirror.prokom.plinternet address = 153.19.177.201  
   AUTHORITY RECORDS:  
   ->  prokom.plnameserver = phobos.prokom.pl  
   ->  prokom.plnameserver = alfa.nask.gda.pl  
   ->  prokom.plnameserver = amber.prokom.pl  
   ADDITIONAL RECORDS:  
   ->  phobos.prokom.plinternet address = 195.164.165.56  
   ->  alfa.nask.gda.plinternet address = 193.59.200.187  
   ->  amber.prokom.plinternet address = 153.19.177.200

There are two packets shown on the ipreport output above (the key data is shown in bold face text). Every packet is divided into a few parts. Each part describes a different network protocol levels. There are the token ring (TOK), IP, UDP, and the application (DNS) parts. The first packet is sent by host 9.3.240.59 and is a query about the IP address of the www.prokom.pl host. The second one is the answer.

### 5.5 Network performance management tools

Use the no command to configure network attributes. The no command sets or displays current network attributes in the kernel. This command only operates on the currently running kernel. The command must be run again after each startup or after the network has been configured. To make changes permanent, make changes to the appropriate /etc/rc. file. To list the current value of every parameter you can change, use the following command:

```
# no -a  
extendednetstats = 1  
thewall = 18420
```
sockthresh = 85
sb_max = 1048576
somaxconn = 1024

......
lowthresh = 90
medthresh = 95
psecache = 1
subnetsarelocal = 1
maxttl = 255
ipfragttl = 60
ipsendredirects = 1
ipforwarding = 1
udp_ttl = 30
tcp_ttl = 60
arpt_killc = 20
tcp_sendspace = 16384
tcp_recvspace = 16384
udp_sendspace = 9216
udp_recvspace = 41920

......

To change the value of the thewall system parameter, shown as 18420, to 36840, use the no command, as shown in the following.

# no -o thewall=36840

The ifconfig command can be used to assign an address to a network interface or to configure or display the current configuration information. For tuning purposes, it is used to change the MTU size:

# ifconfig en0 mtu 1024

Note: The MTU parameters have to be the same on all nodes of the network.

The chdev command is also used to change the value of system attributes. The changes made by the chdev command are permanent because they are stored in the ODM database. To display the current value of the parameters of the en0 interface, use the lsattr command, as follows.

# lsattr -El en0

mtu 1500 Maximum IP Packet Size for This Device True
remmtu 576 Maximum IP Packet Size for REMOTE Networks True
netaddr 10.47.1.6 Internet Address True
state up Current Interface Status True
arp on Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) True
netmask 255.255.0.0 Subnet Mask True
security none Security Level True
authority Authorized Users True
broadcast Broadcast Address True
To permanently change value of the MTU parameter, enter:

```bash
# chdev -l en0 -a mtu=1024
en0 changed
```

## 5.6 Name resolution

If a network connection seems inexplicably slow at times but reasonable at other times, you should check the name resolution configuration for your system. To perform a basic diagnostic for name resolving, you can use either the `host` command or the `nslookup` command.

```bash
# host dhcp240.itsc.austin.ibm.com
dhcp240.itsc.austin.ibm.com is 9.3.240.2
```

The name resolution can be served through either the remote DNS server or the remote NIS server. If one of them is down, you have to wait until a TCP time-out occurs. The name can be resolved by an alternate source, which can be a secondary name server or the local `/etc/hosts` file.

First check the `/etc/netsvc.conf` file or NSORDER environment variable for your particular name resolution ordering. Then check the `/etc/resolv.conf` file for the IP address of the name server and try to `ping` it. If you can `ping` it, then it is up and reachable. If not, try a different name resolution ordering.

Resolver routines on hosts running TCP/IP attempt to resolve names using sources listed in Table 5-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Default nsorder lookup</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. BIND / DNS</td>
<td>Resolver routines will look for <code>/etc/resolv.conf</code> by default.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. NIS</td>
<td>NIS is queried if it is running. NIS is authoritative over the local <code>/etc/hosts</code>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.7 NFS performance tuning

This section discusses the NFS server and the NFS client performance issue.

5.7.1 NFS server-side performance

When narrowing down the performance discussion on servers to the NFS specifics, the issue is often related to dropped packages. NFS servers may drop packets due to overloads.

One common place where a server will drop packets is the UDP socket buffer. The default for AIX Version 4.3 is TCP for data transfer, but UDP is still used for mounting. Dropped packets here are counted by the UDP layer, and the statistics can be seen by using the `netstat -p UDP` command. For example:

```
# netstat -p UDP
udp:
   89827 datagrams received
   0 incomplete headers
   0 bad data length fields
   0 bad checksums
   329 dropped due to no socket
   77515 broadcast/multicast datagrams dropped due to no socket
   0 socket buffer overflows
   11983 delivered
   11663 datagrams output
(At the test system the buffer size was sufficient)
```

NFS packets will usually be dropped at the socket buffer only when a server has a lot of NFS write traffic. The NFS server uses a UDP and TCP socket attached to the NFS port, and all incoming data is buffered on those ports. The default size of this buffer is 60000 bytes. Dividing that number by the size of the default NFS Version 3 write packet (32765), you find that it will take only two simultaneous write packets to overflow that buffer. That could be done by just one NFS client (with the default configurations). It is not as easy as it sounds to overflow the buffer in normal system operation. As soon as the first packet reaches the socket, an `nfsd` will be awakened to start taking the data off.
One of two things has to happen for packets to be dropped. There must be high volume or a high burst of traffic on the socket. If there is high volume, a mixture of many writes plus other possibly non-write NFS traffic, there may not be enough nфsd daemons to take the data off the socket fast enough to keep up with the volume (it takes a dedicated nfsd to service each NFS call of any type). In the high burst case, there may be enough nfsds, but the speed at which packets arrive on the socket is such that the nfsd daemons cannot wake up fast enough to keep it from overflowing.

Each of the two situations has a different resolution. In the case of high volume, it may be sufficient to just increase the number of nfsd daemons running on the system. Since there is no significant penalty for running with more nfsd daemons on an AIX machine, this should be tried first. This can be done with the following command:

```
# chnfs -n 16
```

This will stop the currently running daemons, modify the SRC database code to reflect the new number, and restart the daemons indicated.

In the case of a high burst of traffic, the only solution is to make the socket bigger in the hope that some reasonable size will be sufficiently large enough to give the nfsd daemons time to catch up with the burst. Memory dedicated to this socket will not be available for any other use so it must be understood that making the socket larger may result in memory that will be under utilized the vast majority of the time. The cautious administrator will watch the socket buffer overflows statistic and correlate it with performance problems and make a determination on how big to make the socket buffer.

The `nfso` command is a great utility to list and configure NFS network variables. The syntax for this command is:

```
nfso { -a | -d Option | -l HostName | -o Option [ =NewValue ] } [ -c ]
```

For example, to check the NFS kernel options of nfs_socketsize, nfs_tcp_socketsize, use the `nfso` command:

```
# nfso -a
portcheck= 0
udpchecksum= 2
nfs_socketsize= 60000
nfs_tcp_socketsize= 60000
nfs_setattr_error= 0
nfs_gather_threshold= 4096
```

Note: The `nfso` command performs no range checking; therefore, it accepts all values for the variables. If used incorrectly, the `nfso` command can make your system inoperable.
nfs_repeat_messages= 0
nfs_udp_duplicate_cache_size= 0
nfs_tcp_duplicate_cache_size= 5000
nfs_server_base_priority= 0
nfs_dynamic_retrans= 1
nfs_iopace_pages= 0
nfs_max_connections= 0
nfs_max_threads= 8
nfs_use_reserved_ports= 0
nfs_device_specific_bufs= 1
nfs_server_clread= 1
nfs_rfc1323= 0
nfs_max_write_size= 0
nfs_max_read_size= 0
nfs_allow_all_signals= 0

These configurable variables can be also be set with the nfso command. For example, to set the udpchecksum variable to its default value of 1, enter:

# nfso -d udpchecksum

If you change the nfsbuffer sizes, you must verify that the kernel variable sb_max is greater than the NFS buffer values chosen. The default value of sb_max is 1048576 on AIX 5L Version 5.1. If you need to increase the sb_max value, use the no command. Remember that everything changed with no or nfso is valid only until the next boot, unless these changes have been added to a boot script, for example, /etc/rc.nfs.

5.7.2 NFS client-side performance

The NFS client performance topic often concentrates on the number of biod daemons used. For biod daemons, there is a default number of biod daemons (six for a NFS Version 2 mount, four for a NFS Version 3 mount) that may operate on any one remote-mounted file system concurrently. The idea behind this limitation is that allowing more than a set number of biod daemons to operate against the server at one time may overload the server. Since this is Config_Rules on a per-mount basis on the client, adjustments can be made to configure client mounts by the server capabilities.

When evaluating how many biod daemons to run, you should consider the server capabilities as well as the typical NFS usage on the client machine. If there are multiple users or multiple processes on the client that will need to perform NFS operations to the same NFS-mounted file systems, you have to be aware that contention for biod services can occur with just two simultaneous read or write operations.
Up to six biod daemons can be working on reading a file in one NFS file system. If another read starts in another NFS-mounted file system, both reads will be attempting to use all six biod daemons. In this case, presuming that the server(s) are not already overloaded, performance will likely improve by increasing the biod number to 12. This can be done using the `chnfs` command:

```
# chnfs -b 12
```

On the other hand, suppose both file systems are mounted from the same server and the server is already operating at peak capacity. Adding another six biod daemons could dramatically worsen the response due to the server dropping packets and resulting in time-outs and retransmits.

### 5.7.3 Mount options

The `mount` command has several NFS-specific options that may affect performance.

The most useful options are used to set the read and write sizes to some value that changes the read/write packet size that is sent to the server.

For NFS Version 3 mounts, the read/write sizes can be both increased and decreased. The default read/write sizes are 32 KB. The maximum possible on AIX at the time of publication is 61440 bytes (60 x 1024). Using 60 KB, read/write sizes may provide slight performance improvement in specialized environments. To increase the read/write sizes when both server and client are AIX machines requires modifying settings on both machines. On the client, the mount must be performed by setting up the read/write sizes with the `-o` option. For example, `-o rsize=61440,wsize=61440`. On the server, the advertised maximum read/write size is configured through use of the `nfso` command using the `nfs_max_write_size` and `nfs_max_read_size` parameters. For example:

```
# nfso -o nfs_max_write_size=61440
```

NFS Version 3 uses TCP by default, while NFS Version 2 uses UDP only. This means the initial client mount request using TCP will fail. To provide backwards compatibility, the mount is retried using UDP, but this only occurs after a time-out of some minutes. To avoid this problem, NFS Version 3 provided the `proto` and `vers` parameters with the `mount` command. These parameters are used with the `-o` option to hardwire the protocol and version for a specific mount. The following example forces the use of UDP and NFS Version 2 for the mount request:

```
# mount -o proto=udp,vers=2,soft,retry=1 server4:/tmp /mnt
```
5.8 Command summary

The following section provides a list of the key commands discussed in this chapter.

5.8.1 The netstat command

The syntax of the netstat command is as follows.

To display active sockets for each protocol or routing table information:

/bin/netstat [ -n ] [ { -A -a } | { -r -i -I interface } ]
[ -f AddressFamily ] [ -p protocol ] [ interval ] [ system ]

To display the contents of a network data structure:

/bin/netstat [ -m | -s | -ss | -u | -v ] [ -f AddressFamily ]
[ -p protocol ] [ interval ] [ system ]

To display the packet counts throughout the communications subsystem:

/bin/netstat -D

To display the network buffer cache statistics:

/bin/netstat -c

To display the data link provider interface statistics:

/bin/netstat -P

To clear the associated statistics:

/bin/netstat [ -Zc | -Zi | -Zm | -Zs ]

Some useful netstat flags from a NFS perspective are provided in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2 Commonly used flags of the netstat command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-P protocol</td>
<td>Shows statistics about the value specified for the protocol variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
<td>Shows statistics for each protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-D</td>
<td>Shows the number of packets received, transmitted, and dropped in the communications subsystem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.8.2 The tcpdump command

The syntax of the tcpdump command is:
```
tcpdump [ -I ] [ -n ] [ -N ] [ -t ] [ -v ] [ -c count ] [ -i interface ] [ -w file ] [ Expression ]
```

Some useful tcpdump flags are provided in Table 5-3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-c count</td>
<td>Exits after receiving count packets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-n</td>
<td>Omits conversion of addresses to names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-N</td>
<td>Omits printing domain name qualification of host names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-t</td>
<td>Omits the printing of a timestamp on each dump line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-i interface</td>
<td>Listens on interface.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.3 The iptrace command

The syntax of the iptrace command is:
```
iptrace [ -a ] [ -e ] [ -P protocol ] [ -i interface ] [ -p port ] [ -s host ] [ -b ] [ -d host ] LogFile
```

Some useful iptrace flags are provided in Table 5-4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-a</td>
<td>Suppresses ARP packets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-s host</td>
<td>Records packets coming from the source host specified by the host variable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-b</td>
<td>Changes the -d or -s flags to bidirectional mode.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.4 The ipreport command

The syntax of the ipreport command is:
```
ipreport [ -e ] [ -r ] [ -n ] [ -s ] LogFile
```

Some useful ipreport flags are provided in Table 5-5 on page 201.
Table 5-5  Commonly used flags of the ipreport command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
<td>Prepends the protocol specification to every line in a packet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-r</td>
<td>Decodes remote procedure call (RPC) packets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-n</td>
<td>Includes a packet number to facilitate easy comparison of different output formats</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## 5.9 Quiz

The following assessment questions help verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this chapter.

1. Which of the following commands is most useful in collecting data to determine a network performance problem?
   A. iostat
   B. lpstat
   C. netstat
   D. vmstat

2. Which of the following commands should be used to test name resolution response?
   A. host
   B. iostat
   C. ifconfig
   D. hostname

3. Which of the following commands should be used to identify the cause of packet sequence problems?
   A. tprof and gprof
   B. netstat and iostat
   C. lsattr and ifconfig
   D. iptrace and tcpdump

4. Which of the following commands should be used to make a difference when tuning NFS on a client system?
   A. mount
   B. vmtune
   C. exportfs
D. schedtune

5. On an NFS server, `netstat -m` is run once and then again 15 minutes later.

```bash
# date
Mon Jun 12 20:05:54 CDT 1995

# netstat -m
1385 mbufs in use:
1385 mbufs in use:
96 mbuf cluster pages in use
2170 Kbytes allocated to mbufs
841 requests for mbufs denied
0 calls to protocol drain routines

Kernel malloc statistics:
By size in use calls failed free
32 30127870 2116400
64 41 3180 23 3200
128 11718140 43 1600
256 13863911620223840
512 11120 20 40 0
1024 77 0 2 20 0
2048 33 0 2 10 0
4096 97335617841111200
16384 11 0 12 24 7

# date
Mon Jun 12 20:20:04 CDT 1995

# netstat -m
1389 mbufs in use:
1389 mbufs in use:
97 mbuf cluster pages in use
2180 Kbytes allocated to mbufs
982 requests for mbufs denied
0 calls to protocol drain routines

Kernel malloc statistics:
By size in use calls failed free
32 30127870 2116400
64 41 3180 23 3200
128 11718140 43 1600
256 13863911620223840
512 11120 20 40 0
1024 77 0 2 20 0
2048 33 0 2 10 0
4096 97335617841111200
16384 11 0 12 24 7

An extract of the output for both times is shown in the preceding exhibits.
Using the `netstat` outputs, which of the following conclusions is most appropriate to draw?

A. The number of biod(s) should be increased.
B. The number of nfsd(s) should be increased.
C. The machine needs more physical memory.
D. The machine needs more memory allocated for mbufs.

6. There is a TCP/IP application that receives files from a remote machine. The application reads 32 kilobytes of data at a time to the socket, but has not issued a system call to set the window size. Which of the following procedures should be performed on the local machine to increase the throughput of the application?

A. Increase the size of the wall.
B. Increase the size of sb_max.
C. Increase the size of tcp_recvspace.
D. Increase the size of tcp_sendspace.

7. Which of the following tools should be used to determine network latency or delay?

A. `arp`
B. `netstat`
C. `ifconfig`
D. `traceroute`

8. When analyzing network I/O performance, which of the following commands should be run?

A. `vmstat`
B. `iostat`
C. `netstat -s`
D. `wlmstat`

9. Which `nfs` option will print a list of all configurable options and their current values?

A. `nfs -l`
B. `nfs -o`
C. `nfs -d`
D. `nfs -a`
5.9.1 Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.
1. C
2. A
3. D
4. A
5. D
6. C
7. D
8. C
9. D

5.10 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.
1. Capture data from a telnet session using the \texttt{tcpdump} command.
2. Capture data from a telnet session using the \texttt{iptrace} command.
3. Compare outputs from previously captured sessions.
4. Using the \texttt{no} command, check current values of kernel variables.
5. Check protocol statistics with the \texttt{netstat} command using the -p flag.
Performance management tools

In this chapter, the following topics are covered:

- The AIX scheduler
- The multiple run queue design of AIX Version 4.3.3
- The `schedtune` command
- The `nice` and `renice` commands
- Workload Manager introduction

The scope of this chapter concentrates on the thread scheduling and the possibilities to manipulate the process priorities with the `schedtune`, `nice`, and `renice` commands. The `ps`, `bindprocessor`, `emstat`, and `tprof` commands are also reviewed.
6.1 The AIX scheduler

The need for a scheduler for operating system efficiency is paramount. There are more threads and processes running than there are CPUs on any system. This is why the operating system is using the scheduler to decide which thread is allowed to use the CPU at any moment. The scheduler selects the thread to run from a list of waiting ready-to-run threads on the run queue. The number of waiting threads on the run queue is provided in the highlighted leftmost column in the following vmstat output:

```
# vmstat 2 5

kthr memory page faults cpu
----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
 r b avm fre re pi po fr sr cy in sy cs us sy id wa
0 0 16272 75548 0 0 0 0 0 0 102 21 10 1 0 99 0
2 1 16272 75547 0 0 0 0 0 0 407 1541 24 49 0 51 0
2 1 16272 75547 0 0 0 0 0 0 405 58 28 50 0 50 0
2 1 16272 75547 0 0 0 0 0 0 406 43 25 50 0 50 0
2 1 16272 75547 0 0 0 0 0 0 409 29 26 50 0 50 0
```

The threads in the run queue are sorted in priority order, and the thread that has the highest priority gets to use the CPU. For more information on the relationship between process and threads, see Chapter 2, “Performance tuning: Getting started” on page 7.

In AIX Version 4, the five possible values for the thread scheduling policy are as follows:

**SCHED_FIFO**

This is a non-preemptive scheduling scheme. After a thread with this policy is scheduled, it runs to completion unless it is blocked, it voluntarily yields control of the CPU, or a higher-priority thread becomes dispatchable. Only fixed-priority threads can have a SCHED_FIFO scheduling policy.

**SCHED_RR**

The thread has a fixed priority. When a SCHED_RR thread has control at the end of the time slice, it moves to the tail of the queue of dispatchable threads of its priority. Only fixed-priority threads can have a SCHED_RR scheduling policy.

**SCHED_OTHER**

This policy is defined by POSIX Standard 1003.4a as implementation-defined. In AIX Version 4, this policy is defined to be equivalent to SCHED_RR, except that it applies to threads with nonfixed priority. The recalculation of the running thread's priority at each clock interrupt means that a thread may lose control because its priority has risen above that of another dispatchable thread.
SCHED_FIFO

This policy is the same as for SCHED_OTHER, except that it allows a thread that has slept for only a short amount of time to be put at the head of its run queue when it is awakened. This policy is only available on AIX Version 4.3.3 or later.

SCHED_FIFO3

A thread whose scheduling policy is set to SCHED_FIFO3 is always put at the head of a run queue. To prevent a thread belonging to the SCHED_FIFO2 scheduling policy from being put ahead of SCHED_FIFO3, the run queue parameters are changed when a SCHED_FIFO3 thread is enqueued, so that no thread belonging to SCHED_FIFO2 will join the head of the run queue. This policy is only available on AIX Version 4.3.3 or later.

6.1.1 Priority calculation on AIX versions prior to 4.3.2

The priority values differ from AIX versions previous to 4.3.2 and AIX Version 4.3.2 and later. Generally speaking, the lower the value is, the higher is the priority, with 0 as the lowest value and the greatest priority. The other end is the value of 127, which is the worst priority a thread can get. This priority value is reserved for the wait process. While the thread is running (using the CPU), the priority is recalculated, the value goes up, and the priority goes down. The longer a thread has existed without using CPU, the lower the value gets and, accordingly, the higher the priority. At one point, a thread in the run queue will have a lower value (higher priority) than the current running thread, the thread running is released, and the thread from the run queue is given CPU time.

As shown in Figure 6-1 on page 208, the global run queue used by AIX versions prior to 4.3.2 is symbolized. Threads A and B are forced to release control of the CPUs as soon as higher priority threads become runnable. In this case, threads C, D, and E are all available. Thread C is chosen first because it has the highest priority. Threads D and E have equal priority and occupy adjacent positions in the queue. Thread D is selected because of its position.
Figure 6-1 is a simplification of the actual layout as shown in Figure 6-2 on page 209. All the dispatchable threads of a given priority occupy consecutive positions in the run queue. AIX Version 4 maintains 128 run queues. These run queues relate directly to the range of possible values (0 through 127) for the priority field for each thread. This method makes it easier for the scheduler to determine which thread is most favored to run. Without having to search a single large run queue, the scheduler consults a 128-bit mask where a bit is on to indicate the presence of a ready-to-run thread in the corresponding run queue.
A thread can be fixed priority or non-fixed priority. The priority value of a fixed-priority thread is constant, while the priority value of a non-fixed priority thread is the sum of the maximum priority level for user threads (a constant 40), the thread’s nice value (the default is 20 for foreground processes and 24 for background processes), and its CPU penalty.

One of the factors in priority calculation is the recent CPU usage value. One out of two calculations used in defining the recent CPU usage is:

$$\text{Recent CPU usage} = \text{Old recent CPU usage} + 1$$

This calculation is done 100 times a second (at every tick). The recent CPU usage value increases by 1 each time the thread is in control of the CPU at the end of a tick. The maximum value is 120. In other words, running threads have their recent CPU usage value recalculated (increased) 100 times a second until reaching the maximum limit of 120. This value is shown in the C column of the `ps` command output:

```
# ps -f
UID   PID  PPID  C   STIME   TTY   TIME   CMD
root 12948 12796   0 14:27:07 pts/1   0:00 ksh
root 13888 12948   111 10:08:34 pts/1  94:21 ./tctestprg
root 15432 12948    4 11:42:56 pts/1   0:00 ps -f
root 15752 12948   110 10:08:34 pts/1  94:21 ./tctestprg
```
Once every second, all threads, including those that are asleep, have their recent CPU usage value recalculated as follows:

Recent CPU usage = Old recent CPU usage x \((SCHED_D / 32)\)

The default value for \(SCHED_D\) is 16, which means that the old recent CPU usage value is divided by 2 \((16 / 32 = 0.5)\). This prevents the recent CPU usage values of all processes from being set at a stable 120.

With this value, recent CPU usage, the CPU penalty value can be calculated:

\[CPU\ \text{penalty} = \text{Recent CPU usage} \times \left(\frac{SCHED_R}{32}\right)\]

The default value for \(SCHED_R\) is 16. With the CPU penalty value defined, the priority, also calculated at every tick, can finally be calculated as follows:

\[\text{Priority value} = 40 + \text{nice value} + \text{CPU penalty}\]

In this calculation, the default nice value is 20 for foreground processes and 24 for background processes.

With these definitions, you can see that three values can be manipulated for tuning performance: the nice value, \(SCHED_R\) (also called the weighting factor), and the \(SCHED_D\) (also called the decay factor).

### 6.1.2 Priority calculation on AIX Version 4.3.2 and later

AIX Version 4.3.2 and later added a couple of new definitions to be considered. First is the NICE factor, which is not the nice value manipulated with the \texttt{nice} command, but the sum of the maximum priority level for user threads and the value manipulated by the \texttt{nice} command.

Secondly, the DEFAULT_NICE factor is added to the algorithm. This factor is equal to the maximum priority level for a user, also named the base value (40), plus the default nice value for a foreground process (20). In other words, the sum is 60 for a foreground process (\(\text{DEFAULT}_\text{NICE} - \text{NICE} = 60\)).

The following calculation is used for calculating the priority:

\[
\text{Priority} = \frac{\text{Recent CPU usage} \times \text{SCHED}_R \times (x_{\text{nice}} + 4)}{32 \times (\text{DEFAULT}_\text{NICE} + 4)} + x_{\text{nice}}
\]

Where \(\text{DEFAULT}_\text{NICE} = 40 + 20\) (base value plus default nice). The calculation for the \(x_{\text{nice}}\) value is as follows:

\[x_{\text{nice}} = \begin{cases} 2 \times \text{nice} - 60 & \text{if } \text{NICE} > \text{DEFAULT}_\text{NICE} \\ \text{NICE} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}\]
This means that if nice is smaller or equal to DEFAULT_NICE, then:

\[ x\text{nice} = \text{NICE} \]

But if NICE is greater than DEFAULT_NICE (in other words, if you have manipulated the thread with the \texttt{nice} command to lessen its priority), then:

\[ x\text{nice} = (2 \times \text{NICE}) - 60 \]

The nice value has a much greater impact on the priority of a thread. It is now included in the calculation as a multiple of the recent CPU usage, in addition to its use as a constant factor. To get greater granularity in the run queue(s), the DEFAULT_NICE is set to 60. Some artificial values will help show the calculation.

Recent CPU usage = 64  
SCHED_R = 16  
NICE = 64

Starting with the XNICE calculation:

\[ x\text{nice} = (\text{NICE} > \text{DEFAULT_NICE}) \ ? (2 \times \text{NICE}) - 60 : \text{nice} \]

Because NICE is greater then DEFAULT_NICE, then:

\[ x\text{nice} = (2 \times 64) - 60 = 68 \]

By entering the values given and the XNICE value in the calculation:

\[ \text{Priority} = (\text{Recent CPU usage} \times \text{SCHED_R} \times (x\text{nice} + 4)) / (32 \times (\text{DEFAULT_NICE} + 4)) + x\text{nice} \]

The calculation will look as follows:

\[ P = (64 \times 16 \times (68 + 4)) / (32 \times 64) + x\text{nice} \]
\[ P = (73728 / 2048) + 64 \]
\[ P = 100 \]

You still have three values to manipulate: The nice value (as in the example), SCHED_R, and SCHED_D (for recent CPU usage). In the following sections, the multiple run queue layout and the commands that are used to change these values are discussed.

### 6.2 Multiple run queues with load balancing

The run queue is the same global queue on AIX Version 4.3.2 as on AIX Version 4.3.1, but on AIX Version 4.3.3 and later, the run queue layout has changed. AIX now offers improved cache affinity through the use of multiple run queues. The new kernel scheduler implements a single global run queue along with a set of local run queues, where each processor has a dedicated local run queue.
Once a thread is placed on a local run queue, it generally stays there until an imbalance is detected. Thresholds are used to limit the amount of load balancing that takes place.

A diagram of the relationship of the local and global run queues is provided in Figure 6-3.

![Figure 6-3 Run queue on AIX Version 4.3.3 and later](image)

The per-node local run queue competes with the local run queues of the node for CPUs to service its threads. The priority of the highest thread on a run queue (both local and global run queues) is maintained in the run queue. The dispatcher uses this data without holding the run queue locks to make a low overhead decision of which run queue to search. This mechanism allows the priorities of the two run queues to be honored most of the time. When both run queues have threads waiting at the same priority, the local run queue is chosen.

Usually, when initiated, threads get on the global run queue by means of the load balancing mechanism implemented. Once a CPU dispatches a thread from the global run queue, it does not generally return to the global run queue, but rather to the queue served by the CPU dispatching it.
The load balancing is handled by a number of algorithms designed to keep the various run queues of a system approximately equally utilized. There are four balancing algorithms, which are discussed in the following sections.

6.2.1 Initial load balancing

Initial load balancing applies to newly created threads. When an unbound new thread is created as part of a new process (as well as a new thread for an existing process), it is placed on an idle CPU (if one exists). If an idle CPU cannot be found, the thread will be placed in the global queue.

6.2.2 Idle load balancing

Idle load balancing applies when a process would otherwise go idle, running the waitproc thread (for example, PID 516). When the dispatcher reaches this point in its logic, it does not just scan other run queues in an attempt to find work at any cost. It is actually beneficial to allow what appears to be unnecessary idle cycles rather than moving a thread and losing cache affinity. The steps taken by the idle load balancing method are:

- Before dispatching the waitproc, search other queues for available work. This is a stronger statement than work being on another queue. The search routine will look for a queue that:
  - Contains the largest number of runnable threads.
  - Contains more runnable threads than the current steal threshold.
  - Contains at least one stealable (unbound) thread.
  - Has not had steal_max threads already stolen from it over the current clock tick interval.

  The search is done without holding those run queues’ locks.

- To actually steal a thread, the chosen run queue’s lock must be obtained. This is done by a special call written to avoid interfering with another instance of the dispatcher. If no lock can be obtained, run the waitproc.

- After getting the lock, check that a stealable thread is still available. If there is no stealable thread, the waitproc is run.

- Change the threads’ run queue assignment and pointer.

6.2.3 Frequent periodic load balancing

This is performed every N clock ticks (at time of publication, 10). It attempts to balance the loads on the local queues of a node in much the same way that idle load balancing does. The idea is to move a thread from the most loaded to the
least loaded run queue, but if the least loaded run queue has stolen a thread through idle load balancing in the last interval, nothing is done. The difference in load factors between the two run queues chosen for frequent periodic load balancing must be at least 1.5. Idle load balancing is less expensive, so the ideal situation is if frequent periodic load balancing does not have to interfere.

6.2.4 Infrequent periodic load balancing
If a thread has not received CPU time in the last N.5 (at time of publication 1.5) seconds, the thread is moved to the global run queue.

6.3 Scheduler performance management
AIX offers several ways to modify the default behavior of the scheduling system for threads and processes. This section describes the `schedtune`, `nice`, and `renice` commands.

6.3.1 The schedtune command
The `schedtune` command allows you to specify the SCHED_R with the `-r` flag and the SCHED_D with the `-d` flag. When executing the `schedtune` command without flags, the current values will be shown:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/schedtune

THRESH       SUSP       FORK       SCHED
-h    -p    -m      -w    -e      -f     -d     -r     -t     -s
SYS  PROC  MULTI   WAIT  GRACE   TICKS  SCHED_D  SCHED_R  TIMESLICE  MAXSPIN
0   4     2        1      2      10      16     16      1       16384

   1       1       1 10  13    10

   %usDELTA
100
```

Tuning is accomplished through two flags of the `schedtune` command: `-r` and `-d`. Each flag specifies a parameter that is an integer from 0 to 32. The parameters are applied by multiplying the recent CPU usage value by the parameter value and then dividing by 32. The default SCHED_R and SCHED_D values are 16, as seen in the previous output. The following sections discuss different uses of the `schedtune` command.
**Schedtune example one**
The following command will result in $SCHED_R = 0$ and $SCHED_D = 0.5$:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/schedtune -r 0
```

This would mean that the CPU penalty was always 0, making priority absolute. No background process would get any CPU time unless there were no dispatchable foreground processes at all, as background processes in ksh are started with adding 4 to the nice value of the parent shell. The priority values of the threads would effectively be constant, although they would not technically be fixed-priority threads.

**Schedtune example two**
The following command would result in an effective $SCHED_R = 1$ and $SCHED_D = 1$:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/schedtune -r 32 -d 32
```

This would mean that long-running threads would reach a C value of 120 and remain there, contending on the basis of their nice values. New threads would have priority, regardless of their nice value, until they had accumulated enough time slices to bring them within the priority value range of the existing threads.

**Schedtune example three**
The most likely reason to manipulate the values would be to make sure that background processes do not compete with foreground processes. By making $SCHED_R$ smaller, you can restrict the range of possible priority values. For example:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/schedtune -r 5
```

($SCHED_R = 0.15625$, $SCHED_D = 0.5$) would mean that a foreground process would never have to compete with a background process started with the command `nice -n 20`. The limit of 120 CPU time slices accumulated would mean that the maximum CPU penalty for the foreground process would be 18. In Figure 6-4 on page 216, this relationship is graphically shown. Because the CPU penalty will get a maximum value of 18, the foreground process with a nice value of 20 will always, when it needs, get CPU. On the other hand, the background process, with a nice value of 40, will use CPU only when the foreground process does not need the CPU.
SCHED_R and SCHED_D guidelines

The following discusses guidelines for tuning performance using SCHED_R and SCHED_D.

- Smaller values of SCHED_R narrow the priority range and the nice value has more of an impact on the priority.
- Larger values of SCHED_R widen the priority range and the nice value has less of an impact on the priority.
- Smaller values of SCHED_D decay CPU usage at a faster rate and can cause CPU-intensive threads to be scheduled sooner.
- Larger values of SCHED_D decay CPU usage at a slower rate and penalize CPU-intensive threads more (thus favoring interactive-type threads).

If you conclude that one or both parameters need to be modified to accommodate your workload, you can enter the `schedtune` command while logged on as root user. The changed values will persist until the next `schedtune` command that modifies them, or until the next system boot. Values can be reset...
to their defaults with the command `schedtune -D`, but remember that all `schedtune` parameters are reset by that command, including VMM memory load control parameters. To make a change to the parameters that will persist across boots, add an appropriate line at the end of the `/etc/inittab` file (or in the AIX 5L Version 5.2 `/etc/tunables` file.

**VMM memory load control using schedtune**

The VMM memory load control facility protects an overloaded system from thrashing. For early versions of the operating system, if a large number of processes hit the system at the same time, memory became overcommitted and thrashing occurred, causing performance to degrade rapidly. A memory-load control mechanism was developed that could detect thrashing. Certain parameters affect the function of the load-control mechanism.

With the `schedtune` command, the root user can affect the criteria used to determine thrashing, the criteria used to determine which processes to suspend, the length of time to wait after thrashing ends before reactivating processes, the minimum number of processes exempt from suspension, or reset values to the defaults.

**Scheduler tuning using schedtune**

With the `schedtune` command you can change scheduler parameters at runtime, and these changes will be cleared at the next reboot. If you find useful settings for the system, then run `schedtune` in `rc.local`. The average time slice of the scheduler can be changed with the `-tN` parameter. The system uses 1 for N as the default. Setting N to any other value will change the maximum number of clock ticks between dispatches of processes. Usually the scheduler dispatches processes once per clock interrupt (roughly every 10 ms), so the maximum time a process can be active before the dispatcher tries to dispatch another one is 10 ms.

Other `schedtune` parameters enable you to set the delay before retrying a failed fork function, to set the delay after thrashing before a process gets into the run queue again, and to set how long a process has to be able to run before being suspended.
The `schedtune` command provides a description of the flags and options. The source and object code of the `schedtune` command are in `/usr/samples/kernel`.

### The schedtune command summary

The `schedtune` command is used to manipulate the scheduler and the swapper. There are some major differences between the commands in AIX Version 4.3.2 and AIX Version 4.3.3.

The syntax of the `schedtune` command is:

```bash
cschedtune [ -D | { [ -d n ] [ -e n ] [ -f n ] [ -h n ] [ -m n ] [ -p n ]
[ -r n ] [ -t n ] [ -w n ] } ]
```

Table 6-1 gives some useful `schedtune` flags from a CPU-tuning perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-r</td>
<td>Manipulates the SCHED_R weighting factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-d</td>
<td>Manipulates the SCHED_D decay factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-D</td>
<td>Resets all <code>schedtune</code> values to default values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3.2 The nice and renice commands

The nice value has been explained in “The nice and renice commands” on page 15. The nice value can be seen with the `ps` command in the NI column:

```bash
$ ps -lu thomasc
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PID</th>
<th>ADDR</th>
<th>TTY</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>CMD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5204</td>
<td>a655</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>ps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15476</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ksh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12948</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>0:00</td>
<td>tctest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15476</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>0:25</td>
<td>tctest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15476</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>pts/1</td>
<td>0:18</td>
<td>tctest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two programs have been started in the background, as shown by the nice value of 24, while the \texttt{ps} command running in the foreground has a nice value of 20. All outputs from the \texttt{ps} command have been edited in this to fit the screen.

**Running a command with nice**

Any user can run a command to set a less-favorable-than-normal priority by using the \texttt{nice} command. Only the root user can use the \texttt{nice} command to run commands at a more-favorable-than-normal priority. From the root user, the \texttt{nice} command values range between -20 and 19.

With the \texttt{nice} command, the user specifies a value to be added to or subtracted from the default nice value. The modified nice value is used for the process that runs the specified command. The priority of the process is still non-fixed; that is, the priority value is still recalculated periodically based on the CPU usage, nice value, and minimum user-process-priority value.

The user thomasc, not being the root user, has the range of nice values between 1 and 19 available. When applying a nice value to a background command, note that the maximum NI value is 39 even though the calculated value would be 43 (34 + 9), as shown in the following example:

```bash
# id
uid=15610(thomasc) gid=0(system)
# nice -19 ./tprof/tctestprg &
# ps -al|head -1 ; ps -al |grep tctestprg
```

```
F S   UID   PID  PPID   C PRI NI ADDR    SZ TTY   TIME CMD
200001 A 15610 14740 15490  90 126 39 5888    44 pts/3  0:58 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 15818     1  92 118 24 408b    44 pts/1 51:02 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 16792     1  89 118 24 e89e    44 pts/1 50:55 tctestprg
```

The root user has the possibility to lessen the nice value. Notice the syntax; the first dash (-) is only an option marker, and the other dash tells the \texttt{nice} command to subtract 15 from the default value of 24 (the process is started in the background). For example:

```bash
# nice --15 ./tprof/tctestprg &
# ps -al|head -1 ; ps -al |grep tctestprg
```

```
F S   UID   PID  PPID   C PRI NI ADDR    SZ TTY TIME CMD
200001 A 15610 14740 15490  91 126 39 5888    44 pts/3  4:37 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 15818     1  92 119 24 408b    44 pts/1 54:41 tctestprg
200001 A 0   16304 12948  85 84 9 c0bb    44 pts/1  0:03 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 16792     1  92 59 -- e89e    44 pts/1  54:34 tctestprg
```

Another way to use the \texttt{nice} command to get the same result as in the previous example, is with the -n flag, as follows:

```bash
# nice -n -15 ./tprof/tctestprg &
```
It is actually only in this case, where root lessens the nice value, that a significant change is seen in the priority value. In the preceding output, the values nice=39 and nice=24 generate similar priority values (PRI column), but process 16304, started by root with nice=9, has a significant advantage with a priority value of 84.

The output also shows the scenario when a process is executed with a fixed priority (PID 16792). In the PRI column, the set priority is shown to be - 59, and the NI column shows no value. This can be done with the setpri subroutine. The setpri subroutine sets the scheduling priority of all threads in a process to be a constant.

Changing the nice value on a running thread

The renice command, which has a similar syntax as the nice command, allows you to modify the nice value on a running process. The example from the previous section is used. For example, subtract 5 from the actual value of 9. On the tctestprg, root is running:

```
# renice -n -5 16304
# ps -al | head -1 ; ps -al | grep tctestprg
```

```
F S   UID   PID  PPID   C PRI NI ADDR    SZ TTY  TIME CMD
200001 A 15610 14740 15490  94 126 39 5888    44 pts/3 17:13 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 15818     1  94 120 24 408b    44 pts/1 67:17 tctestprg
200001 A 0 16304 12948  86  76  4  c0bb    44 pts/1 12:37 tctestprg
240001 A 15610 16792  1  94 120 24  e89e    44 pts/1 67:10 tctestprg
```

The PID is used to identify which program (or more correctly which thread) is to be manipulated.

The nice and renice commands summary

The nice and renice commands are used to manipulate the nice value for the threads of a process.

The syntax of the nice command is:

```
nice [ -n Increment ] Command [ Argument ... ]
```

Some commonly used nice flags are listed in Table 6-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-increment</td>
<td>Increments a command's priority up or down, by specifying a positive or negative number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-nincrement</td>
<td>Same as previous flag</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The syntax of the `renice` command is:

```
renice [ -n Increment ] [ -g | -p | -u ] ID 
```

Some commonly used `renice` flags are listed in Table 6-2 on page 220.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-n increment</code></td>
<td>Specifies the number to add to the nice value of the process. The value of <code>increment</code> can only be a decimal integer from -20 to 20.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-u username numeric ID</code></td>
<td>Changes nice values for user.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Important:** Do not manipulate the scheduler without a thorough understanding of the mechanisms controlling the scheduler.

### 6.4 The `bindprocessor` command

The `bindprocessor` command binds or unbinds the kernel threads of a process or it lists available processors. To bind or unbind threads, it requires two parameters, as follows:

```
bindprocessor Process ProcessorNum
```

The process parameter is the process identifier of the process whose threads are to be bound or unbound, and the ProcessorNum parameter is the logical processor number of the processor to be used. If the ProcessorNum parameter is omitted, the process is bound to a randomly selected processor.

A process itself is not bound, but rather its kernel threads are bound. Once kernel threads are bound, they are always scheduled to run on the chosen processor, unless they are later unbound. When a new thread is created, it has the same bind properties as its creator. This applies to the initial thread in the new process created by the fork subroutine: The new thread inherits the bind properties of the thread that called the fork. When the exec subroutine is called, thread properties are left unchanged.
To check what processors are available, enter the following command:

```
# bindprocessor -q
```

The available processors are: 0 1 2 3

To bind process 16792 to processor 2, enter the following command:

```
# bindprocessor 16792 2
```

To check which process threads are bound to which processor, check the BND column in the `ps` command output:

```
# ps -mo THREAD
USER   PID  PPID     TID ST   CP  PRI SC  F        TT  BND  COMMAND
root 12948 12796      - A    0   60  1 240001 pts/1  -  ksh
-   -    7283 S 0 60 1 400   -   -
root 13704 12948      - A   3  61  1 200001 pts/1 - ps -mo THREAD
-   -    19391 R 3 61 1 0   -   -
thomasc 15818    1 - A   79 112 0 240001 pts/1  -  ./tprof/tctestprg
-   -    16077 R 79 112 0 0  -   -
root 16304 12948      - A   77 72 0 200001 pts/1 - ./tprof/tctestprg
-   -    17843 R 77 72 0 0  -   -
thomasc 16792    1 - A   79 112 0 24001 pts/1  2  ./tprof/tctestprg
-   -    16357 R 79 112 0 0  -  2
```

### 6.5 The vmtune Command

The `vmtune` command changes operational parameters of the Virtual Memory Manager (VMM) and other AIX components. The command and source for `vmtune` are found in the `/usr/samples/kernel` directory. It is installed with the `bos.adt.samples` fileset.

The `vmtune` command syntax is as follows:

```
vmtune [-b numfsbuf] [-B numbuf] [-c numclust] [-f minfree]
        [-p minperm] [-P maxperm] [-r minpgahead] [-R maxpgahead]
        [-u lvm_budcnt] [-w npswarn] [-W maxrandwrt]
```

An example of the `vmtune` command without any flags is shown in the following:

```
# /usr/samples/kernel/vmtune
vmtune: current values:
minperm  maxperm  minpgahead maxpgahead  minfree  maxfree  pd_npages maxrandwrt
26007    104028    2     8      120      128      524288     0
```

```
-M -w -k -c -b -B -u -l -d
```
The Virtual Memory Manager (VMM) maintains a list of free real-memory page frames. These page frames are available to hold virtual-memory pages needed to satisfy a page fault. When the number of pages on the free list falls below that specified by the minfree parameter, the VMM begins to steal pages to add to the free list. The VMM continues to steal pages until the free list has at least the number of pages specified by the maxfree parameter.

If the number of file pages (permanent pages) in memory is less than the number specified by the minperm parameter, the VMM steals frames from either computational or file pages, regardless of re-page rates. If the number of file pages is greater than the number specified by the maxperm parameter, the VMM steals frames only from file pages. Between the two, the VMM normally steals only file pages, but if the repage rate for file pages is higher than the repage rate for computational pages, computational pages are stolen as well.

If a process appears to be reading sequentially from a file, the values specified by the minpgahead parameter determine the number of pages to be read ahead when the condition is first detected. The value specified by the maxpgahead parameter sets the maximum number of pages that will be read ahead, regardless of the number of preceding sequential reads.

The vmtune command can only be executed by root. Changes made by the vmtune command last until the next reboot of the system. If a permanent change in VMM parameters is needed, an appropriate vmtune command should be put in /etc/inittab.

Table 6-4 on page 224 lists the flags and some of the limitations for the settings.
### Table 6-4  Commonly used flags of the vmtune command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-b numfsbuf</td>
<td>Specifies the number of file system bufstructs. The current default in AIX Version 4 is 93 because it is dependent on the size of the bufstruct. This value must be greater than 0. Increasing this value will help write performance for very large write sizes (on devices that support very fast writes). In order to enable this value, you must unmount the file system, change the value, and then mount the system again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-B numpbuf</td>
<td>Controls the number of pbufs available to the LVM device driver. pbufs are pinned memory buffers used to hold I/O requests related to a journaled file system (JFS). On systems where large amounts of sequential I/O occurs, this can result in I/O bottlenecks at the LVM layer waiting for pbufs to be freed. In AIX Version 4, a single pbuf is used for each sequential I/O request regardless of the number of pages in that I/O. The maximum value is 128.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c numclust</td>
<td>Specifies the number of 16 KB clusters processed by write behind. The default value is 1. Values can be any integer above 0. Higher number of clusters may result in larger sequential write performance on devices that support very fast writes (RAID and so on). Setting the value to a very high number, such as 500000, will essentially defeat the write-behind algorithm. This can be beneficial in cases such as database index creations, where pages that were written to are read a short while later; write-behind could actually cause this process to take longer. One suggestion is to turn off write-behind before building indexes and then turn it back on after indexes have been built. For example, the <code>mkpasswd</code> command can run significantly faster when write-behind is disabled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-f minfree</td>
<td>Specifies the minimum number of frames on the free list. This number can range from 8 to 204800. The default value depends on the amount of RAM on the system. minfree is by default the value of maxfree. 8. The value of maxfree is equal to minimum (the number of memory pages divided by 128). The delta between minfree and maxfree should always be equal to or greater than maxpgahead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-F maxfree</td>
<td>Specifies the number of frames on the free list at which page stealing is to stop. This number can range from 16 to 204800, but must be greater than the number specified by the minfree parameter by at least the value of maxpgahead.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Chapter 6. Performance management tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| `-k npskill` | Specifies the number of free paging-space pages at which AIX begins killing processes. The formula to determine the default value of npskill in AIX Version 4 is:  
\[
\text{MAX}(64, \text{number_of_paging_space_pages}/128)
\]
The npskill value must be greater than 0 and less than the total number of paging space pages on the system. The default value is 128. |
| `-l lrubucket` | This parameter specifies the size (in 4 KB pages) of the least recently used (LRU) page replacement bucket size. This is the number of page frames that will be examined at one time for possible page outs when a free frame is needed. A lower number will result in lower latency when looking for a free frame but will also result in behavior that is not as similar to a true LRU algorithm. The default value is 512 MB and the minimum is 256 MB. Tuning this option is not recommended. |
| `-M maxpin` | Specifies the maximum percentage of real memory that can be pinned. The default value is 80 percent. If this value is changed, the new value should ensure that at least 4 MB of real memory will be left unpinned for use by the kernel. maxpin values must be greater than 1 and less than 100. The value under maxpin is converted to a percentage at the end of the output of `vmtune`. |
| `-N pd_npages` | Specifies the number of pages that should be deleted in one chunk from RAM when a file is deleted. Changing this value may only be beneficial to real-time applications that delete files. By reducing the value of `pd_npages`, a real-time application can get better response time since a fewer number of pages will be deleted before a process or thread is dispatched. The default value is the largest possible file size divided by the page size (currently 4096); if the largest possible file size is 2 GB, then `pd_npages` is, by default, 524288. |
| `-p minperm` | Specifies the point below which file pages are protected from the repage algorithm. This value is a percentage of the total real-memory page frames in the system. The specified value must be greater than or equal to 5. The default value of the minperm percentage is always around 17–19 percent of memory. |
-P maxperm

Specifies the point above which the page stealing algorithm steals only file pages. This value is expressed as a percentage of the total real-memory page frames in the system. The specified value must be greater than or equal to 5.

The default value of the maxperm percentage is always around 75–80 percent of memory. A pure Network File System (NFS) server may obtain better performance by increasing the maxperm value. A system that accesses large files (over 50–75 percent of the amount of RAM on the system; look at numperm to see how much memory is currently used for file mapping) may benefit by increasing the maxperm value. maxperm can be reduced on systems with large active working storage requirements (the AVM column from `vmstat` compared to total real page frames) to reduce or eliminate page space I/O.

-r minpgahead

Specifies the number of pages with which sequential read-ahead starts. This value can range from 0 to 4096. It should be a power of 2. The default value is 2.

-R maxpgahead

Specifies the maximum number of pages to be read ahead. This value can range from 0 to 4096. It should be a power of 2 and should be greater than or equal to minpgahead. The default value is 8.

Increasing this number will help large sequential read performance. Because of other limitations in the kernel and the Logical Volume Manager (LVM), the maximum value should not be greater than 128.

The delta between minfree and maxfree should always be equal to or greater than maxpgahead.

-u lvm_bufcnt

Specifies the number of LVM buffers for raw physical I/Os. The default value is 9. The possible values can range between 1 and 64. It may be beneficial to increase this value if you are doing large raw I/Os (that is, not going through the JFS).

-w npswarn

Specifies the number of free paging-space pages at which AIX begins sending the SIGDANGER signal to processes. The formula to determine the default value is:

\[ \text{MAX}(512, 4 \times \text{npskill}) \]

The value of npswarn must be greater than 0 and less than the total number of paging space pages on the system. The default value is 512.
6.6 Workload Manager (WLM)

WLM is designed to give system administrators more control over how the scheduler and the virtual memory manager (VMM) allocate resources to processes. This can be used to prevent different classes of jobs from interfering with each other and to allocate resources based on the requirements of different groups of users.

With WLM, you can create different classes of service for jobs, as well as specify attributes for those classes. These attributes specify minimum and maximum amounts of CPU, physical memory, and disk I/O throughput to be allocated to a class. WLM then assigns jobs automatically to classes using class assignment rules provided by a system administrator. These assignment rules are based on the values of a set of attributes for a process. Either the system administrator or a privileged user can also manually assign jobs to classes, overriding the automatic assignment.

The system administrator can specify the properties for the WLM subsystem by using either the Web-based System Manager graphical user interface, SMIT ASCII-oriented interface, the WLM command line interface, or by creating flat ASCII files. The Web-based System Manager and SMIT interfaces use the WLM commands to record the information in the same flat ASCII files. These files are named as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-W maxrandwrt</td>
<td>Specifies a threshold (in 4 KB pages) for random writes to accumulate in RAM before these pages are syncd to disk using a write-behind algorithm. This threshold is on a per file basis. The -W maxrandwrt option is only available in AIX Version 4.1.3 and later. The default value of maxrandwrt is 0, which disables random write-behind. By enabling random write-behind (a typical value might be 128), applications that make heavy use of random writes can get better performance due to less dependence on the sync daemon to force writes out to disk. Some applications may degrade their performance due to write-behind (such as database index creations). In these cases, it may be beneficial to disable write-behind before creating database indexes and then re-enabling write-behind after the indexes are created.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6 Workload Manager (WLM)
class assignment rules

These files are called the WLM property files. A set of WLM property files defines a WLM configuration. You can create multiple sets of property files, defining different configurations of workload management. These configurations are located in subdirectories of /etc/wlm. The WLM property files describing the superclasses of the Config configuration are the file's classes, description, limits, shares, and rules in /etc/wlm/Config. Then, the property files describing the subclasses of the superclass super of this configuration are the file's classes, limits, shares and rules in directory /etc/wlm/Config/Super. Only the root user can start or stop WLM, or switch from one configuration to another.

The command to submit the WLM property files, wlmctrl, and the other WLM commands allow users to specify an alternate directory name for the WLM properties files. This allows you to change the WLM properties without altering the default WLM property files.

A symbolic link, /etc/wlm/current, points to the directory containing the current configuration files. Update this link with the wlmctrl1 command when you start WLM with a specified set of configuration files. The sample configuration files shipped with the operating system are in /etc/wlm/standard.

WLM configuration is performed through the preferred interface, the Web-based System Manager (Figure 6-5 on page 229), through a text editor and AIX commands, or through the AIX administration tool SMIT.
6.6.1 WLM concepts and architecture

The following section outlines the concepts provided with WLM on AIX 5L.

Classes
The central concept of WLM is the class. A class is a collection of processes (jobs) that has a single set of resource limits applied to it. WLM assigns processes to the various classes and controls the allocation of system resources among the different classes. For this purpose, WLM uses class assignment rules and per-class resource shares and limits set by the system administrator. The resource entitlements and limits are enforced at the class level. This is a way of defining classes of service and regulates the resource utilization of each class of applications to prevent applications with very different resource utilization patterns from interfering with each other when they are sharing a single server.

Hierarchy of classes
WLM allows system administrators to set up a hierarchy of classes with two levels by defining superclasses and subclasses. In other words, a class can
either be a superclass or a subclass. The main difference between superclasses and subclasses is the resource control (shares and limits):

- At the superclass level, the determination of resource entitlement (based on the resource shares and limits) is based on the total amount of each resource managed by WLM available on the machine.
- At the subclass level, the resource shares and limits are based on the amount of each resource allocated to the parent superclass.

The system administrator (the root user) can delegate the administration of the subclasses of each superclass to a superclass administrator (a non-root user), thus allocating a portion of the system resources to each superclass and then letting superclass administrators distribute the allocated resources among the users and applications they manage.

WLM supports 32 superclasses (27 user defined plus five predefined). In turn, each superclass can have 12 subclasses (10 user defined and two predefined, as shown in Figure 6-6). Depending on the needs of the organization, a system administrator can decide to use only superclasses or both superclasses and subclasses. An administrator can also use subclasses only for some of the superclasses.

Each class is given a name by the WLM administrator who creates it. A class name can be up to 16 characters long and can only contain uppercase and lowercase letters, numbers, and underscores (_). For a given WLM configuration, the names of all the superclasses must be different from one another, and the names of the subclasses of a given superclass must be different from one another. Subclasses of different superclasses can have the same name. The fully qualified name of a subclass is superclass_name.subclass_name.

In the remainder of this section, whenever the term class is used, it is applicable to both subclasses and superclasses. The following subsections describe both super- and subclasses in greater detail, as well as the backward compatibility WLM provides to configurations of its first release.

![Figure 6-6  Hierarchy of classes](image-url)
**Superclasses**

A superclass is a class with subclasses associated with it. No process can belong to the superclass without also belonging to a subclass, either predefined or user defined. A superclass has a set of class assignment rules that determines which processes will be assigned to it. A superclass also has a set of resource limitation values and resource target shares that determine the amount of resources that can be used by processes belonging to it. These resources will be divided among the subclasses based on the resource limitation values and resource target shares of the subclasses.

Up to 27 superclasses can be defined by the system administrator. In addition, five superclasses are automatically created to deal with processes, memory, and CPU allocation, as follows:

- **Default superclass**: The default superclass is named `default` and is always defined. All non-root processes that are not automatically assigned to a specific superclass will be assigned to the default superclass. Other processes can also be assigned to the default superclass by providing specific assignment rules.

- **System superclass**: This superclass has all privileged (root) processes assigned to it if they are not assigned by rules to a specific class, plus the pages belonging to all system memory segments, kernel processes, and kernel threads. Other processes can also be assigned to the system superclass. This default is for this superclass to have a memory minimum limit of one percent.

- **Shared superclass**: This superclass receives all the memory pages that are shared by processes in more than one superclass. This includes pages in shared memory regions and pages in files that are used by processes in more than one superclass (or in subclasses of different superclasses). Shared memory and files used by multiple processes that belong to a single superclass (or subclasses of the same superclass) are associated with that superclass. The pages are placed in the shared superclass only when a process from a different superclass accesses the shared memory region or file. This superclass can have only physical memory shares and limits applied to it. It cannot have shares or limits for the other resource types, subclasses, or assignment rules specified. Whether a memory segment shared by the processes in the different superclasses is classified into the shared superclass, or remains in the superclass it was initially classified into depends on the value of the localshm attribute of the superclass the segment was initially classified into.
Superclass: The processes in existence at the time WLM is started are classified according to the assignment rules of the WLM configuration being loaded. During this initial classification, all the memory pages attached to each process are charged either to the superclass the process belongs to (when not shared, or shared by processes in the same superclass) or to the shared superclass, when shared by processes in different superclasses. However, there are a few pages that cannot be directly tied to any processes (and thus to any class) at the time of this classification, and this memory is charged to the unclassified superclass; for example, pages from a file that has been closed. The file pages will remain in memory, but no process owns these pages; therefore, they cannot be charged to a specific class. Most of this memory will end up being correctly reclassified over time, when it is either accessed by a process, or freed and reallocated to a process after WLM is started. There are a few kernel processes, such as wait or lrud, in the unclassified superclass. Even though this superclass can have physical memory shares and limits applied to it, WLM commands do not allow you to set shares and limits or specify subclasses or assignment rules on this superclass.

Unmanaged superclass: A special superclass named unmanaged will always be defined. No processes will be assigned to this class. This class will be used to accumulate the memory usage for all pinned pages in the system that are not managed by WLM. The CPU utilization for the waitprocs is not accumulated in any class. This is deliberate; otherwise, the system would always seem to be at 100 percent CPU utilization, which could be misleading for users when looking at the WLM or system statistics. This superclass can not have shares or limits for any other resource types, subclasses, or assignment rules specified.

Subclasses
A subclass is a class associated with exactly one superclass. Every process in the subclass is also a member of the superclass. Subclasses only have access to resources that are available to the superclass. A subclass has a set of class assignment rules that determine which of the processes assigned to the superclass will belong to it. A subclass also has a set of resource limitation values and resource target shares that determine the resources that can be used by processes in the subclass. These resource limitation values and resource target shares indicate how much of the superclass's target (the resources available to the superclass) can be used by processes in the subclass.
Up to 10 out of a total of 12 subclasses can be defined by the system administrator or by the superclass administrator for each superclass. In addition, two special subclasses, default and shared, are always defined in each superclass as follows:

- **Default** subclass: The default subclass is named `default` and is always defined. All processes that are not automatically assigned to a specific subclass of the superclass will be assigned to the default subclass. You can also assign other processes to the default subclass by providing specific assignment rules.

- **Shared** subclass: This subclass receives all the memory pages used by processes in more than one subclass of the superclass. This includes pages in shared memory regions and pages in files that are used by processes in more than one subclass of the same superclass. Shared memory and files used by multiple processes that belong to a single subclass are associated with that subclass. The pages are placed in the shared subclass of the superclass only when a process from a different subclass of the same superclass accesses the shared memory region or file. There are no processes in the shared subclass. This subclass can only have physical memory shares and limits applied to it. It cannot have shares or limits for the other resource types or assignment rules specified.

### Tiers

Tier configuration is based on the importance of a class relative to other classes in WLM. There are 10 available tiers from 0 through to 9. Tier value 0 is the most important and value 9 is the least important. As a result, classes belonging to tier 0 will get resource allocation priority over classes in tier 1, classes in tier 1 will have priority over classes in tier 2, and so on. The default tier number, if the attribute is not specified, is 0.

The tier applies at both the superclass and subclass levels. Superclass tiers are used to specify resource allocation priority between superclasses, and subclass tiers are used to specify resource allocation priority between subclasses of the same superclass. There is no relationship between tier numbers of subclasses of different superclasses.

Tier separation, in terms of prioritization, is much more enforced in AIX 5L than in the previous release. A process in tier 1 will never have priority over a process in tier 0, since there is no overlapping of priorities in tiers. It is unlikely that classes in tier 1 will acquire any resources if the processes in tier 0 are consuming all the resources. This occurs because the control of leftover resources is much more restricted than in the AIX Version 4.3.3 release of WLM, as shown in Figure 6-7 on page 234.
Class attributes

In order to create a class, there are different attributes that are needed to have an accurate and well-organized group of classes. Figure 6-8 shows the SMIT panel for class attributes.

![Diagram of class attributes](image)

**General characteristics of a class**

Type or select values in entry fields.
Press Enter AFTER making all desired changes.

- **Class name**
- Description
- Tier
- Resource Set
- Inheritance
- User authorized to assign its processes to this class
- Group authorized to assign its processes to this class
- User authorized to administrate this class (Superclass only)
- Group authorized to administrate this class (Superclass only)

Figure 6-8 SMIT with the class creation attributes screen
The sequence of attributes within a class (as shown in Figure 6-8 on page 234) is outlined below:

- **Class name**
  A unique class name with up to 16 characters. It can contain uppercase and lowercase letters, numbers, and underscores (_).

- **Description**
  An optional brief description about this class.

- **Tier**
  A number between 0 and 9, for class priority ranking. It will be the tier that this class will belong to. An explanation about tiers can be found in “Tiers” on page 233.

- **Resource set**
  This attribute is used to limit the set of resources a given class has access to in terms of CPUs (processor set). The default, if unspecified, is `system`, which gives access to all the CPU resources available on the system.

- **Inheritance**
  The inheritance attribute indicates whether a child process should inherit its parent's class or get classified according to the automatic assignment rules upon exec. The possible values are yes or no; the default is no. This attribute can be specified at both superclass and subclass level.

- **User and group authorized to assign its processes to this class**
  These attributes are valid for all the classes. They are used to specify the user name and the group name of the user or group authorized to manually assign processes to the class. When manually assigning a process (or a group of processes) to a superclass, the assignment rules for the superclass are used to determine which subclass of the superclass each process will be assigned to.

- **User and group authorized to administer this class**
  These attributes are valid only for superclasses. They are used to delegate the superclass administration to a user and group of users.

- **Localchm**
  Specifies whether memory segments that are accessed by processes in different classes remain local to the class they were initially assigned to, or if they go to the shared class.

**Segment authorization to migrate to the shared class**
With Workload Manager in earlier versions of AIX, whenever a memory segment is accessed by processes from different classes, the segment is reclassified as
shared. This occurs because one of the classes sharing the memory segment would otherwise be penalized as the user of this resource while the others are not. The consequence of the segment moving to shared is that users partially lose control of it. In AIX 5L, an attribute has been added at the class level to avert the automatic reclassification of the class. This attribute, localshm, if set to no, allows the segment to be reclassified to the shared class. If it is set to yes, then it is not reclassified. From the command line, the command will be similar to that shown in the example below:

```
# mkclass -a tier=2 -a adminuser=wlmu6 -a localshm=yes -c shares=2\n-m shares=3 -d new_config super3
```

From the SMIT panels, general characteristics of a class panel will have the localshm option, as in the example shown in Figure 6-9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General characteristics of a class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type or select values in entry fields.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press Enter AFTER making all desired changes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inheritance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User authorized to assign its processes to this class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User authorized to administrate this class (Superclass only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group authorized to assign its processes to this class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group authorized to administrate this class (Superclass only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>localshm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1=Help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5=Reset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9=Shell</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6-9** SMIT panel shows the additional localshm attribute

**Classification process**

There are two ways to classify processes in WLM:

- Automatic assignment when a process calls the system call exec, using assignment rules specified by a WLM administrator. This automatic assignment is always in effect (cannot be turned off) when WLM is active. This is the most common method of assigning processes to the different classes.
Manual assignment of a selected process or group of processes to a class by a user with the required authority on both the process and the target class. This manual assignment can be done either by a WLM command, which could be invoked directly or through SMIT or Web-based System Manager, or by an application, using a function of the WLM Application Programming Interface. Manual assignment overrides automatic assignment.

6.6.2 Automatic assignment

The automatic assignment of processes to classes uses a set of class assignment rules specified by a WLM administrator. There are two levels of assignment rules:

- A set of assignment rules at the WLM configuration level used to determine which superclass a given process should be assigned to.
- A set of assignment rules at the superclass level used to determine which subclass of the superclass the process should be assigned to.

The assignment rules at both levels have exactly the same format.

When a process is created by fork, it remains in the same class as its parent. Usually, reclassification happens when the new process calls the system call exec. In order to classify the process, WLM starts by examining the top level rules list for the active configuration to find out which superclass the process should belong to. For this purpose, WLM takes the rules one at a time, in the order they appear in the file, and checks the current values for the process attributes against the values and lists of values specified in the rule. When a match is found, the process will be assigned to the superclass named in the first field of the rule. Then the rules list for the superclass is examined in the same way to determine which subclass of the superclass the process should be assigned to. For a process to match one of the rules, each of its attributes must match the corresponding field in the rule. The rules to determine whether the value of a process attribute matches the values in the field of the rules list are as follows:

- If the field in the rule has a value of hyphen (-), any value of the corresponding process attribute is a match.
- If the value of the process attribute (for all the attributes except type) matches one of the values in the list in a rule, and it is not excluded (prefaced by an exclamation point (!)), it is considered a match.
- When one of the values for the type attribute in the rule is comprised of two or more values separated by a plus (+) sign, a process will be a match for this value only if its characteristics match all the values mentioned above.
As previously mentioned, at both superclass and subclass levels, WLM goes through the rules in the order in which they appear in the rules list, and classifies the process in the class corresponding to the first rule for which the process is a match. This means that the order of the rules in the rules list is extremely important, and caution must be applied when modifying it in any way.

6.6.3 Manual assignment

Manual assignment is a feature introduced in AIX 5L WLM. It allows system administrators and applications to override, at any time, the traditional WLM automatic assignment (processes' automatic classification based on class assignment rules) and force a process to be classified in a specific class.

The manual assignment can be made or canceled separately at the superclass level, the subclass level, or both. In order to manually assign processes to a class or cancel an existing manual assignment, a user must have the right level of privilege (that is, must be the root user, adminuser, or admingroup for the superclass or authuser and authgroup for the superclass or subclass). A process can be manually assigned to a superclass only, a subclass only, or to a superclass and a subclass of the superclass. In the latter case, the dual assignment can be done simultaneously (with a single command or API call) or at different times, possibly by different users.

A manual assignment will remain in effect (and a process will remain in its manually assigned class) until:

- The process terminates.
- WLM is stopped. When WLM is restarted, the manual assignments in effect when WLM was stopped are lost.
- The class the process has been assigned to is deleted.
- A new manual assignment overrides a prior one.
- The manual assignment for the process is canceled.

In order to assign a process to a class or cancel a prior manual assignment, the user must have authority both on the process and on the target class. These constraints translate into the following:

- The root user can assign any process to any class.
- A user with administration privileges on the subclasses of a given superclass (that is, the user or group name matches the attributes adminuser or admingroup of the superclass) can manually reassign any process from one of the subclasses of this superclass to another subclass of the superclass.
A user can manually assign their own processes (same real or effective user ID) to a superclass or a subclass for which they have manual assignment privileges (that is, the user or group name matches the attributes authuser or authgroup of the superclass or subclass).

This defines three levels of privilege among the persons who can manually assign processes to classes, root being the highest. In order for a user to modify or cancel a manual assignment, the user must be at the same or higher level of privilege as the person who issued the last manual assignment.

**Class assignment rules**

After the definition of a class, it is time to set up the class assignment rules so that WLM can perform its automatic assignment. The assignment rules are used by WLM to assign a process to a class based on the user, group, application path name, type of process, and application tag, or a combination of these five attributes.

The next sections describe the attributes that constitute a class assignment rule. All these attributes can contain a hyphen, which means that this field will not be considered when assigning classes to a process.

**Class name**

This field must contain the name of a class that is defined in the class file corresponding to the level of the rules file we are configuring (either superclass or subclass). Class names can contain only uppercase and lowercase letters, numbers, and underscores (_), and can be up to 16 characters in length. No assignment rule can be specified for the system-defined classes *unclassified*, *unmanaged*, and *shared*.

**Reserved**

Reserved for future use. Its value *must* be a hyphen, and it must be present in the rule.

**User**

The user name (as specified in the `/etc/passwd` file, LDAP, or in NIS) of the user owning a process can be used to determine the class to which the process belongs. This attribute is a list of one or more user names, separated by a comma. Users can be excluded by using an exclamation point prefix. Patterns can be specified to match a set of user names using full Korn shell pattern matching syntax.

Applications that use the setuid permission to change the *effective* user ID they run under are still classified according to the user that invoked them. The processes are only reclassified if the change is done to the *real* user ID (UID).
Group
The group name (as specified in the /etc/group file, LDAP, or in NIS) of a process can be used to determine the class to which the process belongs. This attribute is a list composed of one or more groups, separated by a comma. Groups can be excluded by using an exclamation point prefix. Patterns can be specified to match a set of group names using full Korn shell pattern matching syntax.

Applications that use the setgid permission to change the effective group ID they run under are still classified according to the group that invoked them. The processes are only reclassified if the change is done to the real group ID (GID).

Application path names
The full path name of the application for a process can be used to determine the class to which a process belongs. This attribute is a list composed of one or more applications, separated by a comma. The application path names will be either full path names or Korn shell patterns that match path names. Application path names can be excluded by using an exclamation point prefix.

Process type
In AIX 5L, the process type attribute is introduced as one of the ways to determine the class to which a process belongs. This attribute consists of a comma-separated list, with one or more combinations of values, separated by a plus sign (+). A plus sign provides a Boolean and function, and a comma provides a logical or function. Table 6-5 provides a list of process types that can be used. (Note: 32bit and 64bit are mutually exclusive.)

Table 6-5  List of process types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute value</th>
<th>Process type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32bit</td>
<td>The process is a 32-bit process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64bit</td>
<td>The process is a 64-bit process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plock</td>
<td>The process called plock() to pin memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fixed</td>
<td>The process has a fixed priority (SCHED_FIFO or SCHED_RR).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Application tags
In AIX 5L, the application tag attribute is introduced as one of the forms of determining the class to which a process belongs. This is an attribute meant to be set by WLM’s API as a way to further extend the process classification possibilities. This process was created to allow differentiated classification for different instances of the same application. This attribute can have one or more application tags, separated by commas. An application tag is a string of up to 30 alphanumeric characters.
The classification is done by comparing the value of the attributes of the process at exec time against the lists of class assignment rules to determine which rule is a match for the current value of the process attributes. The class assignment is done by WLM:

- When WLM is started for all the processes existing at that time.
- Every time a process calls the system calls exec, setuid (and related calls), setgid (and related calls), setpri, and plock, once WLM is started.

There are two default rules that are always defined (that is, hardwired in WLM). These are the default rules that assign all processes started by the user root to the system class, and all other processes to the default class. If WLM does not find a match in the assignment rules list for a process, these two rules will be applied (the rule for system first), and the process will go to either system (UID root) or default. These default rules are the only assignment rules in the standard configuration installed with AIX.

Table 6-6 is an example of classes with their respective attributes for assignment rules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Reserved</th>
<th>User</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Tag</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>root</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>db1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>/usr/oracle/bin/db*</td>
<td>_db1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>db2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>/usr/oracle/bin/db*</td>
<td>_db2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devlt</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>dev</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32bit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPs</td>
<td>bob,ted</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>acct*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acctg</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>acct*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 6-6 the rule for default class is omitted from display, though this class’s rule is always present in the configuration. The rule for system is explicit, and has been put first in the file. This is deliberate so that all processes started by root will be assigned to the system superclass. By moving the rule for the system superclass further down in the rules file, the system administrator could have chosen to assign the root processes that would not be assigned to another class (because of the application executed, for example) to system only. In Table 6-6, with the rule for system on top, if root executes a program in /usr/oracle/bin/db* set, the process will be classified as system. If the rule for the system class were after the rule for the db2 class, the same process would be classified as db1 or db2, depending on the tag.
These examples show that the order of the rules in the assignment rules file is very important. The more specific assignment rules should appear first in the rules file, and the more general rules should appear last. An extreme example would be putting the default assignment rule for the default class, for which every process is a match, first in the rules file. That would cause every process to be assigned to the default class (the other rules would, in effect, be ignored).

You can define multiple assignment rules for any given class. You can also define your own specific assignment rules for the system or default classes. The default rules mentioned previously for these classes would still be applied to processes that would not be classified using any of the explicit rules.

### 6.6.4 Backward compatibility

As mentioned earlier, in the first release of WLM, the system default for the resource shares was one share. In AIX 5L, it is -, which means that the resource consumption of the class for this particular resource is not regulated by WLM. This changes the semantics quite a bit, and it is advisable that system administrators review their existing configurations and consider if the new default is good for their classes, or if they would be better off either setting up a default of one share (going back to the previous behavior) or setting explicit values for some of the classes.

In terms of limits, the first release of WLM only had one maximum, not two. This maximum limit was in fact a soft limit for CPU and a hard limit for memory. Limits specified for the old format, min percent-max percent, will have, in AIX 5L, the max interpreted as a softmax for CPU and both values of hardmax and softmax for memory. All interfaces (SMIT, AIX commands, and Web-based System Manager) will convert all data existing from its old format to the new one.

The disk I/O resource is new for the current version, so when activating the AIX 5L WLM with the configuration files of the first WLM release, the values for the shares and the limits will be the default ones for this resource. The system defaults are:

- shares = -
- min = 0 percent, softmax = 100 percent, hardmax = 100 percent

For existing WLM configurations, the disk I/O resource will not be regulated by WLM, which should lead to the same behavior for the class as with the first version.
6.6.5 Resource sets

WLM uses the concept of resource sets (or rsets) to restrict the processes in a given class to a subset of the system’s physical resources. In AIX 5L, the physical resources managed are the memory and the processors. A valid resource set is composed of memory and at least one processor.

Figure 6-10 shows the SMIT panel where a resource set can be specified for a specific class.

![Figure 6-10 Resource set definition for a specific class](image)

By default, the system creates one resource set for all physical memory, one for all CPUs, and one separate set for each individual CPU in the system. The `lslrset` command lists all resource sets defined. A sample output for the `lslrset` command follows:

```
# lslrset -av
T  Name               Owner   Group   Mode    CPU  Memory  Resources
r  sys/sys0           root    system  r-----    4     511  sys/sys0
    sys/node.00000  sys/mem.00000  sys/cpu.00002  sys/cpu.00001
    sys/cpu.00000
r  sys/node.00000     root    system  r-----    4     511  sys/sys0
    sys/node.00000  sys/mem.00000  sys/cpu.00003
    sys/cpu.00002  sys/cpu.00001
    sys/cpu.00000
r  sys/mem.00000      root    system  r-----    0     511  sys/mem.00000
r  sys/cpu.00003      root    system  r-----    1       0  sys/cpu.00003
r  sys/cpu.00002      root    system  r-----    1       0  sys/cpu.00002
```

Chapter 6. Performance management tools
As mentioned previously, some resource sets in AIX 5L are created, by default, for memory and CPU. It is possible to create different resource sets by grouping two or more resource sets and storing the definition in the rset registry.

The rset registry services enable system administrators to define and name resource sets so that they can then be used by other users or applications. In order to alleviate the risks of name collisions, the registry supports a two-level naming scheme. The name of a resource set takes the form name_space/rset_name. Both the namespace and rset_name may each be 255 characters in size, are case-sensitive, and may contain only upper and lower case letters, numbers, underscores, and periods. The namespace of sys is reserved by the operating system and used for rset definitions that represent the resources of the system.

The SMIT rset command has options to list, remove, or show a specific resource set used by a process and the management tools, as shown in Figure 6-11.

![Figure 6-11 SMIT main panel for resource set management](image)

To create, delete, or change a resource set in the rset registry, you must select the Manage Resource Set Database item in the SMIT panel. In this panel, it is
also possible to reload the rset registry definitions to make all changes available to the system. Figure 6-12 shows the SMIT panel for rset registry management.

![SMIT panel for rset registry management](image)

To add a new resource set, you must specify a name space, a resource set name, and the list of resources. It is also possible to change the permissions for the owner and group of this rset. In addition, permissions for the owner, groups, and others can also be specified. Figure 6-13 on page 246 shows the SMIT panel for this task.
Whenever a new rset is created, deleted, or modified, a reload in the rset database is needed in order to make the changes effective.

After a WLM configuration has been defined by the system administrator, it can be made the active configuration using the `wlmcntrl` command. For example, to starts WLM in active mode, enter:

```
# wlmcntrl -a
```

To validate if WLM is running, enter:

```
# wlmcntrl -q
1495-052 WLM is running
```

To stop WLM, enter:

```
# wlmcntrl -o
```
6.7 Quiz

The following assessment questions help verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this chapter.

1. Which of the following should be implemented to balance available CPU/memory resources between applications?
   A. Loadleveler
   B. Nice/renice
   C. Resource Manager
   D. Workload Manager

2. A nice value for a process is shown as 80 in a ps listing. Which command is used to change this to a value of 100?
   A. renice 100 PID
   B. renice -n 20 PID
   C. renice -20 PID
   D. renice -n -100 PID

3. Which command changes operational parameters of the Virtual Memory Manager (VMM)?
   A. nice
   B. renice
   C. schedtune
   D. vmtune

4. Which of the following options is true regarding schedtune memory-load control?
   A. Memory-load control is intended to smooth out infrequent peaks in load that might otherwise cause a system to thrash. It is not intended to act continuously in a configuration that has too little RAM to handle its normal workload.
   B. Memory-load control cannot be turned off. Other parameters can be used to control thrashing, like schedtune -D.
   C. The AIX scheduler performs memory-load control by suspending processes when memory is overcommitted. The system then swaps out processes.
   D. Memory is considered overcommitted when the number of pages written to paging space in the last second, multiplied by the value of the -h parameter, is less than the number of page steals in the last second.
5. Which of the following WLM files do not contain data directly related to performance tuning?
   A. /etc/wlm/current/classes
   B. /etc/wlm/current/rules
   C. /etc/wlm/current/limits
   D. /etc/wlm/current/shares

6.7.1 Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.
1. D
2. B
3. D
4. A
5. B

6.8 Exercise

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

1. Find a process with a recent high CPU usage value. Use the `renice` command to lessen its priority value. Follow the process CPU utilization. Restore the nice value.

2. On a test system, manipulate the SCHED_R value to prioritize foreground processes (for reference, see Figure 6-4 on page 216). Restore the default values.
Performance scenario walkthroughs

This chapter provides a set of scenarios that allow you to better understand the relationship between the tools, their output, and a problem you may need to solve.
7.1 CPU performance scenario

In this section, a basic CPU-bound performance problem scenario is shown, with conclusions made based on output from commands previously discussed in this publication.

7.1.1 Data collection

The environment consists of a 2-way F50 with 50 Netstation clients connected over Ethernet. Users are using an HTML application as an interface to a database. Now the users are complaining about long response times. When starting a browser window on a Netstation, the start up seems slow. To verify this, the browser startup is executed with the `time` command:

```
# time netscape
real    0m16.73s
user    0m0.83s
sys     0m0.63s
```

By running `time netscape`, you can verify that the start up was slow. The normal start up time of a browser in the example system would be under 10 seconds. From the output, it seems that the systems waits for more than 15 seconds (user + sys = 1.46 seconds out of 16.73 seconds total time). In most cases systems wait for I/O, so you run `iostat`:

```
tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu:  % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
       0.0  328.5  100.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
       hdisk0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk1  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk2  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk3  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       cd0    0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu:  % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
       0.0  332.1  100.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
       hdisk0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk1  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk2  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       hdisk3  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
       cd0    0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
```
There is no activity against the disks, but the %user shows 100.0. (This is an extreme manufactured, although not edited, example). The problem is probably CPU related. Next you would likely check the run queue with the `vmstat` command:

```
# vmstat 2 5
```

```
  kthr memory     page   faults    cpu
  ----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
     r  b  avm  fre  re  pi  po  fr  sr  cy in  sy  cs us  sy  id  wa
 0 0 17354 15755 0  0  0  0  0 101  10  7 63  0 37  0
 5 1 17354 15754 0  0  0  0  0 407 2228 101 99  0  0  0
 5 1 17354 15752 0  0  0  0  0 413  43  93 99  0  0  0
 5 1 17354 15752 0  0  0  0  0 405  43  92 99  0  0  0
 5 1 17354 15752 0  0  0  0  0 407  42  90 99  0  0  0
```

### 7.1.2 Data analysis

Five jobs on the run queue is not a normal state for this system. The next step would be to find out what processes are causing the problems. This can be done with the `ps` command:

```
# ps -ef |sort +3 -r |head -15
```

```
UID   PID  PPID  C   STIME     TTY   TIME CMD
thomasc 15860 12948 93 10:30:49  pts/1 17:41 ./tcprg5
thomasc 16312 12948 93 10:30:39  pts/1 20:30 ./tcprg3
thomasc 15234 12948 92 10:31:13  pts/1 15:21 ./tcprg1
thomasc 16844 12948 87 10:31:00  pts/1 13:15 ./tcprg2
thomasc 17420 12948 31 10:30:26  pts/1 14:53 ./tcprg4
    root 14778  3420   4 10:51:10  pts/3  0:00 ps -ef
    root 17154  3420   1 10:51:10  pts/3  0:00 sort +3 -r
    root 13676 15080   0 15:54:12  pts/5  0:00 ksh
    root 15080     1   0 15:54:11 -  0:00 xterm
    root  4980     1   0 15:37:42 -  0:00 /usr/lib/errdemon -s 2000000
    root 16510  3420   0 10:51:10  pts/3  0:00 head -15
    root 16022 10872   0 Jun 29  lft0  7:05 topas n
    root  3420  5568   0 Jun 28  pts/3  0:00 ksh
    root 12948 12796   0 Jun 28  pts/1  0:02 ksh
```

```
USER   PID   %CPU  %MEM  SZ  RSS  TTY  STAT  STIME    TIME COMMAND
thomasc 16312  25.0  0.0  44  64  pts/1 A 10:30:39 26:28 ./tcprg3
    root  516   24.0  3.0 264 15396 - A  Jun 28 9544:43 kproc
thomasc 15860  20.7  0.0  44  64  pts/1 A 10:30:49 21:49 ./tcprg5
thomasc 15234  20.6  0.0  44  60  pts/1 A 10:31:13 21:20 ./tcprg1
thomasc 16844  18.4  0.0  44  64  pts/1 A 10:31:00 19:13 ./tcprg2
thomasc 17420  15.7  0.0  44  64  pts/1 A 10:30:26 16:44 ./tcprg4
    root 1032  6.7  3.0 264 15396 - A  Jun 28 2679:27 kproc
    root 1290  3.2  3.0 264 15396 - A  Jun 28 1263:12 kproc
    root  774  3.2  3.0 264 15396 - A  Jun 28 1258:58 kproc
    root  3158  0.0  0.0 356  384 - A Jun 28 8:27/usr/sbin/syncd 60
```
One user, thomasc, has started five programs with the prefix tcprg that has accumulated a lot of recent CPU usage (C column). When looking at the -u flag output from the \texttt{ps} command, the %CPU (reporting how much a process has used CPU since started), these test programs use abnormally high CPU.

### 7.1.3 Recommendation

There are several ways to reverse the overload (\texttt{kill PID}, for example), but the proper thing would be to check with the user thomasc and ask some questions, such as “What are these processes?” “Why are they running. Can they be stopped?” “Do they have to run now. Can they be rescheduled?” Rescheduling these kind of CPU consuming processes to a less busy time will probably give the most significant advantage in performance.

If these processes can be rescheduled, this can be done with the \texttt{batch} command, the \texttt{at} command, or by starting them from the \texttt{crontab}. Remember to start such jobs at times when they are not in conflict with OLTPs.

If they have to run during a busy time, and to be running at times in the future, some changes need to be done to improve the balance the performance of the system. A recommendation is to move these test programs to a test system, excluded from the production environment.

Another solution is to buy more CPUs, which is a good step if the hardware can accommodate this, but may move the bottleneck to another resource of the system, for example, memory.

Resource capping could be a solution, and for that there is no better way than Workload Manager (WLM). For more information on WLM, see \textit{AIX 5L Workload Manager (WLM)}, SG24-5977.

### 7.2 I/O performance scenario

In this scenario, a user reports that the month-end report is taking a long time to run and the user is unsure what is causing this. One possible reason for this report taking so long is that when AIX creates a print job the job is first written to the print spooler. This spool file is created on the disk in /var/adm/spool. If there is an I/O problem where the system is waiting for disk, then this file can take a long time to generate, especially if it is a large file.
7.2.1 Data collection

In this section, the outputs of the system are gathered by the `vmstat` and `iostat` commands.

Below is the output of the `iostat` command for this system.

```
# iostat 1 10

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu: % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
     0.9  52.6  2.7  20.1  43.3  33.9

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
      hdisk0  19.4  350.9  32.3  870967  921096
      hdisk1  49.0  616.6  52.9 1267281 1881244
      cd0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0  0

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu: % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
     1.0  0.0  0.0  12.0  0.0  88.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
      hdisk0  29.0 1616.0 101.0 0 1616
      hdisk1 100.0 2164.0 108.0 1656 508
      cd0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0  0

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu: % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
     1.0  58.0  0.0  6.0  0.0  94.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
      hdisk0  25.0  660.0  50.0 0 660
      hdisk1 100.0 1108.0 111.0 672 436
      cd0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0  0

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu: % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
     2.0  58.0  0.0  6.0  0.0  94.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
      hdisk0  18.0  208.0  21.0  4 204
      hdisk1 100.0 1552.0 114.0 316 1236
      cd0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0  0

tty:  tin  tout  avg-cpu: % user  % sys  % idle  % iowait
     2.0  94.0  0.0 12.0  0.0  88.0

Disks:  % tm_act  Kbps  tps  Kb_read  Kb_wrtn
      hdisk0  18.0  232.0  28.0 0 232
      hdisk1 98.0  808.0 111.0 312 496
      cd0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0  0
```
Below is the output of the system using the `vmstat` command:

```
# vmstat 1 10
kthr  memory  page  faults  cpu
-----  ---------------  ---------------  -----------  -------
 r   b   avm   fre   re  pi  po  sr  cy  in   sy  cs  us  sy  id  wa
0  0  19776    121    0    0    0    0    0   0  0  0  0  0  0
0  2  19776    115    0    0    0   208   160   3  12  43 34
0  3  19776    121    0    0    0   408   911   0  338  1160 327  0  0  91
```

Below is the output of the system using the `vmstat` command:

```
7.2.2 Data analysis

In this section, the key indicators of the output will be looked at and an explanation given regarding the output.

The vmstat command output investigation
Although the vmstat command is a memory diagnostic tool, it does display one I/O column. Notice the cpu column with the wa output; the output is on average 85 percent (add the column, excluding the first line, and divide by nine). If the wa value is higher than 25 percent, it may indicate a problem with the disk subsystem.

The high wa value leads you to two additional columns. Under kthr, kernel threads, the b column indicates 2–3 threads per second are waiting. Under memory, the fre column, the number of buffer frames available on the free is very low.

The iostat command output investigation
The key values to check here are the % iowait and the % tm_act values. Remember that the first output is the current status since startup.

The % iowait value
The % iowait is the percentage of time the CPU is idle while waiting on local I/O.

In this example, the %iowait has an average of 89.9 percent (add the column, excluding the first line, and divide by nine). If the system’s % iowait is higher than 25 percent, it is advisable to investigate the problem and take corrective action.

The % tm_act value
The %tm_act is the percentage of time the disk is busy.

In this example, the % tm_act value had an average of 18.8 percent for hdisk0 and an average of 99.7 percent for hdisk1. If the percentage for the time a disk is busy is high on a smaller system there will be noticeable performance degradation on the system with less disks. In order to deliver good performance, a system should be recording an average disk busy of less than 40 percent. This is, however, not always possible with smaller systems with less disks.
7.2.3 Recommendation

The following are some recommendations to assist in improving disk I/O:

- Look for idle drives on the system; it may be possible to move some data from busy drives to idle drives, which will give improved performance.
- Check the paging activity, as this may also be a factor. Spread the paging over multiple drives if possible, thus sharing the paging space load across multiple drives.
- If this is an occasional occurrence during month end, check which other I/O-intensive processes are running and if they can be run earlier or later; this way, the load is also spread across time.

7.3 Additional I/O scenarios

The following scenarios are examples of various command reports used as input for tuning a system that has an I/O performance problem.

7.3.1 CPU and kernel thread I/O wait bottleneck scenario

The following scenario provides the following `vmstat` command report as input:

```
$ /usr/bin/vmstat 120 10

--- kthr memory faults cpu ---
----- ----------- ------------------------ ------------ -----------
| r  b avm fre re pi po fr sr cy in sy cs us sy id wa |
0 1 59903 542 0 0 0 0 0 0 451 912 478 43 11 15 31
0 2 59904 550 0 0 0 0 0 0 521 1436 650 23 19 4 50
0 3 59950 538 0 0 0 0 0 0 344 649 249 7 7 6 80
0 2 59899 578 0 0 0 0 0 0 467 1829 500 12 14 4 70
0 2 59882 589 0 0 0 0 0 0 600 1292 705 6 8 3 61
0 3 59882 420 0 0 0 0 0 0 452 952 372 11 8 1 80
0 2 59954 420 0 0 0 0 0 0 537 1979 573 13 5 10 72
0 2 59954 423 0 0 0 0 0 0 618 1413 686 15 9 6 70
0 3 59954 420 0 0 0 0 0 0 551 938 634 4 2 2 92
0 2 59954 422 0 0 0 0 0 0 460 1376 496 14 2 4 80
```

The `vmstat` report is taken over a period of 20 minutes using a 120 second interval repeated 10 times. The first figures that are interesting in this report are the cpu values (us/sy/id/wa). Notice that the CPU does have some idle (id) time, but the largest value is the I/O wait (wa) time. Remember that the first measurement can be excluded, because it is the average on the system since startup.
The I/O wait time is increasing over the sample period from 50 percent and peaking at 92 percent on the ninth measurement. The average I/O wait time over the sample period is 72 percent, which indicates an I/O-related bottleneck.

The wa column specifies the percentage of time the CPU was idle with pending local disk I/O. If there is at least one outstanding I/O to a local disk when wait is running, the time is classified as waiting for I/O.

Generally, a wa value over 25 percent indicates that the disk subsystem may not be balanced properly, or it may be the result of a disk-intensive workload.

Check the b value in the kernel thread column. The b column lists the average number of kernel threads placed on the wait queue per second and should stay near zero. These threads are waiting for resources or I/O.

Notice that the memory in relation to paging I/O can be ignored in this scenario, as the paging parameters are all zero and the list of free memory pages (fre) is still acceptable.

For more information on where the possible I/O bottleneck occurs, an iostat command should be run on this system. This will provide information about how the disk I/O is distributed between the physical volumes and where the possible bottlenecks could be.

### 7.3.2 I/O distribution bottleneck scenario

This scenario returned the following lsp -a and iostat report:

```
# lsp -a
Page Space  Physical Volume   Volume Group    Size   %Used  Active  Auto  Type
hd6         hdisk0             rootvg         256MB   13     yes   yes   lv
# iostat 120 5
... 
tty:      tin         tout   avg-cpu:  % user    % sys     % idle    % iowait
     47.8   1394.6         50.3     19.6       25.0       5.1
Disks:        % tm_act     Kbps      tps    Kb_read   Kb_wrtn
hdisk0      97.0     124.4      59.3       1924     12240
hdisk1      0.8       21.5      16.8        492         0
hdisk2      0.2       0.3        0.1          8        12

tty:      tin         tout   avg-cpu:  % user    % sys     % idle    % iowait
     47.1   1046.3         45.0     40.0        4.0      11.0
Disks:        % tm_act     Kbps      tps    Kb_read   Kb_wrtn
hdisk0      98.5     186.1      56.4       9260     13008
hdisk1      0.6       23.8      18.5        96       332
```
The `lsps` command shows that the paging space is allocated on the physical volume hdisk0.

The `iostat` report shown is collecting data over a 10-minute period in 120-second intervals. The first report is not shown and should be ignored for real-time analysis, as it is the historical disk I/O report since startup. For details on the `iostat` command report, see 4.2, “The iostat command” on page 118.

Notice the high I/O wait time (% iowait), which is increasing from 5.1 percent to 30 percent. Generally, if an I/O wait time exceeds 25 percent, there is a problem related to disk I/O. There might be cases where I/O wait time is 0 percent and there still is an I/O bottleneck. This can happen when the system is performing extensive paging and the swap device is overloaded.

In the above `iostat` report, the activity on the hdisk0 is extremely high. The % tm_act, indicating the active time of the disk in percent, is between 97 percent and 99.8 percent, which is almost constantly active. This indicates that the I/O bottleneck is bound to the disk hdisk0. Notice the Kb_wrtn value, indicating the data written to the disk is fairly high compared to the amount of data read from...
the disk. This leads to the conclusion that the I/O limits of the hdisk0 have been reached. To improve the I/O performance, the other disks should be used more actively, by moving hot file, file system, and logical volumes to the less active disks. In general, a more insightful investigation may be required using other tools such as filemon and lslv.

7.3.3 Logical volume fragmentation scenario

The lslv command is used for displaying the attributes of logical volumes, such as the fragmentation of a logical volume on a physical volume.

Following is the lspv command output of a fragmented logical volume:

```
lslv -p hdisk0 lv00
hdisk0:lv00:N/A
0001 0002 0003 0004 0005 0006 0007 0008 0009 0010 1-10
0011 0012 0013 0014 0015 0016 0017 0018 0019 0020 11-20
0021 0022 0023 0024 0025 0026 0027 0028 0029 0030 21-30
0031 0032
0033 0034 0035 0036 0037 0038 0039 0040 0041 0042 33-42
0043 0044 0045 0046 0047 0048 0049 0050 0051 0052 43-52
0053 0054 0055 0056 0057 0058 0059 0060 0061 0062 53-62
0063 0064
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 65-74
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 75-84
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 85-94
USED
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 95-95
FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE 96-105
FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE 106-115
FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE 116-125
FREE
0068 0069
FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE FREE 126-127
FREE
0070 0071
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 128-137
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 138-147
USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED USED 148-157
USED USED
```

The logical volume consisting of 71 logical partitions (LPs) is fragmented over four of the five possible intra-disk allocation sections. The sections’ outer edge and outer middle are allocated from LPs 01–32 and 33–64, respectively, on similar contiguously physical partitions. The LPs 65–69 are allocated in the inner middle section and the last two LPs are allocated in the inner edge section.

This obvious fragmentation of logical volume lv00 can lead to a decrease in I/O performance due to longer seek and disk head changes for a sequential
read/write operation in the last part of the logical volume. As there is free space left on the physical volume, reorganizing lv00 is the action to take. Using the `reorgvg` command on this logical volume will help improve the performance of lv00.

For more information on the `lslv` command refer to 4.4, “LVM performance analysis using the lslv command” on page 131.

### 7.3.4 Monitoring scenario using filemon

Consider a system with the following disks available:

```
# lspv
hdisk0  000bc6f63dc07a7  rootvg
hdisk1  000bc6f6bf75ee2  none
```

The following output shows a section of a filemon report made for monitoring the logical volumes of a system.

The report was generated with the `filemon` command `filemon -O lv -o filemon.out`:

```
...  
Most Active Logical Volumes
-------------------------------------------------------------------------
util  #rblk  #wblk   KB/s  volume                   description
-------------------------------------------------------------------------
0.84 105792 149280 177.1   /dev/hd1                /home
0.32      0  16800  11.9   /dev/hd8                jfslog
0.03      0   4608   3.2   /dev/hd4                /
0.02    864  55296   5.9   /dev/hd2                /usr
0.02    192   4800   3.5   /dev/hd9var             /var
0.01      0   2976   2.1   /dev/hd8                jfslog
...  
```

The output shows that the logical volume hd1, containing the /home file system, has by far the highest utilization. As the second physical volume hdisk1 is not used, as seen in the `lspv` report above, it would be possible to add this physical volume to the rootvg and distribute hd1 to use both hdisk0 and hdisk1. This can either be done by splitting the logical volume using an inter-disk policy of maximum or by using the striping option.

### 7.3.5 Logical volume allocation scenario

The following scenario shows a series of status commands from a system with an allocation problem on a dedicated database volume group:

```
# lspv -s
```
Total Paging Space  Percent Used
100MB              37%

# lsps -a
Page Space  Physical Volume Volume Group    Size   %Used  Active  Auto  Type
hd6         hdisk0            rootvg         100MB      38     yes   yes    lv

This shows that the paging space is defined in the hdisk0 of the rootvg.

The following volume group information is provided:

# lsvg
rootvg
datavg

# lspv
hdisk0        000038744c632197    rootvg
hdisk1        00002199abf65a1a    datavg
hdisk2        00000228b9c5d7da    datavg
hdisk3        00002199b40b728c    datavg

This shows that two volume groups are defined, rootvg on hdisk1 and datavg on hdisk1, hdisk2, and hdisk3.

hdisk0 contains the following logical volumes:

# lspv -l hdisk0
hdisk0:
LV NAME               LPs   PPs   DISTRIBUTION          MOUNT POINT
hd5                   2     2     02..00..00..00..00    N/A
hd3                   6     6     02..00..04..00..00    /tmp
hd2                   117   117   00..47..42..00..00    /usr
hd8                   1     1     00..00..01..00..00    N/A
hd4                   2     2     00..00..02..00..00    /
hd9var                1     1     00..00..01..00..00    /var
hd6                   128   128   29..50..49..00..00    N/A
hd1                   3     3     00..00..01..02..00    /home
lv00                  10    10    00..00..00..10..00    /database

The rootvg on hdisk0 contains all the default logical volume and file systems and an additional lv00 containing the /database file system.

The other disk contains:

# lspv -l hdisk1
hdisk1:
LV NAME               LPs   PPs   DISTRIBUTION          MOUNT POINT
loglv00               1     1     01..00..00..00..00    N/A
lv01                  10    10    00..00..00..00..10    /db01
The logical volumes of the datavg volume group are all allocated on the same physical volume hdisk1, including the jfs log lv00. This shows that the physical volumes hdisk2 and hdisk3 are unused.

The details of the datavg LVs are as follows:

```
# lslv lv01
LOGICAL VOLUME: lv01 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
LV IDENTIFIER: 0000881962b29b51.1 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: opened/syncd
TYPE: jfs WRITE VERIFY: off
MAX LPs: 512 PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
COPIES: 1 SCHED POLICY: parallel
LPs: 1 PPs: 1
STALE PPs: 0 BB POLICY: relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle UPPER BOUND: 32
MOUNT POINT: /db01 LABEL: /db01
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
```

```
# lslv lv02
LOGICAL VOLUME: lv02 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
LV IDENTIFIER: 0000881962b29b51.3 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: opened/syncd
TYPE: jfs WRITE VERIFY: off
MAX LPs: 512 PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
COPIES: 1 SCHED POLICY: parallel
LPs: 1 PPs: 1
STALE PPs: 0 BB POLICY: relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle UPPER BOUND: 32
MOUNT POINT: /db02 LABEL: /db02
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
```

```
# lslv lv03
LOGICAL VOLUME: lv03 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
```
When generating the logical volumes lv01, lv02, and lv03, the system administrator should have dedicated each of the LVs on a corresponding physical volume. Alternatively, the inter-disk allocation policy could have been set to maximum and limit the upper bound to 1.

In this way, the lv01 and the corresponding /db01 would reside on hdisk1, lv02 and /db02 on hdisk2, and lv03 and /db03 on hdisk3.

A modification to this can be done using the `migratepv` command.

To distribute the load of the default jfslog on the hdisk1 to the other physical volume in the datavg, an additional jfslog for each file system could be created. Defining a dedicated JFS log for both /db02 and /db03 would improve the performance. In this way, the different file systems residing on their individual disks would not utilize the hdisk1 for the JFS logging, but rather their own physical volumes.

### 7.4 Paging performance scenario

In this section, paging performance will be investigated. The symptoms of high memory utilization will be described and possible corrective action will be explained.

#### 7.4.1 Data collection

In the following section, the system outputs are gathered by the `svmon` and `vmstat` commands.
Below is the output of an idle system using the `vmstat` command:

```
# vmstat 1 5
```

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<th>b</th>
<th>avm</th>
<th>fre</th>
<th>re</th>
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<th>po</th>
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<th>sr</th>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Below is the output of a system with high memory utilization using the `vmstat` command:

```
# vmstat 1 15
```

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</table>

The following command outputs will be used for reference purposes or as comparisons. Each of these outputs were taken during the `vmstat` output above.

The output of the `ps` command appears as follows:

```
# ps gv | head -n 1 ; ps gv | egrep -v "RSS" | sort +6b -7 -n -r
```

<table>
<thead>
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The output of the `svmon` command appears as follows:

```
# svmon -i 5 5

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130936    127     6946     204676
pg space  131072     106986

work   pers   clnt
pin    6955      0       0
in use    104809    26127    0

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130942    121     6942     206567
pg space  131072     108647

work   pers   clnt
pin    6951      0       0
in use    105067    25875    0

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130951    113     6942     208406
pg space  131072     110432

work   pers   clnt
pin    6955      0       0
in use    104809    26127    0

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130942    121     6942     206567
pg space  131072     108647

work   pers   clnt
pin    6951      0       0
in use    105067    25875    0

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130942    121     6942     206567
pg space  131072     108647

work   pers   clnt
pin    6951      0       0
in use    105067    25875    0

size   inuse   free   pin   virtual
memory   131063    130942    121     6942     206567
pg space  131072     108647

work   pers   clnt
pin    6951      0       0
in use    105067    25875    0
```
The output showing the top ten memory-using processes using the `svmon` command appears as follows:

```
# svmon -Pu -t 10
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e97d</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd2:20486</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- : 0..7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d97b</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd3:25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3186</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 : 0..32768</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>180</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd2:20485</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- : 0..0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4168</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd9var:2079</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- : 0..0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd9var:2078</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- : 0..0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90b2</td>
<td>- work</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 : 0..32768</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9092</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd4:2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>- : 0..0</td>
<td></td>
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<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11402</td>
<td>ksh</td>
<td>1882</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>1166</td>
<td>4364 N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5686</td>
<td>ksh</td>
<td>1872</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>1106</td>
<td>4304 N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65475..65535</td>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d work shared library text</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e03c</td>
<td>1 pers code,/dev/hd2:4204</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6b0d</td>
<td>2 work process private</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65310..65535</td>
<td>4328</td>
<td>f work shared library data</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2865</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd2:32343</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3326</td>
<td>- pers /dev/hd4:605</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Command</th>
<th>Inuse</th>
<th>Pin</th>
<th>Pgsp</th>
<th>Virtual Addr Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5686</td>
<td>ksh</td>
<td>1872</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>1106</td>
<td>4304 N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65475..65535</td>
<td>8811</td>
<td>d work shared library text</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e03c</td>
<td>1 pers code,/dev/hd2:4204</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>72ee</td>
<td>2 work process private</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A snapshot of the paging space at various intervals using the command:

```
# lsps -a
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page Space</th>
<th>Physical Volume</th>
<th>Volume Group</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>%Used</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Auto</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hd6</td>
<td>hdisk0</td>
<td>rootvg</td>
<td>512MB</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>lv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
# lsps -a
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page Space</th>
<th>Physical Volume</th>
<th>Volume Group</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>%Used</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Auto</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hd6</td>
<td>hdisk0</td>
<td>rootvg</td>
<td>512MB</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>lv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
# lsps -a
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page Space</th>
<th>Physical Volume</th>
<th>Volume Group</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>%Used</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Auto</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hd6</td>
<td>hdisk0</td>
<td>rootvg</td>
<td>512MB</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>lv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The output of the `vmtune` command:

```
# vmtune
```

```
vmtune: current values:
minperm  maxperm  minpgahead maxpgahead  minfree  maxfree  pd_npages maxrandwrt
 26007  104028        2          8        120      128     524288        0
-M      -w      -k      -c        -b         -B           -u        -l    -d
maxpin npswarn npskill numclust numfsbufs  hd_pbuf_cnt  lvm_bufcnt  lrbucket
defps
104851  4096  1024       1      93         80          9      131072     1

  -s              -n         -S           -h
sync_release_ilock nokillroot  v_pinshm  strict_maxperm
    0               0           0             0
```

number of valid memory pages = 131063   maxperm=79.4% of real memory
maximum pinable=80.0% of real memory    minperm=19.8% of real memory
number of file memory pages = 13516    numperm=10.3% of real memory

Display the number of processors using the `lsdev` command:

```
# lsdev -Ccprocessor
```

```
proc0 Available 00-00 Processor
```

This is a single processor system.

### 7.4.2 Data analysis

From the output in the previous section, an investigation can be done on the various components within the system to determine the areas that are causing
performance problems. For this investigation, the output will mostly be from the `vmstat` command output. The other output is for information and confirmation.

**The kthr (kernel thread) column**
The kthr column provides information about the average number of threads on various queues.

Both the r and b counts are low, indicating that the system is executing the runnable threads in the kernel sufficiently. The contention for CPU resources is low.

**The memory column**
The memory column displays information about the use of real and virtual memory. A page is 4096 bytes in size.

In the avm column it can be seen that the average number of pages allocated increased. The system will keep allocating pages until all paging space available is used (check with the `lsps -a` command). When all the paging space has been utilized or reaches 100 percent, the system will start killing processes to make paging space available for use.

The fre column shows the average number of free memory pages. The MINFREE value for this system is 120, as shown with the `vmtune` command. In the example, the free memory stayed around the MINFREE value until it dropped to below 100 and almost to 0. This is one of the indications that the system was thrashing.

**The page column**
The page column displays information about page faults and paging activity. These averages are given per second. Paging space is the part of virtual memory that resides on disk. It is used as an overflow when memory is overcommitted. Paging consists of paging logical volumes dedicated to the storage of working set pages that have been stolen from real memory. When a stolen page is referenced by the process, a page fault occurs and the page must be read into memory from paging space. Whenever a page of working storage is stolen, it is written to paging space. If not referenced again, it remains on the paging device until the process terminates or disclaims the space. Subsequent references to addresses contained within the faulted-out pages result in page faults, and the pages are paged in individually by the system. When a process terminates normally, any paging space allocated to that process is freed.

The re column, which is the number of reclaimed pages, remained at 0 throughout.
The pi column varied from 0 to the highest level of 56 pages paged in from paging space. Although a pi level of no more than 5 is considered acceptable, a level higher than 5 is not necessarily an indication of a performance problem, due to the fact that for every page paged in, there must have been a page that was paged out.

The po column, which reflects the number of pages paged out, was between 183 and 445 per second. With a high rate of paging, the system may see some performance degradation, as the paging space is kept on the hard disk and is accessed slower than RAM.

The fr column is the number of pages freed in a second.

The sr column is the number of pages scanned by the page placement algorithm. If the ratio between fr:sr is high, this can indicate a memory constraint, for example, if the ratio is 1:3, it will mean that for every page freed, three will need to be checked. In the example, the ratio is close to 1:2.

**The faults column**
The information under the faults heading displays the trap and interrupt rate averages per second.

The in column is the number of device interrupts per second and is always greater than 100.

The sy column is the number of system calls and it is extremely difficult to say what this figure should be.

The cs column is the number of context switches.

**The cpu column**
The information under the cpu heading provides a breakdown of CPU usage.

The us column indicates the amount of time spent in user mode. In the example, this is never above 5 percent.

The sy column indicates the amount of time spent in system mode. In this example, it is never below 92 percent.

The id column indicates the amount of idle time. In this example, the cpu is never idle.

The wa column indicates the amount of idle time with pending local disk I/O. In the example, it is never higher than seven percent.
7.4.3 Recommendation

From the data, the following are some recommendations that can be implemented to ease the situation:

- If it is possible, an additional CPU might be added to try and get the CPU utilization below 80 percent.
- Add an additional paging space on another internal disk. The reason for adding this paging area to an internal disk is for speed and availability. It is advisable to always spread the paging space across multiple disks, as this will improve paging performance.
- If this is a situation that occurs only at certain times, it may be possible to reschedule large jobs and spread them out, so as not to conflict with one another.

Note: In a single processor system, if us + sy is greater than 90 percent, the system can be considered CPU bound.
Scenario assessment quiz

In this chapter you will be provided with two scenarios to examine and questions to answer based on those scenarios.
8.1 Scenario one

Robutz, Inc. is a small startup robot toy manufacturing company. They decided to purchase an RS/6000 F50 to keep track of their suppliers, inventory, production schedules as well as marketing support. The system they purchased consists of the following components:

- F50 running AIX Version 4.3.2
- Single 166 MHz PowerPC 604e
- RAM 128 MB
- 3–4.5 GB SCSI Disk Drives
- 1–8 mm Tape Drive
- Integrated 10 Mbps Ethernet will be used to connect to their network.
- They anticipate seven users to be using the system, connecting with their PCs over the network.
- They will be using an off-the-shelf program with Sybase as their database.
- They will have two network printers.
- They have decided to create three Volume Groups (each on separate disk): rootvg, sybasevg, and dumpvg.

Scenario questions:

1. Using a customer's `vmtune` settings, which of the following parameters should be changed to help eliminate paging?

```bash
# vmtune
vmtune: current values:
-p       -P        -r          -R         -f       -F       -N        -W
minperm  maxperm  minpgahead maxpgahead  minfree  maxfree  pd_npages
maxrandwrt
 6344    25376       2          8        120      128     524288        0

-M      -w      -k      -c        -b         -B           -u        -l
maxpin npswarn npskill numclust numfsbufs hd_pbuf_cnt lvm_bufcnt lrubucket
defps
 26196    1024     256       1      93         64          9      131072
0

-s -n -S -h
sync_release ilock nokilluid v_pinshm strict_maxperm
 0     0           0          0          0

number of valid memory pages = 32744    maxperm=77.5% of real memory
maximum pinable=80.0% of real memory    minperm=19.4% of real memory
```
number of file memory pages = 24067     numperm=73.5% of real memory
A. maxpin
B. maxfree
C. maxperm
D. maxpgahead

2. Using the vmtune output, as shown in the exhibit, which of the following is the most probable cause for the high paging space allocation?

```
# vmtune
vmtune: current values:
      -p       -P        -r          -R         -f       -F       -N        -W 
minperm  maxperm  minpgahead maxpgahead  minfree  maxfree  pd_npages  
maxrandwrt  6344  25376  2          8        120      128     524288      0  
    -M      -w      -k      -c        -b         -B           -u        -l  
maxpin npswarn npskill numclust numfsbufs hd_pbucnt lvm_bufcnt lrubucket  
defps  26196  1024  256       1      93         64          9      131072  
   0  
    -s -n -S -h 
sync_release_ilock nokilluid v_pinshm strict_maxperm  
   0        0          0        0  
```

number of valid memory pages = 32744    maxperm=77.5% of real memory
maximum pinable=80.0% of real memory  minperm=19.4% of real memory
number of file memory pages = 24067     numperm=73.5% of real memory
A. defps is 0.
B. minpgahead is 2.
C. maxpgahead is 8.
D. maxfree is 128.

**8.1.1 Answers**

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.

1. C
2. A
8.2 Scenario two

MooCow Inc. has a single processor F50 with 512 MB of memory and four 4.5 GB SCSI drives. They have a flat IP network using the built-in 10 Mbps Ethernet adapter and are running AIX Version 4.3.3 with all the latest PTFs. The system administrator reboots the system every Sunday after their full-weekly backup. Throughout the week, the users notice degrading performance with the application A response time.

1. Which of the following tools should be used to begin gathering historical performance data on the system for a performance analysis?
   A. sar
   B. iostat
   C. netstat
   D. vmstat

2. MooCow Inc. has added a CPU, increased physical memory, and installed another two SCSI drives in order to support application B. Since application B has been installed, users are complaining about application response times during peak business hours.

Use the information provided in Figure 8-1, Figure 8-2 on page 279, Figure 8-3 on page 279, and Figure 8-4 on page 280 to help you with your answer.

```
# ps -ef | sort -r 43 -r | head
UID   PID   PPID  C   STIME  TTY   TIME CMD
user1 64954 65296 112 14:25:43 -   4:04 /usr/app/exp_report
user1 101194 1 38 14:10:15 pts/60 2:01 /opt/lotus/notes/la
test/ibmpow/notes
root  91686 90358  37 16:53:28 -   0:02 /opt/lotus/notes/la
test/ibmpow/notes
root  99544 99676  28 14:54:38 pts/59 0:00 ps -af
user2 61382 62482  10 10:41:19 - 105:12 /usr/netscape/commu
nicator/bid/netscape.aix4
user3 83414  1   7 09:28:52 pts/44 4:18 /opt/lotus/notes/la
test/ibmpow/notes
root  73950 71926  6 06:56:43 pts/3l 12:24 java com/ibm/retain
/clients/nco/NCDetail -pf austins_iba_zcm
user4 100330  1  5 14:07:50 pts/41 0:23 /opt/lotus/notes/la
test/ibmpow/notes
user3 56514  1  4 17:15:41 - 42:03 SoftWindows95
root  91182  1  4 10:45:54 pts/2l 3:10 /opt/lotus/notes/la
test/ibmpow/notes
```

Figure 8-1 The ps command output
Figure 8-2  The vmstat command output

```
$ vmstat 120 10
kthr memory page faults cpu
--------- -------- -------- -------- --------
 r b swa free re pi po sr sw sy csw us sy id ws
 5 1 15037 924  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 15756 674 91 10  0  0
 4 1 15950 956  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 592 7565 991 76 24  0  0
 5 1 15974 980  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 0 822 4055 992 81 19  0  0
 5 1 15815 860  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 0 835 4096 509 71 29  0  0
 2 1 12016 855  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 0 577 4562 599 81 17  0  0
 3 1 12816 757  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 502 2720 672 66 34  0  0
 2 1 12096 724  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 0 826 2642 699 82 10  0  0
 5 1 17187 724  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 849 6677 626 78 25  0  0
 2 1 17188 720  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 516 3628 543 78 22  0  0
 2 1 17182 720  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 624 9690 698 64 24  0  0
 3 1 17343 720  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 420 8777 487 71 29  0  0
 5 1 17575 712  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 465 2182 473 62 38  0  0
 2 1 17647 712  0  0  0 0 0 0 0 497 3286 310 62 27  0  0
```

Figure 8-3  The iostat command output

```
$ iostat 120 10
device   %usable %util %io %cpu
------------ -------------- -------------- --------------
hdisk0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk1 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk2 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk3 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk4 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk5 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk6 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
hdisk7 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
```

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Figure 8-4   The netstat command output

49 mbufs in use:
20 mbuf cluster pages in use
124 bytes allocated to mbufs
0 requests for mbufs denied
0 calls to protocol drain routines

Kernel malloc statistics:

******** CPU 0 ********

By size  inuse  calls  free  hvat  freed
32   111   2757   0   17   640   0
64   93   78910   0   35   320   0
128   66   605966   0   127   160   310
256   59   6401870   0   151   204   0
512   58   1128650   0   14   40   62
1024   0   385228   0   20   20   0
2048   1   771600   0   9   10   1
4096   24   20657956   0   31   120   0
8192   1   988682   0   9   10   0
16384   0   32157   0   20   24   7

******** CPU 1 ********

By size  inuse  calls  free  hvat  freed
32   13   2705   0   109   640   0
64   43   85988   0   85   320   0
128   64   579108   0   129   160   328
256   45   7777774   0   172   244   0
512   27   554403   0   23   40   25
1024   0   382623   0   20   20   0
2048   0   752292   0   10   10   2
4096   4   2000800   0   20   120   0
8192   2   98150   0   6   10   0
16384   1   29738   0   20   24   8

By type  inuse  calls  free  hvat  mbuf
Ahuf   47   285552088   0   12052   35448   0
socket   27   170600090   0   10892   301086   0
socket   203   3640002   0   20720   50176   0
pct   167   310578   0   29200   46300   0
kthread   9   50   0   1312   2280   0
fragtbl   0   9940   0   9940 0
ifaddr   7   0   0   32   0   0
ublk   24   2559183   0   3712   90368   0
ublkdata   7   49667   0   50176   126976   0
ublkdev   45   1269   0   9152   14734   0
ublkqueue   45   3251   0   23040   59424   0
ublkdsu   21   21   0   1344   1344   0
ublkpoll   0   1   0   0   0
ublknolock   0   3587   0   3587 0
ublkmutex   53   10555   0   6200   10350   0
ublkpoll   201   4044   0   24416   83376   0
Kernel table   43   143295   0   60768   96368   0
temp   7   52   0   14520   1540   0

Streams ublk statistic failures:
0 high priority ublk failures
0 medium priority ublk failures
0 low priority ublk failures
Chapter 8. Scenario assessment quiz

Using information provided in the exhibits, which of the following conclusions is most appropriate to draw about the problem on the system?

A. The system is CPU bound.
B. The system is I/O bound.
C. The system is memory bound.
D. The system is network bound.

3. Based on the statistics, which of the following reports helped to determine the problem?

A. The stime from the `ps` report
B. The % user and % sys metrics from the `iostat` report
C. The statistics from the b column in the `vmstat` report
D. The number of requests for mbufs denied from the `netstat` report

4. Which of the following procedures should be performed to remedy the situation?

A. Stripe the logical volumes.
B. Increase the tcp_sendspace to 65536.
C. Use `vmtune` to change the file system cache.
D. Move the `/usr/app/exp_report` process to off-peak hours.

5. The actions taken so far have only increased performance slightly. The service level agreement is still not being achieved. Which of the following procedures should be performed?

A. Install a PCI SCSI-RAID adapter.
B. Install another 512 MB of memory.
C. Upgrade to a four-way processor.
D. Upgrade to a 10/100 Ethernet adapter.

6. Which of the following should be implemented to balance available CPU/memory resources between applications?

A. Loadleveler
B. Nice/renice
C. Resource Manager
D. Workload Manager
7. MooCow Inc. is still experiencing performance problems. Using the output shown in Figure 8-5, which of the following conclusions is most appropriate to draw?

```
Figure 8-5  The vmstat and iostat command outputs
```

```
# vmstat 120 10
BEGIN            PAGE          CPU
----------  -----------  -----------
 r   b   s   a   c   p   d   w   e   s   a   c   p   d   w
 0   1   19932   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   638   1968   674   0   99   0
 0   1   19863   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   333   7446   593   0   99   0
 0   1   19974   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   4016   692   0   99   0
 0   1   18118   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   4016   692   0   99   0
 0   1   15016   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   14216   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   15595   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17147   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17068   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17163   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17923   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17519   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0
 0   1   17647   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0   0

# iostat 120 5
Device  T,U,S,A  I/O Rates  Sectors
---------  --------  ---------  -------
hdisk0  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
hdisk1  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
hdisk2  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
hdisk3  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
hdisk4  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
hdisk5  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0
cd0   0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0

```

Figure 8-5  The vmstat and iostat command outputs
8. Given the details of the exhibit, which of the following procedures should be performed to fix the bottleneck?
   A. Add CPU(s).
   B. Add 512 MB of memory.
   C. Stripe the logical volumes.
   D. Implement a switched Ethernet.

9. The backups for a system are being taken over the network to a TSM Server. Unfortunately, they are taking too long and the service level agreement is not being met with the customer. Based upon the current configuration and details shown in the exhibit, which of the following tuning procedures should be performed to improve the file system’s backup performance?
   A. Increase the maxfree value using `vmtune`.
   B. Increase the mult value using `schedtune`.
   C. Increase the queue length on the disk drives using `chdev`.
   D. Increase the tcp_sendspace and tcp_recvspace on your system and the TSM Server.

10. The backups are still not meeting the service level agreement. It has been suggested that you re-examine the I/O performance.

```
# lspv
hdisk0  000038744c632197 rootvg
```

```
# lsvg
rootvg
datavg
```

```
# lsps -s
Total Paging Space Percent Used
100MB  37%
```

```
# lsps -a
Page Space Physical Volume Volume Group Size %Used Active Auto
Type
hd6    hdisk0    rootvg  100MB  38 yes yes
```

```
# lsps -a
Page Space Physical Volume Volume Group Size %Used Active Auto
Type
hd6    hdisk0    rootvg  100MB  38 yes yes
```

```
# lsvg
rootvg
datavg
```

```
# lspv
hdisk0  000038744c632197 rootvg
```

A. The system is CPU bound.
B. The system is I/O bound.
C. The system is memory bound.
D. The system is network bound.
hdisk1  00002199abf65a1a  datavg
hdisk2  00000228b9c5d7da  datavg
hdisk3  00002199b40b728c  datavg

# lspv -l hdisk0
hdisk0:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LV NAME</th>
<th>LPs</th>
<th>PPs</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION</th>
<th>MOUNT POINT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hd5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>02..00..00..00..00</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>02..00..04..00..00</td>
<td>/tmp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd2</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>00..47..42..28..00</td>
<td>/usr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00..00..01..00..00</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>00..00..02..00..00</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd9var</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00..00..01..00..00</td>
<td>/var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd6</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>29..50..49..00..00</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hd1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>00..00..01..02..00</td>
<td>/home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lv00</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>00..00..00..10..00</td>
<td>/database</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# lspv -l hdisk1
hdisk1:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LV NAME</th>
<th>LPs</th>
<th>PPs</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION</th>
<th>MOUNT POINT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>loglv00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>01..00..00..00..00</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lv01</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>00..00..00..00..10</td>
<td>/db01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lv02</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>00..00..00..00..10</td>
<td>/db02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lv03</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10..00..00..00..00</td>
<td>/db03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# lspv -l hdisk2
hdisk2:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LV NAME</th>
<th>LPs</th>
<th>PPs</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION</th>
<th>MOUNT POINT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

# lspv -l hdisk3
hdisk3:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LV NAME</th>
<th>LPs</th>
<th>PPs</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTION</th>
<th>MOUNT POINT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

# lslv lv01
LOGICAL VOLUME: lv01
LV IDENTIFIER: 000081962b29b51.1 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: opened/syncd
TYPE: jfs WRITE VERIFY: off
MAX LPs: 512 PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
COPIES: 1 SCHED POLICY: parallel
LPs: 1 PPs: 1
STALE PPs: 0 BB POLICY: relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle UPPER BOUND: 32
Chapter 8. Scenario assessment quiz

LOGICAL VOLUME: lv01 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
MOUNT POINT: /db01 LABEL: /db01
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes

LOGICAL VOLUME: lv02 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
LV IDENTIFIER: 0000881962b29b51.3 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: opened/syncd
TYPE: jfs WRITE VERIFY: off
MAX LPs: 512 PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
COPIES: 1 SCHED POLICY: parallel
LPs: 1 PPs: 1
STALE PPs: 0 BB POLICY: relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle UPPER BOUND: 32
MOUNT POINT: /db02 LABEL: /db02
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes

LOGICAL VOLUME: lv03 VOLUME GROUP: datavg
LV IDENTIFIER: 0000881962b29b51.4 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE: opened/syncd
TYPE: jfs WRITE VERIFY: off
MAX LPs: 512 PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
COPIES: 1 SCHED POLICY: parallel
LPs: 1 PPs: 1
STALE PPs: 0 BB POLICY: relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle UPPER BOUND: 32
MOUNT POINT: /db03 LABEL: /db03
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
Using information provided in the exhibits, which of the following procedures should be performed to improve the I/O performance?

A. Change the stripe size to 32 KB.
B. Adjust the value of maxrmdwrt.
C. Upgrade your disk subsystem to RAID 5.
D. Move each file system to separate disks.

11. The actions taken so far have helped, but more actions are necessary. Which of the following procedures should be performed to accelerate performance of the I/O?

A. Disable the write consistency check.
B. Add a JFS log for each file system.
C. Increase the maxpin parameter with vmtune.
D. Increase the syncd frequency from 60 to 10.

8.2.1 Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.

1. A
2. A
3. B
4. D
5. C
6. D
7. D
8. D
9. D
10. D
11. B
The error log

The following topics are discussed in this appendix:

- A general discussion about the error logging subsystem
- How to manage error logs
- How to read error logs

The error log is the first place where an administrator will search for the cause of improper system performance.
Overview

The error-logging process begins when an operating system module detects an error. The error-detecting segment of code then sends error information to either the errsave and errlast kernel services or the errlog application subroutine where the information is, in turn, written to the /dev/error special file. This process then adds a timestamp to the collected data. The errdemon daemon constantly checks the /dev/error file for new entries, and when new data is written, the daemon conducts a series of operations.

Before an entry is written to the error log, the errdemon daemon compares the label sent by the kernel or application code to the contents of the error record template repository. If the label matches an item in the repository, the daemon collects additional data from other parts of the system.

The system administrator can look at the error log to determine what caused a failure, or to periodically check the health of the system when it is running.

The software components that allow the AIX kernel and commands to log errors to the error log are contained in the fileset bos.rte.serv_aid. This fileset is automatically installed as part of the AIX installation process.

The commands that allow you to view and manipulate the error log, such as the errpt and errclear commands, are contained in the fileset called bos.sysmgt.serv_aid. This fileset is not automatically installed by earlier releases of AIX Version 4. Use the following command to check whether the package is installed on your system:

```
# lslpp -l bos.sysmgt.serv_aid
```

### Managing the error log

Error logging is automatically started during system initialization by the /sbin/rc.boot script and is automatically stopped during system shutdown by the shutdown script. The part of /sbin/rc.boot that starts error logging looks like:

```
if [ -x /usr/lib/errdemon ]
```
then
  echo "Starting the error daemon" | alog -t boot
  /usr/bin/rm -f /tmp/errdemon.$$ 
  /usr/lib/errdemon >/tmp/errdemon.$$ 2>&1 
  if [ $? -ne 0 ]
  then
    cat /tmp/errdemon.$$ | alog -t boot
    echo "Starting the errdemon with the system default" \ 
    "log file, /var/adm/ras/errlog." | alog -t boot 
    /usr/lib/errdemon -i /var/adm/ras/errlog
  fi 
fi 
/usr/bin/rm -f /tmp/errdemon.$$ 

As you can see, the /usr/lib/errdemon command starts error logging and initializes /var/adm/ras/errlog as a default log file.

Configuring error log

You can customize the name and location of the error log file and the size of the internal error buffer to suit your needs.

To list the current settings, run the /usr/lib/errdemon -l command. The values for the error log file name, error log file size, and buffer size that are currently stored in the error log configuration database are displayed on your screen.

# /usr/lib/errdemon -l

Error Log Attributes
--------------------------------------------
Log File                /var/adm/ras/errlog
Log Size                1048576 bytes
Memory Buffer Size      8192 bytes

You can change all of values listed above:

- To change the name of the file used for error logging, run:
  # /usr/lib/errdemon -i /var/adm/ras/errlog.new
  
The /var/adm/ras/errlog.new file name is saved in the error log configuration database and the error daemon is immediately restarted.

- To change the maximum size of the error log file to 2000000 bytes, type:
  # /usr/lib/errdemon -s 2000000
  
The specified log file size limit is saved in the error log configuration database and the error daemon is immediately restarted.
To change the size of the error log device driver's internal buffer to 16384 bytes, enter:

```
# /usr/lib/errdemon -B 16384
```

0315-175 The error log memory buffer size you supplied will be rounded up to a multiple of 4096 bytes.

The specified buffer size is saved in the error log configuration database and, if it is larger than the buffer size currently in use, the in-memory buffer is immediately increased. The size you specify is rounded up to the next integral multiple of the memory page size (4 KBs).

**Note:** The memory used for the error log device driver's in-memory buffer is not available for use by other processes (the buffer is pinned).

Now verify what you did with the following command. Note the highlighted values reflect the changes you made:

```
# /usr/lib/errdemon -l
Error Log Attributes
--------------------------------------------
Log File /var/adm/ras/errlog.new
Log Size 2000000 bytes
Memory Buffer Size 16384 bytes
```

**Clearing the error log**

Clearing of the error log implies deleting old or unnecessary entries from the error log. Clearing is normally done as part of the daily *cron* command execution. To check it, type:

```
# crontab -l | grep errclear
0 11 * * * /usr/bin/errclear -d S,0 30
0 12 * * * /usr/bin/errclear -d H 90
```

If it is not done automatically, you should probably clean the error log regularly.

To delete all the entries from the error log, use the following command:

```
# errclear 0
```

To selectively remove entries from the error log, for example, to delete all software error entries, use the following command:

```
# errclear -d S 0
```

To selectively remove entries from the error log, for example, to delete all hardware error entries, use the following command:

```
# errclear -d H 0
```
Alternatively, use the `smitty errclear` command.

**Reading error logs in details**

You can generate an error report from data collected in the error log. There are two main ways to view the error log:

- The easiest way to read the error log entries is with the `smitty errpt` command. Output from this command is shown in Figure A-1.

```
Figure A-1  smitty errpt output
```

- The second way to display error log entries is with the `errpt` command. It allows flags for selecting errors that match specific criteria. By using the default condition, you can display error log entries in the reverse order they occurred and were recorded.

**The errpt command output**

By using the `-c` flag, you can display errors as they occur. The default summary report contains one line of data for each error:

```
# errpt | pg
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION
2BFA76F6   0627172400 T S SYSPROC  SYSTEM SHUTDOWN BY USER
9DBCFDEE   0627172700 T O errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
```

Appendix A. The error log  291
The fields used in this report are discussed in the following sections.

**Identifier**

Numerical identifier for the event.

**Timestamp**

Time when the error occurs in format mmddhhmmyy. The timestamp 0627172400 indicates that the error occurred June 27th at 17:24 (5:24 p.m.) year 00 (year 2000).

**Type**

Severity of the error that has occurred. There are six possible values:

- **PEND** The loss of availability of a device or component is imminent.
- **PERF** The performance of the device or component has degraded to below an acceptable level.
- **PERM** A condition has occurred that could not be recovered from. Error types with this value are usually the most severe errors and are more likely to mean that you have a defective hardware device or software module. Error types other than PERM usually do not indicate a defect, but they are recorded so that they can be analyzed by the diagnostics programs.
- **TEMP** A condition occurred that was recovered from after a number of unsuccessful attempts.
- **UNKN** It is not possible to determine the severity of the error.
- **INFO** The error log entry is informational and was not the result of an error.

**Class**

General source of the error. The possible error classes are:

- **H** Hardware. When you receive a hardware error, refer to your system operator guide for information about performing diagnostics on the problem device or other piece of equipment.
- **S** Software.
O Informational messages.
U Undetermined (for example, network).

Resource name
For software errors, this is the name of a software component or an executable program. For hardware errors, this is the name of a device or system component. It is used to determine the appropriate diagnostic modules that are to be used to analyze the error.

Description
A brief summary of the error.

Formatted output from errpt command
The following list provides a series of format options for the **errpt** command.

- To list all hardware errors, enter:

```
# errpt -d H
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IDENTIFIER</th>
<th>TIMESTAMP</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>RESOURCE_NAME</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1581762B</td>
<td>0627132600</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>cd0</td>
<td>DISK OPERATION ERROR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1581762B</td>
<td>0627132000</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>cd0</td>
<td>DISK OPERATION ERROR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1581762B</td>
<td>0627131900</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>cd0</td>
<td>DISK OPERATION ERROR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1581762B</td>
<td>0627131900</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>cd0</td>
<td>DISK OPERATION ERROR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5BF9FD4D</td>
<td>0615173700</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>PROBLEM RESOLVED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615161700</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615161600</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615161600</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5BF9FD4D</td>
<td>0615155900</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>PROBLEM RESOLVED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615151400</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615151300</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615151300</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2A9F5252</td>
<td>0615151300</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>tok0</td>
<td>WIRE FAULT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- To get a detailed report of all software errors, enter:

```
# errpt -a -d S | pg
```

```
---------------------------------------------------
LABEL:         REBOOT_ID
IDENTIFIER:    2BFA76F6
Date/Time:      Tue Jun 27 17:24:55
Sequence Number: 33
Machine Id:      006151424C00
Node Id:        server4
Class:           S
Type:            TEMP
Resource Name:   SYSPROC
```
Description
SYSTEM SHUTDOWN BY USER

Probable Causes
SYSTEM SHUTDOWN

Detail Data
USER ID
0
0=SOFT IPL 1=HALT 2=TIME REBOOT
0
TIME TO REBOOT (FOR TIMED REBOOT ONLY)
0

To display a report of all errors logged for the error identifier E18E984F, enter:

```
# errpt -j E18E984F
```

```
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP  T C RESOURCE_NAME  DESCRIPTION
E18E984F   0627100000 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0627095400 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0627093000 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0626182100 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0626181400 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
```

To display a report of all errors that occur after June 26, 2000 at 18:14 (time), enter:

```
# errpt -s 0626181400
```

```
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP  T C RESOURCE_NAME  DESCRIPTION
2BFA76F6   0627122400 T S SYSPROC        SYSTEM SHUTDOWN BY USER
9DBCFDEE   0627127700 T O errdemon       ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
9DBCFDEE   0627127700 T O errdemon       ERROR LOGGING TURNED OFF
192AC071   0627120000 T H cd0            DISK OPERATION ERROR
1581762B   0627120000 T H cd0            DISK OPERATION ERROR
1581762B   0627120000 T H cd0            DISK OPERATION ERROR
1581762B   0627120000 T H cd0            DISK OPERATION ERROR
E18E984F   0627095400 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0627093000 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0627092100 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0627092100 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
2BFA76F6   0627092100 T S SYSPROC        SYSTEM SHUTDOWN BY USER
9DBCFDEE   0627092900 T O errdemon       ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
9DBCFDEE   0627092900 T O errdemon       ERROR LOGGING TURNED OFF
369D049B   0626185000 I O SYSPFS         UNABLE TO ALLOCATE SPACE IN FILE
SYSTEM
E18E984F   0626182100 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F   0626181400 P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
To obtain all the errors with resource name cd0 from the error log, enter:

```
# errpt -N cd0
```

```
IDENTIFIER  TIMESTAMP  T C RESOURCE_NAME  DESCRIPTION
1501762B  0627132600  T H cd0  DISK OPERATION ERROR
1501762B  0627132000  T H cd0  DISK OPERATION ERROR
1501762B  0627131900  T H cd0  DISK OPERATION ERROR
1501762B  0627131900  T H cd0  DISK OPERATION ERROR
```

The `-c` flag formats and displays each of the error entries concurrently, that is, at the time they are logged. The existing entries in the log file are displayed in the order in which they were logged. An example below:

```
# errpt -c
```

```
IDENTIFIER  TIMESTAMP  T C RESOURCE_NAME  DESCRIPTION
9DBCFDEE  0823160702  T O errdemon       ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
2BFA76F6  0823160002  T S SYSPROC        SYSTEM SHUTDOWN BY USER
FFE305EE  0823160702  P H tok0           WIRE FAULT
75CE5DC5  0823160702  I H tok0           ADAPTER ERROR
E18E984F  0823160802  P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F  0823160802  P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
E18E984F  0823160802  P S SRC            SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
FFE305EE  0823160802  P H tok0           WIRE FAULT
```

## Command summary

The following section discusses the `errpt` command.

### The `errpt` command

The `errpt` command generates an error report from entries in an error log. The command has the following syntax:

```
errpt [ -a ] [ -c ] [ -d ErrorClassList ] [ -e EndDate ] [ -j ErrorID ]
[ -s StartDate ] [ -N ResourceNameList ] [ -S ResourceClassList ]
[ -T ErrorTypeList ]
```

The commonly used flags are listed in Table A-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>-a</code></td>
<td>Displays information about errors in the error log file in detailed format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>-c</code></td>
<td>Formats and displays each of the error entries concurrently, that is, at the time they are logged. The existing entries in the log file are displayed in the order in which they were logged.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Quiz

The following assessment question helps verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this appendix.

1. Which of the following commands should be used to list the system errors logged following February 29, 2000?

   A. `/usr/bin/errpt -s 0301000000`
   B. `/usr/bin/lssrc -s 0301000000`
   C. `/usr/lib/errdemon -s 0301000000`
   D. `/usr/sbin/syslogd -m 0301000000`

Flag | Description
--- | ---
-d ErrorClassList | Limits the error report to certain types of error records specified by the valid ErrorClassList variables: H (hardware), S (software), 0 (errlogger command messages), and U (undetermined).
-e EndDate | Specifies all records posted prior to and including the EndDate variable.
-j ErrorID | Includes only the error-log entries specified by the ErrorID (error identifier) variable.
-s StartDate | Specifies all records posted on and after the StartDate variable.
-N ResourceNameList | Generates a report of resource names specified by the ResourceNameList variable. The ResourceNameList variable is a list of names of resources that have detected errors.
-S ResourceClassList | Generates a report of resource classes specified by the ResourceClassList variable.
-T ErrorTypeList | Limits the error report to error types specified by the valid ErrorTypeList variables: INFO, PEND, PERF, PERM, TEMP, and UNKN.
Answers

The following is the preferred answer to the question provided in this section.
1. A

Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this appendix.
1. Change the default error log attributes.
2. Using the `errpt` command, generate a report of errors caused by the errdemon resource.
3. Using the `errpt` command, generate a report of software errors, but limit it to temporary errors.
4. Generate the same reports using the `smitty` tool.
5. Delete all software logs.
Installing the performance tools

Anyone faced with the task of keeping a computer system well tuned and capable of performing as expected recognizes the following areas as essential for success:

**Load monitoring**  Resource load must be monitored so performance problems can be detected as they occur or (preferably) predicted before they do.

**Analysis and control**  Once a performance problem is encountered, the proper tools must be selected and applied so that the nature of the problem can be understood and corrective action taken.

**Capacity planning**  Long-term capacity requirements must be analyzed so that sufficient resources can be acquired before they are required.
Tools and filesets

The intention of this section is to give you a list of all the performance tools discussed in this book together with the path that is used to call the command and the fileset the tool is part of.

Many of the performance tools are located in filesets that obviously would contain them, such as bos.perf.tools or perfagent.tools. However, some of them are located in filesets that are not quite as obvious. Common examples are vmtune or schedtune, which are both part of the bos.adt.samples fileset. You will often find that this fileset is not installed on a system because it does not contain performance tools.

Table B-1 lists the tools discussed in this book, their full path names, and their fileset information.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Command or tool</th>
<th>Full path name</th>
<th>Fileset name.URL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>3dmon</td>
<td>/usr/bin/3dmon</td>
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</tr>
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<td>alstat</td>
<td>/usr/bin/alstat</td>
<td>bos.perf.tools</td>
</tr>
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<td>/usr/bin/atmstat</td>
<td>devices.common.IBM.atm.rte</td>
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<td>devices.chrp.base.rte</td>
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<td>ftp://software.ibm.com/</td>
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<td>/usr/bin/entstat</td>
<td>devices.common.IBM.ethernet.rte</td>
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<td>/usr/lpp/ssp/css/css</td>
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<td>devices.common.IBM.fddi.rte</td>
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<td>Fileset name/URL</td>
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<td>/usr/bin/gprof</td>
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<td>bos.acct</td>
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<td>/usr/bin/ipcs</td>
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<td>bos.adt.prof</td>
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<td>/usr/bin/renice</td>
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<td>Full path name</td>
<td>Fileset name/URL</td>
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<td>bos.adt.samples</td>
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</table>
Tools by resource matrix

This section contains a table of the AIX monitoring and tuning tools (Table B-2) and what system resources (CPU, memory, disk I/O, network I/O) they obtain statistics for. Tools that are used by trace, that post-process the trace output, or that are directly related to trace are listed in the Trace tools column. Tools that are useful for application development are listed in the Application development column.

Table B-2  Performance tools by resource matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
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<th>Memory</th>
<th>Disk I/O</th>
<th>Network I/O</th>
<th>Trace tools</th>
<th>Application Development</th>
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The bos.perf package, part of the base operating system, contains the bos.perf.diag_tool fileset with the performance diagnostic tool. Performance PMR data collection scripts were removed from this fileset in AIX Version 4.3.3. They are available from the IBM support download Web site. In AIX 5L Version 5.1, the bos.perf.diag_tool fileset is part of base operating system.

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<th>CPU</th>
<th>Memory</th>
<th>Disk I/O</th>
<th>Network I/O</th>
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<td>topas</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tprof</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trace</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trcnm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trcrpt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trpt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>truss</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vmstat</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vmtune</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wlmmon</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wlmperf</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wlmstat</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Performance Toolbox

The Performance Toolbox is a Motif-based, AIX Licensed Program Product (LPP) that consolidates AIX performance tools in a toolbox framework. Users can easily access tools for system and network performance tuning, monitoring, and analysis. It consists of two major components: Performance Toolbox Manager and Performance Toolbox Agent. The Performance Toolbox Manager has three packages:

**perfmgr.local**
This package contains the commands and utilities that allow monitoring of only the local system.

**perfmgr.network**
This package contains the commands and utilities that allow monitoring of remote systems as well as the local system.

**perfmgr.common**
This package contains the commands and utilities that are common between the network support and the local support.

The Performance Toolbox Agent has one package:

**perfagent.server**
This package contains the performance agent component required by Performance Toolbox as well as some local AIX analysis and control tools.

The packaging of the older levels of the Performance Toolbox contained two system-level dependant filesets named perfagent.server and perfagent.tool, causing installation misunderstandings. To reduce confusion over operating system compatibility, the pieces that are required to be built with the AIX kernel have been moved into the perfagent.tools fileset. The agent is now, mainly, an interface routine to those pieces.

Starting with AIX Version 4.3.2, the perfagent.tools fileset is shipped with the base. For AIX Version 4.3.2 and above, the Performance Toolbox Agent will require perfagent.tools as a prerequisite. Therefore, the tools fileset must be installed first.

Table B-3 lists the various minimum fileset levels required with a particular AIX level.

**Table B-3  Performance Toolbox releases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AIX version</th>
<th>Performance Agent</th>
<th>Performance Manager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AIX 4.1.5</td>
<td>perfagent 2.1.6.0</td>
<td>perfmgr 2.2.1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>perfmgr.common 2.2.1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>perfmgr.local 2.2.1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>perfmgr.network 2.2.1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As listed, the Performance Manager releases remain the same throughout AIX Version 4.1.5 to 4.3.3. However, you should choose the correct version of the Agent component, because it will only work properly when installed on the correct level of AIX.

Before you install Performance Toolbox software, you have to determine the AIX and the maintenance level of your system. To determine the AIX and maintenance level of the system, enter the following command:

```
# oslevel
5.1.0.0
```

The current maintenance level of the system shown in this example is 5.1.0.0. To list the names of known maintenance levels, use the following command:

```
# oslevel -q
Known Maintenance Levels
-------------------------
5.1.0.0
5.0.0.0
```

To determine the filesets at levels later than the current AIX maintenance level, enter:

```
# oslevel -g|more
```
Another command that can be used to determine the software levels installed is the `instfix` command. To list the names of installed maintenance levels on another server with AIX5L Version 5.1 installed, use the following command:

```bash
# instfix -i |grep ML
```

```text
All filesets for 5.0.0.0_AIX_ML were found.
All filesets for 5.1.0.0_AIX_ML were found.
All filesets for 5100-01_AIX_ML were found.
All filesets for 5100-02_AIX_ML were found.
```

The `instfix` command allows you to install a fix or set of fixes without knowing any information other than the Authorized Program Analysis Report (APAR) number. The `instfix` command also allows you to determine if a fix is installed on your system.

The `oslevel` command reports the level of the operating system using a subset of all filesets installed on your system. These filesets include the Base Operating System (BOS), and the device drivers and base printers. The `oslevel` command also prints information about maintenance levels, including which filesets are not at a specified maintenance level.

To check if any of the Performance Toolbox packages are installed, use the following command:

```bash
# lslpp -l perf*
```

```text
Fileset                      Level  State      Description
----------------------------------------------------------------------------
Path: /usr/lib/objrepos                 5.1.0.25            5.1.0.0
perf-agent.server           3.0.0.0  COMMITTED  Performance Agent Daemons & Utilities
perfmgr.common             3.0.0.0  COMMITTED  Performance Toolbox Manager - Common Support
perfmgr.network            3.0.0.0  COMMITTED  Performance Toolbox Manager - Network Support
```
Path: /etc/objrepos
perfagent.server 3.0.0.0 COMMITTED Performance Agent Daemons & Utilities

You can receive similar information using the `smitty list_software` command. The output is shown in Figure B-1.

![Figure B-1 smitty list_software output](image)

If you are missing some filesets and have media containing the Performance Toolbox software, you can check what it contains. You can use either the `installp` command or `smitty`. The Web-based System Manager is an additional tool for system administration and is the strategic interface.

The output from the `installp` command appears as follows:

```plaintext
# installp -ld . -I
Fileset Name Level I/U Q Content
====================================================================
perfagent.server 3.0.0.0 I N usr,root
# Performance Agent Daemons & Utilities
perfmgr.common 3.0.0.0 I N usr
# Performance Toolbox Manager - Common Support
perfmgr.network 3.0.0.0 I N usr
# Performance Toolbox Manager - Network Support
```
This indicates that the media contains both components: The Performance Toolbox Manager and the Performance Toolbox Agent.

The next step is to install the Performance Toolbox. The most direct way to install software is with the `smitty install_all` command, as shown in Figure B-2.

```
Figure B-2  smitty install_all
```

Do not commit software until you are sure that the installation process does not impact the system. After installation, check the $HOME/smit.log file for errors and run the `lppchk` command to verify a successful installation process. If everything is normal, you can commit your installation with the `installp -c all` command. Or use SMIT as shown below:

```
# smitty commit
```
Figure B-3   Commit software updates

Clean up any failed installation with the `installp -C` command.

For example, to check that you have the filesets installed for both the manager and agent part, perform the following steps (a server with AIX Version 4.3.3 was used).

For the agent, enter the following command:

```
# lslpp -l perfagent.*
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fileset</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perfagent.html.en_US.usergd</td>
<td>4.3.0.0</td>
<td>COMMITTED</td>
<td>Performance Toolbox Guides - U. S. English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfagent.server</td>
<td>2.2.32.3</td>
<td>APPLIED</td>
<td>Performance Agent Daemons &amp; Utilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfagent.tools</td>
<td>2.2.34.0</td>
<td>COMMITTED</td>
<td>Local Performance Analysis &amp; Control Commands</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Path: /etc/objrepos

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fileset</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perfagent.server</td>
<td>2.2.30.0</td>
<td>COMMITTED</td>
<td>Performance Agent Daemons &amp; Utilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the manager, enter the following command:

```
# lslpp -l perfmgr.*
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fileset</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perfmgr.common</td>
<td>2.2.1.5</td>
<td>APPLIED</td>
<td>Performance Toolbox Manager Common Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfmgr.local</td>
<td>2.2.1.7</td>
<td>APPLIED</td>
<td>Performance Toolbox Manager Local Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfmgr.network</td>
<td>2.2.1.7</td>
<td>APPLIED</td>
<td>Performance Toolbox Manager Network Support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examine what is inside the filesets that you installed. This completes the installation:

```
# lslpp -f perfmgr.local
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fileset</th>
<th>File</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perfmgr.local</td>
<td>/usr/lpp/perfmgr/local/3dmon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/usr/lpp/perfmgr/local/exmon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/usr/lpp/perfmgr/local/xmperf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/usr/lpp/perfmgr/README.perfmgr.local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/usr/lpp/perfmgr/local/ptxrlog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another tool used by IBM support personnel is `perfpmr`, a collection facility that uses standard AIX performance commands. Go to the following site and follow the readme file for further instructions on how to install this utility:

```
```

### Command summary

The following section provides a list of the key commands discussed in this appendix.

### The installp command

The `installp` command is a very useful and powerful software installation tool.
To install with apply only or with apply and commit:

```
installp [-a | -ac [-N]] [-eLogFile] [-V Number] [-dDevice] [-b]
[-F | -g] [-O { [r] [s] [u]}] [-tSaveDirectory] [-w]
[-zBlockSize] { FileName Name [Level]... | -f ListFile | all }
```

To commit applied updates:

```
[-X] [-O { [r] [s] [u]}] [-w] { FileName Name [Level]... | -f
ListFile | all }
```

To reject applied updates:

```
[-O { [r] [s] [u]}] [-w] { FileName Name [Level]... | -f
ListFile }
```

To uninstall (remove) installed software:

```
[-O { [r] [s] [u]}] [-w] { FileName Name [Level]... | -f
ListFile }
```

To clean up a failed installation:

```
installp -C [-b] [-eLogFile]
```

To list all installable software on a selected media:

```
[-zBlockSize] [-O { [s] [u]}]
```

To list all customer-reported problems fixed with software or display all
supplemental information:

```
[-zBlockSize] [-O { [s] [u]}] { FileName Name [Level]... | -f
ListFile | all }
```

To list installed updates that are applied but not committed:

```
installp -s [-eLogFile] [ -O { [r] [s] [u]}] [-w]
{ FileName Name [Level]... | -fListFile | all }
```

Table B-4 provides a general summary of some useful **installp** flags.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>General installp summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ac</td>
<td>Commits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The `lslpp` command

The `lslpp` command displays information about installed filesets or fileset updates. The command has the following syntax:

```
lslpp { -f | -h | -i | -L } [ -a ] [ FilesetName ... | FixID ... | all ]
```

Table B-5 provides a general summary of some useful `lslpp` flags.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-g</td>
<td>Includes requisites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-N</td>
<td>Overrides saving of existing files</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-q</td>
<td>Quiet mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-w</td>
<td>Does not place a wildcard at end of fileset name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-X</td>
<td>Attempts to expand file system size if needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-d</td>
<td>Inputs device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l</td>
<td>Lists installable filesets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-c</td>
<td>Commits an applied fileset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-C</td>
<td>Cleans up after an failed installation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-u</td>
<td>Uninstalls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-r</td>
<td>Rejects an applied fileset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-p</td>
<td>Previews installation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
<td>Defines an installation log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-F</td>
<td>Forces overwrite of same or newer version</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-a</td>
<td>Displays all the information about filesets specified when combined with other flags.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-f</td>
<td>Displays the names of the files added to the system during installation of the specified fileset. This flag cannot be specified with the -a flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-h</td>
<td>Displays the installation and update history information for the specified fileset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-i</td>
<td>Displays the product information for the specified fileset.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The `lppchk` command

The `lppchk` command verifies files of an installable software product. The command has the following syntax:

```
 lppchk { -c | -f | -l | -v } [ -O { [ r ] [ s ] [ u ] } ]
 [ ProductName [ FileList ... ] ]
```

Table B-6 provides a general summary of some useful `lppchk` flags.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-L</td>
<td>Displays the name, most recent level, state, and description of the specified fileset. Part of the information (usr, root, and share) is consolidated into the same listing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-w</td>
<td>Lists fileset that owns this file.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B-6   Commonly used flags of the lppchk command

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-c</td>
<td>Performs a checksum operation on the FileList items and verifies that the checksum and the file size are consistent with the SWVPD database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-f</td>
<td>Checks that the FileList items are present and the file size matches the SWVPD database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-l</td>
<td>Verifies symbolic links for files as specified in the SWVPD database.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-O { [r] [s] [u]}</td>
<td>Verifies the specified parts of the program. The flags specify the following parts: root, share, usr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Quiz

The following assessment questions help verify your understanding of the topics discussed in this appendix.

1. Which of the following commands should be used to obtain information about the level of the operating system and conformance with maintenance levels?
   A. lslpp
   B. uname
   C. oslevel
   D. rpcinfo

2. Which of the following commands should be used to obtain information about the installed software filesets?
   A. lslpp
   B. uname
   C. oslevel
   D. rpcinfo

3. Which of the following commands should be used to obtain information about the fixes available on some media?
   A. installp -Ad . all
   B. /usr/sbin/inutoc .
   C. lsresource -dl rmt0
   D. /usr/sbin/lsattr -Dl rmt0

4. Which of the following commands should be used to commit applied filesets?
   A. /usr/sbin/lsattr
   B. /usr/sbin/inutoc
   C. /usr/sbin/installp
   D. /usr/sbin/lsresource

5. An AIX Version 4.3 system must be evaluated and tuned. In order to use a set of performance tools (for example, filemon, svmon, and tprof) which of the following packages should exist on the system in question?
   A. Java.adt
   B. bos.perf
   C. bos.adt.utils
   D. perfagent.tools
6. Which of the following packages once contained the Performance PMR Data Collection scripts (removed in AIX Version 4.3.3, although they are available for download from the perfpmr site)?
   A. bos.perf
   B. Java.adt
   C. bos.adt.utils
   D. perfagent.tools

7. Which of the following resources will provide the latest available performance data capture tools?
   A. The system’s software depositories
   B. The IBM support download Web site
   C. The standard documentation included with the system
   D. The software distribution media included with the system

8. Which of the following filesets is used to install tprof?
   A. bos.acct
   B. bos.perf.pmr
   C. bos.rte.control
   D. perfagent.tools

9. The components xmperrf, 3dmon, and 3dplay are part of the Performance Toolbox contained in which of the following packages?
   A. perfmgr
   B. perfagent.server
   C. perfagent.tools
   D. perfagent.client
Answers

The following are the preferred answers to the questions provided in this section.

1. C
2. A
3. A
4. C
5. D
6. A
7. B
8. D
9. A

Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this appendix.

1. Use the lslpp command to list installed filesets.
2. Use the lslpp command to find out which fileset is used to package a given command.
3. Use the lslpp command to display state, description, and all updates of the different filesets.
4. Use the oslevel command to determine the filesets at levels later than the current AIX maintenance level.
## Abbreviations and acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABI</td>
<td>Application Binary Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Alternating Current</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACL</td>
<td>Access Control List</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADSM</td>
<td>ADSTAR Distributed Storage Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADSTAR</td>
<td>Advanced Storage and Retrieval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFPA</td>
<td>Adaptive Fast Path Architecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFS</td>
<td>Andrew File System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AH</td>
<td>Authentication Header</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIX</td>
<td>Advanced Interactive Executive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANSI</td>
<td>American National Standards Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APAR</td>
<td>Authorized Program Analysis Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>API</td>
<td>Application Programming Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARP</td>
<td>Address Resolution Protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASCI</td>
<td>Accelerated Strategic Computing Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASCII</td>
<td>American National Standards Code for Information Interchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASR</td>
<td>Address Space Register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATM</td>
<td>Asynchronous Transfer Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AuditRM</td>
<td>Audit Log Resource Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUI</td>
<td>Attached Unit Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWT</td>
<td>Abstract Window Toolkit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BCT</td>
<td>Branch on Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFF</td>
<td>Backup File Format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>Business Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIND</td>
<td>Berkeley Internet Name Daemon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIST</td>
<td>Built-In Self-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLAS</td>
<td>Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLOB</td>
<td>Binary Large Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLV</td>
<td>Boot Logical Volume</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOOTP</td>
<td>Boot Protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOS</td>
<td>Base Operating System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSC</td>
<td>Binary Synchronous Communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAD</td>
<td>Computer-Aided Design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAE</td>
<td>Computer-Aided Engineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAM</td>
<td>Computer-Aided Manufacturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATE</td>
<td>Certified Advanced Technical Expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATIA</td>
<td>Computer-Graphics Aided Three-Dimensional Interactive Application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCM</td>
<td>Common Character Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>Compact Disk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDE</td>
<td>Common Desktop Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDLIE</td>
<td>Common Data Link Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD-R</td>
<td>CD Recordable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CD-ROM</td>
<td>Compact Disk-Read Only Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>Customer Engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEC</td>
<td>Central Electronics Complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFD</td>
<td>Computational Fluid Dynamics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGE</td>
<td>Common Graphics Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHRP</td>
<td>Common Hardware Reference Platform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>CISPR</td>
<td>International Special Committee on Radio Interference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIO/S</td>
<td>Client Input/Output Sockets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLVM</td>
<td>Concurrent LVM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMOS</td>
<td>Complimentary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor</td>
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<td>CMP</td>
<td>Certificate Management Protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COFF</td>
<td>Common Object File Format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLD</td>
<td>Computer Output to Laser Disk</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPU</td>
<td>Central Processing Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>Cyclic Redundancy Check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSID</td>
<td>Character Set ID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR</td>
<td>Customer Service Representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>Communication Subsystems Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSU</td>
<td>Customer Set-Up</td>
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<td>CWS</td>
<td>Control Workstation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAD</td>
<td>Duplicate Address Detection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAS</td>
<td>Dual Attach Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DASD</td>
<td>Direct Access Storage Device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT</td>
<td>Digital Audio Tape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBCS</td>
<td>Double Byte Character Set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBE</td>
<td>Double Buffer Extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC</td>
<td>Direct Current</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCE</td>
<td>Distributed Computing Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>DDC</td>
<td>Display Data Channel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DDS</td>
<td>Digital Data Storage</td>
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<td>DE</td>
<td>Dual-Ended</td>
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<tr>
<td>DES</td>
<td>Data Encryption Standard</td>
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<td>DFL</td>
<td>Divide Float</td>
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<td>DFP</td>
<td>Dynamic Feedback Protocol</td>
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<td>DFS</td>
<td>Distributed File System</td>
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<td>DHCP</td>
<td>Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol</td>
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<td>DIMM</td>
<td>Dual In-Line Memory Module</td>
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<td>DIP</td>
<td>Direct Insertion Probe</td>
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<tr>
<td>DIT</td>
<td>Directory Insertion Tree</td>
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<tr>
<td>DIVA</td>
<td>Digital Information Voice Answer</td>
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<td>DLT</td>
<td>Digital Linear Tape</td>
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<td>DMA</td>
<td>Direct Memory Access</td>
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<td>DMT</td>
<td>Directory Management Tool</td>
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<tr>
<td>DN</td>
<td>Distinguished Name</td>
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<td>DNS</td>
<td>Domain Naming System</td>
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<td>DOE</td>
<td>Department of Energy</td>
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<td>DOI</td>
<td>Domain of Interpretation</td>
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<td>DOS</td>
<td>Disk Operating System</td>
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<td>DRAM</td>
<td>Dynamic Random Access Memory</td>
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<tr>
<td>DSA</td>
<td>Dynamic Segment Allocation</td>
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<td>DSMIT</td>
<td>Distributed SMIT</td>
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<td>DSU</td>
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<td>DTE</td>
<td>Data Terminating Equipment</td>
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<tr>
<td>DW</td>
<td>Data Warehouse</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>Effective Address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>Engineering Change</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECC</td>
<td>Error Checking and Correcting</td>
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<tr>
<td>EEPROM</td>
<td>Electrically Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFI</td>
<td>Extensible Firmware Interface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EHD</td>
<td>Extended Hardware Drivers</td>
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<tr>
<td>EIA</td>
<td>Electronic Industries Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EISA</td>
<td>Extended Industry Standard Architecture</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>ELA</td>
<td>Error Log Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELF</td>
<td>Executable and Linking Format</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMU</td>
<td>European Monetary Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOF</td>
<td>End of File</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPOW</td>
<td>Environmental and Power Warning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERRM</td>
<td>Event Response resource manager</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESID</td>
<td>Effective Segment ID</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>Encapsulating Security Payload</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESSL</td>
<td>Engineering and Scientific Subroutine Library</td>
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<tr>
<td>ETML</td>
<td>Extract, Transformation, Movement, and Loading</td>
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<tr>
<td>F/C</td>
<td>Feature Code</td>
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<td>F/W</td>
<td>Fast and Wide</td>
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<tr>
<td>FC</td>
<td>Fibre Channel</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCAL</td>
<td>Fibre Channel Arbitrated Loop</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCC</td>
<td>Federal Communication Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCP</td>
<td>Fibre Channel Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>FDDI</td>
<td>Fiber Distributed Data Interface</td>
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<tr>
<td>FDPR</td>
<td>Feedback Directed Program Restructuring</td>
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<tr>
<td>FDX</td>
<td>Full Duplex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIFO</td>
<td>First In/First Out</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLASH EPROM</td>
<td>Flash Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLIH</td>
<td>First Level Interrupt Handler</td>
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<tr>
<td>FMA</td>
<td>Floating point Multiply Add operation</td>
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<tr>
<td>FPR</td>
<td>Floating Point Register</td>
</tr>
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<td>FPU</td>
<td>Floating Point Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>FRCA</td>
<td>Fast Response Cache Architecture</td>
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<td>FRU</td>
<td>Field Replaceable Unit</td>
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<td>FSRM</td>
<td>File System Resource Manager</td>
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<td>FTP</td>
<td>File Transfer Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>GAI</td>
<td>Graphic Adapter Interface</td>
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<tr>
<td>GAMESS</td>
<td>General Atomic and Molecular Electronic Structure System</td>
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<td>GFS</td>
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<td>GPR</td>
<td>General-Purpose Register</td>
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<td>GUI</td>
<td>Graphical User Interface</td>
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<tr>
<td>GUID</td>
<td>Globally Unique Identifier</td>
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<td>HACMP</td>
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<td>HCON</td>
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<td>HCON</td>
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<td>HIPS</td>
<td>High Performance Switch</td>
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<td>HIPS LC-8</td>
<td>Low-Cost Eight-Port High Performance Switch</td>
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<td>Hardware Management Console</td>
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<td>HostRM</td>
<td>Host Resource Manager</td>
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<td>HP</td>
<td>Hewlett-Packard</td>
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<td>HPF</td>
<td>High Performance FORTRAN</td>
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<td>HPSSDL</td>
<td>High Performance Supercomputer Systems Development Laboratory</td>
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<td>Hewlett-Packard UNIX</td>
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<td>HTML</td>
<td>Hyper-text Markup Language</td>
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<td>HTTP</td>
<td>Hypertext Transfer Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hz</td>
<td>Hertz</td>
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<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>I/O</td>
<td>Input/Output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I^2C</td>
<td>Inter Integrated-Circuit Communications</td>
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<tr>
<td>IAR</td>
<td>Instruction Address Register</td>
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<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>International Business Machines</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICCCM</td>
<td>Inter-Client Communications Conventions Manual</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICE</td>
<td>Inter-Client Exchange</td>
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<td>ICElib</td>
<td>Inter-Client Exchange library</td>
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<td>ICMP</td>
<td>Internet Control Message Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDE</td>
<td>Integrated Device Electronics</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDS</td>
<td>Intelligent Decision Server</td>
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<tr>
<td>IEEE</td>
<td>Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers</td>
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<td>IETF</td>
<td>Internet Engineering Task Force</td>
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<td>IHV</td>
<td>Independent Hardware Vendor</td>
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<td>IIOP</td>
<td>Internet Inter-ORB Protocol</td>
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<td>IJG</td>
<td>Independent JPEG Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>IKE</td>
<td>Internet Key Exchange</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILS</td>
<td>International Language Support</td>
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<td>IM</td>
<td>Input Method</td>
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<tr>
<td>INRIA</td>
<td>Institut National de Recherche en Informatique et en Automatique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>Internet Protocol (OSI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPL</td>
<td>Initial Program Load</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPSec</td>
<td>IP Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IrDA</td>
<td>Infrared Data Association (which sets standards for infrared support including protocols for data interchange)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRQ</td>
<td>Interrupt Request</td>
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<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>Integrated Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISA</td>
<td>Industry Standard Architecture, Instruction Set Architecture</td>
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<td>ISAKMP</td>
<td>Internet Security Association Management Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISB</td>
<td>Intermediate Switch Board</td>
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<td>ISDN</td>
<td>Integrated-Services Digital Network</td>
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<td>ISMP</td>
<td>InstallShield Multi-Platform</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISNO</td>
<td>Interface Specific Network Options</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Organization for Standardization</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISV</td>
<td>Independent Software Vendor</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITSO</td>
<td>International Technical Support Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>JBOD</td>
<td>Just a Bunch of Disks</td>
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<tr>
<td>JDBC</td>
<td>Java Database Connectivity</td>
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<tr>
<td>JFC</td>
<td>Java Foundation Classes</td>
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<tr>
<td>JFS</td>
<td>Journaled File System</td>
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<td>JTAG</td>
<td>Joint Test Action Group</td>
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<td>KDC</td>
<td>Key Distribution Center</td>
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<td>L1</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Level 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAN</td>
<td>Local Area Network</td>
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<td>LANE</td>
<td>Local Area Network Emulation</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAPI</td>
<td>Low-Level Application Programming Interface</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDAP</td>
<td>Lightweight Directory Access Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDIF</td>
<td>LDAP Directory Interchange Format</td>
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<tr>
<td>LED</td>
<td>Light Emitting Diode</td>
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<td>LFD</td>
<td>Load Float Double</td>
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<tr>
<td>LFT</td>
<td>Low Function Terminal</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
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<tr>
<td>LID</td>
<td>Load ID</td>
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<tr>
<td>LLNL</td>
<td>Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory</td>
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<td>LP</td>
<td>Logical Partition</td>
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<tr>
<td>LP64</td>
<td>Long-Pointer 64</td>
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<tr>
<td>LPI</td>
<td>Lines Per Inch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPP</td>
<td>Licensed Program Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPR/LPD</td>
<td>Line Printer/Line Printer Daemon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LRU</td>
<td>Least Recently Used</td>
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<td>LTG</td>
<td>Logical Track Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>LV</td>
<td>Logical Volume</td>
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<tr>
<td>LVCB</td>
<td>Logical Volume Control Block</td>
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<td>LVD</td>
<td>Low Voltage Differential</td>
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<td>LVM</td>
<td>Logical Volume Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAP</td>
<td>Maintenance Analysis Procedure</td>
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<tr>
<td>MASS</td>
<td>Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem</td>
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<td>MAU</td>
<td>Multiple Access Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBCS</td>
<td>Multi-Byte Character Support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mbps</td>
<td>Megabits Per Second</td>
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<td>MBps</td>
<td>Megabytes Per Second</td>
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<tr>
<td>MCA</td>
<td>Micro Channel Architecture</td>
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<td>MCAD</td>
<td>Mechanical Computer-Aided Design</td>
</tr>
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<td>MDI</td>
<td>Media Dependent Interface</td>
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<td>MES</td>
<td>Miscellaneous Equipment Specification</td>
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<tr>
<td>MFLOPS</td>
<td>Million of Floating point Operations Per Second</td>
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<td>Media Independent Interface</td>
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<td>MIP</td>
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<td>MLR1</td>
<td>Multi-Channel Linear Recording 1</td>
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<td>MMF</td>
<td>Multi-Mode Fibre</td>
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<td>Memory Overlay Detection Subsystem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>OEM</td>
<td>Original Equipment Manufacturer</td>
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<td>OLAP</td>
<td>Online Analytical Processing</td>
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<td>Online Transaction Processing</td>
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<td>ONC+</td>
<td>Open Network Computing</td>
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<td>OOUI</td>
<td>Object-Oriented User Interface</td>
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<td>Open Software Foundation, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>OSL</td>
<td>Optimization Subroutine Library</td>
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<td>OSLp</td>
<td>Parallel Optimization Subroutine Library</td>
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<tr>
<td>P2SC</td>
<td>POWER2 Single/Super Chip</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAM</td>
<td>Pluggable Authentication Mechanism</td>
</tr>
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<td>Privileged Access Password</td>
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<td>PBLAS</td>
<td>Parallel Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms</td>
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<td>Peripheral Component Interconnect</td>
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<td>PDT</td>
<td>Paging Device Table</td>
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<td>PDU</td>
<td>Power Distribution Unit</td>
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<tr>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Parallel Environment</td>
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<td>Parallel Environment Debugging</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEX</td>
<td>PHIGS Extension to X</td>
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<td>PFS</td>
<td>Perfect Forward Security</td>
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<td>PGID</td>
<td>Process Group ID</td>
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<td>PHB</td>
<td>Processor Host Bridges</td>
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<td>PHY</td>
<td>Physical Layer</td>
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<td>Process ID</td>
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<td>Parallel Input Output File System</td>
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<td>Protection Key Registers</td>
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<td>Path MTU</td>
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<td>Power-On Password</td>
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<td>Portable Operating Interface for Computing Environments</td>
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<td>POST</td>
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<tr>
<td>POWER</td>
<td>Performance Optimization with Enhanced Risc (Architecture)</td>
</tr>
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<td>Piecewise Parabolic Method</td>
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<td>Point-to-Point Protocol</td>
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<td>Physical Volume</td>
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<td>Permanent Virtual Circuit</td>
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<td>Physical Volume Identifier</td>
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<td>Query Management Facility</td>
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<td>Quality of Service</td>
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<td>Quadratic Programming</td>
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<td>Redundant Array of Independent Disks</td>
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<td>Random Access Memory</td>
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<td>Remote Asynchronous Node</td>
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<td>RAS</td>
<td>Reliability, Availability, and Serviceability</td>
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<td>Remote Initial Program Load</td>
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<td>Type Of Service</td>
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<td>Transaction Processing Council</td>
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<td>Toward Peak Performance</td>
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<td>Text Search Engine</td>
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<td>Time To Live</td>
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<td>User Interface Language</td>
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<td>Universal Language Support</td>
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<td>User-Space Loader Assistant</td>
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<td>UCS Transformation Format</td>
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<td>Uniform Transfer Model</td>
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<td>Volume Group Descriptor Area</td>
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<td>VGSA</td>
<td>Volume Group Status Area</td>
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<td>Very High Density Cable Interconnect</td>
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<td>Virtual Memory Manager</td>
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<td>Virtual Processor</td>
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<td>Vital Product Data</td>
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<td>Virtual Private Network</td>
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<td>VSD</td>
<td>Virtual Shared Disk</td>
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<td>Visual System Manager</td>
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<td>Versatile Storage Server</td>
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<td>VT</td>
<td>Visualization Tool</td>
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<td>Wide Area Network</td>
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<td>Workload Manager</td>
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<td>Web Traffic Express</td>
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<td>XCOFF</td>
<td>Extended Common Object File Format</td>
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<td>X Image Extension</td>
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<td>X Input Method</td>
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<td>XKB</td>
<td>X Keyboard Extension</td>
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<td>XL Fortran</td>
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<td>X Output Method</td>
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<td>XSSO</td>
<td>Open Single Sign-on Service</td>
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<td>XTF</td>
<td>Extended Distance Feature</td>
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<td>XVFB</td>
<td>X Virtual Frame Buffer</td>
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Related publications

The publications listed in this section are considered particularly suitable for a more detailed discussion of the topics covered in this redbook.

IBM Redbooks

For information on ordering these publications, see “How to get IBM Redbooks” on page 331.

- *AIX 5L Differences Guide*, SG24-5765
- *AIX 5L Performance Tools Handbook*, SG24-6039
- *AIX 5L Workload Manager (WLM)*, SG24-5977
- *AIX Logical Volume Manager From A to Z: Introduction and Concepts*, SG24-5432
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - AIX Communications*, SG24-6186
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - AIX Installation and System Recovery*, SG24-6183
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - AIX Problem Determination Tools and Techniques*, SG24-6185
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - pSeries AIX System Administration*, SG24-6191
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - pSeries AIX System Support*, SG24-6199
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - pSeries HACMP for AIX*, SG24-6187
- *IBM @server Certification Study Guide - RS/6000 SP*, SG24-5348
- *Managing AIX Server Farms*, SG24-6606
- *Problem Solving and Troubleshooting in AIX 5L*, SG24-5496
- *RS/6000 Performance Tools in Focus*, SG24-4989
- *TCP/IP Tutorial and Technical Overview*, GG24-3376
Other resources

These publications are also relevant as further information sources:

- *RS/6000 and pSeries PCI Adapter Placement Reference*, SA38-0538
- The following types of documentation are located through the Internet at the following URL:
  
  http://www-1.ibm.com/servers/eserver/pseries/library
  
  - User guides
  - System management guides
  - Application programmer guides
  - All commands reference volumes
  - Files reference
  - Technical reference volumes used by application programmers

Referenced Web sites

These Web sites are also relevant as further information sources:

- IBM certification tests information
  

- IBM eServer pSeries support
  

- IBM hardware documentation
  

- IBM Professional Certification Program
  
  http://www.ibm.com/certify

- IBM TotalStorage
  
  http://www.storage.ibm.com
- Open Group Technical Standard, Protocols for Interworking XNFS Version 3W  
  http://www.opengroup.org/onlinepubs/9629799/toc.htm

- perfpmr installation readme file  

- UNIX servers (pSeries) information  

### How to get IBM Redbooks

You can order hardcopy Redbooks, as well as view, download, or search for Redbooks at the following Web site:

[ibm.com/redbooks](http://ibm.com/redbooks)

You can also download additional materials (code samples or diskette/CD-ROM images) from that site.

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Redbooks are also available on CD-ROMs. Click the CD-ROMs button on the Redbooks Web site for information about all the CD-ROMs offered, as well as updates and formats.
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