Oracle Linux 7 Managing Storage and Storage Devices





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Preface

Oracle® Linux 7: Managing Storage and Storage Devices describes how to configure and manage disk partitions, swap space, logical volumes, software RAID (redundant array of independent disks), block device encryption, iSCSI storage, and multipathing.

Conventions

The following text conventions are used in this document:

Convention	Meaning			
boldface	Boldface type indicates graphical user interface elements associated with an action, or terms defined in text or the glossary.			
italic	Italic type indicates book titles, emphasis, or placeholder variables for which you supply particular values.			
monospace	Monospace type indicates commands within a paragraph, URLs, code in examples, text that appears on the screen, or text that you enter.			

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Diversity and Inclusion

Oracle is fully committed to diversity and inclusion. Oracle respects and values having a diverse workforce that increases thought leadership and innovation. As part of our initiative to build a more inclusive culture that positively impacts our employees, customers, and partners, we are working to remove insensitive terms from our products and documentation. We are also mindful of the necessity to maintain compatibility with our customers' existing technologies and the need to ensure continuity of service as Oracle's offerings and industry



standards evolve. Because of these technical constraints, our effort to remove insensitive terms is ongoing and will take time and external cooperation.



1

Configuring Storage Devices

This chapter describes how to configure and manage disk partitions and swap spaces.

For additional information about Oracle Linux products featuring storage and storage management, refer to the following guides:

- Oracle Linux: Gluster Storage for Oracle Linux User's Guide
- Oracle Linux: Ceph Storage User's Guide

Working With Disk Partitions

Partitioning a disk drive involves dividing it into one or more reserved areas, called *partitions*, and then stores information about these partitions in the partition table on the disk. The operating system treats each partition as a separate disk that can contain a file system.

Oracle Linux requires one partition for the root file system. Typically, two other partitions are used for swap space and the boot file system. On x86 and x86_64 systems, the system BIOS can usually access only the first 1024 cylinders of the disk at boot time. Configuring a separate boot partition in this region on the disk enables the GRand Unified Bootloader (GRUB) to access the kernel image and any other files that are required to boot the system.

You can create additional partitions to do the following: simplify backups, enhance system security, as well as meet other needs, such as setting up development sandboxes and test areas. Data that frequently changes, such as user home directories, databases, and log file directories, is typically assigned to separate partitions to facilitate backups.

The partitioning scheme for hard disks with a master boot record (MBR) enables you to create up to four *primary partitions*. If you need more than four partitions, you can divide one of the primary partitions into up to 11 *logical partitions*. The primary partition that contains the logical partitions is known as an *extended partition*. The Master Boot Record (MBR) scheme supports disks up to 2 TB in size.

On hard disks with a GUID Partition Table (GPT), you can configure up to 128 partitions and there is no concept of extended or logical partitions. You should configure a GPT if the disk is larger than 2 TB.

You can create and manage MBRs by using the fdisk command. If you want to create a GPT, use the parted command.

Note:

When partitioning a block storage device, align primary and logical partitions on one-megabyte (1048576 bytes) boundaries. If partitions, file system blocks, or RAID stripes are incorrectly aligned and overlap the boundaries of the underlying storage's sectors or pages, the device controller has to modify twice as many sectors or pages than if correct alignment is used. This recommendation applies to most block storage devices, including hard disk drives (*spinning rust*), solid state drives (*SSDs*), logical unit numbers (LUNs) on storage arrays, and host RAID adapters.

Managing Partition Tables With the fdisk Utility



Caution:

If any partition on the disk to be configured by using fdisk is currently mounted, unmount it before running the fdisk utility on the disk. Similarly, if any partition is being used as swap space, use the swapoff command to disable the partition.

Before running the fdisk utility on a disk that contains data, first back up the data onto another disk or medium.

You cannot use the fdisk utility to manage a GPT hard disk.

Use the fdisk utility to do the following:

- Create a partition table.
- View an existing partition table.
- Add and delete partitions.

Alternatively, you can use the cfdisk utility, which is a text-based, graphical version of the fdisk utility.

You can use the fdisk utility interactively; or, you can use command-line options and arguments to specify partitions. When you run fdisk interactively, you specify only the name of the disk device as an argument, for example:

Based on the strong recommendation in the output message, type ${\tt c}$ at the Command prompt to switch off DOS-compatibility mode, then ${\tt u}$ to use sectors, and the ${\tt p}$ command to display the partition table:



```
Command (m for help): c
DOS Compatibility flag is not set

Command (m for help): u
Changing display/entry units to sectors

Command (m for help): p

Disk /dev/sda: 42.9 GB, 42949672960 bytes
255 heads, 63 sectors/track, 5221 cylinders, total 83886080 sectors
Units = sectors of 1 * 512 = 512 bytes
Sector size (logical/physical): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
I/O size (minimum/optimal): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
Disk identifier: 0x0002a95d

Device Boot Start End Blocks Id System
/dev/sda1 * 2048 1026047 512000 83 Linux
/dev/sda2 1026048 83886079 41430016 8e Linux LVM
```

The previous example output shows that <code>/dev/sda</code> is a 42.9 GB disk. As modern hard disks support logical block addressing (LBA), any information about the numbers of heads and sectors per track is irrelevant and most likely fictitious. The start and end offsets of each partition from the beginning of the disk are shown in units of sectors. The partition table is displayed after the device summary and displays the following information:

Device

The device that corresponds to the partition.

Boot

Specifies * if the partition contains the files that the GRUB bootloader needs to boot the system. Only one partition can be bootable.

Start and End

The start and end offsets in sectors. All partitions are aligned on one-megabyte boundaries.

Blocks

The size of the partition in one-kilobyte blocks.

Id and System

The partition type. The following partition types are typically used with Oracle Linux:

5 Extended

An extended partition that can contain up to four logical partitions.

82 Linux swap

Swap space partition.

83 Linux

Linux partition for a file system that is not managed by LVM. This is the default partition type.

8e Linux LVM

Linux partition that is managed by LVM.

The n command creates a new partition. For example, to create partition table entries for two Linux partitions on /dev/sdc, one of which is 5 GB in size and the other occupies the remainder of the disk:



```
sudo fdisk -cu /dev/sdc
Command (m for help): n
Command action
   е
       extended
       primary partition (1-4)
р
Partition number (1-4): 1
First sector (2048-25165823, default 2048): 2048
Last sector, +sectors or +size{K,M,G} (2048-25165823, default 25165823): +5G
Command (m for help): n
Command action
   e extended
   p primary partition (1-4)
р
Partition number (1-4): 2
First sector (10487808-25165823, default 10487808): <Enter>
Using default value 10487808
Last sector, +sectors or +size{K,M,G} (10487808-25165823, default 25165823):
<Enter>
Using default value 25165823
Command (m for help): p
Disk /dev/sdc: 12.9 GB, 12884901888 bytes
255 heads, 63 sectors/track, 1566 cylinders, total 25165824 sectors
Units = sectors of 1 * 512 = 512 bytes
Sector size (logical/physical): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
I/O size (minimum/optimal): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
Disk identifier: 0xe6d3c9f6
                Start
                                         Blocks Id System 5242880 83 Linux
   Device Boot
                            End
                  2048
/dev/sdc1
                           10487807
                10487808 25165823
                                         7339008 83 Linux
/dev/sdc2
```

The t command enables you to change the type of a partition. For example, to change the partition type of partition 2 to Linux LVM:

After creating the new partition table, use the w command to write the table to the disk and exit fdisk.

```
Command (m for help): W
The partition table has been altered!

Calling ioctl() to re-read partition table.
Syncing disks.
```



If you type q instead, fdisk exits without committing the changes to disk.

For more information, see the cfdisk(8) and fdisk(8) manual pages.

Managing Partition Tables With the parted Program



Caution:

If any partition on the disk to be configured by using the parted program is currently mounted, unmount it before running parted on the disk. Similarly, if any partition is being used as swap space, use the <code>swapoff</code> command to disable the partition.

The parted program is more advanced than the fdisk utility, as it supports more disk label types, including GPT disks, and it implements a larger set of commands.

Before running the parted program on a disk that contains data, first back up the data onto another disk or medium.

You can use the parted program to do the following:

- Label a disk.
- Create a partition table.
- · View an existing partition table.
- Add, modify, and delete partitions.

You can use parted interactively or you can specify command-line arguments. When you run parted interactively, you specify only the name of the disk device as an argument, for example:

```
sudo parted /dev/sda

GNU Parted 2.1

Using /dev/sda

Welcome to GNU Parted! Type 'help' to view a list of commands.
(parted)
```

The print command displays the partition table:

```
(parted) print

Model: ATA VBOX HARDDISK (scsi)
Disk /dev/sda: 42.9GB
Sector size (logical/physical): 512B/512B
Partition Table: msdos

Number Start End Size Type File system Flags
1 1049kB 525MB 524MB primary ext4 boot
2 525MB 42.9GB 42.4GB primary lvm
```

The mklabel command creates a new partition table:

parted /dev/sdd



```
GNU Parted 2.1
Using /dev/sda
Welcome to GNU Parted! Type 'help' to view a list of commands.
(parted) mklabel
New disk label type? gpt
Warning: The existing disk label on /dev/sdd will be destroyed and all data on this disk will be lost. Do you want to continue?
Yes/No? y

(parted) mklabel

New disk label type? gpt
Warning: The existing disk label on /dev/sdd will be destroyed and all data on this disk will be lost. Do you want to continue?
Yes/No? y
```

Typically, you would set the disk label type to gpt or msdos for an Oracle Linux system, depending on whether the disk device supports GPT. You are prompted to confirm that you want to overwrite the existing disk label.

The mkpart command creates a new partition:

```
(parted) mkpart
Partition name? []? <Enter>
File system type? [ext2]? ext4
Start? 1
End? 5GB
```

For disks with an msdos label, you are also prompted to enter the partition type, which can be primary, extended, or logical. The file system type is typically set to one of the following: fat16, fat32, ext4, or linux-swap for an Oracle Linux system.

If you are going to create an btrfs, ext*, ocfs2, or xfs file system on the partition, specify ext4 as the file system.

Unless you specify units such as GB for gigabytes, the start and end offsets of a partition are assumed to be in megabytes.

To specify the end of the disk for End, enter a value of -0.

To display the new partition, use the print command:

```
(parted) print
Number Start End Size File system Name Flags
1 1049kB 5000MB 4999MB ext4
```

To exit the parted program, type quit.



Various parted commands, such as mklabel and mkpart, commit the changes to disk immediately. Unlike the fdisk utility, you do not have the option of quitting without saving your changes.



For more information, see the parted(8) manual page or type the info parted command to view the online user manual.

Mapping Partition Tables to Devices

You can use the \mathtt{kpartx} utility to map the partitions of any block device or file that contains a partition table and partition images. \mathtt{kpartx} reads the partition table and creates device files for the partitions in /dev/mapper. Each device file represents a disk volume or a disk partition on a device or within an image file.

The -1 option lists any partitions that it finds, for example, in an installation image file:

```
sudo kpartx -1 system.img
loop0p1 : 0 204800 /dev/loop0 2048
loop0p2 : 0 12288000 /dev/loop0 206848
loop0p3 : 0 4096000 /dev/loop0 212494848
loop0p4 : 0 2 /dev/loop0 16590848
```

This output shows that the drive image contains four partitions, and the first column are the names of the device files that can be created in /dev/mapper.

The -a option creates the device mappings:

```
sudo kpartx -a system.img
sudo ls /dev/mapper
control loop0p1 loop0p2 loop0p3 loop0p4
```

If a partition contains a file system, you can mount it and view the files that it contains, for example:

```
sudo mkdir /mnt/sysimage
sudo mount /dev/mapper/loop0p1 /mnt/sysimage
sudo ls /mnt/sysimage

config-2.6.32-220.el6.x86_64
config-2.6.32-300.3.1.el6uek.x86_64
efi
grub
initramfs-2.6.32-220.el6.x86_64.img
initramfs-2.6.32-300.3.1.el6uek.x86_64.img
...
sudo umount /mnt/sysimage
```

The -d option removes the device mappings:

```
sudo kpartx -d system.img
sudo ls /dev/mapper
control
```

For more information, see the kpartx (8) manual page.



About Swap Space

Oracle Linux uses swap space when your system does not have enough physical memory to store the text (code) and data pages that the processes are currently using. When your system needs more memory, it writes inactive pages to swap space on disk, freeing up physical memory. However, writing to swap space has a negative impact on system performance, so increasing swap space is not an effective solution to shortage of memory. Swap space is located on disk drives, which have much slower access times than physical memory. If your system often resorts to swapping, you should add more physical memory, not more swap space.

You can configure swap space on a swap file in a file system or on a separate swap partition. A dedicated swap partition is faster, but changing the size of a swap file is easier. Configure a swap partition if you know how much swap space your system requires. Otherwise, start with a swap file and create a swap partition when you know what your system requires.

Viewing Swap Space Usage

To view a system's usage of swap space, examine the contents of /proc/swaps:

cat /proc/swaps

Filename	Type	Size	Used	Priority
/dev/sda2	partition	4128760	388	-1
/swapfile	file	999992	0	-2

In this example, the system is using both a 4-gigabyte swap partition on /dev/sda2 and a one-gigabyte swap file, /swapfile. The Priority column shows that the system preferentially swaps to the swap partition rather than to the swap file.

You can also view /proc/meminfo or use utilities such as free, top, and vmstat to view swap space usage, for example:

```
grep Swap /proc/meminfo
```

 SwapCached:
 248 kB

 SwapTotal:
 5128752 kB

 SwapFree:
 5128364 kB

 sudo free | grep Swap

 Swap:
 5128752 388

Creating and Using a Swap File



Configuring a swap file on a btrfs file system is not supported.

5128364

To create and use a swap file:



 Use the dd command to create a file of the required size (for example, one million onekilobyte blocks):

sudo dd if=/dev/zero of=/swapfile bs=1024 count=1000000

2. Initialize the file as a swap file:

sudo mkswap /swapfile

3. Enable swapping to the swap file:

sudo swapon /swapfile

4. Add an entry to /etc/fstab for the swap file so that the system uses it following the next reboot:

/swapfile swap swap defaults 0 0

Creating and Using a Swap Partition

To create and use a swap partition:

- 1. Use fdisk to create a disk partition of type 82 (Linux swap) or parted to create a disk partition of type linux-swap of the size that you require.
- 2. Initialize the partition (for example, /dev/sda2) as a swap partition:

sudo mkswap /dev/sda2

3. Enable swapping to the swap partition:

sudo swapon /swapfile

4. Add an entry to /etc/fstab for the swap partition so that the system uses it following the next reboot:

/dev/sda2 swap swap defaults 0 0

Removing a Swap File or Swap Partition

To remove a swap file or swap partition from use:

1. Disable swapping to the swap file or swap partition, for example:

```
sudo swapoff /swapfile
```

- 2. Remove the entry for the swap file or swap partition from /etc/fstab.
- 3. Optionally, remove the swap file or swap partition if you do not want to use it in future.



Working With Logical Volume Manager

This chapter describes Logical Volume Manager and its use to provide data redundancy and increase performance through the implementation of volumes.

About Logical Volume Manager

You can use Logical Volume Manager (LVM) to manage multiple physical volumes and configure mirroring and striping of logical volumes to provide data redundancy and increase I/O performance. In LVM, you first create volume groups from physical volumes, which are storage devices such as disk array LUNs, software or hardware RAID devices, hard drives, and disk partitions. You can then create logical volumes in a volume group. A logical volume functions as a partition that in its implementation might be spread over multiple physical disks.

You can create file systems on logical volumes and mount the logical volume devices in the same way that you would a physical device. If a file system on a logical volume becomes full with data, you can increase the capacity of the volume by using free space in the volume group so that you can then grow the file system (provided that the file system has that capability). If necessary, you can add physical storage devices to a volume group to increase its capacity.

LVM is non-disruptive and transparent to users. You can increase the size of logical volumes and change their layout dynamically without needing to schedule system down time to reconfigure physical storage.

LVM uses the device mapper (DM) that provides an abstraction layer that enables the creation of logical devices above physical devices and provides the foundation for software RAID, encryption, and other storage features.

Initializing and Managing Physical Volumes

Before you can create a volume group, you must initialize the physical devices that you want to use as physical volumes with LVM.



Caution:

If the devices contain any existing data, back up the data.

To set up a physical device as a physical volume, use the pvcreate command:

```
sudo pvcreate [options] device ...
```

For example, set up /dev/sdb, /dev/sdc, /dev/sdd, and /dev/sde as physical volumes:

sudo pvcreate -v /dev/sd[bcde]

```
Set up physical volume for "/dev/sdb" with 6313482 available sectors
Zeroing start of device /dev/sdb
Physical volume "/dev/sdb" successfully created
...
```

To display information about physical volumes, you can use the pvdisplay, pvs, and pvscan commands.

To remove a physical volume from the control of LVM, use the pyremove command:

```
sudo pvremove device
```

Other commands that are available for managing physical volumes include pvchange, pvck, pvmove, and pvresize.

For more information, see the lvm(8), pvcreate(8), and other LVM manual pages.

Creating and Managing Volume Groups

Having initialized the physical volumes, you can add them to a new or existing volume group.

To create a volume group, use the vgcreate command:

```
sudo vgcreate [options] volume group physical volume ...
```

For example, create the volume group myvg from the physical volumes /dev/sdb, /dev/sdc, /dev/sdd, and /dev/sde:

```
wiping cache of LVM-capable devices
Adding physical volume '/dev/sdb' to volume group 'myvg'
Adding physical volume '/dev/sdc' to volume group 'myvg'
Adding physical volume '/dev/sdd' to volume group 'myvg'
Adding physical volume '/dev/sdd' to volume group 'myvg'
Adding physical volume '/dev/sde' to volume group 'myvg'
Archiving volume group "myvg" metadata (seqno 0).
Creating volume group backup "/etc/lvm/backup/myvg" (seqno 1).
Volume group "myvg" successfully created
```

LVM divides the storage space within a volume group into physical *extents*, which are the smallest unit that LVM uses when allocating storage to logical volumes. The default size of an extent is 4 MB.

The *allocation policy* for the volume group and logical volume determines how LVM allocates extents from a volume group. The default allocation policy for a volume group is normal, which applies rules such as not placing parallel stripes on the same physical volume. The default allocation policy for a logical volume is inherit, which means that the logical volume uses the same policy as for the volume group. You can change the default allocation policies by using the lvchange or vgchange commands, or you can override the allocation policy when you create a volume group or logical volume. Other allocation policies include anywhere, contiguous and cling.

To add physical volumes to a volume group, use the vgextend command:

```
sudo vgextend [options] volume group physical volume ...
```

To remove physical volumes from a volume group, use the vgreduce command:

```
sudo vgreduce [options] volume group physical volume ...
```

To display information about volume groups, you can use the vgdisplay, vgs, and vgscan commands.

To remove a volume group from LVM, use the vgremove command:

```
sudo vgremove volume group
```

Other commands that are available for managing volume groups include vgchange, vgck, vgexport, vgimport, vgmerge, vgrename, and vgsplit.

For more information, see the lvm(8), vgcreate(8), and other LVM manual pages.

Creating and Managing Logical Volumes

Having create a volume group of physical volumes, you can create logical volumes from the storage space that is available in the volume group.

To create a logical volume, use the lvcreate command:

```
sudo lvcreate [options] --size size --name logical volume volume group
```

For example, create the logical volume mylv of size 2 GB in the volume group myvg:

```
sudo lvcreate -v --size 2g --name mylv myvg

Setting logging type to disk
Finding volume group "myvg"

Archiving volume group "myvg" metadata (seqno 1).

Creating logical volume mylv

Create volume group backup "/etc/lvm/backup/myvg" (seqno 2).
```

lvcreate uses the device mapper to create a block device file entry under /dev for each logical volume and uses udev to set up symbolic links to this device file from /dev/mapper and /dev/ $volume_group$. For example, the device that corresponds to the logical volume mylv in the volume group myvg might be /dev/dm-3, which is symbolically linked by /dev/mapper/myvolq-myvol and /dev/myvolq/myvol.

Note:

Always use the devices in /dev/mapper or /dev/ volume_group. These names are persistent and are created automatically by the device mapper early in the boot process. The /dev/dm-* devices are not guaranteed to be persistent across reboots.

Having created a logical volume, you can configure and use it in the same way that you would a physical storage device. For example, you can configure a logical volume as a file system, swap partition, Automatic Storage Management (ASM) disk, or raw device.

To display information about logical volumes, you can use the lvdisplay, lvs, and lvscan commands.

To remove a logical volume from a volume group, use the lyremove command:

sudo lvremove volume_group/logical_volume



You must specify both the name of the volume group and the logical volume.

Other commands that are available for managing logical volumes include lvchange, lvconvert, lvmdiskscan, lvmsadc, lvmsar, lvrename, and lvresize.

For more information, see the lvm(8), lvcreate(8), and other LVM manual pages.

Creating Logical Volume Snapshots

You can also use lycreate with the --snapshot option to create a snapshot of an existing logical volume such as mylv in the volume group myvg, for example:

```
sudo lvcreate --size 500m --snapshot --name mylv-snapshot myvg/mylv
Logical volume "mylv-snapshot" created
```

You can mount and modify the contents of the snapshot independently of the original volume or preserve it as a record of the state of the original volume at the time that you took the snapshot. The snapshot usually takes up less space than the original volume, depending on how much the contents of the volumes diverge over time. In the example, we assume that the snapshot only requires one quarter of the space of the original volume. You can use the value shown by the Snap% column in the output from the 1vs command to see how much data is allocated to the snapshot. If the value of Snap% approaches 100%, indicating that a snapshot is running out of storage, use 1vresize to grow it. Alternatively, you can reduce a snapshot's size to save storage space. To merge a snapshot with its original volume, use the 1vconvert command, specifying the --merge option.

To remove a logical volume snapshot from a volume group, use the lvremove command the same way that you would use the command for a logical volume:

```
\verb|sudo| lvremove| volume\_group/logical\_volume\_snapshot|
```

For more information, see the lvcreate(8) and lvremove (8) manual pages.

Creating and Managing Thinly-Provisioned Logical Volumes

Thinly-provisioned logical volumes have virtual sizes that are typically greater than the physical storage on which you create them. You create thinly-provisioned logical volumes from storage that you have assigned to a special type of logical volume termed a *thin pool*. LVM assigns storage on demand from a thin pool to a thinly-provisioned logical volume as required by the applications that access the volume. You need to use the lvs command to monitor the usage of the thin pool so that you can increase its size if its available storage is in danger of being exhausted.

To create a thin pool, use the lycreate command with the --thin option:

```
sudo lvcreate --size size --thin volume group/thin pool name
```



For example, create the thin pool mytp of size 1 GB in the volume group myvg:

```
sudo lvcreate --size 1g --thin myvg/mytp
Logical volume "mytp" created
```

You can then use lvcreate with the --thin option to create a thinly-provisioned logical volume with a size specified by the --virtualsize option, for example:

```
\verb|sudo| lvcreate --virtual size | size --thin | volume\_group/thin\_pool\_name | --name | logical | volume | logical | logical | volume | logical |
```

For example, create the thinly-provisioned logical volume mytv with a virtual size of 2 GB using the thin pool mytp, whose size is currently less than the size of the volume:

```
sudo lvcreate --virtualsize 2g --thin myvg/mytp --name mytv
Logical volume "mytv" created
```

If you create a thin snapshot of a thinly-provisioned logical volume, do not specify the size of the snapshot, for example:

```
# lvcreate --snapshot --name mytv-snapshot myvg/mytv
Logical volume "mytv-snapshot" created
```

If you were to specify a size for the thin snapshot, its storage would not be provisioned from the thin pool.

If there is sufficient space in the volume group, you can use the lvresize command to increase the size of a thin pool, for example:

```
sudo lvresize -L+1G myvg/mytp

Extending logical volume mytp to 2 GiB
Logical volume mytp successfully resized
```

For details of how to use the snapper command to create and manage thin snapshots, see Using snapper with Thinly-Provisioned Logical Volumes.

For more information, see the lvcreate(8) and lvresize(8) manual pages.

Using snapper with Thinly-Provisioned Logical Volumes

You can use the snapper utility to create and manage thin snapshots of thinly-provisioned logical volumes.

To set up the snapper configuration for an existing mounted volume:

```
sudo snapper -c config name create-config -f "lvm(fs type)" fs name
```

Here $config_name$ is the name of the configuration, fs_type is the file system type (ext4 or xfs), and fs_name is the path of the file system. The command adds an entry for $config_name$ to /etc/sysconfig/snapper, creates the configuration file /etc/snapper/configs/config name, and sets up a .snapshots subdirectory for the snapshots.

By default, snapper sets up a cron.hourly job to create snapshots in the .snapshot subdirectory of the volume and a cron.daily job to clean up old snapshots. You can edit the configuration file to disable or change this behavior. For more information, see the snapper-configs (5) manual page.



You can create three types of snapshots with snapper:

post

You use a *post snapshot* to record the state of a volume after a modification. A post snapshot should always be paired with a *pre snapshot* that you take immediately before you make the modification.

pre

You use a *pre snapshot* to record the state of a volume before a modification. A pre snapshot should always be paired with a *post snapshot* that you take immediately after you have completed the modification.

single

You can use a single snapshot to record the state of a volume but it does not have any association with other snapshots of the volume.

For example, the following commands create pre and post snapshots of a volume:

```
sudo snapper -c config\_name create -t pre -p N ... Modify the volume's contents ... sudo snapper -c config\_name create -t post --pre-num N p N'
```

The -p option causes snapper to display the number of the snapshot so that you can reference it when you create the post snapshot or when you compare the contents of the pre and post snapshots.

To display the files and directories that have been added, removed, or modified between the pre and post snapshots, use the status subcommand:

```
sudo snapper -c config name status N .. N'
```

To display the differences between the contents of the files in the pre and post snapshots, use the diff subcommand:

```
sudo snapper -c config name diff N \dots N'
```

To list the snapshots that exist for a volume:

```
sudo snapper -c config name list
```

To delete a snapshot, specify its number to the delete subcommand:

```
sudo snapper -c config name delete N''
```

To undo the changes in the volume from post snapshot N' to pre snapshot N:

```
sudo snapper -c config name undochange N..N'
```

For more information, see the snapper (8) manual page.



Working With Software RAID

This chapter describes RAID features, with special focus on the use of software RAID for storage redundancy.

About Software RAID

The Redundant Array of Independent Disks (RAID) feature enables you to spread data across the drives to increase capacity, implement data redundancy, and increase performance. RAID is usually implemented either in hardware on intelligent disk storage that exports the RAID volumes as LUNs, or in software by the operating system. Oracle Linux kernel uses the multidisk (MD) driver to support software RAID by creating virtual devices from two or more physical storage devices. You can use MD to organize disk drives into RAID devices and implement different RAID levels.

The following software RAID levels are commonly used with Oracle Linux:

Linear RAID (spanning)

Combines drives as a larger virtual drive. There is no data redundancy or performance benefit. Resilience decreases because the failure of a single drive renders the array unusable.

RAID-0 (striping)

Increases performance but does not provide data redundancy. Data is broken down into units (stripes) and written to all the drives in the array. Resilience decreases because the failure of a single drive renders the array unusable.

RAID-1 (mirroring)

Provides data redundancy and resilience by writing identical data to each drive in the array. If one drive fails, a mirror can satisfy I/O requests. Mirroring is an expensive solution because the same information is written to all of the disks in the array.

RAID-5 (striping with distributed parity)

Increases read performance by using striping and provides data redundancy. The parity is distributed across all the drives in an array but it does not take up as much space as a complete mirror. Write performance is reduced to some extent from RAID-0 by having to calculate parity information and write this information in addition to the data. If one disk in the array fails, the parity information is used to reconstruct data to satisfy I/O requests. In this mode, read performance and resilience are degraded until you replace the failed drive and it is repopulated with data and parity information. RAID-5 is intermediate in expense between RAID-0 and RAID-1.

RAID-6 (striping with double distributed parity)

A more resilient variant of RAID-5 that can recover from the loss of two drives in an array. RAID-6 is used when data redundancy and resilience are important, but performance is not. RAID-6 is intermediate in expense between RAID-5 and RAID-1.



RAID 0+1 (mirroring of striped disks)

Combines RAID-0 and RAID-1 by mirroring a striped array to provide both increased performance and data redundancy. Failure of a single disk causes one of the mirrors to be unusable until you replace the disk and repopulate it with data. Resilience is degraded while only a single mirror remains available. RAID 0+1 is usually as expensive as or slightly more expensive than RAID-1.

RAID 1+0 (striping of mirrored disks or RAID-10)

Combines RAID-0 and RAID-1 by striping a mirrored array to provide both increased performance and data redundancy. Failure of a single disk causes part of one mirror to be unusable until you replace the disk and repopulate it with data. Resilience is degraded while only a single mirror retains a complete copy of the data. RAID 1+0 is usually as expensive as or slightly more expensive than RAID-1.

Creating Software RAID Devices

To create a software RAID device:

1. Use the mdadm command to create the MD RAID device:

```
sudo mdadm --create md\_device --level=RAID\_level [options] --raid-devices=N device ...
```

For example, to create a RAID-1 device /dev/md0 from /dev/sdf and /dev/sdg:

```
sudo mdadm --create /dev/md0 --level=1 -raid-devices=2 /dev/sd[fg]
```

Create a RAID-5 device /dev/md1 from /dev/sdb, /dev/sdc, and dev/sdd:

```
sudo mdadm --create /dev/md1 --level=5 -raid-devices=3 /dev/sd[bcd]
```

If you want to include spare devices that are available for expansion, reconfiguration, or replacing failed drives, use the <code>--spare-devices</code> option to specify their number, for example:

```
sudo mdadm --create /dev/md1 --level=5 -raid-devices=3 --spare-
devices=1 /dev/sd[bcde]
```



The number of RAID and spare devices must equal the number of devices that you specify.

2. Add the RAID configuration to /etc/mdadm.conf:

```
# mdadm --examine --scan >> /etc/mdadm.conf
```



This step is optional. It helps mdadm to assemble the arrays at boot time.

For example, the following entries in /etc/mdadm.conf define the devices and arrays that correspond to /dev/md0 and /dev/md1:



```
DEVICE /dev/sd[c-g]
ARRAY /dev/md0 devices=/dev/sdf,/dev/sdg
ARRAY /dev/md1 spares=1 devices=/dev/sdb,/dev/sdc,/dev/sdd,/dev/sde
```

For more examples, see the sample configuration file /usr/share/doc/mdadm-3.2.1/mdadm.conf-example.

Having created an MD RAID device, you can configure and use it in the same way that you would a physical storage device. For example, you can configure it as an LVM physical volume, file system, swap partition, Automatic Storage Management (ASM) disk, or raw device.

You can view /proc/mdstat to check the status of the MD RAID devices, for example:

```
cat /proc/mdstat
Personalities : [raid1]
mdo : active raid1 sdg[1] sdf[0]
```

To display summary and detailed information about MD RAID devices, you can use the -- query and --detail options with mdadm.

For more information, see the md(4), mdadm(8), and mdadm.conf(5) manual pages.



4

Creating Encrypted Block Devices

This chapter describes how to use encrypted block devices to secure stored data.

About Encrypted Block Devices

The device mapper supports the creation of encrypted block devices using the <code>dm-crypt</code> device driver. You can access data on encrypted devices at boot time only if you enter the correct password. As the underlying block device is encrypted and not the file system, you can use <code>dm-crypt</code> to encrypt disk partitions, RAID volumes, and LVM physical volumes, regardless of their contents.

When you install Oracle Linux, you have the option of configure encryption on system volumes other than the partition from which the system boots. If you want to protect the bootable partition, consider using any password protection mechanism that is built into the BIOS or setting up a GRUB password.

Setting Up LUKS Encryption

You use the cryptsetup utility to set up Linux Unified Key Setup (LUKS) encryption on the device and to manage authentication.

To set up the mapped device for an encrypted volume:

1. Initialize a LUKS partition on the device and set up the initial key, for example:

```
sudo cryptsetup luksFormat /dev/sdd

WARNING!
=======

This will overwrite data on /dev/sdd irrevocably.
Are you sure? (Type uppercase yes): YES
Enter LUKS passphrase: passphrase
Verify passphrase: passphrase
```

2. Open the device and create the device mapping:

```
sudo cryptsetup luksOpen /dev/sdd cryptfs

Enter passphrase for /dev/sdd: passphrase
```

In this example, the encrypted volume is accessible as /dev/mapper/cryptfs.

3. Create an entry for the encrypted volume in /etc/crypttab, for example:

```
# <target name> <source device> <key file> <options>
cryptfs /dev/sdd none luks
```

This entry causes the operating system to prompt you to enter the passphrase at boot time.

After you have created an encrypted volume and its device mapping, you can then configure and use it in the same way that you would a physical storage device. For example, you can

configure it as an LVM physical volume, file system, swap partition, Automatic Storage Management (ASM) disk, or raw device. For example, you would create an entry in the /etc/fstab to mount the mapped device (/dev/mapper/cryptfs), not the physical device (/dev/sdd).

To verify the status of an encrypted volume, use the following command:

```
sudo cryptsetup status cryptfs

/dev/mapper/cryptfs is active.

type: LUKS1
cipher: aes-cbs-essiv:sha256
keysize: 256 bits
device: /dev/xvdd1
offset: 4096 sectors
size: 6309386 sectors
mode: read/write
```

Should you need to remove the device mapping, unmount any file system that the encrypted volume contains, and run the following command:

```
sudo cryptsetup luksClose /dev/mapper/cryptfs
```

For more information, see the cryptsetup(8) and crypttab(5) man pages.

Recommendations for SSD Configuration for Btrfs, ext4, and Swap

When partitioning an SSD, align primary and logical partitions on one-megabyte (1048576 bytes) boundaries. If partitions, file system blocks, or RAID stripes are incorrectly aligned and overlap the boundaries of the underlying storage's pages, which are usually either 4 KB or 8 KB in size, the device controller has to modify twice as many pages than if correct alignment is used.

For btrfs and ext4 file systems, specifying the discard option with mount sends discard (TRIM) commands to an underlying SSD whenever blocks are freed. This option can extend the working life of the device but it has a negative impact on performance, even for SSDs that support queued discards. The recommended alternative is to use the fstrim command to discard empty blocks that the file system is not using, especially before reinstalling the operating system or before creating a new file system on an SSD. Schedule fstrim to run when it will have minimal impact on system performance. You can also apply fstrim to a specific range of blocks rather than the whole file system.



Using a minimal journal size of 1024 file-system blocks for ext4 on an SSD improves performance. However, it is not recommended that you disable journalling altogether as it improves the robustness of the file system.

Btrfs automatically enables SSD optimization for a device if the value of <code>/sys/block/device/queue/rotational</code> is 0. If btrfs does not detect a device as being an SSD, you can enable SSD optimization by specifying the <code>ssd</code> option to <code>mount</code>.

Note:

By default, btrfs enables SSD optimization for Xen Virtual Devices (XVD) because the value of rotational for these devices is 0. To disable SSD optimization, specify the nossd option to mount.

Setting the ssd option does not imply that discard is also set.

If you configure swap files or partitions on an SSD, reduce the tendency of the kernel to perform anticipatory writes to swap, which is controlled by the value of the vm.swappiness kernel parameter and displayed as proc/sys/vm/swappiness. The value of vm.swappiness can be in the range 0 to 100, where a higher value implies a greater propensity to write to swap. The default value is 60. The suggested value when swap has been configured on SSD is 1. You can use the following commands to change the value:

```
sudo echo "vm.swappiness = 1" >> /etc/sysctl.conf
sudo sysctl -p
...
vm.swappiness = 1
```



Working With iSCSI Devices

This chapter discusses using iSCSI devices for data storage.

About Linux-IO Storage Configuration

Oracle Linux 7 with both UEK and RHCK uses the Linux-IO Target (LIO) to provide the block-storage SCSI target for FCoE, iSCSI, and Mellanox InfiniBand (iSER and SRP). You can manage LIO by using the targetcli shell provided in the targetcli package. Note that Mellanox InfiniBand is only supported with UEK.

Fibre Channel over Ethernet (FCoE) encapsulates Fibre Channel packets in Ethernet frames, which allows the packets to be sent over Ethernet networks. To configure FCoE storage, you also need to install the fcoe-utils package, which provides the fcoemon service and the fcoeadm command.

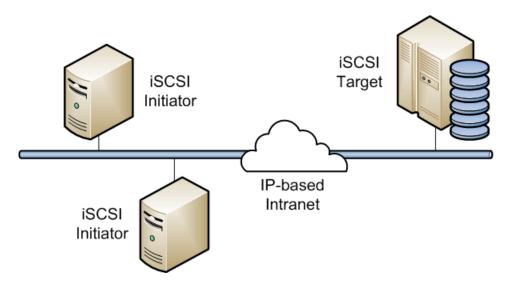
The Internet Small Computer System Interface (iSCSI) is an IP-based standard for connecting storage devices. iSCSI encapsulates SCSI commands in IP network packets, which allows data transfer over long distances and sharing of storage by client systems. As iSCSI uses the existing IP infrastructure, it does not require the purchase and installation of fiber-optic cabling and interface adapters that are needed to implement Fibre Channel (FC) storage area networks.

A client system (*iSCSI initiator*) accesses the storage server (*iSCSI target*) over an IP network. To an iSCSI initiator, the storage appears to be locally attached.

An iSCSI target is typically a dedicated, network-connected storage device but it can also be a general-purpose computer.

Figure 5-1 shows a simple network where several iSCSI initiators are able to access the shared storage that is attached to an iSCSI target.

Figure 5-1 iSCSI Initiators and an iSCSI Target Connected via an IP-based Network



A hardware-based iSCSI initiator uses a dedicated iSCSI HBA. Oracle Linux supports iSCSI initiator functionality in software. The kernel-resident device driver uses the existing network interface card (NIC) and network stack to emulate a hardware iSCSI initiator. As the iSCSI initiator functionality is not available at the level of the system BIOS, you cannot boot an Oracle Linux system from iSCSI storage .

To improve performance, some network cards implement TCP/IP Offload Engines (TOE) that can create a TCP frame for the iSCSI packet in hardware. Oracle Linux does not support TOE, although suitable drivers may be available directly from some card vendors.

For more information about LIO, see http://linux-iscsi.org/wiki/Main Page.

Configuring an iSCSI Target

The following procedure describes how to set up a basic iSCSI target on an Oracle Linux system by using block storage backends. Note that you can use other storage backend types to set up an iSCSI target.

When you use the targetcli command, it saves the current configuration to the JSON-format file /etc/target/saveconfig.json. See the targetcli(8) manual page for additional information.

1. Run the targetcli interactive shell:

```
sudo targetcli
targetcli shell version 2.1.fb31
Copyright 2011-2013 by Datera, Inc and others.
For help on commands, type 'help'.
/>
```

At the interactive shell prompt, list the object hierarchy, which is initially empty:

2. Change to the /backstores/block directory and create a block storage object for the disk partitions that you want to provide as LUNs, for example:

```
/> cd /backstores/block
/backstores/block> create name=LUN_0 dev=/dev/sdb
Created block storage object LUN 0 using /dev/sdb.
```



/backstores/block> create name=LUN_1 dev=/dev/sdc Created block storage object LUN 1 using /dev/sdc.

The names that you assign to the storage objects are arbitrary.



/iscsi> ls

The device path varies, based on the Oracle Linux instance's disk configuration.

3. Change to the /iscsi directory and create an iSCSI target:

```
/> cd /iscsi
/iscsi> create

Created target iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344.
Created TPG 1.
```

List the target portal group (TPG) hierarchy, which is initially empty:

4. Change to the luns subdirectory of the TPG directory hierarchy and add the LUNs to the target portal group:

```
/iscsi> cd iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344/tpg1/luns /iscsi/iqn.20...344/tpg1/luns> create /backstores/block/LUN_0 Created LUN 0. /iscsi/iqn.20...344/tpg1/luns> create /backstores/block/LUN_1 Created LUN 1.
```

5. Change to the portals subdirectory of the TPG directory hierarchy and specify the IP address and TCP port of the iSCSI endpoint:

```
/iscsi/iqn.20...344/tpg1/luns> cd ../portals
/iscsi/iqn.20.../tpg1/portals> create 10.150.30.72 3260
Using default IP port 3260
Created network portal 10.150.30.72:3260.
```

If you omit the TCP port number, the default value is 3260.

Note:

If the portal creation fails, and a message similar to the following is displayed, it is most likely because a default portal was previously created:

Could not create NetworkPortal in configFS

In this case, first delete the default portal, then repeat Step 5 to create the new portal.

/iscsi/iqn.20.../tpg1/portals> delete 0.0.0.0 ip port=3260

6. Enable TCP port 3260 by running either of the following commands:

```
sudo firewall-cmd --permanent --add-port=3260/tcp
sudo firewall-cmd --permanent --add-service iscsi-target
```

7. List the object hierarchy, which now shows the configured block storage objects and TPG:

```
/iscsi/iqn.20.../tpg1/portals> ls /
0- / .....
[...]
o- backstores .....
[...]
o-block ...... [Storage
Objects: 11
| | o- LUN 0 ...... [/dev/sdb (10.0GiB) write-thru
activated]
| | o- LUN 1 ...... [/dev/sdc (10.0GiB) write-thru
activated]
| o- fileio ...... [Storage
Objects: 0]
| o- pscsi ...... [Storage
Objects: 0]
o- ramdisk ...... [Storage
Objects: 0]
o- iscsi .....
[Targets: 1]
 o-iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344 ......
[TPGs: 1]
o- tpg1 ...... [no-gen-acls, no-
auth]
o- acls .....
[ACLs: 0]
   o- luns .....
[LUNs: 1]
    o-lun0 ..... [block/LUN 0 (/dev/
sdb)]
    | o- lun1 ..... [block/LUN 1 (/dev/
sdc)]
    o- portals .....
[Portals: 1]
     o- 10.150.30.72:3260 .....
[OK]
 o- loopback .....
[Targets: 0]
```



8. Configure the access rights for logins by initiators. For example, to configure demonstration mode that does not require authentication, change to the TGP directory and set the values of the authentication and demo_mode_write_protect attributes to 0 and generate node acls cache dynamic acls to 1:

A

Caution:

Demonstration mode is inherently insecure. For information about configuring secure authentication modes, see http://linux-iscsi.org/wiki/ ISCSI#Define_access_rights.

9. Change to the root directory and save the configuration.

```
/iscsi/iqn.20...14f87344/tpg1> cd /
/> saveconfig
Last 10 configs saved in /etc/target/backup.
Configuration saved to /etc/target/saveconfig.json
```

10. Enable the target service.

```
# systemctl enable target.service
```



Saving the configuration and enabling the target service ensures that the changes persist across system reboots. Note also that failure to run these commands can result in an empty configuration.

Restoring a Saved Configuration for an iSCSI target

To restore a saved configuration for an iSCSI target, start the targetcli interactive shell and then run the following command:

```
sudo targetcli
targetcli shell version 2.1.fb46
Copyright 2011-2013 by Datera, Inc and others.
For help on commands, type 'help'.
/>
```

At the interactive shell prompt, type the appropriate command, for example:

```
/> restoreconfig /etc/target/saveconfig.json
```



In the previous example, /etc/target/saveconfig.json is the most recently saved configuration.

Or, you can run the following command to restore saved configurations from previous versions:

/> restoreconfig /etc/target/backup/saveconfig-20180516-18:53:29.json

Configuring an iSCSI Initiator

To configure an Oracle Linux system as an iSCSI initiator:

1. Install the iscsi-initiator-utils package:

```
sudo yum install iscsi-initiator-utils
```

2. Use a discovery method to discover the iSCSI targets at the specified IP address.

You can use either the SendTargets or the Internet Storage Name Service (iSNS) discovery method.

For example, you would use the SendTargets discovery method as follows:

```
# iscsiadm -m discovery -t sendtargets -p 10.150.30.72
10.150.30.72:3260,1 iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344
```

This command also starts the iscsid service if it is not already running.

If the network connection fails, adjust the firewall settings for your network to allow communication with the iSCSI target:

```
sudo iptables -D INPUT -j REJECT --reject-with icmp-host-prohibited sudo iptables -D FORWARD -j REJECT --reject-with icmp-host-prohibited
```

• Then, re-run the command using the SendTargets discovery method:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m discovery -t sendtargets -p 10.150.30.72

10.150.30.72:3260,1 iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344
```

3. Display information about the targets that are now stored in the discovery database by running the following command:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m discoverydb -t st -p 10.150.30.72
# BEGIN RECORD 6.2.0.873-14
discovery.startup = manual
discovery.type = sendtargets
discovery.sendtargets.address = 10.150.30.72
discovery.sendtargets.port = 3260
discovery.sendtargets.auth.authmethod = None
discovery.sendtargets.auth.username = <empty>
discovery.sendtargets.auth.password = <empty>
discovery.sendtargets.auth.username in = <empty>
discovery.sendtargets.auth.password in = <empty>
discovery.sendtargets.timeo.login timeout = 15
discovery.sendtargets.use discoveryd = No
discovery.sendtargets.discoveryd poll inval = 30
discovery.sendtargets.reopen max = 5
discovery.sendtargets.timeo.auth_timeout = 45
discovery.sendtargets.timeo.active timeout = 30
```



```
discovery.sendtargets.iscsi.MaxRecvDataSegmentLength = 32768
# END RECORD
```

4. Establish a session and log in to a specific target:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m node -T iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344 -p
10.150.30.72:3260 -1
Login to [iface: default, target: iqn.2003-01.org.linux-iscsi.localhost.x8664:
sn.ef8e14f87344, portal: 10.150.30.72,3260] successful.
```

5. Verify that the session is active and display the available LUNs:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m session -P 3
iSCSI Transport Class version 2.0-870
version 6.2.0.873-14
Target: iqn.2003-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:sn.ef8e14f87344 (non-flash)
   Current Portal: 10.0.0.2:3260,1
   Persistent Portal: 10.0.0.2:3260,1
       Interface:
       ******
       Iface Name: default
       Iface Transport: tcp
       Iface Initiatorname: iqn.1994-05.com.mydom:ed7021225d52
       Iface IPaddress: 10.0.0.2
       Iface HWaddress: <empty>
       Iface Netdev: <empty>
       SID: 5
       iSCSI Connection State: LOGGED IN
       iSCSI Session State: LOGGED IN
       Internal iscsid Session State: NO CHANGE
       ******
       Attached SCSI devices:
       Host Number: 8 State: running
       scsi8 Channel 00 Id 0 Lun: 0
           Attached scsi disk sdb
                                        State: running
       scsi8 Channel 00 Id 0 Lun: 1
           Attached scsi disk sdc
                                        State: running
```

The LUNs are represented as SCSI block devices (sd*) in the local /dev directory, for example:

```
sudo fdisk -1 | grep /dev/sd[bc]
Disk /dev/sdb: 10.7 GB, 10737418240 bytes, 20971520 sectors
Disk /dev/sdc: 10.7 GB, 10737418240 bytes, 20971520 sectors
```

To distinguish between target LUNs, examine the paths under /dev/disk/by-path:

```
ls -l /dev/disk/by-path/
lrwxrwxrwx 1 root root 9 May 15 21:05
  ip-10.150.30.72:3260-iscsi-iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:
  sn.ef8e14f87344-lun-0 -> ../../sdb
lrwxrwxrwx 1 root root 9 May 15 21:05
  ip-10.150.30.72:3260-iscsi-iqn.2013-01.com.mydom.host01.x8664:
  sn.ef8e14f87344-lun-1 -> ../../sdc
```



You can view the initialization messages for the LUNs in the $\protect\operatorname{var/log/messages}$ file as follows:

```
sudo grep sdb /var/log/messages
...
May 18 14:19:36 localhost kernel: [12079.963376] sd 8:0:0:0: [sdb] Attached
SCSI disk
...
```

You can configure and use a LUN in the same way that you would any other physical storage device, for example, as an LVM physical volume, a file system, a swap partition, an Automatic Storage Management (ASM) disk, or a raw device.

Specify the _netdev option when creating mount entries for iSCSI LUNs in /etc/fstab, for example:

```
UUID=084591f8-6b8b-c857-f002-ecf8a3b387f3 /iscsi_mount_point ext4 netdev 0 0
```

This option indicates the file system resides on a device that requires network access, and prevents the system from attempting to mount the file system until the network has been enabled.

Note:

Specify an iSCSI LUN in /etc/fstab by using UUID= UUID rather than the device path. A device path can change after re-connecting the storage or rebooting the system. You can use the blkid command to display the UUID of a block device.

Any discovered LUNs remain available across reboots provided that the target continues to serve those LUNs and you do not log the system off the target.

For more information, see the iscsiadm(8) and iscsid(8) manual pages.

Updating the Discovery Database

If the LUNs that are available on an iSCSI target change, you can use the <code>iscsiadm</code> command on an iSCSI initiator to update the entries in its discovery database. The following example assume that the target supports the SendTargets discovery method

To add new records that are not currently in the database:

```
sudo iscsiadm --mode discoverydb -type st -p 10.150.30.72 -o new --discover
```

To update existing records in the database:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m discoverydb -t st -p 10.150.30.72 -o update --discover
```

To delete records from the database that are no longer supported by the target:

```
sudo iscsiadm -m discoverydb -t st -p 10.150.30.72 -o delete --discover
```

For more information, see the iscsiadm(8) manual page.



6

Using Multipathing for Efficient Storage

Multiple paths to storage devices provide connection redundancy, failover capability, load balancing, and improved performance. Device-Mapper Multipath (DM-Multipath) is a multipathing tool that enables you represent multiple I/O paths between a server and a storage device as a single path.

Device Multipathing Sample Setup

You would be most likely to configure multipathing with a system that can access storage on a Fibre Channel-based storage area network (SAN). You can also use multipathing on an iSCSI initiator if redundant network connections exist between the initiator and the target.

Figure 6-1 shows a simple DM-Multipath configuration where two I/O paths are configured between a server and a disk on a SAN-attached storage array:

- Between host bus adapter hbal on the server and controller ctrll on the storage array.
- Between host bus adapter hba2 on the server and controller ctrl2 on the storage array.

Server Mapped by DM-Multipath Application hba1 hba2 /dev/mapper/mpathN multipathd SAN /dev/sdf /dev/sdc ctrl1 ctrl2 Disk Disk appears to the server as /dev/sdc Storage Or /dev/sdf

depending on the path

Figure 6-1 DM-Multipath Mapping of Two Paths to a Disk over a SAN

Without DM-Multipath, the system treats each path as being separate even though it connects the server to the same storage device. DM-Multipath creates a single multipath device, /dev/mapper/mpathN, that subsumes the underlying devices. /dev/sdc and /dev/sdf.

You can configure the multipathing service (multipathd) to handle I/O from and to a multipathed device in one of the following ways:

Active/Active

I/O is distributed across all available paths, either by round-robin assignment or dynamic load-balancing.

Active/Passive (standby failover)

I/O uses only one path. If the active path fails, DM-Multipath switches I/O to a standby path. This is the default configuration.



DM-Multipath can provide failover in the case of path failure, such as in a SAN fabric. Disk media failure must be handled by using either a software or hardware RAID solution.

Configuring Multipathing

The following procedure describes how to set up a simple multipath configuration on a server with access to SAN-attached storage.

1. Install the device-mapper-multipath package.

```
sudo yum install device-mapper-multipath
```

2. Initiate the basic configuration settings of the multipathing feature.

```
sudo mpathconf --enable --with_multipathd y
```

This command also creates the /etc/multipath.conf file.

3. (Optional) To determine the status of multipathing, use the following command:

```
sudo mpathconf
```

4. Edit /etc/multipath.conf, as required.

For details, see Working With the Multipathing Configuration File.

If you want to display the current multipath configuration, use the ${\tt multipath}$ - ${\tt ll}$ command, for example:

```
sudo multipath -11
```

The command displays output similar to the following, when multipath is configured properly:

```
mpath1(360000970000292602744533030303730) dm-0 SUN,(StorEdge 3510|T4
size=20G features='0' hwhandler='0' wp=rw
|-+- policy='round-robin 0' prio=1 status=active
| '- 5:0:0:2 sdb 8:16 active ready running
```



```
'-+- policy='round-robin 0' prio=1 status=active
'- 5:0:0:3 sdc 8:32 active ready running
```

The previous output shows that /dev/mapper/mpath1 subsumes two paths (/dev/sdb and /dev/sdc) to 20 GB of storage in an active/active configuration using the round-robin I/O path selection. The WWID that identifies the storage is

360000970000292602744533030303730 and the name of the multipath device under sysfs is dm-0.

For more information, see the mpathconf(8), multipath(8), multipath(8), multipath.conf(5), and scsi id(8) manual pages.

Working With the Multipathing Configuration File

By using the /etc/multipath.conf file, you can add a combination of definitions that customizes multipathing according to your system environment setup. You can obtain a commented example configuration from /usr/share/doc/device-mapper-multipath/multipath.conf.

The /etc/multipath.conf file is divided into the following typical sections:

defaults

Defines default multipath settings, which can be overridden by settings in the devices section, and which in turn can be overridden by settings in the multipaths section.

blacklist

Defines devices that are excluded from multipath topology discovery. Blacklisted devices cannot subsumed by a multipath device.

The example shows the three ways that you can use to exclude devices: by WWID (wwid), by device name (devnode), and by device type (device).

blacklist exceptions

Defines devices that are included in multipath topology discovery, even if the devices are implicitly or explicitly listed in the blacklist section.

multipaths

Defines settings for a multipath device that is identified by its WWID.

The alias attribute specifies the name of the multipath device as it will appear in /dev/mapper instead of a name based on either the WWID or the multipath group number. To obtain the WWID of a SCSI device, use the scsiid command:

```
sudo scsi id --whitelisted --replace-whitespace --device=device name
```

devices

Defines settings for individual types of storage controller. Each controller type is identified by the <code>vendor</code>, <code>product</code>, and optional <code>revision</code> settings, which must match the information in <code>sysfs</code> for the device.

You can find details of the storage arrays that DM-Multipath supports and their default configuration values in /usr/share/doc/device-mapper-multipath-version/multipath.conf.defaults, which you can use as the basis for entries in the /etc/multipath.conf file.

To add a storage device that DM-Multipath does not list as being supported, obtain the vendor, product, and revision information from the vendor, model, and rev files under /sys/block/device name/device.



The following entries in the /etc/multipath.conf file would be appropriate for setting up active/passive multipathing to an iSCSI LUN with the specified WWID.

In this standby failover configuration, I/O continues through a remaining active network interface if a network interfaces fails on the iSCSI initiator.



If you edit the /etc/multipath.conf file, restart the multipathd service to make so that the file is re-read.

For more information about configuring entries in /etc/multipath.conf, refer to the multipath.conf (5) manual page.

