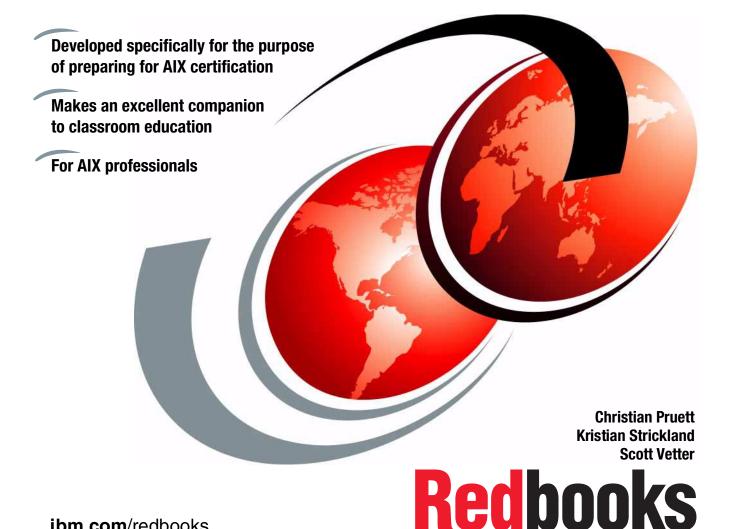




# IBM @server **Certification Study Guide** pSeries AIX System Support



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# International Technical Support Organization

# IBM @server Certification Study Guide - pSeries AIX System Support

December 2001

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#### First Edition (December 2001)

This edition applies to AIX 5L for POWER Version 5.1, program number 5765-E61 and subsequent releases running on an RS/6000 or pSeries server and is based on information available in October 2001.

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# **Preface**

The AIX and IBM @server 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 @server pSeries. A complete set of professional certifications are available. They include:

- ► IBM Certified AIX User
- ► IBM Certified Specialist AIX System Administration
- ► IBM Certified Specialist AIX System Support
- ► IBM Certified Specialist Business Intelligence for RS/6000
- ► IBM Certified Specialist Domino for RS/6000
- ► IBM @server Certified Specialist pSeries AIX System Administration
- ► IBM @server Certified Specialist pSeries AIX System Support
- ► IBM @server Certified Specialist pSeries Solution Sales
- ► IBM Certified Specialist RS/6000 Solution Sales
- ► IBM Certified Specialist RS/6000 SP and PSSP V3
- ► RS/6000 SP Sales Qualification
- ► IBM Certified Specialist Web Server for RS/6000
- ► IBM @server Certified Specialist pSeries HACMP for AIX
- ► IBM Certified Advanced Technical Expert RS/6000 AIX

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. These job incumbents bring a wealth of experience into the development process, thus making the exams much more meaningful than the typical test, which only captures classroom knowledge. These experienced Subject Matter Experts ensure the exams are relevant to the real world and that the test content is both useful and valid. The result is a certification of value, which appropriately measures the skill required to perform the job role.

This redbook is designed as a study guide for professionals wishing to prepare for the certification exam to achieve: IBM @server Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Support.

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The system support certification validates a broad scope of AIX problem determination and resolution skills and the ability to perform general AIX software system maintenance. The certification is applicable to AIX support professionals who conduct the AIX problem determination and resolution activities needed to successfully support system administrators, customers, and/or clients in an AIX environment, in order to maintain system reliability.

This redbook helps AIX support professionals seeking a comprehensive and task-oriented guide for developing the knowledge and skills required for the certification. It 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 in the exam.

This redbook will not replace the practical experience you should have, but is an effective tool that, when combined with education activities and experience, should prove to be a very useful preparation guide for the exam. Due to the practical nature of the certification content, this publication can also be used as a desk side reference. So, whether you are planning to take the pSeries AIX System Support certification exam, or if you just want to validate your AIX system support skills, this redbook is for you.

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

http://www.ibm.com/certify

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# Special notice

This publication is intended to help IBM business partners, technical professionals, and customers of IBM prepare for the pSeries AIX System Support exam as part of the IBM @server Certified Specialist program. The information in this publication is not intended as the specification of any programming interfaces that are provided by AIX 5L Version 5.1. See the PUBLICATIONS section of the IBM Programming Announcement for AIX 5L Version 5.1 for more information about what publications are considered to be product documentation.

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# **Certification overview**

This chapter provides an overview of the skill requirements for obtaining an IBM @server Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Support certification. The following chapters are designed to provide a comprehensive review of specific topics that are essential for obtaining the certification.

# 1.1 pSeries AIX System Support (Test 199)

This certification validates a broad scope of AIX problem determination and resolution skills, and the ability to perform general AIX software system maintenance. The certification is applicable to support professionals who conduct AIX problem determination and resolution activities needed to successfully support system administrators, customers, and clients in an AIX environment, in order to maintain system reliability.

To attain the IBM @server Certified Specialist - pSeries AIX System Support certification, candidates must pass one exam: Test 199: pSeries AIX System Support.

# 1.1.1 Recommended prerequisites

The following are the recommended prerequisites for this certification.

- ► A minimum of six months experience providing AIX Support in Version 4 and 5 environment(s). Note: Exam 199 contains AIX content up to and including AIX 5L Version 5.1.
- One to two years general AIX or UNIX experience.
- Training in system administration and advanced system administration, or equivalent experience.
- Training in TCP/IP and AIX Performance Tuning, or equivalent experience.

# 1.1.2 Registration for the certification exam

For information about how to register for the certification exam, please visit the following Web site:

http://www.ibm.com/certify

# 1.1.3 Certification exam objectives

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

# **System recovery**

The following are the system recovery topics.

▶ Use LED output to isolate boot failure problems, such as 223-229 and 551.

- Access rootvg in maintenance mode using boot media to repair or restore file system (fsck, missing files).
- Reset bootlist.
- Differentiate between AIX and firmware LED codes.
- ▶ Determine whether a system hang is resource or OS related.
- ► Force and capture dump data for a system hang.
- ▶ Use crash LEDs to determine if crash is due to hardware or software.
- ▶ Use the snap command.
- Examine errlog entries.

# Disk management

The following are the disk management topics.

- ▶ Answer questions from clients on how to create or remove drives.
- Answer questions from clients on how to create/extend or remove paging space.
- ► Answer questions from clients on how to migrate data from one PV to another.
- Perform storage management activities (disk striping, multiple JFS log devices, and so on).
- ► Troubleshoot file system errors (identify missing file space, check order of mounting, fsck, and so on).
- ► Troubleshoot disk error (after improper removal, identify missing physical volume, synchlvodm, and other tasks).
- Understand the JFS2 and Volume Groups layout.

#### **Devices**

The following topics are related to devices.

- ► Answer questions from clients on how to add, delete and/or modify devices.
- Answer questions from clients on how to configure network devices (SSA loops, SCSI devices, modems, PPP communications, TTYs, asynchronous controllers, and so on).
- ► Troubleshoot problems related to adding, deleting, and modifying devices.
- ► Troubleshoot problems related to configuring network devices.
- ► Troubleshoot print jobs not completing or dropping characters.
- Be able to select a print subsystem.

#### Performance

The following are the performance related topics.

- ► Troubleshoot performance problems based on system configuration.
- ▶ Use AIX commands to identify CPU, RAM, and paging bottlenecks.
- Use AIX commands to identify I/O bottlenecks.
- ▶ Use AIX commands to identify network bottlenecks.
- Correct CPU, RAM, and paging shortages.
- Correct network bottlenecks.
- Optimize disk resources.
- ► Tune the AIX kernel.

#### Networking

The following are the networking related topics.

- ► Troubleshoot host name problems (for example, not expected value).
- Troubleshoot when there is a problem communicating to other machines on the network.
- Troubleshoot when the system is not forwarding packets.
- ► Set up default route and routing strategy when network traffic is not reaching destination.
- Troubleshoot when the interface has a proper IP address but cannot ping another host.
- ► Check/set TCP tuning values for improved network performance.
- ► Troubleshoot the inability to **telnet** or **rlogin** to a machine.
- ▶ Use different network troubleshooting commands to determine why a client cannot telnet beyond the default gateway.
- ▶ Debug problems when trying to ping/telnet/rsh to other systems.
- ► Add and remove interfaces (ifconfig, detach, rmdev, and so forth).

# Scripts and shells

The following topics are related to scripts and shells.

- Verify proper script syntax.
- Check critical system scripts and what they start and control, for example, /etc/rc, etc/rc.net, importvg, to name a few.

#### **Graphics**

The following are the graphics related topics.

- Troubleshoot system hangs when trying to start the desktop.
- Troubleshoot the error unable to open display.

## **System configuration**

The following topics are related to system configuration.

- Modify the ODM (odmadd, odmdelete).
- Examine the cron log files.
- Set and change environment variables.
- ▶ Use common vi manipulation subcommands to edit the ksh script.
- ► Use commands for viewing different file types (ascii = cat, view, more pg: binary=strings, and so forth).

#### **Backup and restore**

The following topics are related to backup and restore.

- Explain the usage and limitations of various backup methods to the customer (for example, backup, mksysb, tar, CPIO, and remote backup).
- Troubleshoot backup and restore failures.
- Instruct customer on how to restore.

#### Installation

The following topics are related to installation.

- Answer questions from clients regarding when to use migrate and when to preserve install.
- Determine how to select the boot kernel.
- Locate and analyze installp log files.
- ▶ Navigate through SMIT menus to perform different installs.
- ► Force overwrite when you suspect the corruption of a fileset.
- ► Check and verify system installation integrity (1ppchk, 1s1pp, os1eve1, and so forth).
- Clone systems using mksysb.

# 1.1.4 Additional topics

Explain the advantages of the 64-bit kernel.

# 1.2 Certification education courses

Courses and publications are offered to help you prepare for the certification tests. These courses are recommended, but not required, before taking a certification test.

At the time of the writing of this guide, the following courses are available. For a current list, please visit the following Web site:

http://www.ibm.com/certify

AIX Support Certification Test Preparation Workshop		
Course number	Q1825 (USA)	
Course duration	Two days	
Course abstract	This two-day workshop will provide a knowledgeable AIX professional with a review of AIX concepts necessary for the AIX Support Certification exam. A pretest is used to help identify student's readiness and assist in areas of selected study. The lecture and discussion-oriented workshop will cover a variety of topics to help the student refresh their knowledge and improve understanding of concepts to increase their confidence for the exam. Students will also be given an out-of-class reading assignment. The classroom will contain lab equipment for those students who desire hands-on activities. The AIX Support Certification exam will be available at the end of the second day.	
Course content	System Initialization and Boot	
	Hardware Installation and Device Configuration	
	Problem Determination	
	System Installation and Maintenance	
	•Printers	
	Storage Management and LVM	
	•Networking	
	Paging Space	
	System Resource Controller	
	System Performance	
	System Backup and Restore	
	•Cron Daemon	

AIX Version 4 System Administration 1: Implementation			
Course number	Q1214 (USA); AU14 (Worldwide)		
Course duration	Five days		
Course abstract	Learn the basic system administration skills to support AIX RS/6000 running the AIX Version 4 operating system. Build your skills in configuring and monitoring a single CPU environment. Administrators who manage systems in a networked environment should attend additional LAN courses.		
Course content	<ul> <li>Install the AIX Version 4 operating system, software bundles, and filesets.</li> <li>Perform a system startup and shutdown.</li> <li>Understand and use AIX system management tools.</li> <li>Configure ASCII terminals and printer devices.</li> <li>Manage physical and logical volumes.</li> <li>Perform file systems management.</li> <li>Create and manage user and group accounts.</li> <li>Use backup and restore commands.</li> <li>Use administrative subsystems, including cron, to schedule system tasks, and security to implement customized access of files and directories.</li> </ul>		

AIX Version 4 Advanced System Administration II: Problem Determination		
Course number	Q1216 (USA); AU16 (Worldwide)	
Course duration	Five days	
Course abstract	Learn how to identify possible sources of problems on stand-alone configurations of the RS/6000 and perform advanced system administration tasks.	
Course content	► Identify the different RS/6000 models and architects.	
	► Explain the ODM purpose for device configuration.	
	Interpret system initialization and problems during the boot process.	
	► Customize authentication and set up ACLs.	
	► Identify the TCB components, commands, and their use.	
	► Obtain a system dump and define saved data.	
	► Identify the error logging facility components and reports.	
	► List ways to invoke diagnostic programs.	
	<ul> <li>Customize a logical volume for optimal performance and availability.</li> </ul>	
	Manage a disk and the data under any circumstance.	
	<ul> <li>Use the standard AIX commands to identify potential I/O, disk, CPU, or other bottlenecks on the system.</li> </ul>	
	<ul> <li>Customize SMIT menus and define how SMIT interacts with the ODM.</li> </ul>	
	► Define the virtual printer database and potential problems.	
	► List the terminal attributes and create new terminfo entries.	
	► Define the NIM installation procedure.	

AIX Version 4 Configuring TCP/IP and Accessing the Internet		
Course number	Q1107 (USA); AU07 or AU05 (Worldwide)	
Course duration	Five days	
Course abstract	► Learn how to perform TCP/IP network configuration and administration on AIX Version 4 RS/6000 systems. Learn the skills necessary to begin implementing and using NFS, NIS, DNS, network printing, static and dynamic routing, SLIP and SLIPLOGIN, Xstations, and the Internet.	
Course contents	<ul> <li>Describe the basic concepts of TCP/IP protocols and addressing.</li> </ul>	
	► Explain TCP/IP broadcasting and multicasting.	
	► Configure, implement, and support TCP/IP on an IBM RS/6000 system.	
	<ul> <li>Use networking commands for remote logon, remote execution, and file transfer.</li> </ul>	
	► Configure SLIP and SLIPLOGIN.	
	► Use SMIT to configure network printing.	
	<ul> <li>Connect multiple TCP/IP networks using static and dynamic routing.</li> </ul>	
	► Implement DNS, NFS, and NIS.	
	► Perform basic troubleshooting of network problems.	
	► Configure an Xstation in the AIX environment.	
	► Explain how to access Internet services.	
	► Understand and support TCP/IP.	
	► Plan implementation of NFS.	
	► Support LAN-attached printers.	
	► Support AIX networking.	
	► Determine network problems.	
	► Implement a network file system.	

# 1.3 Education on CD-ROM: IBM AIX Essentials

The new IBM AIX Essentials series offers a dynamic training experience for those who need convenient and cost-effective AIX education. The series consists of five new, content-rich, computer-based multimedia training courses based on highly acclaimed, instructor-led AIX classes that have been successfully taught by IBM Education and Training for years.

To order, and for more information and answers to your questions:

- ► In the U.S., use the online form at the following URL: http://www.ibm.com/services/learning/spotlight/pseries/cdrom.html
- Outside the U.S., contact your IBM Sales Representative, or contact an IBM Business Partner.



# System installation and maintenance

One of the most primary of support roles is the installation of a new software image or updating an existing one. In this chapter, the most common ways of performing these tasks are discussed.

# 2.1 System installation

There are three types of installation methods:

- New and complete overwrite
- Migration install
- Preservation install

The following sections describe system installation in more detail.

# 2.1.1 New and complete overwrite installation

The new and complete overwrite installation overwrites all data on the selected destination disk. The only times to use the new and complete overwrite installation method are:

- ▶ If you have a new machine. In this case, the hard disk or disks on which you are installing the BOS are empty.
- ▶ If your root volume group has become corrupted and you do not have a backup to restore it. This can be indicated by serious ODM problems and hangs for lslpp and oslevel commands. The only choice would then be to install onto a hard disk that contains an existing root volume group that you wish to completely overwrite.
- You want to reassign your hard disks to make rootvg smaller.

After the installation is complete, you will have to configure your system using the Configuration Assistant application, SMIT, or the command line.

# 2.1.2 Migration installation

Use the migration installation method to upgrade AIX to a different version or release while preserving the existing root volume group.

The following describes some traits of a migration installation:

- During a migration installation, the installation process determines which optional software products must be installed on AIX 5L. Previous versions of AIX software that exist on the system are replaced by new software in AIX 5L Version 5.1.
- This method preserves all file systems except /tmp, as well as the root volume group, logical volumes, and system configuration files. In most cases, user configuration files from the previous version of a product are saved.
- ► Non-software products remain on the system.

▶ When migrating from Version 3.2, all files in /usr/lib/drivers, /usr/lib/microcode, /usr/lib/methods, and /dev are removed from the system, so software support for non-IBM device drivers must be reinstalled.

#### 2.1.3 Preservation installation

Use the preservation installation method when a version of BOS is installed on your system and you want to preserve user data in the root volume group.

The following describes some traits of a preservation installation:

- ► The /etc/preserve.list file contains a list of system files to be copied and saved during a preservation BOS installation. The /etc/filesystems file is listed by default. Add the full path names of any additional files that you want to save during the preservation installation to the /etc/preserve.list file. You must create the /etc/preserve.list file on an AIX Version 3.1 machine. On an AIX Version 4.1 or later system, this file already exists on your system and can be directly edited.
- ► Ensure that you have sufficient disk space in the /tmp file system to store the files listed in the /etc/preserve.list file.
- ► This method overwrites the /usr, /tmp, /var, and / (root) file systems by default, so any user data in these directories is lost. These file systems are removed and recreated, so any other LPPs or filesets that you installed on the system will also be lost. Think of a preservation install as an overwrite installation for these file systems. System configuration must be done after doing a preservation installation.

## 2.1.4 Alternate disk installation

Alternate disk installation, available in AIX Version 4.3 and later versions, allows for system installation on a system while it is still up and running, which decreases install or upgrade downtime considerably.

The process works by either cloning the existing operating system (OS) to a secondary hard disk or installing a new OS to a secondary hard disk. In the case of cloning the existing OS, this is usually done for a migration installation on the second hard disk. In the case of installing a new OS to the second hard disk, this can be accomplished from installation media, mksysb, or a NIM image. Then, once the installation is complete, the system is instructed to use the OS on the secondary hard disk, and the system is rebooted for the changes to take effect.

Alternate disk installation requires some filesets to be installed before you are able to use the alternate disk installation functions. The bos.alt\_disk\_install.boot\_images filesets must be installed for alternate disk mksysb installation if Network Install Management (NIM) is not being used. And, the bos.alt\_disk\_install.rte fileset must be installed to clone rootvg.

**Note:** Alternate disk installation from a **mksysb** or NIM image may require the installation of additional filesets during the installation process. There may be certain adapters, kernels, or other features on a system that require filesets not found in the **mksysb** or NIM image. If these filesets are not installed, the system may respond erratically.

To prevent these problems, ensure that your **mksysb** or NIM image has all the adapter, kernel, and other feature filesets on it. Or, ensure that all necessary filesets are installed on the secondary hard disk from install media before rebooting the system.

#### 2.1.5 64-bit kernel installation

AIX 5L Version 5.1 allows you to install a 64-bit kernel as well as the previously available 32-bit kernel during installation.

**Note:** The **bootinfo -y** command will identify the type of system hardware you have, either 32-bit or 64-bit. If the command returns a 32, you cannot use the 64-bit kernel.

If your system has 64-bit processors, the 64-bit kernel is automatically installed with the Base Operating System (BOS). However, it is not mandatory to run the 64-bit kernel on a system with 64-bit processors. Some products and devices that can be used in systems with 64-bit processors do not support the 64-bit kernel yet. Unless your system environment requires a 64-bit kernel, chances are that you will not need to enable it during system installation.

**Note:** Enabling or disabling the 64-bit kernel does not affect the 64-bit application environment. The 64-bit application environment is supported under the 32-bit and 64-bit kernel.

If you want to enable the 64-bit kernel during installation, set the 64-bit Kernel and JFS2 option to yes during the BOS installation in the Advanced Options menu. When the system boots up for the first time after installation, it will then be running the 64-bit kernel.

If you want to enable the 64-bit kernel after system installation, you will need to instruct the system to use the 64-bit kernel information stored in the /usr/lib/boot directory. There are three kernels available in the /usr/lib/boot directory:

unix\_up 32-bit kernel for uniprocessor systems

unix\_mp 32-bit kernel for multiprocessor systems

unix\_64 64-bit kernel for 64-bit processor systems

The following example provides the commands to run to enable the 64-bit kernel after system installation:

```
# ln -sf /usr/lib/boot/unix_64 /unix
# ln -sf /usr/lib/boot/unix64 /usr/lib/boot/unix
# bosboot -ad /dev/ipldevice
# shutdown -r
```

After the system has rebooted, it will be running the 64-bit kernel. To reactivate the 32-bit kernel, follow the same procedure, substituting unix\_up or unix\_mp for unix\_64, depending on your system type.

## Hardware multithreading

On select RS/6000 and @server pSeries systems, you can enable hardware multithreading (HMT) after installing AIX 5L Version 5.1. Hardware multithreading is a process that alters the ways in which processors handle data passing through them.

To enable HMT, run the **bosdebug** command as follows and reboot the system:

```
# bosdebug -H on
```

To disable HMT, run the **bosdebug** command as follows and reboot the system:

```
# bosdebug -H off
```

If HMT is not available on your hardware platform, you will receive the following error after running the **bosdebug** command:

```
# bosdebug -H on
    HMT not supported on this system.
```

# 2.2 The lppchk command: verifying installed software

The **1ppchk** command verifies that files for an installable software product (fileset) match the Software Vital Product Data (SWVPD) database information for file sizes, checksum values, or symbolic links.

The syntax of the 1ppchk command is as follows:

```
lppchk { -c[u] | -f | -l [u] | -v } [ -m [1 | 2 | 3]] [ -0 { [r] [s]
[u] } ] [ ProductName [ FileList ... ] ]
```

Table 2-1 provides a list of common command flags and their descriptions for the **1ppchk** command.

Table 2-1 Command flags for lppchk

Flag	Description
-c	Performs a checksum operation on the FileList items and verifies that the checksum and the file size are consistent with the SWVPD database.
-f	Checks that the FileList items are present and the file size matches the SWVPD database.
-I (lowercase L)	Verifies symbolic links for files as specified in the SWVPD database.
-m [1 2 3]	Displays three levels of information. The levels are as follows:  1 - Error messages only (default).  2 - Error messages and warnings.  3 - Error messages, warnings, and informational messages.
-O {[r][s][u]}	Verifies the specified parts of the program. This flag is not needed with stand-alone systems because without this option all parts are verified by default. The flags specify the following parts: r Indicates the / (root) part is to be verified. s Indicates the /usr/share part is to be verified. u Indicates the /usr part is to be verified.
-u	Updates the SWVPD with new checksum or size information from the system when the system information does not match the SWVPD database. This flag sets symbolic links that are found to be missing. This flag is valid with only the -c or -l flag.
-V	Verifies that the / (root), /usr, and /usr/share parts of the system are valid with each other.

**Note:** Only one of the -c, -f, -l, and -v flags can be specified with each use of the **lppchk** command.

The installation of the bos.dosutil fileset is interrupted. An example of the lppchk -v command is shown in Figure 2-1 on page 17 before and after the inconsistency is cleaned up.

```
# lppchk -v
lppchk: The following filesets need to be installed or corrected to bring
         the system to a consistent state:
 bos.dosutil 4.3.0.0
                                          (APPLYING)
# installp -C
installp: Cleaning up software for:
       bos.dosutil 4.3.0.0
Installation Summary
                                           Part
Name
                           Level
                                                       Event
                                                                    Result
bos.dosutil
                            4.3.0.0
                                            USR
                                                       CLEANUP
                                                                    SUCCESS
# lppchk -v
```

Figure 2-1 Sample Ippchk -v command output

# 2.3 The installp command

The **installp** command is used to install, update, and perform maintenance tasks on software. The **installp** command has a large number of flags, as shown in Table 2-2.

Table 2-2 Command flags for installp

Flag	Description
-a	Applies one or more software products or updates. This is the default action. This flag can be used with the -c flag to apply and commit a software product update during installation.
-В	Indicates that the requested action should be limited to software updates.
-C	Cleans up after an interrupted installation and attempts to remove all incomplete pieces of the previous installation.
-c	Commits applied updates to the system.
-d <i>Device</i>	Specifies on what device the installation media can be found.
-F	Forces the installation of a software product even if there exists a previously installed version of the software product that is the same version as or newer than the one being installed.

Flag	Description	
-f ListFile	Reads the names of the software products from ListFile. If ListFile is a - (dash), it reads the list of names from the standard input. Output from the installp -1 command is suitable for input to this flag.	
-g	When used to install or commit, this flag automatically installs or commits, respectively, any software products or updates that are requisites of the specified software product. When used to remove or reject software, this flag automatically removes or rejects dependents of the specified software.	
-L	Displays the contents of the media by looking at the table of contents (.toc) and displaying the information in colon-separated output. This flag is used by SMIT to list content of the media.	
-I (lowercase L)	Lists all the software products and their separately installable options contained on the installation media to the standard output. No installation occurs.	
-N	Overrides saving of existing files that are replaced when installing or updating. This flag is valid only with the -ac flags.	
-p	Performs a preview of an action by running all pre-installation checks for the specified action. This flag is only valid with apply, commit, reject, and remove (-a, -c, -r, and -u) flags.	
-r	Rejects all software updates that are currently applied but not committed.	
-u	Removes the specified software product and any of its installed updates from the system. Removal of any bos.rte fileset is never permitted.	
-V Number	Specifies the verbose option that can provide up to four levels of detail for pre-installation output, including SUCCESSES, WARNINGS, and FAILURES.	
-V	Verifies that all installed files in the fileset have the correct checksum value after installation. Can be used with the -a and -ac flags to confirm a successful installation. If any errors are reported by this flag, it may be necessary to reinstall the software.	
-X	Attempts to expand any file systems where there is insufficient space to do the installation.	

By default, the output of the <code>installp</code> command goes to stdout and stderr, and a copy of the last interaction is stored in /var/adm/sw/installp.summary.

## 2.3.1 The smit.log file

SMIT also uses the **installp** command to install, update, and perform maintenance tasks on software. However, a copy of the output of all commands that use **installp** is also stored in the smit.log file.

For example, when SMIT is used and the installation of a fileset fails, the error messages are recorded in the smit.log file. Part of a sample smit.log file for this scenario is shown in Figure 2-2. This example shows the installation of a fileset that has failed during pre-installation verification.

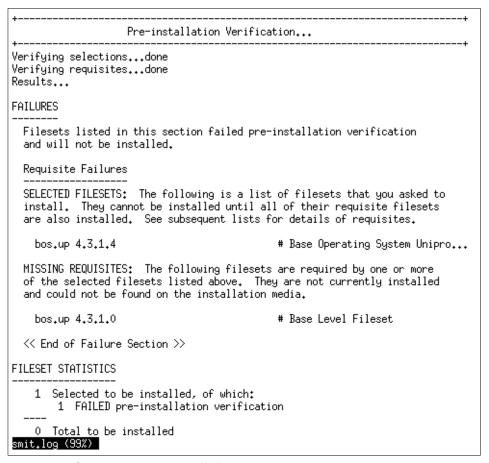


Figure 2-2 Sample smit.log output for failed installation

# 2.4 Determining maintenance levels

The oslevel command reports the level of the operating system using a subset of all filesets installed on your system. The oslevel command also prints information about maintenance levels, including which filesets are not at a specified maintenance level. The optional flags for this commands are:

- **-I Level** Lists filesets at levels earlier than the maintenance level specified by the Level parameter.
- **-g** Lists filesets at levels later than the current maintenance level.
- -q Lists names of known maintenance levels that can be specified using the -l flag.

The sample output in Figure 2-3 shows that the operating system level is at 4.3.0.0, only 4.3.0.0 can be specified with the -I flag, there are no filesets at levels later than 4.3.0.0, and the filesets that are at levels earlier than 4.3.0.0.

# oslevel 4.3.0.0 # oslevel -q Known Maintenance Levels		
4.3.0.0 # oslevel -g # oslevel -1 4.3.0.0 Fileset	Actual Level	Maintenance Level
X11.msg.en_US.Dt.helpmin X11.msg.en_US.Dt.rte X11.msg.en_US.apps.aixterm X11.msg.en_US.apps.clients X11.msg.en_US.apps.custom X11.msg.en_US.apps.pm X11.msg.en_US.apps.rte X11.msg.en_US.base.common X11.msg.en_US.base.rte X11.msg.en_US.base.rte X11.msg.en_US.motif.lib X11.msg.en_US.motif.mwm X11.msg.en_US.vsm.rte printers.msg.en_US.rte #	4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0 4.2.0.0	4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0 4,3,0,0

Figure 2-3 Sample oslevel command output

# 2.5 Modification update using update\_all from SMIT

You can use the SMIT fast path **smit update\_all** to update currently installed software to a modification level or apply all updates to currently installed software. You can either use the installation CD-ROMs or download the maintenance-level fixes using the FixDist package.

## 2.5.1 Downloading maintenance levels using FixDist

The following describes a procedure to download the AIX Version 4.3.1 base maintenance level using the FixDist package:

1. Double-click to select Base Maintenance Levels in FixDist, as shown in Figure 2-4.

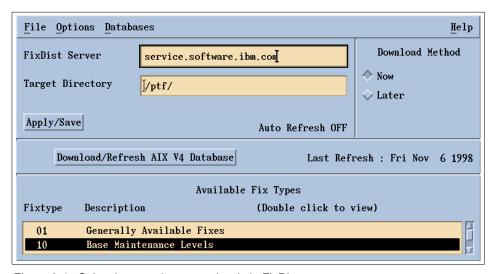


Figure 2-4 Select base maintenance levels in FixDist

2. Select AIX 431 Maintenance Level, then click OK, as in Figure 2-5 on page 22.

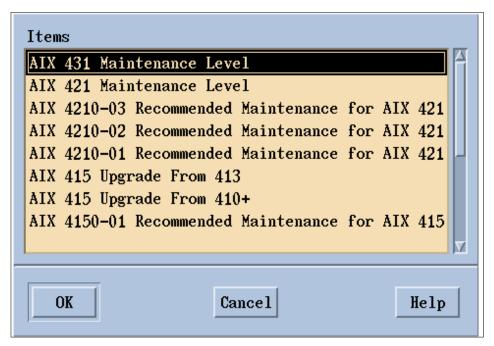


Figure 2-5 Select AIX 431 maintenance level in FixDist

3. Ensure that you have sufficient disk space to store the files to be downloaded as indicated by FixDist (shown in Figure 2-6) and select Start Download.

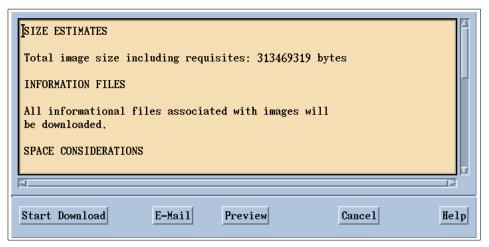


Figure 2-6 Estimated size of files to be downloaded

4. Check the ptfload.log file to ensure that all files are transferred successfully.

5. The stacklist file will show you what fixes have been downloaded. You should see all the backup format files (BFF) with the fix level 4.3.1.0.

## 2.5.2 Invoking the smit update\_all fast path

Back up your system (as described in Chapter 9, "System backup and restore" on page 211) and then use the SMIT fast path **smit update\_all** and specify the download directory for INPUT device/directory for software, as shown in Figure 2-7.

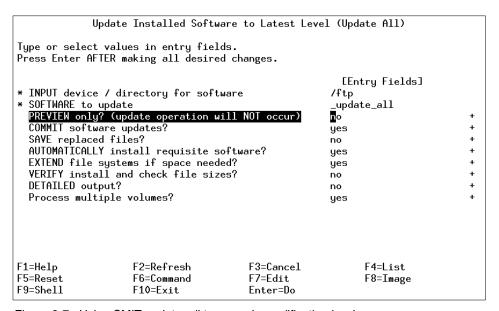


Figure 2-7 Using SMIT update\_all to upgrade modification level

If you are using the AIX Version 4.3 installation CD-ROMs, enter /dev/cd0 for the INPUT device/directory for the software field. You may need to replace Volume 1 of the AIX Version 4.3 installation CD-ROMs with Volume 2 and then switch back to Volume 1 again, depending on what filesets you have installed on the 4.3.0.0 system. The swapping of CD-ROMs is normal.

# 2.6 Finding a fileset that contains a given command

It is a common task to upgrade a single component, but it is difficult to determine what fileset requires the update. This section describes a process to accomplish this.

Suppose a user suspects that there is a problem with the nfsd program. The system administrator wants to download the latest fix level of the fileset. The following steps are planned:

- 1. Find out the full path of the nfsd program using the whence command.
- Find out which fileset the nfsd program belongs to using the lslpp -w command.
- Find out the maintenance level of the fileset installed on the system using the 1s1pp -1 command to ensure that a fileset with a higher fix level is to be downloaded.

The following is an example using nfsd:

```
# whence nfsd
/usr/sbin/nfsd
# lslpp -w /usr/sbin/nfsd
File Fileset Type

/usr/sbin/nfsd bos.net.nfs.client File
# lslpp -l bos.net.nfs.client
Fileset Level State Description

Path: /usr/lib/objrepos
bos.net.nfs.client 4.3.2.0 COMMITTED Network File System Client

Path: /etc/objrepos
bos.net.nfs.client 4.3.2.0 COMMITTED Network File System Client
#
```

If you already know a fileset and would like to determine what the contents are, use the lslpp -f bos.net.nfs.client command.

## **2.7 Quiz**

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

- 1. Using SMIT, a support specialist is installing a PTF to correct a problem. The installation has failed. Where would the support specialist look to troubleshoot the cause of the installation failure?
  - A. /smit.log
  - B. /image.data
  - C. /tmp/bos/smit.log
  - D. /var/adm/ras/bosinstlog

- 2. A customer has asked a support specialist which fileset to install in order to use the **qprt** command. The support specialist is certain the fileset is in either printers.rte. or bos.rte.printers. Which command could the support specialist run against each fileset to verify which fileset contains this executable?
  - A. 1slpp -f
  - B. 1s1pp -c
  - C. 1ppchk -c
  - D. lppchk -f
- 3. An owner of a pSeries 680 would like to install AIX 5L and use JFS2 for the rootvg file systems. Which of the following methods are available to perform this task?
  - A. Advise the customer that rootvg cannot contain a JFS2.
  - Enable JFS2 by setting the ENHANCEDJFS environment variable to YES.
  - C. Run the migratefs command on each of the file systems after the installation.
  - Select the Enable 64-bit Kernel and JFS2 advanced install option at installation time.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- A technical specialist working on an RS/6000 Model 397 running AIX 4.3.1
  determines that the system needs to be reinstalled with the same version of
  the operating system. What is the best method to perform the reinstallation
  without erasing /home and /data, a file system used to store project data?
  - A. Reinstall bos.rte from the installation media.
  - B. Perform a preservation installation from a mksysb.
  - C. Perform a migration installation from the installation media.
  - D. Perform a preservation installation from the installation media.
- 2. The support specialist is installing the latest fixes for the bos.rte.tty fileset using SMIT. There is an error during the installation of the APAR. Where is the installation log file located?
  - A. \$HOME/smit.log
  - B. /intallp.log
  - C. /tmp/bos/bosinst.log
  - D. /var/adm/ras/install.log

- 3. The marketing department has requested that their RS/6000 server be upgraded from 4.2.0 to 4.2.1. Using the 4.2.1 installation CD-ROM, which of the following commands would the system administrator use to accomplish this task?
  - A. smit update\_all
  - B. smit easy\_install
  - C. smit update\_latest
  - D. smit maintain\_software
- 4. Which of the following commands can be run to find the release of the operating system on an RS/6000?
  - A. oslevel
  - B. oslevel -release
  - C. 1s1pp -ah bos.obj
  - D. lslpp -1 bos.obj

## 2.7.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. A
- 3. D

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. D
- 2. A
- 3. A
- 4. A

## 2.8 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- On a test system that does not affect any users, perform a new and complete
  overwrite installation.
- On a test system that does not affect any users, perform a migration install to upgrade AIX to the next release level. Note what data is saved and what data is removed.
- 3. On a test system that does not affect any users, perform a **smit update\_all** to upgrade AIX to the next modification level.
- 4. On a test system that does not affect any users, perform a preservation install to reinstall the same version, release, and modification level of the operating system. Note what data is saved and what data is removed.
- 5. Use the various flags of the **1ppchk** command to verify the checksum, the file sizes, the symbolic links, and the requisites of the software products installed.
- 6. Check the \$HOME/smit.log for the installp command output log.
- 7. Use the various flags of the oslevel command to show the level of the operating system, the known maintenance levels of the operating system installed on the system, the lists at levels earlier than the specified level parameter, and the filesets at levels later than the current maintenance level.
- 8. Use the lslpp command to find out which fileset is used to package a given command.



# System initialization and boot

A support specialist must understand the system initialization process, common startup errors, and how to customize the startup of software. This chapter introduces the concepts needed to better understand this process.

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# 3.1 System initialization

During system startup, after the root file system has been mounted in the pre-initialization process, the following sequence of events occurs:

- 1. The **init** command is run as the last step of the startup process.
- 2. The init command attempts to read the /etc/inittab file.
- 3. If the /etc/inittab file exists, the init command attempts to locate an initdefault entry in the /etc/inittab file.
  - a. If the initdefault entry exists, the **init** command uses the specified run level as the initial system run level.
  - b. If the initdefault entry does not exist, the **init** command requests that the user enter a run level from the system console (/dev/console).
  - c. If the user enters an S, s, M, or m run level, the init command enters the maintenance run level. These are the only run levels that do not require a properly formatted /etc/inittab file.
- 4. If the /etc/inittab file does not exist, the init command places the system in the maintenance run level by default.
- 5. The init command rereads the /etc/inittab file every 60 seconds. If the /etc/inittab file has changed since the last time the init command read it, the new commands in the /etc/inittab file are executed.

## 3.2 The /etc/inittab file

The /etc/inittab file controls the initialization process.

The /etc/inittab file supplies the script to the init command's role as a general process dispatcher. The process that constitutes the majority of the init command's process dispatching activities is the /etc/getty line process, which initiates individual terminal lines. Other processes typically dispatched by the init command are daemons and the shell.

The /etc/inittab file is composed of entries that are position-dependent and have the following format:

Identifier:RunLevel:Action:Command

Each entry is delimited by a newline character. A backslash (\) preceding a newline character indicates the continuation of an entry. There are no limits (other than maximum entry size) on the number of entries in the /etc/inittab file. The maximum entry size is 1024 characters.

The entry fields are:

#### Identifier

A one to fourteen character field that uniquely identifies an object.

#### RunLevel

The run level at which this entry can be processed.

The run level has the following attributes:

- Run levels effectively correspond to a configuration of processes in the system.
- Each process started by the init command is assigned one or more run levels in which it can exist.
- Run levels are represented by the numbers 0 through 9. For example, if the system is in run level 1, only those entries with a 1 in the run-level field are started.
- When you request the init command to change run levels, all processes without a matching entry in the run-level field for the target run level receive a warning signal (SIGTERM). There is a 20-second grace period before processes are forcibly terminated by the kill signal (SIGKILL).
- The run-level field can define multiple run levels for a process by selecting more than one run level in any combination from 0 through 9. If no run level is specified, the process is assumed to be valid at all run levels.
- There are three other values that appear in the run-level field, even though they are not true run levels: a, b, and c. Entries that have these characters in the run level field are processed only when the telinit command requests them to be run (regardless of the current run level of the system). They differ from run levels in that the init command can never enter run level a, b, or c. Also, a request for the execution of any of these processes does not change the current run level. Furthermore, a process started by an a, b, or c command is not killed when the init command changes levels. They are only killed if their line in the /etc/inittab file is marked off in the action field, their line is deleted entirely from /etc/inittab, or the init command goes into single-user mode.

#### Action

Tells the **init** command how to treat the process specified in the process field. The following actions are recognized by the **init** command:

#### respawn

If the process does not exist, start the process. Do not wait for its termination (continue scanning the /etc/inittab file). Restart the process when it dies. If

the process exists, do nothing and continue scanning the /etc/inittab file.

wait

When the **init** command enters the run level that matches the entry's run level, start the process and wait for its termination. All subsequent reads of the /etc/inittab file, while the init command is in the same run level, will cause the init command to ignore this entry.

once

When the init command enters a run level that matches the entry's run level, start the process, and do not wait for termination. When it dies, do not restart the process. When the system enters a new run level, and the process is still running from a previous run level change, the program will not be restarted.

boot

Process the entry only during system boot, which is when the init command reads the /etc/inittab file during system startup. Start the process, do not wait for its termination, and when it dies, do not restart the process. In order for the instruction to be meaningful, the run level should be the default or it must match the init command's run level at boot time. This action is useful for an initialization function following a hardware reboot of the system.

bootwait

Process the entry the first time that the init command goes from single-user to multi-user state after the system is booted. Start the process, wait for its termination, and when it dies, do not restart the process. If the initdefault is 2, run the process right after boot.

**powerfail** Execute the process associated with this entry only when the init command receives a power fail signal (SIGPWR).

**powerwait** Execute the process associated with this entry only when the init command receives a power fail signal (SIGPWR), and wait until it terminates before continuing to process the /etc/inittab file.

off

If the process associated with this entry is currently running, send the warning signal (SIGTERM), and wait 20 seconds before terminating the process with the kill signal (SIGKILL). If the process is not running, ignore this entry.

**ondemand** Functionally identical to respawn, except this action applies to the a, b, or c values, not to run levels.

**initdefault** An entry with this action is only scanned when the init command is initially invoked. The init command uses this entry, if it exists, to determine which run level to enter initially. It does this by taking the highest run level specified in the run-level field and using that as its initial state. If the run level field is empty, this is interpreted as 0123456789: therefore, the init command enters run level 9. Additionally, if the **init** command does not find an initdefault entry in the /etc/inittab file, it requests an initial run level from the user at boot time.

sysinit

Entries of this type are executed before the init command tries to access the console before login. It is expected that this entry will only be used to initialize devices on which the init command might try to ask the run level question. These entries are executed and waited for before continuing.

Command

A shell command to execute. The entire command field is prefixed with exec and passed to a forked sh as sh -c exec command. Any legal **sh** syntax can appear in this field. Comments can be inserted with the # comment syntax.

The getty command writes over the output of any commands that appear before it in the /etc/inittab file. To record the output of these commands to the boot log, pipe their output to the alog -tboot command.

The stdin, stdout, and stdferr file descriptors may not be available while init is processing inittab entries. Any entries writing to stdout or stderr may not work predictably unless they redirect their output to a file or to /dev/console.

The following commands are the only supported methods for modifying the records in the /etc/inittab file:

**chitab** Changes records in the /etc/inittab file.

lsitab Lists records in the /etc/inittab file.

mkitab Adds records to the /etc/inittab file.

rmitab Removes records from the /etc/inittab file.

An example of /etc/inittab entries is shown in Figure 3-1.

```
: Note - initdefault and sysinit should be the first and second entry.
init:2:initdefault:
brc::sysinit:/sbin/rc.boot 3 >/dev/console 2>&1 # Phase 3 of system boot
powerfail::powerfail:/etc/rc.powerfail 2>&1 | alog -tboot > /dev/console # Power
Failure Detection
rc:2:wait:/etc/rc 2>&1 | alog -tboot > /dev/console # Multi-User checks
fbcheck:2:wait:/usr/sbin/fbcheck 2>&1 | alog -tboot > /dev/console # run /etc/fi
srcmstr:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/srcmstr # System Resource Controller
rctcpip:2:wait:/etc/rc.tcpip > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start TCP/IP daemons
rcdce:2:wait:/etc/rc.dce all >/dev/console 2>&1 #Start DFS deamons
rccm:2:wait:/usr/bin/cm setsetuid /usr/prod/bin/* -state on >/dev/console 2>&1
dceupdt:2:wait:/etc/rc.dce_update >/dev/console 2>&1 #Start DCE update script
lafs:2:once:/usr/vice/etc/lafs
rcnfs:2:wait:/etc/rc.nfs > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start NFS Daemons
cron:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/cron
piobe:2:wait:/usr/lib/lpd/pio/etc/pioinit >/dev/null 2>&1 # pb cleanup
qdaemon:2:wait:/usr/bin/startsrc -sqdaemon
writesrv:2:wait:/usr/bin/startsrc -swritesrv
uprintfd:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/uprintfd
logsymp:2:once:/usr/lib/ras/logsymptom # for system dumps
pmd:2:wait:/usr/bin/pmd > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start PM daemon
dt:2:wait:/etc/rc.dt
cons:0123456789:respawn:/usr/sbin/getty/dev/console
imnss:2:once:/usr/IMNSearch/bin/imnss -start imnhelp >/dev/console 2>&1
httpdlite:2:once:/usr/IMNSearch/httpdlite/httpdlite -r /etc/IMNSearch/httpdlite/
httpdlite.conf >/dev/console 2>&1
i4ls:2:wait:/etc/i4ls.rc > /dev/null 2>&1 # Start i4ls
```

Figure 3-1 Example /etc/inittab file

#### Order of /etc/inittab entries

The base process entries in the /etc/initab file is ordered as follows:

- 1 initdefault
- ▶ 2 sysinit
- 3 Powerfailure Detection (powerfail)
- 4 Multiuser check (rc)
- 5 /etc/firstboot (fbcheck)
- 6 System Resource Controller (srcmstr)
- 7 Start TCP/IP daemons (rctcpip)
- ▶ 8 Start NFS daemons (rcnfs)
- ▶ 9 cron
- ▶ 10 pb cleanup (piobe)
- ▶ 11 getty for the console (cons)

The System Resource Controller (SRC) has to be started near the beginning of the etc/inittab file since the SRC daemon is needed to start other processes. Since NFS requires TCP/IP daemons to run correctly, TCP/IP daemons are started ahead of the NFS daemons. The entries in the /etc/inittab file are ordered according to dependencies, meaning that if a process (process2) requires that another process (process1) be present for it to operate normally, then an entry for process1 comes before an entry for process2 in the /etc/inittab file.

#### 3.2.1 The telinit command

The **telinit** command directs the actions of the init process (process ID 1) by taking a one-character argument and signaling the init process to perform the appropriate action. In general, the **telinit** command sets the system at a specific run level. The following arguments serve as directives that the **telinit** command passes to the init process:

<b>0-9</b> Tells the init process to put the system in one	of the run levels 0-9.
--	------------------------

S,s,M,m	Tells the init	process to	o enter the	maintenance	mode.
---------	----------------	------------	-------------	-------------	-------

a,b,c	Tells the init process to examine only those records in the /etc/inittab
	file with a, b, or c in the run-level field.

**Q,q** Tells the init process to re-examine the entire /etc/inittab file.

**N** Sends a signal that stops processes from being respawned.

# 3.3 Initialization support

Generally, if you encounter a problem in the booting process, you receive a three-digit LED error code. In this section, several software problems are discussed along with their possible solutions.

## 3.3.1 Using the bootlist command

You can change the way your system looks up devices to find its boot code. The **bootlist** command displays and alters the list of boot devices available to the system. The general syntax of the command is as follows:

```
bootlist [ { -m Mode } [ -r ] [ -o ] [ [ -i ] | [ [ -f File ] [ Device [ Attr=Value ... ] ... ] ] ]
```

The most common flags used with the **bootlist** command are given in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 bootlist command flags

Flag	Description
-m <i>mode</i>	Specifies which boot list to display or alter. Possible values for the mode variable are normal, service, both, or prevboot.
-f <i>File</i>	Indicates that the device information is to be read from the specified file name.
-i	Indicates that the device list specified by the -m flag should be invalidated.
-0	Displays bootlist with -m flag. Applies only to AIX Version 4.2 or later.
-r	Indicates to display the specified bootlist after any specified alteration is performed.

The **bootlist** command allows the user to display and alter the list of possible boot devices from which the system may be booted. When the system is booted, it will scan the devices in the list and attempt to boot from the first device it finds containing a boot image. This command supports the updating of the following:

Normal boot list	The normal list designates possible boot devices for
------------------	--

when the system is booted in normal mode.

when the system is booted in service mode.

## **Previous boot device** This entry designates the last device from which the

system booted. Some hardware platforms may attempt to boot from the previous boot device before looking for a

boot device in one of the other lists.

Support of these boot lists varies from platform to platform, and some platforms do not have boot lists. When searching for a boot device, the system selects the first device in the list and determines if it is bootable. If no boot file system is detected on the first device, the system moves on to the next device in the list. As a result, the ordering of devices in the device list is extremely important.

In order to display a boot list (Version 4.2 or later), use the command:

# bootlist -m normal -o
fd0
cd0
hdisk0

If you want to make changes to your normal boot list, use the command:

```
# bootlist -m normal fd0 hdisk0 cd0
```

or create a file containing the list of fd0 hdisk0 cd0 (separated by whitespace or one device per line) and use the command:

```
# bootlist -m normal -f filename
```

This will change the normal bootlist to indicate that when the system is booted, it will first attempt to boot from the floppy disk. If it can not find a boot image on the floppy disk, it will look to hdisk0, then search the CD-ROM, otherwise, it will give an LED code and wait for user intervention.

## 3.3.2 Locating boot logical volumes

You must know where boot logical volumes (BLV) are located in order to include them in the boot list. Use the following procedure to locate BLVs:

1. Use the 1svg command to identify volume groups:

```
# lsvg
rootvg
co-opvg
```

2. Use the 1svg -1 command with the grep command to search for the string boot in all of the volume groups listed in step 1:

3. Use the 1s1v -1 command with each BLV found in step 2 to find out on which physical volumes they are located:

```
# lslv -l hd5
hd5:N/A
PV COPIES IN BAND DISTRIBUTION
hdisk0 001:000:000 100% 001:000:000:000
```

In this case, only hdisk0 can be included in the boot list.

## 3.3.3 Accessing a system that will not boot

If you are unable to boot your system, the first step is to access the system and see what is the probable cause of the failure. This procedure enables you to get a system prompt so that you may attempt to recover data from the system or perform corrective action that will enable the system to boot from the hard disk.

In order to access the system:

- Turn the system key (if present) to the Service position or alternatively press F5 on a PCI based system to boot from the tape/CD-ROM/DVD-RAM drive (during step 4).
- Turn on all attached external devices, such as terminals, CD-ROM or DVD-RAM drives, tape drives, monitors, and external disk drives before turning on the system unit. Turn on the system unit to allow the installation media to be loaded.
- 3. Insert Volume 1 of the installation media into the tape, CD-ROM, or DVD-RAM drive, and power the system unit off.
- 4. Turn the system unit power switch to the On position. When booting from alternate media, a screen will appear (before Figure 3-2) asking you to press a function key (such as F1) to select the proper display as the system console. Each display on the system will receive a function key number in order to identify it as the system console. The system begins booting from the installation media. After several minutes, c31 is displayed in the LED (if your system has an LED; otherwise, a screen similar to the one in Figure 3-2 is shown).

### Welcome to Base Operating System Installation and Maintenance

Type the number of your choice and press Enter.

- >>> 1 Start Installation Now with Default Settings
  - 2 Change/Show Installation Settings and Install
  - 3 Start Maintenance Mode for System Recovery

88 Help?

99 Previous Menu

Choice [1]:

Figure 3-2 BOS installation and maintenance screen

5. Select option 3, Start Maintenance Mode for System Recovery, and press Enter. A screen similar to the one in Figure 3-3 on page 39 is shown.

#### Maintenance

Type the number of your choice and press Enter.

- >>> 1 Access a Root Volume Group
  - 2 Copy a System Dump to Removable Media
  - **3 Access Advanced Maintenance Functions**
  - 4 Install from a System Backup

88 Help?

99 Previous Menu

>>> Choice [1]:

Figure 3-3 Maintenance screen

6. Enter 1, Access a Root Volume Group. A screen similar to the one in Figure 3-4 is shown.

#### Warning

If you choose to access a root volume group, you will not be able to return to the Base Operating System Installation menus without rebooting.

Type the number of your choice and press Enter

0 Continue

88 Help?

>>> 99 Previous Menu

>>> Choice [99]:

Figure 3-4 Warning screen

7. Enter a 0 and press Enter. A screen similar to Figure 3-5 on page 40 is shown.

#### **Access a Root Volume Group**

Type the number for a volume group to display logical volume information and press Enter.

- 1) Volume Group 00615147b27f2b40 contains these disks: hdisk0 958 04-B0-00-2,0
- 2) Volume Group 00615247b27c2b41 contains these disks: hdisk1 2063 04-B0-00-6,0

#### Choice:

Figure 3-5 Access a Root Volume Group screen

8. Select the volume group whose logical volume information you want to display. This is important, because rootvg will have hd5, that is, the boot logical volume. Enter the number of the volume group and press Enter. A screen similar to Figure 3-6 is shown.

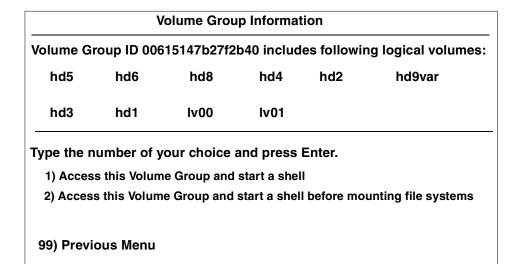


Figure 3-6 Volume Group Information screen

**Choice [99]:** 

- 9. Select one of the options from the Volume Group Information screen and press Enter. Each option does the following:
  - **Choice 1** Selecting this choice imports and activates the volume group and mounts the file systems for this root volume group before providing you with a shell and a system prompt.
  - **Choice 2** Selecting this choice imports and activates the volume group and provides you with a shell and system prompt before mounting the file systems for this root volume group.
  - **Choice 99** Entering 99 returns you to the Access a Root Volume Group screen.

After either choice 1 or 2 is selected and processed, a shell and system prompt are displayed.

10. Take appropriate measures to recover data or take action (such as using the **bosboot** command) to enable the system to boot normally.

## 3.3.4 Common boot time LED codes

During system initialization, servers with operator panel displays will show LED codes that provide information about the status of the boot process. Some codes are checkpoints that indicate which point in the boot process the server has reached. These codes depend on the type of server.

For example, on a server with a four character display, E1F1 indicates that the system-defined console has been activated, whereas FF1 indicates this on a server with a three character display. Codes in the form of Fxx, where xx is a hexadecimal number, are generally related to firmware.

Other codes indicate that a fault has been detected. The most common LED codes that indicate boot problems and how to get around them to getting your system up and running again are given in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2 Common startup LEDs and solutions

#### LED 201 - Damaged boot image

- 1. Access your rootvg by following the procedure described in Section 3.3.3, "Accessing a system that will not boot" on page 37.
- 2. Check / and /tmp file systems. If they are almost full, create more space.
- 3. Determine the boot disk by using the command 1s1v -m hd5.
- 4. Re-create boot image using bosboot -a -d /dev/hdiskn.
- 5. Check for CHECKSTOP errors in the error log. If such errors are found, it is probably failing hardware.
- 6. Shutdown and restart the system.

#### LED 223-229 - Invalid boot list

- 1. Set the key mode switch to service (F5 for systems without keylock) and power up the machine.
- 2. If display continues normally, change the key mode switch to Normal and continue with step 3. If you do not get the prompt, go to step 4.
- 3. When you get the login prompt, login and follow the procedure described in Section 3.3.1, "Using the bootlist command" on page 35 to change your bootlist. Continue with step 7.
- 4. Follow the procedure in Section 3.3.3, "Accessing a system that will not boot" on page 37 to access your rootyg and continue with step 5.
- 5. Determine the boot disk by using the command 1slv -m hd5.
- 6. Change the bootlist following the procedure given in Section 3.3.1, "Using the bootlist command" on page 35.
- 7. Shutdown and restart your system.

#### LED 551, 555, and 557 - Corrupted file system, corrupted JFS log, and so on.

- 1. Follow the procedure described in Section 3.3.3, "Accessing a system that will not boot" on page 37, to access the rootvg before mounting any file systems (Option 2 on the Maintenance screen).
- 2. Verify and correct the file systems as follows:

fsck -y /dev/hd1

fsck -y /dev/hd2

fsck -y /dev/hd3

fsck -y /dev/hd4

fsck -y /dev/hd9var

3. Format the JFS log again by using the command:

/usr/sbin/logform /dev/hd8

- 4. Use 1s1v -m hd5 to find out the boot disk.
- 5. Recreate boot image by using the command:

bosboot -a -d /dev/hdiskn

Where *n* is the disk number of the disk containing boot logical volume.

# LED 552, 554, and 556 - Super block corrupted and corrupted customized ODM database

- 1. Repeat steps 1 through 2 for LEDs 551, 555, and 557.
- 2. If **fsck** indicates that block 8 is corrupted, the super block for the file system is corrupted and needs to be repaired. Enter the command:

dd count=1 bs=4k skip=31 seek=1 if=/dev/hdn of=/dev/hdn

where n is the number of the file system.

3. Rebuild your JFS log by using the command:

/usr/sbin/logform /dev/hd8

- 4. If this solves the problem, stop here; otherwise, continue with step 5.
- 5. Your ODM database is corrupted. Restart your system and follow the procedure given in Section 3.3.3, "Accessing a system that will not boot" on page 37 to access rootvg with Choice 2.
- 6. Mount the root and usr file system as follows:

```
mount /dev/hd4 /mnt
mount /usr
```

7. Copy the system configuration to a back up directory:

```
mkdir /mnt/etc/objrepors/backup
cp /mnt/etc/objrepors/Cu* /mnt/etc/objrepos/backup
```

- 8. Copy the configuration from the RAM file system as follows:
  - cp /etc/objrepos/Cu\* /mnt/etc/objrepos
- 9. Unmount all file systems by using the unount all command.
- 10. Determine bootdisk by using the 1s1v -m hd5 command.
- 11. Save the clean ODM to the boot logical volume by using the command:

savebase -d/dev/hdiskn

12. Reboot, if system does not come up, and reinstall BOS.

### LED 553 - Corrupted /etc/inittab file

- Access the rootvg with all file systems mounted by following the procedure described in Section 3.3.3, "Accessing a system that will not boot" on page 37.
- 2. Check for free space in /, /var and /tmp by using the df command.
- 3. Check the /etc/inittab file and correct the inittab problems if there is one empty inittab file, missing inittab file, or wrong entry in inittab file.
- 4. Check problems with:

```
/etc/environment file
/bin/sh
/bin/bsh
/etc/fsck
/etc/profile
/.profile
```

5. Shut down the system and reboot.

## **3.4 Quiz**

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

- 1. During bootup, the support specialist notices LEDs alternating between 223 and 229. This indicates an invalid boot device. Assuming no hardware failures, which of the following commands should be used next in order to determine the boot device once in a maintenance shell?
  - A. 1s1v -m hd5
  - B. 1spv -m hd5
  - C. bosboot -a -d hd5
  - D. bootlist -m normal hd5
- 2. After a power failure, the system attempts to reboot but hangs on 557. This indicates file system corruption. Which of the following actions should be taken to recover?
  - A. Restore /etc/filesystems from mksysb.
  - B. Execute chfs -a size=+1 against all file systems in rootvg.
  - C. From a maintenace shell, run lppchk -v against all filesets installed.
  - D. From a maintenance shell, run fsck -y against all file systems in rootvg.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

Figure 3-7 is an exhibit pertaining to question 1.

```
init:2:initdefault:
brc::sysinit:/sbin/rc.boot 3 >/dev/console 2>&1 # Phase 3 of system
boot
powerfail::powerfail:/etc/rc.powerfail 2>&1 | alog -tboot >
/dev/console # Power Failure Detection
rc:2:wait:/etc/rc 2>&1 | alog -tboot > /dev/console # Multi-User checks
fbcheck:2:wait:/usr/sbin/fbcheck 2>&1 | alog -tboot > /dev/console #
run /etc/firstboot
srcmstr:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/srcmstr # System Resource Controller
rctcpip:2:wait:/etc/rc,tcpip > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start TCP/IP daemons
rcnfs:2:wait:/etc/rc.nfs > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start NFS Daemons
cron:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/cron
piobe:2:wait:/usr/lib/lpd/pio/etc/pioinit >/dev/null 2>&1 # pb cleanup
gdaemon:2:wait:/usr/bin/startsrc -sqdaemon
writesrv:2:wait:/usr/bin/startsrc -swritesrv
uprintfd:2:respawn:/usr/sbin/uprintfd
logsymp:2:once:/usr/lib/ras/logsymptom # for system dumps
pmd:2:wait:/usr/bin/pmd > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start PM daemon
diaqd:2:once:/usr/lpp/diaqnostics/bin/diaqd >/dev/console 2>&1
dt:2:wait:/etc/rc.dt
cons:0123456789:respawn:/usr/sbin/getty/dev/console
cfgmceh:2:once:/usr/lib/methods/cfgmceh >/dev/null 2>&1 # Configure
Machine Check Error Handler
infod:2:once:startsrc -s infod
browser:2:respawn:/usr/lpp/xlC/browser/pdnsd
```

Figure 3-7 Exhibit for question 1

- After booting, NFS is not available. Based on the exhibit, what can be concluded?
  - A. etc/rc.nfs is corrupted.
  - B. The /var file system is corrupted.
  - C. The TCP/IP initialization is incorrect.
  - D. The start NFS call should read "rcnfs:1:wait:/etc/rc.nfs > /dev/console 2>&1.

- 2. During bootup, the system administrator notices that the system is hung at LED 553. This most commonly indicates:
  - A. A corrupted /etc/inittab.
  - B. The system could not complete a network boot.
  - C. The system could not vary on the root volume group.
  - D. The configuration manager could not locate a valid boot device.

## 3.4.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. D

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. C
- 2. A

## 3.5 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Locate the boot devices on your systems.
- 2. Comment out tasks started in /etc/inittab and experience the error messages caused by errors generated like this.



# Hardware installation and configuration management

Configuration management involves adding new devices to the system, their configuration, troubleshooting, and solutions to problems that result. The RS/6000 and pSeries systems include support for several buses, such as the Peripheral Component Interconnect (PCI), as well as new devices that are different from the ones that are supported on the microchannel-based RS/6000 systems.

AIX system configuration architecture and methodology uses information stored in the Object Data Manager (ODM) database to configure devices. The configuration of devices that do not support automatic configuration, for example, non-native ISA devices, must be performed manually. This chapter includes step-by-step procedures on how to configure devices on the PCI-based RS/6000 and pSeries servers.

## 4.1 Finding out about your system

RS/6000 and pSeries servers are available in a variety of models. A pSeries system can be single processor or multiprocessor. Models comply to a number of architecture specifications, such as Micro Channel, PowerPC Reference Platform (PREP), Common Hardware Reference Platform (CHRP), and RS/6000 Platform Architecture (RPA).

The hardware platform type is an abstraction that allows machines to be grouped according to fundamental configuration characteristics, such as the number of processors and/or I/O bus structure. Machines with different hardware platform types will have basic differences in the way their devices are dynamically configured at boot time. Currently available hardware platforms, which are able to be differentiated by software, in RS/6000 and pSeries families, are:

rs6k Micro Channel-based uni-processor models

rs6ksmp Micro Channel-based symmetric multiprocessor models

rspc ISA-bus models
chrp PCI-bus models

In order to determine the hardware platform type on your machine, enter the following command:

bootinfo -p

This will return rs6k, rs6ksmp, rspc, or chrp as output.

You can also use the **1scfg** command to determine the type of hardware platform you have. The **1scfg** command provides output similar to Figure 4-1 on page 49.

```
INSTALLED RESOURCE LIST
The following resources are installed on the machine.
+/- = Added or deleted from Resource List.
* = Diagnostic support not available.
 Model Architecture: chrp
 Model Implementation: Multiple Processor, PCI bus
                  00-00
+ sysplanar0
                                    System Planar
                  00-00
+ mem0
                                    Memoru
 proc0
                  00-00
                                    Processor
+ L2cache0
                  00-00
                                    L2 Cache
                  00-00
                                    Power Management Controller
* pmc0
+ proc1
                  00-01
                                    Processor
+ proc2
                  00-02
                                   Processor
                 00-03
+ proc3
                                   Processor
                 00-f8400000
                                    PCI Bus
* pci0
                10-78
* isa0
                                    ISA Bus
+ fda0
                  01-D1
                                    Standard I/O Diskette Adapter
                  01-D1-00-00
+ fd0
                                    Diskette Drive
* siokma0
                  01-K1
                                    Keyboard/Mouse Adapter
                  01-K1-00
                                    Keyboard Adapter
+ sioka0
```

Figure 4-1 Finding out the hardware platform type

It is important to know what kind of system you have and what its capabilities are if you decide to use your system for special purposes, such as a Web server, a CATIA workstation, or for running heavy database applications.

Web servers require fast networking connections, CATIA workstations require a powerful graphics adapter, and database applications require large responsive disk drives.

You can determine a specific subset of the configuration of your systems using the following commands:

- **1scfg** Displays configuration, diagnostic, and vital product data (VPD) information about the system.
- **1sdev** Displays devices in the system and their characteristics.
- **1sattr** Displays attribute characteristics and possible values of attributes for devices in the system.

There are also device-specific and class-specific commands that you can use to find out detailed information about your system. A sample of these commands include **bindprocessor**, **ifconfig**, **1spv**, and **1s1pp**.

## 4.1.1 Using the Iscfg command

You can use the <code>lscfg</code> command to display summary or detailed data about devices. If you run the <code>lscfg</code> command without any flags, it displays the name, location, and description of each device found in the current Customized VPD object class that is a child device of the <code>sysO</code> object. Information on a specific device can be displayed with the -l flag.

You can also use the **1scfg** command to display vital product data (VPD), such as part numbers, serial numbers, and engineering change levels from either the Customized VPD object class or platform specific areas. Not all devices contain VPD data.

The general command syntax of the 1scfg command is as follows:

```
lscfg [ -v p ] [ -1 Name ]
```

Some of the most commonly used flags with the **1scfg** command are given in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1	lscfq	command	flags
-----------	-------	---------	-------

Flag	Description
-l Name	Displays device information for the named device.
-р	Displays the platform-specific device information. This flag only applies to AIX Version 4.2.1 or later.
-v	Displays the VPD found in the Customized VPD object class. Also, on AIX Version 4.2.1 or later, displays platform specific VPD when used with the -p flag.

# 4.1.2 Using the Isdev command

You can use the **1sdev** command to display information about devices in the device configuration database. You can use this command to display information from either the Customized Devices object class in ODM using the -C flag or the Predefined Devices object class in ODM using the -P flag.

The general command syntax of the **1sdev** command is as follows:

```
lsdev -C [ -c Class ] [ -s Subclass ] [ -t Type ] [ -f File ]
[ -F Format | -r ColumnName ] [ -h ] [ -H ] [ -l Name ] [ -S State ]
lsdev -P [-c Class ] [ -s Subclass ] [ -t Type ] [ -f File ]
[ -F Format | -r ColumnName ] [ -h ] [ -H ]
```

Some of the most commonly used flags with the **1sdev** command are given in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2 Isdev command flags

Flag	Description
-C	Lists information about a device that is in the Customized Devices object class. The default information displayed is name, status, location, and description. This flag cannot be used with the -P flag.
-c Class	Specifies a device class name. This flag can be used to restrict output to devices in a specified class.
-H	Displays headers above the column output.
-h	Displays the command usage message.
-P	Lists information about a device that is in the Predefined Devices object class. The default information displayed is class, type, subclass, and description. This flag cannot be used with the -C, -I, or -S flags.
-S State	Lists all devices in a specified state as named by the State parameter.

# 4.1.3 Using the Isattr command

You can use the <code>lsattr</code> command to display information about the attributes of a given device or kind of device. If you do not specify the device's logical name (-I <code>Name</code>), you must use a combination of one or all of the -c <code>Class</code>, -s <code>Subclass</code>, and -t <code>Type</code> flags to uniquely identify the predefined device. The general syntax of the <code>lsattr</code> command is as follows:

```
lsattr { -D [ -0 ] | -E [ -0 ] | -F Format } -1 Name [ -a Attribute ]
...[ -f File ] [ -h ] [ -H ]
lsattr { -D [ -0 ] | -F Format } { [ -c Class ] [ -s Subclass ] [ -t Type ] }
[ -a Attribute ] ... [ -f File ] [ -h ] [ -H ]
lsattr -R { -1 Name | [ -c Class ] [ -s Subclass ] [ -t Type ] } -a Attribute
[ -f File ] [ -h ] [ -H ]
```

The flags commonly used with the 1sattr command are given in Table 4-3.

Table 4-3 Isattr command flags

Flag	Description
-D	Displays the attribute names, default values, descriptions, and user-settable flag values for a specific device when not used with the -O flag. The -D flag displays only the attribute name and default value in colon format when used with the -O flag.

Flag	Description
-E	Displays the attribute names, current values, descriptions, and user-settable flag values for a specific device when not used with the -O flag. The -E flag only displays the attribute name and current value in colon format when used with the -O flag. This flag cannot be used with the -c, -D, -F, -R, -s, or -t flags.
-F Format	Displays the output in a user-specified format.
-a Attribute	Displays information for the specified attributes of a specific device or kind of device.
-c Class	Specifies a device class name. This flag cannot be used with the -E or -I flags.
-f <i>File</i>	Reads the needed flags from the File parameter.
-H	Displays headers above the column output. To use the -H flag with either the -O or the -R flags is meaningless; the -O or -R flag prevails.
-l Name	Specifies the device logical name in the Customized Devices object class whose attribute names or values are to be displayed.
-O	Displays all attribute names separated by colons and, on the second line, displays all the corresponding attribute values separated by colons.
-R	Displays the legal values for an attribute name. The -R flag cannot be used with the -D, -E, -F, and -O flags, but can be used with any combination of the -c, -s, and -t flags that uniquely identifies a device from the Predefined Devices object class or with the -I flag. The -R flag displays the list attribute values in a vertical column as follows:
	Value1 Value2
	ValueN
	The -R flag displays the range attribute values as $xn(+i)$ where $x$ is the start of the range, $n$ is the end of the range, and $i$ is the increment.
-s Subclass	Specifies a device subclass name. This flag can be used to restrict the output to devices for a specified subclass. This flag cannot be used with the -E or -I flags.
-t Type	Specifies a device type name. This flag can be used to restrict the output to that of devices of a specified class. This flag cannot be used with the -E or -I flag.

When displaying the effective values of the attributes for a customized device, the information is obtained from the Configuration Database, not the device. Generally, the database values reflect how the device is configured unless it is reconfigured with the **chdev** command using the -P or -T flag. If this has occurred, the information displayed by the **lsattr** command might not correctly indicate the current device configuration until after the next system boot.

If you use the -D or -E flags, the output defaults to the values for the attribute's name, value, description, and user-settable strings unless also used with the -O flag. The -O flag displays the names of all attributes specified separated by colons. On the next line, the -O flag displays all the corresponding attribute values separated by colons. The -H flag can be used with either the -D, -E, or -F flags to display headers above the column names. You can define the format of the output with a user-specified format where the format parameter is a quoted list of column names separated by non-alphanumeric characters or white space using the -F *Format* flag.

#### 4.1.4 Examples

In order to find out the number of processors you have, use one of the following commands:

- ► 1scfg | grep proc | wc -1
- ► 1sdev -Cc processor | wc -1
- ► bindprocessor -q

The -q flag of the **bindprocessor** command lists the available logical processor numbers.

To learn more about a particular processor, use the following lsattr command:

```
# lsattr -EH -1 proc0
attribute value description user_settable

state enable Processor state False
type PowerPC_604 Processor type False
frequency 332000000 Processor Speed False
```

To find out how much memory is installed, use the following lsattr command:

```
# lsattr -El sys0 | grep realmem
realmem 524288 Amount of usable physical memory in Kbytes False
```

To find out if device driver software for the 14100401 class of adapters (gigabit Ethernet) is installed, use the 1s1pp command as follows:

```
# lslpp -1 | grep 14100401
devices.pci.14100401.diag 5.1.0.0 COMMITTED Gigabit Ethernet-SX PCI
```

```
devices.pci.14100401.rte 5.1.0.0 COMMITTED Gigabit Ethernet-SX PCI devices.pci.14100401.rte 5.1.0.0 COMMITTED Gigabit Ethernet-SX PCI
```

To find out if adapter ent1 supports the jumbo frames transmission setting, use the **1sattr** command as follows:

```
# lsattr -EHl ent1 -a jumbo_frames
attribute value description user_settable
jumbo frames no Transmit jumbo frames True
```

This example shows that ent1 supports jumbo frames but the option is currently not enabled.

# 4.2 Adapter and device configuration

PCI-based RS/6000 and pSeries servers support attachment of devices using the following bus types:

- ▶ SCSI
- ► PCI
- ► ISA

Devices on PCI-based RS/6000 or pSeries systems might be of two types: native devices, such as the integrated SCSI controller and the serial controller or attached (non-native) devices, such as the supported PCI or ISA adapters.

The device information required to configure the integrated devices is contained in the firmware and is passed to the operating system through the residual data written to NVRAM. Thus, integrated devices are configured automatically to AIX after system reboot. Attached PCI devices and adapters are configured automatically at system start-up, provided required device drivers are installed on the system. However, ISA adapters have to be configured manually.

# 4.3 Displaying installed devices

In order to display devices that are either supported or defined on your system, you can either use the **1sdev** command or use the SMIT fast path as follows:

#### 1. smitty lsdev

A screen similar to the one shown in Figure 4-2 on page 55 will be shown.

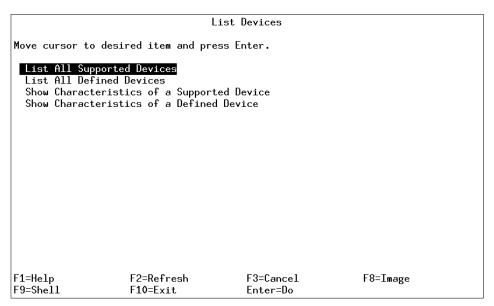


Figure 4-2 List Devices SMIT screen

- 2. Select List All Defined Devices (the 1sdev -C command is run in the background).
- 3. Press Enter.

A list of all the devices that are either in the Defined or in the Available state are listed. An output similar to Figure 4-3 on page 56 is shown.

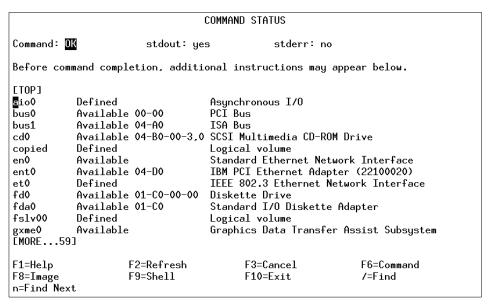


Figure 4-3 smitty Isdev output

**Note:** The predefined ODM database contains default characteristics for devices. These devices may not exist on the system, but have device support loaded. For example, if a tape drive was detected at the installation time, there will be a number of types of tape drives in the list, but if, on the other hand, no multiprotocol adapter was found, no such support will be added to the predefined database. Use the **1sdev -P** command to see a list of supported devices.

# 4.4 Configuring new devices

Depending on the kind of device you plan to configure, you will go through a different sequence of configuration steps. PCI device configuration and ISA device configuration differs considerably. The following sections discuss the various configuration approaches.

#### 4.4.1 PCI device configuration

If you add a new PCI or SCSI device to your system, the system will automatically configure the device (provided no conflict is found in case of SCSI devices, for example, the same SCSI ID for two different SCSI devices) at system restart or by using the **cfgmgr** command, provided the required device drivers are installed.

When using PCI adapters, the slot number is as important as it is in microchannel devices. If you change the adapter from slot A to slot B, the original adapter information for slot A will be kept in the defined state, and a new definition will be created for slot B and a new device will be configured.

#### Hot-plug PCI slots and adapters

Newer models of RS/6000 and IBM @server pSeries servers have PCI slots that are hot-plug enabled, which allows most PCI adapters to be removed, added, or replaced without powering down the system. This function enhances system availability and serviceability.

The function of hot-plug is not only provided by the PCI slot, but also by the function of the adapter. Most adapters are hot-plug, but some are not. Be aware that some adapters must not be removed when the system is running, such as the adapter with the operating system disks connected to it or the adapter that provides the system console. Refer to the *PCI Adapter Placement Reference Guide*, SA38-0538 for further information.

To manage hot-plug PCI adapters, it is important to turn off slot power before adding, removing, or replacing the adapter, which is done by the operating system. The following methods can be used to manage hot-plug PCI slots in AIX:

- Command line:
  - 1sslot: List slots and their characteristics
  - drslot: Dynamically reconfigures slots
- ► SMIT
- Web-based System Manager

To add a hot-plug PCI adapter, use the <code>drslot</code> command to set the slot first into the Identify state to verify the right slot was selected. After pressing Enter, the slot changes its state to the Action state. Then, add the adapter to the system. When finished, press Enter again to turn on the slot power. The adapter is now integrated into the system and can be configured using AIX <code>cfgmgr</code>.

Before adapters can be removed, they must be deconfigured in AIX. The adapter must be in a defined state or removed from the ODM.

#### 4.4.2 ISA device configuration

Devices like PCI or Micro Channel integrated devices, such as SCSI controllers, and integrated ISA devices, such as keyboard, mouse, and audio, are self configuring. However non-integrated ISA devices, such as adapters plugged into ISA slots, should be configured manually.

In the case of ISA devices, five resources should be managed before your system can run smoothly. These five resources are:

- ▶ Bus I/O ranges
- ► Bus memory address ranges
- System interrupts (IRQ)
- ► Direct Memory Access (DMA) channels
- Bus memory DMA address ranges

These settings must be different for all ISA adapters to avoid conflicts; otherwise, you will not be able to use the adapter. If these resources cannot be dynamically set, they must be set by adjusting switches or jumpers on the adapter. In case the adapter does not have switches, you may need a System Management Services (SMS) disk to configure the adapter.

The first step is to install the device drivers for ISA adapters, if you have not already done so. In order to check whether device support for ISA has been installed, use the **1sdev** command, as shown in Figure 4-4.

```
# 1sdev -Pc adapter -s isa
adapter tokenring isa IBM 16/4 PowerPC Token-Ring Adapter (isa)
adapter portmaster isa Multiport Model 2 Adapter
adapter ethernet isa IBM ISA Ethernet Adapter
adapter articmpx isa X.25 CoProcessor/1 Adapter
adapter pcxr isa IBM 8-Port Async, EIA-232 (ISA)
adapter pc8s isa IBM 8-Port EIA-232/RS-422A (ISA) Adapter
adapter cxia isa IBM 128-Port Async, EIA-232 (ISA)
```

Figure 4-4 Checking ISA device support

This provides you with a list of all the adapters that have been defined in the predefined ODM database. If you see a blank display when you run this command, you need to install the support for ISA adapters.

#### Installing device drivers for ISA devices

In order to install device drivers support for ISA devices, use the SMIT fast path **smitty devinst\_isa** and follow these steps:

- On the Install Additional Device Software screen, enter the device or directory where the ISA device software is located.
- 2. Select the devices is a fileset in the SOFTWARE to install field. By default, it is already entered in the field.
- 3. The device support for ISA devices will be installed once the command finishes execution.

You could also use the SMIT fast path **smitty devinst**. This command allows you to install any type of additional device software, and does not preselect a specific device type. You have to specify the filesets to install using the SOFTWARE to install field.

#### Recording settings of already configured ISA adapters

ISA devices may not work properly if there are clashes in their settings, such as IRQ or bus I/O ranges. It is best to note all the settings of any ISA devices already present in your system. In order to do that, issue the following command:

```
1sdev -Cc adapter -s isa
```

This command will show you all the ISA devices that are already configured with your system. The output of this command will be similar to what is shown in Figure 4-5.

```
# lsdev -Cc adapter -s isa
cxia0 Available 01-01 IBM 128-Port Async, EIA-232 (ISA)
apm0 Available 01-02 4-Port Selectable Multiport Model 2 Adapter
# |
```

Figure 4-5 Finding out currently defined devices

Once you have the names of the ISA devices that are configured on your system, use either the <code>lsresource</code> command or the <code>lsattr</code> command to get the current settings of your ISA devices. The <code>lsresource</code> command writes a list of assigned bus resources to standard out, or determines if the bus resources for devices resolve. On the command line, enter:

```
1sresource -1 apm0
```

An output similar to Figure 4-6 will be shown.

Figure 4-6 Finding out current resource settings using Isresource

Use the <code>lsattr</code> command to find out the current settings of all of your ISA devices. The <code>lsattr</code> command displays information about the attributes of a given device or kind of device. Use the <code>lsattr</code> command, as shown in Figure 4-7.

Figure 4-7 Finding out current resource settings using Isattr

Once you have the current values for the installed devices, refer to your device documentation and select the recommended values for the device to work properly. Next, configure the adapter using the SMIT fast path smitty isa.

A screen similar to Figure 4-8 on page 61 will be shown.

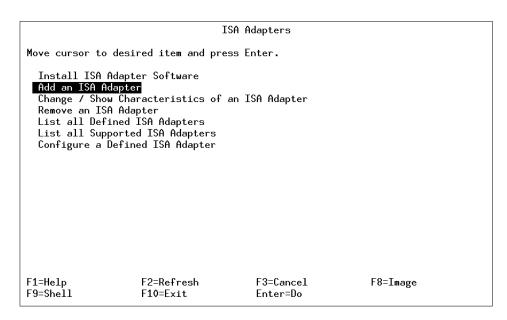


Figure 4-8 smitty is a command

#### Follow these steps:

1. Select Add an ISA Adapter and press Enter, as in Figure 4-9.

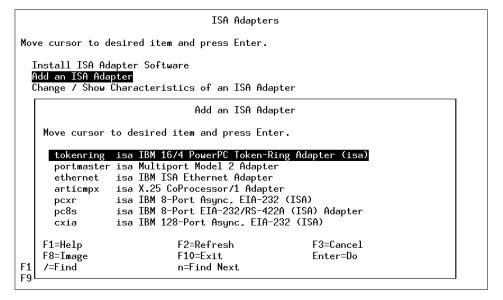


Figure 4-9 Add an ISA Adapter screen

**Note:** You can try to configure the adapter without actually installing it, because some adapters may have DIP switches that you may have to set in order to get the right settings. If you try to configure an adapter, for example, an X.25 adapter that has not been installed, and there are no parameter conflicts, you will be given a message as follows:

```
ampx0 Defined
Method error (/usr/lib/methods/cfgc1x):
0514-047 Cannot access a device.
[busquery]ioctl(): Function not implemented
ampx0 deleted
```

This shows that you have configured the adapter correctly, except that you still must actually install it.

2. Select the adapter you want to add (assume that you are trying to configure a Multiport Model 2 adapter) and press Enter. A screen similar to Figure 4-10 is shown.

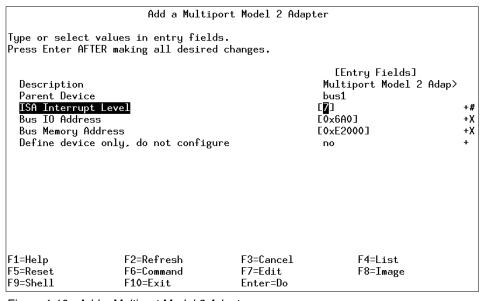


Figure 4-10 Add a Multiport Model 2 Adapter screen

 Change any input fields required and press Enter once you are done. If your given values conflict with some other ISA device, a message similar to Figure 4-11 on page 63 will be shown.

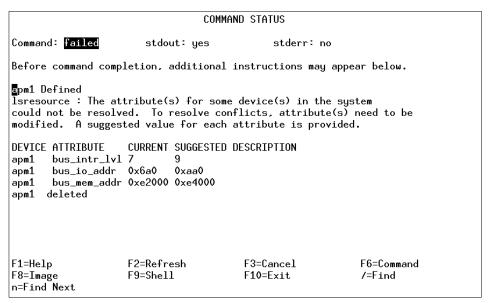


Figure 4-11 ISA adapter resource conflict

4. Go back to the previous screen and correct the values accordingly.

You have successfully configured an ISA adapter.

#### 4.4.3 128-port asynchronous adapter considerations

The 128-port asynchronous adapter subsystem meets the multiuser requirements for workstations in the open system environment. The subsystem can support up to 128 devices and offers higher speeds to the end user. It is an intelligent adapter with the ability to offload line protocol processing from the operating system.

The 128-port product consists of an adapter card, up to eight remote asynchronous node (RAN) units, each supporting 16 devices, for a total of 128 devices per adapter. The 128-port asynchronous adapter card resides in the system unit, and is connected by either EIA 422, direct cabling, EIA 422/EIA 232 synchronous modems, or Data Service Unit/Channel Service Units (DSU/CSUs) to the RAN. The number of 128-port asynchronous adapters that can be installed is dependent on the number of slots available in the system with a hardware limit of seven adapters per bus (an optional I/O bus can provide eight additional slots).

Each 128-port asynchronous adapter has two synchronous lines. Up to four RANs can be connected to a single synchronous line in a daisy-chain fashion. That is, the first RAN is connected to one of the adapter's lines, the second RAN is connected to the first RAN, and so on (up to four RANs).

The RANs can be attached to the 128-port adapter with a direct local connection, a synchronous modem connection, or a combination of the two. Figure 4-12 shows some of the possible connection types.

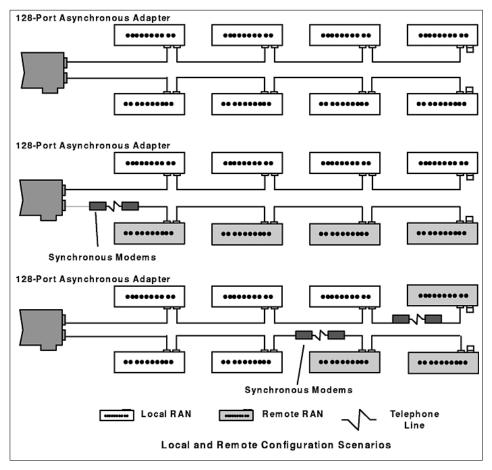


Figure 4-12 128-port asynchronous adapter connection combinations

The adapter identifies RANs by their node numbers. Each RAN in a daisy chain must have a unique node number (1n through 4n), which must be set during installation. The node numbers must be assigned in ascending order with the lowest number assigned to the RAN closest to the adapter. You can skip node numbers (to facilitate insertion of additional RANs at a later date), as long as the ascending sequence is maintained. Figure 4-13 summarizes the node number assignment.

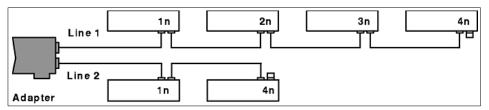


Figure 4-13 RAN numbering

The remote asynchronous node (RAN) is equipped with:

- ► Ten LED indicators
- ► Two-digit, seven-segment LED display
- ► Two push buttons

The RAN front panel display has several different display modes, as indicated by the two-digit, seven-segment display. Some of the RAN front panel display modes are shown in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4 RAN activity codes

Mode	Mode name	Description	
P1	POST Complete	P1 appears on the seven-segment display. Power-on self-test is complete, relays are open and waiting for connection.	
P2	Ping Packet Receive	P2 indicates that the operating system successfully transmitted a ping packet to RAN.	
AC	Activity	AC appears on the seven-segment display. The 10 LEDs turn on sequentially from left to right. The speed of this <i>chase light</i> display increases with the overall activity level of the RAN.	
En	Error Node	En appears on the seven-segment display. It indicates that a valid ping packet was received but the node number in EEPROM is incorrect.	

In the case of duplicate node numbers, the RAN farthest from the host adapter will display En, instead of AC, when the system is started.

The configuration for a 128-port asynchronous adapter follows the same sequence of steps for a normal ISA adapter; however, you can customize your adapter port-wise. That is, you can set different characteristics for your lines and the corresponding nodes.

# 4.5 Adding a TTY device

In order to add a TTY, use the following procedure:

- 1. Run smitty tty and select Add a TTY or run smitty maktty.
- 2. The system will ask you for the TTY type and the parent adapter. Select both and press Enter.

A screen similar to Figure 4-14 will be shown.

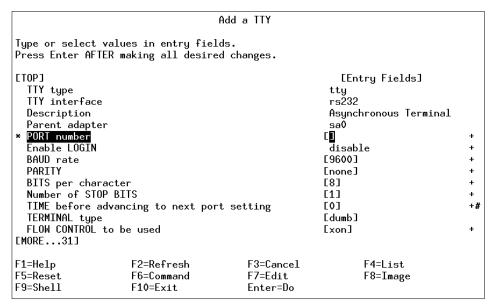


Figure 4-14 Add a TTY screen

- 3. Select the port number you want this TTY to be added to in the PORT number field. For RANs, follow the location code rules to select the appropriate port number.
- 4. Change the TERMINAL Type field to the type of terminal you are using. This parameter is very important, because you might not be able to use all the

keys on your terminal if this parameter is set incorrectly. The TERM environment variable stores this setting. You can change the terminal emulation setting by using your TERM environment variable and using the **export** command to store the terminal emulation you want to use. For example, in order to use ibm3151 terminal emulation, use the command:

```
export $TERM=ibm3151.
```

5. Set the line speed and the kind of communication (1/8/N or 1/7/E) for your terminal and press Enter.

This will create a device special file in the /dev directory. Add an entry to the /etc/inittab file in order to run the getty process on your terminal, so that your terminal is available at system startup. It also adds another entry to the customized ODM (CuDv) database for the terminal you have just added.

You can also add a TTY directly on the command line. In order to add an ibm3151 RS232 terminal using adapter sa0 and port s1 with login enabled, use the following command:

```
mkdev -c tty -t tty -s rs232 -p sa0 -w s1 -a login=enable -a term=ibm3151
```

You can remove a terminal by using the command:

```
rmdev -1 <tty name> -d
```

Where <tty name> can be determined by using the command tty or by listing all the TTYs and then selecting the TTY you want to remove.

You cannot remove a device that is in use. If the device is busy, you will receive an error message, as shown in the following example:

# 4.6 Adding a tape drive

Generally, a tape drive attached on a SCSI interface is automatically configured once you run the **cfgmgr** command or at the system start-up. There may be occasions when you want to add a new tape drive to your system. In order to add a tape drive, use the SMIT fast path **smitty tape** and follows these steps:

1. Select Add a Tape Drive.

A screen similar to Figure 4-15 on page 68 will be shown.

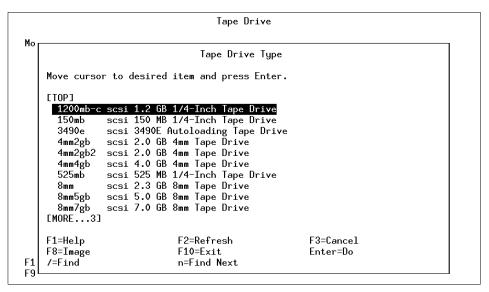


Figure 4-15 Selecting the new tape drive type

- 2. Choose the type of tape drive that you want to add and press Enter.
- 3. Select the parent adapter on which the tape will be attached and press Enter. A screen similar to Figure 4-16 will be shown.

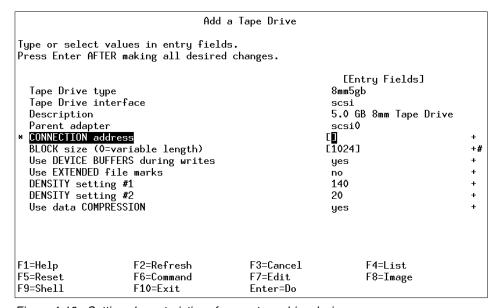


Figure 4-16 Setting characteristics of a new tape drive device

- 4. Enter the SCSI address in the CONNECTION address field.
- 5. The BLOCK size parameter is very important, since a tape is a block device. By default, the block size is 1024 bytes. If you save a file on a tape with block size of 512 bytes, you will not be able to read it with a tape drive with a block size equal to 1024 bytes on older AIX releases. It is recommended that you keep the block size 0, which is a variable block size. A variable block size automatically finds out the block size of your media and then reads the media accordingly. If the block sizes of the media and the tape drive are different, you can encounter an error similar to this when you try to read something from a tape:

```
restore: 0511-160 Cannot read the backup media /dev/rmt0.1:There is an input or output error
```

Press Enter to complete the process.

Alternatively, you can add a new tape drive on the command line. For example, in order to create a device for an 8 mm tape attached on adapter scsi0 using 5 as the SCSI address, use the command:

```
mkdev -c tape -t '8mm' -s 'scsi' -p 'scsi0' -w '5,0' -a block_size='0'
```

#### 4.7 Quiz

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

- Given a device ID 14100401 for a Gigabit Ethernet adapter, which of the following commands should be used to determine the driver in use for this adapter?
  - A. lsdev -Cc if
  - B. lsattr -E -1 <device ID>
  - C. 1slpp -w | grep ethernet
  - D. 1s1pp -1 | grep <device ID>

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. What command can be run from the command line to permanently remove tty5 from the system?
  - A. rmdev -1 tty5
  - B. rmdev -dl tty5
  - C. mkdev -dl tty5
  - D. odmdelete -q "name=tty5" -o PdAt
- 2. A client is setting up an 128-port asynchronous adapter with two remote RANs. The two SA devices (RANs) are not available to the system. In addition, node 1's LEDs is displaying AC and node 2's LEDs is displaying En. What is the most likely cause of the problem?
  - A. There are 2 RANs with the same node number.
  - B. The adapter itself is not being recognized by the system.
  - C. The serial line in SMIT is defined with the wrong speed.
  - D. The serial line in SMIT is defined with the wrong cable type.

#### 4.7.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

1. D

The following answers are for the additional guiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. A

#### 4.8 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. You have just purchased a new pSeries. Find out the type of your pSeries system using the **bootinfo** command. Also, find out the number of processors you have.
- 2. You need to add a new ISA adapter to your system. Using the guidelines in the chapter, configure the ISA adapter correctly in your system.
- 3. Remove a TTY permanently from your system; also configure all of your TTYs to have ibm3151 as the default emulation setting.
- 4. Familiarize yourself with the various adapters available to pSeries.



# **Object Data Manager**

The ODM has many purposes. Its primary functions are to maintain the RISC System/6000 configuration, associated devices, and the vital product database. In addition, it provides a more robust, secure, and sharable resource than the ASCII files previously used in AIX.

System data managed by the ODM includes:

- Device configuration information
- ► Display information for SMIT (menus, selectors, and dialogs)
- Vital product data for installation and update procedures
- ► Communications configuration information
- System resource information

Most system object classes and objects are stored in the /usr/lib/objrepos directory; however, ODM information is stored in three directories as follows:

- /usr/lib/objrepos
- /usr/share/lib/objrepos
- ► /etc/objrepos

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The basic components of the ODM are object classes and objects. To manage object classes and objects, you use the ODM commands and subroutines. Specifically, you use the create and add features of these interfaces to build object classes and objects for storage and management of your own data.

A summary of the ODM concepts is provided in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1 ODM concepts

Item	Definition	Similar to	Similar to
Object class	A stored collection of objects with the same definition.	An array of C-Language structures.	A file with fixed format records.
ODM object	A member of a defined ODM object class. An entity that requires management and storage of data.	An element of an array structure.	One of the fixed format records.
ODM database	A stored collection of ODM object classes.	A collection of structure arrays.	A directory of files.

An object class comprises one or more descriptors. Values are associated with the descriptors of an object when the object is added to an object class. The descriptors of an object and their associated values can be located and changed with the ODM facilities.

In the area of device configuration, the ODM contains information about all configured physical volumes, volume groups, and logical volumes. This information mirrors the information found in the VGDA. The process of importing a VGDA, for example, involves copying the VGDA data for the imported volume group into the ODM. When a volume group is exported, the data held in the ODM about that volume group is removed from the ODM database.

### 5.1 ODM commands

You can create, add, change, retrieve, display, and delete objects and object classes with ODM. ODM commands are entered on the command line.

**Note:** ODM commands should be used only when traditional methods of system maintenance, such as SMIT, are ineffective. For a beginning system administrator, it is recommended that you perform additional reading and exercises before using these commands. Incorrect use of these commands may result in a disabled system. The ODM commands are described here for introductory purposes.

The ODM commands are:

odmadd Adds objects to an object class. The odmadd command takes an

ASCII stanza file as input and populates object classes with

objects found in the stanza file.

**odmchange** Changes specific objects in a specified object class.

odmcreate Creates empty object classes. The odmcreate command takes an

ASCII file describing object classes as input and produces C language .h and .c files to be used by the application accessing

objects in those object classes.

**odmdelete** Removes objects from an object class.

**odmdrop** Removes an entire object class.

**odmget** Retrieves objects from object classes and puts the object

information into odmadd command format.

odmshow Displays the description of an object class. The odmshow

command takes an object class name as input and puts the object class information into **odmcreate** command format.

# 5.2 Example of an object class for an ODM database

The following is an example of the object class definition for the Customized Device Database (CuDv):

#### **5.3 Quiz**

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

- 1. A system administrator wants to examine the ODM's Predefined Device Database (PdDv) on a H70 server. He uses the **odmget** command to query the database, which pulls information from several sections of the system. Which of the following is an area that does not contain the ODM?
  - A. /etc/objrepos
  - B. /dev/objrepos
  - C. /usr/lib/objrepos
  - D. /usr/share/lib/objrepos

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- A system administrator wishes to determine if a newly configured tape drive is correctly added to the ODM database. Which command would the administrator use?
  - A. odmshow
  - B. odmadd
  - C. odmget
  - D. odmcreate

- 2. The ODM is located in:
  - A. /etc/objrepos
  - B. /usr/lib/objrepos
  - C. /usr/share/lib/objrepos
  - D. All of the above

#### 5.3.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

1. B

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. C
- 2. D

#### 5.4 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. List the uses of the ODM.
- 2. Using the correct ODM facility, determine the format of the Predefined Device Database (PdDv).



# Storage management, LVM, and file systems

In this chapter, storage management, Logical Volume Management (LVM), and file system support issues are covered. The basic tasks that require understanding are broken down into separate sections.

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# 6.1 Logical volume storage concepts

The five basic logical storage concepts are physical volumes, volume groups, physical partitions, logical volumes, and logical partitions. The relationships among these concepts is provided in Figure 6-1.

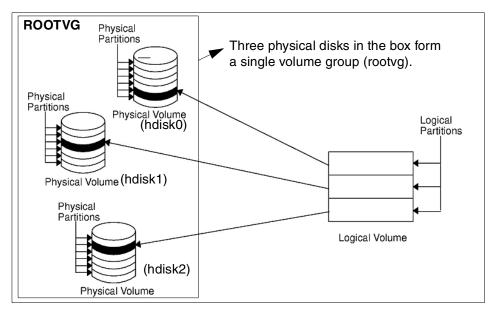


Figure 6-1 Relationship between logical storage components

The following can be said regarding Figure 6-1:

- ► Each individual fixed-disk drive is called a physical volume (PV) and has a name. For example: hdisk0, hdisk1, or hdisk2.
- ► All physical volumes belong to one volume group (VG) named rootvg.
- ► All of the physical volumes in a volume group are divided into physical partitions (PPs) of the same size.
- ▶ Within each volume group, one or more logical volumes (LVs) are defined. Logical volumes are groups of information located on physical volumes. Data on logical volumes appear as contiguous to the user, but can be discontiguous on the physical volume.
- ► Each logical volume consists of one or more logical partitions (LPs). 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.

▶ Logical volumes can serve a number of system purposes, for example, paging, but each logical volume that holds ordinary systems, user data, or programs contains a single journaled file system (JFS). Each JFS consists of a pool of page-size (4 KB) blocks. In AIX Version 4.1, a given file system can be defined as having a fragment size of less than 4 KB (512 bytes, 1 KB, or 2 KB).

After installation, the system has one volume group (the rootvg volume group) consisting of a base set of logical volumes required to start the system and any others you specify to the installation script.

#### 6.1.1 Limitations of logical volume storage

The LVM in AIX provides a lot of flexibility in disk management. However, similar to all other operating system components, it has its limitations. Table 6-1 lists the limitations on the logical storage in AIX.

Table 6-1	Limitations for logical	I volume storage management

Storage components	Limitations	
Volume group	255 per system	
Physical volume	32 per volume group	
Physical partition	1016 per physical volume up to 256 MB each in size. A multiple of 1016 may be used on AIX Version 4.3.1 or later systems, provided the factor is set to a non-default value.	
Logical volume	256 per volume group	
Logical partition	35,512 per logical volume	

# 6.2 Managing physical volumes

The following sections discuss adding a new disk drive, changing physical volume characteristics, and monitoring the physical volumes.

#### 6.2.1 Configuring a physical volume

The following three methods can be used to configure a new disk drive. If the LVM will use this disk, it must also be made of a physical volume.

#### Method 1

This method is used when it is possible or required to shut down and power off the system prior to attaching the disk. When the system is booted after adding a disk drive, the **cfgmgr** command is run by the system during booting, which will automatically configure the disk. After boot-up is complete, log in as root and run **1spv**, and look for a new disk entry in the output, as shown in the following example.

 hdisk1
 none
 none

 or
 hdisk1
 00005264d21adb2e
 none

The 16-digit number in the second column of the preceding example is the physical volume identifier (PVID).

If the output shows the new disk with a PVID, it can be used by LVM for configuration. If the new disk does not have a PVID, then use the procedure in Section 6.2.2, "Making an available disk a physical volume" on page 81 to allow the disk to be used by the LVM.

#### Method 2

This method may be used when it is not required to shut down or power off the system prior to attaching the disk. Perform the following tasks:

1. Run 1spv to list the physical disks already configured on the system, as shown in the following example:

# lspv hdisk0 000005265ac63976 rootvg

2. To configure all newly detected devices on the system (including the new disk), use the following command:

cfgmgr

3. Run 1spv again, and look for a new disk entry in the output, as shown in the following example:

Once you have determined the name of the newly configured disk, use the procedure described in Section 6.2.2, "Making an available disk a physical volume" on page 81 to allow the disk to be utilized by the Logical Volume Manager.

#### Method 3

This method may be used when it is not required to shut down or power off the system prior to attaching the disk. This method requires the following information about the new disk:

- How the disk is attached (subclass)
- ► The type of the disk (type)
- ► Which system attachment the disk is connected to (parent name)
- ► The logical address of the disk (where connected)

Use the following command to configure the disk and ensure that it is available as a physical volume by using the pv=yes attribute.

```
mkdev -c disk -s subclass -t type -p parentname \ -w whereconnected -a pv=yes
```

The pv=yes attribute makes the disk a physical volume and writes a boot record with a unique physical volume identifier onto the disk (if it does not already have one).

## 6.2.2 Making an available disk a physical volume

A new disk drive can only be assigned to volume groups. To be used by the LVM, a disk must be configured as a physical volume. The following command will change an available disk (hdisk1) to a physical volume by assigning a physical volume identifier (PVID), if it does not already have one:

```
chdev -1 hdisk1 -a pv=yes
```

This command has no effect if the disk is already a physical volume. However in an HACMP environment, you may damage the data if you alter the PVID on a shared volume.

#### 6.2.3 Modifying physical volume characteristics

This section discusses the two characteristics that can be changed for a physical volume to control the use of physical volumes using the **chpv** command.

#### Setting allocation permission for a physical volume

The allocation permission for a physical volume determines if physical partitions contained on this disk, which are not allocated to a logical volume yet, can be allocated for use by logical volumes. Setting the allocation permission defines whether or not the allocation of new physical partitions is permitted for the specified physical volume.

The following command is used to turn off the allocation permission for physical volume hdisk1:

chpv -a n hdisk1

To turn the allocation permission back on, use the following command:

chpv -a y hdisk1

#### Setting the availability of a physical volume

The availability of a physical volume defines whether any logical input/output operations can be performed to the specified physical volume. Physical volumes should be made unavailable when they are to be removed from the system or are lost due to failure.

The following command is used to set the state of a physical volume to unavailable:

chpv -v r pvname

This will quiet all VGDA and VGSA copies on the physical volume, and the physical volume will not take part in future vary on quorum checking. Also, information about the specified volume will be removed from the VGDAs of the other physical volumes in that volume group.

The following command will make a physical volume available to the system:

chpv -v a pvname

**Note:** The **chpv** command uses space in the /tmp directory to store information while it is executing. If it fails, it could be due to lack of space in the /tmp directory. Create more space in that directory and try again.

### 6.2.4 Removing physical volumes

The physical volume must be unconfigured before it can be removed from the system. The following example shows how to unconfigure a physical volume (hdisk1) and change its state from available to defined using the **rmdev** command:

rmdev -1 hdisk1

The definition of this physical volume will remain in the ODM.

#### 6.2.5 Listing information about physical volumes

A physical volume correctly installed on the system can be assigned to a volume group and can subsequently be used to hold file systems and logical volumes.

The information about free physical partitions and their availability within different sectors on the disk can be very useful. The following section will discuss using the 1spv command to obtain such information pertinent to physical volumes.

#### Listing physical volumes on the system

The **1 spv** command executed without any flag will produce output that will identify the physical volumes by name that are known to the system, as shown in the following example:

```
# lspv
hdisk0 00615147ce54a7ee rootvg
hdisk1 00615147a877976a rootvg
```

The **1sdev** command with the -C option and -c class will also list the physical volumes on the system along with the status of each physical volume, as shown in the following example:

```
# lsdev -C -c disk
hdiskO Available 40-58-00-0,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk1 Available 40-58-00-1,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk2 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk3 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk4 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk5 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk6 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
# SSA Logical Disk Drive
```

#### Listing physical volume characteristics

The following example shows the use of the **1spv** command to retrieve more detailed information about a physical volume:

The left hand pair of columns holds information about the physical volume itself. The right hand pair displays information concerning the volume group of which the physical volume is a member.

The meanings of various fields in the preceding example are:

**PHYSICAL VOLUME** The name of the specified physical volume.

**PV IDENTIFIER** The physical volume identifier (unique to the system).

**PV STATE** The state of the physical volume. This defines whether or

not the physical volume is available for logical input/output operations. It can be changed using the

chpv command.

**STALE PARTITIONS** The number of stale partitions.

**PP SIZE** The size of a physical partition. This is a characteristic of

the volume group and is set only at the creation of the volume group as an argument to the **mkvg** command.

The default size is 4 MB.

**TOTAL PPs** The total number of physical partitions, including both

free and used partitions available on the physical

volume.

**FREE PPs** The number of free partitions available on the physical

volume.

**USED PPs** The number of used partitions on the physical volume.

FREE DISTRIBUTION This field summarizes the distribution of free physical

partitions across the physical volume, according to the sections of the physical volume on which they reside.

**USED DISTRIBUTION** Same as free distribution, except that it displays the

allocation of used physical partitions.

**VOLUME GROUP** The name of the volume group to which the physical

volume is allocated.

**VG IDENTIFIER** The numerical identifier of the volume group to which the

physical volume is allocated.

**VG STATE** State of the volume group. If the volume group is

activated with the **varyonvg** command, the state is either active/complete (indicating all physical volumes are active) or active/partial (indicating some physical volumes are not active). If the volume group is not activated with the **varyonvg** command, the state is

inactive.

**ALLOCATABLE** Whether the system is permitted to allocate new physical

partitions on this physical volume.

**LOGICAL VOLUMES** The number of the logical volumes in the volume group.

#### **VG DESCRIPTORS**

The number of VGDAs for this volume group which reside on this particular physical volume.

#### Listing logical volume allocation within a PV

The following example shows the **1spv** command with the -I option to list the physical volume hdisk1. The output shows the names of all the logical volumes on the physical volume, the number of physical and logical partitions allocated, the distribution across the physical volume, and the mount point, if one exists.

<pre># lspv -l hdisk1 hdisk1:</pre>				
LV NAME	LPs	PPs	DISTRIBUTION	MOUNT POINT
rawlv	1	1	0100000000	N/A
hd4	2	2	0200000000	/
hd9var	1	1	0100000000	/var
hd3	8	8	0100070000	/tmp
1v06	5	5	0005000000	/home2
1v07	13	13	0013000000	/backfs
rawlv1	2	2	0002000000	N/A
copied	2	2	0002000000	N/A
newlv	1	1	0001000000	N/A
fslv00	1	1	0001000000	N/A
hd6	1	1	0001000000	N/A
mytest	1	1	0001000000	N/A
#				

#### Listing physical partition allocation by PV region

The example provided in Figure 6-2 on page 86 shows how to retrieve more detailed information about the range of physical partitions allocated to a logical volume and the region of disk used for those partitions.

1-2 u:	sed	REGION	LV NAME	T. 105	
1-2 u:	sed		LV NAME		
			LY NUME	TYPE	MOUNT POINT
		outer edge	hd5	boot	N/A
	ree	outer edge			
20-30 u:	ısed	outer edge	hd2	jfs	/usr
31-31 u:	ısed	outer edge	hd4	jfs	/
32-103 u:	ısed	outer edge	hd2	jfs	/usr
	ısed	outer middle	paging01	paging	N/A
144-170 u:	ısed	outer middle	hd2	jfs	/usr
	ree	outer middle			
174-174 u:	ısed	outer middle	hd6	paging	N/A
175-179   fi	ree	outer middle			
180-184 u:	ısed	outer middle	paging02	paging	N/A
185-192   u:	ısed	outer middle	hd1	jfs	/home
193-195   u:	ısed	outer middle	1v01	jfs	/var/dce
196-205 u:	ısed	outer middle	1v02	jfs	/var/dce/adm/dfs/
cache					
	ısed	outer middle	hd2	jfs	/usr
207-207 u:	ısed	center	hd8	jfslog	N/A
208-208 u:	ısed	center	hd4	jfs	/
	ısed	center	hd2	jfs	/usr
	ısed	center	hd9var	jfs	/var
219-221 u:	ısed	center	hd3	jfs	/tmp
222-222 u:	ısed	center	hd1	jfs	/home
223-285 u:	ısed	center	hd2	jfs	/usr
286-286 u:	ised	center	hd3	jfs	/tmp
287-309 u:	ısed	center	hd2	jfs	/usr
310-412 u:	ısed	inner middle	hd2	jfs	/usr
	ised	inner edge	hd6	paging	N/A
_	ree	inner edge			
#					

Figure 6-2 Status and characteristics of hdisk1 by physical partitions

The following is the description of the fields shown in Figure 6-2:

PP RANGE	The range of physical partitions for which the current row of data applies.
STATE	Whether or not the partitions have been allocated. Value can be either used or free.
REGION	Notional region of the disk within which the partitions are located.
LV NAME	Name of the logical volume to which the partitions in question have been allocated.
TYPE	Type of file system residing on the logical volume.
MOUNT POINT	Mount point of the file system, if applicable.

#### Listing physical partition allocation table

To determine the degree of contiguity of data on the system in order to improve the I/O performance of a logical volume, you can use the **1spv** command with the -M option, as shown in Figure 6-3. You may decide to reorganize the system after analyzing the output.

```
# lspv -M hdisk0
hdisk0:1-17
hdisk0:18
                1v03:1
hdisk0:19
                1v03:2
hdisk0:20
                1v03:3
hdisk0:21
                1v03:4
hdisk0:22-33
hdisk0:34
                paging00:1
                paging00:2
hdisk0:35
hdisk0:36
                paging00:3
                paging00:4
hdisk0:37
                paging00:5
hdisk0:38
hdisk0:39
                paging00:6
                paging00:7
hdisk0:40
hdisk0:41
                paging00:8
hdisk0:42
                paging00:9
                paging00:10
hdisk0:43
hdisk0:44
                paging00:11
                paging00:12
hdisk0:45
hdisk0:46
                paging00:13
                paging00:14
hdisk0:47
hdisk0:48
                paging00:15
hdisk0:49
                paging00:16
                paging00:17
hdisk0:50
                paging00:18
hdisk0:51
hdisk0:52
                paging00:19
hdisk0:53
                paging00:20
hdisk0:54
                paging00:21
hdisk0:55
                paging00:22
                paging00:23
hdisk0:56
hdisk0:57
                paging00:24
hdisk0:58-81
#
```

Figure 6-3 Physical partition allocation by disk region

The first column indicates the physical partition (if a group of contiguous partitions are free, it will indicate a range of partitions) for a particular hard disk. The second column indicates which logical partition of which logical volume is associated with that physical partition.

# 6.2.6 Migrating the contents of a physical volume

The physical partitions belonging to one or more specified logical volumes can be moved from one physical volume to one or more other physical volumes within a volume group using the migratepy command.

**Note:** The migratepv command cannot move data between different volume groups, as shown in Figure 6-4.

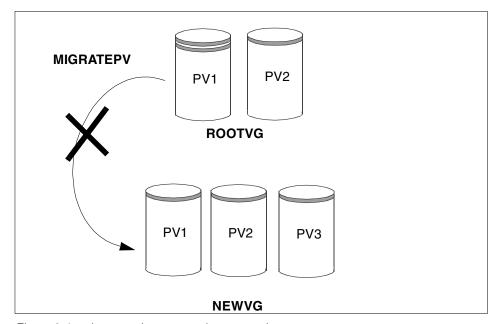


Figure 6-4 migratepy does not work across volume groups

The following procedure describes how to move the data from a failing disk before it is removed for repair or replacement.

 Determine which disks are in the volume group. Make sure that the source and destination physical volumes are in the same volume group. If the source and destination physical volumes are in the same volume group, proceed to step 3. Use the following command to check the disks in the volume group:

- 2. If you are planning to migrate to a new disk, such as when you have a failing disk, perform the following steps:
  - a. Make sure the disk is available by entering the following:

```
# lsdev -Cc disk
hdisk0 Available 00-08-00-30 670 MB SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk1 Available 00-08-00-20 857 MB SCSI Disk Drive
```

b. If the disk is listed and in the available state, make sure it does not belong to another volume group using the following command (In the following example, hdisk1 can be used as a destination disk.):

```
# lspv
hdisk0 0000078752249812 rootvg
hdisk1 000000234ac56e9e none
```

- If the disk is not listed or is not available, you need to check or install the disk.
- d. Add the new disk to the volume group using the command:

```
extendvg VGName hdiskNumber
```

- 3. Make sure that you have enough room on the target disk for the source that you want to move.
  - a. Determine the number of physical partitions on the source disk by using the following command (SourceDiskNumber will be of the form hdiskNumber.):

```
1spv SourceDiskNumber | grep "USED PPs"
```

The output will look similar to the following:

```
USED PPs: 159 (636 megabytes)
```

In this example, you would need 159 free PPs on the destination disk to successfully complete the migration.

 Determine the number of free physical partitions on the destination disk or disks using the following command for each destination disk (DestinationDiskNumber will be of the form hdiskNumber.):

```
lspv DestinationDiskNumber | grep "FREE PPs"
```

Add the free PPs from all of the destination disks. If the sum is larger than the number of USED PPs from step 3, you will have enough space for the migration.

4. Follow this step only if you are migrating data from a disk in the rootvg volume group. If you are migrating data from a disk in a user-defined volume group, proceed to step 5.

Check to see if the boot logical volume (hd5) is on the source disk:

```
1spv -1 SourceDiskNumber | grep hd5
```

If you get no output, the boot logical volume is not located on the source disk. Continue to step 5.

If you get output similar to the following:

```
hd5 2 2 02..00..00..00 /blv
```

then run the following command:

migratepy -1 hd5 SourceDiskNumber DestinationDiskNumber

#### Note:

- ► This migratepv command is not allowed if the volume group is varied on in concurrent mode.
- ► The migratepv command cannot migrate striped logical volumes. To move data from one physical volume to another, use the cplv command to copy the data and then use the rmlv command to remove the old copy.
- ➤ You must either have root user authority or be a member of the system group to execute the migratepv command.

Next, you will get a message warning you to perform the **bosboot** command on the destination disk.

Note: When the boot logical volume is migrated from a physical volume, the boot record on the source should be cleared. Failure to clear this record may result in a system hang. When you execute the **bosboot** command, you must also execute **mkboot** -c. At the time of publication, the **mkboot** command is currently unsupported (but works); however, using another command, such as **dd**, is not advisable, because it could cause a loss of data if used incorrectly.

Execute the mkboot -c command to clear the boot record on the source. Do the following on pre-AIX Version 4.2 systems:

bosboot -a -d /dev/DestinationDiskNumber

then:

bootlist -m normal DestinationDiskNumber

then:

mkboot -c -d /dev/SourceDiskNumber

5. Executing the SMIT fast path command **smitty migratepv** to migrate the data will show a screen similar to Figure 6-5 on page 91.

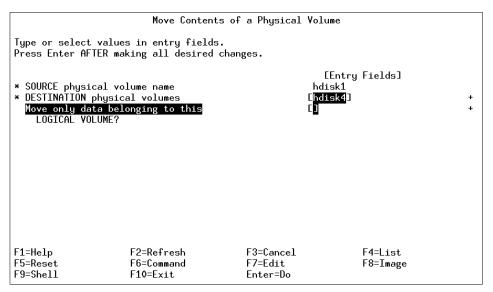


Figure 6-5 smitty migratepy command

- 6. List the physical volumes (PF4), and select the source physical volume you examined previously.
- 7. Go to the DESTINATION physical volume field. If you accept the default, all the physical volumes in the volume group are available for the transfer. Otherwise, select one or more disks with adequate space for the partitions you will be moving (from step 4).
- 8. If you wish, go to the Move only data belonging to this LOGICAL VOLUME field, and list and select a logical volume. You will move only the physical partitions allocated to the logical volume specified that are located on the physical volume selected as the source physical volume.
- 9. Press Enter to move the physical partitions.
- 10. To remove the source disk from the volume group, such as when it is failing, enter the following command:

reducevg VGNname SourceDiskNumber

11. To physically remove the source disk from the system, such as when it is failing, enter the following command:

rmdev -1 SourceDiskNumber -d

A few more examples of using the migratepv command are:

► Use the following command to move physical partitions from hdisk1 to hdisk6 and hdisk7; all physical volumes are in one volume group:

```
migratepv hdisk1 hdisk6 hdisk7
```

Use the following command to move physical partitions in logical volume lv02 from hdisk1 to hdisk6:

```
migratepv -1 1v02 hdisk1 hdisk6
```

# 6.3 Managing volume groups

This section discusses the functions that can be performed on volume groups. As with physical volumes, volume groups can be created and removed, and their characteristics can be modified. Additional functions, such as activating and deactivating volume groups, can also be performed.

# 6.3.1 Adding a volume group

Before a new volume group can be added to the system, one or more physical volumes, not used in other volume groups and in an available state, must exist on the system.

It is important to decide upon certain information, such as the volume group name and the physical volumes to use, prior to adding a volume group.

New volume groups can be added to the system by using the **mkvg** command or by using SMIT. Of all the characteristics set at creation time of the volume group, the following are essentially the most important:

- Volume group names shall be unique on the system.
- ▶ Names of all physical volumes to be used in the new volume group.
- Maximum number of physical volumes that can exist in the volume group.
- Physical partition size for the volume group.
- Flag to activate the volume group automatically at each system restart.

The following example shows the use of the **mkvg** command to create a volume group, myvg, using the physical volumes hdisk1 and hdisk5, with a physical partition size of 8 MB. The volume group is limited to a maximum of 10 physical volumes. Use the command:

```
mkvg -y myvg -d 10 -s 8 hdisk1 hdisk5
```

Alternatively, you can use the SMIT fast path **smitty mkvg** to obtain the screen shown in Figure 6-6 and enter the characteristics of the volume group to be created in the fields.

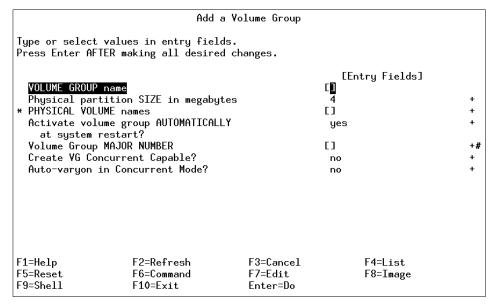


Figure 6-6 smitty mkvg command

The **smitty mkvg** command will automatically activate the volume group by calling the **varyonvg** command. Moreover, the SMIT command limits the following functions, as compared to the command line.

- ▶ It does not provide the -d flag to set the maximum number of physical volumes. It uses a default value of 32.
- ► It does not provide the -m flag to set the maximum size of the physical volume. This flag will determine how many physical partitions are used. It uses a default value of 1016 partitions.
- ► It always uses the -f flag to force creation of the volume group.

**Note:** For a new volume group to be successfully added to the system using the **mkvg** command, the root file system should have about 2 MB of free space. Check this using the **df** command. This free space is required because a file is written in the directory /etc/vg each time a new volume group is added.

# 6.3.2 Modifying volume group characteristics

The following sections discuss the tasks required to modify a volume group's characteristics.

#### Modifying volume group activation characteristics

The following command allows the volume group, newvg, to be varied on automatically each time a system is restarted:

chvg -ay newvg

The following command will turn off the automatic varying on of a volume group at the system restart:

chvg -an newvg

### Unlocking a volume group

A volume group can become locked when an LVM command terminates abnormally due to a system crash while an LVM operation was being performed on the system.

In AIX Version 4, it is now also possible to unlock a volume group. The following example shows the command to unlock the newvg volume group:

chvg -u newvg

### Adding a physical volume

It may be necessary to increase the free space available in a volume group so that existing file systems and logical volumes within the volume group can be extended, or new ones can be added. To do this requires additional physical volumes be made available within the volume group.

It is possible to add physical volumes to a volume group, up to the maximum specified at creation time. A physical volume can be added using the **extendvg** command. The following example shows the command to add the physical volume, hdisk3, to volume group newvg:

extendvg newvg hdisk3

**Note:** The **extendvg** command will fail if the physical volume being added already belongs to a varied on volume group on the current system. Also, if the physical volume being added belongs to a volume group that is currently not varied on, the user will be asked to confirm whether or not to continue.

Alternatively, you can use the SMIT fast path command **smitty vgsc** and select the option Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group.

### Removing a physical volume

The volume group must be varied on before it can be reduced. The following example shows how to remove a physical volume, hdisk3, from a volume group, myvg:

reducevg myvg hdisk3

Alternatively, you can use the SMIT fast path command **smitty reducevg** to remove a physical volume from a volume group.

**Note:** The **reducevg** command provides the -d and -f flags.

- ► The -d flag can be risky because it automatically deletes all logical volume data on the physical volume before removing the physical volume from the volume group. If a logical volume spans multiple physical volumes, the removal of any of those physical volumes may jeopardize the integrity of the entire logical volume.
- The -f flag makes the -d flag even more risky by suppressing interaction with a user requesting confirmation that the logical volume should be deleted.

If the logical volumes on the physical volume specified to be removed also span other physical volumes in the volume group, the removal operation may destroy the integrity of those logical volumes, regardless of the physical volume on which they reside.

When you remove all physical volumes in a volume group, the volume group itself is also removed.

# Removing a physical volume reference

Sometimes a disk is removed from the system without first running **reducevg VolumeGroup PhysicalVolume**. The VGDA still has the removed disk's reference, but the physical volume name no longer exists or has been reassigned. To remove references to the disk which has been removed, you can still use the **reducevg** command using the PVID of the physical volume removed. The following command will remove the reference of a physical volume (with PVID of 000005265ac63976) from the volume group newvg:

reducevg newvg 000005265ac63976

### Resynchronizing the device configuration database

During normal operations, the device configuration database of the ODM remains consistent with the LVM information in the logical volume control blocks and the VGDAs on the physical volumes. If, for some reason, the device configuration database is not consistent with LVM information, the <code>synclvodm</code> command can be used to resynchronize the database. The volume group must be active for the resynchronization to occur. If logical volume names are specified, only the information related to those logical volumes is updated.

To synchronize the device configuration database with the LVM information for rootvg, enter the following:

synclvodm rootvg

# 6.3.3 Importing and exporting a volume group

There may be times when a volume group needs to be moved from one RS/6000 or IBM @server pSeries system to another, so that logical volume and file system data in the volume group can be accessed directly on the target system.

To remove the system definition of a volume group from the ODM database, the volume group needs to be exported using the **exportvg** command. This command will not remove any user data in the volume group, but will only remove its definition from the ODM database.

Similarly, when a volume group is moved, the target system needs to add the definition of the new volume group. This can be achieved by importing the volume group using the **importvg** command, which will add an entry to the ODM database.

The following example shows the export of a volume group myvg:

exportvg myvg

And the following example shows the import of a volume group *myvg*:

importvg -y myvg hdisk12

You can also use SMIT fast path commands **smitty exportvg** or **smitty importvg** to export or import a volume group.

If the specified volume group name is already in use, the **importvg** command will fail with an appropriate error message, since duplicate volume group names are not allowed. In this instance, the command can be rerun with a unique volume group name specified, or it can be rerun without the -y flag or the volume group name, which gives the imported volume group a unique system default name.

It is also possible that some logical volume names may also conflict with those already on the system. The <code>importvg</code> command will automatically reassign these with system default names. The important thing to remember when moving volume groups from system to system is that the <code>exportvg</code> command is always run on the source system prior to importing the volume group to the target system. Consider that a volume group is imported on system Y without actually performing an <code>exportvg</code> on system X. If system Y makes a change to the volume group, such as removing a physical volume from the volume group, and the volume group is imported back onto system X, the ODM database on system X will not be consistent with the changed information for this volume group.

It is, however, worth noting that a volume group can be moved to another system without first being exported on the source system.

#### Note:

- ► The importvg command changes the name of an imported logical volume if there currently is a logical volume with the same name already on the system. An error message is printed to standard error if an imported logical volume is renamed. The importvg command also creates file mount points and entries in /etc/filesystems if possible (if there are no conflicts).
- ► A volume group that has a paging space volume on it cannot be exported while the paging space is active. Before exporting a volume group with an active paging space, ensure that the paging space is not activated automatically at system initialization by running the following command:
  - chps -a n paging\_space\_name
- ▶ Then, reboot the system so that the paging space is inactive.
- ▶ If you do not activate the volume group through smitty importvg, you must run the varyonvg command to enable access to the file systems and logical volumes after every reboot.
- ▶ If you imported a volume group that contains file systems, or if you activated the volume group through smitty importvg, it is highly recommended that you run the fsck command before you mount the file systems. If you are moving the volume group to another system, be sure to unconfigure the disks before moving them.
- ► The smitty exportvg command deletes references to file systems in /etc/filesystems, but it leaves the mount points on the system.

### 6.3.4 Varying on and varying off a volume group

Once a volume group exists, it can be made available for use for system administrative activities using the **varyonvg** command. This process involves the following steps.

- 1. Each VGDA on each physical volume in a volume group is read.
- 2. The header and trailer time stamps within each VGDA are read. These time stamps must match for a VGDA to be valid.
- 3. If a majority of VGDAs (called the quorum) are valid, then the vary on process proceeds. If they are not, then the vary on fails.
- 4. The system will take the most recent VGDA (the one with the latest time stamp) and write it over all other VGDAs so they match.
- 5. The **syncvg** command is run to resynchronize any stale partition present (in the case where mirroring is in use).

The **varyonvg** command has the following options that can be used to overcome damage to the volume group structure or give status information.

- ► The -f flag can be used to force a volume group to be varied on even when inconsistencies are detected. These inconsistencies are generally differences between the configuration data for each volume group held in the ODM database and VGDA.
- ► The -n flag will suppress the invocation of the syncvg command at vary on time. When a volume group is varied on, and stale partitions are detected, the vary on process will invoke the syncvg command to synchronize the stale partitions. This option is of value when you wish to carefully recover a volume group and you want to ensure that you do not accidentally write bad mirrored copies of data over good copies.
- ► The -s flag allows a volume group to be varied on in maintenance or systems management mode. Logical volume commands can operate on the volume group, but no logical volume can be opened for input or output.

The following example shows the command to activate a volume group, newvg.

varyonvg newvg

You can also use SMIT fast path command **smitty varyonvg** to obtain the screen shown in Figure 6-7 on page 99 and enter the name of volume group to be varied on along with all the options.

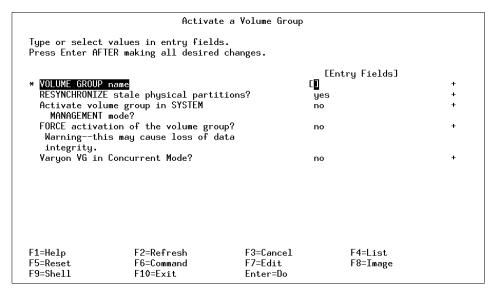


Figure 6-7 smitty varyonvg command

The varyoffvg command will deactivate a volume group and its associated logical volumes. This requires that the logical volumes be closed, which requires that file systems associated with logical volumes be unmounted. The varyoffvg also allows the use of the -s flag to move the volume group from being active to being in maintenance or systems management mode.

**Note:** In AIX Version 4 and later, when a volume group is imported it is automatically varied on, whereas in AIX Version 3, the volume group has to be varied on separately.

The following example shows the command to deactivate a volume group, myvg: varyoffvg myvg

You can also use SMIT fast path command **smitty varyoffvg**, which will show a screen similar to Figure 6-8 on page 100. You can enter the name of volume group to be varied off and you can also put the volume group in system management mode.

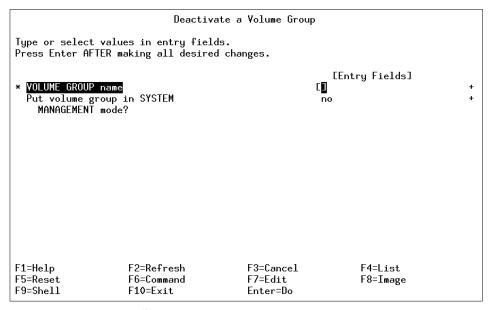


Figure 6-8 smitty varyoffvg command

# 6.3.5 Monitoring volume groups

The 1svg command interrogates the ODM database for all volume groups currently known to the system. The following are a few examples showing the use of the 1svg command to monitor volume groups.

### Listing the volume groups

The following example shows the use of the **1svg** command without any flag to list all the volume groups known to the system:

```
# lsvg
rootvg
altinst_rootvg
datavg
testvg
#
```

The following example shows how to list the volume groups that are currently active (varied on):

```
# lsvg -o
testvg
datavg
rootvg
```

#### Listing the characteristics of a volume group

Figure 6-9 shows the command to list detailed information and status about volume group characteristics.

```
# lsvg rootvg
VOLUMĚ GROUP:
                                                  VG IDENTIFIER: 00615151e5394126
                   rootvg
                                                 PP SIZE: 4 megabyte(s)
TOTAL PPs: 596 (2384 megabytes)
FREE PPs: 146 (584 megabytes)
USED PPs: 450 (1800 megabytes)
VG STATE:
                   active
VG PERMISSION: read/write
MAX LVs:
                   256
LVs:
                   14
OPEN LVs:
TOTAL PVs:
                   13
                                                  QUORUM:
                                                  VG DESCRIPTORS: 3
STALE PVs:
                                                  STALE PPs:
                                                                      0
ACTIVE PVs:
                                                  AUTO ON:
                                                                      yes
MAX PPs per PV: 1016
                                                  MAX PVs:
```

Figure 6-9 Isvg rootvg command

### Listing the logical volumes in a volume group

Figure 6-10 shows the command used to display the names, characteristics, and status of all the logical volumes in volume group rootvg.

# lsvg -l rootvg rootvg:						
LY NAME	TYPE	LPs	PPs	PVs	LV STATE	MOUNT POINT
hd5	boot	2	2	1	closed/syncd	N/A
hd6	paging	36	36	1	open/syncd	N/A
hd8	jfslog	1	1	1	open/syncd	N/A
hd4	jfs	2	2	1	open/syncd	/
hd2	jfs	309	309	1	open/syncd	/usr
hd9var	jfs	1	1	1	open/syncd	/var
hd3	jfs	4	4	1	open/syncd	/tmp
hd1	jfs	9	9	1	open/syncd	/home
paging00	paging	24	24	1	open/syncd	N/A
paging01	paging	40	40	1	open/syncd	N/A
1v01	jfs	3	3	1	open/syncd	/var/dce
1v02	jfs	10	10	1	open/syncd	/var/dce/adm/dfs/c
1v03	jfs	4	4	1	open/syncd	/usr/vice/cache
paging02 #	paging	5	5	1	open/syncd	N/A

Figure 6-10 Isvg -I rootvg command

# List the physical volume status within a volume group

Figure 6-11 on page 102 shows the use of the <code>lsvg</code> command with the -p flag to display a list of physical volumes contained in a volume group, as well as some status information, including physical partition allocation. This form of the <code>lsvg</code> command is useful for summarizing the concentrations of free space on the system.

# lsvg -p rootvg				
rootvg:				
PV_NAME	PV STATE	TOTAL PPs	FREE PPs	FREE DISTRIBUTION
hdisk1	active	515	93	1708000068
hdisk0	active	81	53	1712000816
#				

Figure 6-11 Isvg -p vgname command

Following is the description of the various fields shown in the preceding example.

**PV\_NAME** The name of the physical volume.

**PV STATE** Whether or not this physical volume is active.

**TOTAL PPs** The total number of physical partitions on this physical

volume.

**FREE PPs** The total number of unused physical partitions on this

physical volume.

**FREE DISTRIBUTION** The location of the free physical partitions on the

physical volumes. There are five columns, one for each disk region, in the following order: Outside edge, Outside

middle, Center, Inside middle, Inside edge.

### 6.3.6 Reorganizing a volume group

The **reorgyg** command is used to reorganize the physical partition allocation for a volume group according to the allocation characteristics of each logical volume.

The following is the syntax of the **reorgyg** command:

```
reorgvg [ -i ] VolumeGroup [ LogicalVolume ... ]
```

The volume group must be varied on and must have free partitions before you can use the **reorgvg** command. The relocatable flag of each logical volume must be set to y using the **chlv** -**r** command for the reorganization to take effect; otherwise, the logical volume is ignored.

#### Note:

- 1. The **reorgvg** command does not reorganize the placement of allocated physical partitions for any striped logical volumes.
- 2. At least one free physical partition must exist on the specified volume group for the **reorgyg** command to run successfully.
- 3. In AIX Version 4.2 or later, if you enter the reorgvg command with the volume group name and no other arguments, it will only reorganize the first logical volume in the volume group. The first logical volume is the one listed by the 1svg -1 VolumeName command.

You can also use the SMIT fast path command **smitty reorgvg** to do the same task. Table 6-2 provides details on the flags for the **reorgvg** command.

Table 6-2 reorgyg command flags

Flag	Description
-i	Specifies physical volume names read from standard input. Only the partitions on these physical volumes are organized.

► The following command reorganizes the logical volumes Iv03, Iv04, and Iv07 on volume group vg02:

```
reorgvg vg02 lv03 lv04 lv07
```

Only the listed logical volumes are reorganized on vg02.

► The following example shows how to reorganize the partitions located on physical volumes hdisk4 and hdisk6 that belong to logical volumes lv203 and lv205:

```
echo "hdisk4 hdisk6" | reorgvg -i vg02 1v203 1v205
```

Only the partitions located on physical volumes hdisk4 and hdisk6 of volume group vg02, which belong to logical volumes lv203 and lv205, are reorganized.

# 6.3.7 Synchronizing a volume group

The **syncvg** command is used to synchronize logical volume copies that are not current (stale).

The following is the syntax of the syncvg command:

```
syncvg [ -f ] [ -i ] [ -H ] [ -P NumParallelLps ] { -1 | -p | -v } Name ...
```

The **syncvg** command synchronizes the physical partitions, which are copies of the original physical partition that are not current. The **syncvg** command can be used with logical volumes, physical volumes, or volume groups, with the Name parameter representing the logical volume name, physical volume name, or volume group name. The synchronization process can be time consuming, depending on the hardware characteristics and the amount of data.

When the -f flag is used, an uncorrupted physical copy is chosen and propagated to all other copies of the logical partition, whether or not they are stale.

Unless disabled, the copies within a volume group are synchronized automatically when the volume group is activated by the **varyonvg** command. The commonly used flags of the **syncvg** command are shown in Table 6-3.

Table 6-3 Key flags for the syncvg command

Flag	Description
-p	Specifies that the Name parameter represents a physical volume device name.
-V	Specifies that the Name parameter represents a volume group device name.

The following examples show the use of the syncvg command:

► To synchronize the copies on physical volumes hdisk4 and hdisk5, execute the following command:

```
syncvg -p hdisk4 hdisk5
```

➤ To synchronize the copies on volume groups vg04 and vg05, execute the following command:

```
syncvg -v vg04 vg05
```

## 6.3.8 Moving a logical volume within a volume group

This section describes how to move a logical volume from one disk onto another disk. A problem faced is that the target disk already belongs to a volume group.

To migrate the information from the physical volume hdisk4 to the physical volume hdisk3, enter:

hdisk3	00091974d81ff431	newvg
hdisk4	00091974de731316	uservg
hdisk5	00091974e4f3d56e	None

The easiest option is to move hdisk4 to hdisk1. Since hdisk1 is not part of a volume group, you must add it to the volume group:

extendvg uservg hdisk1

The command for this is:

migratepv hdisk4 hdisk1

The other option is to delete the volume group newvg. Any file systems associated with newvg and any logical volumes associated with newvg must be removed.

List the file system information and look for the newly logical volume. Notice it is mounted on /u1:

# lsfs	Nadanama	Mount Pt	VEC	Ci-o	Ontions	Au+ o
Name Accounting	Nodename	Mount Pt	VFS	Size	Options	Auto
/dev/hd4		/	jfs	32768		yes
no		•	•			<b>J</b>
/dev/hd1		/home	jfs	3276800		yes
no						
/dev/hd2		/usr	jfs	4702208		yes
no						
/dev/hd9var		/var	jfs	16384		yes
no						
/dev/hd3		/tmp	jfs	32768		yes
no						
/dev/userlv		/u	jfs	3276800	rw	yes
no						
/dev/newlv		/u1	jfs	3276800	rw	yes
no						

List the volume group to find the logical volume information. Notice the newly and loglv01 LV names:

List the mount information to check if newly is mounted. Notice that /u1 is mounted:

# mount node	mounted	mounted over	vfs		dat	te	options
	/dev/hd4	/	jfs	Nov	16	18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd2	/usr	jfs	Nov	16	18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd9var	/var	jfs	Nov	16	18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd3	/tmp	jfs	Nov	16	18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd1	/home	jfs	Nov	16	18:46	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/userlv	/u	jfs	Nov	17	14:12	
rw,log=/d	ev/loglv00						
	/dev/newlv	/u1	jfs	Nov	17	14:13	
rw,log=/d	ev/loglv01						

To unmount the /dev/newlv logical volume, enter:

umount /dev/newlv

Type **mount** to check if /dev/newlv has ben unmounted. If successful, type:

smitty lvm

At the Logical Volume Manager menu, select Logical Volumes, as displayed in Figure 6-12.

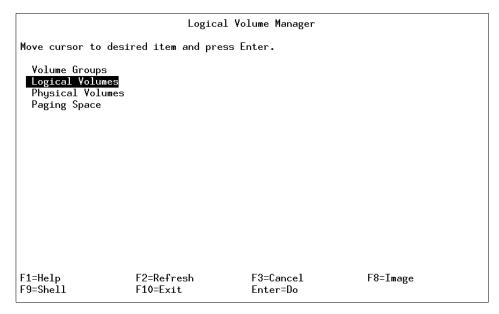


Figure 6-12 Logical Volume Manager menu

From the Logical Volumes Menu, select Remove a Logical Volume, as displayed in Figure 6-13.

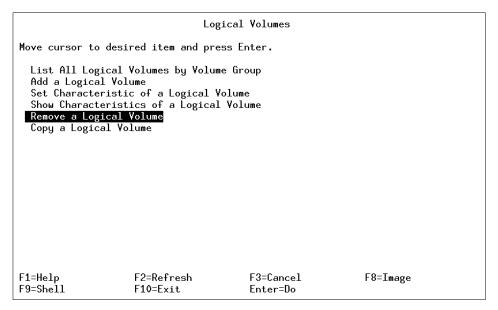


Figure 6-13 Logical Volumes menu

From the Remove a Logical Volume menu, enter the logical volume name you want removed, as displayed in Figure 6-14 on page 108.

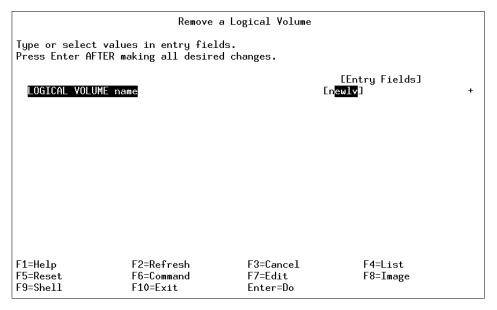


Figure 6-14 Remove a Logical Volume menu

Figure 6-15 shows the confirmation screen to continue. Press Enter to continue.

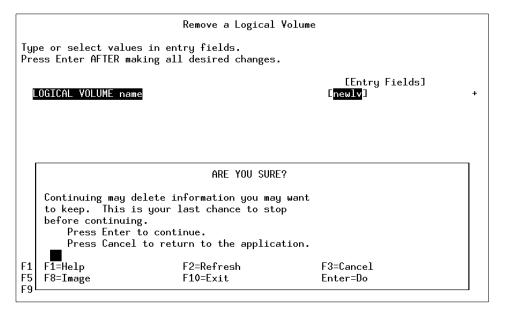


Figure 6-15 Remove a Logical Volume - confirmation screen

Once completed, the system will display the command status, as in Figure 6-16.

COMMAND STATUS								
Command: OK	stdout: yes	stderr: no						
Before command comp	Before command completion, additional instructions may appear below.							
mmlv: Logical volum	e newlv is removed.							
F1=Help F8=Image n=Find Next	F2=Refresh F9=Shell	F3=Cancel F10=Exit	F6=Command /=Find					

Figure 6-16 Remove a Logical Volume - Command Status screen

Once the Logical Volume has been removed, the Volume Group must be removed. Press F3 until you get to the Logical Volume Manager menu, then select Volume Groups, as displayed in Figure 6-17.

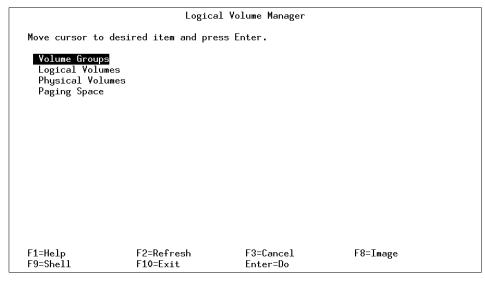


Figure 6-17 Logical Volume Manager menu

In the Volume Groups menu, select Remove a Volume Group, as displayed in Figure 6-18.

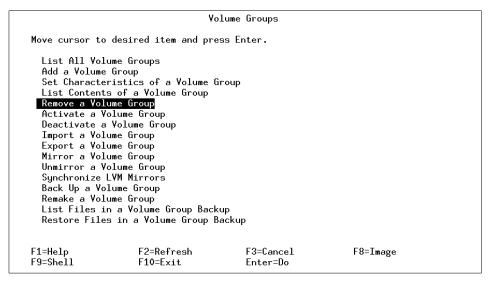


Figure 6-18 Volume Groups menu

From the Remove a Volume Group menu, select the VOLUME GROUP name to be removed, as displayed in Figure 6-19.

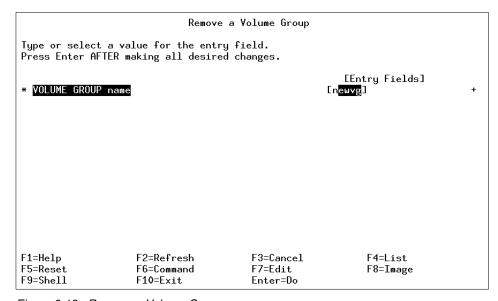


Figure 6-19 Remove a Volume Group menu

After a selection has been entered for the Volume Group to remove, a confirmation screen is displayed, as in Figure 6-20. Press Enter to continue.

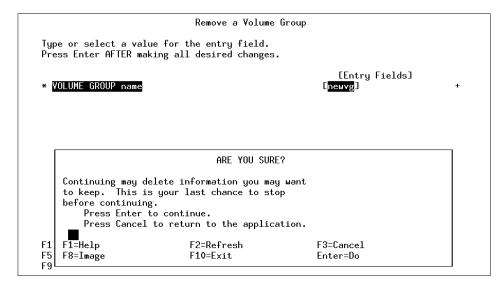


Figure 6-20 Remove a Volume Group - confirmation screen

Figure 6-21 on page 112 is the COMMAND STATUS screen confirming a successful removal of the Volume Group.

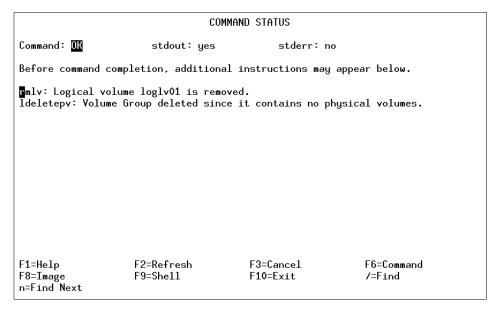


Figure 6-21 Remove a Volume Group - Command Status screen

Press F10 to exit to the command prompt.

To check the status of your Physical Volumes, enter:

# lspv		
hdisk0	000919746edab91f	rootvg
hdisk1	0009197459d92f2e	None
hdisk2	00091974d381d097	uservg
hdisk3	00091974d81ff431	None
hdisk4	00091974de731316	uservg
hdisk5	00091974e4f3d56e	None

To add the physical volume hdisk3 to the volume group uservg, enter:

```
smitty vg
```

From the Volume Groups menu, select the Set Characteristics of a Volume Group option, as displayed in Figure 6-22 on page 113.

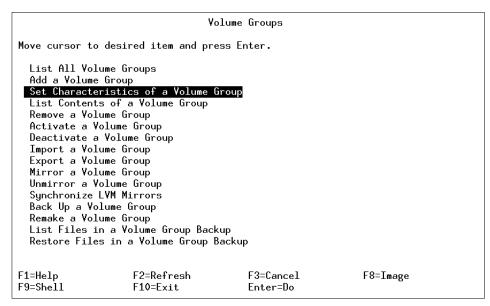


Figure 6-22 Volume Groups menu

From the Set Characteristics of a Volume Group menu, select the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group option, as displayed in Figure 6-23.

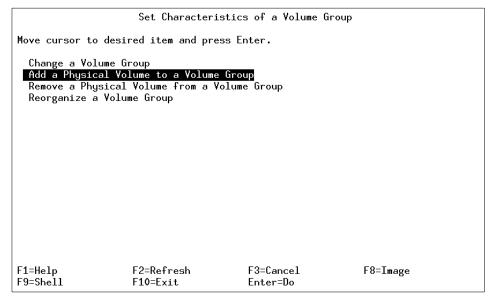


Figure 6-23 Set Characteristics of a Volume Group menu

In the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group field, enter the VOLUME GROUP name and the PHYSICAL VOLUME names, as displayed in Figure 6-24.

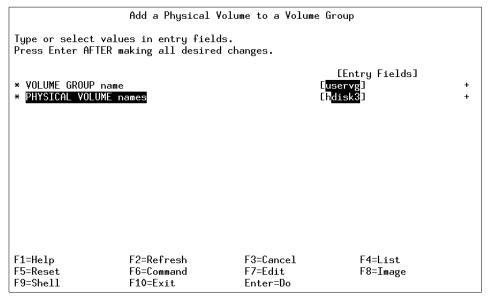


Figure 6-24 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group menu

Figure 6-25 displays the confirmation screen in the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group menu. Press Enter to continue.

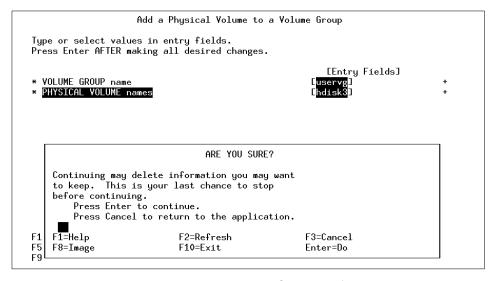


Figure 6-25 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group - confirmation screen

Once the command has completed, you will see Command: OK, as displayed in Figure 6-26.

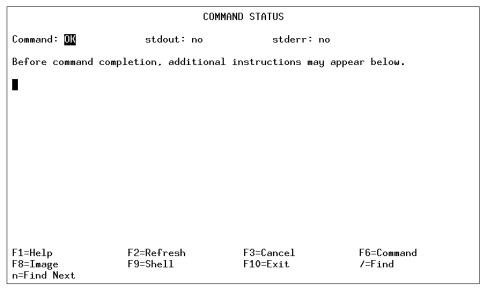


Figure 6-26 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group - Command Status

Press F10 to exit to the command prompt. At the command prompt, check the status of your Physical Volume.

#### Enter:

# lspv		
hdisk0	000919746edab91f	rootvg
hdisk1	0009197459d92f2e	None
hdisk2	00091974d381d097	uservg
hdisk3	00091974d81ff431	uservg
hdisk4	00091974de731316	uservg
hdisk5	00091974e4f3d56e	None

To move the information from hdisk4 to hdisk3, enter:

migratepv hdisk4 hdisk3

To remove hdisk4 from the volume group uservg, enter:

hdisk4	00091974de731316	None
hdisk5	00091974e4f3d56e	None

# 6.3.9 Extending a volume group to a defined physical volume

In this section, there exists a volume group called uservg on hdisk2. You are going to install a new disk and try to extend a uservg to use that drive.

List the volume groups to check what is available:

```
# lsvg
rootvg
uservg
newvg
```

List the disk devices on your system by entering:

```
# Isdev -Cc disk
hdisk0 Available 40-58-00-0,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk1 Available 40-58-00-1,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk2 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk3 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
```

Shut the system down and install the new device, boot the machine, log in as root, and then enter the following:

```
# lsdev -Cc disk
hdisk0 Available 40-58-00-0,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk1 Available 40-58-00-1,0 16 Bit SCSI Disk Drive
hdisk2 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk3 Available 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
hdisk4 Defined 20-68-L SSA Logical Disk Drive
```

To check the volume group uservg, enter:

To extend the volume group uservg, enter the following:

```
smitty vg
```

Select the Set Characteristics of a Volume Group option from the Volume Groups menu, as displayed in Figure 6-27.

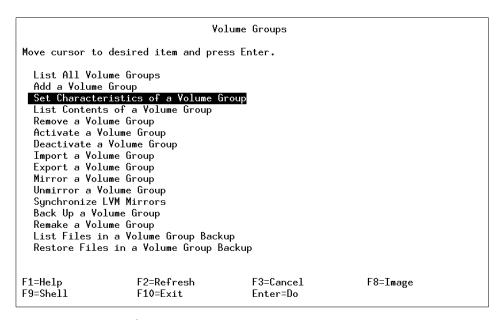


Figure 6-27 Volume Groups menu

Select the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group option in the Set Characteristics of a volume group, menu as displayed in Figure 6-28 on page 118.

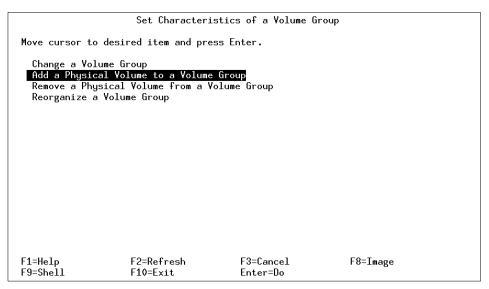


Figure 6-28 Set Characteristics of a Volume Group menu

From the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group menu, insert the Volume Group name and the Physical Volume names, as displayed in Figure 6-29.

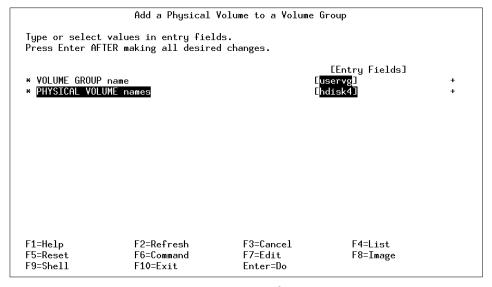


Figure 6-29 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group menu

Once the Volume Group and Physical Volume information has been entered, the system will display a confirmation message, as displayed in Figure 6-30.

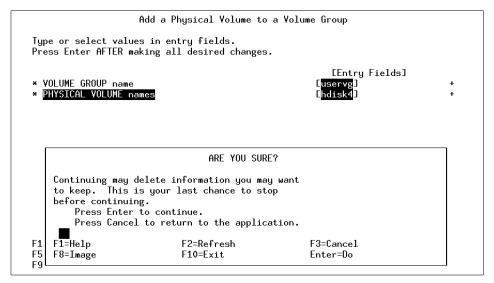


Figure 6-30 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group - confirmation screen

Figure 6-31 on page 120 shows the screen for the failed operation. The reason for the failure is that the disk is defined but not available.

COMMAND STATUS								
Command: failed	stdout: yes	stderr: no						
Before command com	oletion, additional	instructions may	appear below.					
Either PV diagnostic	©516-024 hdisk4: Unable to open physical volume.  Either PV was not configured or could not be opened. Run diagnostics.  0516-792 extendvg: Unable to extend volume group.							
F1=Help F8=Image n=Find Next	F2=Refresh F9=Shell	F3=Cancel F10=Exit	F6=Command /=Find					

Figure 6-31 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group - Command Status

Press F10 to exit SMIT and then type the following:

```
# mkdev -1 'hdisk4'
hdisk4 Available
```

The device hdisk4 is now available for the system to create a volume group on.

Go back into the SMIT Volume Group Menu and enter:

```
smitty vg
```

Select the Set Characteristics of a Volume Group, as displayed in Figure 6-27 on page 117.

Select the Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group, as displayed in Figure 6-28 on page 118.

Enter the Volume Group name and the Physical Volume names, as displayed in Figure 6-29 on page 118. At the confirmation window, press Enter to continue, as displayed in Figure 6-30 on page 119.

Once the process is complete, the Command Status screen will display OK for the successful completion of the command, as shown in Figure 6-32 on page 121.

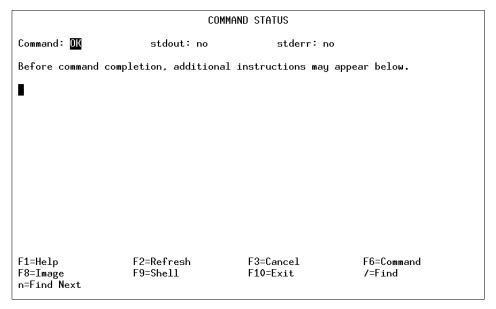


Figure 6-32 Add a Physical Volume to a Volume Group - Command Status

To check the volume group named uservg, enter:

```
# 1svg uservg
VOLUME GROUP:
              uservg
                            VG IDENTIFIER: 000919742f85e776
              active
VG STATE:
                            PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
VG PERMISSION: read/write
                             TOTAL PPs: 1074 (8592 megabytes)
            256
                            FREE PPs:
MAX LVs:
                                        873 (6984 megabytes
                                      201 (1608 megabytes)
LLVs:
                            USED PPs:
OPEN LVs:
                            QUORUM:
                                          2
TOTAL PVs:
                            VG DESCRIPTORS: 3
STALE PVs:
                            STALE PPs:
ACTIVE PVs:
                            AUTO ON:
                                          yes
                            MAX PVs:
MAX PPs per PV: 1016
                                          32
```

# 6.4 Managing logical volumes

Physical volumes and volume groups are normally not addressed directly by users and applications to access data, and they cannot be manipulated to provide disk space for use by users and applications. However, logical volumes provide the mechanism to make disk space available for use, giving users and applications the ability to access data stored on them.

When you create a logical volume, you specify the number of logical partitions for the logical volume. A logical partition maps to one, two, or three physical partitions, depending on the number of copies of your data you want to maintain. For example, you can specify a logical volume to be mirrored and have more than one copy, as shown in Figure 6-33. One copy of the logical volume (the default) indicates that there is a direct mapping of one logical partition to one physical partition.

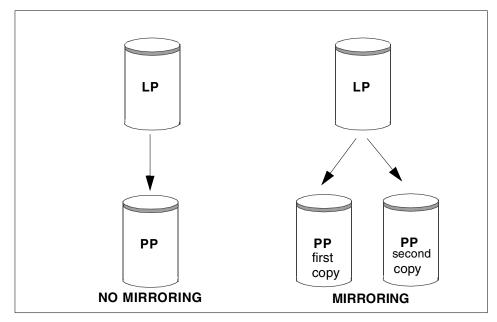


Figure 6-33 Mapping of LP to PP for mirrored and non-mirrored data

The management of logical volumes is, therefore, the management of disk space that is available for use. This section will review the functions that can be performed by users on logical volumes.

# 6.4.1 Adding a logical volume

You can create additional logical volumes with the mklv command. This command allows you to specify the name of the logical volume and define its characteristics, including the number and location of logical partitions to allocate for it. The default maximum size for a logical volume at creation is 128 logical partitions, unless specified to be larger.

#### Creating a logical volume using the command line

The mklv command is used to create a new logical volume. Following is the syntax of the mklv command and the most commonly used flags are shown in Table 6-4.

```
mklv [ -a Position ] [ -b BadBlocks ] [ -c Copies ] [ -d Schedule ]
[ -e Range ] [ -i ] [ -L Label ] [ -m MapFile ] [ -r Relocate ] [ -s Strict ]
[ -t Type ] [ -u UpperBound ] [ -v Verify ] [ -w MirrorWriteConsistency ]
[ -x Maximum ] [ -y NewLogicalVolume | -Y Prefix ] [ -S StripeSize ]
[ -U Userid ] [ -G Groupid ] [ -P Modes ] VolumeGroup Number
[ PhysicalVolume ... ]
```

Table 6-4 mklv command flags

Flag	Description
-c Copies	Sets the number of physical partitions allocated for each logical partition. The copies variable can be set to a value from 1 to 3; the default is 1.
-i	Reads the PhysicalVolume parameter from standard input. Use the -i flag only when PhysicalVolume is entered through standard input.
-L	Sets the logical volume label. The default label is None. The maximum size of the label file is 127 characters. If the logical volume is going to be used as a journaled file system (JFS), then the JFS will use this field to store the mount point of the file system on that logical volume for future reference.
-P Modes	Specifies permissions (file modes) for the logical volume special file.
-t Type	Sets the logical volume type. The standard types are JFS (file systems), JFSLOG (journal file system logs), and paging (paging spaces), but a user can define other logical volume types with this flag. You cannot create a striped logical volume of type boot. The default is JFS. If a log is manually created for a file system, the user must run the logform command to clean out the new JFSLOG before the log can be used. Use the following command to format the logical volume logdev:  logform /dev/logdev where /dev/logdev is the absolute path to the logical volume.
-y NewLogical Volume	Specifies the logical volume name to use instead of using a system-generated name. Logical volume names must be unique systemwide names, and can range from 1 to 15 characters. If the volume group is varied on in concurrent mode, the new name should be unique across all the concurrent nodes the volume group is varied on. The name cannot begin with a prefix already defined in the PdDv class in the Device Configuration Database for other devices.

The following example shows the use of mklv command to create a new logical volume, newlv. This will create a logical volume called newlv in the rootvg and it will have 10 logical partitions and each logical partition consists of two physical partitions. The command is:

mklv -y newlv -c 2 rootvg 10

#### Creating a logical volume using SMIT

You can use the following SMIT hierarchy to create a logical volume:

- 1. Run the command smitty mklv.
- 2. Press F4 to get a list of all the volume groups that are defined in the system. A screen similar to Figure 6-34 will be shown.

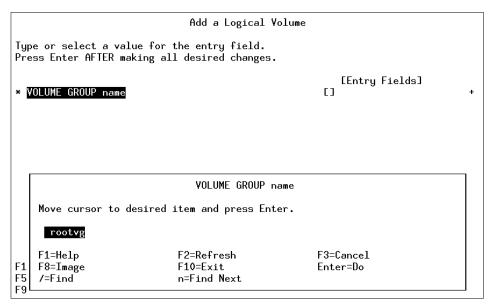


Figure 6-34 Selecting the volume group to hold the new logical volume

3. Use the arrow keys to select the volume group in which you want to create your new logical volume and press Enter. A screen similar to Figure 6-35 on page 125 will be shown.

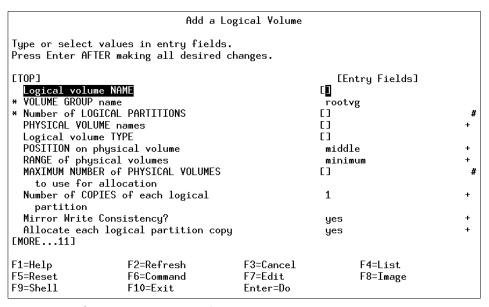


Figure 6-35 Setting characteristics of the new logical volume

- 4. In the Logical volume NAME parameter, enter the name of the logical volume you are creating (newly in this case).
- 5. In the Number of LOGICAL PARTITIONS parameter, enter the number of logical partitions you want to assign to your new logical volume (10 in this case). Each logical partition corresponds to one or more physical partitions, depending upon the number of copies of data you want to keep.
- 6. In the PHYSICAL VOLUME names parameter, enter the physical volumes that you want to use for this logical volume. If you do not specify any names, the first PV in the system will be used to place all the data on.
- 7. In the Number of COPIES of each logical partition parameter, enter the number of copies that you want for your data. If you want to mirror your data change, the default is from 1 to a maximum of 3.
- 8. Press Enter to create the logical volume.

# 6.4.2 Removing a logical volume

You may need to remove a logical volume if it is no longer in use for storage purposes by users and applications. The rml v command can be used to remove a logical volume.

#### Removing a logical volume using the command line

The rmlv command is used to remove a logical volume. The general syntax of the command and its commonly used flags are shown in Table 6-5. The command is:

```
rmlv [ -f ] [ -p PhysicalVolume ] LogicalVolume ...
```

Table 6-5 rmlv command flags

Flag	Description
-f	Removes the logical volumes without requesting confirmation.
-p <i>PhysicalVolume</i>	Removes only the logical partition on the PhysicalVolume. The logical volume is not removed unless there are no other physical partitions allocated.

The following example shows the command to remove a logical volume, newly:

```
\# rmlv newlv Warning, all data on logical volume newlv will be destroyed. rmlv: Do you wish to continue? y(es) n(o) y \#
```

Entering a y as the response to this dialogue and pressing Enter will complete the process of deletion of a logical volume.

#### Removing a logical volume using SMIT

You can use the SMIT fast path smitty rmlv to remove a logical volume.

#### Removing a logical volume when rootvg is full

In this section, you will attempt to remove the logical volume temply, but with a few surprises, when the rootvg is full.

Unmount the logical volume:

```
umount /dev/templv
```

#### Remove the logical volume:

```
# rmlv templv
Warning, all data contained on logical volume templv will be destroyed.
rmlv: Do you wish to continue? y(es) n(o)? y
/tmp/lvmap11780: There is not enough space in the file system.
0516-912 rmlv: Unable to remove logical volume templv.
```

While removing the logical volume, you receive the preceding error message. Check the disk space by entering:

# df							
Filesystem	512-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused	Mounted	on
/dev/hd4	32768	0	100%	1868	16%	/	
/dev/hd2	4702208	0	100%	51167	9%	/usr	
/dev/hd9var	16384	0	100%	183	9%	/var	
/dev/hd3	32768	0	100%	34	1%	/tmp	
/dev/hd1	16384	8	100%	49	3%	/home	
/dev/userlv	16793600	9968728	41%	21	1%	/u	

The file systems /, /usr, /var, /tmp, and /home are full. There are two options to fix this problem:

- 1. Check the file systems and find unused or obsolete files that can be removed.
- 2. Increase the size of the file systems, if you have enough disk space, or add an additional drive and use the **extendvg** command to add the drive to the rootvg, then increase the size of the file systems.

After investigation, you will find that there is a file called bigfile, which is an unused file that is taking up space on the file system /tmp and /home. Delete this file from the two file systems. The other file systems will be resized using the **chfs** command.

To delete the obsolete files from /tmp and /home, do the following:

```
# rm /tmp/bigfile
# rm /home/bigfile
# df
Filesystem 512-blocks Free %Used Iused %Iused Mounted on
/dev/hd4 49152 0 100% 1868 16% /
/dev/hd2 4702208 0 100% 51167 9% /usr
/dev/hd9var 16384 0 100% 183 9% /var
/dev/hd3 32768 31568 4% 33 1% /tmp
/dev/hd1 16384 15656 5% 48 3% /home
/dev/userlv 16793600 9968728 41% 21 1% /u
```

To resize the other three file systems, enter:

smitty jfs

From the Journaled File Systems menu select the Change / Show Characteristics of a Journaled File System option, as displayed in Figure 6-36 on page 128.

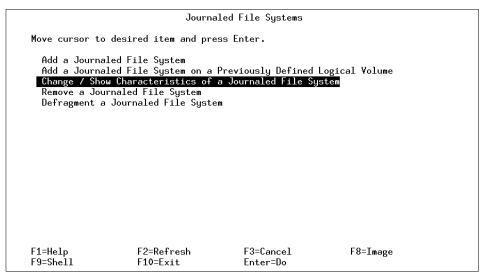


Figure 6-36 Journaled File Systems menu

Once the Change / Show Characteristics of a Journaled File System option has been taken, a File System Name submenu will appear. Select the file system to which changes will be made, as displayed in Figure 6-37.

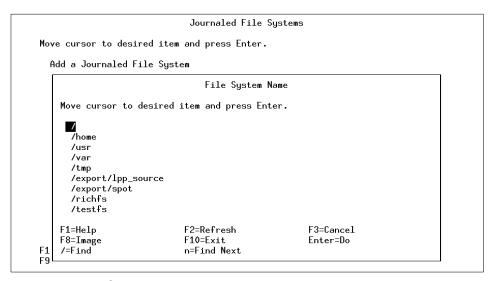


Figure 6-37 File System Name submenu

Figure 6-38 on page 129 shows the original characteristics of the / (root) file systems. Go down to the Size of file system (in 512-byte blocks) option.

```
Change / Show Characteristics of a Journaled File System
Type or select values in entry fields.
Press Enter AFTER making all desired changes.
                                                         [Entry Fields]
 File system name
  NEW mount point
                                                      [7]
 SIZE of file system (in 512-byte blocks)
                                                      [32768]
 Mount GROUP
                                                      [bootfs]
 Mount AUTOMATICALLY at system restart?
                                                       yes
 PERMISSIONS
                                                       read/write
 Mount OPTIONS
                                                      []
 Start Disk Accounting?
                                                       no
 Fragment Size (bytes)
                                                       4096
 Number of bytes per inode
                                                       2048
 Compression algorithm
                                                       no
 Large File Enabled
                                                       false
 Allocation Group Size (MBytes)
F1=Help
                    F2=Refresh
                                         F3=Cancel
                                                             F4=List
F5=Reset
                    F6=Command
                                         F7=Edit
                                                             F8=Image
F9=Shell
                    F10=Exit
                                         Enter=Do
```

Figure 6-38 Original characteristics of a journaled file system

Figure 6-39 shows the same menu as Figure 6-38, except the Size of file system (in 512-byte blocks) has been changed. The size can only be increased.

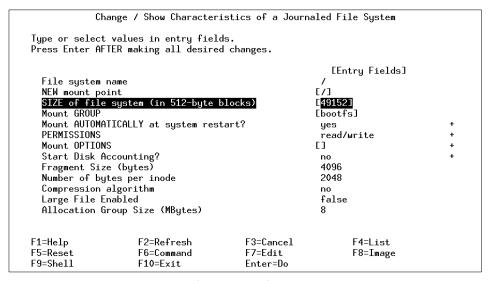


Figure 6-39 New characteristics of a journaled file system

In Figure 6-40, the Command Status window displaying the success of the operation to increase the size of a file system is shown.

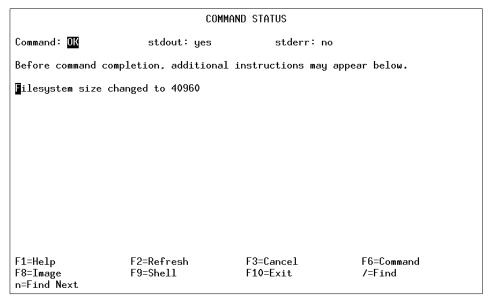


Figure 6-40 smitty ifs Command Status screen

Press F10 to exit out of the SMIT system and go back to the command line.

To check the new size of the file system, enter:

# df							
Filesystem	512-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused	Mounted	on
/dev/hd4	49152	25856	48%	1867	16%	/	
/dev/hd2	4702208	0	100%	51167	9%	/usr	
/dev/hd9var	16384	0	100%	183	9%	/var	
/dev/hd3	32768	31568	4%	33	1%	/tmp	
/dev/hd1	16384	15656	5%	48	3%	/home	
/dev/userlv	16793600	9968728	41%	21	1%	/u	

To change the size of the /usr and /var file systems from the command line, enter:

```
# chfs -a size='5000000' /usr
Filesystem size changed to 5013504
# chfs -a size='32768' /var
Filesystem size changed to 32768
```

To check the size of the file systems, enter:

# df							
Filesystem	512-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused	${\tt Mounted}$	on
/dev/hd4	49152	25848	48%	1867	16%	/	
/dev/hd2	5013504	301520	94%	51167	9%	/usr	
/dev/hd9var	32768	15864	52%	183	5%	/var	
/dev/hd3	32768	31568	4%	33	1%	/tmp	
/dev/hd1	16384	15656	5%	48	3%	/home	
/dev/userlv	16793600	9968728	41%	21	1%	/u	

All of the file systems now have additional space. Remove the logical volume by entering the following:

```
# rmlv templv
Warning, all data contained on logical volume temply will be destroyed.
rmlv: Do you wish to continue? y(es) n(o)? y
rmlv: Logical volume templv is removed.
```

The logical volume has been removed. To remove the volume group, enter:

```
# reducevg -df tempvg hdisk4
rmlv: Logical volume loglv01 is removed.
Ideletepv: Volume Group deleted since it contains no physical volumes.
```

The volume group has been removed and the physical volume made available for use on another volume group. To verify this, enter:

# lspv		
hdisk0	000919746edab91f	rootvg
hdisk1	0009197459d92f2e	None
hdisk2	00091974d381d097	uservg
hdisk3	00091974d81ff431	uservg
hdisk4	00091974de731316	None
hdisk5	00091974e4f3d56e	None
hdisk6	0009197425444544	raidvg

# 6.4.3 Reducing the size of a logical volume

The following steps could be performed to reduce the size of a logical volume to free up the excess logical partition allocation:

- 1. Back up all data in the logical volume.
- 2. Remove the logical volume.
- 3. Recreate the logical volume with the reduced logical partition allocation.
- Restore the data.

The resulting free space could be put to better use by allocating it to other logical volumes requiring it.

### 6.4.4 Increasing the size of a logical volume

An existing logical volume can be increased in size by using the extendly command or SMIT.

If the logical volume is used by a journaled file system, you can also use the **chfs** command or SMIT fast path command **smitty chjfs** to increase the size of the logical volume.

#### Extending a logical volume using the command line

The extendly command is used to increase the size of a logical volume. The following is the general syntax of the command and its commonly used flags:

```
extendlv [ -a Position ] [ -e Range ] [ -u Upperbound ] [ -s Strict ] LogicalVolume Partitions [ PhysicalVolume ... ]
```

The following example shows the use of the **extendly** command to add three more logical partitions to the logical volume you created:

```
extendly newly 3
```

#### Extending a logical volume using SMIT

The SMIT fast path **smitty extendly** can be used to increase the size of a logical volume.

# 6.4.5 Copying a logical volume

Logical volumes may need to be copied for a number of reasons. If a disk is to be removed and replaced with a new disk, the logical volumes on that disk will need to be copied to the new disk. Logical volumes can be copied to new logical volumes or to existing logical volumes, which are then overwritten.

#### Copying a logical volume using the command line

The following example shows the use of cplv command to copy a logical volume:

```
cplv -v myvg -y newlv oldlv
```

This copies the contents of oldly to a new logical volume called newly in the volume group myvg. If the volume group is not specified, the new logical volume will be created in the same volume group as the old logical volume. This command creates a new logical volume.

The following example demonstrates how to copy a logical volume to an existing logical volume:

```
cplv -e existingly oldly
```

This copies the contents of oldly to the logical volume existingly. Confirmation for the copy will be requested, as all data in existingly will be overwritten.

If existingly is smaller than oldly, then data will be lost, probably resulting in corruption.

**Note:** Do not copy from a larger logical volume containing data to a smaller one. Doing so results in a corrupted file system because some data (including the superblock) is not copied. This command will fail if the **cplv** creates a new logical volume and the volume group is varied on in concurrent mode.

#### Copying a logical volume using SMIT

Alternatively, you can use the SMIT fast path **smitty cplv** to obtain a screen, as shown in Figure 6-41.

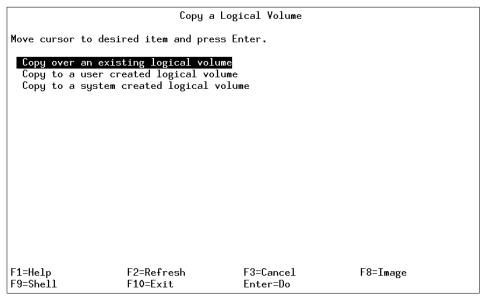


Figure 6-41 smitty cplv command

1. Select Copy over an existing logical volume. A screen similar to Figure 6-42 on page 134 will be shown.

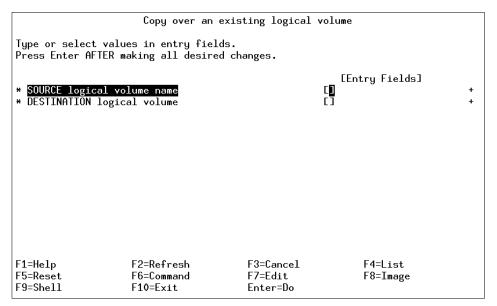


Figure 6-42 Selecting source and destination logical volumes

- 2. Enter the name of the logical volume you want to copy in the SOURCE logical volume name parameter
- 3. Enter the name of the logical volume on which you want to copy your existing logical volume to in the DESTINATION logical volume name field. This name can be of an existing logical volume that you have already created or it can be a new logical volume that you want to create. Press Enter to complete this step.

Note: You might encounter the following error:

cplv: Destination logical volume must have type set to copy

If this is the case, use the following command:

chlv -t copy <Destination Logical Volume Name>

Return to your SMIT session. Now the system will allow you to copy the logical volume. This has been done to ensure extra security so that you do not overwrite your data accidently.

# 6.4.6 Listing logical volumes

The following logical volumes are automatically created at the system installation time:

hd5 This is the boot logical volume that holds the boot code. It

is available only at the system startup time.

hd6 This is the default paging space logical volume that is

used by the system to perform paging.

hd8 This logical volume is used as the default logging space

for the journaled file systems.

hd4 This logical volume is used by the / (root) file system.

hd2 This logical volume is used by the /usr file system.

hd9var This logical volume is used by the /var file system.

hd3 This logical volume is used by the /tmp file system.

hd1 This logical volume is used by the /home file system.

Figure 6-43 lists all the logical volumes defined on the system, which were found by running:

lsvg | lsvg -il

rootvg: LV NAME	TYPE	LPs	PPs	PVs	LV STATE	MOUNT POINT
hd5	boot	2	2	1	closed/syncd	N/A
hd6	paging	32	32	1	open/syncd	N/A
hd8	jfslog	1	1	1	open/syncd	N/A
hd4	jfs	4	4	1	open/syncd	/
hd2	jfs	123	123	1	open/syncd	/usr
hd9var	jfs	1	1	$\bar{1}$	open/syncd	/var
hd3	jfs	4	4	1	open/syncd	/tmp
hd1	jfs	1	1	1	open/syncd	/home
1v00	jfs	4	4	1	closed/syncd	/usr/vice/cache
lv01	jfs	3	3	$\bar{1}$	open/syncd	/var/dce
1v02	jfs	10	10	$\bar{1}$	closed/syncd	/var/dce/adm/dfs/d
ache	J				ŭ	
lvtest	???	3	6	1	open/syncd	/test
lvbkup	???	3	3	1	closed/syncd	N/A
1v03 '	jfs	108	108	1	closed/syncd	/export/lpp_source
_1	_				<del>-</del>	
lv04	jfs	53	53	1	closed/syncd	/export/spot_1
1v05	jfs	158	158	1	closed/syncd	/work
1v06	jfs	5	5	1	closed/syncd	/home2
1v07	jfs	1	1	1	open/syncd	/auto1
1v08	jfs	1	1	1	closed/syncd	/auto2
Standard input	0 -				9	

Figure 6-43 Logical volume listing

The 1s1v command can be used to view all the attributes related to a logical volume (newlv), as shown in Figure 6-44.

```
# lslv newlv
LOGICAL VOLUME:
                                            VOLUME GROUP:
                    newly
                                                            rootvg
IV TOFNTTETER:
                    00615147b27f2b40.26
                                           PERMISSION:
                                                            read/write
VG STATE:
                    active/complete
                                           LV STATE:
                                                            closed/syncd
TYPE:
                                           WRITE VERIFY:
                                                            off
                    jfs.
MAX LPs:
                    512
                                           PP SIZE:
                                                            4 megabyte(s)
COPIES:
                    1
                                           SCHED POLICY:
                                                            parallel
LPs:
                                           PPs:
                    1
STALE PPs:
                    ٥
                                           BB POLICY:
                                                            relocatable
INTER-POLICY:
                                           RELOCATABLE:
                    minimum
                                                            yes
INTRA-POLICY:
                                           UPPER BOUND:
                                                            32
                    middle
MOUNT POINT:
                    N/A
                                           LABEL:
                                                            None
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
```

Figure 6-44 Logical volume attributes

### 6.4.7 Logical volume size

The size of a logical volume is the space that is allocated to the logical volume and is a factor of the number of logical partitions that are allocated to the logical volume and the number of copies that you have told the system to maintain. Therefore, the total space taken up by the logical volume is determined by the following formula:

Total LV size=PP size \* LPs assigned to LV \* Number of copies of the LV

If PP size is 4 MB, LPs assigned to the logical volume are 10, and the number of copies of the logical volume are 2, then the total space that will be allocated to this logical volume will be 80 MB (4\*10\*2).

#### 6.4.8 Other logical volume characteristics

The AIX LVM provides a number of facilities or *policies* for managing both the performance and availability characteristics of logical volumes. The policies that have the greatest impact on performance are *Intra-disk allocation*, *inter-disk allocation*, *I/O scheduling*, and *write-verify policies*.

#### Intra-disk allocation policy

The intra-disk allocation policy determines the actual physical location of the physical partitions on disk. A disk is logically divided into the following five concentric areas as follows, and as shown in Figure 6-45:

- Outer edge
- ▶ Outer middle
- ▶ Center
- Inner middle
- Inner edge

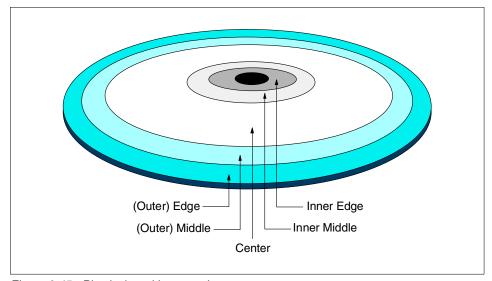


Figure 6-45 Physical partition mapping

Due to the physical movement of the disk actuator, the outer and inner edges typically have the largest average seek times and are a poor choice for application data that is frequently accessed. The center region provides the fastest average seek times and is the best choice for paging space or applications that generate a significant amount of random I/O activity. The outer and inner middle regions provide better average seek times than the outer and inner edges but worse seek times than the center region.

As a general rule, when designing a logical volume strategy for performance, the most performance critical data should be placed as close to the center of the disk as possible. There are, however, two notable exceptions:

Applications that perform a large amount of sequential reads or writes
experience higher throughput when the data is located on the outer edge of
the disk due to the fact that there are more data blocks per track on the outer
edge of the disk than the other disk regions.

Logical volumes with Mirrored Write Consistency (MWC) enabled should also be located at the outer edge of the disk, as this is where the MWC cache record is located

When the disks are setup in a RAID5 configuration, the intra-disk allocation policy will not have any benefits to performance.

#### Inter-disk allocation policy

The inter-disk allocation policy is used to specify the number of disks that contain the physical partitions of a logical volume. The physical partitions for a given logical volume can reside on one or more disks in the same volume group, depending on the setting of the *Range* option. The range option can be set using the smitty mklv command and changing the RANGE of physical volumes menu option.

- ► The maximum range setting attempts to spread the physical partitions of a logical volume across as many physical volumes as possible in order to decrease the average access time for the logical volume.
- ► The minimum range setting attempts to place all of the physical partitions of a logical volume on the same physical disk. If this cannot be done, it will attempt to place the physical partitions on as few disks as possible. The minimum setting is used for increased availability only and should not be used for frequently accessed logical volumes. If a non-mirrored logical volume is spread across more than one drive, the loss of any of the physical drives will result in data loss. In other words, a non-mirrored logical volume spread across two drives will be twice as likely to experience a loss of data as one that resides on only one drive.

The physical partitions of a given logical volume can be mirrored to increase data availability. The location of the physical partition copies is determined by the setting of the *Strict* option with the <code>smitty mklv</code> command called Allocate each logical partition copy. When Strict = y, each physical partition copy is placed on a different physical volume. When Strict = n, the copies can be on the same physical volume or different volumes. When using striped and mirrored logical volumes in AIX Version 4.3.3 and above, there is an additional partition allocation policy known as *superstrict*. When Strict = s, partitions of one mirror cannot share the same disk as partitions from a second or third mirror, thus further reducing the possibility of data loss due to a single disk failure.

In order to determine the data placement strategy for a mirrored logical volume, the settings for both the Range and Strict options must be carefully considered. As an example, consider a mirrored logical volume with range setting of minimum and a strict setting of yes. The LVM would attempt to place all of the physical partitions associated with the primary copy on one physical disk, with the mirrors

residing on either one or two additional disks, depending on the number of copies of the logical volume (2 or 3). If the strict setting were changed to no, all of the physical partitions corresponding to both the primary and mirrors would be located on the same physical disk.

#### I/O-scheduling policy

The default for logical volume mirroring is that the copies should use different disks. This is both for performance and data availability. With copies residing on different disks, if one disk is extremely busy, then a read request can be completed using the other copy residing on a less busy disk. Different I/O scheduling policies can be set for logical volumes. The different I/O scheduling policies are as follows:

**Sequential** 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.

**Parallel** 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.

AIX 5L Version 5.1 introduces two additional polices, as follows:

**Parallel/sequential** The parallel/sequential policy always initiates reads on the

primary copy. Writes are initiated concurrently.

**Parallel/round robin** 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.

#### Write-verify policy

When the write-verify policy is enabled, all write operations are validated by immediately performing a follow-up read operation of the previously written data. An error message will be returned if the read operation is not successful. The use of write-verify enhances the integrity of the data but can drastically degrade the performance of disk writes.

# 6.5 Managing journaled file systems

A file system is a set of files, directories, and other structures. File systems maintain information and identify the location of a file or directory's data. In addition to files and directories, file systems contain a boot block, a superblock, bitmaps, and one or more allocation groups. An allocation group contains disk i-nodes and fragments.

The following three types of file systems are supported on an AIX system.

**Journaled file system** This native file system type is called the journaled file

system (JFS). Each journaled file system resides on a separate logical volume. The operating system mounts

journaled file systems during initialization.

**Network file system** The network file system (NFS) is a distributed file system

that allows users to access files and directories located on remote computers and use those files and directories

as if they are local.

**CD-ROM file system** The CD-ROM file system (CDRFS) is a file system type

that allows you to access the contents of a CD-ROM

through the normal file system interfaces.

The journaled file system (JFS) divides the logical volume into a number of fixed size units called logical blocks. The logical blocks in the file system are organized as follows:

**Logical block 0** The first logical block in the file system is reserved and

available for a bootstrap program or any other required information; this block is unused by the file system.

**Superblock** The first and thirty-first logical blocks are reserved for the

superblock (logical block 31 being a backup copy). The super block contains information, such as the overall size of the file system in 512 byte blocks, the file system name, file system log device address (logs will be covered later in this section), version number, and file system state.

Allocation groups The rest of the logical blocks in the file system are divided

into a number of allocation groups. An allocation group consists of data blocks and i-nodes to reference those data blocks when they are allocated to directories or files.

### 6.5.1 Characteristics of the journaled file system

The size for a journaled file system (JFS) is defined when the file system is created. Consider the following parameters:

- ▶ Number of i-nodes
- Allocation group size
- File system fragment addressability
- Journaled file system log size
- Maximum journaled file system size

#### Number of i-nodes

The total number of i-nodes in a file system limits the total number of files and the total size of the file system. The JFS provides the nbpi (number of bytes per i-node) parameter that affects the number of i-nodes in a file system. JFS supports nbpi values of 512, 1024, 2048, 4096, 8192, 16384, 32768, 65536, and 131072. The values 32768, 65536, and 131072 only apply to AIX Version 4.2 or later.

For example, to create an 8 MB file system with an nbpi value of 4096, an i-node will be generated for each 4096 bytes of data. This would result in a maximum of 2048 i-nodes for an 8 MB file system, which means that if every file in the file system is ideally 4 KB in length, a maximum of 2048 files can be created in the file system.

The JFS restricts all file systems to 16 MB (2<sup>24</sup>) i-nodes.

### Allocation group size

AIX Version 4.2 or later supports various allocation group sizes. The JFS segregates file system space into groupings of i-nodes and disk blocks for user data. These groupings are called allocation groups. The allocation group size can be specified when the file system is created. The allocation group sizes are 8 MB, 16 MB, 32 MB, and 64 MB. Each allocation group size has an associated nbpi range. The ranges are defined in Table 6-6.

Table 6-6 Allowable nbpi values

Allocation group size in MB	Maximum number of i-nodes
8	512, 1024, 2048, 4096, 8192, and 16384
16	1024, 2048, 4096, 8192, 16384, and 32768
32	2048, 4096, 8192, 16384, 32768, and 65536
64	4096, 8192, 16384, 32768, 65536, and 131072

#### File system fragment addressability

The JFS supports four fragment sizes: 512, 1024, 2048, and 4096 byte units of contiguous disk space. The JFS maintains fragment addresses in i-nodes and indirect blocks as 28-bit numbers. Each fragment must be addressable by a number from 0 to 256 MB (2<sup>28</sup>).

#### The journaled file system log

Multiple journaled file systems use a common log, called a JFS log, configured to be 4 MB in size. For example, after initial installation, all file systems within the root volume group use logical volume hd8 as a common JFS log. The default logical volume partition size is 4 MB (for volume groups containing disks <= 4 GB), and the default log size is one partition; therefore, the root volume group normally contains a 4 MB JFS log. 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 needs to be increased. The JFS log is limited to a maximum size of 256 MB.

#### Maximum journaled file system size

The maximum JFS size is defined when the file system is created. For example, selecting an nbpi ratio of 512 will limit the file system to a size of 8 GB (512 \*  $2^{24}$  = 8 GB). When creating a JFS file system, the factors listed (nbpi, fragment size, and allocation group size) need to be weighed carefully. The file system size limitation is the minimum of NPBI \*  $2^{24}$  or Fragment Size \*  $2^{28}$ .

# 6.5.2 Characteristics of the enhanced journaled file system

AIX 5L Version 5.1 introduces the Journaled File System 2 (JFS2). JFS2 is an enhanced and updated version of the JFS on AIX Version 4.3 and previous releases. Table 6-7 highlights the differences between the JFS and the JFS2.

Table 6-7 Jo	ournaled file s	system differences
Table 6-7 Ju	iui ilaieu ille S	vsterii unierences

Function	JFS	JFS2
Architectural maximum file	64 GB	1 PB <sup>a</sup>
Architectural maximum file system size	1 TB <sup>b</sup>	4 PB
Maximum file size tested	64 GB	1 TB
Number of i-nodes	Fixed, set at file system creation	Dynamic, limited by disk space
Directory organization	Linear	B-tree
Compression	Yes	No

Function	JFS	JFS2
Default ownership at creation	sys.sys	root.system
SGID of default file mode	SGID=on	SGID=off
Quotas	Yes	No

a. PB stands for Petabytes, which is equal to 1,048,576 GB.

#### Compatibility

In some cases, there will be many servers coexisting with different levels of AIX in a data center. From the JFS point of view, you can only import volume groups and mount file systems from AIX Version 4 to AIX 5L servers. It is not possible to mount the JFS2 file system on AIX Version 4 machines.

#### Migration

There is no LVM nor JFS command that migrates JFS volumes automatically. It is possible to migrate JFS volumes in two different ways:

- 1. Back up the file system, remove it, and recreate it in the JFS2 type, then restore the data to the new file system.
- If there is enough disk space available in the volume group, it is possible to create a new JFS2 file system structure with the same attributes, and just copy all the files from one file system to another.

#### JFS2 rootvg support for 64-bit systems

AIX 5L Version 5.1 introduces a feature to set all file systems in the rootvg as JFS2 type file systems. While installing a system with the complete overwrite option, you can enable the 64-bit kernel and JFS2. If this option is enabled, the installation task will create JFS2 file systems in the rootvg.

To create user-defined JFS2 file systems in AIX 5L Version 5.1, use either the SMIT fast path **smitty jfs2** or the **crfs** command with the -v jfs2 flag.

# 6.5.3 Creating a file system

Every file system in AIX corresponds to a logical volume. In order to create a journaled file system, use the following SMIT hierarchy.

1. Executing the SMIT fast path command **smitty crjfs** will show a screen similar to Figure 6-46 on page 144.

b. TB stands for Terabytes, which is equal to 1,024 GB.

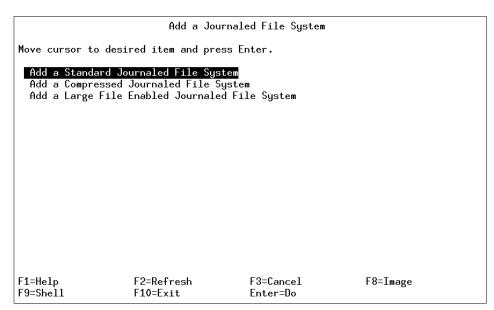


Figure 6-46 smitty crifs command

2. Select Add a Standard Journaled File System to add a new journaled file system. A screen similar to Figure 6-47 is displayed.

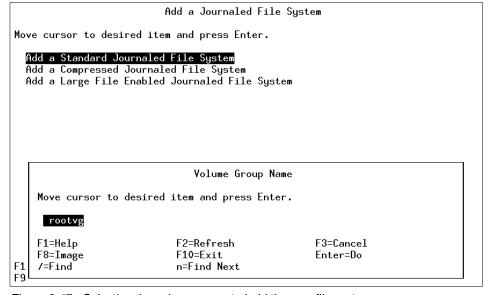


Figure 6-47 Selecting the volume group to hold the new file system

- Select the volume group you want to add this new file system to by using the arrow keys. In this case, since there is only one volume group (rootvg), only rootvg is displayed. Select rootvg as your target volume group by pressing the Enter key.
- 4. Once you select the target volume group, a screen similar to Figure 6-48 is displayed.

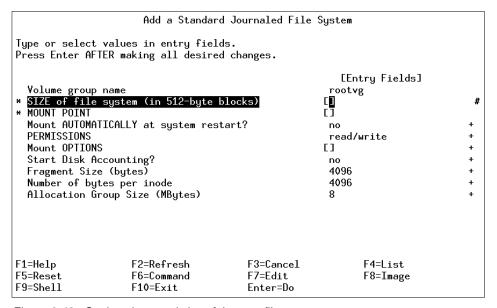


Figure 6-48 Setting characteristics of the new file system

5. In the Size of file system (in 512 byte blocks) parameter, enter the size of the file system you want to create. For example, if you want to create a file system of 4 MB size, you can simply multiply the number of megabytes (four in this case) with 2048 to get 512-byte blocks you will need to create a file system this large (8192 in this case).

**Note:** In AIX, all of the I/O is in 4 KB blocks, but space is allocated in multiples of 512 byte blocks. This is done just to remain consistent with other UNIX systems. The smallest file system that you can create is equal to one PP, so even if you mention the number of blocks to be less than one PP, the system will still create a file system equal to one PP. The following example shows how to calculate the number of blocks for a given amount of space in MB.

Because 512 bytes = 1 block, 1024 bytes = 2 blocks, and because 1MB = 2\*1024 blocks, x MB = x \* 2048 blocks

This indicates that the equivalent number of blocks for a file system of 2 MB are 4096 (Enter this number in the Size of File System field).

- 6. Next, in the MOUNT POINT parameter, enter the full path where you want your file system to attach itself to in the file system hierarchy. A mount point is a directory or file at which the new file system, directory, or file is made accessible.
- 7. Press Enter to create the journaled file system. The screen shown in Figure 6-49 indicates the successful completion of the process.

COMMAND STATUS							
Command: OK	stdout: yes	stderr: no					
Before command comp	letion, additional i	nstructions may appe	ar below.				
		/dummy JFS file sys 28 (512 byte blocks)					
New File System size	e is 8192						
<b></b>	50.0.0	50.0	F0.0				
F1=Help F8=Image n=Find Next	F2=Refresh F9=Shell	F3=Cancel F10=Exit	F6=Command /=Find				

Figure 6-49 smitty crifs results

Alternatively, you can achieve the same task on the command line using the following command:

```
crfs -v jfs -g rootvg -a size=8192 -m /dummy
```

This will create a journaled file system of 4 MB with /dummy as the mount point in the rootvg volume group.

# 6.5.4 Mounting a file system

Mounting is a concept that makes file systems, files, directories, devices, and special files available for use at a particular location. It is the only way a file system is made accessible. Once you have created the file system, the next task is to make it available to your users. In order to do that, you must know how AIX manages the patching of the newly created file systems into its file tree using the mount points.

Figure 6-50 shows a file system mount point (/u/kenzie) before a file system is mounted over it.

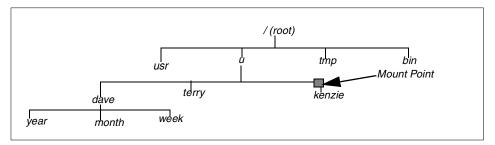


Figure 6-50 File tree view before mounting

Figure 6-51 shows a mounted file system /u/kenzie over the /u/kenzie mount point.

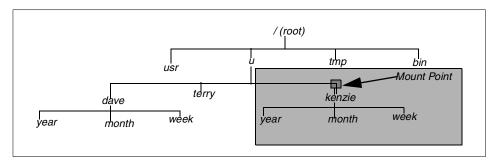


Figure 6-51 File tree view after mounting

#### Note:

- When a file system is mounted over a directory, the permissions of the root directory of the mounted file system take precedence over the permissions of the mount point.
- ► A common problem is failure of the pwd command. Without search permission in the mounted-over directory, the pwd command returns the following message:

```
pwd: Permission denied
```

This problem can be avoided by always setting the permissions of the mounted-over directory to at least 111.

#### Mounting a file system using the command line

The following command shows how to mount a file system (/FileSystemX):

```
mount /FileSystemX
```

Alternatively, if you know the name of the device associated with your file system, you can use the device name to mount your newly created file system.

If you want to mount all the file systems, you can use the following command to mount all the file systems at one time:

```
mount {-a all}
```

### Mounting a file system using SMIT

A file system can be also be mounted using the following SMIT fast path hierarchy.

1. Executing **smitty mount** will display the screen shown in Figure 6-52 on page 149.

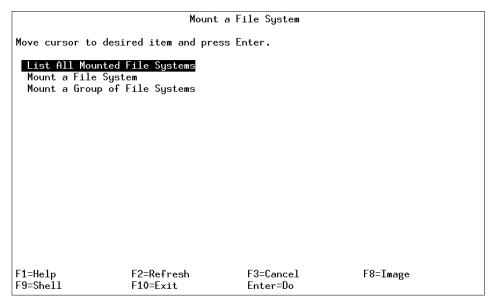


Figure 6-52 smitty mount command

2. Use the arrow keys to move the cursor down and select Mount a File System by pressing the Enter key. A screen similar to Figure 6-53 is shown.

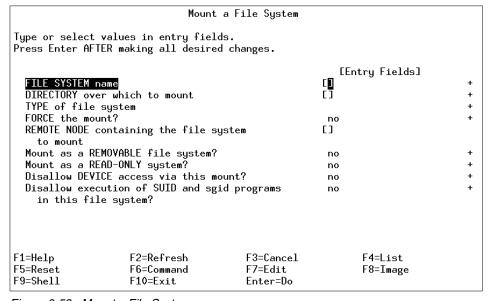


Figure 6-53 Mount a File System screen

- 3. Use the arrow keys to move down to DIRECTORY over which to mount.
- 4. Press F4 to get a list of the mount points that you have defined for your file system. (Refer to Section 6.5.3, "Creating a file system" on page 143 to see how you created a file system, and notice that you created a mount point for your file system. You will use the same mount point to make your file system available to the users). Pressing F4 shows a screen similar to Figure 6-54.

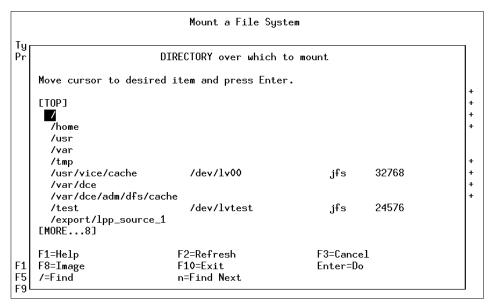


Figure 6-54 Selecting the mount point

- Use the arrow keys to select the file system you want to mount. Press Enter to make the selection. This will display the mount point you just selected in the DIRECTORY over which to mount field.
- Press Enter again and wait for the SMIT OK prompt, which indicates the successful completion of the process.

### **Automatic mounting**

Mounts can be set to occur automatically during system initialization. There are two types of automatic mounts:

Those mounts that are required to boot and run the system. These file systems are explicitly mounted by the boot process. The stanzas of such file systems in the /etc/filesystems file have mount =automatic. When the multi-user initialization starts, the /etc/rc script does not try to mount these file systems again when it executes the mount all command. Similarly, when the umount all command is executed, these file systems are not unmounted.

The second type of automatic mount is user-controlled. These file systems are mounted during initialization by the /etc/rc script when it issues the mount all command. The stanzas of user-controlled automatic mounts contain mount = true in /etc/filesystems.

You can specify that a file system is to be mounted automatically by either the **mount all** command or by the /etc/rc script at the initialization time. You do this by setting the Mount AUTOMATICALLY at system restart field to TRUE when you are creating a file system. (See Figure 6-48 on page 145), or by using the **chfs -A yes** *filesystem* command. The following stanza from /etc/filesystems shows a file system which is mounted automatically:

/opt:	
dev	= /dev/hd10opt
vfs	= jfs
log	= /dev/hd8
mount	= true
check	= true

#### Displaying mounted file systems

The following example shows the use of **mount** command without a flag to display information about all the currently mounted file systems:

# mount node	mounted	mounted over	vfs	date	options	
	/dev/hd4	/	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/hd2	/usr	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/hd9var	/var	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/hd3	/tmp	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/lv01	/var/dce	jfs	Oct 25 18:21	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/hd1	/home	jfs	Oct 27 15:14	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/lvtest	/test	jfs	Oct 27 15:17	rw,log=/dev/hd8	
	/dev/1v07	/autol	jfs	Oct 27 15:34	rw,log=/dev/hd8	

# 6.5.5 Removing a file system

The following example shows the steps involved to remove a file system.

1. Using the **mount** command to check the file systems that are currently mounted will display the following screen:

# mount node	mounted	mounted over	vfs	date	options
	/dev/hd4	/	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd2	/usr	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd9var	/var	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd3	/tmp	jfs	Oct 25 18:20	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/1v01	/var/dce	jfs	Oct 25 18:21	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd1	/home	jfs	Oct 27 15:14	rw,log=/dev/hd8

/dev/lvtest /test jfs Oct 27 15:17 rw,log=/dev/hd8 /dev/lv07 /auto1 jfs Oct 27 15:34 rw,log=/dev/hd8

- 2. Identify if the file system you want to remove is shown in the list:
  - a. Yes: Continue with Step 3.
  - b. No: Go to Step 5.
- 3. Unmount the file system by using the **umount** command:

umount filesystem name

- 4. Repeat Step 1 to check whether the file system has successfully been unmounted.
- Using the SMIT fast path command smitty rmjfs to remove a journaled file system will display a screen similar to the one shown in Figure 6-55 on page 152.

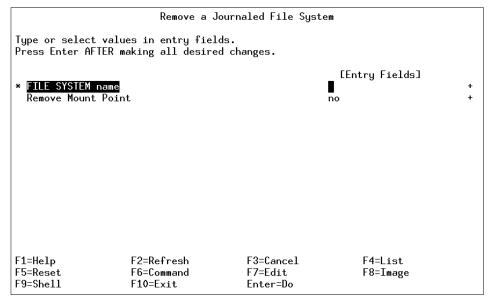


Figure 6-55 smitty rmjfs command

6. Press F4 to get a list of all the file systems that are defined on the system. You will obtain a screen similar to Figure 6-56 on page 153.

```
Remove a Journaled File System
Τy
Pr
                                 FILE SYSTEM name
    Move cursor to desired item and press Enter.
×
    [TOP]
     7
      /home
      /usr
      /var
      /tmp
      /usr/vice/cache
      /var/dce
      /var/dce/adm/dfs/cache
      /test
      /export/lpp_source_1
    EMORE...63
   F1=Help
                             F2=Refresh
                                                      F3=Cancel
F1
   F8=Image
                             F10=Exit
                                                      Enter=Do
F5
   /=Find
                             n=Find Next
F9
```

Figure 6-56 Selecting the file system to remove

- 7. Select the file system to be removed using the arrow keys and press Enter.
- 8. The name of the file system you just selected will be shown in the FILE SYSTEM name parameter.
- If you want to keep the directory name that was used to mount this file system, press Enter to complete the command, otherwise change the Remove Mount Point field to YES and press Enter to complete the process.

Alternatively, you could replace steps 5 through 9 with the  ${\it rmfs}$  command:

#rmfs filesystem\_name

To remove the mount point when the file system is removed, add the -r flag.

# 6.5.6 Increasing the size of a file system

AIX provides you the facility to increase the size of a file system dynamically, provided you have enough free space available on your disk. File systems that are low on space might create unanticipated problems.

**Note:** Whenever a file system is full, the system cannot write to it and returns you the following error:

There is not enough space in the file system

#### Increasing file system size using the command line

A file system can be increased by using the **chfs** command, as shown in the following steps:

- 1. Use the **df** command to find out the current size of the file system.
- 2. Calculate the number of blocks you need to add.
- 3. On the command line, enter the following command:

```
chfs -a size=new_size_in_512-byte_blocks file_system_name Filesystem size changed to new size in 512-byte blocks
```

#### Increasing the size of a file system using SMIT

To increase the file system size using SMIT, perform the following steps.

1. Run the smitty chjfs command to display a screen similar to Figure 6-57.

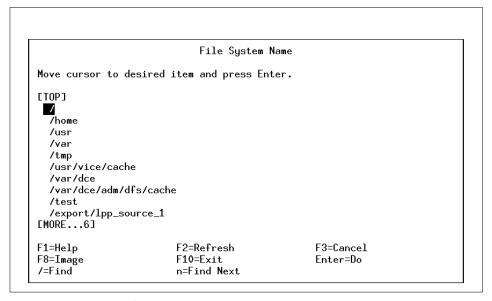


Figure 6-57 smitty chifs command

Use the arrow keys to select the file system you want to change and press the Enter key. A screen similar to Figure 6-58 on page 155 will be shown, which will report the current file system attributes.

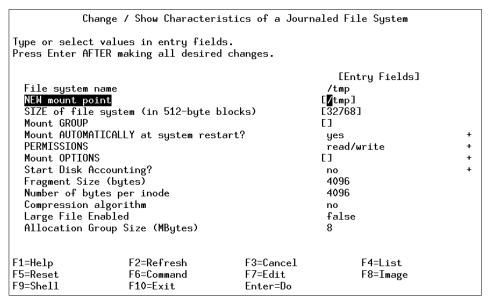


Figure 6-58 Setting new characteristics of a file system

- 3. Enter the new file system size that you calculated in the SIZE of file system (in 512 byte block) field.
- 4. Press Enter. The SMIT OK prompt will indicate the successful completion of the process.

# 6.5.7 Checking file system consistency

The **fsck** command checks file system consistency and interactively repairs the file system. The general syntax of the **fsck** command is as follows:

```
fsck [ -n ] [ -p ] [ -y ] [ -dBlockNumber ] [ -f ] [ -ii-NodeNumber ] [ -0 Options ] [ -tFile ] [ -V VfsName ] [ FileSystem1 - FileSystem2 ... ]
```

The flags commonly used with the **fsck** command and their meanings are shown in Table 6-8.

Table 6-8 fsck command flags

Flag	Description
-f	Performs a fast check. Under normal circumstances, the only file systems likely to be affected by halting the system without shutting down properly are those that are mounted when the system stops. The -f flag prompts the <code>fsck</code> command not to check file systems that were unmounted successfully. The <code>fsck</code> command determines this by inspecting the s_fmod flag in the file system superblock.
	This flag is set whenever a file system is mounted and cleared when it is unmounted successfully. If a file system is unmounted successfully, it is unlikely to have any problems. Because most file systems are unmounted successfully, not checking those file systems can reduce the checking time.
-р	Does not display messages about minor problems, but fixes them automatically. This flag does not grant the wholesale license that the -y flag does and is useful for performing automatic checks when the system is started normally. You should use this flag as part of the system startup procedures, whenever the system is being run automatically. Also allows parallel checks by group. If the primary superblock is corrupt, the secondary superblock is verified and copied to the primary superblock.
-t <i>File</i>	Specifies a file parameter as a scratch file on a file system other than the one being checked, if the <b>fsck</b> command cannot obtain enough memory to keep its tables. If you do not specify the -t flag and the <b>fsck</b> command needs a scratch file, it prompts you for the name of the scratch file. However, if you have specified the -p flag, the <b>fsck</b> command is unsuccessful. If the scratch file is not a special file, it is removed when the <b>fsck</b> command ends.
-у	Assumes a yes response to all questions asked by the <b>fsck</b> command. This flag lets the <b>fsck</b> command take any action it considers necessary. Use this flag only on severely damaged file systems.

The **fsck** command checks and interactively repairs inconsistent file systems. You should run this command before mounting any file system. You must be able to read the device file on which the file system resides (for example, the /dev/hd0 device).

Normally, the file system is consistent and the **fsck** command merely reports on the number of files, used blocks, and free blocks in the file system. If the file system is inconsistent, the **fsck** command displays information about the inconsistencies found and prompts you for permission to repair them. If the file system cannot be repaired, restore it from backup.

Mounting an inconsistent file system may result in a system crash. If you do not specify a file system with the FileSystem parameter, the **fsck** command will check all the file systems with attribute check=TRUE in /etc/filesystems.

**Note:** By default, the /, /usr, /var, and /tmp file systems have the check attribute set to False (check=false) in their /etc/filesystem stanzas. The attribute is set to False for the following reasons:

- 1. The boot process explicitly runs the **fsck** command on the /, /usr, /var, and /tmp file systems.
- 2. The /, /usr, /var, and /tmp file systems are mounted when the /etc/rc file is executed. The **fsck** command will not modify a mounted file system and **fsck** results on mounted file systems are unpredictable.

# 6.5.8 Initializing the JFS log device

The logform command initializes a logical volume for use as a JFS log device, which stores transactional information about file system metadata changes and can be used to roll back incomplete operations if the machine crashes. The general syntax of the logform command is:

logform *LogName* 

#### Note:

- ► The logform command is destructive; it wipes out all data in the logical volume.
- Accidentally running this on a logical volume containing a file system completely destroys the file system's data. The logform command should only be run on CLOSED logical volumes. If a log device is open due to its use by a mounted file system, the file system should be unmounted prior to running logform against the log device. The logform command destroys all log records on existing log devices, which may result in file system data loss. You can check to ensure that the log device is closed by running the following:

1svg -1 VGname

# 6.5.9 How to add additional JFS logs

A file system log is a formatted list of file system transaction records. The log for this system is called the journaled file system (JFS) log and is used when the system goes down before the transactions have been completed. The JFS log ensures file system integrity, but not necessarily data integrity. A dedicated JFS log is created on hd8 for rootvg when the system is installed. The JFS log size is 4 MB. You can also create a JFS log on a separate disk within a volume group, as shown in the following procedure.

In this example, we will be using uservg as the volume group and userly as the logical volume. First, determine the mounted file systems:

# mouni	t mounted	mounted over	vfs	date	options
	/dev/hd4	/	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd2	/usr	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd9var	/var	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd3	/tmp	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd1	/home	jfs	Nov 16 18:46	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/userlv	/u	jfs	Nov 18 11:25	rw,log=/dev/log1v00

Notice that the log for the /userlv logical volume is the logical volume loglv00.

To check the loglv00 LV, enter:

```
# 1slv loglv00
LOGICAL VOLUME: loglv00
                               VOLUME GROUP: userva
LV IDENTIFIER: 00091974342f2afa.2 PERMISSION: read/write
VG STATE: active/complete LV STATE:
                                           opened/syncd
TYPE:
             ifslog
                               WRITE VERIFY: off
                               PP SIZE: 8 megabyte(s)
MAX LPs:
            512
COPIES:
                               SCHED POLICY: parallel
             1
            1
LPs:
                               PPs:
                                       1
STALE PPs:
                               BB POLICY:
                                           relocatable
INTER-POLICY: minimum
                               RELOCATABLE: yes
INTRA-POLICY: middle
                               UPPER BOUND: 32
MOUNT POINT:
             N/A
                               LABEL:
                                           None
MIRROR WRITE CONSISTENCY: on
EACH LP COPY ON A SEPARATE PV ?: yes
```

Check the physical volumes (PVs) to look for a drive with no VG associated:

```
# 1spv
hdisk0
              000919746edab91f
                                 rootvg
hdisk1
              0009197459d92f2e
                                 None
hdisk2
              00091974d381d097
                                 uservg
hdisk3
              00091974d81ff431
                                 uservg
hdisk4
              00091974de731316
                                 None
```

Notice that hdisk1 and hdisk4 have no VGs assigned to them. To extend the uservg volume group to incorporate hdisk4, type:

extendvg -f 'uservg' 'hdisk4'

To create the ifslog on hdisk4, enter:

smitty mklv

In Figure 6-59, select VOLUME GROUP name. In this example, it is uservg.

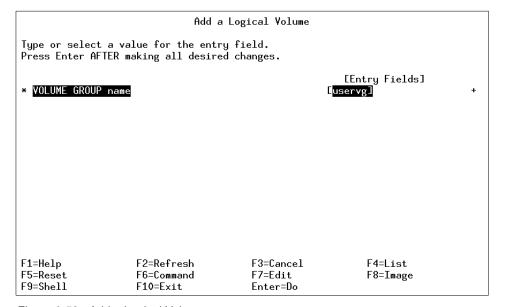


Figure 6-59 Add a Logical Volume screen

From the Add a Logical Volume screen, select the following options:

Logical volume NAME to create userlog

Number of LOGICAL PARTITIONS 1

PHYSICAL VOLUME names hdisk4
Logical volume TYPE jfslog
POSITION on physical volume center

as displayed in Figure 6-60 on page 160.

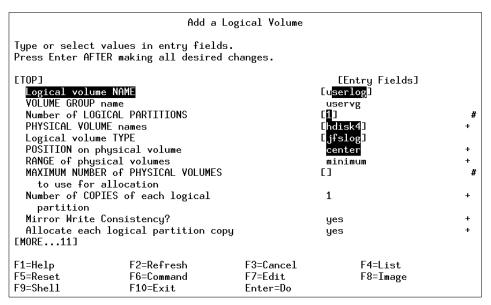


Figure 6-60 Add a Logical Volume characteristics screen

Once completed, the COMMAND STATUS screen will display confirmation, as displayed in Figure 6-61.

	СОМ	MAND STATUS	
Command: OK	stdout: yes	stderr: no	
Before command co	ompletion, additiona	l instructions may a	ppear below.
userlog			
F1=Help F8=Image n=Find Next	F2=Refresh F9=Shell	F3=Cancel F10=Exit	F6=Command /=Find

Figure 6-61 Add a Logical Volume - Command Status screen

Press F10 to exit SMIT to the command line and enter the following:

```
# /usr/sbin/logform /dev/userlog
logform: destroy /dev/userlog (y)?y
```

**Note:** The preceding command formats the JFS log logical volume so that it can record file system transactions. Nothing is destroyed, despite the wording in the prompt.

Modify /etc/filesystems and the logical volume control block (LVCB) as follows:

```
# chfs -a log=/dev/userlog /userlv
```

Unmount, then remount, the /userlv file system, and then verify that it been mounted by typing:

# mount	mounted	mounted over	vfs	date	options
	/dev/hd4	/	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd2	/usr	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd9var	/var	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd3	/tmp	jfs	Nov 16 18:45	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/hd1	/home	jfs	Nov 16 18:46	rw,log=/dev/hd8
	/dev/userlv	/u	jfs	Nov 18 11:25	rw,log=/dev/userlog

Notice that the log is now userlog instead of loglv00.

To verify that you have set up the file system and log correctly, use the following command:

There should be two logical volumes listed, as shown in the preceding example.

# 6.6 Troubleshooting file system problems

This section will discuss some of the problems encountered while managing LVM and how to resolve them.

#### 6.6.1 Recovering from super block errors

If you receive one of the following errors from the **fsck** or **mount** commands, the problem may be a corrupted (or *dirty*) superblock:

```
fsck: Not an AIX3 file system
fsck: Not an AIXV3 file system
fsck: Not an AIXV4 file system
fsck: Not an AIXV4 file system
fsck: Not a recognized file system type
mount: invalid argument
```

The problem can be resolved by restoring the backup of superblock over the primary superblock using one of the following commands:

```
dd count=1 bs=4k skip=31 seek=1 if=/dev/lv00 of=/dev/lv00
```

The following command works only for AIX Version 4.x:

```
fsck -p /dev/1v00
```

Once the restoration process is completed, check the integrity of the file system by issuing the **fsck** command:

```
fsck /dev/1v00
```

In many cases, restoration of the backup of superblock to the primary superblock will recover the file system. If this does not resolve the problem, recreate the file system, and restore the data from a backup.

#### 6.6.2 Cannot unmount file systems

A file system cannot be unmounted if any references are still active within that file system and the following error message will be displayed:

```
Device busy
```

or

A device is already mounted or cannot be unmounted

The following situations can leave an open references to a mounted file system.

► Files are open within a file system. Close these files before the file system can be unmounted. The **fuser** command is often the best way to determine what is still active in this file system. The **fuser** command will return the process IDs for all processes that have open references within a specified file system, as shown in the following example:

```
fuser -xc /tmp (or fuser /dev/hd3)
/tmp: 2910 3466 11654 26400
```

The process having an open reference can be killed by using the **kill** command and the unmount can be accomplished.

- ► If the file system is still busy and not getting unmounted, this could be due to a kernel extension that is loaded, but exists within the source file system. The fuser command will not show these kinds of references, because a user process is not involved. However, the genkex command will report on all loaded kernel extensions.
- ► File systems are still mounted within that file system. Unmount those file systems before this file system can be unmounted. If any file system is mounted within a file system, this leaves open references in the source file system at the mount point of the other file system. Use the mount command to get a list of mounted file systems. Unmount all the file systems that are mounted within the file system to be unmounted.
- ► A user is using a directory within the file system as their current working directory. The **fuser** command appends a c to the process IDs of all processes that are using a directory as their current working directory, and the -u flag identifies the owner of the process. It can be used with the **find** command, as shown in the following example:

```
# find /home -type d -exec fuser -u {} \;
/home:
/home/lost+found:
/home/guest:
/home/kenzie: 3548c(kenzie)
```

Have the identified user change their current working directory to a directory outside the file system, or kill the process, and the **umount** can be accomplished.

#### 6.6.3 When the df command hangs

If the system hangs when you use the **df** command, the process described in this section may assist you.

Run the **df** command to check the file system. Note that the raven:/u2 entry at the bottom is a remote file system that is locally mounted:

# df							
Filesystem	512-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused	Mounted	on
/dev/hd4	40960	19384	53%	1252	13%	/	
/dev/hd2	663552	13288	98%	13170	16%	/usr	
/dev/hd9var	401408	262528	35%	22288	45%	/var	
/dev/hd3	65536	35336	47%	70	1%	/tmp	
/dev/hd1	360448	19704	95%	98	1%	/home	
raven:/u2	16384	0	100%	18	1%	/u2	

If the remote system raven is down and you enter the **df** command, the following will be your response:

# df							
Filesystem	512-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused M	ounted	on
/dev/hd4	40960	19384	53%	1252	13% /		
/dev/hd2	663552	13288	98%	13170	16% /	usr	
/dev/hd9var	401408	262528	35%	22288	45% /	var	
/dev/hd3	65536	35336	47%	70	1% /	tmp	
/dev/hd1	360448	19704	95%	98	1% /	home	
NFS server raven not responding still trying							

Break out of the error by pressing Ctrl-C.

Correct the problem with the remote system and once communication has been reestablished, you can run the **df** command to completion.

Some tips to check the remote system are:

► To check if the remote system is reachable through the network, enter:

```
# ping raven
PING raven: (9.3.1.215): 56 data bytes
64 bytes from 9.3.1.215: icmp_seq=0 ttl=255 time=9 ms
64 bytes from 9.3.1.215: icmp_seq=1 ttl=255 time=1 ms
^C
----raven PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 2 packets received, 0% packet loss
round-trip min/avg/max = 1/5/9 ms
```

This shows that there is no problem with the network connection to the remote machine. If **ping** failed, it could be a break in the network or a problem with the network adapters in either machine. Choose another address on the same network segment to test.

▶ Stop and restart the NFS daemon on the remote system:

```
# stopsrc -s nfsd
0513-044 The stop of the nfsd Subsystem was completed successfully.
# startsrc -s nfsd
0513-059 The nfsd Subsystem has been started. Subsystem PID is 10178.
```

Also verify that NFS services are started in /etc/inittab after TCP/IP is started:

```
rctcpip:23456789:wait:/etc/rc.tcpip > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start TCP/IP
daemons
rcnfs:23456789:wait:/etc/rc.nfs > /dev/console 2>&1 # Start NFS Daemons
```

#### 6.6.4 Deleting an application file that is locked

In this section, you are trying to delete an application file that is locked. When you try to delete the file, you receive an error message telling you that it cannot be deleted because the file is locked.

If you get an error trying to delete the file /userdirectory/myfile, enter:

```
# fuser /userdirectory/myfile
myfile: 104772
```

The number 104772 is the process ID (PID) of the file. To kill the process ID, enter:

```
kill -9 104772
```

Now, to delete the file and free the disk space for use by the file system, enter:

rm myfile

#### 6.6.5 Full file systems

Full file systems can produce a wide variety of problems. While some of these problems are obvious, many others are not. For example, users will not be able to log in using the AIX Common Desktop Environment (CDE) when the /home file system is full. If /home is full, the AIX CDE welcome window will accept the user's name and password, the display will then go blank and appear to hang, then will return to the AIX CDE welcome window. In order to log in and investigate, press the Options button on the AIX CDE welcome window and select Command Line Login, or log in from a non-graphic display.

The amount of free space in file systems should always be checked when investigating problems.

# 6.7 Summary of LVM commands

This section summarizes the key commands that have been used in different sections of this chapter.

#### 6.7.1 PV commands

The following commands are most commonly used with physical volume related tasks:

1sdev Lists devices in the ODM.

**chdev** Changes the characteristics of a device.

**mkdev** Adds a device to the system.

**chpv** Changes the state of the physical volume.

**1 spv** Displays information about a physical volume within a volume group.

migratepy Moves allocated physical partitions from one physical volume to one

or more other physical volumes.

#### 6.7.2 VG commands

The following commands are most commonly used with volume group related tasks:

**mkvg** Creates a new volume group.

**extendvg** Adds a physical volume to a volume group.

**reducevg** Removes a physical volume from a volume group.

**chvg** Changes a volume group.

1svg Displays information about a volume group.

importvg Installs a volume group.exportvg Removes a volume group.

reorgvg Reorganizes a volume group.

**syncvg** Synchronizes a volume group.

**varyonvg** Makes a volume group available for use.

**varyoffvg** Makes a volume group unavailable for use.

#### 6.7.3 LV commands

The following commands are some of the most commonly used logical volume commands:

mklv Creates a logical volume.

**1slv** Lists the characteristics of a logical volume.

rmlv Removes a logical volume.

extendly Increases the size of a logical volume.

**chlv** Changes the characteristic of a logical volume.

mklvcopy Adds copies to a logical volume.

**rml vcopy** Removes copies from a logical volume.

#### 6.7.4 File system commands

The following is the list of file systems commands that have been discussed in this chapter:

**chfs** Changes the characteristics of a file system.

crfs Adds a file system.

**1sfs** Displays the characteristics of a file system.

rmfs Removes a file system.

**mount** Makes a file system available for use.

fsck Checks file system consistency and interactively repairs the file

system.

**umount** Unmounts a previously mounted file system, directory, or file.

**df** Reports information about space on file systems.

**dd** Reads the *InFile* parameter or standard input, does the specified

conversions, then copies the converted data to the *OutFile* parameter or standard output; the input and output block size can be specified

to take advantage of raw physical I/O.

### 6.8 Quiz

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

- 1. A customer has purchased a new drive and has configured it on the system as hdisk5. What is the correct sequence of commands to make the new drive usable by the system for the enhanced JFS file system storage?
  - A. mklv, mkvg, crfs
  - B. mkvg, mklv, crfs
  - $C. \quad \textbf{crfs}, \, \textbf{mklv}, \, \textbf{mkvg}$
  - D. mkvg, crfs, mklv

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. Company XYZ has a stand-alone RS/6000 system they use to maintain an expanding customer database. The database is currently stored in the logical volume dblv in rootvg on hdisk4. Because of future growth, the customer decided to move the database to a new drive in a separate volume group. This new drive is hdisk5 in volume group datavg. Which of the following commands can be used to move the database logical volume, dblv, to the new volume group?
  - A. mklv -1 dblv
  - B. cplv -v datavg dblv
  - C. migrately dblv hdisk5
  - D. migratepv -1 dblv hdisk4 hdisk5
- 2. While attempting to write a 200 MB file to the /user/data file system with 1 GB free space, the system responds with the message that it is out of space. Which of the following could be causing this?

df output

Filesystem	1024-blocks	Free	%Used	Iused	%Iused	Mounted on	
/dev/hd4	40960	3744	91%	2416	12%	/	
/dev/hd2	1003520	35280	97%	37596	13%	/usr	
/dev/hd9var	36864	24540	34%	1236	14%	/var	
/dev/hd3	167936	8108	96%	844	2%	/tmp	
/dev/hd1	40960	20232	51%	1364	14%	/home	
/dev/datalv	1224704	1023952	16%	6309	7%	/user/data	
/dev/datalv2	16384	5884	65%	1018	25%	/data2	
/dev/userlv2	12288	11608	6%	49	2%	/user2	
/dev/userlv	12288	5002	59%	643	7%	/user	
/dev/foolv	12288	121	99%	49	2%	/foo	

- A. The /user/data file system is mounted read only.
- B. The permissions on the /user file system is wrong.
- C. The permissions on the /user/data file system is wrong.
- D. /user is preventing you from reaching the /user/data file system.

- 3. The order-processing department of a company has complained of slow response times from their application. The system administrator has determined this is due to a disk I/O bottleneck on the physical volume where the application data file system is located. Which of the following could be used to help improve the application response times?
  - A. Stripe the file system logical volume across multiple disks.
  - B. Move the jfslog to the same physical volume as the file system.
  - C. Increase the size of the application data file system.
  - D. Move the physical volume into a separate volume group.
- 4. Customer XYZ discovered that one of their hard drives, hdisk3, was bad. The drive contains volume group data3vg, which was used by an application many years ago. Since they do not need to keep this information, they decided to simply remove the drive. After rebooting, the physical volume for hdisk3 is still listed in the volume group descriptor area (VGDA). Which of the following commands can be used to delete the physical volume from data3vg?
  - A. reducevg
  - B. synclvodm
  - C. reducel vodm
  - D. syncvg

#### 6.8.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

1. B

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. D
- 3. A
- 4. A

#### 6.9 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. List all the physical volumes, volume groups, logical volumes, physical partitions, and file systems on your system.
- 2. Determine which disks the rootvg volume group resides on.
- 3. Add a new physical volume to your system and check to make sure the drive is available.
- 4. Create a volume group named datavg on this new physical volume.
- 5. Create a file system named data files.
- 6. Unmount the data files file system.
- 7. Create a mirror of datavg.
- 8. Determine whether you have a disk quorum.
- 9. Increase the size of the file system data files.
- 10. Reduce the file system data files.
- 11. List the disks that a file system, data files, and a volume group, datavg, reside on.
- 12. Remove the mirror of datavg and check to make sure the device is not mirrored.
- Remove the datavg volume group.
- 14. Create multiple jfslogs on several PVs.
- 15. How do you erase a file that is being locked by an application?
- 16. Run extendvg to extend a volume group. What needs to be run first?
- 17. Stripe data to spread I/O.



# **SMIT** fast path commands

The System Management Interface Tool (SMIT) provides an alternative, natural-language, task-oriented interface for AIX system management. The SMIT facility runs in two interfaces, ASCII (nongraphical) or AIXwindows (graphical). After you enter SMIT using the smit command, the first screen displayed is the main menu, which is shown in Figure 7-1 on page 172. The main menu selections lead to submenus, helping to narrow the scope of choice to a particular task. Alternatively, you can use the smit command with a  $fast\ path$  parameter, which can save you time by allowing you to go directly to the menu or dialog for your task, bypassing the upper-level menus. For example, to change the characteristics of a user, enter the following command:

smit chuser

The **chuser** command is an example of a fast path parameter. The **smit** command plus the fast path parameter, chuser, takes you directly to the menu, Change User Attributes, which guides you through the steps to change a user's characteristics.

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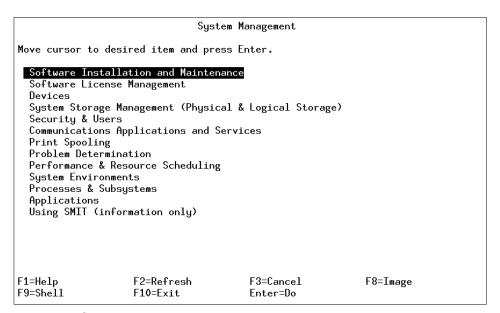


Figure 7-1 System Management menu

At any menu in SMIT (as shown in Figure 7-1), you can show the fast path to that menu by pressing F8 or by choosing Fast Path from the Show menu.

### 7.1 Summary of SMIT fast path commands

The following list provides a quick reference to many SMIT fast paths. In this list, a SMIT menu name is followed by its associated fast path in parentheses. Enter the command smit and the fast path shown to go directly to its associated menu.

- ► Software Installation and Maintenance (install)
  - Install and Update Software (install\_update)
    - Install and Update from LATEST Available Software (install\_latest)
    - Update Installed Software to Latest Level (Update All) (install\_all)
    - Install and Update Software by Package Name (includes devices and printers) (install\_package)
    - Install Software Bundle (Easy Install) (install\_bundle)
    - Update Software by Fix (APAR) (update\_by\_fix)
    - Install and Update from ALL Available Software (install\_all)
  - List Software and Related Information (list software)
  - Software Maintenance and Utilities (maintain software)
    - Commit Applied Software Updates (Remove Saved Files) (commit)
    - Reject Applied Software Updates (Use Previous Version) (reject)
    - Remove Installed Software (remove)
    - Copy Software to Hard Disk for Future Installation (bffcreate)
    - Check Software File Sizes After Installation (check\_files)
    - Verify Software Installation and Requisites (verify\_install)
  - Network Installation Management (nim\_client)
  - System Backup Manager (backsys)
    - Back Up the System (mksysb)
    - List Files in a System Image (Ismksysb)
    - Restore Files in a System Image (restmksysb)
- Software License Management (licences)
  - Manage Nodelocked Licenses (manage nodelocked)
  - Manage License Servers and License Databases (manage\_servers)
  - Show License Usage on Servers (show\_server\_status)
- Devices (dev)
  - Install/Configure Devices Added After IPL (cfgmgr)

- Printer/Plotter (printer)
  - Printer/Plotter Devices (pdp)

Add a Printer/Plotter (makprt)

Move a Printer/Plotter to Another Port (movprt)

Change / Show Characteristics of a Printer/Plotter (chgprt)

Remove a Printer/Plotter (rmvprt)

Install Additional Printer/Plotter Software (printerinst)

- Print Spooling (spooler)
- TTY (tty)
- PTY (pty)
- Console (console)
- Fixed Disk (disk)
- CD ROM Drive (cdrom)
- Read/Write Optical Drive (rwopt)
- Diskette Drive (diskette)
- Tape Drive (tape)
- Communication (commodev)
- Graphic Displays (g\_display)
- Graphic Input Devices (input)
- Low Function Terminal (LFT) (Ift)
- SCSI Initiator Device (scsiid)
- SCSI Adapter (scsia)
- Asynchronous I/O (aio)
- Multimedia (mm)
- List Devices (Isattr)
- Install Additional Device Software (devinst)
- System Storage Management (Physical & Logical Storage) (storage)
  - Logical Volume Manager (lvm)
    - Volume Groups (vg)
    - Logical Volumes (Iv)
    - Physical Volumes (pv)
    - Paging Space (pgsp)

Add Another Paging Space (mkps)

Change / Show Characteristics of a Paging Space (chps)

Remove a Paging Space (rmps)

Activate a Paging Space (swapon)

Deactivate a Paging Space (swapoff)

- File Systems (fs)
  - Add / Change / Show / Delete File Systems (manfs)
  - Mount a File System (mountfs)
  - Mount a Group of File Systems (mountg)
  - Unmount a File System (umountfs)
  - Unmount a Group of File Systems (umountg)
  - Verify a File System (fsck)
  - Backup a File System (backfilesys)
  - Restore a File System (restfilesys)
  - List Contents of a Backup (listtoc)
- Files & Directories (filemgr)
  - Backup a File or Directory (backfile)
  - Restore a File or Directory (restfile)
- System Backup Manager (backsys)
- Security & Users (security)
  - Users (users)
    - Add a User (mkuser)
    - Change a User's Password (passwd)
    - Change / Show Characteristics of a User (chuser)
    - Lock / Unlock a User's Account (lockuser)
    - Reset User's Failed Login Count (failed\_login)
    - Remove a User (rmuser)
  - Groups (groups)
  - Passwords (passwords)
  - Login Controls (login)
  - Roles (roles)
- ► Communications Applications and Services (commo)

- TCP/IP (tcpip)
  - Minimum Configuration & Startup (mktcpip)
  - Further Configuration (configtcp)
  - Use DHCP for TCPIP Configuration & Startup (usedhcp)
  - IPV6 Configuration (configtcp6)
- NFS (nfs\_menu) (nfs)
- CIFS/SMB (smb)
- ► Print Spooling (spooler)
  - Start a Print Job (qprt)
  - Manage Print Jobs (jobs)
  - Manage Print Queues (pqmanage)
  - Add a Print Queue (mkpq)
  - Add an Additional Printer to an Existing Print Queue (mkpqprt)
  - Change / Show Print Queue Characteristics (chpq)
  - Change / Show Printer Connection Characteristics (chprtcom)
  - Remove a Print Queue (rmpg)
  - Manage Print Server (server)
  - Programming Tools (pqtools)
- Problem Determination (problem)
  - Error Log (error)
    - Generate Error Report (errpt)
    - Change / Show Characteristics of the Error Log (errdemon)
    - Clean the Error Log (errclear)
  - Trace (trace)
  - System Dump (dump
    - Change the Primary Dump Device (dumpchgp)
    - Change the Secondary Dump Device (dumpchgs)
  - Alog (alog)
  - Hardware Diagnostics (diag)
  - Verify Software Installation and Requisites (verify\_install)
- Performance & Resource Scheduling (performance)
  - Resource Status & Monitors (monitors)

- Analysis Tools (analysis)
- Resource Controls (controls)
- Schedule Jobs (at)
- Power Management (pm)
- Workload Management (wlm)
  - Work on alternate configurations (wlmconfig)
  - Work on a set of Subclasses (wlmsubclass)
  - Change / Show Characteristics of a class (wlmchclass)
  - Remove a class (wlmrmclass)
  - Class assignment rules (wlmrs)
  - Start/Stop/Update WLM (wlmmanage)
  - Assign/Unassign processes to a class/subclass (wlmassign)
- Resource Set Management (rset)
- System Environments (system)
  - Stop the System (shutdown)
  - Assign the Console (chcons)
  - Change / Show Date and Time (chtz\_date)
  - Manage Language Environment (mlang)
  - Change / Show Characteristics of Operating System (chgsys)
  - Change / Show Number of Licensed Users (chlicense)
  - Broadcast Message to all Users (wall)
  - Manage System Logs (logs)
  - Change / Show Characteristics of System Dump (dump)
  - Change System User Interface (dtconfig)
  - Internet and Documentation Services (web\_configure)
  - Change/Show Default Documentation Language (chdoclang)
  - Manage Remote Reboot Facility (rrbtty)
  - Manage System Hang Detection (shd)
- Processes & Subsystems (src)
  - Processes (process)
  - Subsystems (subsys)
  - Subservers (subserver)

#### **7.2 Quiz**

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. Company ABC recently ordered an HP Laserjet 5 printer. The system administrator needs to install the printer drivers for the printer. What SMIT installation screen fastpath can be used to perform the installation?
  - A. smit makprt
  - B. smit printerinst
  - C. smit install commit
  - D. smit maintain\_software
- 2. The system administrator wants to add a new printer queue for an EPSON dot matrix printer. What SMIT fast path command shall he use to perform the function?
  - A. smit qprt
  - B. smit mkpq
  - C. smit chpq
  - D. smit mkpqrt

#### 7.2.1 Answers

The following answers are for the additional guiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. B

#### 7.3 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Perform the following functions using the SMIT fast path commands.
  - Update software by fix (APAR).
  - Verify the software installation and requisites.
  - Add a plotter.
  - Activate a paging space.
  - Add a paging space.

- Change a user's password.
- Add a print queue.
- Show characteristics of error log.



# **Problem determination**

This chapter provides information to assist you in solving problems with the operating system, hardware, or other programs installed on the system by using the following tools:

- ► Boot logging facility
- ► Error logging facility
- ► System dump facility

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## 8.1 Boot logging facility

There may be instances when you must trace the boot process and find out if something went wrong with the system during the boot process. AIX provides you with an excellent tool to monitor these problems through the help of the alog command.

The rc.boot script explicitly redirects boot information through the **alog** command to the file /var/adm/ras/bootlog. If something goes wrong with the system, you can boot the system in single-user mode (maintenance mode) and access these logs through the **alog** command to see at what stage the system is failing. A part of the rc.boot script is shown below to illustrate how the logging mechanism has been incorporated.

# Error Recovery if customized data is zero [ -f /no sbase ] && { echo "rc.boot: executing savebase recovery procedures" \ >>/tmp/boot log X=`ODMDIR=/mnt/etc/objrepos odmshow CuDv \ fgrep population` count=`echo \$X | cut -f2 -d' '` [ \$count -ne 0 ] && { /usr/sbin/savebase -o /mnt/etc/objrepos [ \$? -ne 0 ] && loopled 0x546 mount /var# so that reboot can log echo "savebase recovery reboot" \ >>/tmp/boot log cat /tmp/boot\_log | alog -q -t boot reboot }

The alog command works with log files that are specified on the command line or with logs that are defined in the alog configuration database.

The most common flags used with the alog command and their description are given in Table 8-1.

Table 8-1 Command flags for alog

Flag	Description
-f LogFile	Specifies the name of a log file. If the specified LogFile does not exist, one is created. If the alog command is unable to write to LogFile, it writes to /dev/null.

Flag	Description
-L	Lists the log types currently defined in the alog configuration database. If you use the -L flag with the -t LogType flag, the attributes for a specified LogType are listed.
-0	Lists the contents of LogFile. Writes the contents of LogFile to standard output in sequential order.
-q	Copies standard input to LogFile but does not write to standard output.
-t LogType	Identifies a log defined in the alog configuration database. The alog command gets the log's file name and size from the alog configuration database.

These logs can be maintained by using either SMIT or by using the alog command directly. The general use of the alog command is as follows:

► To show the contents of a log file

In order to list the contents of a log file, use the command:

► To log data to a specified log file

You can change the default file that is used to log the activities by using the following command:

► To display the verbosity value of a specified log type

The verbosity value specifies the depth of information that is written to a log. In order to display the verbosity value of a log, use the following command:

► To change the attributes of a specified log type

You can use the different attributes of a log type by using the following command:

► To display the current attributes of a specified log type

Before you can change the attributes of a log, it is recommended that you view what the current attributes are. Use the following command to display the current attributes of a log type:

```
alog -L [ -t LogType ]
```

In order to view the boot log, you can either use SMIT or use the alog command directly. Follow the sequence in "Viewing the boot log" on page 184 to view the contents of the boot log.

#### Viewing the boot log

You can view the boot log by either using the SMIT fastpath **smitty alog\_show** and giving the name of the log you want to view, or you can use the command. In order to view a log using the **alog** command, determine what predefined logs are available to you.

Use the alog -L command to view the logs defined in the alog database. On the command line, enter:

```
# alog -L
boot
bosinst
nim
dumpsymp
```

In order to view the boot log (the log that holds boot information), enter:

```
# alog -o -t boot
-----
attempting to configure device 'fda0'
invoking /usr/lib/methods/cfgfda isa -2 -1 fda0
return code = 0
****** stdout ******
0bf
******* no stderr *******
invoking top level program -- "/etc/methods/starttty"
return code = 0
******* no stdout *******
******* no stderr ******
invoking top level program -- "/etc/methods/startsmt"
return code = 0
******* no stdout *******
******* no stderr *******
______
invoking top level program -- "/etc/methods/load blockset ext"
return code = 0
******* no stdout *******
************ no stderr *******
invoking top level program -- "/usr/lib/methods/defaio"
return code = 0
******* no stdout *******
******* no stderr *******
```

calling savebase return code = 0 \*\*\*\*\*\*\* no stdout \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\*\*\*\*\*\* no stderr \*\*\*\*\*\*\* Starting AIX Windows Desktop.... Saving Base Customize Data to boot disk Starting the sync daemon Starting the error daemon System initialization completed. Starting Multi-user Initialization Performing auto-varyon of Volume Groups Activating all paging spaces swapon: Paging device /dev/hd6 activated. /dev/rhd1 (/home): \*\* Unmounted cleanly - Check suppressed Performing all automatic mounts Multi-user initialization completed

Any errors that are encountered will be logged into this file. However, the alog file has no concurrency control; therefore, if multiple processes try to write to the same file at the same time, the contents of the log file might not be as anticipated. Additionally, it is a cyclic file, so when its size gets to the maximum, it is overwritten.

# 8.2 Error logging facility

The error logging facility records hardware and software failures in the error log for informational purposes or for fault detection and corrective action. The error logging subsystem is composed of three components, whose processing flow is shown in Figure 8-1 on page 186. The type of tasks are defined as follows:

- ► Error log programming
  - Used by developers to create error templates and create messages.
- ► Error processing
  - Invoked when an error occurs.
- Error log file processing
  - Used by administrators to diagnose a problem.

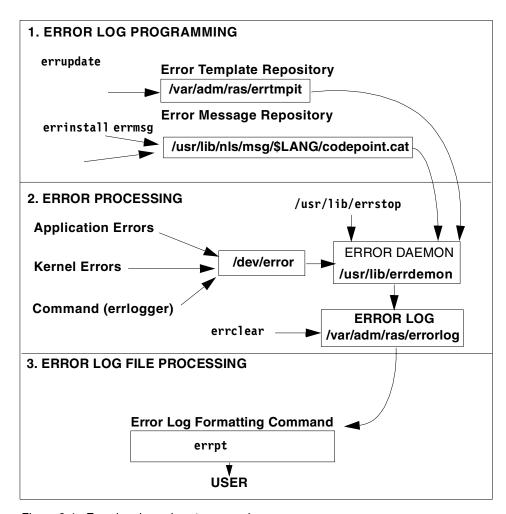


Figure 8-1 Error logging subsystem overview

#### 8.2.1 Software service aids package

AIX 5L Version 5.1 base system (bos.rte.serv\_aid) consists of errlog subroutines, errsave, and errlast kernel service, error device driver (/dev/error), error daemon, and the errinstall, errupdate, and errstop commands.

An optionally installable software service aids package (bos.sysmgt.serv\_aid), which consists of the errclear, errdead, errlogger, errmsg, errpt, and sysdumpstart commands, is required to generate reports from an error log using the errpt command and to delete entries from the error log using the errclear command.

#### 8.2.2 Managing the error log

The following sections discuss various error log management related functions.

#### Configuring an error log file (/var/adm/ras/errlog)

This section discusses the use of **errdemon** command to customize the error log file.

► To list the current values for the error log file name, error log file size, and buffer size that are currently stored in the error log configuration database settings, use the following command.:

```
# /usr/lib/errdemon -l
Error Log Attributes
------
Log File /var/adm/ras/errlog
Log Size 4096 bytes
Memory Buffer Size 8192 bytes
```

The preceding example shows the default error log file attributes. The log file size cannot be made smaller than the hard-coded default of 4 KB and the buffer cannot be made smaller than the hard-coded default of 8 KB.

To change the log file name to /var/adm/ras/errlog.test, use the following command:

```
/usr/lib/errdemon -i /var/adm/ras/errlog.test
```

▶ To change the log file size to 8 KB, use the following command:

```
/usr/lib/errdemon -s 8192
```

If the log file size specified is smaller than the size of the log file currently in use, the current log file is renamed by appending .old to the file name and a new log file is created with the specified size limit. The amount of space specified is reserved for the error log file and is not available for use by other files. Therefore, you should be careful not to make the log excessively large. But, if you make the log too small, important information may be overwritten prematurely. When the log file size limit is reached, the file wraps. That is, the oldest entries are overwritten by new entries.

► To change the size of the error log device driver's internal buffer to 16 KB, use the following command:

```
# /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.
```

If the specified buffer size is larger than the buffer size currently in use, the in-memory buffer is immediately increased and if the specified buffer size is smaller than the buffer size currently in use, the new size is put into effect the next time the error daemon is started after the system is rebooted. The size you specify is rounded up to the next integral multiple of the memory page size (4 KB).

You should be careful not to impact your system's performance by making the buffer excessively large. But, if you make the buffer too small, the buffer may become full if error entries are arriving faster than they are being read from the buffer and put into the log file. When the buffer is full, new entries are discarded until space becomes available in the buffer. When this situation occurs, an error log entry is created to inform you of the problem.

The following command shows the new attributes of error log file:

#### Starting the error logging daemon

To determine if error logging daemon is on or off, issue the **errpt** command. The **errpt** command output may contain entries, as shown in Figure 8-2.

```
# errpt
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION
9DBCFDEE 1108182898 T O errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
192ACO71 1108182898 T O errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED OFF
AA8AB241 1108182798 T O OPERATOR OPERATOR NOTIFICATION
# |
```

Figure 8-2 Sample errpt command output

If the **errpt** command does not generate entries, error logging has been turned off. To activate the daemon, use the following command:

```
/usr/lib/errdemon
```

The errdemon daemon starts error logging and writes error log entries in the system error log.

#### Stopping the error logging daemon

To stop the error logging daemon from logging entries, use the following command:

```
/usr/lib/errstop
```

#### Cleaning an error log

Cleaning of the error log implies deleting old or unnecessary entries from the error log. Cleaning is normally done as part of the daily **cron** command execution (see Chapter 14, "The cron daemon and crontab" on page 357 for more information on cron). 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 errors entries, use the following command:

errclear -d S 0

Alternatively, use the SMIT fast path command (smit errclear), which will display the screen shown in Figure 8-3. Fill in the appropriate fields, as per your requirements, to clean the error log.

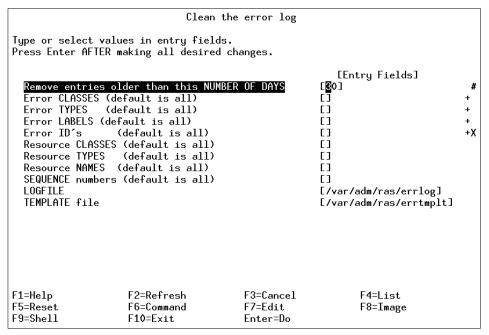


Figure 8-3 Clean the error log menu

#### Generating an error report

The **errpt** command generates the default summary error report that contains one line of data for each error. It includes 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. By using the - c (concurrent) flag, you can display errors as they occur. You can use flags to generate reports with different formats. The following is the syntax of the **errpt** command.

```
errpt [ -a ] [ -c ] [ -d ErrorClassList ] [ -e EndDate ] [ -g ] [ -i File ]
[ -j ErrorID [ ,ErrorID ] ] | [ -k ErrorID [ ,ErrorID ] ] [ -J ErrorLabel
[ ,ErrorLabel ] ] | [ -K ErrorLabel [ ,ErrorLabel ] ] [ -1 SequenceNumber ]
[ -m Machine ] [ -n Node ] [ -s StartDate ] [ -F FlagList ]
[ -N ResourceNameList ] [ -R ResourceTypeList ] [ -S ResourceClassList ]
[ -T ErrorTypeList ] [ -y File ] [ -z File ]
```

The flags commonly used with the **errpt** command are found in Table 8-2.

Table 8-2 Common flags for errpt

Flag	Description
-a	Displays information about errors in the error log file in detailed format.
-e EndDate	Specifies all records posted prior to and including the EndDate variable, where the EndDate variable has the form mmddhhmmyy (month, day, hour, minute, and year).
-J ErrorLabel	Includes the error log entries specified by the ErrorLabel variable. The ErrorLabel variable values can be separated by commas or enclosed in double-quotation marks and separated by commas or space characters.
-j ErrorlD [,ErrorlD]	Includes only the error-log entries specified by the ErrorID (error identifier) variable. The ErrorID variables can be separated by commas or enclosed in double-quotation marks and separated by commas or space characters
-K ErrorLabel	Excludes the error log entries specified by the ErrorLabel variable.
-k <i>ErrorID</i>	Excludes the error log entries specified by the ErrorID variable.
-N ResourceNameList	Generates a report of resource names specified by the ResourceNameList variable, where ResourceNameList is a list of names of resources that have detected errors.

Flag	Description
-s StartDate	Specifies all records posted on and after the StartDate variable, where the StartDate variable has the form mmddhhmmyy (month, day, hour, minute, and year).

The output of **errpt** command without any flag will display the error log entries with the following fields:

IDENTIFIER	Numerica	al identifier for the event.		
TIMESTAMP	Date and	Date and time of the event occurrence.		
Т	Type of error. Depending upon the severity of the error, the following are the possible error types:			
	PEND	The loss of availability of device or component is imminent.		
	PERF	The performance of the device or component has degraded to below an acceptable level.		
	PERM	Most severe errors, due to a condition that could not be recovered.		
	TEMP	Condition that was recovered after a number of unsuccessful attempts.		
	UNKN	Not possible to determine the severity of an error.		
	INFO	This is an informational entry.		
С	Class of	error. The following are the possible error classes:		
	Н	Hardware.		
	S	Software.		
	0	Informational message.		
	U	Undetermined.		

**RESOURCE\_NAME** Name of the failing resource.

**DESCRIPTION** Summary of the error.

Using the errpt command without a flag will output all the entries in the log, as shown in the following example. Since the number of error log entries may exceed a single page, you can use errpt | pg to have a page-wise view.

```
# errpt
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION
0BA49C99 1106154298 T H scsi0 SCSI BUS ERROR
E18E984F 1106110298 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
```

```
2A9F5252
                         1106094298 P H tok0
                                                                                               WIRE FAULT
 E18E984F
                         1102120498 P S SRC
                                                                                              SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
                                                                                       SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
SYSTEM DUMP
SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
 E18E984F 1101105898 P S SRC
 AD331440
                         1101104498 U S SYSDUMP
E18E984F 1030182798 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1030182598 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1023175198 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1023175098 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1023175098 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1023174898 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR E18E984F 1023174898 P S SRC SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR 2A9F5252 1022143498 P H tok0 WIRE FAULT 35BFC499 1022081198 P H hdisk0 DISK OPERATION ERROR AD331440 1021185998 U S SYSDUMP SYSTEM DUMP 0BA49C99 1021185798 T H scsi0 SCSI BUS ERROR
 E18E984F
                         1030182798 P S SRC
                                                                                              SOFTWARE PROGRAM ERROR
 35BFC499 1021180298 P H hdisk0
                                                                                              DISK OPERATION ERROR
```

The preceding example shows that the resource name for a disk operation error is hdisk0. To obtain all the errors with resource name hdisk0 from the error log, use the **errpt** command with -N flag, as shown in the following example:

```
# errpt -N hdisk0

IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION

35BFC499 1022081198 P H hdisk0 DISK OPERATION ERROR

35BFC499 1021180298 P H hdisk0 DISK OPERATION ERROR
```

#### Reading an error log report

To read the contents of an error log report, use the **errpt** command with the -a flag. For example, to read an error log report with resource name hdisk0, use the **errpt** command with the -a and -j flags with an error identifier, as shown in the following sample error report:

```
# errpt -a -j 35BFC499
LABEL: DISK_ERR3
IDENTIFIER: 35BFC499
Date/Time:
             Thu Oct 22 08:11:12
Sequence Number: 36
Machine Id: 006151474C00
Node Id:
             sv1051c
Class:
               PERM
Type:
Resource Name: hdisk0
Resource Class: disk
Resource Type: scsd
Location:
               04-B0-00-6,0
VPD:
       Manufacturer.....IBM
       Machine Type and Model.....DORS-32160
                                            !#
```

Description
DISK OPERATION ERROR

Probable Causes
DASD DEVICE
STORAGE DEVICE CABLE

Failure Causes
DISK DRIVE
DISK DRIVE ELECTRONICS
STORAGE DEVICE CABLE

Recommended Actions
PERFORM PROBLEM DETERMINATION PROCEDURES

In this example, the **errpt** output indicates that the error was hardware in nature and a PERM type, or severe error from which the system could not recover. This error was a disk operation error on hdisk0, and may be due to a failing disk drive or a bad device cable. Given that the error had appeared twice in the errpt, it may be necessary to have a customer engineer service the machine by checking cables and hardware, replacing any parts that have worn out.

#### Copying an error log to diskette or tape

You may need to send the error log to AIX System Support Center for analysis. To copy the error log to a diskette, place a formatted diskette into the diskette drive and use the following commands:

```
ls /var/adm/ras/errlog | backup -ivp
```

To copy the error log to tape, place a tape in the drive and enter:

```
ls /var/adm/ras/errlog | backup -ivpf/dev/rmt0
```

#### Log maintenance activities

The **err1ogger** command allows the system administrator to record messages in the error log. Whenever you perform a maintenance activity, replace hardware, or apply a software fix, it is a good idea to record this activity in the system error log.

The following example shows the log entries before and after a message (Error Log cleaned) was logged by an operator (using the errlogger command) in the error log:

```
# errpt
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION
9DBCFDEE 1109164598 T 0 errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
192ACO71 1109164598 T 0 errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED OFF
# errlogger "Error Log cleaned"
# errpt
IDENTIFIER TIMESTAMP T C RESOURCE_NAME DESCRIPTION
AA8AB241 1109164698 T 0 OPERATOR OPERATOR NOTIFICATION
9DBCFDEE 1109164598 T 0 errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED ON
192ACO71 1109164598 T 0 errdemon ERROR LOGGING TURNED OFF
```

The identifier AA8AB241 in the preceding example is the message record entry with a description of OPEARATOR NOTIFICATION.

# 8.3 System dump facility

The system dump copies selected kernel structures to the dump device when an unexpected system halt occurs. The dump device can be configured dynamically to either a tape or a logical volume on the hard disk to store the system dump. A primary dump device is a dedicated dump device, while a secondary dump device is shared.

While installing an operating system, the dump device is automatically configured. By default, AIX 5L Version 5.1 configures /dev/hd6 (paging logical volume) as the primary dump device and /dev/sysdumpnull as the secondary dump device. If the system was migrated from AIX Version 3, /dev/hd7 (the default dump device for AIX Version 3) will continue to be the default dump device for AIX 5L Version 5.1.

The dump can either be system initiated or user initiated, as shown in Figure 8-4. When the system dump completes, the system either halts or reboots, depending upon the setting of the autorestart attribute of sys0, which can be shown and altered using SMIT by selecting System Environments, and then Change / Show Characteristics of Operating System. The Automatically REBOOT system after a crash option shows and sets the value of sys0 attribute.

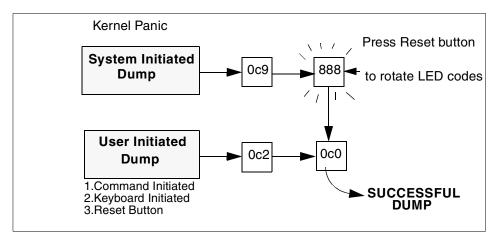


Figure 8-4 Successful system dumps - LED codes

#### 8.3.1 Managing a dump device

The **sysdumpdev** command is used to dynamically configure the dump device, as shown in the following examples.

► To list the current dump destination, use the following command:

► The following example shows the command to change the primary dump device from the default, /dev/hd6, to /dev/hd9:

```
# sysdumpdev -P -p /dev/hd9
primary /dev/hd9
secondary /dev/sysdumpnull
copy directory /var/adm/ras
forced copy flag
always allow dump FALSE
```

► To estimate the dump size of the current system, run the following command:

```
# sysdumpdev -e
0453-041 Estimated dump size in bytes: 18227200
```

► The following example shows the command to display statistical information about the previous dump, and in this example, there is no dump record:

```
# sysdumpdev -L
0453-019 No previous dumps recorded.
```

► The following example shows running the sysdumpdev -L command after a successful dump has occurred on the system:

Alternatively, all the commands used in the preceding examples of this section can be executed using the SMIT fast path smit dump, which will display the menu shown in Figure 8-5 on page 197. Select the appropriate option from the menu to do the desired function.

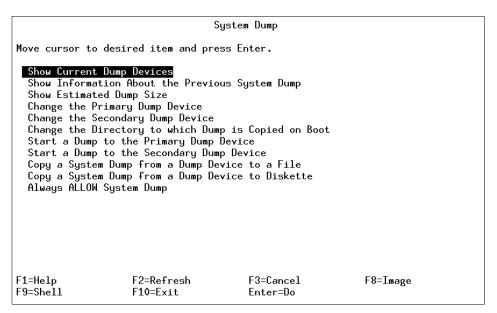


Figure 8-5 System Dump menu

#### 8.3.2 System initiated dump

A system dump initiated by a kernel panic is written to the primary dump device.

#### **Understanding flashing 888 error messages**

A flashing 888 in a three digit hardware display indicates that a message is encoded as a string of three digit display values which can be read by pressing the reset button repeatedly and noting the changed three digit value every time until a flashing 888 is displayed again. Some RS/6000 systems use an advance button to perform this task.

An initial value of 102 after flashing 888 indicates an unexpected system halt, as shown in Figure 8-6 on page 198. The value of mmm indicates the cause of halt and crash code (see Table 8-3 on page 198), and the value of ddd indicates the dump status and dump code (see Table 8-4 on page 199).

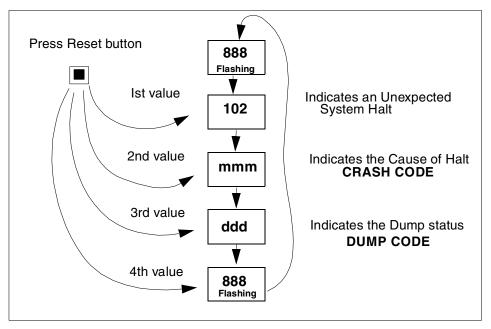


Figure 8-6 Unexpected system halt - Three-digit display string

Table 8-3 lists various crash codes. The 2xx type codes describe a machine check that is reporting hardware failure.

Table 8-3 Crash codes

Code	Description
000	Unexpected system interrupt.
200	Machine check due to memory bus error (RAS/CAS parity).
201	Machine check due to memory time out.
202	Machine check due to memory card failure.
203	Machine check due to address exception: address out of range.
204	Machine check due to attempted store into R.
205	Machine check due to uncorrectable error correction code, due to address parity.
206	Machine check due to uncorrectable error correction code.
207	Machine check due to undefined error.
208	Machine check due to an L2 uncorrectable ECC.

Code	Description
300	Data storage interrupt: processor type.
32x	Data storage interrupt: The number represented by $\boldsymbol{x}$ is the bus unit identification.
38x	Data storage interrupt: The number represented by $\boldsymbol{x}$ is the bus unit identification.
400	Instruction storage interrupt.
500	External interrupt.
52x	External interrupt.
53x	External interrupt because of IOCC bus timeout.
54x	External interrupt because of IOCC keyboard check.
700	Program interrupt.
800	Floating point unavailable.

Table 8-4 lists various system dump codes.

Table 8-4 System dump codes

Code	Description
0c0	Dump completed successfully.
0c2	Dump started.
0c3	The dump is inhibited.
0c4	Dump completed unsuccessfully. Not enough space available on dump device. Partial dump available.
0c5	Dump failed to start. Unexpected error occurred when attempting to write to dump device.
0c7	Network dump in progress.
0c8	Dump disabled. System configuration does not include a dump device.
0c9	System initiated dump started.

#### 8.3.3 User initiated dump

There are three ways for a user to invoke a system dump, depending upon the system condition, as shown in Figure 8-7 on page 201. The following sections discuss the steps involved in initiating a system dump, verifying the dump, copying the dump onto a tape, and sending it to a Service Support Center for analysis.

#### Check the estimated dump size

The following command shows the estimated size of dump will be 20971520 bytes:

```
# sysdumpdev -e
0453-041 Estimated dump size in bytes: 20971520
```

#### Check the size of primary dump device

The primary dump device, in this case, is the paging logical volume (/dev/hd6). To display its size, use the <code>lsps -a</code> command, as shown in the following example. If the reported free space is less than estimated dump size (reported in the preceding section), you should increase the dump device size. The following example shows the 128 MB of primary dump device with 6 percent used:

```
# lsps -a
Page Space Physical Volume Volume Group Size %Used Active Auto Type
hd6 hdisk0 rootvg 128MB 6 yes yes lv
```

#### Starting a dump

If you initiate the system dump from the command line, use the **sysdumpstart** command with a -p flag to write to the primary device or a -s flag to write to the secondary device.

If the dump is initiated using the special key sequences, use the sequence Ctrl-Alt-NumPad1 to write to the primary dump device and use the sequence Ctrl-Alt-NumPad2 to write to the secondary dump device. If you initiate a system dump by pressing the reset button, the system dump is written to the primary dump device.

**Note:** By default, the system will not begin a dump by pressing the special key sequences or pressing the reset button unless the keymode switch is in the service position. To enable dumps via the use of the special key sequences or pressing the reset button while the keymode switch is in the normal position, run the command:

# sysdumpdev -K

On a system without a keymode switch, a dump cannot be forced with the reset button unless this value has been set.

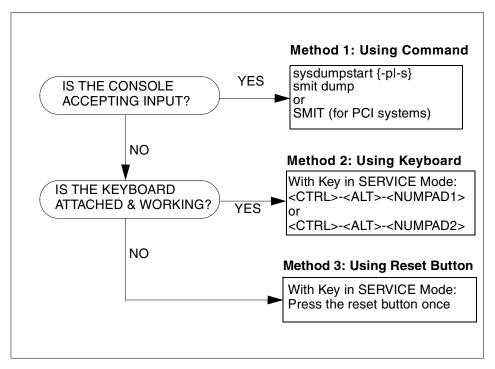


Figure 8-7 Method of user initiated system dump

#### Verifying a system dump

The **crash** command is an interactive tool that is used to examine a system dump file. Checking that the dump is readable saves time by reducing callbacks from the support center.

To invoke the **crash** command on a system image file and kernel file, use the following command syntax:

```
# crash SystemImageFile KernelFile
```

where SystemImageFile is either a file name or the name of the dump device and KernelFile is the default kernel /usr/lib/boot/unix.

The following example shows the commands to obtain the system dump file name (var/adm/ras/vmcore.1) and then uses the **crash** command on that dump file to verify the validity of dump:

```
# sysdumpdev -L
0453-039
Device name: /dev/hd6
Major device number: 10
Minor device number: 2
      24202752 bytes
Size:
Date/Time: Tue Nov 10 16:50:45 CST 1998
Dump status: 0
dump completed successfully
Dump copy filename: /var/adm/ras/vmcore.1
# crash /var/adm/ras/vmcore.1
Using /unix as the default namelist file.
> stat
        svsname: AIX
        nodename: aix4xdev
        release: 3
        version: 4
        machine: 000044091C00
        time of crash: Tue Nov 10 16:50:45 CST 1998
        age of system: 1 day, 5 hr., 28 min.
        xmalloc debug: disabled
        abend code: 0
        csa: 0x0
> quit
```

If the **crash** command outputs the >, and the **stat** subcommand verifies the details of dump, the dump is successful. Any other output indicates the dump may not be successfully analyzed.

#### **Copying system dumps**

In AIX 5L Version 5.1, the pax command allows you to copy, create, and modify files that are greater than 2 GB in size, like system dumps, from one location to another. This can be useful in migrating dumps, as the tar and cpio commands (formerly used for copying dumps in previous versions of AIX) cannot handle manipulating files that are larger than 2 GB in size. The pax command can also view and modify files in tar and cpio format.

The syntax for the **pax** command is as follows:

```
pax [ -r | -w | -rw ] [ -c ][ -d ] [ -i ] [ -k ] [ -l ] [ -n ] [ -t ] [ -u ] [ -v ] [ -X ] [ -H | -L ] [ -p String ... ] [ -o Options ] [ -s ReplacementString ... ] [ -x Format ] [ File ... ] Directory
```

Table 8-5 shows commonly used flags for the pax command.

Table 8-5 Common flags for pax

Flag	Description
-a	Appends files to the end of an archive.
-C	Matches all file or archive members except those specified by the Pattern parameter.
-d	Causes directories being copied, archived, or extracted, to match only the directory itself and not the contents of the directory.
-f Archive	Specifies the path of an archive file to be used instead of standard input (when the -w flag is not specified) or standard output (when the -w flag is specified but the -r flag is not).
-i	Renames files or archives interactively.
-k	Prevents the pax command from writing over existing files.
-r	Reads an archive file from the standard input.
-v	Writes information about the process. If neither the -r or -w flags are specified, the -v flag produces a verbose table of contents; otherwise, archive member path names are written to standard error.
-W	Writes files to the standard output in the specified archive format.
-x Format	Specifies the output archive format. If no format is provided, pax uses the pax format by default.

The pax command can output archives in one of three formats by using the -x flag:

**pax** The default interchange format. This format can support

file sizes larger than 2 GB in size.

**cpio** The extended cpio interchange format.

**ustar** The extended tar interchange format.

**Note:** If the -x flag is not specified during an archive operation, the **pax** command will output archives in tar format by default.

For example, to view the contents of the tar file /tmp/etc.tar, run the command:

To create a pax archive called tmp.pax that contains two files, /home/matt/soft.tar and /home/chad/soft.tar, that total over 2 GB in size, run the command:

```
# pax -x pax -wvf tmp.pax /home/matt/soft.tar /home/chad/temp.tar
/home/matt/soft.tar
/home/chad/temp.tar
```

To copy the dump file dump.out to the tape drive rmt1, run the command:

```
# pax -wvf /dev/rmt1 dump.out
dump.out
```

To untar the tar file /var/adm/link.tar to the current directory, run the command:

```
# pax -rvf /var/adm/link.tar
USTAR format archive
./link.out
./link.in
```

To copy the file run.pax to the /tmp directory, run the command:

```
# pax -rw run.pax /tmp
```

#### Compile and copy a system dump onto media

The snap command is used to gather configuration information of the system. It provides a convenient method of sending the <code>lslpp</code> and <code>errpt</code> output to your service support center. It gathers the information and compresses the information to a pax file, which can be downloaded to a tape or diskette or electronically transmitted.

The syntax for the **snap** command is as follows:

```
snap [ -a ] [ -A ] [ -b ] [ -c ] [ -D ] [ -f ] [ -g ] [ -G ] [ -i ] [ -k ]
[ -1 ] [ -L ] [ -n ] [ -N ] [ -p ] [ -r ] [ -s ] [ -S ] [ -t ] [ -T ] [ -w ]
[ -o OutputDevice ] [ -d Dir ] [ -v Component ]
```

Table 8-6 shows commonly used flags for the **snap** command.

Table 8-6 Common flags for snap

Flag	Description
-a	Gathers all system configuration information. This option requires approximately 8 MB temporary (/tmp) free disk space.
-C	Creates a compressed pax image (snap.pax.Z file) of all files in the /tmp/ibmsupt directory tree or other named directory.
-D	Gathers dump and /unix information. The primary dump device is used.
-d <i>Directory</i>	Identifies the optional snap command output directory (/tmp/ibmsupt is default).
-f	Gathers file system information.
-g	Gathers the output of the 1s1pp -hBc command, which is required to recreate the exact operating system environments. Writes output to the /tmp/ibmsupt/general/lslpp.hBc file. Also collects general system information and writes the output to the /tmp/ibmsupt/general/general.snap file.
-k	Gathers kernel information.
-L	Gathers LVM information.
-o OutputDevice	Copies the compressed image to onto diskette or tape.
-r	Removes snap command output from the /tmp/ibmsupt directory.

Flag	Description
-v Component	Displays the output of the commands executed by the snap command. Use this flag to view the specified name or group of files.

The default directory for the output from the snap command is /tmp/ibmsupt. If you want to name an optional directory, use the -d option with the path of the desired output directory. Approximately 8 MB of temporary disk space is required when executing all of the snap command options. The cleanup option -r should be used to remove the information saved by the snap command and to retrieve disk space.

For example, to copy system information including file system and kernel parameters to rmt0, you would run:

# /usr/sbin/snap -gfkD -o /dev/rmt0

Before executing the <code>snap -c</code> or <code>snap -o</code> commands, any additional information required by your service support center should be copied to the /tmp/ibmsupt directory. For example, you may be asked by your service support center to provide a test case that demonstrates the problem. The test case should be copied to the /tmp/ibmsupt directory. When the -c or -o option of the <code>snap</code> command is executed, the test case will be included.

**Note:** Only root can run the **snap** command to gather system information.

#### **8.4 Quiz**

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

- 1. A system administrator is using installp to install the software for a new SSA adapter that was just added to an F50. The install seems to hang for an unusually long time and the LED display reads 0c9. What is most likely happening?
  - A. The system is committing the SSA lpps.
  - B. The system has crashed and is dumping.
  - C. The system is running cfgmgr to add the device.
  - D. The system is running diagnostics on the SSA subsystem.

- 2. ABC Company is trying to send a system dump to IBM for analysis along with system data. Free space is extremely tight. The system administrator logs in as himself and issues the command /usr/sbin/snap -gfkD -o /dev/rmt0. Nothing is created on the tape. What could the problem be?
  - A. Only root can run the **snap** command and 8 MB of free space must be available in the /tmp directory.
  - B. The command should be /usr/sbin/snap -c -o /dev/rmt0 and there must be 8 MB of free space available in /tmp.
  - C. The estimated dump size estimated with the **sysdumpdev** -e command, was too small and the dump was never created.
  - D. There was no dump data created in /var/spool/tmp. A dump needs to be created first before the **snap** command can be run.
- 3. After rebooting, the support specialist decides to check the error log for errors. Which of the following is the correct command to use?
  - A. crash
  - B. errpt -a
  - C. errlog -a
  - D. errlog -k

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. A system administrator is using installp to install the software for a new SSA adapter that was just added to an F50. The install seems to hang for an unusually long time and the LED display reads 0c9. What is most likely happening?
  - A. The system has crashed and is dumping.
  - B. The system is committing the SSA lpps.
  - C. The system is running **cfgmgr** to add the device.
  - D. The system is running diagnostics on the SSA subsystem.

- 2. Customer XYZ has been running with AIX Version 4 for several months with no problems. The system just crashed and they need assistance with determining what happened. By pressing the yellow reset button, they found that the crash codes displayed on the LEDs were: 888-102-700-0c0. These LED codes indicate that:
  - A. It was a software problem and there is a partial dump for analysis.
  - B. It was a hardware problem and there is a partial dump for analysis.
  - C. It was a software problem and there is a complete dump for analysis.
  - D. It was a hardware problem and there is a complete dump for analysis.
- 3. Analyzing the following error report listing, how would a system specialist find out detailed information on why the system shutdown?

- A. errpt 2BFA76F6
- B. errpt -j 2BFA76F6
- C. errpt -a -j 2BFA76F6
- D. errpt -a -k 2BFA76F6
- 4. ABC Company has an employee time tracking application which has randomly stopped running several times over the last few months. The system administrator has written a script that monitors the status of the application. If the application is not running, the script restarts the application and adds an entry to the system error log reporting the time of the failure. What command is used in the monitor script to add the failure message to the system error log?
  - A. errpt
  - B. errsave
  - C. errorlog
  - D. errlogger

#### 8.4.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. A
- 3. B

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. C
- 3. C
- 4. D

#### 8.5 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Determine the status of an error logging daemon on the system.
- 2. Display the error log on the system. Delete all the software entries from the error log.
- 3. Determine the size of error log file on the system.
- 4. Display only the errors with resource name hdisk0 from the error log.
- 5. Copy the error log on to a tape device (/dev/rmtx).
- 6. You have applied a new APAR. Log an entry into the error log to record this activity. With what resource name is the entry listed when you display the error log with the **errpt** command?
- 7. Estimate the dump size for the system. Display your current dump device configuration. If the size of a dump device is less than the estimated dump size, increase the size of the dump device and initiate a dump on the system.
- 8. Verify the system dump taken in the preceding step using the **crash** command.
- 9. Copy the dump on to a tape using the **snap** command.



# System backup and restore

This chapter covers the backup and restore procedures and the common tasks that are carried out to ensure that you have backed up the proper information and that your backup media is reliable.

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# 9.1 Saving information

Data in AIX is divided in system and user parts. System data makes up the operating system and its extensions. It is kept in several file systems in the root volume group, such as /, /usr, /var, and /tmp. User data is mainly contained in user-defined file systems. User data can exist in file systems both inside and outside of the root volume group. By default, the /home file system is the repository for user data in the root volume group.

AIX provides you with a number of commands to successfully back up your system to ensure availability of data at all times. These commands vary, depending on the type of information you are trying to save.

Figure 9-1 on page 213 shows you the flow of the backup process, for example, in order to save rootvg you can adopt different approaches, depending on what are you trying to save by using the mksysb command. You can alternatively save individual files by using the tar, cpio, dd, and backup commands. You can also save entire user volume groups by using the savevg command.

Figure 9-1 on page 213 summarizes the methods used to back up system and user data.

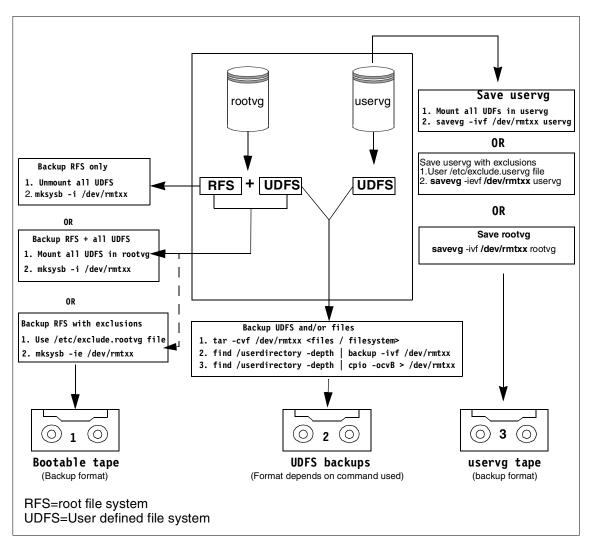


Figure 9-1 Flowchart for saving information

# 9.2 The data layout of a mksysb tape

The contents of a mksysb tape are shown in Figure 9-2.

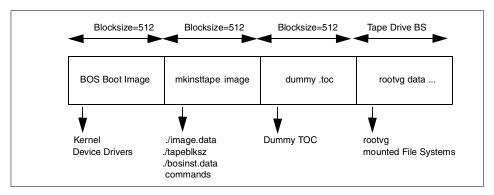


Figure 9-2 Layout of a mksysb tape

The BOS boot image contains a copy of the system's kernel and device drivers needed to boot from the mksysb tape. It is created by the bosboot command.

There are three important files in the mkinsttape image (the second image of the mksysb tape): ./tapeblksz, ./bosinst.data, and ./image.data. The ./tapeblksz file contains the block size the tape drive was set to when the mksysb command was run.

The ./bosinst.data file allows you to specify the requirements at the target system and how the user interacts with the target system. This file contains the customized BOS install procedures and dictates how the BOS install program will behave. You can customize this file before issuing the mksysb command or use a procedure to customize this after the image backup is done.

The ./image.data file contains information describing the image installed during the BOS installation process. This information includes the sizes, names, maps, and mount points of logical volumes and file systems in the rootvg. You can customize this file before using the mksysb command, or run mksysb -i to generate a new ./image.data file on the tape during a backup. The mkszfile command generates the ./image.data file. ./The image.data file is arranged in stanza format. Each stanza contains one or more fields. The most important fields are:

**SHRINK** When set to YES, causes the system to create the smallest file systems required to contain all the data in the file system.

**BOSINST\_FILE** Provides the full path name of a file or command to execute after the BOS install completes.

#### EXACT\_FIT

When set to YES, causes the system to place logical volumes on the disk according to the physical partition maps that were generated with the -m flag of the mksysb command.

The dummy Table Of Contents (TOC) is used to have the **mksysb** tape contain the same number of images as a BOS install tape.

The rootvg data area contains all data in the rootvg volume group backed up by the **mksysb** command. The **mksysb** command uses the **backup** command to save the contents of mounted JFS data in rootvg, excluding raw data.

**Note:** Keep the following points in mind while running the mksysb command:

- Use /etc/exclude.rootvg file to exclude any file, file system, directory or patterns that you do not need in your backup. Use the -e flag with the mksysb command to use the exclude.rootvg file.
- /tmp is used as a work area by the mksysb command. It typically needs 8 to 12 MB of free space in /tmp. Use the -X flag with mksysb to automatically expand the /tmp file system; otherwise, you will encounter an error similar to:

0511-432 A write error occurred: There is not enough space in the file system.

and mksysb will fail.

Use the -p flag (disable software packing of backup) only if you know that your tape drive does not do compression.

# 9.3 Verifying system backups

The only method to verify that the system backup will correctly restore with no problems is to actually restore all the files listed in your company's disaster recovery plan. However, in order to minimize problems due to tape media damage, there are a number of ways you can verify whether your backup has been done properly or not:

- ► Using SMIT.
- ► Using the restore command.

**Note:** The only way to verify that the **mksysb** tape will successfully boot is to bring the machine down and boot from the tape. No data needs to be restored. Data verification can be done using the following techniques.

However, caution must be taken if the PROMPT field in the bosinst.data file is set to NO, which will cause the system to begin a **mksysb** restore automatically.

#### 9.3.1 Using SMIT to verify a tape

Generally, **mksysb** is an unattended activity, so you need to look for errors that might have occurred during the save operation that will render data unavailable if you try to restore from it. It is always a good practice to look at your smit.log file after a **mksysb** is run from SMIT. It is recommended that you do not run **mksysb** directly from the command line in order to ensure that you do not miss errors generated during a save operation.

In order to verify the mksysb tape, use the SMIT fast path smitty 1smksysb and perform the steps that follow. A screen similar to Figure 9-3 will be shown.

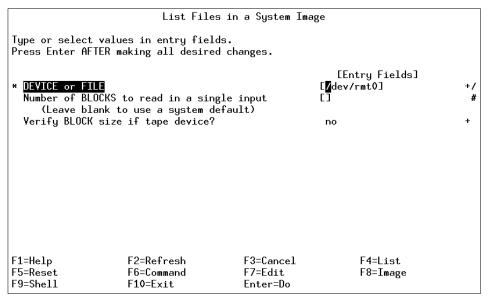


Figure 9-3 List Files in a System Image menu

1. Select your backup device name.

2. Select defaults for all other parameters and press Enter=DO. This will list the contents of your mksysb tape and log them in the smit.log, as shown below:

```
New volume on /dev/rmt0.1:
Cluster size is 51200 bytes (100 blocks).
The volume number is 1.
The backup date is: Tue Nov 10 17:02:28 CST 1998
Files are backed up by name.
The user is root.
./bosinst.data
./image.data
./tmp/vgdata/rootvg/copied.map
./tmp/vgdata/rootvg/fslv00.map
./tmp/vgdata/rootvg/hd1.map
./tmp/vgdata/rootvg/hd2.map
```

Cross check the listing and verify that none of your important files are missing. This will ensure that data will be available to you once you need it. The listing that is generated as a result of executing this command is helpful in finding out the date this tape was generated, which might help you if you do a mksysb on a regular basis and do not rotate tapes. If your tape tags are accidently destroyed, you can still find out the latest backup you have by using this method.

#### 9.3.2 Using restore to verify a tape

In order to verify a mksysb tape without using SMIT, you need to use the restore command, because all the files with mksysb are archived in the backup file format using the backup command.

Data on a mksysb tape is written from the fourth file marker onwards (see Section 9.2, "The data layout of a mksysb tape" on page 214 for details on mksysb tape format), so you need to control the tape manually to move to the correct segment of the tape. Use the tctl command to control the tape. The general syntax of the tctl command is as follows:

```
tctl [ -f Device ] [ eof | weof | fsf | bsf | fsr | bsr | rewind | offline | rewoffl | erase | retension | reset | status ] [ Count ]
```

The tct1 command gives subcommands to a streaming tape device. Subcommands most frequently used by tct1 are listed in Table 9-1.

Table 9-1 Common tctl subcommands

Subcommand	Description
rewind	Rewinds the tape.

Subcommand	Description
rewoffl or offline	Rewinds the tape and takes the tape drive offline. This will unload or eject the tape when appropriate. The tape must be reinserted, or another tape must be loaded before the device can be used again.
status	Displays status information about the specified tape device.
fsf Count	Moves the tape forward by the number of file marks specified by the <i>Count</i> parameter, and positions it on the end-of-tape (EOT) side of the file mark.
bsf Count	Moves the tape backward by the number of file marks specified by the <i>Count</i> parameter, and positions it on the beginning-of-tape (BOT) side of the file mark. If the bsf subcommand attempts to move the tape past the beginning, the tape will rewind and the tct1 command returns EIO.

The general syntax for the **restore** command is as follows:

```
restore -[ T | x | r | R | i ] [B d h M q v y] [ -b Number ] [ -f Device ] [ -s SeekBackup ] [ -X VolumeNumber ] [ File ... ]
```

Table 9-2 is a list of common command flags and their descriptions for the **restore** command.

Table 9-2 Command flags for restore

Flag	Description
-f Device	Specifies the input device.
-q	Specifies that the first volume is ready to use and that the <b>restore</b> command should not prompt you to mount the volume and hit Enter.
-R	The -R flag allows a previously interrupted restore to be restarted. Once restarted, the <b>restore</b> command behavior is the same as with the -r flag.
-r	Restores all files in a file system archive.
-S SeekBackup	Specifies the backup to seek and restore on a multiple-backup tape archive. The -s flag is only applicable when the archive is written to a tape.
-T	Displays information about the backup archive.
-v	Displays additional information when restoring.
-x	Restores individually named files specified by the File parameter.

To see the contents of the **mksysb** tape, use the following sequence of commands:

1. Rewind the tape using the command:

```
tctl -f /dev/rmtxx rewind
```

2. Advance the tape to the fourth file marker by running the command:

```
tctl -f /dev/rmtxx fsf 3
```

3. Read the contents of the tape and redirect the output to a temporary file by using the command:

```
restore -Tvqf /dev/rmtxx.1 > /tmp/mksysb.log
```

You can skip the second step in the procedure and go directly to viewing the contents of the tape by running the command:

```
restore -s4 -Tvqf /dev/rmtxx.1 > /tmp/mksysb.log
```

The -s4 flag of the **restore** command automatically advances the tape to the beginning of the fourth file marker for restore.

This will generate a listing similar to the smit.log output shown in Section 9.3.1, "Using SMIT to verify a tape" on page 216.

# 9.4 Saving user data

User data in the rootvg is stored with mksysb, depending on what file systems you have mounted when the mksysb command is run and the contents of the /etc/exclude.rootvg file. Alternatively, there are several other ways to back up user data outside the rootvg, and other ways of backing up user data within the rootvg. This section briefly describes some of these backup methods.

#### 9.4.1 Backing up user data

The **backup** command that is invoked by the **mksysb** command can also be run by itself to back up user data. The backup command can back up both user data in the rootvg and in user volume groups. The general syntax of the backup command is as follows:

```
backup -i [ -b Number ] [ -p [ -e RegularExpression ] ] [ -f Device ]
[ -l Number ] [ -o ] [ -q ] [ -v ]
```

Table 9-3 shows a list of common command flags and their descriptions for the **backup** command.

Table 9-3 Command flags for backup

Flag	Description
-f	Specifies the output device.
-i	Specifies that files be read from standard input and archived by file name.
-p	Specifies that the files be packed, or compressed, before they are archived. Only files of less than 2 GB are packed. This option should only be used when backing up files from an inactive file system. Modifying a file when a backup is in progress may result in corruption of the backup and an inability to recover the data. When backing up to a tape device that performs compression, this option can be omitted.
-q	Indicates that the removable medium is ready to use. When you specify the -q flag, the <b>backup</b> command proceeds without prompting you to prepare the backup medium. Press the Enter key to continue.
-u	Updates /etc/dumpdates with time, date, and level of the last incremental backup.
-v	Causes the <b>backup</b> command to display additional information about the backup.

For example, to back up the directory /data/crash to the tape drive, you would run:

```
# cd /data/crash
# find . -depth | backup -ivf /dev/rmt0

Or
# find . -print | backup -ivf /dev/rmt0
```

These commands will back up the information in /data/crash using relative path names. When you restore the information using the **restore** command, you need to be in the /data/crash directory, or else it will restore the information into your current directory.

**Note:** The -i flag causes the **backup** command to back up files listed from standard input. Do not attempt to directly back up data with the **backup** -i command, such as:

```
# backup -ivf /dev/rmt0 /data/crash
```

This will cause the command to hang indefinitely.

Alternatively, you can use the **tar**, **cpio**, or **dd** commands to save user files, directories, and file system data.

#### 9.4.2 Backing up user volume groups

Since the mksysb command only backs up rootvg, in order to save user volume groups, use the savevg command. The savevg command finds and backs up all files belonging to a specified volume group. A volume group must be varied on, and the file systems must be mounted. The savevg command uses the data file created by the mkvgdata command to back up files.

The general syntax of the savevg command is as follows:

```
savevg [ -b Blocks ] [ -e ] [ -f Device ] [ -i | -m ] [ -p ] [ -v ] [ -X ] VGName
```

Table 9-4 shows a list of common command flags and their descriptions for the savevg command.

	<b>^</b>	
Table 9-4	Command flags	tor cavava

Flag	Description
-e	Excludes files specified in the /etc/exclude.vgname file from being backed up by this command.
-f <i>Device</i>	Specifies the device or file name on which the image is to be stored. The default is the /dev/rmt0 device.

To back up the uservg volume group and create a new uservg.data file, run the following command:

#### 9.4.3 Backing up raw logical volumes

Raw logical volume data will not be archived using the **savevg** command. In order to save a raw logical volume, use the **dd** command and proceed with the following sequence of steps to save your raw logical volumes:

1. Check the block size of the tape using the tctl command:

```
tctl -f /dev/rmtxx status
```

2. Change the block size of the tape to your required block size using:

```
chdev -1 rmtxx -a block size=<tape block size>
```

3. Save the raw logical volume onto a tape device using:

```
dd if=/dev/lvname of=/dev/rmtxx ibs=512 obs=<tape block size>
```

This will create a back up of the raw logical volume on the tape.

If you use the **savevg** command to save a rootvg, the only difference between a **mksysb** image and an savevg image is that the **mksysb** command creates the bos/install images and places them on the tape to create a bootable/ installable tape. A savevg image is not capable of being installed directly.

# 9.5 Restoring information

Once you have a backup of your data, you can restore it in a number of ways. The flow of the restore process is shown in Figure 9-4 on page 223.

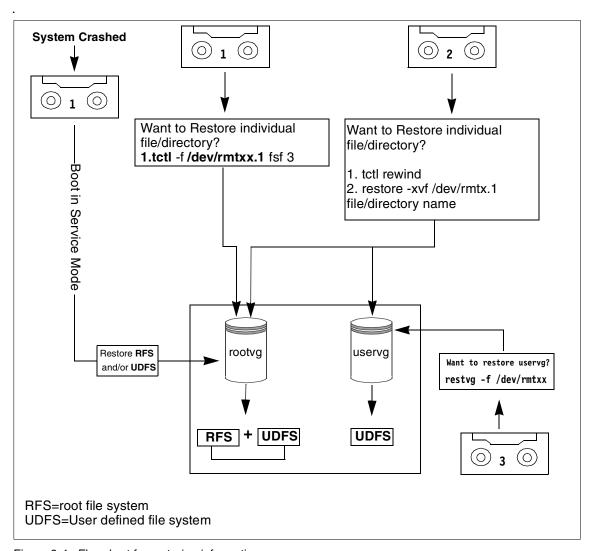


Figure 9-4 Flowchart for restoring information

### 9.5.1 Restoring rootvg

You can use a mksysb tape to restore your entire rootvg by doing the following:

1. Check if your system will boot from tape by running the command:

# bootinfo -e

If a 1 is returned, a boot from tape is supported. If a 0 is returned, a boot from tape is not supported

- 2. Put the mksysb tape in the tape drive.
- 3. Check the boot list for service mode by running the command:

```
# bootlist -m service -o
```

If necessary, alter the service boot list to boot from rmt0 by running the command:

```
# bootlist -m service rmt0
```

4. Reboot the system. The system will read from the **mksysb** and prompt you for restoration configuration.

#### 9.5.2 Restoring a non-rootvg volume group

To restore a backup of the user volume group, use the **restvg** command from a **savevg** image. This utility can be used to shrink the size of file systems within the uservg volume group. All you have to do is to modify the /tmp/vgdata/uservg/uservg.data file.

To restore the volume group uservg from tape onto the disks specified in the /tmp/vgdata/uservg/uservg.data file, enter the following:

```
# restvg -f /dev/rmt0
```

#### 9.5.3 Restoring a file system

The **restore** command is used to restore data backed up with the **backup** command.

To show the table of contents of a tape and list the files on it, run the command:

```
# restore -Tvf /dev/rmt0
```

To restore individual files from a backup made by the **backup -i** command, run the command:

```
# restore -xvf /dev/rmt0 /data/crash
```

To restore an entire file system archive, run the command:

```
# restore -rvf /dev/rmt0 /data
```

#### 9.5.4 Errors with restoring data

There are a number of problems that you may encounter while you are restoring data back onto your system. The following is a short list of problems that you may encounter while restoring data:

- The most general problem that you can face is the incorrect block size which results in a restore failure. See Section 9.5.5, "Block size determination" on page 225 to learn how to recover from this problem.
- 2. Your storage media can be physically damaged. Media errors are recorded in the error log. If the media can be read successfully with the dd or the tcopy command, a syntax or usage problem possibly exists. Syntax or usage problems could include:
  - The incorrect archive utility was used.
  - The cpio backup was not written with ASCII headers and the command specifies ASCII headers (-c).
  - The tar command has calculated a checksum different from what is recorded on the tape, indicating that the incorrect volume may be in the drive. (Use the -i flag to ignore checksums.)
  - For tapes, the archive utility does not have enough buffer space to hold an entire block from the tape file.
- 3. During a restvg command execution (used for restoring user volume group), you may encounter a failure. Since it expects the savevg image to be the first image on the tape. This means that you cannot use a mksysb tape to restore the root volume group through the restvg command, so you can only restore a mksysb tape in the service mode.
- 4. You may run out of space on a file system restore if the new file system you created does not have enough space on it.

#### 9.5.5 Block size determination

A typical problem with moving tapes between systems is an incorrect block size. Incorrect block sizes can cause the tape to be temporarily unreadable. For example, a tar backup is placed on a tape with a 512 byte block size. When the tape is placed into a system with a 2048 byte block size, and a restore is attempted, the system displays:

```
# tar -tvf /dev/rmt0
tar: 0511-193 An error occurred while reading from the media.
There is an input or output error.
```

There are two methods to determine tape block size:

#### Method 1

Use the **tcopy** command as follows:

```
# tcopy /dev/rmt0
tcopy : Tape File: 1; Records: 1 to 7179 ; size:512
tcopy : Tape File: 1; End of file after :7179 records; 3675648 bytes
tcopy : Tape File: 2; Records: 1 to 2900 ; size:512
tcopy : Tape File: 2; End of file after 2900 records, 76890 bytes
```

This will give you a list of all the files found on the media with their byte count and the block size (shown in bold) used.

#### Method 2

Use the **dd** command to read a single block from the device and find out what block size is used for the archive:

```
dd if=/dev/rmt0 bs=128k count=1 | wc -c
```

This will return to you the size in bytes of the block being read.

To change the block size, use the **chdev** command as follows:

```
# chdev -l rmt0 -a block_size=512
rmt0 changed
# tar tvf /dev/rmt0
-rw-rw-r-- 0 0 1817 Jun 09 16:24:17 2000 /etc/hosts
```

#### **9.6 Quiz**

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

- 1. The system administrator is planning to upgrade the accounting application in /home/acct. Before the upgrade, the administrator would like to backup all of the data in this directory. What is the proper syntax of the backup command to perform this task?
  - A. backup -cvf /dev/rmt0 /home/acct
  - B. backup -ivf /dev/rmt0 /home/acct
  - C. find /home/acct -print | backup -cvf /dev/rmt0
  - D. find /home/acct -print | backup -ivf /dev/rmt0

- 2. The system administrator runs the backup -ivf /dev/rmt0 /home command to back up the /home file system. The command hangs. What is the most likely cause of this problem?
  - A. Corrupted /home file system.
  - B. Problem with the tape drive.
  - C. The root file system is 100 percent full.
  - D. Incorrect syntax usage of the backup command.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. Which of the following files contains the logical volume and file system information that **mksysb** saves during a system backup?
  - A. /fs.size
  - B. /image.data
  - C. /bosinst.data
  - D. /install.data
- 2. A system administrator would like to have the system eject a backup tape each night after the system backup is complete to ensure that it is not overwritten. Which of the following commands can be used to eject the tape?
  - A. tctl
  - B. eject
  - C. rmdev
  - D. rmtape
- 3. At the XYZ Company, the system administrator has implemented a daily backup schedule for the /home file system. The file system is stored on the 4 mm tape drive /dev/rmt1 using the tar command. What command can be used to verify the most recent tape has successfully stored the files in /home?
  - A. tar -ivf /dev/rmt1
  - B. tar -tvf /dev/rmt1
  - C. tar -lvf /dev/rmt1.1
  - D. tar -ivf /dev/rmt1.1 /home

- 4. At XYZ company, a nightly backup is performed to the tape drive using mksysb scheduled by cron. Where can the system administrator look to find the output of the mksysb command?
  - A. /smit.log
  - B. /var/adm/messages
  - C. /var/spool/mail/root
  - D. /var/spool/cron/cronlog
- 5. The system administrator at ABC calls to ask for assistance while backing up of the rootvg with the **mksysb** command. The **mksysb** command fails with the following error message:

0511-084 internal packing error

What should the system administrator do to resolve this error?

- A. Use the -p flag with mksysb.
- B. Run fsck on the rootvg file system.
- C. Disable compression on the tape drive.
- D. Specify an alternate density setting on the tape drive.
- 6. The system administrator of company ABC has been asked to restore some files from an old backup of the /home file system. The restore is failing because the block size of the tape drive is incorrect. The system administrator does not know to what block size the backup was written. What command can be used to determine the block size of the tape?
  - A. tar
  - B. tct1
  - C. cpio
  - D. tcopy
- 7. The intranet Web server for the ABC company experienced a disk drive failure and the system must be restored for the mksysb backup tape. With the backup tape in the tape drive, what is the first step the system administrator should use to initiate the mksysb restore?
  - A. Boot the server in service mode.
  - B. Issue the **boot** -mksysb command.
  - C. Press the reset button when the C31 LED appears.
  - D. Hold down the reset button when powering on the server.

- 8. A technical specialist working on an RS/6000 Model 397 running AIX Version 4.3.1 determines that the system needs to be reinstalled with the same version of the operating system. What is the best method to perform the reinstallation without erasing /home and /data, a file system used to store project data?
  - A. Reinstall bos.rte from the installation media.
  - B. Perform a preservation installation from a mksysb.
  - C. Perform a migration installation from the installation media.
  - D. Perform a preservation installation from the installation media.

#### 9.6.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. D
- 2. D

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. A
- 3. B
- 4. C
- 5. A
- 6. D
- 7. A
- 8. D

#### 9.7 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- Perform a back up of your system using mksysb. Make sure that you exclude the /tmp file system from your backup. In addition to this, you must back up all your user file systems in your rootvg.
- 2. Check out your smit.log for any errors during your backup operation.

- 3. With the **mksysb** tape you have just made, perform the following tasks:
  - Create a listing of the contents of the tape.
  - Verify that your backup contains all the files.
  - Find out the block size of the tape when you took your backup.
  - Using your mksysb tape, find out the date when it was saved.
  - Verify that you can boot off this mksysb tape.
  - Restore /etc/hosts and /etc/filesystems file from your mksysb tape.
- 4. Save your rootvg using the **savevg** command and use a separate tape for backup.
- 5. Try restoring your rootvg from your mksysb tape using the restvg command.
- Create a raw logical volume and save your raw logical volume using the dd command.
- 7. Use backup, restore, and tar commands to back up your user file systems.



# System performance

This chapter discusses the several system performance monitoring tools used to capture the data required to identify the performance problems related to CPU, memory, and I/O subsystem. The filesets bos.acct and bos.perf.tools contain these tools.

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### 10.1 Using the topas command

The **topas** command is a performance monitoring tool that was introduced in AIX Version 4.3.3. In AIX 5L Version 5.1, it has several new enhancements, including Workload Manager support, an improved set of CPU usage panels, several new column sort options, NFS statistics, and per disk or adapter breakdown of network and disk usage. Figure 10-1 provides a sample **topas** command screen.

Topas Moni	itor fo	r host:	: ser	ver1		EVENTS/QUE	UES	FILE/TTY				
Fri Aug 31				erval: 2	2	Cswitch	35	Readch	78			
						Suscall	76	Writech	3252			
Kernel	0.1	I			1	Reads	1	Rawin	0			
User	0.0	I			1	Writes	3	Ttyout	0			
Wait	0.0	I			1	Forks	0	Igets	0			
Idle 9	99.8	#####	#######	#######	Execs	0	Namei	0				
				Runqueue	0.0	Dirblk	0					
Network h	(BPS	I-Pack	0-Pack	KB−In	KB-Out	Waitqueue	0.0					
tr0	$\overline{3.5}$	3.0	3.0	0.2	3.3	-						
1o0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	PAGING		MEMORY				
						Faults	0	Real,MB	511			
Disk Bu	usy%	KBPS	TPS	KB-Read	KB-Writ	Steals	0	% Comp	24.5			
hdisk0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	PgspIn	0	% Noncomp	19.8			
hdisk1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	Pgsp0ut	0	% Client	0.5			
						PageIn	0					
Name	PID	CPU% F	gSp Own	er		PageOut	0	PAGING SP	ACE .			
topas	13284	0.1	0.8 roo	t		Sios	0	Size,MB	512			
xterm	15076	0.0	0.9 roo	t				% Used	1.2			
dtexec	22776	0.0	0.7 roo	t		NFS (calls	/sec)	% Free	98.7			
dtscreen	21362	0.0	0.6 roo	t		Server <b>V</b> 2	0					
syncd	5956	0.0	0.3 roo	t		Client <b>V</b> 2	0	Press:				
X	5454	0.0	3.1 roo	t		Server <b>V</b> 3	0	"h" for	help			
dtsession	5198	0.0	2.7 roo	t		Client <b>V</b> 3	0	"q" to (	quit			

Figure 10-1 topas command output

The general syntax of the **topas** command is as follows:

```
topas [ -d number_of_hot_disks ] [ -h ] [ -i monitoring_interval_in_seconds ]
[ -n number_of_hot_network_interfaces ] [ -p number_of_hot_processes]
```

Table 10-1 provides a list of the flags for topas and their descriptions.

Table 10-1 topas command flags

Flag	Description								
-d NumberOfHotDisks	Specifies the maximum number of disks shown. If this argument is omitted, a default of 5 (five) is assumed. If a value of zero is specified, no disk information will be displayed.								
-h	Displays help information.								

Flag	Description
-i	Sets the monitoring interval in seconds. The default is two seconds.
-n	Specifies the maximum number of network interfaces shown. If this argument is omitted, a default of 2 is assumed. If a value of zero is specified, no network information will be displayed.
-p	Specifies the maximum number of processes shown. If this argument is omitted a default of 16 is assumed. If a value of zero is specified, no process information will be displayed. Retrieval of process information constitutes the majority of the <b>topas</b> overhead. If process information is not required, you should always use this option to specify that you do not want process information.

For example, to view the top 10 processes in use while not displaying any network interface statistics, in five second intervals, run the command:

# topas -i5 -n0 -p10

Within the **topas** command screen, there are a variety of subcommands that can change the output of what is being displayed. Table 10-2 has a list of subcommands you can use in the **topas** command screen.

Table 10-2 topas command screen subcommands

Subcommand	Description
а	Show all the variable subsections being monitored. Pressing the 'a' key always returns <b>topas</b> to the main initial display.
С	Pressing the 'c' key repeatedly toggles the CPU subsection between the cumulative report, off, and a list of busiest CPUs.
d	Pressing the 'd' key repeatedly toggles the disk subsection between busiest disks list, off, and total disk activity for the system.
f	Moving the cursor over a WLM class and pressing 'f' shows the list of top processes in the class on the bottom of the screen (WLM Display Only).
h	Toggles between help screen and main display.
n	Pressing the 'n' key repeatedly toggles the network interfaces subsection between busiest interfaces list, off, and total network activity.

Subcommand	Description
р	Pressing the 'p' key toggles the hot processes subsection on and off.
q	Quits the program.
r	Refreshes the screen.
W	Pressing the 'w' key toggles the WorkLoad Management (WLM) classes subsection on and off.
W	Toggle to the Full Screen WLM Class Display.

## 10.2 Using the vmstat command

The **vmstat** command reports statistics about processes, virtual memory, paging activity, faults, CPU activity, and disk transfers. A sample of the **vmstat** output report is shown in Figure 10-2.

th	r 	mem	ory			pá	age				faults	3	cpu				disk xfer			
 r	 b	avm	fre	re	 рі	ро	fr	sr	cy	in	 sy	cs	us :	: sy :	id	 wa	1	2	3	
0	1	37184	156	0	٠٥	0	1	7	Ŏ	171			4			1		0		
1	1	37184	156	0	0	0	0	0	0	555	5373	1600	12	15	73	0	0	0		
2	1	37189	162	0	0	2	4	12	0	523	5477	1377	30	24	45	0	2	0		
2	1	37189	162	0	0	0	0	0	0	508	5623	1312	39	28	34	0	0	0		
0	1	37189	161	0	0	0	0	0	0	545	5382	1521	. 17	17	65	0	0	0		
0		37189	161	0	0	0	0	0	0	553	5337	1575	16	14	70	0	0	0		
0	_	37189	3053	0	0	0	0	0	0	553	5284	1566	16	16	68	0		0		
0	_	37189	3049	0	0	0	0	0	-		5308					_	- 7	0		
0		37189	2890	0	18	0	0		0	578	5321	1587	15	16	47	22	28	0		
0		37189	2549	0	41	0	0	0	0	641	5329	1620	18	19	0	63	71	0		
1	_	37346	1925	0	25	0	0		-		21626				_	5 51	L 67	7	0	
0		37346	1925	0	0	0	0	0	-		5275					0	0	0		
0		37346	1630	0	0	0	0	0	-		5303					_	10	0		
4		37377	121	0	0	56	60	296			5324						46	7		
0		37377	125	0	0	16	186	4856	0		5219						5	17		
0		37346	160	0	0	0		927	0		5397					-	12	7		
0		37346	160	0	0			0			5281						0	0		
0	1	37346	160	0	0	0	0	0	0	548	5259	1545	14	14	72	0	0	0		

Figure 10-2 vmstat output example with disk activity

The following sections will discuss some of the frequently referenced fields for analysis from the preceding example of the **vmstat** report.

### 10.2.1 Paging activity statistics

When processes on the system require more pages of memory than are available in RAM, working pages may be paged out to paging space and then paged in when they are needed again. Accessing a page from paging space is considerably slower than accessing a page directly from RAM. For this reason, constant paging activity can cause system performance degradation. The paging activity is determined by the following four fields.

- **pi** Number of pages per second paged in from paging space.
- **po** Number of pages per second paged out to paging space.
- **fr** Number of pages that must be freed to replenish the free list or to accommodate an active process.
- **sr** Number of pages that must be examined in order to free fr number of pages.

#### Data analysis

The following conclusions can be drawn from the various filed values:

- ► A consistent nonzero value of pi and po means high paging activity that can slow down the system. This can be due to a memory bottleneck.
- ► A high fr:sr ratio indicates that the memory is overcommitted. An fr:sr ratio of 1:4 means for every one page freed, four pages must be examined. It is difficult to determine a memory constraint based on this ratio alone and what constitutes a high ratio is workload/application dependent.

### 10.2.2 CPU statistics

The following fields of a **vmstat** report determine the status of CPU usage.:

- id Percentage of time the CPU is idle (the run queue is empty).
- wa Percentage of time the CPU is idle (with pending local disk I/O).
- r Number of threads (smallest work unit) placed on the run queue per second.
- **b** Number of threads (smallest work unit) placed on the wait queue per second (awaiting resource or completion of an I/O).
- **us** Percentage of CPU time spent in user mode.
- sy Percentage of CPU time spent in system mode.

#### Data analysis

The values of various fields can lead you to the following conclusions:

- If the id value is consistently 0 percent, the CPU is being used 100 percent of the time.
- ► A key factor when evaluating CPU performance is the size of the run queue. As the run queue increases, the users will notice degradation (an increase) in response time.
- ► If us+sy time is below 90 percent, a single user system is not considered CPU constrained. However, if us+sy time on a multiuser system exceeds 80 percent, the processes may spend time waiting in the run queue and therefore the response time and throughput might suffer.
- ► A wa value of over 40 percent indicates that the disk subsystem is not balanced or the work load is disk-intensive.

### 10.2.3 Determining the I/O for persistent storage

The I/O for persistent storage is the I/O (disk reads and writes) initiated by VMM excluding paging space I/O. The following example shows how to calculate I/O for persistent storage using the **vmstat** command with the -s option:

```
# vmstat -s
   3983934 total address trans. faults
    384406 page ins
    218433 page outs
     16928 paging space page ins
     35468 paging space page outs
         O total reclaims
   1738350 zero filled pages faults
     19584 executable filled pages faults
   2035457 pages examined by clock
       132 revolutions of the clock hand
    393739 pages freed by the clock
     57211 backtracks
         0 lock misses
       161 free frame waits
         O extend XPT waits
    197637 pending I/O waits
    340980 start I/Os
    340980 iodones
  16706966 cpu context switches
  46963483 device interrupts
         O software interrupts
         0 traps
  161793600 syscalls
```

There are 23 separate events reported by the **vmstat** -s output, but the following four are used to calculate the persistent storage I/O.

**page ins** This field is the count of systemwide pages read from

disk (including pages read from paging space). When a page is read from disk to memory, this count is incremented. It is a count of VMM-initiated read operations and, with the page outs field, represents the real I/O (disk reads and writes) initiated by the

VMM.

page outs This field is the count of system-wide pages written on

to the disk (including pages written to the paging space). The process of writing pages to the disk is count incremented. The page outs field value is a total count of VMM-initiated write operations and, with the page ins field, represents the total amount of real I/O

initiated by the VMM.

paging space page ins This field is the count of pages read from paging

space.

paging space page outs This field is the count of pages written to paging space.

If the value for paging space page ins is subtracted from the (system-wide) value for page ins, the result is the number of persistent pages (files) that were read from disk. Similarly, if the value for paging space page outs is subtracted from the (system-wide) value for page outs, the result is the number of persistent pages (files) that were written to disk.

The preceding example shows that 367478 (384406-16928) number of pages are read from disk and 182965 (218433-35468) number of pages are written to the disk.

These counts apply to the time since system initialization. If you need counts for a given time interval, execute **vmstat** -s at the time you want to start monitoring and again at the end of the interval. The deltas between like fields of successive reports will be the count for the interval.

### 10.3 Using the iostat command

The **iostat** command tool reports the following three types of statistics:

- ► Terminal statistics
- CPU statistics
- Disk statistics

This section discusses the use of the **iostat** command to identify I/O-subsystem and CPU bottlenecks using CPU statistics and disk statistics. The following is a sample **iostat** output report:

#### # iostat

	tin 0.1	tout avg-cpu: 9.0	%		- 3	idle 5.0	% iowait 0.5
Disks: hdisk1 hdisk0 cd0	% tm_act 0.1 0.8 0.0	0.7 11.1	tps 0.0 0.8 0.0	Kb_read 39191 3926601 780	242113 822579		

The following sections will discuss some of the frequently referenced fields from the preceding example.

#### 10.3.1 CPU statistics

The following fields of CPU statistics in the **iostat** report determine the CPU usage and the I/O status.

- % user The % user column shows the percentage of CPU resource spent in user mode. A UNIX process can execute in user or system mode. When in user mode, a process executes within its own code and does not require kernel resources.
- \* sys The % sys column shows the percentage of CPU resource spent in system mode. This includes CPU resource consumed by kernel processes and others that need access to kernel resources. For example, the reading or writing of a file requires kernel resources to open the file, seek a specific location, and read or write data. A UNIX process accesses kernel resources by issuing system calls.
- % idle The % idle column shows the percentage of CPU time spent idle, or waiting, without pending local disk I/O. If there are no processes on the run queue, the system dispatches a special kernel process called wait. On most AIX systems, the wait process ID (PID) is 516.
- \* iowait The % iowait column shows the percentage of time the CPU was idle with pending local disk I/O. The iowait state is different from the idle state in that at least one process is waiting for local disk I/O requests to complete. Unless the process is using asynchronous I/O, an I/O request to disk causes the calling process to block (or sleep) until the request is completed. Once a process's I/O request completes, it is placed on the run queue.

#### Data analysis

The following conclusions can be drawn from the iostat reports:

- ► A system is CPU-bound if the sum of user and system time exceeds 90 percent of CPU resource on a single-user system or 80 percent on a multiuser system. This condition means that the CPU is the limiting factor in system performance.
- ► A high iowait percentage indicates the system has a memory shortage 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 command output can provide. However, typical solutions might include:
  - Limiting the number of active logical volumes and file systems placed on a particular physical disk (the idea is to balance file I/O evenly across all physical disk drives).
  - Spreading a logical volume across multiple physical disks (this is useful when a number of different files are being accessed).
  - Creating multiple JFS logs for a volume group and assigning them to specific file systems (this is beneficial for applications that create, delete, or modify a large number of files, particularly temporary files).
  - Backing up and restoring file systems to reduce fragmentation.
     (Fragmentation causes the drive to seek excessively and can be a large portion of overall response time.)
  - Adding additional drives and rebalancing the existing I/O subsystem.
- On systems running a primary application, high I/O wait percentage may be related to workload. In this case, there may be no way to overcome the problem.
- ► On systems with many processes, some will be running while others wait for I/O. In this case, the iowait can be small or zero because running processes *hide* wait time. Although iowait is low, a bottleneck may still limit application performance.

To understand the I/O subsystem thoroughly, you need to examine the disk statistics of **iostat** report in the following section.

#### 10.3.2 Disk statistics

The disk statistics portion of the **iostat** output determines the I/O usage. This information is useful in determining whether a physical disk is the bottleneck for performance. The system maintains a history of disk activity by default. The history is disabled if you see the following message:

Disk history since boot not available.

Disk I/O history should be enabled because the CPU resource used in maintaining it is insignificant. History-keeping can be disabled or enabled by executing smitty chgsys, which will display the screen shown in Figure 10-3. Change the option Continuously maintain DISK I/O history to TRUE to enable the history keeping option.

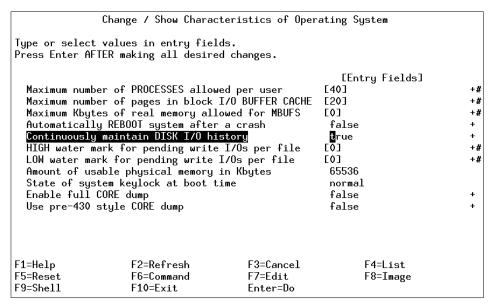


Figure 10-3 Enabling the disk I/O history

You can also use the **chdev** command as follows:

chdev -1 sys0 -a iostat=true

The following fields of the **iostat** report determine the physical disk I/O:

- **Disks**The Disks column shows the names of the physical volumes. They are either hdisk or cd followed by a number. (hdisk0 and cd0 refer to the first physical disk drive and the first CD-ROM disk drive, respectively.)
- **% tm\_act** The % tm\_act column shows the percentage of time the volume was active. This is the primary indicator of a bottleneck.
- Kbps Shows the amount of data read from and written to the drive in KBs per second. This is the sum of Kb\_read plus Kb\_wrtn, divided by the number of seconds in the reporting interval.
- tps tps reports the number of transfers per second. A transfer is an I/O request at the device-driver level.

**Kb\_read** Kb\_read reports the total data (in KB) read from the physical volume during the measured interval.

**Kb\_wrtn** Kb\_wrtn shows the amount of data (in KB) written to the physical volume during the measured interval.

#### Data analysis

There is no unacceptable value for any of the fields in the preceding section, because statistics are too closely related to application characteristics, system configuration, and types of physical disk drives and adapters. Therefore, when evaluating data, you must look for patterns and relationships. The most common relationship is between disk utilization and data transfer rate.

To draw any valid conclusions from this data, you must understand the application's disk data access patterns (sequential, random, or a combination) and the type of physical disk drives and adapters on the system. For example, if an application reads and writes sequentially, you should expect a high disk-transfer rate when you have a high disk-busy rate. (Note: Kb\_read and Kb\_wrtn can confirm an understanding of an application's read and write behavior, but they provide no information on the data access patterns).

Generally, you do not need to be concerned about a high disk-busy rate as long as the disk-transfer rate is also high. However, if you get a high disk-busy rate and a low data-transfer rate, you may have a fragmented logical volume, file system, or individual file.

What is a high data-transfer rate? That depends on the disk drive and the effective data-transfer rate for that drive. You should expect numbers between the effective sequential and effective random disk-transfer rates.

You can also use the data captured by the **iostat** command to analyze the requirement of an additional SCSI adapter (if the one installed in your system is the I/O bottleneck) by tracking transfer rates, and finding the maximum data transfer rate for each disk.

The disk usage percentage (% tm\_act) is directly proportional to resource contention and inversely proportional to performance. As disk use increases, performance decreases and response time increases. In general, when a disk's use exceeds 70 percent, processes are waiting longer than necessary for I/O to complete because most UNIX processes block (or sleep) while waiting for their I/O requests to complete.

To overcome I/O bottlenecks, you can perform the following actions:

► Look for busy versus idle drives. Moving data from more busy to less busy drives may help alleviate a disk bottleneck.

Check for paging activity because paging to and from disk will also contribute to the I/O load. Move paging space from a more busy drive to a less busy drive to improve the performance.

### 10.4 Using 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 can only be executed by root. Changes made by the vmtune command persist until the next reboot of the system. If a permanent change in VMM parameters is needed, an appropriate vmtune command should be put in a script run by the init process at boot.

The vmtune command syntax is as follows:

```
vmtune [ -b numfsbuf ] [ -B numpbuf ] [ -c numclust ] [ -f minfree ]
[ -F maxfree ] [ -k npskill ] [ -1 Irubucket ] [ -M maxpin ] [ -N pd_npages ]
[ -p minperm ] [ -P maxperm ] [ -r minpgahead ] [ -R maxpgahead ]
[-u Ivm_budcnt] [ -w npswarn ] [ -W maxrandwrt]
```

The flags and their descriptions for the **vmtune** command are shown in Table 10-3.

Table 10-3 vmtune command flags and flag descriptions

Flag	Flag description
-b numfsbuf	Specifies the number of file system bufstructs. The default value is 64.
-B numpbuf	Specifies the number of pbufs used by the LVM. The maximum value is 128. In AIX Version 3, the number of pbufs may need to be increased in systems doing many large, sequential I/O operations.
-c numclust	Specifies the number of 16 KB clusters processed by write behind. The default value is 1.
-f minfree	Specifies the minimum number of frames on the free list. This number can range from 8 to 204800.
-F maxfree	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.

Flag	Flag description
-k npskill	Specifies the number of free paging-space pages at which AIX begins killing processes. The default value is 128.
-l Irubucket	Specifies the size (in 4 KB pages) of the least-recently used (LRU) page-replacement bucket size. This is the number of page frames which will be examined at one time for possible pageouts 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 similar to a true Iru 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. 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.
-N pd_npages	Specifies the number of pages that should be deleted in one chunk from RAM when a file is deleted. 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 524288 by default. Tuning this option is really only useful for real-time applications.
-p <i>minperm</i>	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 five.
-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 five.
-r minpgahead	Specifies the number of pages with which sequential read-ahead starts. This value can range from 0 through 4096. It should be a power of two.
-R maxpgahead	Specifies the maximum number of pages to be read ahead. This value can range from 0 through 4096. It should be a power of two and should be greater than or equal to minpgahead.
-u lvm_bufcnt	Specifies the number of LVM buffers for raw physical I/Os. The default value is nine. The possible values can range between 1 and 64. This option is only available in AIX Version 4.
-w npswarn	Specifies the number of free paging-space pages at which AIX begins sending the SIGDANGER signal to processes. The default value is 512.

Flag	Flag description
-W maxrandwrt	Specifies a threshold (in 4 KB pages) for random writes to accumulate in RAM before these pages are synchronized to disk using a write-behind algorithm. This threshold is on a per file basis.

An example of the use of the **vmtune** command is located in Section 10.6.2, "Tuning a system for sequential I/O" on page 246.

### 10.5 Controlling resource usage

The following sections describe various methods to limit the consumption of system resources.

### 10.5.1 Using the nice and renice commands

The nice and renice commands are used to change the priority of a process. The nice command runs another command at a different priority, while the renice command changes the priority of an already running process. The root user can increase or decrease the priority of any process. Other users can only decrease the priority of processes they own.

The following example shows the **nice** command running the **cc** command at a lower priority:

```
# nice -n 15 cc -c *.c
```

The following example shows the **renice** command lowering the priority of process ID 16304 by 5:

```
# renice -n -5 16304
```

### 10.5.2 Workload Manager

The Workload Manager (WLM) allows the system administrator to divide resources between jobs. WLM provides isolation between user communities with very different system behaviors. This can prevent effective starvation of workloads with certain characteristics, such as interactive or low CPU usage jobs, by workloads with other characteristics, such as batch or high memory usage jobs. CPU time, memory, and I/O bandwidth are managed separately. Therefore, different styles of applications can be managed.

AIX WLM delivers the basic ability to give system administrators more control over how scheduler, Virtual Memory Manager (VMM), and device driver calls allocate CPU, physical memory, and I/O bandwidth to a class-based user, group, application path, process type, or application tag.

The AIX WLM is an operating system feature introduced in AIX Version 4.3.3.

### 10.6 Logical volume performance

There are many factors that can affect the LVM, and therefore I/O performance. A few of these will be addressed here.

### 10.6.1 Logical volume fragmentation

Logical volume performance can degrade if logical partitions are not contiguous on physical volumes, due to the disk head having to skip along the disk surface. To check a logical volume for possible fragmentation, use the -m flag of the lslv command. The -m flag lists the following fields for each logical partition:

- **LP** Logical partition number.
- **PP1** First physical partition number allocated to the logical partition.
- **PV1** Physical volume name where the logical partition's first physical partition is located.
- **PP2** Second physical partition number allocated to the logical partition.
- **PV2** Physical volume name where the logical partition's second physical partition (first copy) is located.
- **PP3** Third physical partition number allocated to the logical partition.
- **PV3** Physical volume name where the logical partition's third physical partition (second copy) is located.

The following example shows the use of the 1s1v -m command:

Notice that LP1 is located in PP 228 of hdisk0 and LP2 is in PP 257 of hdisk0, which is 29 PPs away. Logical volume hd10opt is fragmented.

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.

The following example shows the use of the **reorgyg** command:

Notice that the two LPs are now contiguous on hdisk0, in PPs 276 and 277.

### 10.6.2 Tuning a system for sequential I/O

Two techniques to tune the I/O performance of workloads where the goal is high-performance reading and writing of large sequential files are striping, and VMM tuning.

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. A logical volume is configured to use striping by using either the **smitty chlv1** fast path or the **chlv** -e command to increase the Range setting.

In an ordinary logical volume, the data addresses correspond to the sequence of blocks in the underlying physical partitions. In a striped logical volume, the data addresses follow the sequence of stripe units. A complete stripe consists of one stripe unit on each of the physical devices that contains part of the striped logical volume. The LVM determines which physical blocks on which physical drives correspond to a block being read or written. If more than one drive is involved, the necessary I/O operations are scheduled for all drives simultaneously.

The second technique is to tune the VMM in favour of sequential I/O using the **vmtune** command. The recommended values for this tuning are:

minpgahead 2

maxpgahead 16 x number of disk drives

I/O requests Equal to maxpgahead

The maxfree and minfree settings should be done after doing some investigation using the <code>vmstat</code> command and then setting the system according to your system requirements. For a better understanding of tuning your AIX system, consult the <code>AIX Performance Tuning Guides</code>, which can be found in the AIX product documentation and at the following Web site:

```
http://www.ibm.com/servers/aix/library
```

For this example, use a value of 128:

minfree 128

maxfree minfree + maxpgahead

For this section, assume the following devices exist:

```
# lspv
hdisk0 000919746edab91f rootvg
hdisk1 0009197459d92f2e uservg
hdisk2 00091974d381d097 uservg
```

Your system has three disk drives; using the recommended values described for logical volume striping, your values would be:

```
minpgahead 2
maxpgahead 48 (3x16)
minfree 128
maxfree 176 (48 + 128)
```

To set the system up with these parameters, enter:

```
/usr/samples/kernel/vmtune -f 128 -F 144 -r 2 -R 176
```

To make these changes permanent, enter the above line into /etc/inittab.

### 10.7 Paging space management

Paging space requirements are unique for each system, depending upon the kind of applications running and/or the number of active users.

### 10.7.1 Low paging space

If any of the following messages appear on the console or in response to a command on any terminal, it indicates a low paging space:

```
"INIT: Paging space is low"
"ksh: cannot fork no swap space"
"Not enough memory"
"Fork function failed"
```

```
"fork () system call failed"
"Unable to fork, too many processes"
"Fork failure - not enough memory available"
"Fork function not allowed. Not enough memory available."
"Cannot fork: Not enough space"
```

### 10.7.2 Paging space tips

The following tips, in general, will help in creating or increasing the paging space:

- ▶ Do not allocate more than one paging space logical volume on a physical volume. All processes started during the boot process are allocated paging space on the default paging space logical volume (hd6). After the additional paging space logical volumes are activated, paging space is allocated in a round robin manner in 4 KB blocks. If you have paging space on multiple physical volumes and have more than one paging space on one physical volume, you are no longer spreading paging activity over multiple physical volumes.
- Avoid putting a paging space logical volume on a heavily active logical volume, for example, a volume that is being used by a database. It is not necessary to put a paging space logical volume on each physical volume.
- ► Make each paging space logical volume roughly equal in size. If you have paging spaces of different sizes, and the smaller ones become full, you will no longer be spreading your paging activity across all of the physical volumes.
- ▶ Do not extend a paging space logical volume onto multiple physical volumes. If a paging space logical volume is spread over multiple physical volumes, you will not be spreading paging activity across all the physical volumes. If you want to allocate space for paging on a physical volume that does not already have a paging space logical volume, create a new paging space logical volume on that physical volume.
- ► For the best performance on a system having multiple disk controllers, allocate paging space logical volumes on physical volumes that are each attached to a different disk controller.
- ► The default paging space may be altered while in maintenance mode.

### 10.7.3 Managing default paging space (hd6)

The AIX installation defaults to a paging logical volume (hd6) on drive hdisk0, that contains part or all of the busy / (root) and /usr file systems.

A special procedure is required for removing the default paging space (hd6). These paging spaces are activated during boot time by shell scripts that configure the system. To remove one of the default paging spaces, these scripts must be altered and a new boot image must be created.

### Reducing the size of hd6 paging space

The following example shows the steps involved in reducing the size of hd6 paging space from 160 MB to 120 MB. The steps in the following procedures are all necessary, even those not directly related to the hd6 paging space. The additional steps are needed because a paging space cannot be deactivated while the system is running

#### Note:

- ► AIX Version 4.2.1 and later does not support reducing the size of hd6 below 32 MB or the system will not boot.
- ► If you decide to reduce hd6, you must leave enough space for the software in rootvg. A rule of thumb for reducing hd6 paging space on systems prior to AIX 4.3.2 is to leave enough space to match physical memory. To find out the amount of physical memory, use the following command:

```
lsattr -E -l sys0 -a realmem
```

 Create a temporary paging space on rootvg by executing the following command:

```
mkps -a -n -s 30 rootvg hdisk0
```

This command outputs the name of the paging space (paging00 if no others exist).

2. Use the following command to deactivate the hd6 paging spaces in preparation for the reboot later in the procedure:

```
chps -a n hd6
```

3. Change the paging space entry in the /sbin/rc.boot file from:

```
swapon /dev/hd6
```

to

swapon /dev/paging00.

4. Run the following command to check the primary dump device designation:

5. If the primary dump device is hd6, change it to some other paging space. The following command shows how to change the primary dump device to paging00:

# sysdumpdev -P -p /dev/paging00
primary /dev/paging00
secondary /dev/sysdumpnull
copy directory /var/adm/ras
forced copy flag
always allow dump FALSE

6. Create a bootable image with the **bosboot** command for a hard disk image:

bosboot -d /dev/hdisk0 -a

7. Put the system key (if present) in the normal position and use the following command, which will both shutdown the operating system and reboot it:

shutdown -r

8. After the system reboots, remove the hd6 paging space:

rmps hd6

9. Create a new paging space logical volume of the size 120 MB for the hd6 paging space:

mklv -t paging -y hd6 rootvg 30

- 10. Use the lsps -a command to verify the reduced size of default paging space (hd6).
- 11. Change the primary dump device designation back to be the paging space hd6:

sysdumpdev -P -p /dev/hd6

12. Change the paging space entry in the /sbin/rc.boot file from

swapon /dev/paging00
to
swapon /dev/hd6.

13. Create a bootable image with the **bosboot** command for a hard disk image:

bosboot -d /dev/hdisk0 -a

14. Execute the following command to make the new hd6 paging space automatically activated when the system reboots:

```
chps -a y hd6
```

15. Execute the following command to change the attribute of temporary paging space, paging00, so that it does not automatically activate after next reboot:

```
chps -a n paging00
```

16. Put the system key (if present) in the normal position and use the following command, to shutdown and reboot the system:

```
shutdown -r
```

17. After the system reboots, remove the temporary paging space:

```
rmps paging00
```

#### Reducing hd6 in AIX 5L Version 5.1

You can use the **chps** -d command to dynamically reduce the size of the primary paging space hd6. If you decrease the primary paging space, a temporary boot image and a temporary /sbin/rc.boot pointing to a temporary primary paging space will be created to make sure the system is always in a state where it can be safely rebooted.

**Note:** The **chps -d** command will prevent you from decreasing the size of hd6 below 32 MB or actually deleting it.

### Moving the hd6 paging space to another volume group

Moving a paging space with the name hd6 from rootvg to another volume group is not recommended, because the name is hard-coded in several places.

Only the paging spaces in rootvg will be active during the second phase of the boot process, and having no paging space in rootvg could severely affect system boot performance. If you want the majority of paging space on other volume groups, it is better to make hd6 as small as possible (the same size as physical memory) and then create larger paging spaces on other volume groups.

### Moving the hd6 paging space within the same VG

Moving the default paging space from hdisk0 to a different disk within the same volume group does not require system reboot.

The following example shows the command used to move the default (hd6) paging space from hdisk0 to hdisk1:

```
migratepv -1 hd6 hdisk0 hdisk1
```

This may take a few minutes, depending upon the size of paging space.

### 10.7.4 Dynamically deactivating paging space

AIX 5L Version 5.1 introduces the **swapoff** command, which deactivates paging spaces without requiring a reboot.

The swapoff command syntax is as follows:

```
# swapoff DeviceName { DeviceName ... }
```

Use the command swapoff /dev/paging03 to deactivate paging space paging03, or use the SMIT fast path smitty swapoff, as shown in Figure 10-4.

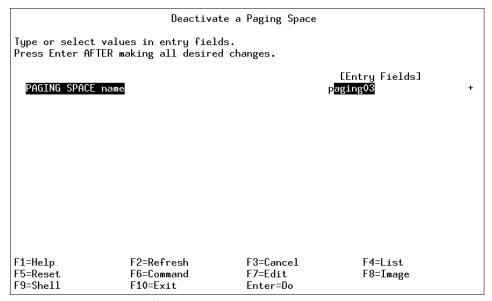


Figure 10-4 smitty swapoff command

**Note:** It is necessary to move all pages in use on the paging space being deactivated to other paging spaces, so there must be enough space available in the other active paging spaces.

### 10.8 Quiz

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

- 1. A system administrator responding to user response time complaints has narrowed down the problem to poor I/O response time. What command should the administrator issue to determine if a particular logical volume is fragmented?
  - A. defragfs -q file system name
  - B. 1slv -m logical volume name
  - C. 1svg -1 volume group name
  - D. fileplace -p file name
- 2. A system administrator is notified by users of a system that the response time on the server is unacceptable and that they suspect the network is a bottleneck. What command can the administrator run to view the number of packets and the number of bytes being transmitted and received on the en0 interface?
  - A. topas -i 10
  - B. netstat -in
  - C. vmstat -s 10
  - D. netstat -I en0 10
- 3. A system performs large batch-type jobs with mostly sequential I/O. The system memory is not fully committed. What vmtune settings should be changed to increase sequential read throughput?
  - A. maxperm and minperm
  - B. maxpin and numfsbufs
  - C. maxpgahead and minfree
  - D. maxrandwrt and minpgahead

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. A client needs more disk space for another volume group and has decided to use hdisk12 from the uservg volume group. The client realizes that paging space, paging12, must first be removed from hdisk12. Which of the following is the correct sequence of events?
  - A. chps -an paging12, reboot, rmps paging12
  - B. swapoff paging12, rmps paging12
  - C. swapoff paging12, reboot, rmps paging12
  - D. chps -an paging12, swapoff paging12, rmps paging12
- 2. A customer would like to remove an unneeded, but active, paging space called paging00. What is proper sequence of steps to accomplish this?
  - A. Remove the paging space with the **rmps** command and reboot the system.
  - B. Disable the paging space with the **chps** command, reboot the system and remove the paging00 logical volume with the **rmps** command.
  - C. Disable the paging space with the **chps** command, remove the paging00 logical volume with the **rmps** command, and reboot the system.
  - D. Disable the paging space with the **chps** command, reboot the system and remove the paging00 logical volume with the **rm1v** command.
- 3. Company ABC has sent a technical specialist to a customer site in response to a complaint about slow system performance. The technical specialist verified unusually slow performance on the customer's system, and is attempting to find the source of the problem using the vmstat command. Given the output of the vmstat command below, what is the most likely cause of the performance problem?

kth	kthr memo		nory			pa	ge		f	cpu						
r	b	avm	fre	re	рi	ро	fr	sr	су	in	sy	CS	us	sy	id	wa
0	0	5311	48642	0	0	0	0	0	0	102	4	11	0	0	99	0
0	1	52197	1756	0	0	0	0	0	0	206	157	26	28	12	0	60
0	1	51192	2751	0	0	0	0	0	0	204	24	22	22	12	0	66

- A. High user process activity
- B. Excessive system paging
- C. Poor disk drive I/O response time
- D. Excessive system CPU interrupts

4. A system administrator runs the **vmstat** command due to system performance problems. The output of **vmstat** is shown below. What can be concluded from this output?

kth	thr memory				page						faults				cpu			
r	b	avm	fre	re	рi	ро	fr	sr	су	in	sy	CS	us	sy	id	wa		
2	0	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	103	52	14	44	46	9	0		
2	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	251	29	45	45	9	0		
3	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	120	29	46	47	7	0		
5	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	206	120	29	43	55	2	0		
4	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	131	32	49	48	3	0		

- A. The CPU is not sufficient for the load.
- B. The machine needs a memory upgrade.
- C. The machine needs a FDDI card installed.
- D. A user program is causing unnecessary paging.
- 5. A system administrator is experiencing performance problems and runs the vmstat command. The output of vmstat is shown below. What can be concluded from this output?

kthr memory			page					faults			cpu					
r	b	avm	fre	re	рi	ро	fr	sr	су	in	sy	CS	us	sy	id	wa
2	0	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	103	52	14	14	16	0	69
2	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	251	29	12	11	0	67
3	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	120	29	9	11	0	80
5	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	206	120	29	13	5	0	79
4	1	9200	11027	0	0	0	0	0	0	207	131	32	9	8	0	72

- A. The machine is I/O bound.
- B. The machine needs its memory optimized.
- C. The machine needs a FDDI card installed.
- D. A user program is causing unnecessary paging.
- 6. The system administrator for Company XYZ is monitoring a system that has recently shown a decrease in performance. What is the best tool to identify where a performance bottleneck may exist?
  - A. 1sps
  - B. errpt
  - C. symon
  - D. vmstat

7. A system has a 128-port controller with 130 TTYs configured total for the system and the terminal input and output is slowing down. The console is exhibiting the same behavior. Systems support runs the **netstat**, **vmstat**, and **ps aux** commands. Based on the outputs of these commands, what needs to be done to remedy the problem?

# vmstat

kth	othr memory				page					faults			cpu			
r	b	avm	fre	re	рi	ро	fr	sr	су	in	sy	CS	us	sy	id	wa
0	0	9778	1262	0	0	0	0	0	0	161	72	32	10	15	75	0
0	0	9778	1261	0	0	0	0	0	0	171	161	38	11	20	69	0
0	0	9778	1261	0	0	0	0	0	0	162	119	32	11	20	69	0
0	0	9778	1261	0	0	0	0	0	0	163	119	32	12	20	68	0
0	0	9778	1261	0	0	0	0	0	0	164	120	33	11	20	69	0

# netstat

16 mbufs in use:

0 mbuf cluster pages in use

4 Kbytes allocated to mbufs

110 requests for mbufs denied

O calls to protocol drain routines

O sockets not created because sockthresh was reached

# ps aux

USER	PID	%CPU	%MEM	SZ	RSS	TTY S	STAT STIME	TIME COMMAND
root	516	99.1	0.0	4	8	- A	Jul 27	2851:18 kproc
root	14474	1.1	1.0	980	1180	- A	08:01:48	1:09
/usr/dt/	bin/dt	ter						
root	1032	0.2	0.0	316	232	- A	Jul 27	6:51 kproc
root	2258	0.2	1.0	964	1148	- A	08:01:13	0:14
/usr/dt/	bin/dt	ter						
user1	2364	0.1	5.0	5468	4768	- A	Jul 27	2:02
/usr/lpp	/X11/b	in/						
root	5676	0.0	0.0	116	184	- A	Jul 27	1:11 ./sapd
root	4154	0.0	0.0	84	96	- A	Jul 27	0:53
/usr/sbi	n/sync	d 6						
root	0	0.0	0.0	8	12	- A	Jul 27	0:31 swapper
root	4044	0.0	2.0	1808	2008	- A	08:00:43	0:01 dtwm
root	1	0.0	0.0	384	436	- A	Jul 27	0:07 /etc/init
root	7740	0.0	1.0	980	1132	- A	Jul 27	0:04
/usr/sbin/snmpd								
root	774	0.0	0.0	12	16	- A	Jul 27	0:03 kproc
user2	3376	0.0	0.0	432	428	- A	Jul 27	0:02
/usr/dt/	bin/dt	log						

user2	8796	0.0	0.0	232	312	-	Α	Jul	27	0:01
/usr/sbin	/cron									
root	7998	0.0	0.0	272	260	-	Α	Jul	27	0:01
/usr/sbin	/tftpd	-								
root	5196	0.0	1.0	456	532	-	Α	Jul	27	0:01
/usr/bin/	cnsvie	W								
imnadm	12132	0.0	2.0	1756	1808	-	Α	Jul	27	0:00
/usr/IMNS	earch/	ht								

- A. Add another paging space.
- B. Increase the value of thewall.
- C. Increase the size of paging space.
- D. Run kill -9 on the PID of the kproc process.
- 8. A customer is experiencing performance problems and runs the **vmstat** command. The output of **vmstat** is shown below. What can be concluded from this output?

kthr memory			page					faults			cpu					
r	<b></b> b	avm	fre	re	pi	ро	fr	sr	су	in	sy	cs	us	sy	id	wa
1	0	9200	27	0	87	89	0	0	0	103	52	14	10	15	9	65
2	1	9200	22	0	136	122	0	0	0	207	251	29	9	12	8	71
3	1	9200	19	0	112	107	0	0	0	207	120	29	11	9	7	73
5	1	9200	17	0	99	122	0	0	0	206	120	29	12	8	8	72

- A. The machine needs a CPU upgrade.
- B. Another ATM card needs to be added.
- C. The paging space needs to be optimized.
- D. A user program is causing a system loop.

9. A customer is experiencing performance problems and runs the **iostat** command. The output of the **iostat** command is shown below. What should be recommended?

tty: iowait	tin	tou	ıt avg-c	pu: % us	er % sy	s % idle	%
	0.0	170.	2	7.1	12.1	0.8	80.0
Disks:	%	tm act	Kbps	tps	Kb read	Kb wrtn	
hdisk0		0.0	0.0	0.0	_ 0	_ 0	
hdisk1		0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0	
cd0		55.9	622.4	155.6	1250	8	
tty: iowait	tin	tou	ıt avg-c	pu: % us	er % sy	s % idle	%
	0.0	170	.2	5.3	1 14.1	0.8	80.0
Disks:	%	tm act	Kbps	tps	Kb read	Kb wrtn	
hdisk0		0.5	2.0	0.5	_ 4	_ 0	
hdisk1		0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0	
cd0		55.9	622.4	155.6	1270	0	

- A. A user program needs optimizing.
- B. Another ATM card needs to be added.
- C. The CD-ROM needs to be removed from the configuration.
- D. Space permitting, the volume mounted on the CD-ROM should be moved to a disk.

### **10.8.1 Answers**

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. A
- 3. C

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. B
- 3. C
- 4. A
- 5. A
- 6. D

- 7. B
- 8. C
- 9. D

### 10.9 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Execute the **iostat** command on the system and analyze the output for CPU statistics, and disk statistics.
- 2. Execute the **vmstat** command on the system and analyze the output for CPU statistics and paging activity.
- 3. Determine the I/O for persistent storage on your system using the vmstat -s command.
- 4. Increase the default paging space (hd6) on the system by 5 MB and then reduce the size of the default paging space by 5 MB. How many system reboots are required to accomplish this task?



# **Networking**

A network is the combination of two or more computers and the connecting links between them. A physical network is the hardware (equipment such as adapter cards, cables, and concentrators) that makes up the network. The software and the conceptual model make up the logical network.

You will find important aspects of network support on systems in this section, including modifying network adapters and interfaces, performance tuning, and network troubleshooting. Note that this does not present the full scope of network support, but provides a useful starting point for support professionals.

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### 11.1 Adapters, interfaces, and configuration problems

In AIX, most forms of system-to-system and system-to-network communication is done through the use of adapters and interfaces. Adapters are physical components of systems (hardware) that actively broadcast system information to other systems or networks. Examples of this include Ethernet and token ring PCI adapter cards. Interfaces are definitions within the system that refer information to adapters or other internal components. Examples of this include a token ring network interface or the loopback interface. This section describes some common tasks and problems you will encounter while performing network adapter and interface support.

### 11.1.1 Adding a network adapter

To add a network adapter to the system, perform the following steps:

**Note:** You should perform this procedure during a system maintenance window, as this procedure will require the shutdown of the system and may interfere with the work of users on the system.

 Examine what network adapters and interfaces are already on the system by running the following commands:

```
# lscfg | grep -i adapter
          20-58
+ mq20
                                   GXT130P Graphics Adapter
+ fda0
                01-D1
                                   Standard I/O Diskette Adapter
* siokma0
                01-K1
                                   Keyboard/Mouse Adapter
               01-K1-00
01-K1-01
+ sioka0
                                   Keyboard Adapter
+ sioma0
                                   Mouse Adapter
                01-R1
                                   Standard I/O Parallel Port Adapter
+ ppa0
+ tok0
                  10-68
                                   IBM PCI Tokenring Adapter (14103e00)
                  10-80
                                   IBM PCI Ethernet Adapter (22100020)
+ ent0
# lsdev -Cc if
enO Defined 10-80 Standard Ethernet Network Interface
etO Defined 10-80 IEEE 802.3 Ethernet Network Interface
loO Available
                  Loopback Network Interface
trO Available 10-68 Token Ring Network Interface
```

- 2. Shut down and power off the system (for systems without hot plug cards).
- 3. Physically install the new network adapter.
- Power on the system in normal mode.
- 5. When the system is fully up, run the **cfgmgr** command. This will automatically detect the network adapter and add network interfaces for the adapter.

**Note:** After running **cfgmgr**, you may receive an error message as in the following example:

If a message such as this appears, you will need to install the additional filesets listed to enable the network adapter on the system.

6. Run the following commands to confirm the network adapter has been properly added to the system:

```
# lscfg |grep -i adapter
+ mg20
                  20-58
                                    GXT130P Graphics Adapter
                  20-60
+ ent1
                                    Gigabit Ethernet-SX PCI Adapter
+ fda0
                01-D1
                                    Standard I/O Diskette Adapter
              01-K1
01-K1-00
01-K1-01
* siokma0
                                    Keyboard/Mouse Adapter
+ siokaO
                                    Keyboard Adapter
+ sioma0
                                   Mouse Adapter
+ ppa0
                01-R1
                                   Standard I/O Parallel Port Adapter
              10-68
+ tok0
                                   IBM PCI Tokenring Adapter (14103e00)
                 10-80
                                    IBM PCI Ethernet Adapter (22100020)
+ ent0
# 1sdev -Cc if
enO Defined 10-80 Standard Ethernet Network Interface
enl Defined 20-60 Standard Ethernet Network Interface
etO Defined 10-80 IEEE 802.3 Ethernet Network Interface
et1 Defined 20-60 IEEE 802.3 Ethernet Network Interface
loO Available
                  Loopback Network Interface
trO Available 10-68 Token Ring Network Interface
```

### 11.1.2 Removing a network adapter

To remove a network adapter from the system, use the **ifconfig** command to remove the network adapter and interface definitions from the system prior to physically removing the network adapter. The **ifconfig** command allows you to perform configurations and modifications directly to network interfaces. The general syntax of the **ifconfig** command is as follows:

```
ifconfig Interface [ AddressFamily [ Address [ DestinationAddress ] ] [Parameters...]
```

Table 11-1 is a list of common command parameters and their functions for the **ifconfig** command.

Table 11-1 Command parameters for ifconfig

Parameter	Description
alias	Establishes an additional network address for the interface.
delete	Removes the specified network address from the interface.
detach	Removes an interface from the network interface list.
down	Marks an interface as inactive (down), which keeps the system from trying to transmit messages through that interface.
mtu <i>Value</i>	Sets the maximum IP packet size to <i>Value</i> bytes, (maximum transmission unit), ranging from 60 to 65535.
netmask <i>Mask</i>	Specifies how much of the address to reserve for subdividing networks into subnetworks.
up	Marks an interface as active (up).

To remove a network adapter, perform the following steps:

**Note:** Before performing this procedure, make sure that no applications or processes still use the network adapter or network interfaces associated with the network adapter you intend to remove. This can potentially cause system problems if the applications and processes on the system attempt to use network adapters or interfaces that are no longer present on the system.

You should perform this procedure during a system maintenance window, as this procedure may require the shutdown of the system and may interfere with the work of users on the system.

1. Deactivate (down) all network interface definitions for the network adapter by running the command:

# ifconfig Interface down

This step is technically not required, but is a good failsafe to ensure that no applications or processes are using the specified network interfaces.

2. Remove (detach) all network interface definitions from the network interface list by running the command:

# ifconfig *Interface* detach

This step will remove all attributes associated with the network interface from the system, including attributes like IP address and MTU size.

Delete the network interface definitions from the system by running the command:

```
# rmdev -1 Interface -d
```

Delete the network adapter definition from the system by running the command:

```
# rmdev -1 Adapter -d
```

- 5. Shut down and power off the system (on non hot plug machines).
- 6. Physically remove the network adapter.
- 7. Power on the system.

**Note:** If you do not physically remove the network adapter before powering on the system, the **cfgmgr** program will detect the network adapter during the system boot, unless it is an ISA adapter, and redefine the device in the Customized Devices object database.

### 11.1.3 Adapter and interface configuration problems

Network adapters that are properly added to your system may have difficulty communicating to other systems or networks, although all the hardware appears to be functioning correctly. These problems can be caused by incorrect adapter and interface configuration.

### Ring and media speed configuration problems

Both Ethernet and token ring adapters communicate at a certain rate of data throughput called the ring or media speed. For token ring adapters, communication is done at either a 4 or 16 Mbps ring speed. For most Ethernet adapters, communication is done at either a 10 or 100 Mbps ring speed in one of two modes: full duplex or half duplex.

An incorrect ring or media speed will prevent the system from communicating with other systems or networks. Some symptoms of a problem due to incorrect ring or media speed may include:

- ► Connection timeouts (telnet)
- No packet transmission or response (ping)
- Unusual pauses and hangs when initializing communication daemons (inetd)

To correct ring or media speed problems, perform the following steps:

1. Obtain the proper ring or media speed from your network administrator.

2. Remove (detach) all network interfaces for the network adapter by running the command:

# ifconfig *Interface* detach

**Note:** Removing all network interfaces by using the detach parameter will remove all configuration for the network interfaces, including IP addresses and MTU size definitions. You should keep a copy of all necessary configuration for the network interfaces for reconfiguration after the ring or media speed is changed.

3. To change the ring speed for a token ring adapter, run the command **smitty chgtok** (for changing the media speed for an Ethernet adapter, go to step 6). You will see a submenu similar to the one shown in Figure 11-1.

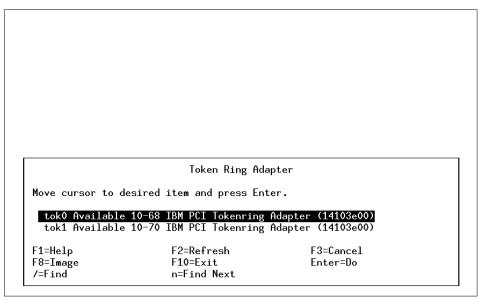


Figure 11-1 Token Ring Adapter submenu

Use the arrow keys to select the adapter you want, and press Enter.

4. On the following screen, you will see a menu similar to the one in Figure 11-2 on page 267.

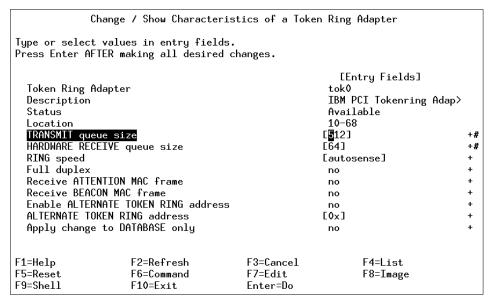


Figure 11-2 Change/Show Characteristics of a Token Ring Adapter menu

Use the arrow keys to select the RING speed field, and press F4.

5. A submenu will pop up, providing the ring speed options, similar to the one shown in Figure 11-3.

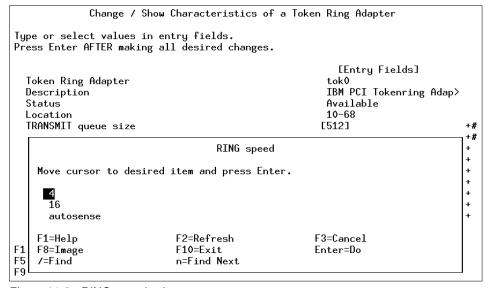


Figure 11-3 RING speed submenu

Select the ring speed you want, and press Enter. Press Enter again to change the ring speed for the token ring adapter.

6. To change the media speed for an Ethernet adapter, run the command **smitty chgenet**. You will see a submenu similar to the one shown in Figure 11-4.

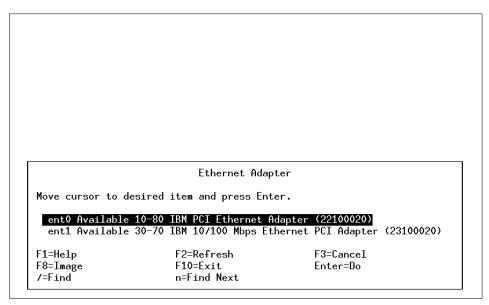


Figure 11-4 Ethernet Adapter submenu

Use the arrow keys to select the adapter you want, and press Enter.

7. On the following screen, you will see a menu similar to the one shown in Figure 11-5 on page 269.

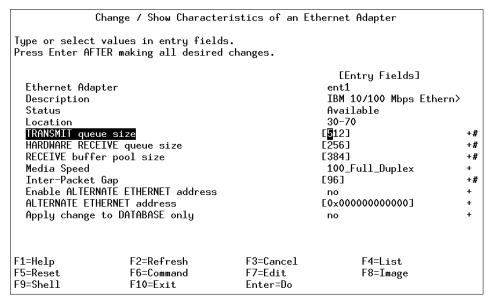


Figure 11-5 Change/Show Characteristics of an Ethernet Adapter menu

Use the arrow keys to select the Media Speed field, and press F4.

8. A submenu will pop up, providing the ring speed options, similar to the one shown in Figure 11-6.

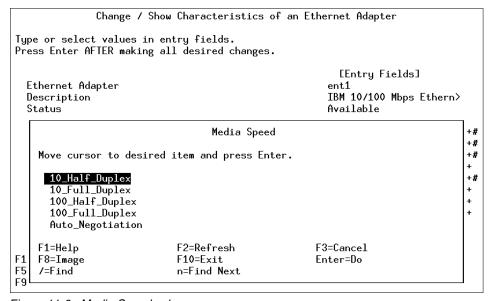


Figure 11-6 Media Speed submenu

Select the media speed you want, and press Enter. Press Enter again to change the media speed for the Ethernet adapter.

# Cable type configuration problems

Ethernet adapters can use several different types of cable connections, such as bnc or dix. If the cable type is set incorrectly, the system may not be able to communicate properly.

To set the cable type, run **smitty tcpip** and, in the Minimum Configuration & Startup menu, select the Ethernet interface you want to change. A screen similar to the one shown in Figure 11-7 will appear.

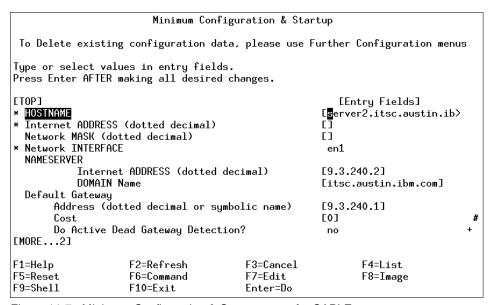


Figure 11-7 Minimum Configuration & Startup menu for CABLE type

Scroll down using the arrow keys to the Your CABLE Type field and press F4. A submenu similar to the one shown in Figure 11-8 on page 271 will pop up.

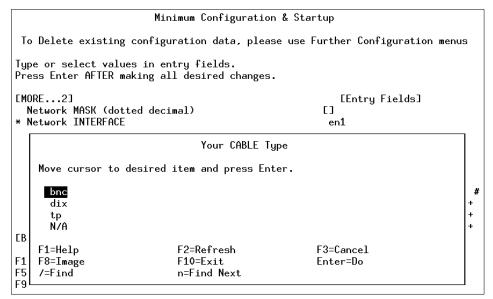


Figure 11-8 Your CABLE Type submenu

Use the arrow keys to select your cable type, and press Enter. Press Enter again to change the cable type for the Ethernet definition.

## **Network interface MTU size problems**

When messages are transmitted through a network interface, they travel in bundles of information called packets. These packets can vary in length from 60 bytes to 65535 bytes per packet. By default, a 16 Mb token-ring interface will transmit packets that are 1492 bytes long, and Ethernet interfaces will transmit packets that are 1500 bytes long. For AIX systems, these packets are governed by the maximum transmission unit (MTU) size variable.

**Note:** The minimum and maximum MTU sizes for specific interfaces may vary. See "Automatic Configuration of Network Interfaces" in the *AIX 5L Version 5.1 System Management Guide: Communications and Networks* for more information. This guide can be found at:

http://www.ibm.com/servers/aix/library

All systems on the same local area network must have the same MTU size to communicate properly. If a system has an incorrect MTU size, packets from other systems may not reach their target systems due to packet collisions.

To determine the MTU size for a network interface, run the command:

```
# lsattr -El Interface
```

The output will look similar to the following:

The **ifconfig** command can adjust the MTU size for a network interface. To change the MTU size, run the command:

```
# ifconfig Interface mtu Value
```

For example, to change the MTU size of tr1 to 12000 bytes in length, run the command:

```
# ifconfig tr1 mtu 12000
```

The chdev command can also change the MTU size by running:

```
# chdev -1 Interface -a mtu=Value
```

**Note:** The MTU size cannot be changed while the interface is in use. The interface must first be deactivated (down) before the MTU size can be changed.

# 11.2 TCP/IP

TCP/IP is a peer-to-peer, connection-oriented protocol for system-to-system and system-to-network communications. TCP/IP has no master/slave relations between systems and networks. TCP/IP applications, however, use a client/server model for communications.

### 11.2.1 TCP/IP initialization

During the IPL process when a system is booted, the init process will start TCP/IP by running the /etc/rc.tcpip script after starting the SRC. The /etc/rc.tcpip script uses SRC commands to initialize selected daemons.

Most of the daemons that can be initialized by the /etc/rc.tcpip file are specific to TCP/IP. These daemons are:

**inetd** Provides Internet service management for a network; started by default.

**gated** Provides gateway routing functions for all TCP/IP protocols, such as SNMP and ICMP.

**routed** Implements the Routing Information Protocol (RIP).

**named** Provides services for the Domain Name Protocol (DOMAIN).

**timed** Synchronizes one machine's clock with those of other machines on the LAN that are also running the timed daemon.

**rwhod** Maintains the database used by the **rwho** and **ruptime** commands.

**Note:** Running the gated and routed daemons at the same time on a host may cause unpredictable results.

There are also daemons specific to the base operating system or to other applications that can be started through the /etc/rc.tcpip file. These daemons are:

**Ipd** Provides the remote print server, monitoring port 515 for print requests.

**portmap** Knows the location of every registered port on the host and which programs are available on each of these ports.

**sendmail** Receives formatted text messages and routes the messages to one or more users (mail).

**syslogd** Reads a datagram socket and sends each message line to a destination described by the /etc/syslog.conf configuration file; started by default.

**Note:** If /etc/rc.tcpip is not initialized by /etc/inittab at boot time, and you have a graphics console, ensure that the /etc/rc.dt entry in /etc/inittab is also not initialized at boot time. If /etc/rc.dt has not been commented out or removed from /etc/inittab, your console will hang when you try to log in and you will not be able to recover, as extra-system communication (telnet, rlogin) will not have been initialized.

# 11.2.2 Starting and stopping TCP/IP daemons

Any TCP/IP daemon that is initialized by /etc/rc.tcpip during the system boot can be stopped by running the command:

# stopsrc -s Daemon

To stop all TCP/IP daemons, run the command:

# stopsrc -g tcpip

To stop TCP/IP daemons and remove the TCP/IP /etc/locks/lpd lock files, run the command:

# /etc/tcp.clean

To start a specific TCP/IP daemon, run the command:

# startsrc -s Daemon

To start all TCP/IP daemons that are normally started during the IPL process when a system is booted, run the command:

# /etc/rc.tcpip

**Note:** Do *not* restart TCP/IP daemons using the command:

startsrc -g tcpip

It will start all subsystems defined in the ODM for the tcpip group, which includes both routed and gated.

#### 11.2.3 The inetd daemon

The inetd daemon provides Internet service management for a network. This daemon reduces system load by invoking other daemons only when they are needed and by providing several simple Internet services internally without invoking other daemons. By default, the subservers (daemons) started by inetd are:

enabled this service with the biff command.

(DARPA) Internet File Transfer Protocol (FTP) server process.

# **fingerd** Provides an interface to the **finger** command at several network

sites. The **finger** command returns a status report on either the

system or a user on the system.

**rlogind** Provides services for the **rlogin** remote login command.

**rexecd** Provides services for the **rexec** remote execute command.

**rshd** Provides services for the **rcp** and **rsh** commands for remote

execution of shell commands.

**talkd** Provides services that notifies a user (the recipient) that another user

(the caller) wants to initiate a conversation by the talk command.

telnetd Serves as the DARPA standard Telnet Protocol (TELNET) server

communication process.

**tftpd** Runs the Trivial File Transfer Protocol (TFTP) server.

**uucpd** Enables users of systems linked by the Basic Networking Utilities

(BNU) program to establish a TCP/IP connection to other systems

linked over a network.

For example, when a user attempts to establish a telnet connection to a system running the inetd daemon, the telnetd daemon will be initialized by the inetd daemon upon connection request. Otherwise, the telnetd daemon will not be running on the system until a connection request is made.

By default, the tftpd, fingerd, and comsat daemons are not started by inetd. To enable them, remove the # (pound) sign in front of the service you wish to enable, and run the command:

# refresh -s inetd

### 11.2.4 Errors with the inetd daemon and subservers

The ping command sends an Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) ECHO\_REQUEST packet from a system to obtain an ICMP ECHO\_RESPONSE packet from another system. The ping command can be used to see if another system is on a network, or to measure the amount of time it takes information (packets) to be sent or received from a particular system.

If the inetd daemon is not initialized by /etc/rc.tcpip, other systems will not be able to establish network communications using services such as Telnet or FTP to your system, although they will be able to <code>ping</code> and successfully receive ICMP ECHO\_REPONSE packets back from your system. However, as long as the network interface has not been brought down (deactivated) on your system, you can still utilize the client network services to Telnet, FTP, and <code>ping</code> to other systems.

If the inetd daemon has been initialized by /etc/rc.tcpip and other systems are able to **ping** your system, but they are unable to issue to establish Telnet connections to your system, your system may have a problem with the amount of pseudo-terminals available.

By default, when an rlogin, telnet, or rsh command opens a session on a system, or when a window with a shell is opened on a graphical system console (aixterm), the system spawns a pseudo-terminal session. If the maximum amount of pseudo-terminals on the system are being used, any subsequent attempts to spawn a new pseudo-terminal will hang.

The maximum amount of pseudo terminals can be changed by running the command **smitty chapty**. A sample screen is shown in Figure 11-9.

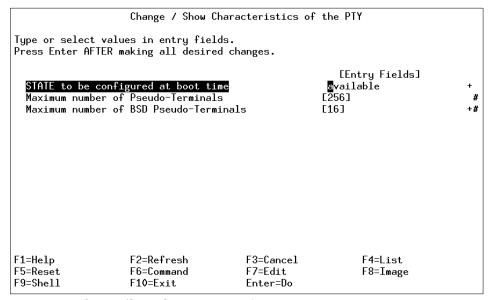


Figure 11-9 Change/Show Characteristics of the PTY menu

By default, systems have 256 pseudo-terminals available. To change this value, use the arrow keys to go to the Maximum number of Pseudo-Terminals field and type in how many pseudo-terminals you want to enable. Press Enter to change the maximum number of pseudo-terminals.

**Note:** More pseudo-terminals will use more memory and resources as pseudo-terminals are opened.

# 11.3 IP addressing, gateways, and subnetting

Internet Protocol (IP) addressing and subnetting allows systems to communicate with each other and to other systems or networks across the TCP/IP network. IP addresses are unique identifiers for systems, routers, and other network devices that send and receive information across the TCP/IP network. Gateways are systems that handle the routing of information to other systems and networks. Subnets are ways of grouping systems by IP addresses into common sub-networks for communication ease.

### 11.3.1 IP addresses

A standard IPv4 address field has two parts: a network address and a local address. This IP address is 32-bits in length grouped eight bits at a time, separated in decimal format, such as 207.25.253.26. These addresses are broken down into one of five classes, A, B, C, D, or E, based upon their network address (as shown in Table 11-2).

Table 11-2 IPv4 address classes

IP address class	Format	First octet	Address range	Number bits network / host	Number of hosts
А	N.H.H.H	0	1.0.0.0 127.0.0.0	7 / 24	2 <sup>24</sup> - 2
В	N.N.H.H	10	128.1.0.0 191.254.0.0	14 / 16	2 <sup>16</sup> - 2
С	N.N.N.H	110	192.0.1.0 223.255.254.0	22 / 8	2 <sup>8</sup> - 2
D	-	1110	224.0.0.0 239.255.255.255	-	-

N - Network number

#### The netstat command

To view information about network information and IP addresses on your system, run the **netstat** command. The syntax of the **netstat** command is as follows:

```
netstat [ -n ] [ { -A -a } | { -r -C -i -I Interface } ] [ -f AddressFamily]
[ -p Protocol ] [ Interval ] [ System ]
```

Table 11-3 is a list of common command flags and their descriptions for the **netstat** command.

Table 11-3 Command flags for netstat

Flag	Description
-a	Shows the state of all sockets. Without this flag, sockets used by server processes are not shown.
-i	Shows the state of all configured interfaces.
-m	Shows statistics recorded by the memory management routines.

H - Host number

Flag	Description
-n	Shows network addresses as numbers. When this flag is not specified, the <b>netstat</b> command interprets addresses where possible and displays them symbolically. This flag can be used with any of the display formats.
-p Protocol	Shows statistics about the value specified for the <i>Protocol</i> variable, which is either a well-known name for a protocol or an alias for it, like tcp or udp.
-r	Shows the routing tables. When used with the -s flag, the -r flag shows routing statistics.
-S	Shows statistics for each protocol.

For example, to view a simple routing table containing IP addresses of network interfaces, run the command:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
                                  Flags
                                          Refs
                                                   Use If
                                                             PMTU Exp Groups
                Gateway
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
9.3.1/24
                9.3.1.141
                                  U
                                                  1265 tr0
                                           11
127/8
                127.0.0.1
                                  U
                                            2
                                                   382 100
192.168.0/16
                192.168.3.1
                                  U
                                            0
                                                     4 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
                ::1
                                  UH
                                            0
                                                     0 100 16896
```

To view information about network interfaces, including MTU size, IP address, and the amount of packets being transmitted through the network interface, run the command:

```
# netstat -in
Name Mtu
           Network
                       Address
                                         Ipkts Ierrs
                                                        Opkts Oerrs Coll
100
     16896 link#1
                                             340
                                                     0
                                                            341
                                                                    0
                                                                         0
    16896 127
                       127.0.0.1
                                             340
                                                            341
                                                                         0
100
                                                     0
                                                                    0
                                                            341
100
    16896 ::1
                                             340
en0
    1492 link#2
                       8.0.5a.f8.d6.cc
                                              39
                                                     0
                                                              5
                                                                         0
    1492 192.168.0 192.168.3.1
                                              39
                                                     0
                                                              5
en0
tr0
     1492 link#3
                       0.4.ac.61.73.ee
                                            6542
                                                     0
                                                            509
                                                                    0
                                                                         0
tr0
     1492 9.3.1
                       9.3.1.141
                                            6542
                                                     0
                                                            509
                                                                         0
```

## Changing the state of network interfaces

Changing the state of network interfaces, including the assignment of IP addresses, can be performed with the **ifconfig** command. Changes made with the **ifconfig** command can be verified with the **netstat** command.

To deactivate (down) a network interface, such as tr0, run the command:

```
# ifconfig tr0 down
# netstat -in
Name Mtu
           Network
                        Address
                                           Ipkts Ierrs
                                                          Opkts Oerrs Coll
     16896 link#1
                                               338
                                                       0
                                                              339
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
100
     16896 127
                                               338
                                                       0
                                                              339
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
100
                        loopback
    16896 ::1
                                               338
                                                       0
                                                              339
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
100
                                                39
                                                       0
                                                                5
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
en0
    1492 link#2
                        8.0.5a.f8.d6.cc
     1492 192.168.0
                       192.168.3.1
                                                39
                                                       0
                                                                5
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
en0
tr0* 1492 link#3
                        0.4.ac.61.73.ee
                                              5954
                                                       0
                                                              434
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
                                                       0
                                                              434
                                                                      0
                                                                            0
tr0* 1492 9.3.1
                        9.3.1.141
                                              5954
Routing tables
Destination
                 Gateway
                                   Flags
                                           Refs
                                                    Use If
                                                              PMTU Exp Groups
# netstat -rn
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
                 9.3.1.141
9.3.1/24
                                   U
                                             2
                                                    731 tr0
                 127.0.0.1
                                   U
                                             4
                                                         100
127/8
                                                    337
                                             0
192.168.0/16
                 192.168.3.1
                                   U
                                                      4
                                                        en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
                                   UH
                                             0
::1
                 ::1
                                                      0 100 16896
```

When the interface has been brought down (deactivated), the routing table produced by the **netstat** -rn command does not change much. However, in the interface configuration output of the **netstat** -in command, you may notice asterisks (\*) by the token ring interface, indicating that it is in the down state.

But, if the token-ring interface is removed (detached) from the network interface list, the token-ring entries will no longer exist in the interface configuration and route table of the **netstat** command output. To remove (detach) a network interface from the system, run the command:

```
# ifconfig tr0 detach
# netstat -i
                        Address
                                            Ipkts Ierrs
                                                           Opkts Oerrs Coll
Name Mtu
            Network
100
     16896 link#1
                                                789
                                                        0
                                                               790
                                                                       0
                                                                             0
100
    16896 127
                        loopback
                                                789
                                                        0
                                                               790
                                                                       0
                                                                             0
                                                789
                                                        0
                                                               790
                                                                       0
                                                                             0
100
    16896 ::1
                                                 39
                                                        0
                                                                 5
                                                                       0
                                                                             0
en0
     1492 link#2
                        8.0.5a.f8.d6.cc
                                                                 5
     1492 192.168.0
                        192.168.3.1
                                                 39
                                                        0
                                                                       0
                                                                             0
en0
Routing tables
                                           Refs
                                                     Use If
                                                               PMTU
                                                                     Exp Groups
Destination
                 Gateway
                                   Flags
# netstat -rn
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
                 127.0.0.1
127/8
                                   U
                                             3
                                                     378
                                                         100
                                             0
192.168.0/16
                 192.168.3.1
                                   U
                                                       4
                                                          en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
                 ::1
                                   UH
                                                       0 100 16896
```

As shown, the tr0 interface is no longer listed on the interface configuration list or the route table.

To add a network interface to the system, or to re-add a previously removed (detached) network interface to the system, run the command:

```
# ifconfig tr0 up
```

Simply configuring the token-ring interface state to up is not enough to return the network back to the original status. To assign a network address and netmask to a network interface, run the command:

```
# ifconfig tr0 9.3.1.141 netmask 255.255.255.0 up
# netstat -in
                   Address
Name Mtu Network
                                  Ipkts Ierrs
                                              Opkts Oerrs Coll
lo0 16896 link#1
                                     991
                                            0
                                                  992
                                                        0
                                                             0
             localhost
100 16896 127
                                     991
                                            0
                                                  992
                                                             0
100 16896 ::1
                                                  992
                                     991
                                            0
                                                        0
                                                             0
en0 1492 link#2 8.0.5a.f8.d6.cc
                                     39
                                            0
                                                  5
                                                        0
                                                             0
en0 1492 192.168.0 192.168.3.1
                                      39
                                            0
                                                  5
                                                        0
                                                             0
tr0 1492 link#3
                   0.4.ac.61.73.ee
                                     76
                                            0
                                                  18 0
                                                             0
tr0 1492 9.3.1
                  9.3.1.141
                                     76
                                            0
                                                  509
                                                             0
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
                                         Use If
Destination
             Gateway
                         Flags Refs
                                                  PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
9.3.1/24 9.3.1.141 U
                                    0
                                          22 tr0
127/8
             127.0.0.1
                            U
                                    3
                                         380 100
                                    0
192.168.0/16 192.168.3.1
                            U
                                           4 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
        ::1
                           UH
                                           0 100 16896
```

# 11.3.2 Gateways

Information that is sent to destinations not explicitly defined in your system or on a network directly connected to your system will pass through a gateway. This gateway (also called a route) is a system or network device that will route information onto other systems or networks.

### Using traceroute

The **traceroute** command can show through which routes (gateways) information travels, how long it takes information to reach its destination, and through how many routers the information traverses (hops). For example, if you wanted to see which route information travels from the system with the IP address of 9.3.1.141, to the system with the IP address of 9.8.0.8, you would enter:

```
# traceroute 9.8.0.8
trying to get source for 9.8.0.8
source should be 9.3.1.141
traceroute to 9.8.0.8 (9.8.0.8) from 9.3.1.141 (9.3.1.141), 30 hops max
outgoing MTU = 1492
1 itso.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.74) 11 ms 2 ms 2 ms
2 9.444.33.129 (9.444.33.129) 4 ms 4 ms 4 ms
3 9.444.33.129 (9.444.33.129) 4 ms 4 ms 4 ms
4 site1.austin.ibm.com (9.3.90.200) 7 ms site2.south.ibm.com (9.3.200.202) 8
ms 7 ms
5 site3.austin.ibm.com (199.4.213.125) 17 ms 19 ms 17 ms
6 9.88.1.174 (9.88.1.174) 74 ms 80 ms 71 ms
7 9.8.0.8 (9.8.0.8) 327 ms 329 ms 327 ms
```

## Defining a default route

If a default route is not defined on your system, only directly attached hosts are accessible from your system. For example, on the system with the IP address of 9.3.1.141, a default route is not defined. When the system attempts to contact the system with the IP address 9.8.0.8, that is not on the same local network, so the system receives errors:

```
# ping 9.8.0.8
PING 9.8.0.8: (9.8.0.8): 56 data bytes
0821-069 ping: sendto: Cannot reach the destination network.
ping: wrote 9.8.0.8 64 chars, ret=-1
0821-069 ping: sendto: Cannot reach the destination network.
ping: wrote 9.8.0.8 64 chars, ret=-1
^C
----9.8.0.8 PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 0 packets received, 100% packet loss
# traceroute 9.8.0.8
trying to get source for 9.8.0.8
source should be 9.3.1.141
traceroute to 9.8.0.8 (9.8.0.8) from 9.3.1.141 (9.3.1.141), 30 hops max
sendto: Cannot reach the destination network.
 1 traceroute: Partial write of -1 bytes
outgoing MTU = 32768
 *sendto: Cannot reach the destination network.
traceroute: Partial write of -1 bytes
 *sendto: Cannot reach the destination network.
```

```
traceroute: Partial write of -1 bytes ^{\text{C}\#}
```

The **netstat** -rn command shows that there is no default route assigned:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
                                      Refs
               Gateway
                               Flags
                                              Use If PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
9.3.1/24
             9.3.1.141
                               U
                                      11
                                             1265 tr0
127/8
               127.0.0.1
                               U
                                        2
                                              382 100
                                        0
192.168.0/16 192.168.3.1
                               U
                                                4 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
               ::1
                               UH
                                                0 100 16896
```

To add a default route to the system, run the **route add** command. For example, to add the route 9.3.1.74 to the system, you would run:

```
# route add -net 0 9.3.1.74
9.3.1.74 net 0: gateway 9.3.1.74
```

This change can be seen in the **netstat -rn** output:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
               Gateway
                               Flags
                                      Refs
                                              Use If PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
default
                                        0
             9.3.1.74
                               UG
                                                0 tr0
                               U
                                        2
9.3.1/24
             9.3.1.141
                                              189 tr0
127/8
             127.0.0.1
                               U
                                        3
                                              380 100
                                      0
192.168.0/16 192.168.3.1
                               U
                                                4 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
                                                0 100 16896
::1
              ::1
                               UH
                                        0
```

Now, the system can communicate with the 9.8.0.8 system, as shown by the ping command output:

```
# ping 9.8.0.8
PING 9.8.0.8: (9.8.0.8): 56 data bytes
64 bytes from 9.8.0.8: icmp_seq=0 ttl=49 time=384 ms
64 bytes from 9.8.0.8: icmp_seq=1 ttl=50 time=354 ms
^C
----9.8.0.8 PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 2 packets received, 0% packet loss
round-trip min/avg/max = 354/369/384 ms
# traceroute 9.8.0.8
trying to get source for 9.8.0.8
```

```
source should be 9.3.1.141
traceroute to 9.8.0.8 (9.8.0.8) from 9.3.1.141 (9.3.1.141), 30 hops max
outgoing MTU = 1492
1 itso.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.74) 11 ms 2 ms 2 ms
2 9.444.33.129 (9.444.33.129) 4 ms 4 ms 4 ms
3 9.444.33.129 (9.444.33.129) 4 ms 4 ms 4 ms
4 site1.austin.ibm.com (9.3.90.200) 7 ms site2.south.ibm.com (9.3.200.20
2) 8 ms 7 ms
5 site3.austin.ibm.com (199.4.213.125) 17 ms 19 ms 17 ms
6 9.88.1.174 (9.88.1.174) 74 ms 80 ms 71 ms
7 9.8.0.8 (9.8.0.8) 327 ms 329 ms 327 ms
```

### 11.3.3 **Subnets**

When a system sends a message to a destination, the system must determine whether the destination is on the same network as the source or if the destination must be reached through a gateway. The system compares the destination address to the host address using the subnet mask.

Subnet addressing allows an autonomous network made up of multiple systems to share the same network address. To make subnets possible, the local address part of an Internet address is divided into a subnet number and a host number. The bits that identify the subnet are specified by a bit mask.

For example, if a system with an IP address of 192.168.3.1 had a netmask of 255.255.0.0, its network address would be 192.168. This would allow the system to communicate with all other systems in the same network address of 192.168 without the use of a gateway.

If the system with the IP address of 192.168.3.1 had a netmask of 255.255.255.0, its network address would be 192.168.3. This would allow the system to communicate with all other systems in the same network address of 192.168.3 without a gateway.

The netmask can determine how many systems can be on the same network address. For example, for the class B network address 172.16.0.0, Table 11-4 lists some possible subnetting scenarios that show how many systems (hosts) may be on the same network address.

<i>lable 11-4</i>	Subnetting refere	nce chart for c	lass B addresses

Numbers of bits for subnet	Subnet mask	Number of subnets	Number of hosts
2	255.255.192.0	2	16382
3	255.255.224.0	6	8190

Numbers of bits for subnet	Subnet mask	Number of subnets	Number of hosts
4	255.255.240.0	14	4094
5	255.255.248.0	30	2046
6	255.255.252.0	62	1022
7	255.255.254.0	126	510
8	255.255.255.0	254	254
9	255.255.255.128	510	126
10	255.255.255.192	1022	62
11	255.255.255.224	2046	30
12	255.255.255.240	4096	14
13	255.255.255.248	8190	6
14	255.255.255.252	16382	2

# 11.3.4 Problems with incorrect subnet masks

If two systems on the same network have different subnet masks, the systems will be unable to communicate with each other.

A system with the IP address 192.168.3.1 is communicating with another system with the IP address 192.168.1.2. Both have the netmask of 255.255.0.0. This places both systems on the network address of 192.168.

The network configuration of the first system with the IP address 192.168.3.1 is as follows:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination Gateway Flags
                                  Refs Use If PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
default 9.3.1.74 UG
                                  0
                                           3 tr0
9.3.1/24 9.3.1.141 U
127/8 127.0.0.1 U
                                   37 44175 tr0
                                  3
                                         332 100
192.168.0/16 192.168.3.1 U
                                  0
                                         17 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
                           UH
                                           0 100 16896 -
             ::1
# ifconfig en0
```

The network configuration of the second system with the IP address 192.168.1.2 is as follows:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
                Gateway
                                 Flags
                                        Refs
                                                 Use If PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
default
              9.3.1.74
                                UG
                                         0
                                                  13 tr0
                                 U
9.3.1/24
               9.3.1.124
                                         33 784208 tr0
              127.0.0.1
127/8
                                 U
                                         4
                                                 319 100
                                          0
192.168.0/16 192.168.1.2
                                                   4 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
::1
                ::1
                                 UH
                                          0
                                                   0 100 16896
# ifconfig en0
en0:
flags=e080863<UP,BROADCAST,NOTRAILERS,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST,GROUPRT,64B
       inet 192.168.1.2 netmask 0xffff0000 broadcast 192.168.255.255
# ping 192.168.3.1
PING 192.168.3.1: (192.168.3.1): 56 data bytes
64 bytes from 192.168.3.1: icmp seq=0 ttl=255 time=1 ms
64 bytes from 192.168.3.1: icmp seq=1 ttl=255 time=0 ms
^C
----192.168.3.1 PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 2 packets received, 0% packet loss
round-trip min/avg/max = 0/0/1 ms
```

If the netmask definition of the machine with IP address 192.168.1.2 is changed to 255.255.255.0, that would make the network address 192.168.1 for that system. The two systems would no longer communicate, as shown by the following commands:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination Gateway Flags Refs Use If PMTU Exp Groups
```

```
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
default
                9.3.1.74
                                  UG
                                            0
                                                    13 tr0
9.3.1/24
                9.3.1.124
                                  U
                                           34 822719 tr0
127/8
                127.0.0.1
                                  U
                                            4
                                                   319 100
192.168.1/24
                192.168.1.2
                                  U
                                            0
                                                     0 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
                                  UH
                                                     0 100 16896
::1
                 ::1
# ifconfig en0
en0:
flags=e080863<UP,BROADCAST,NOTRAILERS,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST,GROUPRT,64B
TT>
        inet 192.168.1.2 netmask 0xffffff00 broadcast 192.168.1.255
# ping 192.168.3.1
PING 192.168.3.1: (192.168.3.1): 56 data bytes
^C
----192.168.3.1 PING Statistics----
2 packets transmitted, 0 packets received, 100% packet loss
#
```

The network configuration of the machine with the IP address 192.168.3.1 is unchanged, but the **ping** command cannot reach the target system:

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
                                          Refs
                Gateway
                                  Flags
                                                   Use If
                                                             PMTU Exp Groups
Route Tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
default
                9.3.1.74
                                  UG
                                            0
                                                     3 tr0
9.3.1/24
                9.3.1.141
                                  U
                                           37
                                                 44663 tr0
127/8
                127.0.0.1
                                  U
                                            3
                                                   332 100
                                  U
                                            0
192.168.0/16
                192.168.3.1
                                                    26 en0
Route Tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
                                                     0 100 16896
                                  UH
::1
                 ::1
# ifconfig en0
en0:
flags=e080863<UP,BROADCAST,NOTRAILERS,RUNNING,SIMPLEX,MULTICAST,GROUPRT,64BIT>
        inet 192.168.3.1 netmask 0xffff0000 broadcast 192.168.255.255
# ping 192.168.1.2
PING 192.168.1.2: (192.168.1.2): 56 data bytes
----192.168.1.2 PING Statistics----
4 packets transmitted, 0 packets received, 100% packet loss
```

Even if the netmask of the system with the IP address of 192.168.3.1 were changed to 255.255.255.0, the systems would still be unable to communicate directly. By changing the netmask to 255.255.255.0, the system with the IP address of 192.168.3.1 would be on the network address 192.168.3, while the system with the IP address 192.168.1.2 would be on the network address 192.168.1. These systems could, however, communicate through a gateway if available.

# 11.4 Network configuration files

There are many different configuration files used in network support. This section briefly describes some of the more important files you will encounter and modify while performing network support.

**Note:** All files in this section should have permissions of 600 and should be owned by root whenever possible. These files often contain sensitive information, and unauthorized modification of these files can lead to security exposures and risks. Most of these files will not function properly unless their permissions are set to 600.

### 11.4.1 /etc/resolv.conf

Domain name servers (DNS) allow IP addresses to be represented symbolically for ease. For example, the system with the IP address of 207.25.253.26 is named service.software.ibm.com.

The /etc/resolv.conf file has two functions. First, it indicates to a system that it should go to a specific domain name server to resolve a name. Second, it defines to the system to what domain it belongs.

For example, the system named *sample* has the following /etc/resolv.conf file:

```
# cat /etc/resolv.conf
nameserver 9.3.1.74
domain itsc.austin.ibm.com
```

The system sample would use the name server 9.3.1.74 for name resolution. Since it belongs to the itsc.austin.ibm.com domain, the full host name of the system is sample.itsc.austin.ibm.com.

If the specified domain name server is unreachable, you will not be able to communicate with systems by host name and will receive errors. The **ping** command can be used to verify if a name server is unreachable.

For example, if the domain name server 9.3.1.74 is not available, it takes more than five minutes before an error message from the **ping** command is returned:

```
# ping 9.3.1.121
PING 9.3.1.121: (9.3.1.121): 56 data bytes
^C
----9.3.1.121 PING Statistics----
3 packets transmitted, 0 packets received, 100% packet loss
# date +%H:%M:%S
16:20:10
# ping sv1166f
0821-062 ping: host name sv1166f NOT FOUND
# date +%H:%M:%S
16:25:16
```

If the name server is down, however, you will still be able to communicate with other servers by IP address.

**Note:** If your name server has a host name assigned to it, do not enter this name into the nameserver field. Enter in the IP address of the name server; otherwise, your system will not be able to automatically communicate with the name server.

### 11.4.2 /etc/hosts

The /etc/hosts file provides a list of server names or aliases and their IP addresses. This file can be used for host name resolution for each defined server or server alias in the /etc/hosts file.

The following is a sample /etc/hosts file:

```
# cat /etc/hosts
# The format of this file is:
# Internet Address
                      Hostname
                                      # Comments
# Items are separated by any number of blanks and/or tabs. A '#'
# indicates the beginning of a comment; characters up to the end of the
# line are not interpreted by routines which search this file. Blank
# lines are allowed.
# Internet Address
                       Hostname
                                      # Comments
127.0.0.1
                      loopback localhost
                                              # loopback (lo0) name/address
9.3.240.57 sample2.itsc.austin.ibm.com
```

### 11.4.3 /etc/netsvc.conf

The /etc/netsvc.conf file is used to specify the ordering of name resolution services for sendmail, the gethostbyname, gethostaddr, and gethostent subroutines, in addition to alias resolution for sendmail.

When a process receives a symbolic host name and needs to resolve it into an address, it calls a resolver routine. By default, resolver routines attempt to resolve names using the following default order:

- 1. BIND/DNS (named, using the /etc/resolv.conf file)
- 2. Network Information Service (NIS)
- 3. Local /etc/hosts file

If all of the services were unavailable, then the resolver routine will return with the message SERVICE\_UNAVAILABLE.

This default order can be overwritten by creating the configuration file, /etc/netsvc.conf, and specifying the desired order for resolving host names. A sample /etc/netsvc.conf file is as follows:

```
#cat /etc/netsvc.conf
hosts = nis, local, bind
```

In this example, the system will use NIS to attempt to resolve host names first, followed by the /etc/hosts file, and then BIND/DNS last.

**Note:** The NSORDER environment variable will override the host name resolution list in /etc/netsvc.conf. If your /etc/netsvc.conf file does not seem to be working properly, you may want to examine the NSORDER environment variable by running the command:

```
# echo $NSORDER
NSORDER=local,bind
```

# 11.4.4 \$HOME/.netrc

The \$HOME/.netrc file contains information used by the automatic login feature of the **rexec** and **ftp** commands. The \$HOME/.netrc file contains the login password for the user plain text. Even with permissions set to 600, passwords for remote systems are vulnerable to being revealed to any user with root authority.

### 11.4.5 \$HOME/.forward

When mail is sent to a local user, the **sendmail** command checks for the \$HOME/.forward file for that user. The \$HOME/.forward file can contain one or more addresses or aliases. Any messages are then sent to the addresses or aliases in the \$HOME/.forward file.

# 11.4.6 /etc/hosts.equiv and \$HOME/.rhosts

The /etc/hosts.equiv and \$HOME/.rhosts files define which remote hosts and users can invoke certain commands on the local system without supplying a password.

The format of the /etc/hosts.equiv and \$HOME/.rhosts files is as follows:

```
[ + | - ] HostName [ + | - ] UserName or @NetGroup
```

**Note:** Both /etc/hosts.equiv and \$HOME/.rhosts are read top to bottom, so the order of placing entries into these files can change the desired results. The deny, or - (minus sign), statements must precede the accept, or + (plus sign), statements in the lists.

For example, to allow all the users on the hosts *toaster* and *machine* to log in to the local host, you would enter:

toaster machine

To only allow the user ethan to log in from the host data, you would enter:

data ethan

To allow the user *quin* to log in from any host, you would enter:

+quin

To deny all members from the customers netgroup from logging in automatically, you would enter:

- @customers

# 11.5 Exporting X-Windows and graphical applications

In AIX, it is possible to export X-Windows sessions and graphical applications to other systems through the use of the DISPLAY environment variable. This allows remote users to emulate a graphical console or other graphical processes on their systems.

X-Windows consists of three components: the server, client programs, and the communications channel. The server distributes user input to and accepts output requests from various client programs (applications) located either on the same machine or elsewhere on the network.

The DISPLAY environment variable is a string with the following format:

HostName:Number.Screen

where:

**HostName** Specifies the name of the host system where the display is

physically attached. The host name should be followed by a:

(colon).

**Number** Specifies the ID number of the display server on that host machine.

The display number can be followed by a . (period).

**Screen** Specifies the number of the screen on that host server. Multiple

screens can be connected to or controlled by a single X server.

By default, the DISPLAY environment variable is set to :screen#. When you log in to the graphic console, the DISPLAY environment variable is:

```
# echo $DISPLAY
:0.0
```

## 11.5.1 Failing to start an X-Windows application

By default, the DISPLAY environment variable is not set when you **telnet** or **rlogin** to a remote host. An attempt to start an X-Windows application will fail if:

- ► The DISPLAY environment variable is not set up.
- The X-Windows server has not been started.
- The X-Windows server access control has been enabled and your remote host is not on the access control list.

Each of these conditions is discussed in the following sections.

### The DISPLAY environment variable is not set

If you have not set your DISPLAY environment variable, you will see these messages:

Note that the name of the X-Windows server is empty. Rectify this by setting up your DISPLAY environment variable.

#### The X-Windows server is not started

If you have not started the X-Windows server, you will see these messages:

The host name sv1166a is just an example. Replace it with the appropriate host name. Rectify this by starting the X-Windows server on your local host using the xinit command.

#### X-Windows server access control list

If access control is enabled and the host name sv1166a is not on the access control list, you will see these messages:

For AIX, rectify this from the local console on the local host by using:

► The xhost + command:

```
# xhost +
access control disabled, clients can connect from any host
```

Do this only if it does not violate the security guideline of your company.

► The xhost +sv1050a command:

```
# xhost +sv1050a
sv1050a being added to access control list
# xhost
access control enabled, only authorized clients can connect
INET:sv1050a.itsc.austin.ibm.com
#
```

The host name of the remote host sv1050a is an example. Replace it with the appropriate host name of the remote host that you have a telnet session with. You may see other host names on the access control list.

# 11.5.2 Setting up the DISPLAY environment variable

The display name or DISPLAY environment variable is a string with the following format:

HostName: Number. Screen

Instead of using the host name, you can also use the IP address in the DISPLAY environment variable.

### Using the host name

Using the host name is more convenient. Use the **hostname** command on one of your local sessions to find out the host name to use:

# hostname
sv1166a

Go back to your telnet session and set up your DISPLAY environment variable by entering:

export DISPLAY='sv1166a:0'

The screen number does not need to be specified if you have only one screen connected or controlled by the X-Windows server.

# 11.6 Advanced network configuration options

This section discusses some of the more advanced network configuration options you may configure while performing network support. This includes such topics as the ARP cache, IP forwarding, and network performance tuning.

# 11.6.1 The ARP cache

The Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) dynamically translates Internet addresses into the unique hardware addresses on local area networks. Nodes on the same segment of the same LAN use ARP to determine the hardware address of other nodes. This information is stored within the system in the ARP cache.

To display and modify ARP cache entries, use the **arp** command. The general syntax of the **arp** command for network interfaces is as follows:

```
arp [ -t ifType ] [ -s Type | -d ] HostName [ AdapterAddress ] [ Route ]
[ temp ] [ pub ]
```

Table 11-5 is a list of common command flags and their functions for the arp command.

Table 11-5 Command flags for arp

Flag	Description
-a	Displays all of the current ARP entries.
-d	Deletes an entry for the host specified by the HostName variable if the user has root user authority.
-s Type HostName AdapterAddress	Creates an ARP entry of the type specified by the <i>Type</i> variable for the host specified by the <i>HostName</i> variable with the adapter address specified by the <i>AdapterAddress</i> variable.
-t ifType	Indicates the type of network interface.

For example, to view the entire ARP cache, you would run:

```
# arp -a itsorusi.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.74) at 10:0:5a:a8:42:14 [token ring] sv1166a.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.25) at 0:6:29:f0:e2:77 [token ring] itsonv.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.5) at 8:0:5a:48:4a:48 [token ring] netcomp.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.232) at 10:0:5a:38:fb:3 [token ring] jc6003a.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.111) at 0:6:29:f0:e1:2 [token ring]
```

To delete the entry for the server jc6003a from the ARP cache, you would run:

```
# arp -d jc6003a
Entry jc6003a (9.3.1.111) was deleted from local arp table.
# arp -a
  itsorusi.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.74) at 10:0:5a:a8:42:14 [token ring]
  sv1166a.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.25) at 0:6:29:f0:e2:77 [token ring]
  itsonv.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.5) at 8:0:5a:48:4a:48 [token ring]
  netcomp.itsc.austin.ibm.com (9.3.1.232) at 10:0:5a:38:fb:3 [token ring]
```

You can only delete one entry from the ARP cache at a time. Entries in the ARP mapping table are deleted after 20 minutes; incomplete entries are deleted after three minutes. To make a permanent entry in the ARP mapping tables, use the **arp** command with the pub parameter.

**Note:** Moving a network adapter from one system to another may cause network traffic to be directed to the wrong system by the ARP cache. You should either delete the ARP entry on every node in the segment at the time of the move, or ensure that at least 20 minutes have passed before you bring up the system receiving the network adapter.

# 11.6.2 Detecting network bottlenecks

A network bottleneck is the term when information is not being sent or received properly by systems on the network. Most of the time, these bottlenecks can be seen by delays in simple commands like **ping** and **traceroute**. AIX provides several tools that can identify network bottlenecks and congestion.

### Using the spray command to identify network bottlenecks

The **spray** command is a tool that sends a specified number of packets to a host and reports performance statistics. The **spray** command will identify how many packets were received and at what transfer rate the packets were received. The general syntax of the **spray** command is as follows:

```
spray Host [ -c Count ] [ -d Delay ] [ -i ] [ -l Length ]
```

Table 11-6 is a list of common command flags and their functions for the **spray** command.

Table 11-6 Command flags for spray

Flag	Description
-c Count	Specifies the number of packets to send. The default value is the number of packets required to make the total stream size 100,000 bytes.
-d <i>Delay</i>	Specifies the time, in microseconds, the system pauses between sending each packet. The default is 0.
-i	Uses the Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) echo packets rather than the RPC protocol. Since ICMP echoes automatically, it creates a two-way stream. You must be the root user to use this option.
-I (lowercase L) <i>Length</i>	Specifies the number of bytes in the packet that holds the RPC call message. The default value of the Length parameter is 86 bytes, the size of the RPC and UDP headers.

For example, to send 1200 packets at 2 microsecond intervals to the workstation named server2, you would run:

If there were high amounts of packets being dropped, or a low packets/second ratio, there could be a problem with the network.

## Using netstat for identifying network bottlenecks

The **netstat** command can also provide information for identifying network bottlenecks. By running the **netstat** -i command, the system displays cumulative statistics of errors, collisions, and packets transferred for the system. For example:

# net	stat -	i						
Name	Mtu	Network	Address	Ipkts Ierrs		Opkts Oerrs	Co11	
trO	1492	link#2	0.60.94.8a.d3.5a	1610269	0	6789	0	0
trO	1492	9.3.240	server2	1610269	0	6789	0	0
100	16896	link#1		4706	0	4706	0	0
100	16896	127	localhost	4706	0	4706	0	0
100	16896	::1		4706	0	4706	0	0

Errors in the Ierrs or Oerrs fields, or high amounts of collisions in the Coll field, can indicate possible network bottlenecks.

However, the **netstat** -i output displays cumulative information for the system since it was last booted. If the system has been up for a long period of time, this information may not be useful for identifying network bottlenecks as high amounts of errors or collisions may have been from events that happened long ago. To clear the interface statistics, run the **netstat** -Zi command.

**Note:** The **netstat** -i command does not display the collision count for Ethernet interfaces.

# Using topas for identifying network bottlenecks

The **topas** command can also provide information about network bottlenecks by monitoring the amount of information going through network interfaces in a realtime format.

To enable realtime monitoring of network information only, run the command:

```
# topas -d0 -i0 -p0
```

This will create an output screen similar to Figure 11-10.

Topas Monitor for host: server1					EVENTS/QUE	UES	FILE/TTY		
		22:27 200		rval: 0		Cswitch	58	Readch	18007
						Syscall	204	Writech	451
Kernel	0.2	1			1	Reads	50	Rawin	0
User	0.2	I			1	Writes	2	Ttyout	0
Wait	0.0	I			- 1	Forks	0	Igets	0
Idle	99.5	######	#######	#######	#####	Execs	0	Namei	1
						Runqueue	0.0	Dirblk	0
Network	KBPS	I-Pack	0-Pack	KB-In	KB-Out	Waitqueue	0.0		
tr0	$\overline{3.5}$	14.0	13.0	1.4	2.1				
en0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	PAGING		MEMORY	
100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	Faults	0	Real,MB	511
						Steals	0	% Comp	32.3
						Pgsp ${f In}$	0	% Noncomp	67.9
						Pgsp0ut	0	% Client	0.5
						PageIn	0		
						PageOut	0	PAGING SP	
						Sios	0	Size,MB	512
								% Used	2.3
						NFS (calls	/sec)	% Free	97.6
						ServerV2	0		
						Client <b>V</b> 2	0	Press:	
						Server <b>V</b> 3	0	"h" for	help
						Client <b>V</b> 3	0	"q" to	quit

Figure 11-10 Network monitoring by topas

By observing the various fields, including KBPS, KB In, and KB Out, you can determine if a bottleneck is occurring on a particular interface.

### 11.6.3 The no command

The **no** command configures and displays network attributes in the current kernel. The **no** command can be used for the tuning of various network attributes to increase network performance and throughput.

The syntax for the **no** command is as follows:

Table 11-7 is a list of command flags and their functions for the **no** command.

Table 11-7 Command flags for no

Flag	Description
-a	Prints a list of all configurable attributes and their current values.
-d Attribute	Sets Attribute back to its default value.

Flag	Description
-o Attribute [=NewValue]	Displays the value of <i>Attribute</i> if <i>NewValue</i> is not specified; otherwise, this flag sets <i>Attribute</i> to <i>NewValue</i> . Do not enter space characters before or after the equal sign; otherwise, the command will fail.

The following sections detail common functions and parameters that you can use the **no** command to modify.

**Note:** Use this command with caution. The **no** command performs no range checking, therefore it accepts all values for the variables. If used incorrectly, the **no** command can cause your system to become inoperable.

Changes made by the **no** command only affect the current kernel. The **no** command must be run again after each startup or after the network has been configured.

# IP forwarding

If there are multiple network adapters in a system that are assigned to two or more networks, the **no** command can allow IP packets to be forwarded across the system, causing the system to act as a gateway for IP packets. To enable IP forwarding, run the command:

# no -o ipforwarding=1

For example, if you have a system with a token ring card that has an IP address of 9.3.1.124, on the 9.3.1 subnet, and another token ring card that has an IP address of 192.168.1.3, on the 192.168.1 subnet, IP forwarding will allow packets to flow from the 9.3.1 network to the 192.168.1 network and back.

**Note:** IP forwarding will be reset to the default zero (0) value after a system reboot. To enable IP forwarding at system reboot, you must add this command to a script that is run at boot time.

### **Route revalidation**

Route revalidation specifies that each connection's cached route should be revalidated each time a new route is added to the routing table. This will ensure that applications that keep the same connection open for long periods of time (for example NFS) will use the correct route after routing table changes occur. To enable route revalidation, run the command:

# no -o routerevalidation=1

Turning this option on may cause some performance degradation.

## 11.6.4 Network tuning

The following describes various facets of network tuning to allow for better performance:

### Network traffic and thewall

To avoid fragmentation of kernel memory, common buffer pools are shared by the various layers of the communication subsystem. The mbuf management facility controls two pools of buffers: a pool of small buffers (256 bytes each), which are simply called mbufs, and a pool of large buffers (4096 bytes each), which are usually called mbuf clusters, or just clusters. The pools are created from system memory by making an allocation request to the Virtual Memory Manager (VMM).

The pools consist of pinned pieces of virtual memory; this means that they always reside in physical memory and are never paged out. The result is that the real memory available for paging in application programs and data has been decreased by the amount that the mbuf pools have been increased. On the other hand, network problems will arise if there is not enough memory available for the buffer pools to satisfy network sessions.

The maximum amount of memory, in kilobytes, allocated to the mbuf pools is specified in the *thewall* parameter of the **no** command. The default values for thewall in various AIX versions are:

AIX Version 4.2.1, and earlier

The default value is 1/8 of real memory or 65536 (64 megabytes), whichever is smaller.

► AIX Version 4.3.0

The default value is 1/8 of real memory or 131072 (128 megabytes), whichever is smaller.

AIX Version 4.3.1 and later

The default value is 1/2 of real memory or 131072 (128 megabytes), whichever is smaller.

## Modifying thewall to raise the number of mbufs

The initial default value of thewall can be determined by running the command:

```
# no -o thewall
thewall = 65488
```

The **netstat** -m command will display memory management routines statistics:

# netstat -m
Kernel malloc statistics:

***** CPU	0 *****					
By size	inuse	calls	failed	free	hiwat	freed
32	163	313	0	93	640	0
64	88	158	0	40	320	0
128	71	316	0	25	160	0
256	99	2726	0	13	384	0
512	76	375	0	4	40	0
1024	32	104	0	4	100	0
2048	0	4	0	2	100	0
4096	35	68	0	3	120	0
16384	1	1	0	18	24	7
32768	1	1	0	0	511	0
By type	inuse	calls	failed	memuse	memmax	mapb

Streams mblk statistic failures:

- 0 high priority mblk failures
- O medium priority mblk failures
- O low priority mblk failures

To increase the value of thewall from 65488 to 98232 to allow for more mbufs, run the command:

# no -o thewall=98232

The change takes effect immediately for new connections. However, there will not be any change to the kernel malloc statistics until some network traffic has occurred. Performing a task, such as using an FTP session to transfer some files from another system, will update the kernel malloc statistics. The **netstat** -m command then shows the change in mbufs:

# netstat -m
Kernel malloc statistics:

*****	CPU	0	*****							
By size			inuse	ca	l1s	failed	free	hi	wat	freed
32			163	3	321	0	93		640	0
64			88	1	160	0	40		320	0
128			71	3	355	0	25		160	0
256			99	164	139	0	29		384	0
512			76	6	562	0	4		40	0
1024			32	1	120	0	4		100	0
2048			0	78	358	0	12		100	0
4096			35		68	0	1		120	0
16384			1		1	0	18		24	7
32768			1		1	0	0		511	0

By type inuse calls failed memuse memmax mapb

Streams mblk statistic failures:
O high priority mblk failures

O medium priority mblk failures

O low priority mblk failures

The number of 256-byte mbufs has increased from 112 to 128. The number of 2048-byte mbufs has increased from 2 to 12. However, the number of 4096-byte mbufs has decreased from 38 to 36. Overall, there is an increase of mbufs available when the thewall value is raised. The decrease in the number of 4096-byte mbufs is a result the self-tuning function from the mbuf allocation mechanism implemented in AIX Version 4.

### Other tuning parameters

The following is a list of other tuning parameters that can be modified for network performance:

#### sockthresh

In AIX Version 4.3.1 or later, the sockthresh parameter provides a way to prevent new sockets from being created when almost all the network memory is in use. The default is 85 percent of thewall. To change this value, run the command:

# no -o sockthresh=Percentage

Usually, this percentage is decreased during tuning.

#### ▶ sb max

The sb\_max parameter provides an absolute upper bound on the size of TCP and UDP socket buffers. The default value is 65536. To change this value (preferably in multiples of 4096), run the command:

# no -o sb max=Value

Usually, the size is increased during tuning.

#### ▶ tcp sendspace

The tcp\_sendspace parameter provides the default value of the size of the TCP socket send buffer. The default value is 16384. The allowed range is 0 to 64 KB. The value must be less than or equal to sb\_max, should be equal to tcp\_recvspace, and uniform on all frequently accessed AIX systems. To change this value (preferably in multiples of 4096), run the command:

# no -o tcp\_sendspace=Value

Usually, the size is increased during tuning to fix poor-throughout problems.

#### tcp recvspace

The tcp\_recvspace parameter provides the default value of the size of the TCP socket receive buffer. The default value is 16384. The allowed range is 0 to 64 KB. The value must be less than or equal to sb\_max, should be equal to tcp\_sendspace, and uniform on all frequently accessed AIX systems. To change this value (preferably in multiples of 4096), run the command:

```
# no -o tcp recvspace=Value
```

Usually, the size is increased during tuning to fix poor-throughout problems.

#### ► rfc1323

The rfc1323 parameter enables TCP enhancements, allowing the tcp\_sendspace and tcp\_recvspace values to exceed the 64 KB limit up to 4 GB. To enable TCP enhancements, run the command:

```
# no -o rfc1323=1
```

Run this command before attempting to set tcp\_sendspace and tcp\_recvspace to more than 64 KB.

#### udp\_sendspace

The udp\_sendspace parameter provides the default value for the size of the UDP socket send buffer. The value must not be greater than that of sb\_max. The default value is 9216. The allowed range is 0 (zero) to 65536. To change this value (preferably in multiples of 4096), run the command:

```
# no -o udp_sendspace=Value
```

Usually, the size is increased during tuning.

#### ▶ udp recvspace

The udp\_recvspace parameter provides the default value of the size of the UDP socket receive buffer. The value must not be greater than that of sb\_max. The default value is 41600. To change this value (preferably in multiples of 4096), run the command:

```
# no -o udp recvspace=Value
```

Usually, the size is increased during tuning.

#### tcp pmtu discover

Enables or disables path MTU discovery for TCP applications. Path MTU discovery prevents packet fragmentation by looking on the network for the smallest MTU packet size in use. In AIX Version 4.3.3 and later, this feature is enabled (1) by default. To change this value, run the command:

```
# no -o tcp pmtu discover=Value
```

This setting should be enabled to prevent packet fragmentation.

#### ▶ udp\_pmtu\_discover

Enables or disables path MTU discovery for UDP applications. Path MTU discovery prevents packet fragmentation by looking on the network for the smallest MTU packet size in use. UDP applications must be specifically written to utilize path MTU discovery. In AIX Version 4.3.3 and later, this feature is enabled (1) by default. To change this value, run the command:

```
# no -o tcp pmtu discover=Value
```

This setting should be enabled to prevent packet fragmentation.

#### arptab nb

The arptab\_nb parameter specifies the number of ARP table buckets available. The default value is 25. To change this value, run the command:

```
# no -o arptab nb=Value
```

This value is altered during tuning, depending on the amount of local systems listed in the ARP tables.

#### ▶ ipqmaxlen

The ipqmaxlen parameter specifies the maximum number of entries on the IP input queue. The default value is 50. To change this value, run the command:

```
# no -o ipgmaxlen=Value
```

Usually, the size is increased during tuning.

#### xmt\_que\_size

The xmt\_que\_size parameter specifies the maximum number of send buffers that can be queued up for the device. The default value is 30. The allowed range is 20 to 150. To display the value of the first token-ring adapter on the system, use the <code>lsattr -E -l tok0 -a xmt\_que\_size</code> command. To change the value, you must first remove the network interface configuration, change the device xmt\_que\_size value, and then activate the network interface configuration:

```
ifconfig tr0 detach
chdev -l tok0 -a xmt_que_size=newvalue
ifconfig tr0 hostname up
```

The change is effective across system boot. Usually, the size is increased during tuning. It should be set to 150 as a matter of course on network-oriented systems, especially servers.

#### ▶ rec\_que\_size

This is only tunable in AIX Version 3. The rec\_que\_size specifies the maximum number of receive buffers that can be queued up for the interface. The default value is 30. The allowed range is 20 to 150. To display the value of the first token ring adapter in the system, us the <code>lsattr -E -l tok0 -a rec\_que\_size</code> command. To change the value, you must first remove the network interface configuration, change the device <code>xmt\_que\_size</code> value, and then activate the network interface configuration:

```
ifconfig tr0 detach
chdev -l tok0 -a rec_que_size=newvalue
ifconfig tr0 hostname up
```

The change is effective across system boot. Usually, the size is increased during tuning. It should be set to 150 as a matter of course on network-oriented systems, especially servers.

#### 11.7 Quiz

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

- 1. Which of the following must be performed in order to change the primary name server a system is pointing to?
  - A. Run ypwhich.
  - B. Edit the /etc/hosts.
  - C. Edit the /etc/resolv.conf file.
  - D. Run no -o name\_server=<new\_server>.

2. The system administrator notices a system with the routing shown below:

cannot communicate with a system with an ipaddress 192.24.34.6

What is the most likely explanation?

```
# netstat -rn
Routing tables
Destination
                               Flags Refs Use If PMTU Exp
              Gateway
Groups
Route tree for Protocol Family 2 (Internet):
19.3.252.192/26 19.3.252.228
                                              96 en0
127/8
             127.0.0.1
                              U
                                       1
                                             180 100
192.168.0.2 192.168.0.1
                              UH
                                       0
                                               0 s10
192.168.0.4 192.168.0.3
                              UH
                                       0
                                               0 s11
Route tree for Protocol Family 24 (Internet v6):
                              UH
                                               0 100 16896
::1
               ::1
```

- A. The named is not running.
- B. Default gateway is not set.
- C. The NIS master server is down.
- D. The en0 has incorrect subnet mask.
- 3. What is the correct syntax to add a default route using the **route** command?
  - A. route add 0 193.46.34.5
  - B. route default add 193.46.34.5
  - C. route add 127.0.0.1 193.46.34.5
  - D. route add -net 193.463.34.0 193.46.34.5
- 4. What type of protocol or protocols should be used by the **spray** command, by default, to send a one-way stream of packets to the host?
  - A. UDP
  - B. TCP
  - C. ICMP
  - D. RPC, UDP

- 5. A user on system sys01 rlogins to system sys05 and attempts to run an X-Windows based application and receives the error message unable to open display. What should the user do to resolve this problem?
  - A. Type export DISPLAY=sys01:0 on sys01.
  - B. Type export DISPLAY=sys01:0 on sys05.
  - C. Type export DISPLAY=sys05:0 on sys01.
  - D. Type export DISPLAY=sys05:0 on sys05.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. A system administrator has just moved an Ethernet adapter to another slot, removed the old definition, and added the IP address and subnet mask just as before. The netstat and ifconfig commands show the interface just as before, but the system administrator still cannot communicate with any other servers. Which of the following could cause this problem?
  - A. The connecter type has changed to BNC.
  - B. The adapter speed has changed to 10 Mbps.
  - C. The adapter should be removed and reseated.
  - D. The drivers were not reloaded after moving the adapter.
- 2. A system administrator is able to log in to system A's console and other systems can ping system A, but the system administrator is unable to Telnet or rlogin to system A from any other system on the network. Which of the following is the most likely cause of this problem?
  - A. The inetd is not running on system A.
  - B. The routed is not running on system A.
  - C. The routing table on system A is corrupted.
  - The domain name server is not functioning correctly.
- 3. User X on machine AAA is trying to rsh to machine BBB. The user is prompted for a password, even though a /u/X/.rhosts file is configured on machine BBB. The user discovers this is a permission problem with the .rhosts file. Which of the following are the correct permissions of a .rhosts file?
  - A. 400
  - B. 440
  - C. 600
  - D. 660

4. A system administrator is logged onto the local system, Carolina, and creates a **telnet** session on a remote system, Florida, to remotely start any application. The following error message is displayed:

```
cannot open DISPLAY:
```

The system administrator proceeds to enter the following command in response to the error message:

```
export DISPLAY=corolina.domain0001.com:0.0
```

The system administrator re starts the application and receives the same error message:

```
cannot open DISPLAY
```

The system administrator echoes the DISPLAY variable, determines that it is set to carolina.domain001.com, and performs an **nslookup** of Carolina, which returns a good TCP/IP address of 9.90.90.9, as expected. The system administrator loaded both servers and knows that the graphics subsystem is properly installed on both systems and is started at boot time.

The system administrator exports the DISPLAY variable from Florida to Carolina, and still cannot connect. What should be the next logical step?

- A. Issue the **netstat** -i command to check the network.
- B. From Carolina, issue the **1shost** command to see if Florida is allowed host access.
- C. From Carolina, issue the **xhost list** command to see if Florida is allowed host access and if not, issue the **xhost add Florida** command.
- D. From Carolina, issue the **xhost** command to see if Florida is allowed host access and if not, from Carolina, issue the **xhost** + **Florida** command.

#### 11.7.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. C
- 2. B
- 3. A
- 4. D
- 5. B

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. A
- 3. C
- 4. D

#### 11.8 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- rlogin to another system and run an X application. Set the DISPLAY variable using both host name and IP address to prevent the unable to open DISPLAY error message. Compare the error message with that caused by xhost error.
- 2. Experiment with the **xhost** command to allow and disallow an X-Windows application client to connect to the host.
- 3. Explain the security implication for the .rhost, .netrc, .forward, and hosts.equiv files.
- 4. Experiment with the content and permission bits of the \$HOME/.rhosts file to show the effect on an **rsh** session from another host.
- 5. Using a test system that does not affect any user, remove a network adapter.
- 6. Set the value of the IP forwarding attribute of the network option to something other than 0 (zero) and 1 (one) to show that IP forwarding is enabled if the value of the parameter is set to other than 0 (zero).
- 7. If possible, test the value of the ipfowarding parameter of the network option to allow pings over multiple subnets on two interface boxes.
- 8. On a test system that does not affect any user, change the reference to the primary name server by editing the /etc/resolv.conf file. Observe the result when you try to access other hosts by host name and by IP addresses.

- 9. On a test system that does not affect any user, change the name resolution default order by editing the /etc/netsvc.conf file, so that /etc/hosts file will be used before the domain name server. Add an entry to the /etc/hosts file, so that the host name of a system has a different IP address and then try to access that host name.
- 10. Set the value of the NSORDER environment value to override the /etc/netsy.conf file.
- 11. Use the arp command to display, delete, and add entries in the ARP cache.
- 12.On a test system that does not affect any user, change the state of the network interface from active to inactive and observe the results. Remove the network interface and observe the result.
- 13. Add the network interface back in and make it active again. Perform additional tasks to bring the network back into operation.
- 14.On a test system that does not affect any user, flush the routing table and try to access hosts on the same and different subnet.
- 15. On a test system that does not affect any user, change the subnet mask to different values and check if it can still communicate with other hosts.
- 16. On a test system that does not affect any user, change the thewall value and observe the effect on the buffer pools over a period of time.
- 17.On a test system that does not affect any user, set the value of various tunable parameters of the network option and observe the result over a period of time.
- 18.On a test system that does not affect any user, stop the inetd daemon and telnet to other systems. Ping this test system from another host and try to telnet to it. Observe the result.
- 19. On a test system that does not affect any user, change the token ring speed of a token-ring network adapter, or change the connection type of an Ethernet network adapter and observe the result.



# **Printers**

This chapter covers printing and common support procedures involved in ensuring an AIX printer, whether remotely or locally, remains operational. You are guided through problem determination and troubleshooting of printer problems.

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## 12.1 The printer colon files

Printer and printer data stream attributes reside in *colon* files. Colon files reside in the /usr/lib/lpd/pio/predef and /var/spool/lpd/pio/@local/custom/\* directories. The /usr/lib/lpd/pio/predef directory contains the predefined database and the /var/spool/lpd/pio/@local/custom/\* directory contains the customized database.

## 12.2 Remote printing

Remote printing allows different computers to share printers. To use remote printing facilities, the computers must be connected using the Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) protocol and must support the required TCP/IP applications, such as the Ipd daemon.

Figure 12-1 on page 313 shows the logic flow of a remote printer request.

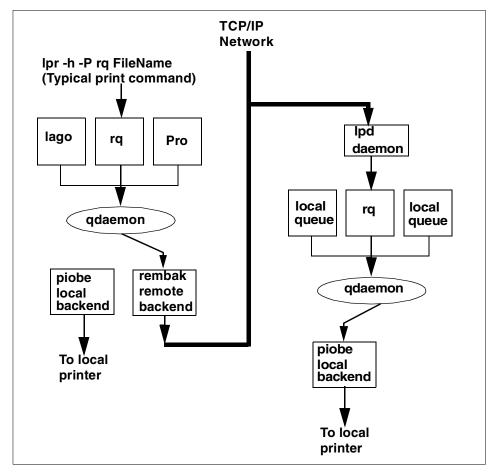


Figure 12-1 Remote print request

The /etc/hosts.lpd file, one of the important files in remote printing, is discussed in the following section.

## 12.2.1 The /etc/hosts.lpd file

The /etc/hosts.lpd file defines which remote systems are permitted to print on the local system. The remote systems listed in this file do not have the full privileges given to files listed in the /etc/hosts.equiv file.

The hosts.lpd file supports the following host name entries:

+ Signifies that any host on the network can print using the local host.

**HostName** The name of a remote host; signifies that HostName can

print, using the local host.

**-HostName** Signifies the host is not allowed to print using the local

host.

+@NetGroup Signifies all hosts in the netgroup are allowed to print

using the local host.

-@NetGroup Signifies that no hosts in the netgroup are allowed to print

using the local host.

Entries in this file can be made using the System Management Interface Tool (SMIT) or the **ruser** command.

**Note:** Comments must be entered on separate lines in the hosts.lpd file. Comments should not be entered on lines containing host names.

To implement hosts.lpd file changes without restarting the system, use the System Resource Controller (SRC) **refresh** command.

## 12.2.2 Controlling the lpd daemon

Controlling the lpd daemon includes starting and stopping the lpd subsystem and changing the characteristics of the lpd subsystem. Use the SMIT or System Resource Controller (SRC) commands to control the lpd daemon.

There are three ways to start the lpd daemon. If it is not currently running, you can start the daemon at any time. You also have the option of having the lpd daemon start at system restart or to have it start both at the current time and at system restart. The same options are available to stop the lpd daemon: stop now, stop at system restart, or stop both now and at system restart. You can run the lpd daemon with DEBUG, SYSLOG, both DEBUG and SYSLOG, or with neither.

To control the lpd daemon with SMIT, type **smitty lpd**, then select the desired options from the SMIT menus. To control the lpd daemon with the SRC, use the following SRC commands:

**startsrc** Starts a subsystem, group of subsystems, or a subserver.

**stopsrc** Stops a subsystem, group of subsystems, or a subserver.

**Issrc** Gets the status of a subsystem, group of subsystems, or a

subserver.

refresh Causes the subsystem or group of subsystems to reread the

appropriate configuration file.

**traceson** Enables tracing of a subsystem, group of subsystems, or a

subserver.

**tracesoff** Disables tracing of a subsystem, group of subsystems, or a

subserver.

## 12.3 Virtual printers

Virtual printers are unique to AIX, but have a heritage in UNIX called *printcap files*. They basically add commands to set up a printer to perform certain operations and then provide simple formatting for ASCII text. They are not an API. They are a set of attributes that control what gets sent to the printer as setup commands before and after the print job. Virtual printers also do simple text formatting, such as adding carriage returns to line feeds.

### 12.3.1 Files used with virtual printers

The following files are important when looking at virtual printers:

/usr/sbin/mkvirprt Contains the mkvirprt command.

/etc/qconfig Contains configuration files.

/usr/lib/lpd/pio/predef/\* Contains predefined printer attribute

files.

/var/spool/lpd/pio/@local/custom/\* Contains customized virtual printer

attribute files.

/usr/lib/lpd/pio/etc/\*.attach Contains attachment type files.

/usr/lib/lpd/pio/etc/\*.config Contains the configuration file for the

printer.

/var/spool/lpd/pio/@local/ddi\* Contains digested virtual printer

attribute files.

### 12.3.2 Key commands

Some of the virtual printer commands are:

**smitty mkpq** Command to add a virtual printer. Also adds printer

device.

smitty chpq Command to change a virtual printer.
smitty rmpq Command to remove a virtual printer.

**1svirprt** Command to change individual attributes of virtual printer.

Also used to list all attributes of a virtual printer.

**smitty chvirprt** Change a virtual printer attribute.

**Note:** Virtual Printers do not support graphics, except to pass it through to a printer.

A virtual printer is actually a fairly simple interface to a printer. It basically performs these functions:

- 1. Initializes the printer.
- 2. Provides a hook or interface to filters.
- 3. Formats ASCII data.
- 4. Translates from the input code page to the output printer symbol set (ASCII only).
- 5. Resets the printer to a predefined condition.
- 6. Calls the program to send the header and trailer pages.
- 7. Sends a form feed at the end of job.
- 8. Consumes some file space, such as /tmp.

#### Virtual Printers do not:

- 1. Generate any printer language commands, such as PostScript or PCL, other than the initialization and reset sequences.
- 2. Test for correctness of the format of data.
- 3. Automatically recognize the type of data, except for very simple sniffing of the first couple of characters, if set up properly.

Therefore, the virtual printer does almost nothing for any formatted PCL, formatted PPDS, graphics, or PostScript data, except tell the printer what language is incoming.

### 12.3.3 Creating a virtual printer

A virtual printer can be created using the **mkvirprt** command in AIX Version 3.2.5 or using the System Management Interface Tools (SMIT) fast path **smitty mkpq** in AIX Version 4. For this discussion, AIX Version 4 commands are used.

#### Using the smitty mkpq command

The command **smitty mkpq** produces a screen similar to that shown in Figure 12-2.

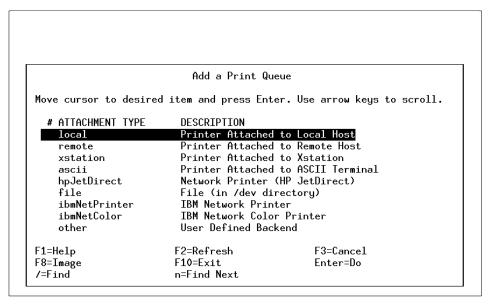


Figure 12-2 smitty mkpq command screen

#### Perform the following steps:

- 1. Select attachment type remote, as not highlighted in Figure 12-2.
- 2. Select your preferred Type of Remote Printing. For this example, it is Standard processing.
- 3. Fill in the characteristics for the virtual printer being created, as shown in Figure 12-3 on page 318, and press the Enter key. After the Command: 0K returns, exit SMIT and complete the process.

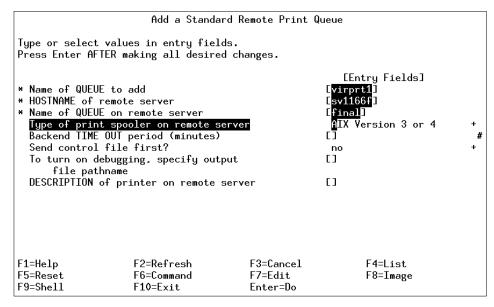


Figure 12-3 Add a Standard Remote Print Queue screen

You will now use the **lsvirprt** command to list the virtual printers on the system. The command **lsvirprt** without flags produces a menu, as in Figure 12-4, from which you can view and change the attributes of the virtual printer.

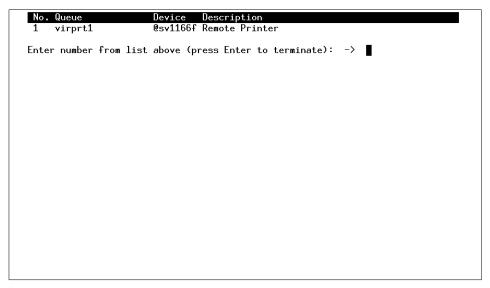


Figure 12-4 Isvirprt command output screen

Using the **smitty chvirprt** command change attributes of the virtual printer. This command produces the screen in Figure 12-5. From this screen, you can supply the virtual printer queue, in this case virprt1, and then proceed to change the desired attributes for the virtual printer.

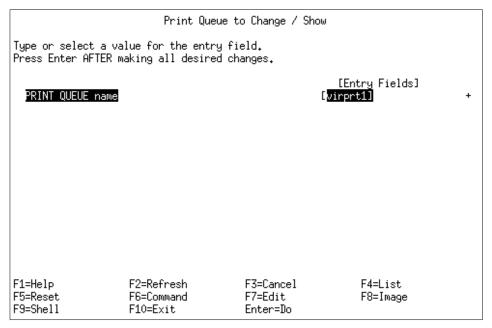


Figure 12-5 smitty chvirprt command screen

## 12.4 Troubleshooting remote printing problems

Trying to find out why print jobs from a remote client get lost on the way to a server can be a frustrating problem. In this section, some common errors, as well as how to trace a job sent by a remote client using the iptrace facility, are discussed.

## 12.4.1 0781-374 error message

If you attempt to send a print job to a remote print server whose lpd daemon is down, you will receive the following message:

0781-374 Connection to server timed out after retrying rembak:errno=79: A remote host refused an attempted connect operation

To correct this problem, start the lpd daemon on the remote system using the following command:

```
startsrc -s lpd
```

### 12.4.2 0781-202 error message

If you have a queue, finprt or fin2, on a client system, sv1051c, and the host name for that client is not in the /etc/hosts.lpd or the /etc/hosts.equiv file, then you will receive a 0781-202 error message when the **lpstat** command is run. See Figure 12-6 for an example of the command output. This problem is also seen with name server and routing problems.

```
# lpstat
Queue Dev Status Job Files User PP % Blks Cp Rnk

finprt @sv11 READY
finprt: 0781-202 your host does not have line printer access.
lpforu lp0 READY
fin2 @sv11 READY
fin2: 0781-202 your host does not have line printer access.
#
```

Figure 12-6 0781-202 error message

To correct this problem, you need to edit the /etc/hosts.lpd file on the server and enter the host name of the client system, as in Figure 12-7.

Figure 12-7 Content of /etc/hosts.lpd

#### 12.4.3 How to run a remote trace

The question, "What is getting sent to the remote system when I print?" can be answered by using remote trace.

#### What an iptrace can tell you

The following list contains what an iptrace can tell you:

- ► Characters actually sent over the network, even binary control characters.
- Responses that come from the LPD.
- Content of the control file.
- Which side terminated the conversation.
- Status information being sent back by the LPD.
- If the entire file gets sent to the LPD.
- ▶ If the control files follow the RFC-1179 standard.

#### Using the iptrace facility

The iptrace facility can easily show what is being sent to the remote system using the following command:

iptrace -p printer -a -b -s source\_host -d dest\_host /tmp/trace.out

Table 12-1 provides the **iptrace** command flags.

Table 12-1 Flags for the iptrace command

Flag	Description
-p <i>printer</i>	Use the word printer or a number such as 515, which means look at port 515 only. This will not get logon traffic.
-a	Suppresses ARP packets.
-i <i>en0</i>	Interface. Only use if multiple network cards are in the system.
-b	Change the -d and -s to bidirectional mode. Get data in both directions.
-s	Source hostname, or ipaddress where the <b>print</b> command is issued.
-d	Destination hostname, or ipaddress where the printer resides.
/tmp/trace.out	This can be any file name. It is created with 11 bytes and then will get filled with data. It is a binary file that must later be formatted with the <b>ipreport</b> command.

Print the job to the remote queue using the following command:

```
enq -Pqueue_name filename
```

#### or use:

```
1pstat -vqueue name
```

Check to see if the file has grown using 1s -1 /tmp/trace.out:

```
# ls -1 /tmp/trace.out
-rw-r--r- 1 root system 4538 Nov 09 11:17 /tmp/trace.out
```

If it is still 11 bytes, then you have made an error in the command. Use the kill command and end the process, then start again. Get the job ID using the command:

Kill the trace command using the command:

```
kill -9 job id
```

Format the output into a text file:

```
ipreport /tmp/trace.out > /tmp/report.out
```

The report contains three or four parts for each packet of data. These are:

- MAC header
- IP header
- ▶ TCP header
- ▶ b>data (If to/from application layer, that is, if FLAG=PUSH)

### How to interpret the trace

The MAC header does not supply much information useful to debugging printing.

The IP header gives the direction of the data flow and the number of bytes in the packet, but direction is also given in the TCP packet.

The TCP packet gives the:

- Direction of packet source port.
- Handshaking and purpose of packet flags.

- ► Source port number. This is important because of the multi-tasking environment. Packets from a status can be interspersed with packets from a print job, but for a single job the source port will remain the same.
- ► Packet identification. Use th\_seq and th\_ack to make sure the packets are in order, and to see which packet an ACK is responding to.
- Window size th\_win. The data packet shows the actual data that is sent back and forth.

The data packets contain queue names, command information, actual data to be printed, print flags, and error messages from the remote system lpd. It often simplifies the reading of the data to extract the data from the packets. All data lines of importance begin with at least four zeros. You can search for the data by looking for these zeros, as follows:

```
grep 0000 /tmp/report.out > /tmp/datasent.out
```

The size of this file will largely depend upon the size of the data file being printed. For this reason, start with a small file. A useful command is:

```
echo "AAAAA" | qprt -Pqueue name
```

This command output appears in the grep output as:

```
00000000 41414141 410a |AAAAA.
```

You will notice that the data is divided into three columns. These are:

- ► Column 1, a character count, prior to the current line
- ► Column 2, the data in HEX
- ► Column 3, the data in ASCII, with periods for non-printable characters

#### A PostScript output might look something like this:

!data !byte in	hex equivalent of sent to the remot	ASCII equiv. of the characters.		
!packet				
00000000	020405ac			
00000000	020405ac			j
00000000	0266696e 616c0a			.final.
00000000	00			.
00000000	03313033 20646641	31303137	73763130	.103 dfA1017sv10
0000010	3531630a			51c.
00000000	00			.
00000000	53746172 74207465	7374696e	670a5468	Start testing.Th
0000010	69732069 73206120	74657374	20707269	is is a test pri
00000020	6e74206a 6f622e0a	4920616d	20757369	nt jobI am usi

00000030	6e672069	70747261	63652074	6f207472	ng iptrace to tr
00000040	61636520	72656d6f	74652070	72696e74	ace remote print
00000050	206a6f62	732e0a46	696e6973	68207465	jobsFinish te
00000060	7374696e	672e0a			sting
00000000	00				i. i
00000000	00				i. i
00000000	02313038	20636641	31303137	73763130	.108 cfA1017sv10
00000010	3531630a				51c.
00000000	00				į. į
00000000	48737631	30353163	0a50726f	6f740a66	Hsv1051c.Proot.f
00000010	64664131	30313773	76313035	31630a55	dfA1017sv1051c.U
00000020	64664131	30313773	76313035	31630a4e	dfA1017sv1051c.N
00000030	53544449	4e2e3237	3535300a	2d4e310a	STDIN.27550N1.
00000040	2d5a726f	6f744073	76313035	31630a2d	-Zroot@sv1051c
00000050	74726f6f	74407376	31303531	630a2d54	troot@sv1051cT
00000060	53544449	4e2e3237	3535300a		STDIN.27550.
00000000	00				į.
00000000	00				į. į

. . .

The information gained from this output includes:

- ► The remote queue name is final.
- The data file contains 103 bytes.
- ► The job number is 1017.
- ► The local host name is sv1051c.

### Some things to search for in the output

There is always an initial handshake protocol that seems to appear similar to:

00000000	020405ac	
00000000	020405ac	

The middle column always starts with 02 for the handshake part. The rest is identification information and does not matter in this discussion.

In general, lines like the following indicate a positive acknowledgment:

00000000 00 |. |

One of the first lines in the file is the queue name:

00000000 0266696e 616c0a |.final. |

Notice in the middle column that this begins with 02. This is a flag to indicate that this is the start of a print request. The name on the end of the line is the queue name.

#### Command identifiers for LPD defined in RFC

A status request for a queue would start with an 03. The following binary identifiers are defined in the RFC:

- **01** Print any waiting jobs. Not supported by AIX **rembak**.
- **02** Receive a printer job. Standard command for printing.
- O3 Send queue state (short). Default status with qchk, 1pstat, and enq -A.
- **04** Send queue state (long).
- 05 Remove jobs.

A short distance down the file, a line will contain the temporary file name:

00000000	03313033 20646641 31303	37 73763130	.103 dfA1017sv10
00000010	3531630a		51c.

In this case, it begins with 03 in the middle column for data file. This is a subcommand of the **receive a printer job** command.

The receive printer job subcommands are as follows:

- **01** Abort job.
- **02** Receive control file:

```
102 | Count | SP | Name | LF |
```

**03** Receive data file:

```
103 | Count | SP | Name | LF |
```

The preceding example line shows a receive data file subcommand with the following information:

- ► The 103 in the third column indicates the number of bytes in the file.
- ► The file name starts with *df* for data file.
- ► The job number is the next part of the data file; in this example, it is 1017.
- ► The last part of the file name is the sending host name sv1051c.

The next packet of data from the client to the server is the data file itself. Check this file for extraneous characters, line feeds, spaces, tabs, and other things that might affect the format. The data in the right-hand column should be exactly what was on the client, as shown in the following example:

00000000	53746172	74207465	7374696e	670a5468	Start testing.Th
00000010	69732069	73206120	74657374	20707269	is is a test pri
00000020	6e74206a	6f622e0a	4920616d	20757369	<pre> nt jobI am usi </pre>
00000030	6e672069	70747261	63652074	6f207472	ng iptrace to tr
00000040	61636520	72656d6f	74652070	72696e74	ace remote print

00000050	206a6f62 732e0a46 696e6973 68207465	jobsFinish te	
00000060	7374696e 672e0a	sting	

The next packet from the client is usually the control file name, as shown in the following example:

00000000	02313038 20636641	31303137	73763130	.108 cfA1017sv10	
00000010	3531630a			51c.	

The subcommand for control file begins with 02 in the middle column. The information from the receive control file is:

- ▶ 02 is a control file descriptor.
- ► There is 108 bytes of control file information.
- ► The control file name starts with cfA.
- ► The job number 1017 was from host sv1051c.

A sample control file excerpt follows:

00000000	48737631	30353163	0a50726f	6f740a66	Hsv1051c.Proot.f
0000010	64664131	30313773	76313035	31630a55	dfA1017sv1051c.U
00000020	64664131	30313773	76313035	31630a4e	dfA1017sv1051c.N
00000030	53544449	4e2e3237	3535300a	2d4e310a	STDIN.27550N1.
00000040	2d5a726f	6f744073	76313035	31630a2d	-Zroot@sv1051c
00000050	74726f6f	74407376	31303531	630a2d54	troot@sv1051cT
00000060	53544449	4e2e3237	3535300a		STDIN.27550.

The meaning of the control file format is shown in Table 12-2.

Table 12-2 Control file format

Flag	Description
Hsv1051c	Shows the host name of the client.
Proot	Shows the user identification.
fdfA1017sv1051c	Shows the file to print.
UdfA1017sv1051c	Unlinks (deletes) file when done.
NSTDIN.27550	Origin of the file.
-N1	Make one copy.
-Zroot@sv1051c	AIX originator of remote job flag.
-troot@sv1051	AIX delivery flag.
-TSTDIN.27550	AIX Title flag.

#### 12.5 Filters

Filters in UNIX are generally programs that read from standard in (stdin), and write to standard out (stdout), and somewhere in the middle modify the data in some way. Filters can be run directly from the command line, from a shell script, or from within a virtual printer. This section will cover how to use a filter from a virtual printer, and some of the details on filters available with AIX.

In AIX Version 4 Info Explorer, there is a sample C filter for adding carriage returns to line feeds.

#### 12.5.1 AIX filters

The filters that are part of AIX are shown in Table 12-3.

Table 12-3 AIX filters

Filters	Description
pr	A filter that formats ASCII data into pages, adds page numbers, and can provide print rotation and page numbers. Very similar to piobe formatting.
asa or fpr	This filter interprets the carriage-control characters in column one, sometimes known as FORTRAN formatting. Although this filter goes by two names, there is only one filter.
nroff, troff, psroff, hplj, psc, tbl, pic, eqn, and grap	Filters for formatting xroff data to or from ditroff format. These filters allow a tagged file to create a formatted document that supports multiple fonts, tables, pictures, equations, and so forth.
enscript	Filter to convert ASCII TEXT data to PostScript

Filters are generally set up in a virtual printer to run before the data goes to the formatting pipeline. You can implement a filter even when the virtual printer is set in pass through mode and when it does not use either the ci (initialization) or cr (reset) sequences.

Filters are the first programs in the input data stream processing pipeline set up by piobe that have an opportunity to selectively manipulate the data stream. A particular filter can be selected from the command line on a per-job basis, or permanently selected by modifying the virtual printer definition.

The **qprt** command uses the -f flag to select a particular filter on a per-job basis. The argument to the -f flag is the second letter of the two letters that name the filter attribute in the virtual printer definition.

For example, to select the pr filter for a job on an ASCII queue named asc on an IBM 4029 LaserPrinter, you could issue the command:

```
qprt -Pasc -fp /etc/motd
```

The filter attribute that selects the pr filter is named fp, so the argument to the -f flag is just p, the second letter.

To permanently select the pr filter, use <code>lsvirprt</code> to edit the virtual printer definition and set the value of the <code>\_f</code> attribute to p. The <code>\_f</code> attribute selects a filter that will be used to pre-process any job submitted to the queue associated with this virtual printer definition.

Since the 1p, 1pr, and qprt commands are all just front ends to the enq command, the true entry point to the spooler, you would assume that enq must support the -f flag. If you issue the enq command with the -f flag, however, you will receive an error message as follows:

```
# enq -f
enq: Not a recognized flag: f
```

This is a situation where the previously described technique of mounting /bin/echo over /bin/enq proves useful.

The root user can issue the following commands from a shell prompt:

- 1. mount /bin/echo /bin/enq
- # qprt -Pasc -fp /etc/motd
   -P asc -o -f -o p /etc/motd
- 3. umount /bin/eng

After the second command is issued, the element defined by your TERM environment variable is displayed, as shown in step 2, above.

These are the arguments **qprt** tried to pass to **enq**. You get to see them because **qprt** found echo instead of **enq**. The following command is equivalent to the command shown in step 2 previously:

```
eng -P asc -o -f -o p /etc/motd
```

The -o option specifies that flags specific to the backend should be passed to the backend. The -o option can be thought of as a free pass through the syntax checking that occurs before the **enq** command builds a job description file and notifies the qdaemon of the existence of a new job.

#### **Using filters**

In this section, you will look at an example of a filter that maps linefeeds to carriage returns and linefeeds.

Many users have written or purchased applications that prepare data streams to fill in the blanks on pre-printed checks, invoices, bills-of-lading, or other forms. Printing these data streams requires precise control of the physical printer. It is often the case that the job processing pipeline created by piobe inserts or deletes enough data from the original data stream that the output data no longer falls at the proper position on the pre-printed form.

The root user can frequently use **lsvirprt** to set the value of the \_d attribute in the virtual printer definition top. On an ASCII queue on an IBM 4029 Laser Printer, this would cause piobe to select the IP pipeline to process the job. The IP pipeline is for passthrough printing, which means that the formatter filters use the passthru() routine to simply pass the input data stream through to the printer without modification.

This frequently removes all the printer control problems that existed, but adds one new one. When the formatter filter operates in passthrough mode, the mapping of linefeeds to carriage returns and linefeeds is disabled. The forms still do not print correctly.

Supposing that the application does not allow the insertion of carriage returns into the data stream, you can fix this problem with a simple filter, as follows:

Compile this and name it cr\_mapper and install it somewhere accessible, such as /usr/lib/lpd. Assign it ownership of root.printg and permissions 555.

Assuming you have an ASCII queue named asc on an IBM 4029 Laser Printer; in AIX Version 4 you can use **lsvirprt** to select the asc queue and then format the f1 filter attribute. You should see something like the following:

```
User defined filter 1 f1 =
```

As the f1 attribute has a null default value, the definition is sparse.

Edit the f1 attribute so its definition appears as follows:

```
User defined filter 1
f1 =
  '/usr/lib/lpd/cr mapper'
```

When you save the new definition of f1, you can again format it with lsvirprt; you should see something like the following:

```
User defined filter 1
f1 = /usr/lib/lpd/cr_mapper
'/usr/lib/lpd/cr_mapper'
```

The f1 filter can now be used from the command line by using commands such as:

```
qprt -Pasc -f1 filename
eng -Pasc -o -f -o 1 filename
```

If the \_d attribute was not set to p, the -dp flag and argument would have to be added to the commands as follows:

```
qprt -Pasc -dp -f1 filename
enq -Pasc -o -d -o p -o -f -o 1 filename
```

The cr\_mapper program reads characters from stdin and writes them to stdout. Whenever it reads and writes a line feed (a hex A, or decimal 10), it writes out a carriage return (a hex D).

## 12.6 Clearing and preventing queue hangs in AIX

In the AIX printing subsystem the file that defines queues is /etc/qconfig. This file is translated into a binary form called /etc/qconfig.bin. When the qdaemon is printing, this file is loaded into memory and used by the associated printing programs. When a change is made to /etc/qconfig, the current print jobs using the memory version of the file must complete printing before the new qconfig.bin can be loaded into memory for the new jobs to print. Thus, the current printing jobs must all finish before any jobs on the new or modified queue can print. When

small jobs are printing, this is not a problem, because the individual jobs finish quickly, and printing continues. But, when a large job is printing, or when a queue is in a DEV\_WAIT state, all new or modified queues will appear hung until this condition is cleared and the printing finishes.

In order to correct a hung queue, follow this procedure:

1. Run the **lpstat** command to get the status of the queue as follows:

# lpstat	t								
Queue	Dev	Status	Job	Files	User	PP %	B1ks	Ср	Rnk
lpforu	1p0	DEV_WAIT	5	/etc/hosts	root		2	1	1
		QUEUED	6	/etc/hosts	root		2	1	2
		QUEUED	7	/etc/hosts	root		2	1	3
		QUEUED	8	/etc/hosts	root		2	1	4

2. Stop the qdaemon before making any changes to a queue. This is easily done with the following command:

```
# stopsrc -c -s qdaemon
0513-044 The stop of the qdaemon Subsystem was completed successfully.
```

3. Make sure the qdaemon has stopped completely by checking with:

```
# lssrc -s qdaemon
Subsystem Group PID Status
qdaemon spooler inoperative
```

- 4. Use 1pstat or enq -sA to look for any DEV\_WAIT conditions. Wait until all RUNNING jobs are completed, but do not worry about jobs that are QUEUED at this time with a NEW job number in AIX 3. You will not see any of these jobs in AIX 4 or higher.
- 5. Clear any DEV\_WAIT conditions or cancel the jobs on those queues. Wait until any RUNNING jobs are finished. For details on clearing jobs, see Section 12.7, "Flushing a print job" on page 333.
- 6. If any of these conditions persist and you are unable to cancel the jobs, look in the /var/spool/lpd/stat directory for files that begin with a "p." This indicate active jobs that need to finish or be cleared. The file contains the PID (process ID) for the qd fork or other associated backend printer program. Often these programs can be cleared out manually as follows.

For example, if the file is /var/spool/lpd/stat/p.lpforu.lp0, then run the following command:

```
cat /var/spool/lpd/stat/p.lpforu.lp0
```

This returns the value:

28080

To verify that 28080 is the PID for the qd fork process, run:

To kill this process, run the command:

```
kill -9 28080
```

To check if the process has stopped, run:

Note: Some commands may require root user or system group authority.

Once the system has been cleared, printer jams fixed, paper trays filled, and the queues show READY, the qdaemon can be restarted and the printing subsystem should be in working order again.

This is the time to add new queues. Make changes to the queue, and then start the gdaemon back up with:

```
startsrc -s gdaemon
```

### **12.6.1 Summary**

The previous procedure can be summarized as follows:

- Never change the queues or add queues while jobs are printing.
- ▶ Prevent new jobs submitted from interfering by stopping the gdaemon.
- ► Clear all paper jams or disable queues with problems before making any changes.
- Restart the qdaemon after making changes.

## 12.7 Flushing a print job

You discovered that the first job you printed was the incorrect one. You printed the correct one but now want to delete the obsolete job. The following describes how to flush a print job.

Check the status of the print queue:

```
# lpstat -vlpforu
Queue Dev Status Job Files User PP % Blks Cp Rnk
lpforu lpO RUNNING 3 /etc/passwd root 1 100 1 1 1
```

Print the /etc/hosts file to the default printer:

```
lpr -dlpforu /etc/hosts
```

Check the status of the print queue:

```
# lpstat -vlpforu
Queue Dev Status Job Files User PP \% Blks Cp Rnk
```

Cancel the print job for /etc/passwd using one of the following commands:

```
# qcan -P lpforu -x 3
# cancel 3
# lprm -P lpforu 3
# enq -P lpforu -x 3
```

Check the print queue using the **qchk** command:

```
# achk -P lpforu
Queue Dev Status Job Files User PP % Blks Cp Rnk
lpforu lpO RUNNING 4 /etc/hosts root 1 100 2 1 2
```

## 12.8 Holding and releasing print jobs

You may want to prevent one or more jobs from printing without disabling the queue entirely. You use the qhld command to accomplish this. The qhld command holds print jobs in a spooled state. The job to be held is designated by job number, queue, or user name.

The **qh1d** command syntax is as follows:

```
qhld [ -r ] { -#JobNumber [ -PQueue ] | -PQueue | -uUser [ -PQueue ]
```

The following is an example of using the **qh1d** command to hold print job 13:

```
# qhld -#13 -P lpforu

# qchk -P lpforu

Queue Dev Status Job Files User PP % Blks Cp Rnk
----- Ipforu lpO READY

HELD 13 smit.log root 22 1 1
```

The -r flag releases the hold on the print job:

## 12.9 Troubleshooting printing problems

Some of the other general problems that you may encounter are covered in the following sections.

## 12.9.1 qdaemon will not start

This is usually because of:

- 1. Bad lines or stanzas in /etc/qconfig caused by:
  - Manual editing of the file.
  - Removing queues while jobs are still queued.
- 2. Incompatible qdaemon, enq, and digest after upgrade.

### 12.9.2 Cannot add printer queue

You attempt to add a new printer queue and receive the following error:

```
Not enough space in the /tmp directory
```

Since the /tmp file system is a mount point for a directory that contains system-generated temporary files, space will be required for those generated during the creation of the print queue. As such, these files cannot be written to /tmp and hence the previous error message. Troubleshoot this problem by increasing the size of /tmp or removing any unnecessary files in the /tmp.

### 12.9.3 Full file systems

Full file systems can produce a wide variety of problems. While some of these problems are obvious, many others are not, and the print subsystem is not immune. The amount of free space in file systems, particularly /tmp, should always be checked when investigating printing problems.

## 12.10 Setting default printers

An administrator can set a print queue as the default print queue. There are two methods to set a default printer: using the **smitty qdefault** fast path and using the LPDEST environment variable.

### 12.10.1 Using smitty qdefault fast path

To define a default printer:

1. Enter the command smitty qdefault. The screen in Figure 12-8 is produced.

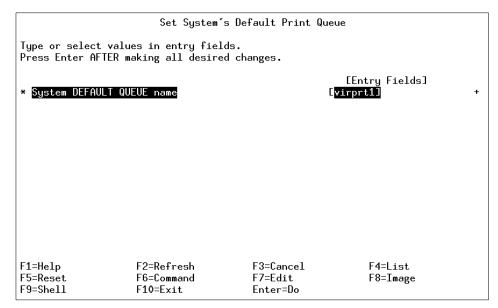


Figure 12-8 Set System's Default Print Queue screen

- 2. Specify the queue name for the print queue you wish to be the default.
- 3. Press the Enter Key and wait until the Command: Ok screen displays, then exit SMIT to complete the process.

#### 12.10.2 The LPDEST environment variable

The LPDEST environment variable specifies the default print queue once it has been set. A number of print commands, such as **enq**, **1prm**, **1pr**, **qstatus**, **pac**, and many more, use this environment variable as the default if it is set and if a printer is not specified. For some commands, it overrides the printer variable value.

Using the **printenv** command to look at a system before the LPDEST environment variable is set will produce the following output:

```
# printenv
=/usr/bin/printenv
LANG=en US
LOGIN=root
NLSPATH=/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N:/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N.cat
PATH=/usr/bin:/etc:/usr/sbin:/usr/ucb:/usr/bin/X11:/sbin
LC FASTMSG=true
LOGNAME=root
MAIL=/usr/spool/mail/root
LOCPATH=/usr/lib/nls/loc
USER=root
AUTHSTATE=compat
SHELL=/bin/ksh
ODMDIR=/etc/objrepos
HOME=/
TERM=vt100
MAILMSG=[YOU HAVE NEW MAIL]
PWD=/
TZ=CST6CDT
A z=! LOGNAME
```

To set the default queue using the LPDEST environment variable, do the following:

 Change the value of the LPDEST environment variable in one of the following ways:

```
If you are in the sh (Bourne) shell, enter the following command:
```

```
LPDEST=NewValue; export LPDEST

If you are in each (C) shall enter the
```

If you are in csh (C) shell, enter the following command:

```
setenv LPDEST=NewValue
```

If you are in ksh (Korn) shell, enter the following command:

```
export LPDEST=NewValue
```

2. To verify the current value of the LPDEST environment variable, use the following commands:

```
# echo $LPDEST
virprt1
```

3. Using the **printenv** command after setting the variable will produce the following output:

```
# printenv
=/usr/bin/printenv
LANG=en_US
LOGIN=root
NLSPATH=/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N:/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N.cat
PATH=/usr/bin:/etc:/usr/sbin:/usr/ucb:/usr/bin/X11:/sbin
LC_FASTMSG=true
LOGNAME=root
MAIL=/usr/spool/mail/root
LOCPATH=/usr/lib/nls/loc
USER=root
AUTHSTATE=compat
SHELL=/bin/ksh
ODMDIR=/etc/objrepos
HOME=/
TERM=vt100
MAILMSG=[YOU HAVE NEW MAIL]
PWD=/
TZ=CST6CDT
LPDEST=virprt1
A__z=! LOGNAME
```

Note that the LPDEST environment variable is now set to virprt1, as highlighted in the preceding example.

### 12.11 Quiz

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

1. When trying to print a file, the following message is displayed:

```
No virtual printers defined
```

Which of the following is the probable cause?

- A. The lpd and qdaemons are not running.
- B. The printer software is not installed.
- C. There is no space left in /tmp file system.
- D. The /etc/qconfig.bin file is corrupted.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

 The system administrator is logged into host plainview.texas.com. The system administrator adds a remote print queue from plainview to host beaumont.texas.com and then runs the lpstat command to confirm the queues are ready to print. The results of the lpstat command are shown below.

Queue	Dev	Status	Job Files	User	PP %	Blks	Ср	Rnk
1p0	1p0	STOPPED	1 /tmp/report	root		7911	1	1
rq0	0beau	READY						
ra0	raO	NWOO T20H						

The **lpstat** output in the exhibit indicates that plainview cannot communicate with beaumont. The system administrator runs a **ping** command from plainview to beaumont and receives ping packets back. Which of the following actions can be performed so plainview can print to beaumont?

- A. Execute enq -d on plainview.
- B. Start the lpd daemon on beaumont.
- C. Start the lpd daemon on plainview.
- D. Add the beaumont host name to plainview's /etc/hosts.lpd file.

2. A system administrator is logged into host plainview.texas.com and executes lpstat as root. The system administrator adds a remote print queue from plainview to host beaumont.texas.com, re-executes lpstat to confirm the queues are ready to print, and gets the following results shown in the exhibit:

Queue	Dev	Status	Job Files	User	PP	%	B1ks	Ср	Rnk
1p0	1p0	STOPPED	1 /tmp/report	root			7911	1	1
rq0	0beau	READY							
rq0	rq0	HOST_DOWN							

Which of the following commands should be run to get the queued job in lp0 to begin printing?

- A. qchk -q
- B. enq -X 1p0
- C. stopsrc -s lpd; startsrc -s lpd
- D. stopsrc -cs qdaemon; startsrc -s qdaemon

#### 12.11.1 Answers

The following answer is for the assessment quiz questions.

1. C

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. B
- 2. D

## 12.12 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Create a virtual printer with the name vprinter on a local system for the remote queue, qremote. If the remote queue does not exist on the remote system, then create the remote queue.
- 2. Create a text file containing your name, address, and telephone number on individual lines.
- 3. Start a trace for this virtual printer, vprinter.
- 4. Print the text file created in step 2 on the vprinter.
- 5. Using the results of the trace output determine:
  - a. The remote queue name
  - b. The number of bytes in the data file
  - c. The job number
  - d. The local host name
- 6. Stop the lpd daemon on the remote server.
- 7. Repeats steps 3 to 5.
- 8. Restart the lpd daemon.



# Asynchronous Point-to-Point Protocol

The asynchronous Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP) subsystem provides an alternative to SLIP. PPP provides a standard method for transporting multiprotocol datagrams over point-to-point media. PPP is comprised of three main layers:

- ► A method for encapsulating multiprotocol datagrams. AIX PPP supports the TCP/IP network layer protocols.
- ► A Link Control Protocol (LCP) for establishing, configuring, and testing the data-link connection. AIX PPP implements this through the streams' kernel extensions.
- ► A family of Network Control Protocols (NCPs) for establishing and configuring different network layer protocols. AIX PPP supports Internet Protocol Control Protocol (IPCP) for negotiating a TCP/IP connection.

AIX PPP differentiates between client and server. An AIX system can act as both a client and a server. The distinction is made to simplify configuration. PPP servers tend to allocate a pool of IP addresses among the connections that are being made. There is some correlation between the media devices and AIX PPP breaks this correlation. All server PPP connections are allocated on a first-available basis. This facilitates the separation of PPP from the media. The attachment process must request to be linked to the proper type of link.

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The asynchronous Point-to-Point Protocol on AIX utilizes three user-level processes:

- A control daemon, pppcontrold, executed by root under the system resource controller (startsrc -s pppcontrold). The control daemon's function encompasses loading and configuring all kernel extensions associated with the subsystem. It remains running as long as PPP function is required by the operating system.
- 2. An attachment process, pppattachd, which binds a TTY stream to an instance of the Link Control Protocol, Network Control Protocol, and a datagram protocol. An instance of pppattachd exists for each active PPP connection in the system. Any user of the attachment process must belong to the uucp group and contain /usr/sbin within their PATH environment variable.
- 3. A dialer process, pppdial that establishes an outgoing connection. The dialer is intended to be executed by pppattachd as the connector program. Its purpose is to interact over the asynchronous device prior to PPP negotiation. This interaction is defined similarly to the UUCP chat dialog format. The dialer capability is provided to assist in establishing a connection with a remote system. The actual session establishment is out of the scope of PPP.

# 13.1 Configuring an asynchronous PPP server

Before configuration, ensure that the bos.net.ppp fileset is installed on your AIX system.

Setting up the PPP server requires six steps:

- Setting up the PPP link control configuration
- 2. Assigning the PPP IP addresses
- 3. Setting up the special PPP dial-in ID
- 4. Adding the TTY port
- Configuring the modem
- 6. Starting PPP

Details for the these steps are discussed in the following sections.

# 13.2 Setting up the PPP control link

The following terms are used in this section for discussion:

**PPP subsystem name** A unique name to identify the PPP server.

Max server connections The greatest number of clients that may be

served at any one time. Typically, this is the number of dial-in modems on the system.

**Max client connections** The greatest number of outgoing connections

at any one time. Typically, this is the number of

dial-out modems on the system

Max demand interfaces The greatest number of peer connections

allowed at any one time. These connections are established on demand, meaning they are triggered by an event. For example, a ping to

the remote PPP host.

**Max IP interfaces** The total of the PPP interfaces for the system

that is the sum of max server connections, max client connections, and max demand

connections.

Max async HDLC attachments The number of concurrently active PPP

sessions allowed. Typically equal to the Max

IP interface.

The following settings are examples used in this section, for configuring the control PPP daemon:

PPP subsystem name mickey

Max server connections 1

Max client connections 0

Max demand interface 0

Max IP interface 1

Max async HDLC attachments1

#### Note:

- Normally, all other options on the SMIT dialog are left at their default values.
- ▶ You must be root to start PPP and to have access to most files.

The following procedure guides you through creating the PPP Control Link.

- On server mickey, add the link through SMIT by entering the command: smitty ppp
- 2. Choose the option Link Control Configuration.
- 3. Choose the option Add A Link Configuration.
- 4. Fill in the accented fields, as shown in Figure 13-1 on page 345, with the values specified previously.

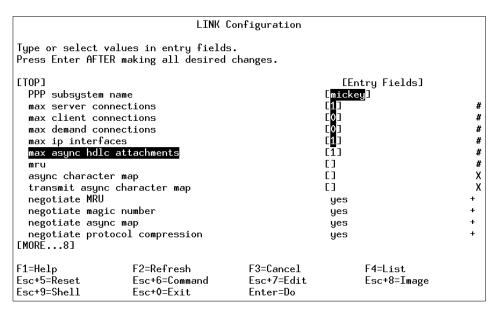


Figure 13-1 Link Configuration screen

#### 5. Press Enter to add the Link.

This process created a file /etc/ppp/lcp\_config. You can examine this file as follows:

```
# cat /etc/ppp/lcp_config
server_name mickey
lcp_server 1
lcp_client 0
lcp_demand 0
num_if 1
num_hdlc 1
```

# 13.3 Assigning the PPP IP addresses

The following information is required for this procedure: the IP address, gateway, and netmask for the host.

To obtain this information, perform the following steps:

- ► Enter smitty tcpip.
- Select Minimum Configuration & Startup.
- Choose the Available Network Interface, such as en0 or tr0.

Make note of the information required.

For the purposes of this discussion, the settings you will use are:

Hostname mickey
Internet address 9.3.1.45

**Network mask** 255.255.255.0

Nameserver 9.3.1.74

**DOMAIN name** itsc.austin.ibm.com

GATEWAY address 9.3.1.74

Perform the following steps:

- 1. Choose an unused address in the same domain (9.3.1.46).
- Add an entry in the /etc/hosts file with the new address and host name for the PPP client.
- 3. Add the PPP addresses by entering the command smitty ppp.
- 4. Choose the option PPP IP Interfaces.
- 5. Choose the option Add a Server Interface.
- 6. Fill in the fields, shown in Figure 13-2, with information provided previously.

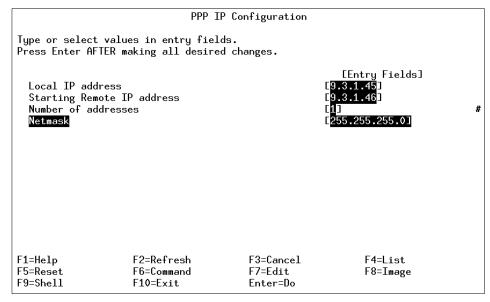


Figure 13-2 PPP IP Configuration

7. Press Enter to add the IP Server configuration. This creates a file entry in /etc/ppp/if\_conf. The file can be viewed using the following:

```
# cat /etc/ppp/if_conf
interface
server
local_ip 9.3.1.45
remote_ip 9.3.1.46
netmask 255.255.255.0
```

8. Make sure ipforwarding is on. By default, in AIX Version 4 and later, ipforwarding is turned off. If you want your server to act as a router, you need to turn ipforwarding on. Check the value of ipforwarding with:

```
# no -a |grep ipf
ipfragtt1 = 60
ipforwarding = 0
```

If ipforwarding is 0, change it to 1 with the following command:

```
no -o ipforwarding=1
```

Because you are adding the client to the same subnet as the server, you will want the server to respond to ARP requests from other hosts in the network, so that all traffic to the client will get routed through the hosts. You can do this with a proxy ARP.

Find the hardware address of the local adapter for the client using:

# net	stat -	i						
Name	Mtu	Network	Address	Ipkts Ierrs		Opkts Oerrs	Co11	
100	16896	link#1		203625	0	203773	0	0
100	16896	127	loopback	203625	0	203773	0	0
100	16896	::1		203625	0	203773	0	0
en0	1500	link#2	2.60.8c.2f.47.42	712193	0	712606	0	0
en0	1500	9.3.5	goofy_en0	712193	0	712606	0	0
tr0	1492	link#3	10.0.5a.a8.3b.fa	1088842	0	769364	0	0
tr0	1492	9.3.1	goofy	1088842	0	769364	0	0
tr1	1492	link#4	10.0.5a.a8.d1.f3	1076155	0	726539	0	0
tr1	1492	9.3.4	goofy_stby	1076155	0	726539	0	0

Add an ARP entry for the remote host using:

```
arp -s type hostname hardware address pub
```

where:

**type** The type of your network adapter. Valid types are:

ether, 802.3, fddi, 802.5 (token ring).

**hostname** Host name of the client.

**hardware address** From **netstat -i**. Use colon separators.

**pub** Indicates public and permanent.

The token ring (tr0) hardware address is used for this example.

For server mickey, this command is:

```
arp -s 802.5 goofy 10:0:5a:8c:3b:fa pub
```

10. Verify the ARP entries with an arp -a command. The output is as follows:

goofy (9.3.1.46) at 10:0:5a:8c:3b:fa [token ring] permanent published

# 13.4 Adding a PPP login user

When setting up a PPP server, the answering pppattachd daemon is started from the profile script of a special PPP user. The security of this user is dependent on the type of Internet server you are using and who will know the password of the server. In many cases, you will want this special user ID only available while starting a PPP session. This is especially true if you are setting up a server for outside users to dial into.

Special tasks specific to the PPP user include:

- 1. Make this user a member of the uucp group.
- 2. Do not allow other users to su to this user.
- 3. Do not allow a remote login to the user (telnet or rlogin).
- 4. Disable FTP to the user.
- 5. Modify the .profile to start the pppattachd.

In this section, you will create a PPP user through SMIT.

You will use the command **smitty user** fast path as follows:

- 1. Enter the command smitty user.
- 2. Choose the option Add a User.
- 3. Fill in the screen ensuring that the following is set:

User NamepppuserPrimary GroupuucpGroup SetuucpAdministrative Groupsuucp

Another user can su to user false (for security)

Su Groups Nogroup

Home directory /home/pppuser
Initial Program /usr/bin/ksh

User can Login? true

#### User can Login Remotely? false

Press Enter to create user. Press F3 to go to previous menu.

- 4. Select Change a User's Password. Give the user ID a password.
- 5. Edit the user .profile using:

vi /home/pppuser/.profile

Insert the first line:

exec /usr/sbin/pppattachd server 2>/dev/null

6. At the initial login, the new user is prompted to change the assigned password. However, the chat script cannot do this and the connection will not be successful. Therefore, enter the following command to switch off this prompt:

pwdadm -f NOCHECK username

For this example, the command is:

pwdadm -f NOCHECK pppuser

7. Put the PPP user name in the /etc/ftpusers file.

Create the file if it does not exist.

The user is ready for PPP login.

## 13.4.1 Adding the TTY port

In this section, you will add a TTY port with login capability.

#### Add the TTY device

The procedure adds a TTY device:

- 1. Enter the command smitty tty.
- 2. Choose the option Add a TTY.
- 3. Choose your TTY type from the resulting list.
- 4. Choose your parent adapter from the resulting script.
- 5. Make the following changes:
  - Set your port number.
  - Enable login.
  - Set baud rate to the baud rate of the modem.
  - Set flow control as rts.
- 6. Press Enter to add the TTY.

#### Add TTY to /etc/uucp/Devices file

For the **cu** command to configure the modem and for PPP to work, you will need an entry in the /etc/uucp/Devices file for this TTY. Add this as follows:

- 1. Enter the command cd /etc/uucp.
- 2. Enter the command vi Devices.
- 3. Add a line at the following line at the bottom of the Devices file:

```
Direct tty# - baud-rate direct
For this example, it is:
Direct tty0 - 9600 direct
```

4. Save and exit the file.

## 13.4.2 Configure the dial-in modem

The setup of a modem will be different for different types of modems, and will also be different for the client or the server. Since the server is answering the call, you will need to make sure that the modem is set to answer a call. Modem setup strings vary, but a frequently-used generic setup string is as follows:

AT&F&C1&D2S0=102&W

A different string may be required by your modem. Some modems allow you to configure them directly, and that eliminates the need to do any of these configuration from the software level. See the installation manual for your modem for details.

To set up the modem, do the following:

- Disable the login with pdisable tty0.
- Connect to the modem with cu -m1 tty0. The modem should respond with Connected.

If an entry is not made for tty0 in the /etc/uucp/Devices file, then the following error is displayed when the command **cu -m1 tty0** is executed:

```
# cu -ml tty0
cu: 0835-028 The connection failed. NO DEVICES AVAILABLE.
```

Note: The command cu -dml tty# provides you with debug information for the cu command. If there is no response from the cu -ml tty# command, then execute the command with the -d flag and troubleshoot the problem from the information supplied in the output.

- 3. Type AT and press Enter. The modem should respond with OK.
- 4. Set the modem to answer after one ring with ATS0=1.
- 5. Enter the generic setup string or use the specific setup string for your modem.
- 6. Exit the cu session with ~. That is the tilde character followed by a dot.
- 7. Press Enter. This should return Disconnected.
- 8. Enable the login with penable tty0.

#### Capturing diagnostic output

Before dialing out, provide diagnostic information to use in case of a failure to establish a connection. Do the following:

- 1. In the /etc/syslog.conf file, add the line: \*.debug /tmp/ppp.
- 2. Create the file /tmp/ppp and set the permissions so it can be written to.
- ${\it 3. \ Tell\ syslogd\ that\ /etc/syslog.conf\ has\ been\ updated.\ Enter\ the\ command:}\\$

```
refresh -s syslogd
```

- 4. pppcontrold can be set to provide more detailed output by sending it signal 30. Enter the following commands:
  - 1ssrc -s pppcontrold (Note the process ID (PID)).
  - kill -30 pppcontrold\_PID, where pppcontrold\_PID is the PID number of pppcontrold returned by the previous command.

This will append a note to /tmp/ppp with a message indicating that debugging has been activated. This diagnostic output can be switched off using kill -31 pppcontrold\_PID.

## 13.4.3 Start the PPP control daemon

Once the link and IP addresses are configured, you can start the pppcontrold control daemon. It is recommended that you do this from SMIT, following the same procedure used for the server.

- 1. Return to the PPP main Panel that is using smitty ppp.
- 2. Select the option Start PPP.
- 3. Select the type of startup you want.
- 4. At this point, if you exit SMIT, you can do the following to verify that the PPP subsystem is active on this system:

```
#lssrc -s pppcontrold
Subsystem Group PID Status
pppcontrold uucp 18914 active
This should show as active.
#ps -ef | grep ppp
root 18914 4456 0 Apr 18 - 0:00 /usr/sbin/pppcontrold
```

There should be a pppcontrold process running.

If there is a problem, look at the /tmp/pppsyslog daemon file you setup in "Capturing diagnostic output" on page 351.

## 13.5 AIX PPP client

Now that the server (mickey) is up and operational, you will configure a client (goofy) and test the connection between mickey and goofy.

## 13.5.1 Configuring an AIX PPP client

You will configure the PPP client through SMIT with the following procedure:

- 1. On Goofy, enter the command smitty ppp.
- 2. Select the option Link Control Configuration.
- 3. Select the option Add a Link Configuration.
- 4. Fill in the fields as follows:

PPP subsystem name	goofy
Max server connections	0
Max client connections	1
Max IP interfaces	1
Maria de LIDI A alla de caracte	

#### Max async HDLC attachments 1

You are configuring a client; therefore, you do not need more than one client connection, no server connections, and only one IP interface and async HDLC Attachments. You will only be dialing out to one server.

Take the defaults for everything else.

- 5. Press Enter to add the link.
- 6. The file /etc/ppp/lcp\_config was created. A look at this file shows the following configuration for the client:

```
#cat /etc/ppp/lcp_config
server_name goofy
lcp_server 0
lcp_client 1
lcp_demand 0
num_if 1
num hdlc 1
```

- 7. Add a TTY, as shown in Section 13.4.1, "Adding the TTY port" on page 349. Ensure that Enable LOGIN=disable is set when configuring the TTY.
- 8. Configure the dial-out modem using the method in Section 13.4.2, "Configure the dial-in modem" on page 350.

#### Start the PPP control daemon

Once the link is configured, you can start the pppcontrold control daemon. It is recommended that you do this from SMIT by following the same procedure as in Section 13.4.3, "Start the PPP control daemon" on page 351.

Verify that the PPP interface is working by using the following command:

```
#ifconfig pp0
pp0: flags=6000030<POINTOPOINT,NOTRAILERS,GROUPRT,64BIT>
    inet 0.0.0.0 --> 0.0.0.0 netmask 0xff000000
```

The interface should display with Addresses of 0.0.0.0 set.

#### 13.5.2 Create the chat dialog

A chat script is a file containing expect-send pairs separated by spaces or newline. These expect-send sequences instruct pppdial how to dial up and log into a remote PPP server. An example of a simple chat script follows:

```
AT
OK
ATDT44444444
CONNECT
Ogin:
goofy
ssword:
goofy
```

Line by line, this script can be translated to mean:

- Expect nothing.
- Send the command AT to the modem.
- Expect OK to come back.
- ▶ Send the modem ATDT44444444 (to make the modem dial this number).
- ► Expect the CONNECT response from the modem.
- Send a null string.
- ► Expect the string ogin: from the remote system.
- Send the ppp ID goofy.
- Expect a prompt (ssword:) for the password.
- Send the ppp ID password that is goofy.

This is only an example and, as such, before you establish a PPP connection, dial out to the remote system and see what is required to log in and start PPP.

You should now be able to use the command /usr/sbin/pppattachd tty0 client connect "/usr/sbin/pppdial -v -f chat\_script\_file" to connect to the remote server.

A sample chat script (dial\_out.example) can be found in the /etc/ppp directory. You can edit this script to reflect your requirements and use it to invoke the PPP connection.

If there are any problems with the connection, see the /tmp/ppp file created in section "Capturing diagnostic output" on page 351 for diagnostic information to assist in troubleshooting the problem.

## 13.6 Quiz

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. What filesets need to be installed to support PPP?
  - A. bos.net.ppp, bos.uucp.net
  - B. bos.net.ppp, bos.net.uucp
  - C. bos.net.ppp
  - D. bos.net

2. Given the following command and output:

```
# cat /etc/ppp/lcp_config
server_name pppserver
lcp_server 1
lcp_client 0
lcp_demand 0
num_if 1
num_hdlc 1
```

Is this a server or client PPP system? How many server connections and client connects can this system make respectively?

- A. Client, 2, 0
- B. Client, 1, 0
- C. Server, 0, 1
- D. Server, 1, 0

#### **13.6.1 Answers**

The following answers are for the additional guiz questions.

- 1. C
- 2. D

## 13.7 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- Create a link configuration for a PPP server with zero maximum client connections, three maximum server connections, no maximum demand, and maximum IP interface.
- 2. Add a TTY and use the **cu** command to configure and test your dial-in modem.
- 3. Use the lcp\_config file to verify the configuration in 1.
- 4. Configure a PPP client to connect to this server with zero maximum server connections. Verify configuration using the lcp\_config file.



# The cron daemon and crontab

The cron daemon runs shell commands at specified dates and times. The AIX cron daemon is similar to the System V Release 2 cron daemon. An entry in the /etc/inittab file starts the cron daemon at system initialization. The default record for AIX 5L Version 5.1 is shown in Table 14-1.

Table 14-1 Default cron record in the /etc/inittab file

Field	Value
Identifier	cron
RunLevel	23456789
Action	respawn
Command	/usr/sbin/cron

In previous versions of AIX, cron had a RunLevel value of 2.

Regularly scheduled commands can be specified according to instructions contained in the crontab files. You can submit your crontab file with the **crontab** command. Use the **at** command to submit commands that are to be run only once. You can also use the **batch** command that is a shell script invoking the **at** command.

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#### 14.1 The at command

The at command reads, from standard input, the names of commands to be run at a later time and allows you to specify when the commands should be run. The at command mails you all output from standard output and standard error for the scheduled commands, unless you redirect that output. It also writes the job number and the scheduled time to standard error.

Submit a job to be run at a later time using the format:

at -f filename -t CCYYMMDDhhmmSS Increment

where the values of the -t and -f flags are:

Specifies the first two digits of the year (the century). If this is not specified, the default value is 19, if the value of YY is between 70 and 99. The default value is 20 if the value of YY is between 00 and 37.

**YY** Specifies the second two digits of the year.

MM Specifies the month of the year (01 through 12).

**DD** Specifies the day of the month (01 through 31).

**hh** Specifies the hour of the day (00 through 23).

**mm** Specifies the minute of the hour (00 through 59).

SS Specifies the second of the minute (00 through 59). The default value

is 00 is it is not specified.

**filename** Specifies the command file to be run at a later time.

The optional Increment parameter can be one of the following:

- ► A + (plus sign) followed by a number and one of the following words:
  - minute[s]
  - hour[s]
  - day[s]
  - week[s]
  - month[s]
  - year[s]
- ► The special word next followed by one of these words:
  - minute[s]
  - hour[s]
  - day[s]
  - week[s]

- month[s]
- year[s]

Instead of the -t flag, you can also use the following keywords:

- ▶ noon
- midnight
- ▶ now

Other flags and values can be found in the AIX product documentation.

### 14.1.1 Location of the spool area directory for the at command

The spool area directory for the **at** command is /var/spool/cron/atjobs. After a job is scheduled to run, a file exists in the /var/spool/cron/atjobs directory and the **atq** command shows:

```
# ls /var/spool/cron/atjobs
root.915213600.a
# atq
root.915213600.a Fri Jan 1 12:00:00 CST 1999
```

After the job is deleted, the /var/spool/cron/atjobs directory is empty and the **atq** command no longer shows anything:

```
# at -r root.915213600.a
The root.915213600.a at file is deleted.
# ls /var/spool/cron/atjobs
# atq
```

#### 14.2 Location of crontab files

The crontab files are kept in the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory. Each cron user has a crontab file with their user name as the file name in the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory. The content of a sample /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory is shown in Figure 14-1.

Figure 14-1 Sample /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory content

A sample of the /var/spool/cron/crontabs/root file is shown in Figure 14-2.

```
# crontab -1
# @(#)08
               1.15.1.3 src/bos/usr/sbin/cron/root, cmdcntl, bos430, 9737A_430
2/11/94 17:19:47
# IBM_PROLOG_BEGIN_TAG
# This is an automatically generated prolog.
# bos430 src/bos/usr/sbin/cron/root 1.15.1.3
# Licensed Materials - Property of IBM
# (C) COPYRIGHT International Business Machines Corp. 1989,1994
# All Rights Reserved
# US Government Users Restricted Rights - Use, duplication or
 disclosure restricted by GSA ADP Schedule Contract with IBM Corp.
 IBM_PROLOG_END_TAG
#
 COMPONENT_NAME: (CMDCNTL) commands needed for basic system needs
# FUNCTIONS:
 ORIGINS: 27
#
# (C) COPYRIGHT International Business Machines Corp. 1989,1994
# All Rights Reserved
# Licensed Materials - Property of IBM
# US Government Users Restricted Rights - Use, duplication or
# disclosure restricted by GSA ADP Schedule Contract with IBM Corp.
#0 3 * * * /usr/sbin/skulker
#45 2 * * 0 /usr/lib/spell/compress
#45 23 * * * ulimit 5000; /usr/lib/smdemon.cleanu > /dev/null
0 11 * * * /usr/bin/errclear -d $,0 30
0 12 * * * /usr/bin/errclear -d H 90
0 4 * * * /usr/bin/rmxcred -d 4 1>/dev/null 2>/dev/null
```

Figure 14-2 A sample /var/spool/cron/crontabs/root file

# 14.3 Verifying job runs

You can examine each file in the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory to verify what cron jobs are scheduled to run at a certain time. Together with the atq command, you can determine whether some jobs need to be rescheduled to better utilize the system resources. Both the users root and deploy have scheduled a job to run using the at command, as shown by the atq command in Figure 14-3 on page 361.

```
# atq
deploy.910389157.a Fri Nov 6 15:52:37 CST 1998
root.910389186.a Fri Nov 6 15:53:06 CST 1998
# | |
```

Figure 14-3 Sample output of the atg command

The cron daemon also creates a log of its activities in the /var/adm/cron/log file. AIX 5L Version 5.1 enhances the amount of data logged to include the following information about individual jobs:

- ► The owner of the job run by the cron daemon.
- ► The time of execution of the job.
- ► The PID of the job.
- The actual command line that is run to accomplish the job.
- ▶ Whether the job has run successfully or not.

Either of the following display formats are used:

- User: CMD (actual command that is executed): time when the job is executed: Cron Job with pid: Successful
- ► User : CMD (actual command that is executed) : time when the job is executed : Cron Job with pid : Failed

#### For example:

```
root : CMD ( /usr/lib/ras/dumpcheck >/dev/null 2>&1 ) : Tue Feb. 20 15:00:00 2001 Cron Job with pid: 20664 Successful
```

Every time cron runs a job (either from the crontab file, for the system-related jobs, or from the /var/spool/cron/crontab/userfile, for user-related processes), all its activity will be logged into the /var/adm/cron/log file in the mentioned format. You can inspect this data to verify jobs after they have been run.

The cron daemon also mails any command output or errors to the user who submitted the job, unless the **at** command or crontab entry redirects the standard output or standard error. The following crontab entry redirects standard output and standard error, so no mail is sent:

```
0 15 * * * /usr/lib/ras/dumpcheck >/dev/null 2>&1
```

The following entry in root's crontab file runs the **mksysb** command and does not redirect its output, so cron mails the results to root after the command completes:

```
0 02 * * * /usr/bin/mksysb -i /dev/rmt0
```

#### 14.4 Crontab file record format

A crontab file contains entries for each cron job. Entries are separated by newline characters. Each crontab file entry contains six fields separated by spaces or tabs in the following form:

```
minute hour day of month month weekday command
```

These fields accept the following values:

minute 0 through 59hour 0 through 23day\_of\_month 1 through 31month 1 through 12

weekday 0 through 6 for Sunday through Saturday

**command** A shell command

You must specify a value for each field. Except for the command field, these fields can contain the following:

- A number in the specified range. To run a command in May, specify 5 in the month field.
- ► Two numbers separated by a dash to indicate an inclusive range. To run a cron job on Tuesday through Friday, place 2-5 in the weekday field.
- ► A list of numbers separated by commas. To run a command on the first and last day of January, you would specify 1,31 in the day\_of\_month field.
- ► An \* (asterisk), meaning all allowed values. To run a job every hour, specify an asterisk in the hour field.

Blank lines and lines whose first non-blank character is # (number sign) are ignored. By default, the records containing /usr/sbin/skulker, /usr/lib/spell/compress, and /usr/lib/smdemon.cleanu in the command field are commented. This is shown in Figure 14-2 on page 360.

# 14.5 Scheduling job runs

Consider the following single line script called program in the /appl directory:

```
#!/usr/bin/ksh
print program executed at `date +%H:%M` >> /data/output
```

Some examples of the crontab entries for scheduling this /appl/program to run are shown in Table 14-2.

Table 14-2 Sample crontab entries for scheduling a running of a program

Program run time	crontab entry			
Every Tuesday at 02:00	0 2 * * 2 /appl/program			
Every night at 02:00	0 2 * * * /appl/program			
Every night at midnight	0 0 * * */appl/program			
On the 7th, 14th, and 21st day at 4:20 pm	20 16 7,14,21 * * /appl/program			
Monday through Friday at 4:20 pm	20 16 * * 1-5 /appl/program			
1st January, 1st July, and 1st December at 4:20 pm	20 16			

To schedule /appl/program to run every five minutes, you can either use the **crontab** command or the **at** command.

Technically, you can define all the values in the hour in five minute intervals starting at 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4, as one of the following crontab entries:

```
0,5,10,15,20,25,30,35,40,45,50,55 * * * * /appl/program
1,6,11,16,21,26,31,36,41,46,51,56 * * * /appl/program
2,7,12,17,22,27,32,37,42,47,52,57 * * * * /appl/program
3,8,13,18,23,28,33,38,43,48,53,58 * * * /appl/program
4,9,14,19,24,29,34,39,44,49,54,59 * * * /appl/program
```

Alternatively, you can use the **at** command. For scheduling the /appl/program to run every five minutes, or some short intervals repeatedly, modify the /appl/program file by adding the **at** command as follows:

```
#!/usr/bin/ksh
at now + 5 minutes -f /appl/program > /dev/null 2>&1
print program executed at `date +%H:%M` >> /data/output
```

Start the first job with the command:

```
at now -f appl/program > /dev/null 2>&1
```

When the /appl/program runs for the first time, it schedules the next run five minutes later. This process repeats itself until you stop it by entering the atq command to get the scheduled job name and then the at -r command to remove the scheduled job.

# 14.6 Allowing access to the crontab command

The /var/adm/cron/cron.allow and /var/adm/cron/cron.deny files control which users can use the **crontab** command. A root user can create, edit, or delete these files. Entries in these files are user login names with one name to a line.

If the cron.allow file exists, only users whose login names appear in it can use the **crontab** command.

**Note:** The root user name must appear in the cron.allow file if the file exists.

You can explicitly stop a user from using the **crontab** command by listing the user's login name in the cron.deny file. If only the cron.deny file exists, any user whose name does not appear in the file can use the **crontab** command.

A user cannot use the **crontab** command if one of the following is true:

- ► The cron.allow file and the cron.deny file do not exist (allows root user only).
- ► The cron.allow file exists but the user's login name is not listed in it.
- ▶ The cron.deny file exists and the user's login name is listed in it.

If neither the cron.allow nor the cron.deny file exists, only someone with root user authority can submit a job with the **crontab** command.

The empty /var/adm/cron/cron.deny file has been deleted for security reasons. To allow the people in charge of application deployment to schedule applications to be run, a /var/adm/cron/cron.allow file is created, as in Figure 14-4.

```
# cat > /var/adm/cron/cron.allow
root
deploy
# |
```

Figure 14-4 Creating the cron.allow file

There are also the /var/adm/cron/at.allow and /var/adm/cron/at.deny files that control which users can use the at command, using the same rules as the /var/adm/cron/cron.allow and /var/adm/cron/cron.deny files.

## 14.7 Creating and updating the crontab file

The user deploy uses the **crontab** -e command to create and update the crontab file. The **crontab** command invokes the editor. If the EDITOR environment variable exists, the command invokes the editor it specifies. Otherwise, the **crontab** command uses the vi editor. On saving and exiting from the editor, a message indicating the change is sent to the cron daemon. The user deploy's **crontab** -e session using the vi editor is shown in Figure 14-5.

Figure 14-5 crontab -e command using the vi editor

The content of the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory and the content of the crontab file created by the user deploy is shown in Figure 14-6.

```
# ls -l /var/spool/cron/crontabs
total 13
                                  2031 Sep 18 1997 adm
-rw-r--r--
            1 adm
                       cron
                                   26 Nov 05 13:07 deploy
            1 root
                       cron
                                  1130 Nov 05 09:48 root
            1 root
                       cron
                                   864 Sep 18 1997 sys
-rw-r--r--
            1 sys
                       cron
                                  1133 Jul 31 10:31 uucp
-rw-r--r-- 1 root
                      cron
# cat /var/spool/cron/crontabs/deploy
30 13 * * * /appl/program
```

Figure 14-6 crontab entry created by the user deploy

The user deploy is scheduling /appl/program to run at 1:30 PM every day.

# 14.8 Verifying job schedules

As a general user without root authority, the user deploy is not authorized to list the content of the /var/spool/cron/crontabs/deploy file. However, the user can still verify his job schedules by using the **crontab -1** command, as shown in Figure 14-7.

Figure 14-7 Using the crontab -I command

# 14.9 Checking the time of the crontab file

Merely verifying the job schedule is not enough to prove that cron will schedule the command to run at that time. If you have submitted your crontab file past the time the command is scheduled to run, nothing would have been scheduled. Use the **crontab** -v command to check the crontab submission time, as shown in Figure 14-8.

Figure 14-8 The crontab -v command

The /appl/program is scheduled to run at 1:30 p.m. everyday. The crontab file is submitted at 1:07 p.m. The time now is 1:57 p.m. The command should have been scheduled to run. Checking the /data/output file confirms that the /appl/program has been run.

# 14.10 Removing the crontab file

The responsibility for scheduling jobs to run is now moved from the application deployment group to the operations group. The user name deploy in the /var/adm/cron.allow file has been replaced by another user name from operations. The user deploy then removes the /var/spool/cron/crontabs/deploy file with the **crontab** -r command. The /var/spool/cron/crontabs/deploy is simply deleted without any message. Until the operations people create their crontab file, the content of the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory is reverted back to the state, as shown in Figure 14-1 on page 359.

**Note:** Avoid running **crontab** -r when you are logged in as root. It removes the /var/spool/cron/crontabs/root file. This file usually contains the scheduling of housekeeping jobs, such as diagnostics of hardware errors. You will have to restore the file from your backup.

# 14.11 Using crontab to append to a user's cron file

The operations group has been given a user name ops. They do not want to start from scratch for scheduling jobs. Instead, they just want to reschedule the time of run for the jobs that the application deployment people run. The application deployment group has actually saved a backup copy of their crontab file, as shown in Figure 14-9.

```
$ crontab -1 > deploy.schedule
$ cat deploy.schedule
30 13 * * * /appl/program
$ ■
```

Figure 14-9 A saved copy of the crontab file

The operations people are given access to this deploy.schedule file. They can then create their crontab file using the **crontab file** command, as shown in Figure 14-10.

```
$ whoami
ops
$ crontab -1
0481-103 Cannot open a file in the /var/spool/cron/crontabs directory.
A file or directory in the path name does not exist.
$ crontab ~deploy/deploy.schedule
$ crontab -1
30 13 * * * /appl/program
$ ■
```

Figure 14-10 Creating the crontab file using an existing file

After that, they will use the **crontab** -e command to edit the time to schedule the command to be run at a different time.

#### 14.12 Quiz

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

- 1. A representative from the accounting department informed systems support that backup jobs are not being run on a daily basis as they should. These backup jobs are scheduled to run using cron as the root user. If the system administrator is logged in as root, what command should be run to verify the jobs are scheduled properly?
  - A. 1scron
  - B. 1scrontab
  - C. crontab -1
  - D. cat /var/spool/cron/crontabs
- 2. A script, /usr/local/bin/swaptool.ksh, is scheduled to run every hour on the hour on an S70 server. The system administrator has noticed that the script has failed to run for the past four hours. A ps -ef command indicates that cron is no longer running. What would be the first step in examining this problem?
  - A. Do a tail on /var/adm/cron/log to gather diagnostic information.
  - B. Run the command /user/sbin/cron -d to create debug output from cron.
  - C. Reboot the system; cron can only be initiated at system startup when the LED flashes 553.
  - D. Do a **crontab** -v, see what cron-initiated processes may still be running and kill those processes off.

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

- 1. The system administrator of Company ABC needs to automatically run the script /usr/local/bin/system.backup every Sunday morning at 1:00 AM. What line should be added to the crontab of the root user to accomplish this task?
  - A. 0 1 \* \* 0 /usr/local/bin/system.backup
  - B. 1 0 \* \* 0 /usr/local/bin/system.backup
  - C. 0 1 \* \* 1 /usr/local/bin/system.backup
  - D. 1 0 \* \* 1 /usr/local/bin/system.backup
- 2. The system administrator at XYZ Company has noticed peaks in system activity occurring in the early evening on the development server. It is suspected that this activity is being caused by users scheduling jobs to be run via the at command. How can the system administrator find all jobs currently scheduled to run via the at command?
  - A. 1sat -1.
  - B. at -1 ALL.
  - C. Browse the files in the /var/spool/at/atjobs directory.
  - D. Browse the files in the /var/spool/cron/atjobs directory.
- 3. If a user runs the command **crontab** /tmp/mycron, what would be the result of this command?
  - A. The user's crontab file would be replaced with the contents of /tmp/mycron.
  - B. The entries contained in /tmp/mycron would be appended to the user's crontab file.
  - C. The current contents of the user's crontab file would be written to the file /tmp/mycron.
  - D. An error message would be generated. This is not valid syntax for the crontab.

#### 14.12.1 Answers

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

- 1. C
- 2. A

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. D
- 3. A

## 14.13 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Add entries to crontab to run at specific times.
- 2. Reschedule jobs to run at a later time.
- 3. Check the existence of the crontab files and note their location.
- 4. Check the existence of the at jobs files.
- 5. Use various **crontab** command flags to list, edit, verify, and delete crontab entries.
- 6. Use various at command flags to schedule, report, and remove job.



# Editing and viewing files and strings

In this chapter you are provided a basic overview of how to use the vi editor to edit ASCII files. You will also learn how to view a file using various commands and the differences between these commands.

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#### 15.1 The vi file editor

The vi editor is a full-screen file editor that was developed from the ex editor. It is also common to all versions of UNIX. The vedit command starts a version of the vi editor intended for beginners. In the vedit editor, the report option is set to 1, the showmode option is set, and the novice option is set, making it a line editor. **vedit** corresponds to **vi** -**v** (vi in verbose mode).

#### 15.1.1 Editor limitations with vi

The following list provides the maximum limits of the vi editor. These counts assume single-byte characters.

- ► {LINE MAX} characters per line
- 256 characters per global command list
- 128 characters in the previously inserted and deleted text
- 128 characters in a shell escape command
- 128 characters in a string-valued option
- 30 characters in a tag name
- 128 map macros with 2048 characters total
- ► 1,048,560 lines of {LINE MAX} characters per line silently enforced

**Note:** Running the vi editor on a file larger than 64 MB may cause the following error message to display:

0602-103 file too large to place in /tmp

## 15.1.2 Editing modes in vi

The vi editor operates in the following modes:

**command mode** When you start the vi editor, it is in command mode. You can

enter any subcommand except those designated for use only in the text input mode. The vi editor returns to command mode when subcommands and other modes end. Press the

Esc key to cancel a subcommand.

text-input mode You use the vi editor in this mode to add text. Enter text input

> mode with any of the following subcommands: a, A, i, I, o, O, cx (where the x represents the scope of the subcommand), C, s, S, and R. After entering one of these subcommands,

you can enter text into the editing buffer. To return to

command mode, press the Esc key for normal exit or press Interrupt (the Ctrl-C key sequence) to end abnormally.

#### last-line mode

Subcommands with the prefix: (colon), / (slash), ? (question mark), ! (exclamation point), or !! (two exclamation points) read input on a line displayed at the bottom of the screen. When you enter the initial character, the vi editor places the cursor at the bottom of the screen, where you enter the remaining characters of the command. Press the Enter key to run the subcommand, or press Interrupt (the Ctrl-C key sequence) to cancel it. When the !! prefix is used, the cursor moves only after both exclamation points are entered. When you use the : prefix to enter the last-line mode, the vi editor gives special meaning to the following characters when they are used before commands that specify counts:

- % All lines regardless of cursor position
- \$ Last line
- . Current line

## 15.1.3 The vi command flags

Table 15-1 provides the flags that can be used with the vi command.

Table 15-1 The vi editor flags

Flag	Flag description
-cSubcommand	Carries out the ex editor subcommand before viewing with vi begins. The cursor moves to the line affected by the last subcommand to be carried out.
-1	Enters the vi editor in LISP mode. In this mode, the vi editor creates indents appropriate for LISP code, and the (, ), {, }, [[, and ]] subcommands are modified to act appropriately for LISP.
-r[File]	Recovers a file after a vi editor or system malfunction. If you do not specify the File variable, the vi editor displays a list of all saved files.
-R	Sets the read-only option to protect the file against overwriting.
-t <i>Tag</i>	Edits the file containing the <i>Tag</i> variable and positions the vi editor at its definition. To use this flag, you must first create a database of function names and their locations using the <b>ctags</b> command.
-V	Enters the vi editor in the verbose mode.

Flag	Flag description	
-wNumber	Sets the default window size to the value specified by the Number variable. This flag is useful when you use the vi editor over a low-speed line.	
-y Number	Overrides the maximum line setting of 1,048,560 with any value greater than 1024. You should request twice the number of lines that you require because the vi editor uses the extra lines for buffer manipulation.	
+[Subcommand]	Carries out the ex editor subcommand before editing begins. If you do not specify the Subcommand variable, the cursor is placed on the first line of the file. This + flag is incompatible with the -c flag. Do not specify both flags at the same time.	

#### 15.1.4 Editor subcommands in vi

The list of subcommands is very extensive, so you are only going to learn some of the more common subcommands used. You would use the subcommands to perform these kinds of actions:

- ► Moving the cursor
- Editing text
- Manipulating files
- ▶ Other actions

Enter the following subcommands in command mode. You can cancel an incomplete command by pressing the Esc key.

### Moving the cursor

Use subcommands to move the cursor within a file in these ways:

Moving within a line

Left Arrow, h, or Ctrl-H	Moves the cursor one character to the left.
Down Arrow, j, Ctrl-J, or Ctrl-N	Moves the cursor down one line (it remains in the same column).
Up Arrow, k, or Ctrl-P	Moves the cursor up one line (it remains in the same column).
Right Arrow or I	Moves the cursor one character to the right.

- Moving within a line by character position
  - Moves the cursor to the first nonblank character.
  - **0** Moves the cursor to the beginning of the line.
  - **\$** Moves the cursor to the end of the line.
  - **fx** Moves the cursor to the next x character.
  - **Fx** Moves the cursor to the last x character.
  - tx Moves the cursor to one column before the next x character.
  - **Tx** Moves the cursor to one column after the last x character.
  - Repeats the last f, F, t, or T subcommand.
  - Repeats the last f, F, t, or T subcommand in the opposite direction.
- Moving to words
  - w Moves the cursor to the next small word.
  - **b** Moves the cursor to the previous small word.
  - **e** Moves the cursor to the next end of a small word.
  - **W** Moves the cursor to the next big word.
  - **B** Moves the cursor to the previous big word.
  - **E** Moves the cursor to the next end of a big word.
- Moving by line position
  - **H** Moves the cursor to the top line on the screen.
  - **L** Moves the cursor to the last line on the screen.
  - M Moves the cursor to the middle line on the screen.
  - **G** Moves the cursor to the last line of the file.
  - **1G** Moves the cursor to the first line of the file.
  - **nG** Moves the cursor to the *n*th line of the file.
  - Moves the cursor to the next line at its first nonblank character.
  - Moves the cursor to the previous line at its first nonblank character.
  - **Enter** Moves the cursor to the next line at its first nonblank character.
- Moving to sentences, paragraphs, or sections
  - ( Places the cursor at the beginning of the previous sentence.
  - Places the cursor at the beginning of the next sentence.
  - { Places the cursor at the beginning of the previous paragraph.

- Places the cursor at the beginning of the next paragraph, or at the next section if you are in C mode.
- ]] Places the cursor at the next section.
- [[ Places the cursor at the previous section.

#### **Editing text**

The subcommands for editing enable you to perform the following tasks:

- Marking a specific location in a file and returning
  - " Moves the cursor to the previous location of the current line.
  - " Moves the cursor to the beginning of the line containing the previous location of the current line.
  - **mx** Marks the current position with the letter specified by the x parameter.
  - `x Moves the cursor to the mark specified by the x parameter.
  - 'x Moves the cursor to the beginning of the line containing the mark specified by the x parameter.
- Adding text to a file
  - **a Text** Inserts text specified by the *Text* parameter after the cursor. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
  - **AText** Adds text specified by the *Text* parameter to the end of the line. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
  - i **Text** Inserts text specified by the *Text* parameter before the cursor. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
  - IText Inserts text specified by the *Text* parameter before the first non-blank character in the line. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
  - Adds an empty line below the current line. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
  - O Adds an empty line above the current line. End text input mode by pressing the Esc key.
- Changing text while in input mode
  - **Ctrl-D** Goes back to previous autoindent stop.
  - ^ Ctrl-D Ends autoindent for this line only.
  - **0Ctrl-D** Moves cursor back to left margin.
  - **Esc** Ends insertion and returns to command state.
  - **Ctrl-H** Erases the last character.

**Ctrl-Q** Enters any character if xon is disabled.

Ctrl-V Enters any character.

**Ctrl-W** Erases the last small word.

\ Quotes the erase and kill characters.

**Ctrl-?** Interrupts and ends insert or the Ctrl-D key sequence.

Changing text from command mode

**C** Changes the rest of the line (same as c\$).

cc Changes a line.

**cw** Changes a word.

**cw** *Text* Changes a word to the text specified by the Text parameter.

**D** Deletes the rest of the line (same as d\$).

**dd** Deletes a line.

**dw** Deletes a word.

J Joins lines.

**rx** Replaces the current character with the character specified by x.

**R***Text* Overwrites characters with the text specified by the Text parameter.

**s** Substitutes characters (same as cl).

S Substitutes lines (same as cc).

**u** Undoes the previous change.

**x** Deletes a character at the cursor.

**X** Deletes a character before the cursor (same as dh).

Shifts one line to the left.

Shifts all lines from the cursor to the end of the screen to the left.

>> Shifts one line to the right.

>L Shifts all lines from the cursor to the end of the screen to the right.

Changes letter at the cursor to the opposite case.

Copying and moving text

Puts back text from the undo buffer after the cursor.

**P** Puts back text from the undo buffer before the cursor.

"**xp** Puts back text from the x buffer.

"xd Deletes text into the x buffer.

- y Places the object that follows (for example, w for word) into the undo buffer.
- "xy Places the object that follows into the x buffer, where x is any letter.
- Y Places the line in the undo buffer.
- Restoring and repeating changes
  - u Undoes the last change.

**Note:** After an undo, the cursor moves to the first non-blank character on the updated current line.

- **U** Restores the current line, if the cursor has not left the line since the last change.
- . Repeats the last change or increments the "np subcommand.

#### Note:

- 1. This subcommand will repeat the last change, including an undo. Therefore, after an undo, repeat performs an undo rather than repeat the last change.
- 2. This subcommand is not meant for use with a macro. Enter @ @ (two at signs) to repeat a macro.
- **"np** Retrieves the nth last delete of a complete line or block of lines.

#### **Manipulating files**

The subcommands for manipulating files allow you to do the tasks outlined in the following sections:

- Saving changes to a file
  - :w Writes the edit buffer contents to the original file.
  - :w *File* Writes the edit buffer contents to the file specified by the File parameter.
  - :w! File Overwrites the file specified by the File parameter with the edit buffer contents.
- Editing a second file
  - :e File Edits the specified file.
  - **:e!** Re-edits the current file and discards all changes.
  - :e + File Edits the specified file starting at the end.

:e + Number File Edits the specified file starting at the specified line

number.

**:e** # Edits the alternate file. The alternate file is usually the

previous file name before accessing another file with a :e command. However, if changes are pending on the current file when a new file is called, the new file becomes the alternate file. This subcommand is the

same as the Ctrl-A subcommand.

:r File Reads the file into the editing buffer by adding new

lines below the current line.

:r!Command Runs the specified AIX command and places its output

into the file by adding new lines below the current

cursor position.

**:ta Tag** Edits a file containing the Tag tag starting at the

location of the tag. To use this subcommand, you must first create a database of function names and their

locations using the ctags command.

**Ctrl-A** Edits the alternate file. The alternate file is usually the

previous current file name. However, if changes are pending on the current file when a new file is called,

the new file becomes the alternate file. This

subcommand is the same as the :e # subcommand.

Editing a list of files

**:n** Edits the next file in the list entered on the command line.

:n Files Specifies a new list of files to edit.

Finding file information

**Ctrl-G** Shows the current file name, current line number, number of lines

in the file, and percentage of the way through the file where the

cursor is located.

#### Other actions

The vi editor provides the subcommands described in the following sections:

Adjusting the screen

**Ctrl-L** Clears and redraws the screen.

Ctrl-R Redraws the screen and eliminates blank lines marked with @ (at

sign).

**zNumber** Makes the window the specified number of lines long.

Entering shell commands

**:sh** Enters the shell to allow you to run more than one AIX

command. You can return to the vi editor by pressing the Ctrl-D

key sequence.

:!Command Runs the specified AIX command and then returns to the vi

editor.

**Note:** The # (alternate file), % (current file), and ! (previous command) special characters are expanded when following a :! subcommand. To prevent any of these characters from being expanded, use the \ (backslash).

:!! Repeats the last :!Command subcommand.

Number!!Command Runs the specified AIX command and replaces the

lines specified by Number with the output of the command. If a number is not specified, the default value is 1. If the command expects standard input, the

specified lines are used as input.

!Object Command Runs the specified AIX command and replaces the

object specified by the Object parameter with the output of the command. If the command expects standard input, the specified object is used as input.

Interrupting and ending the vi editor

**Q** Enters the ex editor in command mode.

**ZZ** Exits the vi editor, saving changes.

:q Quits the vi editor. If you have changed the contents of the editing buffer, the vi editor displays a warning message and does not quit.

**:q!** Quits the vi editor, discarding the editing buffer.

**Esc** Ends text input or ends an incomplete subcommand.

**Ctrl-?** Interrupts a subcommand.

#### Other actions

To set the vi editor up as your default editor, use the **EDITOR** command. The EDITOR variable can also be put into the user .profile or the /etc/profile file:

# EDITOR=vi

**Note:** The **EDITOR** command sets a variable and must not be confused with the **set -o vi** command, which sets up command line editing.

# 15.2 Editing a file using the vi editor

In this section, you will learn how to edit a file. You will learn how to replace multiple characters, replace one character, delete a character, delete a line, copy a line, find a word, insert characters, and insert a line.

In this example you have a file called *yourfile*. In this file, you are running a few simple commands and sending the output for each to your screen.

The yourfile file looks like this:

```
#
# $HOME/yourfile
#
# This file contains some commands that are run by the user.
df
lsfs rootvg
lslv hdisk1
lsdev -Cc disk
```

#### 15.2.1 Inserting text using the vi editor

As you look at the file above, you see that you want the **df** command to display the file system space in 1024 KB blocks, not 512. You also want the script to list what is in the current directory at the end of the script. To edit the file, enter:

```
vi yourfile
```

Figure 15-1 on page 382 is the display for the vi editor.

Figure 15-1 Image of yourfile opened by vi editor

You will note that the cursor is at the top left of the screen under the first character. Move your cursor down five lines to under the df using one of the following keys: Down Arrow, j, Ctrl-J, or Ctrl-N. There are now two options for you to add the -k flag to the **df** command.

#### Option 1

Go to the end of the text using Shift-A, which appends to the end of the line. You will notice that your cursor is to the right of the f, press the Space Bar and insert the -k.

#### Option 2

Go to the end of the line using one of the following keys: Right Arrow, I, or \$. Your cursor will now be under the f; press the a key, and your cursor will move one space to the right. Press the Space key and then insert the -k.

Your line will look like this:

df -k

Press the Esc key once. You have now moved out of edit mode back into command mode. Your cursor will be under the k.

Now add the 1s -1 of the current directory at the end of the file. Using any one of the Down Arrow, j, Ctrl-J, or Ctrl-N keys, go to the bottom of the file. The cursor will be under the v in the 1sdev command; either use the Left Arrow, h, Ctrl-H, or 0 keys to move to the beginning of the line. Your cursor should be under the I of the 1sdev command. To insert a new line below the current line, press o; you will see the cursor under the I of the 1sdev command but one line down. Type the following:

s -1

Press Esc once to go back into command mode. You will notice that this command is incorrect. What you need to do is insert the I for the 1s -1 command and press 0 to take you to the beginning of the line. Your cursor is under the s; press the i key, then type:

1

Press Esc once to go back to command line. Your line should look like this:

ls -1

To save the file, there are two options to save and guit.

Option 1

Hold the Shift and; (:); the cursor will go to the bottom left of the screen next to a:. At the:, you can type wq!, which overwrites the original file and then quits.

► Option 2

Hold the Shift and press z twice (ZZ). This will save and quit, taking you back to your AIX command prompt.

To view the file, type:

# cat yourfile

The output of the cat command is as follows:

```
#
# $HOME/yourfile
#
# This file contains some commands that are run by the user.
df -k
lsfs rootvg
lspv hdisk1
lsdev -Cc disk
ls -1
```

## 15.2.2 Changing text using the vi editor

On closer inspection of the file yourfile you notice that there are a few mistakes, and you now want to correct them. To correct them, type:

```
vi yourfile
```

You will see the cursor at the top right side of your monitor.

The first thing you want to do is fix the 1sfs command. You do not want it to be 1sfs, because it should be the 1svg command. You also want to check the volume group uservg, not rootvg.

Press any of the Down Arrow, j, Ctrl-J, or Ctrl-N keys until you are under the I of the 1sfs command.

You can also use the find option. Press the / key; it will take you to the bottom right of the screen and you will see a / before the cursor. Here you can type 1sfs and it will take you to the beginning of the 1sfs command.

Using the Right Arrow or I key, move the cursor below the f of the 1sfs command. Press the Shift key and r (R) simultaneously. The cursor will still be under the f of the 1sfs command. Type vg; you will see that it has overwritten the fs with vg. Press Esc once to go back into command mode. Your cursor is now under the g in the 1svg command.

Using the Right Arrow, move the cursor to underneath the r of rootvg. Type cw, and you will see a \$ sign at the end of the word rootvg. Type uservg; you will notice that it has overwritten rootvg. Press Esc once and your cursor will be under the g of uservg.

Issue the command 1spv on both hdisk1 and hdisk0. Press the Down Arrow key once to go down one line. You will notice that your cursor is under the 1 of hdisk1. Press your y key twice (yy); you have just yanked or copied the line. Press p key to place your yanked line and you will see that the line has been duplicated. Notice that your cursor is at the beginning of the new line. Your file should look like this:

```
lspv hdisk1
lspv hdisk1
```

Using the Right Arrow key, move your cursor until it is under the 1 of the second hdisk1. Use your Up Arrow key to go up to the first hdisk1. Press the r key and then the 0. You will notice that the 1 has changed to a 0. You do not need to press the Esc key, because this is a single character replacement. Your lines should now look like this:

```
lspv hdisk0
lspv hdisk1
```

Looking at the line with the 1sdev -Cc disk command, you decide that you want this command to display all the devices, not just the disks. Using the Down Arrow key, go to the line with the 1sdev command. Using the Right Arrow key, put the cursor under the c, press the x, and you will see the c disappear. Use the Right Arrow key to go under the d of the word disk. Press the d key twice (dd), you will notice the whole line has disappeared. Press the u key once and you will notice that the line has come back. Now press the d key, then the w key. The word disk has now disappeared. Press the Esc key once. Your line will now look like this:

```
1sdev -C
```

Press the Shift zz (ZZ) to save and exit.

Type the following command:

```
cat yourfile
```

to display your file. It should appear like this:

```
#
# $HOME/yourfile
#
# This file contains some commands that are run by the user.
df -k
lsvg uservg
lspv hdisk1
lspv hdisk0
lsdev -C
ls -1
```

To replace multiple occurrences of text, you can use the s subcommand. In the above example, if you wanted to change the <code>lspv</code> commands to have the -p flag, edit the file using vi and then change the command using a subcommand as follows:

```
vi yourfile
```

The cursor will be at the top left hand side. Type Shift and; (:); the cursor will go into the command line editor at the bottom left side of the screen. To edit, type:

```
%s/lspv/lspv -p
```

This will replace all 1spv commands to 1spv -p. Save the file and exit.

Type the command:

```
cat yourfile
```

to display your file. It should appear like this:

```
#
# $HOME/yourfile
#
# This file contains some commands that are run by the user.
df -k
lsvg uservg
lspv -p hdisk1
lspv -p hdisk0
lsdev -C
ls -1
```

To replace multiple occurrences of text that include the forward slash (/) character, the s subcommand can also be used with a slight variation. In the above example, you decide that you want to have the **df** and **ls** commands display only information for /home. First type:

```
vi yourfile
```

You can see that the 1s -1 command is at the last line of the file, so press the Shift key and g (G) simultaneously. This will take the cursor down to the last line of the file. Using the Right Arrow, I, or \$ key, go to the end of the line and press a to go into insert mode. Type in home/, misplacing the forward slash at the end of the file system name. Your line will look like this:

```
1s -1 home/
```

Press Esc twice to go back into command mode. Since you can see that the df-k command is at the fifth line of the file; press the 5 key, then press the Shift key and g (G) simultaneously. This will take the cursor to the fifth line of the file. Using the Right Arrow, I, or \$ key, go to the end of the line and press a to go into insert mode. Type in home/, misplacing the forward slash again. Your line will look like this:

```
df -k home/
```

Before you save and quit the file, you want to correct the two misplacements you just made, changing all instances of home/ to /home. To do this, press Esc twice to go into command mode. Type Shift and; (:), causing the cursor to go into the command line editor at the bottom left of the screen. To edit, type:

```
%s/home\//\/home
```

This will replace all instances of home/ to /home. The **vi** command interprets the backslash as a marker to read the next character normally, not as part of a command. It is important to put in the backslash (\) before every instance of forward slash (/) that is to be part of the replacement, otherwise **vi** will misinterpret the forward slash and may make unwanted modifications to your file.

Save and quit the file by typing :wq! while in command mode. View the contents of the file by typing:

```
cat yourfile
```

Your file should look like this:

```
#
# $HOME/yourfile
#
# This file contains some commands that are run by the user.
df -k /home
lsvg uservg
lspv -p hdisk1
lspv -p hdisk0
lsdev -C
ls -l /home
```

# 15.3 Viewing files and string settings

The cat command is used to view an ASCII file and there are various commands available. The cat command concatenates or displays files. The cat command reads each file parameter in sequence and writes it to standard output. If you do not specify a file name, the cat command reads from standard input. You can also specify a file name of - (dash) for standard input.

**Note:** Do not redirect output to one of the input files using the redirection symbol, > (caret). If you do this, you lose the original data in the input file because the shell truncates the file before the **cat** command can read it.

The cat command syntax is as follows:

Table 15-2 provides the flags that can be used with the **cat** command.

Table 15-2 The cat command flags and flag descriptions

Flag	Flag description
-b	Omits line numbers from blank lines, when specified with the -n flag.
-e	Displays a \$ (dollar sign) at the end of each line, when specified with the -v flag.
-n	Displays output lines preceded by line numbers, numbered sequentially from 1.
-q	Does not display a message if the <b>cat</b> command cannot find an input file. This flag is identical to the -s flag.
-r	Replaces multiple consecutive empty lines with one empty line. This flag is identical to the -S flag.
-S	Does not display a message if the <b>cat</b> command cannot find an input file. This flag is identical to the -q flag.
-S	Replaces multiple consecutive empty lines with one empty line. This flag is identical to the -r flag.
-t	Displays tab characters as ^, if specified with the -v flag.
-u	Does not buffer output.
-V	Displays non-printing characters as visible characters.
-	Allows standard input to the cat command.

Examples using the **cat** command are listed in the following:

► To display a file at the workstation, enter:

cat /etc/hosts

This command displays the data in the /etc/hosts file. If the file is more than one less than the number of available display lines, some of the file scrolls off the screen. To list a file one page at a time, use the pg command:

```
1.1 src/bos/usr/sbin/netstart/hosts, cmdnet, bos430,
# @(#)47
9737A 430
7/24/91 10:00:46
# IBM PROLOG BEGIN TAG
..... (Lines Removed)
# /etc/hosts
# This file contains the host names and their address for hosts in the
# network. This file is used to resolve a host name into an Internet
# address.
# At minimum, this file must contain the name and address for each
# device defined for TCP in your /etc/net file. It may also contain
# entries for well-known (reserved) names such as timeserver
# and printserver as well as any other host name and address.
# The format of this file is:
# Internet Address
                       Hostname
                                      # Comments
# Items are separated by any number of blanks and/or tabs. A '#'
# indicates the beginning of a comment; characters up to the end of the
# line are not interpreted by routines which search this file. Blank
# lines are allowed.
# Internet Address Hostname
                                     # Comments
# 192.9.200.1 netOsample
                                     # ethernet name/address
                 tokenOsample
                                     # token ring name/address
# 128.100.0.1
                                     # x.25 name/address
# 10.2.0.2
                   x25sample
127.0.0.1 loopback localhost # loopback (lo0)
19.33.1.12
                yourhost yourhost.hometown.com
```

▶ To concatenate several files, enter:

```
cat /etc/passwd /etc/hosts > yourfile
```

This command creates a file named yourfile that is a copy of /etc/passwd followed by /etc/hosts.

► To suppress error messages about files that do not exist, enter:

```
cat -q /etc/password
```

If you do not use the -q option you would get this error:

cat: 0652-050 Cannot open /etc/password.

► To append one file to the end of another, enter:

```
cat /etc/filesystems >> yourfile
```

The >> (two carets) appends a copy of the file /etc/filesystems to the end of the file yourfile. If you want to replace the file, use the > (caret).

► To add text to the end of a file, enter:

```
# cat >>yourfile
Create new user bob.
Ctrl-D
```

This command adds Create new user bob to the end of the file called yourfile. The **cat** command does not prompt; it waits for you to enter text. Press the Ctrl-D key sequence to indicate you are finished.

► To concatenate several files with text entered from the keyboard, enter:

```
# cat /etc/passwd - /etc/hosts >yourfile
THIS IS THE SEPARATOR LINE
Ctrl-D
```

This command concatenates /etc/passwd, text from the keyboard (THIS IS THE SEPARATOR LINE (indicated by the minus sign)), and /etc/hosts.

► To concatenate several files with output from another command, enter:

```
ls | cat /etc/passwd - >yournewfile
```

This command copies /etc/passwd, and then the output of the 1s command to the file yournewfile.

## 15.3.1 Using the pg command to view files

Formats files to the display. The pg command reads a file name from the file parameter and writes the file to standard output one screen at a time. If you specify a - (dash) as the file parameter, or run the pg command without options, the pg command reads standard input. Each screen is followed by a prompt. If you press the Enter key, another page is displayed. Subcommands used with the pg command let you review or search in the file.

To determine workstation attributes, the **pg** command scans the file for the workstation type specified by the TERM environment variable. The default type is dumb.

The pg command syntax is as follows:

```
pg [ -Number ] [ -c ] [ -e ] [ -f ] [ -n ] [ -p String ] [ -s ] [ +LineNumber ] [ +/Pattern/ ] [ File ... ]
```

Table 15-3 provides the flags that can be used with the pg command.

Table 15-3 The pg command flags and flag descriptions

Flag	Flag description
-c	Moves the cursor to the home position and clears the screen before each page. This flag is ignored if the clear_screen field is not defined for your workstation type in the terminfo file.
-e	Does not pause at the end of each file.
-f	Does not split lines. Normally, the <b>pg</b> command splits lines longer than the screen width.
-n	Stops processing when a <b>pg</b> command letter is entered.  Normally, commands must end with a new line character.
-p String	Uses the specified string as the prompt. If the String contains a %d value, that value is replaced by the current page number in the prompt. The default prompt is: (colon). If the specified string contains spaces, you must enclose the string in quotation marks.
-S	Highlights all messages and prompts.
+LineNumber	Starts at the specified line number.
-Number	Specifies the number of lines in the window. On workstations that contain 24 lines, the default is 23.
+/Pattern/	Starts at the first line that contains the specified pattern.

When the pg command pauses and issues a prompt, you can issue a subcommand. Some of these subcommands change the display to a particular place in the file, some search for specific patterns in the text, and others change the environment in which the pg command works.

Table 15-4 provides a list of the subcommands for the pg command.

Table 15-4 Subcommands for pg

Subcommand	Subcommand description
The following subcommands display a selected place in the file.	
Page	Displays the page specified by the Page parameter.
+Number	Displays the page obtained by adding the Number value to the current page.
-Number	Displays the page as specified by the Number value before the current page.

Subcommand	Subcommand description		
The following subc	The following subcommands display a selected place in the file.		
1	(Lowercase L) Scrolls the display one line forward.		
Numberl	Displays at the top of the screen the line specified by the Number parameter.		
+Numberl	Scrolls the display forward for the specified number of lines.		
-Numberl	Scrolls the display backward for the specified number of lines.		
d or Ctrl-D	Scrolls half a screen forward.		
-d or -Ctrl-D	Scrolls half a screen backward.		
Ctrl-L or . (dot)	Displays the current page again.		
\$	Displays the last page in the file. Do not use this when the input is from a pipeline.		
The following subc	commands search for text patterns in the text.		
[Number]/Pattern/	Searches for the occurrence of the <i>Pattern</i> value as specified by the <i>Number</i> variable. The search begins immediately after the current page and continues to the end of the current file, without wraparound. The default for the <i>Number</i> variable is 1.		
Number? Pattern? Number^Pattern^	Searches backward for the occurrence of the <i>Pattern</i> value as specified by the <i>Number</i> variable. The searching begins immediately before the current page and continues to the beginning of the current file, without wraparound. The default for the <i>Number</i> variable is 1.		
You can change the	e pg command environment with the following subcommands.		
[ <i>Number</i> ]n	Begins examining the next file in the command line, as specified by the <i>Number</i> variable. The default for the <i>Number</i> variable is first.		
[ <i>Number</i> ]p	Begins examining the previous file on the command line, as specified by the Number variable. The default for the <i>Number</i> variable is first.		
[Number]w or [Number]z	Displays another window of text. If the <i>Number</i> variable is specified, it sets the window size to the number of lines it specifies.		
s File	Saves the input in the specified file. Only the current file being examined is saved. This command must always end with a new-line character, even if you specify the -n flag.		

Subcommand	Subcommand description	
The following subc	The following subcommands display a selected place in the file.	
h	Displays an abbreviated summary of available subcommands.	
q or Q	Quits the pg command.	
!Command	Sends the specified command to the shell named in the SHELL environment variable. If this is not available, the default shell is used. This command must always end with a new-line character, even if the -n flag is used.	

Examples using the pg command are provided in the following:

► To look at the contents of a file one page at a time, enter:

```
# pg /etc/hosts
# @(#)47
              1.1 src/bos/usr/sbin/netstart/hosts, cmdnet, bos430,
9737A 430
7/24/91 10:00:46
# IBM PROLOG BEGIN TAG
..... ( Lines Removed )
# /etc/hosts
# This file contains the host names and their address for hosts in the
# indicates the beginning of a comment; characters up to the end of the
# line are not interpreted by routines which search this file. Blank
# lines are allowed.
..... ( Lines Removed )
# Internet Address
                      Hostname
                                      # Comments
# 192.9.200.1
                      netOsample
                                     # ethernet name/address
                 tokenOsample
# 128.100.0.1
                                     # token ring name/address
# 10.2.0.2
                      x25sample
                                     # x.25 name/address
127.0.0.1
                                             # loopback (100)
                      loopback localhost
name/address
(EOF):
```

This is the end of the file. Press Enter to go back to the command prompt.

► To view the contents of a file with all messages and prompts highlighted, enter:

```
# pg -s /etc/hosts
```

Figure 15-2 on page 394 shows the output of the **pg** -s command. Notice that the prompt (:) at the bottom of the screen has been highlighted.

```
# @(#)47
                1.1 src/bos/usr/sbin/netstart/hosts, cmdnet, bos430, 9737A_430
7/24/91 10:00:46
# IBM_PROLOG_BEGIN_TAG
# This is an automatically generated prolog.
# bos430 src/bos/usr/sbin/netstart/hosts 1.1
# Licensed Materials - Property of IBM
# (C) COPYRIGHT International Business Machines Corp. 1985,1989
# All Rights Reserved
# US Government Users Restricted Rights - Use, duplication or
# disclosure restricted by GSA ADP Schedule Contract with IBM Corp.
# IBM_PROLOG_END_TAG
# COMPONENT_NAME: TCPIP hosts
# FUNCTIONS: loopback
# ORIGINS: 26 27
 (C) COPYRIGHT International Business Machines Corp. 1985, 1989
:
```

Figure 15-2 The pg -s command with highlighted prompt

## 15.3.2 Using the view command to view files

The **view** command starts the vi full-screen editor in read-only mode (view = vi -R). The read-only mode is only advisory to prevent accidental changes to the file.

The view command syntax is as follows:

```
view [ -cSubcommand ] [ -1 ] [ -t Tag ] [ -wNumber ] [ -y ] [ -r [ File ] ]
[ + [ Subcommand ] ] [ File ... ]
```

Table 15-5 provides a list of the flags for the view command.

Table 15-5 Table of flags for the view command

Flag	Flag description
-cSubcommand	Carries out the ex editor subcommand before viewing with vi begins. When a null operand is entered, as in -c", the editor places the cursor on the last line of the file.

Flag	Flag description
-1	Enters a version of the vi editor with specialized features designed for writing programs in the LISP language. In this mode, the vi editor indents appropriately for LISP programming, and the (, ), {, }, [[, and ]] subcommands are modified to act appropriately for LISP.
-r [ <i>File</i> ]	Recovers a file after an editor or system crash. If you do not specify a File parameter, the editor displays a list of all saved files.
-t <i>Tag</i>	Edits the file containing the tag specified by the Tag parameter and positions the editor at its definition. To use this flag, you must first create a database of function names and their locations using the ctags command.
-wNumber	Sets the default window size to the value specified by the Number parameter. This is useful when your terminal communicates with the system running the editor over a slow communications line.
-у	Overrides the maximum line setting of 1,048,560 with any value greater than 1024.
+[Subcommand]	Carries out the ex editor subcommand specified by the Subcommand parameter before viewing with vi begins. If you do not specify a subcommand, the cursor is placed on the last line of the file.

See Section 15.1, "The vi file editor" on page 372 to understand the vi editor.

# 15.3.3 Using the echo command

The **echo** command writes character strings to standard output. *Strings* are separated by spaces, and a new-line character follows the last String parameter specified.

The echo command syntax is as follows:

The **echo** command recognizes the escape conventions, as shown in Table 15-6.

Table 15-6 Escape conventions used with the echo command

Escape convention	Escape convention description
\a	Displays an alert character.
\b	Displays a backspace character.

Escape convention	Escape convention description
\c	Suppresses the new line character that otherwise follows the final argument in the output. All characters following the \c sequence are ignored.
\f	Displays a form-feed character.
\n	Displays a new-line character.
\r	Displays a carriage return character.
\t	Displays a tab character.
\v	Displays a vertical tab character.
//	Displays a backslash character.
\0Number	Displays an 8-bit character whose ASCII value is a 0-, 1-, 2-, or 3-digit octal number.

Examples using the **echo** command are provided in the following:

► To write a message to standard output, enter:

```
# echo Please read your MAIL
Please read your MAIL
#
```

► To display a message containing special characters, enter:

```
echo "\n\nGone to lunch.\nWill be back at 2:00."
```

This skips three lines and displays the message:

```
Gone to lunch. Will be back at 2:00.
```

**Note:** You must put the message in " (quotation marks) if it contains escape sequences. Otherwise, the shell interprets the  $\$  (backslash) as a metacharacter and treats the  $\$  differently.

► To use the **echo** command with pattern-matching characters, enter:

```
echo The back-up files are: *.bak
The back-up files are: my file1.bak my file2.bak my file3.bak
```

This usage displays the message The back-up files are: followed by the file names in the current directory ending with .bak.

▶ To add a single line of text to a file, enter:

echo Remember to set the shell search path to \$PATH. >>notes

This usage adds the message to the end of the file notes after the shell substitutes the value of the PATH shell variable.

► To write a message to the standard error output, enter:

```
echo Error: file already exists. >&2
```

This command redirects the error message to standard error. If the >&2 is omitted, the message is written to standard output.

#### 15.3.4 Using the file command to determine a file type

The file command reads the files specified by the File parameter or the *FileList* variable, performs a series of tests on each file, and attempts to classify them by type. The command then writes the file types to standard output.

If a file appears to be in ASCII format, the **file** command examines the first 1024 bytes and determines the file type. If a file does not appear to be in ASCII format, the **file** command further attempts to distinguish a binary data file from a text file that contains extended characters.

If the File parameter specifies an executable or object module file and the version number is greater than 0, the **file** command displays the version stamp.

To classify the file type, use the following command syntax:

```
file [-m MagicFile] [-f FileList] [File...]
```

To check the magic file for Format Errors, use the following command syntax:

```
file-c [-m MagicFile]
```

Table 15-7 provides the flags that can be used by the **file** command.

Table 15-7 The file command flags and flag descriptions

Flag	Flag description
-c	Checks the specified magic file (the /etc/magic file, by default) for format errors. This validation is not normally done. File typing is not done under this flag.
-f FileList	Reads the specified file list. The file must list one file per line and must not contain leading or trailing spaces.
-m MagicFile	Specifies the file name of the magic file (the /etc/magic file, by default).

Examples using the file command are provided in the following:

► To display the type of information a file contains, enter:

```
# file /etc/hosts
/etc/hosts: commands text
```

This displays the file type of myfile (such as directory, data, ASCII text, C-program source, and archive).

Create a file called filenames, with the three entries /etc/hosts, /etc/wall, and /usr/sbin/wall. To display the type of each file named in a list of file names, enter:

```
# cat filenames
/etc/hosts
/etc/wall
/usr/sbin/wall
# file -f filenames
/etc/hosts: commands text
/etc/wall: symbolic link to /usr/sbin/wall.
/usr/sbin/wall: executable (RISC System/6000) or object module
```

This displays the type of each file named in the filenames list. Each file name must appear alone on a line.

#### 15.3.5 Using the strings command in object or binary files

The **strings** command looks for printable strings in an object or binary file. A string is any sequence of four or more printable characters that end with a new-line or a null character. The strings command is useful for identifying random object files.

The strings command syntax is as follows:

```
strings [ -a ] [ - ] [ -o ] [ -t Format ] [ -n Number ] [ -Number ] [ File ... ]
```

Table 15-8 provides the flags that can be used with the **strings** command.

Table 15-8 The strings command flags and flag descriptions

Flag	Flag description
-a	Searches the entire file, not just the data section, for printable strings.
-	Searches the entire file, not just the data section, for printable strings.

Flag	Flag description
-n <i>Number</i>	Specifies a minimum string length other than the default of 4 characters. The maximum value of a string length is 4096. This flag is identical to the <i>-Number</i> flag.
-0	Lists each string preceded by its octal offset in the file. This flag is identical to the -to flag.
-t Format	Lists each string preceded by its offset from the start of the file. The format is dependent on the character used as the Format variable. d - Writes the offset in decimal. o - Writes the offset in octal. x - Writes the offset in hexadecimal
-Number	Specifies a minimum string length other than the default of 4 characters. The maximum value of a string length is 4096. This flag is identical to the -n Number flag.
File	Binary or object file to be searched.

**Note:** When the -o and the -t format flags are defined more than once on a command line, the last flag specified controls the behavior of the **strings** command.

Examples using the **strings** command are as follows:

▶ To search a file, enter:

```
# strings wall
0(#)61
1.11 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libc/ threads init.c, libcthrd, bos43K, 9823A 43K 6/12/98
12:37:06
wall.cat
/etc/utmp
libIN.cat
Cannot open "%s".
/etc/utmp
0123456789
/dev/
..... ( Lines Removed )
libIN.cat
Error %d
libIN.cat
No system error
libc.cat
0(#)53
1.8 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/ERsysmsg.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A_430 11/10/93 15:13:03
0(#)71
1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSlen.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A_430 6/10/91 10:14:51
```

@(#)88
1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSsname.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A\_430 6/10/91 10:15:13
@(#)47
1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSskpa.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A\_430 6/10/91 10:52:46

► To search for strings at least 12 characters long, enter:

# strings -12 wall 1.11 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libc/\_threads\_init.c, libcthrd, bos43K, 9823A\_43K 6/12/98 12:37:06 Cannot open "%s". Cannot open "%s". wall: Cannot allocate enough memory. Broadcast message from %s@%s (%s) at %s ... Message too long (max %d chars). wall: Cannot create another process at this time. @(#)11 1.16.1.7 src/bos/usr/sbin/wall/wall.c, cmdcomm, bos430, 9737A 430 9/5/97 13:48:32 1.7 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/ERcmderr.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91 10:15:39 No system error 1.8 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/ERsysmsg.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A\_430 11/10/93 15:13:03 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSlen.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91 10:14:51 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSsname.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91 10:15:13 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSskpa.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A\_430 6/10/91 10:52:46

► To search for strings at least 20 characters long and show the offset in hexadecimal, enter:

```
# strings -t x -n 20 wall
   lac7 1.11 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libc/__threads_init.c, libcthrd, bos43K, 9823A_43K
6/12/98 12:37:06
   1bc0 wall: Cannot allocate enough memory.
  1bec Broadcast message from %s@%s (%s) at %s ...
  1clc Message too long (max %d chars).
  1c40 wall: Cannot create another process at this time.
  1c74 @(#)11 1.16.1.7 src/bos/usr/sbin/wall/wall.c, cmdcomm, bos430, 9737A 430
9/5/97 13:48:32
   1ce7 1.7 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/ERcmderr.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A_430 6/10/91
10:15:39
   1d87 1.8 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/ERsysmsg.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 11/10/93
15:13:03
  1de7 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSlen.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91
10:14:51
  1e4b 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSsname.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91
10:15:13
   lea7 1.6 src/bos/usr/ccs/lib/libIN/CSskpa.c, libIN, bos430, 9737A 430 6/10/91
10:52:46
```

In this section, you learned how to edit a file using the vi editor. You also learned how to view a file with the **pg** and **cat** commands, and the differences between the two. You can **echo** text to the screen or a file. The file characteristics can be found using the **file** command. You can also find strings within a file using the **strings** command. Much of what you have learned in this section will be used in Chapter 16, "The shell and shell scripts" on page 403.

#### 15.4 Quiz

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

- 1. Which command displays the value of the HOME variable?
  - A. echo HOME
  - B. echo \$HOME
  - C. echo '\$HOME'
  - D. echo `\$HOME`

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

1. Use the following file contents to answer the following question:

```
#!/usr/bin/ksh
tctl -f /dev/rmt0 rewind
mkszfile
mksysb -i /dev/rmt0
tctl -f /dev/rmt0 offline
```

In the above script, the system administrator is editing a routine backup script using vi because the mkszfile command is unnecessary. What steps should the system administrator use to delete the line containing the mkszfile command?

- A. Move to line 3, and press dd.
- B. Move to line 3, and press xx.
- C. Move to line 2 and press o.
- D. Move to line 3 and press d.

2. Use the following directory listing to answer the following question:

```
-rwsr-xrw- 1 root system 76528 Nov 24 16:21 /usr/local/bin/scan it
```

A long listing of the file /usr/local/bin/scan\_it is shown above. When the command is executed as a nonroot user, it fails to run as root. What would be the first action to take?

- A. file /usr/local/bin/scan\_it.
- B. chmod 4764 /usr/local/bin/scan\_it.
- C. Run the command in the background.
- Copy /usr/local/bin/scan\_it to the own home directory and execute it from there.

#### **15.4.1 Answers**

The following answers are for the assessment quiz questions.

1. B

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. A

## 15.5 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. What is the difference between the cat, echo, pg, and view commands?
- 2. Use the file command to determine what type of file /etc/swapspaces is.
- 3. Set up your environment to use vi as your default system editor. Use the **env** command to check that it is set correctly.



# The shell and shell scripts

The primary interface to the operating system is called a *shell*. The shell is the outermost layer of the operating system. Shells incorporate a programming language to control processes and files, as well as to start and control other programs. The shell manages the interaction between you and the operating system by prompting you for input, interpreting that input for the operating system, and then handling any resulting output from the operating system.

Shells provide a way for you to communicate with the operating system. This communication is carried out either interactively (input from the keyboard is acted upon immediately) or as a shell script. A *shell script* is a sequence of shell and operating system commands that are stored in a file and may be reused.

In essence, a shell script is simply a combination of commands put into a single file. Variables and environments can also be set up in a shell script.

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#### 16.1 The Korn shell or POSIX shell

The Korn shell is an interactive command interpreter and command programming language. It conforms to the Portable Operating System Interface for Computer Environments (POSIX), an international standard for operating systems. POSIX is not an operating system, but is a standard aimed at portability of applications, at the source level, across many systems. POSIX features are built on top of the Korn shell. The Korn shell (also known as the POSIX shell) offers many of the same features as the Bourne and C shells, such as I/O redirection capabilities, variable substitution, and file name substitution.

## 16.2 Bourne shell

The Bourne shell is an interactive command interpreter and command programming language. The **bsh** command runs the Bourne shell.

The Bourne shell can be run either as a login shell or as a subshell under the login shell. Only the <code>login</code> command can call the Bourne shell as a login shell. It does this by using a special form of the <code>bsh</code> command name: -bsh. When called with an initial - (hyphen), the shell first reads and runs commands found in the system /etc/profile file and your \$HOME/.profile, if one exists.

The /etc/profile file sets variables needed by all users. Once the profiles are run, the shell is ready to read commands from your standard input.

## 16.3 C shell

The C shell is an interactive command interpreter and a command programming language. It uses syntax that is similar to the C programming language. The **csh** command starts the C shell.

When you log in, the C shell first searches for the system-wide setup file /etc/csh.cshrc. If it exists, the C shell runs the commands stored in that file. Next, the C shell runs the system-wide setup file /etc/csh.login, if it is available. Then, it searches your home directory for the .cshrc and .login files. If they exist, they contain any customized user information pertinent to running the C shell. All variables set in the /etc/csh.cshrc and /etc/csh.login files may be overridden by your .cshrc and .login files in your \$HOME directory. Only the root user can modify the /etc/csh.cshrc and /etc/csh.login files.

The /etc/csh.login and \$HOME/.login files are run only once at login time. They are generally used to hold environment variable definitions, commands that you want carried out once at login, or commands that set up terminal characteristics.

The /etc/csh.cshrc and \$HOME/.cshrc files are run at login time, and every time the csh command or a C shell script is invoked. They are generally used to define C shell characteristics, such as aliases and C shell variables (for example, history, noclobber, or ignoreeof). It is recommended that you only use the C shell built-in commands in the /etc/csh.cshrc and \$HOME/.cshrc files, because using other commands increases the start-up time for shell scripts.

#### 16.4 Restricted shell

The restricted shell is used to set up login names and execution environments whose capabilities are more controlled than those of the regular Bourne shell. The **rsh** or **bsh** -r command opens the restricted shell. The behavior of these commands is identical to those of the **bsh** command, except that the following actions are not allowed:

- ► Changing the directory (with the cd command)
- Setting the value of PATH or SHELL variables
- Specifying path or command names containing a / (slash)
- Redirecting output

If the restricted shell determines that a command to be run is a shell procedure, it uses the Bourne shell to run the command. In this way, it is possible to provide an end user with shell procedures that access the full power of the Bourne shell while imposing a limited menu of commands. This scheme assumes that the end user does not have write and execute permissions in the same directory.

# 16.5 Setting the shell environment

When you log in, the shell defines your user environment after reading the initialization files that you have set up. The characteristics of your user environment are defined by the values given to your environment variables. You maintain this environment until you log off the system.

The shell uses two types of profile files when you log in to the operating system. It evaluates the commands contained in the files and then runs the commands to set up your system environment. The files have similar functions, except that the /etc/profile file controls profile variables for all users on a system whereas the .profile file allows you to customize your own environment.

The shell first evaluates the commands contained in the /etc/profile file and then runs the commands to set up your system environment in the /etc/environment file.

After these files are run, the system then checks to see if you have a .profile file in your home directory. If the .profile file exists, it runs this file. The .profile file will specify if an environment file also exists. If an environment file exists, (usually called .env), the system then runs this file and sets up your environment variables.

The /etc/profile, /etc/environment, and the .profile files are run once at login time. The .env file, on the other hand, is run every time you open a new shell or a window.

#### 16.5.1 The /etc/profile file

The first file that the operating system uses at login time is the /etc/profile file. This file controls system wide default variables, such as:

- ► Export variables
- File creation mask (umask)
- Terminal types
- Mail messages to indicate when new mail has arrived.

The system administrator configures the profile file for all users on the system. Only the system administrator can change this file.

An example of the /etc/profile file is shown in the following:

```
trap "" 1 2 3
readonly LOGNAME
# Automatic logout, include in export line if uncommented
# TMOUT=120
# The MAILMSG will be printed by the shell every MAILCHECK seconds
# (default 600) if there is mail in the MAIL system mailbox.
MAIL=/usr/spool/mail/$LOGNAME
MAILMSG="[YOU HAVE NEW MAIL]"
# If termdef command returns terminal type (i.e. a non NULL value),
# set TERM to the returned value, else set TERM to default lft.
TERM DEFAULT=1ft
TERM=`termdef`
TERM=${TERM:-$TERM DEFAULT}
# If LC MESSAGES is set to "C@lft" and TERM is not set to "lft",
# unset LC MESSAGES.
if [ "$LC MESSAGES" = "C@1ft" -a "$TERM" != "1ft" ]
then
        unset LC MESSAGES
fi
export LOGNAME MAIL MAILMSG TERM
trap 1 2 3
```

#### 16.5.2 The /etc/environment file

The second file that the operating system uses at login time is the /etc/environment file. The /etc/environment file contains variables specifying the basic environment for all processes. When a new process begins, the exec subroutine makes an array of strings available that have the form Name=Value. This array of strings is called the environment. Each name defined by one of the strings is called an environment variable or shell variable. The exec subroutine allows the entire environment to be set at one time.

When you log in, the system sets environment variables from the environment file before reading your login profile, .profile. The following variables make up the basic environment:

The full path name of the user's login or HOME directory. The login program sets this to the directory specified in the /etc/passwd file.

**LANG** The locale name currently in effect. The LANG variable is initially set in the /etc/profile file at installation time.

**NLSPATH** The full path name for message catalogs.

**LOCPATH** The full path name of the location of National Language Support

tables.

**PATH** The sequence of directories that commands, such as **sh**, **time**,

nice, and nohup, search when looking for a command whose path

name is incomplete.

**LPDEST** The printer to use when a print-related command does not specify

a destination printer.

**TERM** The terminal type.

**EDITOR** The default editor to be used by various commands which perform

editing functions, such as crontab.

**TZ** The time zone information.

An example of the /etc/environment file is provided in the following example:

```
# @(#)18
               1.21 src/bos/etc/environment/environment, cmdsh, bos430,
9737A
430 5/13/94 15:09:03
# IBM PROLOG BEGIN TAG
..... ( Lines Removed )
# US Government Users Restricted Rights - Use, duplication or
# disclosure restricted by GSA ADP Schedule Contract with IBM Corp.
# System wide environment file. This file should only contain
     1. comment lines which have a # in the first column,
     2. blank lines, and
     3. Lines in the form name=value.
# WARNING: This file is only for establishing environment variables.
          Execution of commands from this file or any lines other
          than specified above may cause failure of the initialization
          process.
# Searching the current directory last is usually a BIG time saver.
# If /usr/ucb is at the beginning of the PATH the BSD version of commands will
# be found.
PATH=/usr/bin:/etc:/usr/sbin:/usr/ucb:/usr/bin/X11:/sbin
TZ=CST6CDT
LANG=en US
LOCPATH=/usr/lib/nls/loc
NLSPATH=/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N:/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N.cat
LC FASTMSG=true
# ODM routines use ODMDIR to determine which objects to operate on
# the default is /etc/objrepos - this is where the device objects
```

```
# reside, which are required for hardware configuration
ODMDIR=/etc/objrepos
```

## 16.5.3 The .profile file

The third file that the operating system uses at login time is the .profile file. The .profile file is present in your home (\$HOME) directory and enables you to customize your individual working environment. Because the .profile file is hidden, use the 1s -a command to list it.

After the login program adds the LOGNAME (login name) and HOME (login directory) variables to the environment, the commands in the \$HOME/.profile file are run if the file is present. The .profile file contains your individual profile that overrides the variables set in the /etc/profile file. The .profile file is often used to set exported environment variables and terminal modes. You can tailor your environment as desired by modifying the .profile file. Use the .profile file to control the following defaults:

- ► Shells to open
- Default editor
- Default printer
- ► Prompt appearance
- Keyboard sound

You can also use the .profile file (or if it is not present, the /etc/profile file) to determine login shell variables. You can also customize other shell environments. For example, use the .cshrc file and .kshrc file to tailor a C shell and a Korn shell, respectively, when each type of shell is started.

An example of a .profile file is shown in the following:

PATH=/usr/bin:/etc:/usr/sbin:/usr/ucb:\$HOME/bin:/usr/bin/X11:/sbin:.

```
export PATH

if [ -s "$MAIL" ]  # This is at Shell startup. In normal then echo "$MAILMSG"  # operation, the Shell checks  # periodically.
```

#### 16.5.4 The .env file

A fourth file that the operating system uses at login time is the .env file, if your .profile has the following line:

```
export ENV=$HOME/.env
```

The .env file enables you to customize your individual working environment variables. Because the .env file is hidden, use the <code>ls-a</code> command to list it. The .env file contains the individual user environment variables that override the variables set in the /etc/environment file. You can tailor your environment variables as desired by modifying your .env file.

An example of the .env file is as follows:

```
export myid=id \mid sed -n -e 's/).*$//' -e 's/^.*(//p'^ \
        bold='tput smso' \
        norm=`tput rmso`
#set prompt: login & system name (reverse video) & path (normal)
if [ $myid = root ]
        then
                typeset -x PSCH='${bold}#:${norm}\${PWD}> '
                PS1="${bold}#:${norm}\${PWD}> "
        else
                typeset -x PSCH='>'
                PS1="${bold}$LOGNAME@$UNAME:${norm}\${PWD}> "
                PS2=">"
                PS3="#?"
fi
export PS1 PS2 PS3
#setup my command aliases
alias ls="/bin/ls -CF" \
        d="/bin/ls -Fal | pg" \setminus
        rm="/bin/rm -i" \
        up="cd .."
```

**Note:** When modifying the .env file, ensure that newly created environment variables do not conflict with standard variables, such as MAIL, PS1, PS2, and IFS.

#### 16.5.5 Changing your environment from the command line

You can also change the environment variable from the command line. These variables will only be valid until you exit the shell.

To change the default # prompt in the command line to a mysystem> prompt, enter:

```
# PS1=mysystem\ \>
mysystem > pwd
/etc
```

To set the language environment variable to en\_UK for one session, enter:

```
# LANG=en_UK
# export LANG
```

To check current environment variable, enter:

```
# env
=/usr/bin/env
LANG=en US
LOGIN=root
NLSPATH=/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N:/usr/lib/nls/msg/%L/%N.cat
inetd dummy=xxx
PATH=/usr/bin:/etc:/usr/sbin:/usr/ucb:/usr/bin/X11:/sbin
LC FASTMSG=true
WINDOWID=4194312
LOGNAME=root
LOCPATH=/usr/lib/nls/loc
USER=root
AUTHSTATE=compat
DISPLAY=sv1051b:0.0
SHELL=/bin/ksh
ODMDIR=/etc/objrepos
HOME=/
TERM=aixterm
PWD=/
TZ=CST6CDT
```

To check the value of a single environment variable, use the **echo** command. The **echo** command writes character strings to standard output. To check the value of the LANG variable, use the following command:

```
# echo $LANG
en UK
```

The \$ character is required to tell the **echo** command that the string is a shell variable, and that it should evaluate and write the contents of the variable to standard output, rather the variable name itself.

## 16.6 Creating and running a shell script

Shell scripts provide an easy way to run tedious commands, large or complicated sequences of commands, and routine tasks. A shell script is a file that contains one or more commands. When you type the name of a shell script file, the system runs the command sequence contained in the file.

## 16.6.1 General script remarks

You can create a shell script using a text editor. Your script can contain both operating system commands and shell built-in commands.

The following steps are general guidelines for writing shell scripts:

1. Use a text editor to create and save a file. You can include any combination of shell and operating system commands in the shell script file.

By convention, shell scripts that are not set up for use by many users are stored in the \$HOME/bin directory.

**Note:** The operating system does not support the setuid or setgid subroutines within a shell script.

2. Use the **chmod** command to allow only the owner to run (or execute) the file. For example, if your file is named myscript, enter:

```
chmod u=rwx myscript
```

3. Enter the script name on the command line to run the shell script. To run the shell script, myscript, enter:

```
myscript
```

**Note:** You can run a shell script without making it executable if a shell command (**ksh**, **bsh**, or **csh**) precedes the shell script file name on the command line. For example, to run a nonexecutable file named myscript under the control of the Korn shell, type:

```
# ksh myscript
```

When you run an executable shell script in either the Korn (the POSIX Shell) or Bourne shell, the commands in the script are carried out under the control of the current shell (the shell from which the script is started) unless you specify a different shell. When you run an executable shell script in the C shell, the commands in the script are carried out under the control of the Bourne shell (/usr/bin/bsh), unless you specify a different shell.

You can cause a shell script to run in a specific shell by including the shell within the shell script. To run an executable shell script under a specific shell, enter #!Path on the first line of the shell script. The #! characters identify the file type. The Path variable specifies the path name of the shell from which to run the shell script. For example, if the first line in a shell script is #!/usr/bin/bsh, the script is run under control of the Bourne shell.

When you precede a shell script file name with a shell command, the shell specified on the command line overrides any shell specified within the script file itself. Therefore, entering **ksh myfile** runs the file named **myfile** under the control of the Korn shell, even if the first line of myfile is #!/usr/bin/csh.

## 16.6.2 Creating a script

In this section, the Korn shell (ksh) will be the focus to create a script that will run a backup. The script will start with daily backups then move through to weekly and then finally a monthly backup. It will also need user input to continue or abort the operation.

The shell script should have the following format:

- ► The #!/usr/bin/ksh
- Script comments
- Search path
- ► Shell variables or arguments
- Standard input, standard output, and standard Error
- ► Exit status

#### The #!/usr/bin/ksh

The first line of the Korn shell script should begin with:

#!/usr/bin/ksh

in order for the shell to run under the control of the Korn shell, irrespective of the shell that called it.

## **Script comments**

Script comments are a description of the script that begin with the pound (#) sign. It will have all comments about the script or explain actions of the script.

## Search path

The shell script should include a search path, because if a user with a different search path tries to use the script, it may fail.

#### Shell variables

Variables are used to hold information that will be passed onto the script for utilization.

In the backup example, the variables are used to give the day of the week and day of the month variables to the rest of the script to determine the type of backup to use. The bye variable is also used for the exit routine.

## Standard I/O and redirection in scripts

There are three types of I/O in scripts, namely *stdin*, *stdout*, and *stderr*. Standard input (stdin) normally comes from the keyboard. Standard output (stdout) normally goes to the screen. Standard error (stderr) normally goes to the screen. Each of these errors has a descriptor, for stdin it is 0, for stdout it is 1 and for stderr it is 2. You can redirect these to or from a file if needed, as described below:

Redirects input
Redirects output
Appends output
Redirects stderr

1>&2 Redirects stdout to stderr
2>&1 Redirects stderr to stdout

#### Exit status

A good shell script should have a single point of exit. The exit variable can be selected by a variable and used during the script.

#### The if/then statement

The if/then statement is the most basic conditional statement. The if/then statement reads a variable, and if the variable is true it runs a command. It runs between if and fi.

The if/then statement format is as follows:

```
if [ $variable = true ]
then
command(s)
fi
```

#### The if/else statement

The if/else statement is the next logical step after the if/then statement. The if/else statement reads the variable, and if the variable is true, then the commands under the if are carried out. If the variable is false, then the commands under the else are run. It runs between if and fi.

The if/else statement format is as follows:

```
if [ $variable = true ]
then
command(s)
else
command(s)
```

#### The if/elif/else statement

The if/elif/else statement is again a progression on the if/else statement. It reads the variable, and if true, then it runs a command. It the variable is false, the statement reads the variable after the elif, and if the second variable is true, it performs that command. If all the variables before the else command are false, then the statement runs the command that follows the else. It runs between if and fi.

The if/elif/else statement format is as follows:

```
if [ $variable = true ]
then
command(s)
elif [ $other_variable = true ]
then
command(s)
else
command(s)
fi
```

## The while loop

The while loop tells the script that while a statement is true, it will perform the loop until the statement becomes false. It runs the commands between do and done.

The while loop format is as follows:

```
while [ $statement = true ]
do
command(s)
done
```

## The for loop

The for loop is used to run commands a set number of times. The number of times is determined by the list after the **for** command. It runs the commands between do and done.

The for loop format is as follows:

```
for wordlist variables
do
command(s)
done
```

#### The case statement

The case statement is used as a substitute for the if/elif statements. The case statement reads a variable, and then runs a command according to the response. It runs the commands between case and esac.

The case statement format is as follows:

```
case variable in
value 1)
command(s) ;;
value 2)
command(s) ;;
esac
```

## **Arithmetic operations**

The Korn shell **let** built-in command performs integer arithmetic. Constants are of the form [*Base*] *Number*, where *Base* is a decimal number between 2 and 36 inclusive, and *Number* is a number in that base. If you omit the *Base* parameter, the shell uses a base of 10.

Arithmetic expressions use the same syntax, precedence, and associativity as the C language, except for ++, --, ?:, and , (comma). Many arithmetic operators also have special meaning to the shell, so they must be quoted.

The arithmetic operation format is as follows:

```
let "y = y * 5"
let "z = q * (z - 10)"
```

## Logical operations

A logical, or conditional, expression is used to test file attributes and to compare strings and other expressions.

The logical operation format is as follows:

```
String1 = String2

String1 != String2

Expression1 -eq Expression2

Expression1 -ne Expression2

Expression1 && Expression2

Expression1 | | Expression2

Expression1 | | Expression2

Expression1 | | Expression2

Expression2

True, if String1 is equal to String2.

True, if String1 is equal to String2.

True, if the expressions are equal.

True, if the expressions are not equal.

True, if both expressions are true.

True, if either expression is true.
```

For complete details on shell functions and features, consult Chapter 11, "Shells", in *AIX System User's Guide: Operating System and Devices*, found at:

```
http://www.ibm.com/servers/aix/library
```

Now that you have a basic idea of what is needed in a script, consider the following example of a script called mybackup.

#### First line of script

#!/usr/bin/ksh

#### Script comments

```
# Script Name: mybackup
# Author: I.T. Wasme
# This script will run a backup.
```

## Script variables

```
# Set variables here
DAILY=`date +%a`
MONTHLY=`date +%d`
BYE=stay
```

## Script start

# Start Script Here

## Start of the while loop

```
while [ $BYE = stay ]
do
```

## Start of the for loop

```
for i in rootvg uservg tempvg
do
    # Interactive Prompting.
```

#### Standard I/O. First if/then statement

```
if tty -s
then
  echo "\n\n\n\n\n\n\n\n\n\n\n\would you like to backup" $i
  echo "\n Type Y/y to CONTINUE or N/n to ABORT: \c"; read inp
```

```
Start of the case command. Reading stdin
```

```
case "$inp" in
    y*|Y*)
    echo Backup will Run
    BYE=stay
;;
    n*|N*|*)
    echo Backup will Not Run
```

#### Exit status

BYE=go

#### End of case command

esac

#### End first if statement

fi

#### Start first if/else statement

```
if [ $BYE = stay ]
then
     # Backup Section Starts here
     echo "\nBackup procedure starting"
```

#### Start first if/elif/else statement

#### End first if/elif/else statement

fi

else

#### Exit status

BYE=go

#### End first if/else statement

fi

#### End for loop

done

#### Set exit point for multiple exit status points in script

```
# Set single exit point
```

#### Start second if statement

```
if [ $BYE = go ]
then
    echo Backup procedure complete
```

#### Actual exit point

exit

#### End second if statement

fi

#### End while loop and shell exits

done

The preceding example is just a basic idea of what is needed to create a basic script and how you can utilize the various functions within the script to complete your tasks. Depending on your local IS organization, your shell scripts may need to conform to specific specifications, such as comments and programming style. Therefore, the preceding code may need further modification before is can be put into production.

## 16.6.3 Testing shell scripts

There are useful **ksh** flags that allow you to test your shell scripts. For example, the -n flag reads commands and checks them for syntax errors, but does not run them. The -u flag runs commands, but treats unset variables as errors when substituting them. The -x flag prints performed commands and their arguments.

The following example demonstrates the use of **ksh** -**n** on a script containing errors:

```
# cat testscript
touch new_file
NEW=1
echo $NEW $OLD
if [[ $NEW == $OLD ]]
then
    echo $NEW
fi
#ls new_file
ls: 0653-341 The file new file does not exist.
```

```
# ksh -n testscript
testscript[4]: 0403-057 Syntax error at line 4: `==' is not expected.
# ls new_file
ls: 0653-341 The file new file does not exist.
```

Notice that after running the script, the file new\_file does not exist, because the -n flag does not actually perform the commands in the script.

The following example demonstrates the use of ksh -u on the same script:

```
# ksh -u testscript
testscript[3]: OLD: 0403-041 Parameter not set.
# ls new_file
new file
```

The script fails because the OLD variable has not been given a value. Notice, however, that after running the script, the file new\_file does exist, because it was created before the line in the script that had an unset parameter.

The following example demonstrates the use of ksh -x on the same script:

```
# rm new_file
# ksh -x testscript
+ touch new_file
+ NEW=1
+ echo 1
1
testscript[4]: 0403-057 Syntax error at line 4: `==' is not expected.
# ls new_file
new_file
```

Notice that each line of the script was displayed as it was carried out prior to its failure. Also notice that variable contents were displayed rather than the variable names.

## 16.7 Quiz

The following are additional questions created by the authors to further test your understanding of the topics.

1. Use the following example for the questions in this topic.

```
#!/usr/bin/ksh
# If srcmstr is running, ensure that it is active before issuing the
# startsrc commands
if [ -n "$src running"];then
echo "Checking for srcmstr active...\c"
i=10 # try ten times to contact it
while [ $i != 10 ]; do
lssrc -s inetd >/dev/null 2>&1 && break # break out on success
sleep 1
echo ".\c"
i='expr $i -1'
done
if [ $i=0 ];then
echo "\n\n ERROR:srcmstr is not accepting connections.\n"
fi
echo "complete"
else
src_running=""
fi
```

In the above section of code, what is the problem?

- A. The while loop is never performed.
- B. There are no break statements in the loop.
- C. The variable i should be initialized to zero.
- D. The while loop does not have the done statement.
- 2. A marketing manager would like her shell prompt to reflect the directory she is in so that she needs to remove a file, she will be sure to be in the proper directory. Which of the following environment variables can be set to accomplish this?
  - A. PS1
  - B. PATH
  - C. DISPLAY
  - D. LOCPATH

- 3. A client has changed their personal .profile to allow for a search of the /usr/local/bin file system. This was needed to test new software on the development machine. The client will be going to production with the new software the next weekend, impacting about 500 users. Which of the following should be recommended to the client in order to avoid any potential problems?
  - A. Modify /etc/hosts to allow the production users to use the software.
  - B. Modify /etc/profile to allow the production users to use the software.
  - C. Modify /etc/hosts.equiv to allow the production users to use the software.
  - D. Modify /etc/resolv.conf to allow the production users to use the software.

#### 16.7.1 **Answers**

The following answers are for the additional quiz questions.

- 1. A
- 2. A
- 3. B

## 16.8 Exercises

The following exercises provide sample topics for self study. They will help ensure comprehension of this chapter.

- 1. Create a script with a while loop that will greet people as they log in, as long as you are logged in.
- 2. What should go into the .profile file and what should go into /etc/profile?

# **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 424.

- ► AIX 5L AIX Workload Manager (WLM), SG24-5977
- ► AIX 5L Differences Guide, SG24-5765
- ► AIX Logical Volume Manager, From A to Z: Introduction and Concepts, SG24-5432
- ► IBM Certification Study Guide: AIX Installation and System Recovery, SG24-6183
- IBM Certification Study Guide: AIX Performance and System Tuning, SG24-6184
- ► IBM Certification Study Guide: AIX Problem Determination Tools and Techniques, SG24-6185
- ► IBM Certification Study Guide: AIX Communications, SG24-6186
- ► IBM @server Certification Study Guide pSeries HACMP for AIX, SG24-6187
- ► IBM @server Certification Study Guide pSeries AIX System Administration, SG24-6191
- ▶ IBM Certification Study Guide RS/6000 SP, SG24-5348
- ► Understanding IBM @server pSeries Performance and Sizing, SG24-4810

#### Other resources

These publications are also relevant as further information sources:

- AIX System Management Concepts: Operating System and Devices, SC23-4311
- ► RS/6000 and pSeries PCI Adapter Placement Reference, SA38-0538
- SSA Adapters: User's Guide and Maintenance Information, SA33-3272

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You can access all of the AIX documentation through the Internet at the following URL:

http://www.ibm.com/servers/aix/library

The following types of documentation are located on the documentation CD-ROM that ships with the AIX operating system:

- 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:

► CD-ROM training for System Support certification

http://www.ibm.com/services/learning/spotlight/pseries/cdrom.html

► The best place to start learning about certification:

http://www.ibm.com/certify

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# **Abbreviations and acronyms**

ABI	Application Binary Interface	BOS	Base Operating System
AC	Alternating Current	BSC	Binary Synchronous
ACL	Access Control List		Communications
AFPA	Adaptive Fast Path	CAD	Computer-Aided Design
	Architecture	CAE	Computer-Aided Engineering
АН	Authentication Header	CAM	Computer-Aided
AIX	Advanced Interactive Executive	CATIA	Manufacturing Computer-Graphics Aided
ANSI	American National Standards Institute		Three-Dimensional Interactive Application
APAR	Authorized Program Analysis	CCM	Common Character Mode
	Report	CD	Compact Disk
API	Application Programming Interface	CDE	Common Desktop Environment
ARP	Address Resolution Protocol	CDLI	Common Data Link Interface
ASCI	Accelerated Strategic	CD-R	CD Recordable
ASCII	Computing Initiative  American National Standards	CD-ROM	Compact Disk-Read Only Memory
	Code for Information	CE	Customer Engineer
	Interchange	CEC	Central Electronics Complex
ASR	Address Space Register	CFD	Computational Fluid
ATM	Asynchronous Transfer Mode		Dynamics
AuditRM	Audit Log Resource Manager	CGE	Common Graphics
AUI	Attached Unit Interface		Environment
AWT	Abstract Window Toolkit	CHRP	Common Hardware Reference Platform
ВСТ	Branch on CounT	CISPR	International Special
BFF	Backup File Format	CISPN	Committee on Radio
ВІ	Business Intelligence		Interference
BIND	Berkeley Internet Name Daemon	CLIO/S	Client Input/Output Sockets
BIST	Built-In Self-Test	CLVM	Concurrent LVM
BLAS	Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms	CMOS	Complimentary Metal-Oxide Semiconductor
BLOB	Binary Large Object	CMP	Certificate Management Protocol

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COFF	Common Object File Format	DMA	Direct Memory Access
COLD	Computer Output to Laser	DMT	Directory Management Tool
	Disk	DN	Distinguished Name
CORBA	Common Object Request Broker Architecture	DNS	Domain Naming System
CPU	Central Processing Unit	DOE	Department of Energy
CRC	Cyclic Redundancy Check	DOI	Domain of Interpretation
CSID	Character Set ID	DOS	Disk Operating System
CSR	Customer Service	DPCL	Dynamic Probe Class Library
0011	Representative	DRAM	Dynamic Random Access
CSS	Communication Subsystems Support	DS	Memory  Differentiated Service
CSU	Customer Set-Up	DSA	Dynamic Segment Allocation
cws	Control Workstation	DSE	Diagnostic System Exerciser
DAD	Duplicate Address Detection	DSMIT	Distributed SMIT
DAS	Dual Attach Station	DSU	Data Service Unit
DASD	Direct Access Storage Device	DTE	Data Terminating Equipment
DAT	Digital Audio Tape	DW	Data Warehouse
DBCS	Double Byte Character Set	EA	Effective Address
DBE	Double Buffer Extension	EC	Engineering Change
DC	Direct Current	ECC	Error Checking and
DCE	Distributed Computing Environment	EEPROM	Correcting Electrically Erasable
DDC	Display Data Channel		Programmable Read Only Memory
DDS	Digital Data Storage	EFI	Extensible Firmware Interface
DE	Dual-Ended	EHD	Extended Hardware Drivers
DES	Data Encryption Standard	EIA	Electronic Industries
DFL	Divide Float		Association
DFP	Dynamic Feedback Protocol	EISA	Extended Industry Standard
DFS	Distributed File System		Architecture
DHCP	Dynamic Host Configuration	ELA	Error Log Analysis
DIMM	Protocol  Dual In-Line Memory Module	ELF	Executable and Linking Format
DIP	Direct Insertion Probe	EMU	European Monetary Union
DIT	Directory Information Tree	EOF	End of File
DIVA	Digital Inquiry Voice Answer	EPOW	Environmental and Power
DLT	Digital Linear Tape		Warning
PLI	Digital Lilleal Tape		

ERRM	Event Response resource manager	GAMESS	General Atomic and Molecular Electronic Structure System
ESID	Effective Segment ID	GPFS	General Parallel File System
ESP	Encapsulating Security Payload	GPR	General-Purpose Register
ESSL	Engineering and Scientific	GUI	Graphical User Interface
2002	Subroutine Library	GUID	Globally Unique Identifier
ETML	Extract, Transformation, Movement, and Loading	HACMP	High Availability Cluster Multi Processing
F/C	Feature Code	HACWS	High Availability Control
F/W	Fast and Wide		Workstation
FC	Fibre Channel	HCON	IBM AIX Host Connection
FCAL	Fibre Channel Arbitrated Loop		Program/6000
FCC	Federal Communication	HDX	Half Duplex
	Commission	HFT	High Function Terminal
FCP FDDI	Fibre Channel Protocol Fiber Distributed Data	HIPPI	High Performance Parallel Interface
	Interface	HiPS	High Performance Switch
FDPR	Feedback Directed Program Restructuring	HiPS LC-8	Low-Cost Eight-Port High Performance Switch
FDX	Full Duplex	HostRM	Host Resource Manager
FIFO	First In/First Out	HPF	High Performance FORTRAN
FLASH EPROM	Flash Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory	HPSSDL	High Performance Supercomputer Systems Development Laboratory
FLIH	First Level Interrupt Handler	HTTP	Hypertext Transfer Protocol
FMA	Floating point Multiply Add	Hz	Hertz
	operation	I/O	Input/Output
FPR	Floating Point Register	I <sup>2</sup> C	Inter Integrated-Circuit
FPU	Floating Point Unit		Communications
FRCA	Fast Response Cache	IAR	Instruction Address Register
FRU	Architecture Field Replaceable Unit	IBM	International Business Machines
FSRM	File System Resource Manager	ICCCM	Inter-Client Communications Conventions Manual
FTP	File Transfer Protocol	ICE	Inter-Client Exchange
GAI	Graphic Adapter Interface	ICElib	Inter-Client Exchange library
		ICMP	Internet Control Message Protocol

ID	Identification	ISO	International Organization for Standardization
IDE	Integrated Device Electronics	101/	
IDS	Intelligent Decision Server	ISV	Independent Software Vendor
IEEE	Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers	ITSO	International Technical Support Organization
IETF	Internet Engineering Task	JBOD	Just a Bunch of Disks
	Force	JDBC	Java Database Connectivity
IHV	Independent Hardware	JFC	Java Foundation Classes
	Vendor	JFS	Journaled File System
IIOP	Internet Inter-ORB Protocol	JTAG	Joint Test Action Group
IJG	Independent JPEG Group	KDC	Key Distribution Center
IKE	Internet Key Exchange	L1	Level 1
ILS	International Language	L2	Level 2
IM	Support Input Method	L3	Level 3
INRIA	Institut National de Recherche	LAN	Local Area Network
INNIA	en Informatique et en Automatique	LANE	Local Area Network Emulation
IP	Internetwork Protocol (OSI)	LAPI	Low-Level Application Programming Interface
IPL IPSec	Initial Program Load  IP Security	LDAP	Lightweight Directory Access
IrDA	Infrared Data Association		Protocol
IrDA	(which sets standards for infrared support including	LDIF	LDAP Directory Interchange Format
	protocols for data	LED	Light Emitting Diode
	interchange)	LFD	Load Float Double
IRQ	Interrupt Request	LFT	Low Function Terminal
IS	Integrated Service	LID	Load ID
ISA	Industry Standard Architecture, Instruction Set	LLNL	Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory
	Architecture	LP	Logical Partition
ISAKMP	Internet Security Association Management Protocol	LP64	Long-Pointer 64
ISB	Intermediate Switch Board	LPI	Lines Per Inch
ISDN	Integrated-Services Digital	LPP	Licensed Program Product
	Network	LPR/LPD	Line Printer/Line Printer Daemon
ISMP	InstallSheild Multi-Platform	LRU	Least Recently Used
ISNO	Interface Specific Network Options	LTG	Logical Track Group
	•	LV	Logical Volume

LVCB	Logical Volume Control Block	NBC	Network Buffer Cache
LVD	Low Voltage Differential	NCP	Network Control Point
LVM	Logical Volume Manager	ND	Neighbor Discovery
MAP	Maintenance Analysis	NDP	Neighbor Discovery Protocol
	Procedure	NFB	No Frame Buffer
MASS	Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem	NFS	Network File System
MAU	Multiple Access Unit	NHRP	Next Hop Resolution Protocol
MBCS	Multi-Byte Character Support	NIM	Network Installation Management
Mbps	Megabits Per Second	NIS	Network Information System
MBps	Megabytes Per Second	NL	National Language
MCA	Micro Channel Architecture	NLS	National Language Support
MCAD	Mechanical Computer-Aided	NT-1	Network Terminator-1
	Design	NTF	No Trouble Found
MDI	Media Dependent Interface	NTP	Network Time Protocol
MES	Miscellaneous Equipment	NUMA	Non-Uniform Memory Access
MFLOPS	Specification Million of FLoating point	NUS	Numerical Aerodynamic
	Operations Per Second	ADVID A BA	Simulation
MII	Media Independent Interface	NVRAM	Non-Volatile Random Access Memory
MIP	Mixed-Integer Programming	NWP	Numerical Weather Prediction
MLR1	Multi-Channel Linear Recording 1	OACK	Option Acknowledgment
MMF	Multi-Mode Fibre	ocs	Online Customer Support
MODS	Memory Overlay Detection	ODBC	Open DataBase Connectivity
	Subsystem	ODM	Object Data Manager
MP	Multiprocessor	OEM	Original Equipment
MPC-3	Multimedia PC-3	OL AD	Manufacturer
MPI	Message Passing Interface	OLAP	Online Analytical Processing
MPOA	Multiprotocol over ATM	OLTP	Online Transaction Processing
MPP	Massively Parallel Processing	ONC+	Open Network Computing
MPS	Mathematical Programming System	OOUI	Object-Oriented User Interface
MST	Machine State	OSE	
MTU	Maximum Transmission Unit	OSF	Open Software Foundation, Inc.
MWCC	Mirror Write Consistency Check	OSL	Optimization Subroutine Library
MX	Mezzanine Bus		j

OSLp	Parallel Optimization	PPP	Point-to-Point Protocol
	Subroutine Library	PREP	PowerPC Reference Platform
P2SC	POWER2 Single/Super Chip	PSE	Portable Streams
PAM	Pluggable Authentication Mechanism		Environment
PAP	Privileged Access Password	PSSP	Parallel System Support Program
PBLAS	Parallel Basic Linear Algebra	PTF	Program Temporary Fix
	Subprograms	PTPE	Performance Toolbox Parallel
PCI	Peripheral Component Interconnect		Extensions
DDT		PV	Physical Volume
PDT	Paging Device Table	PVC	Permanent Virtual Circuit
PDU	Power Distribution Unit	QoS	Quality of Service
PE	Parallel Environment	QP	Quadratic Programming
PEDB	Parallel Environment Debugging	RAID	Redundant Array of Independent Disks
PEX	PHIGS Extension to X	RAM	Random Access Memory
PFS	Perfect Forward Security	RAN	Remote Asynchronous Node
PGID	Process Group ID	RAS	Reliability, Availability, and
PHB	Processor Host Bridges		Serviceability
PHY	Physical Layer	RDB	Relational DataBase
PID	Process ID	RDBMS	Relational Database
	Process ID Program Integrated	RDBMS	Relational Database Management System
PID PII	Process ID Program Integrated Information	RDBMS RDISC	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery
PID	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File	RDBMS RDISC RDN	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name
PID PII PIOFS	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System	RDBMS RDISC RDN RDP	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol
PID PII PIOFS PKR	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers	RDBMS RDISC RDN RDP RFC	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments
PID PII PIOFS PKR PMTU	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU	RDBMS  RDISC  RDN  RDP  RFC  RIO	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O
PID PII PIOFS PKR	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers	RDBMS RDISC RDN RDP RFC	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol
PID PII PIOFS PKR PMTU	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU Parallel Operating	RDBMS  RDISC RDN RDP RFC RIO RIP RIPL	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol Remote Initial Program Load
PID PII PIOFS PKR PMTU POE	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU Parallel Operating Environment Power-On Password Portable Operating Interface	RDBMS  RDISC  RDN  RDP  RFC  RIO  RIP	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol
PID PII PIOFS PKR PMTU POE POP	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU Parallel Operating Environment Power-On Password	RDBMS  RDISC RDN RDP RFC RIO RIP RIPL	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol Remote Initial Program Load Reduced Instruction-Set
PID PII  PIOFS  PKR PMTU POE  POP POSIX	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU Parallel Operating Environment Power-On Password Portable Operating Interface for Computing Environments	RDBMS  RDISC RDN RDP RFC RIO RIP RIPL RISC  RMC  ROLTP	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol Remote Initial Program Load Reduced Instruction-Set Computer Resource Monitoring and Control Relative Online Transaction Processing
PID PII  PIOFS  PKR PMTU POE  POP POSIX  POST	Process ID Program Integrated Information Parallel Input Output File System Protection Key Registers Path MTU Parallel Operating Environment Power-On Password Portable Operating Interface for Computing Environments Power-On Self-test Performance Optimization with Enhanced Risc	RDBMS  RDISC RDN RDP RFC RIO RIP RIPL RISC  RMC	Relational Database Management System ICMP Router Discovery Relative Distinguished Name Router Discovery Protocol Request for Comments Remote I/O Routing Information Protocol Remote Initial Program Load Reduced Instruction-Set Computer Resource Monitoring and Control Relative Online Transaction

RPA	RS/6000 Platform Architecture	SHLAP	Shared Library Assistant Process
RPC	Remote Procedure Call	SID	Segment ID
RPL	Remote Program Loader	SIT	Simple Internet Transition
RPM	Red Hat Package Manager	SKIP	Simple Key Management for
RSC	RISC Single Chip		IP
RSCT	Reliable Scalable Cluster Technology	SLB SLIH	Segment Lookaside Buffer Second Level Interrupt
RSE	Register Stack Engine		Handler
RSVP	Resource Reservation Protocol	SLIP SLR1	Serial Line Internet Protocol Single-Channel Linear
RTC	Real-Time Clock		Recording 1
RVSD	Recoverable Virtual Shared	SM	Session Management
	Disk	SMB	Server Message Block
SA	Secure Association	SMIT	System Management Interface Tool
SACK	Selective Acknowledgments	SMP	Symmetric Multiprocessor
SAN	Storage Area Network	SMS	•
SAR	Solutions Assurance Review	SIVIS	System Management Services
SAS	Single Attach Station	SNG	Secured Network Gateway
SBCS	Single-Byte Character Support	SOI	Silicon-on-Insulator
ScaLAPACK	Scalable Linear Algebra Package	SP	IBM RS/6000 Scalable POWER parallel Systems
SCB	Segment Control Block	SPCN	System Power Control Network
sco	Santa Cruz Operations	SPEC	
SCSI	Small Computer System Interface	SPEC	System Performance Evaluation Cooperative
SCSI-SE	SCSI-Single Ended	SPI	Security Parameter Index
SDLC	Synchronous Data Link Control	SPM	System Performance Measurement
SDR	System Data Repository	SPOT	Shared Product Object Tree
SDRAM	Synchronous Dynamic	SPS	SP Switch
SDITAM	Random Access Memory	SPS-8	Eight-Port SP Switch
SE	Single Ended	SRC	System Resource Controller
SEPBU	Scalable Electrical Power	SRN	Service Request Number
	Base Unit	SSA	Serial Storage Architecture
SGI	Silicon Graphics Incorporated	SSC	System Support Controller
SGID	Set Group ID	SSL	Secure Socket Layer

STFDU	Store Float Double with Update	VESA	Video Electronics Standards Association
STP	Shielded Twisted Pair	VFB	Virtual Frame Buffer
SUID	Set User ID	VG	Volume Group
SUP	Software Update Protocol	VGDA	Volume Group Descriptor
SVC	Switch Virtual Circuit		Area
SVC	Supervisor or System Call	VGSA	Volume Group Status Area
SWVPD	Software Vital Product Data	VHDCI	Very High Density Cable Interconnect
SYNC	Synchronization	VLAN	Virtual Local Area Network
TCE	Translate Control Entry	VMM	Virtual Memory Manager
Tcl	Tool Command Language	VP	Virtual Processor
TCP/IP	Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol	VPD	Vital Product Data
TCQ	Tagged Command Queuing	VPN	Virtual Private Network
TGT	Ticket Granting Ticket	VSD	Virtual Shared Disk
TLB	Translation Lookaside Buffer	VT	Visualization Tool
TOS	Type Of Service	WAN	Wide Area Network
TPC	Transaction Processing	WLM	Workload Manager
•	Council	WTE	Web Traffic Express
TPP	Toward Peak Performance	XCOFF	Extended Common Object
TSE	Text Search Engine		File Format
TTL	Time To Live	XIE	X Image Extension
UCS	Universal Coded Character Set	XIM XKB	X Input Method
UDB EEE	Universal Database and	XLF	X Keyboard Extension XL Fortran
ODB EEE	Enterprise Extended Edition	XOM	
UDI	Uniform Device Interface	XPM	X Output Method X Pixmap
UIL	User Interface Language	XSSO	Open Single Sign-on Service
ULS	Universal Language Support	XTF	Extended Distance Feature
UP	Uniprocessor	XVFB	X Virtual Frame Buffer
USB	Universal Serial Bus	AVID	X Virtual Frame Buller
USLA	User-Space Loader Assistant		
UTF	UCS Transformation Format		
UTM	Uniform Transfer Model		
UTP	Unshielded Twisted Pair		
UUCP	UNIX-to-UNIX Communication Protocol		

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