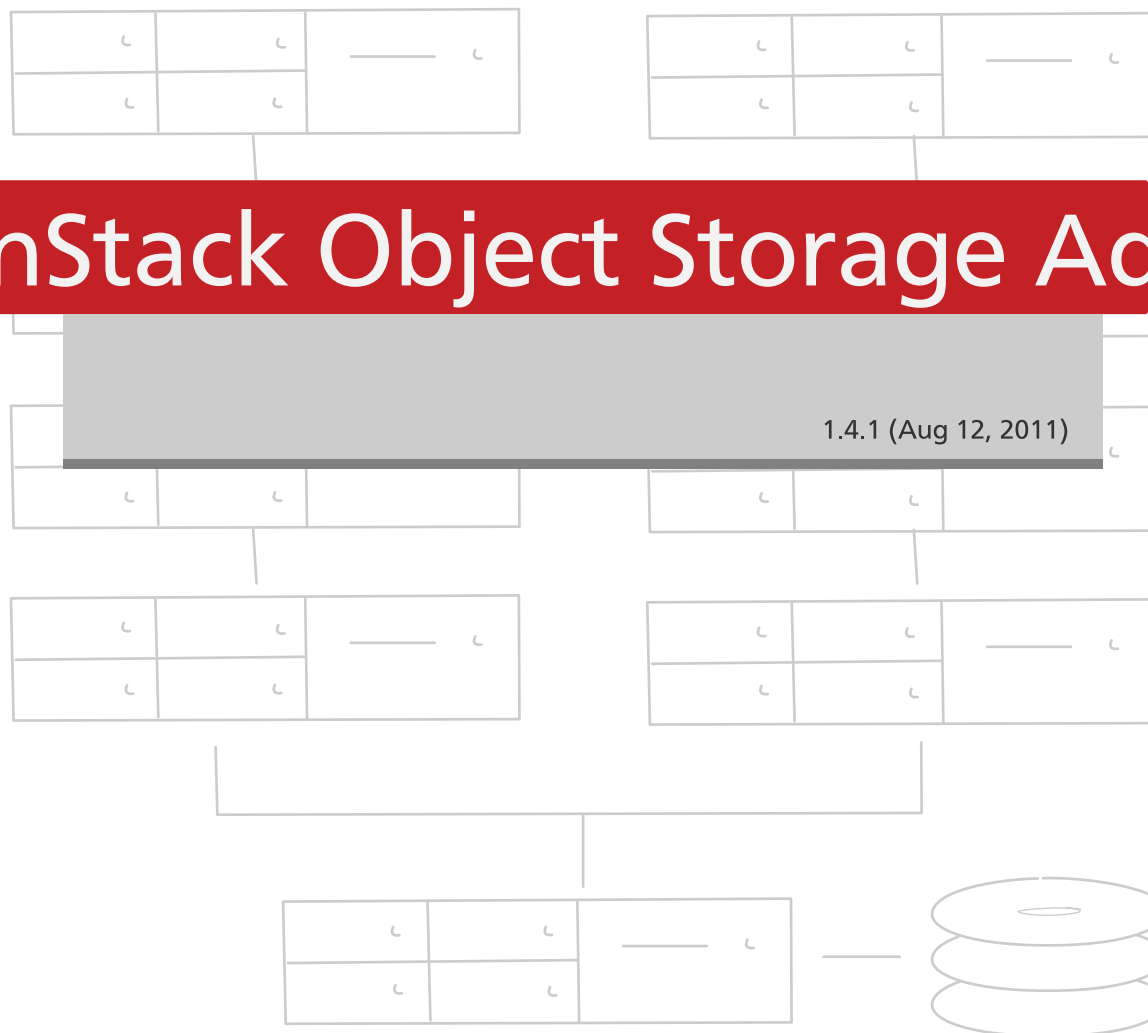


OpenStack Object Storage Admin



OpenStack Object Storage Administrator Manual

1.4.1 (2011-08-12)

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OpenStack Object Storage offers open source software for cloud-based object storage for any organization. This manual provides guidance for installing, managing, and understanding the software that runs OpenStack Object Storage.

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1. Getting Started with OpenStack

OpenStack is a collection of open source technology that provides massively scalable open source cloud computing software. Currently OpenStack develops two related projects: OpenStack Compute, which offers computing power through virtual machine and network management, and OpenStack Object Storage which is software for redundant, scalable object storage capacity. Closely related to the OpenStack Compute project is the Image Service project, named Glance. OpenStack can be used by corporations, service providers, VARs, SMBs, researchers, and global data centers looking to deploy large-scale cloud deployments for private or public clouds.

What is OpenStack?

OpenStack offers open source software to build public and private clouds. OpenStack is a community and a project as well as open source software to help organizations run clouds for virtual computing or storage. OpenStack contains a collection of open source projects that are community-maintained including OpenStack Compute (code-named Nova), OpenStack Object Storage (code-named Swift), and OpenStack Image Service (code-named Glance). OpenStack provides an operating platform, or toolkit, for orchestrating clouds.

OpenStack is more easily defined once the concepts of cloud computing become apparent, but we are on a mission: to provide scalable, elastic cloud computing for both public and private clouds, large and small. At the heart of our mission is a pair of basic requirements: clouds must be simple to implement and massively scalable.

If you are new to OpenStack, you will undoubtedly have questions about installation, deployment, and usage. It can seem overwhelming at first. But don't fear, there are places to get information to guide you and to help resolve any issues you may run into during the on-ramp process. Because the project is so new and constantly changing, be aware of the revision time for all information. If you are reading a document that is a few months old and you feel that it isn't entirely accurate, then please let us know through the mailing list at <https://launchpad.net/~openstack> so it can be updated or removed.

Components of OpenStack

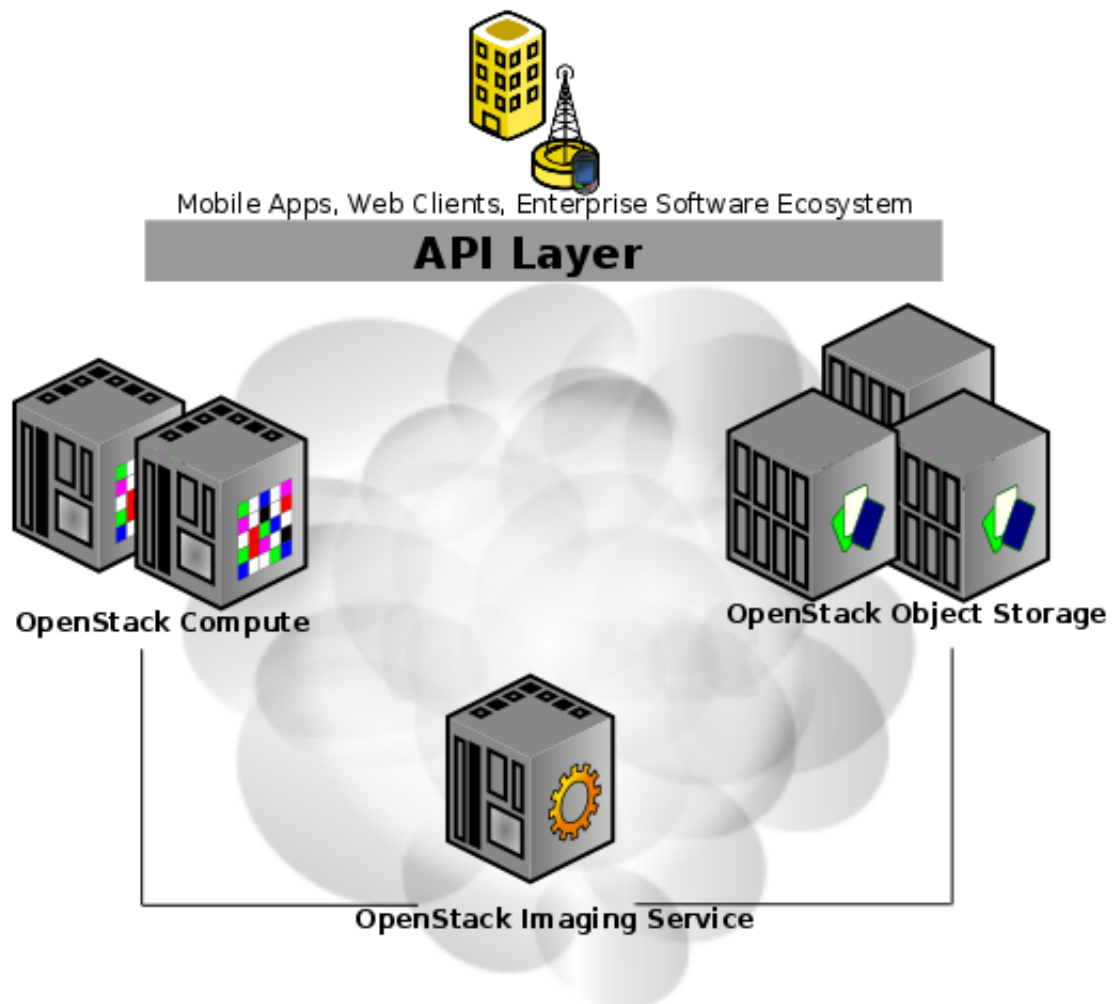
There are currently three main components of OpenStack: Compute, Object Storage, and Image Service. Let's look at each in turn.

OpenStack Compute is a cloud fabric controller, used to start up virtual instances for either a user or a group. It's also used to configure networking for each instance or project that contains multiple instances for a particular project.

OpenStack Object Storage is a system to store objects in a massively scalable large capacity system with built-in redundancy and failover. Object Storage has a variety of applications, such as backing up or archiving data, serving graphics or videos (streaming data to a user's browser), storing secondary or tertiary static data, developing new applications with data storage integration, storing data when predicting storage capacity is difficult, and creating the elasticity and flexibility of cloud-based storage for your web applications.

OpenStack Image Service is a lookup and retrieval system for virtual machine images. It can be configured in three ways: using OpenStack Object Store to store images; using Amazon's Simple Storage Solution (S3) storage directly; or using S3 storage with Object Store as the intermediate for S3 access.

The following diagram shows the basic relationships between the projects, how they relate to each other, and how they can fulfill the goals of open source cloud computing.



OpenStack Project Architecture Overview

by Ken Pepple

Before we dive into the conceptual and logic architecture, let's take a second to explain the OpenStack project:

OpenStack is a collection of open source technologies delivering a massively scalable cloud operating system.

You can think of it as software to power your own Infrastructure as a Service (IaaS) offering like Amazon Web Services. It currently encompasses three main projects:

- Swift which provides object/blob storage. This is roughly analogous to Rackspace Cloud Files (from which it is derived) or Amazon S3.
- Glance which provides discovery, storage and retrieval of virtual machine images for OpenStack Nova.
- Nova which provides virtual servers upon demand. This is similar to Rackspace Cloud Servers or Amazon EC2.

While these three projects provide the core of the cloud infrastructure, OpenStack is open and evolving — there will be more projects (there are already related projects for web interfaces and a queue service). With that brief introduction, let's delve into a conceptual architecture and then examine how OpenStack Compute could map to it.

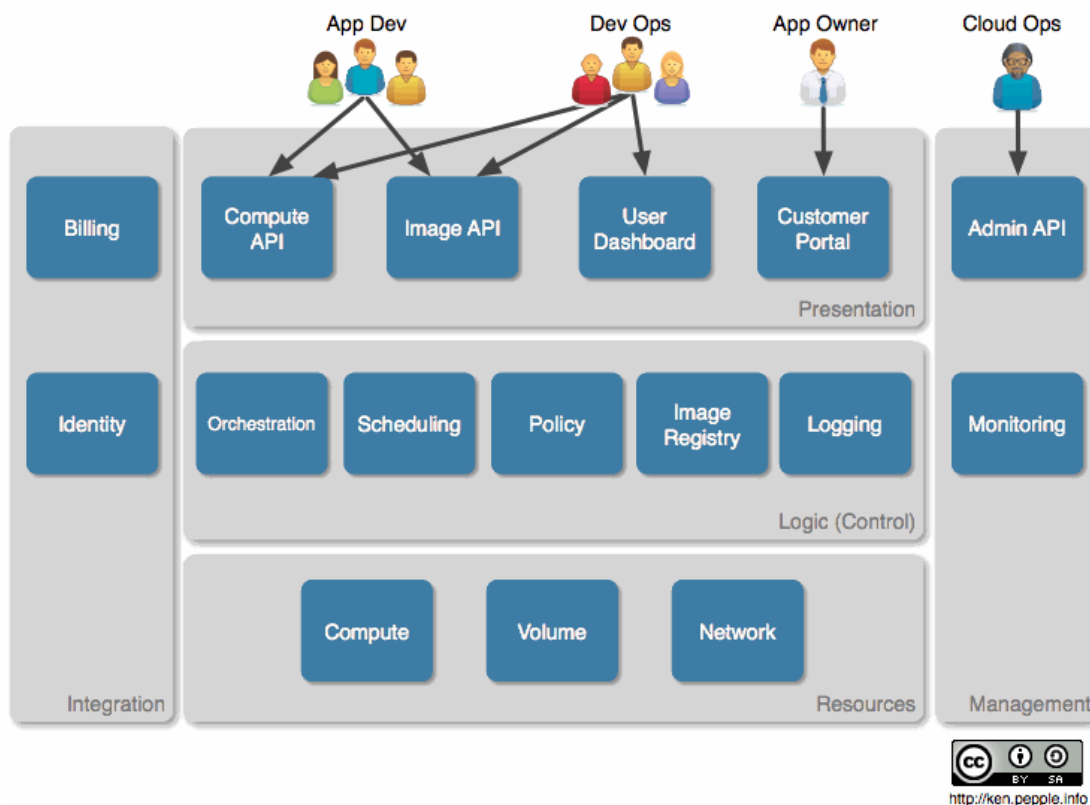
Cloud Provider Conceptual Architecture

Ken, Pepple

Imagine that we are going to build our own IaaS cloud and offer it to customers. To achieve this, we would need to provide several high level features:

1. Allow application owners to register for our cloud services, view their usage and see their bill (basic customer relations management functionality)
2. Allow Developers/DevOps folks to create and store custom images for their applications (basic build-time functionality)
3. Allow DevOps/Developers to launch, monitor and terminate instances (basic run-time functionality)
4. Allow the Cloud Operator to configure and operate the cloud infrastructure

While there are certainly many, many other features that we would need to offer (especially if we were to follow a more complete industry framework like eTOM), these four get to the very heart of providing IaaS. Now assuming that you agree with these four top level features, you might put together a conceptual architecture that looks something like this:



In this model, I've imagined four sets of users (developers, devops, owners and operators) that need to interact with the cloud and then separated out the functionality needed for each. From there, I've followed a pretty common tiered approach to the architecture (presentation, logic and resources) with two orthogonal areas (integration and management). Let's explore each a little further:

- As with presentation layers in more typical application architectures, components here interact with users to accept and present information. In this layer, you will find web portals to provide graphical interfaces for non-developers and API endpoints for developers. For more advanced architectures, you might find load balancing, console proxies, security and naming services present here also.
- The logic tier would provide the intelligence and control functionality for our cloud. This tier would house orchestration (workflow for complex tasks), scheduling (determining mapping of jobs to resources), policy (quotas and such), image registry (metadata about instance images), logging (events and metering).
- There will need to integration functions within the architecture. It is assumed that most service providers will already have a customer identity and billing systems. Any cloud architecture would need to integrate with these systems.
- As with any complex environment, we will need a management tier to operate the environment. This should include an API to access the cloud administration features as well as some forms of monitoring. It is likely that the monitoring functionality will take the form of integration into an existing tool. While I've highlighted monitoring and an admin API for our fictional provider, in a more complete architecture you would

see a vast array of operational support functions like provisioning and configuration management.

- Finally, since this is a compute cloud, we will need actual compute, network and storage resources to provide to our customers. This tier provides these services, whether they be servers, network switches, network attached storage or other resources.

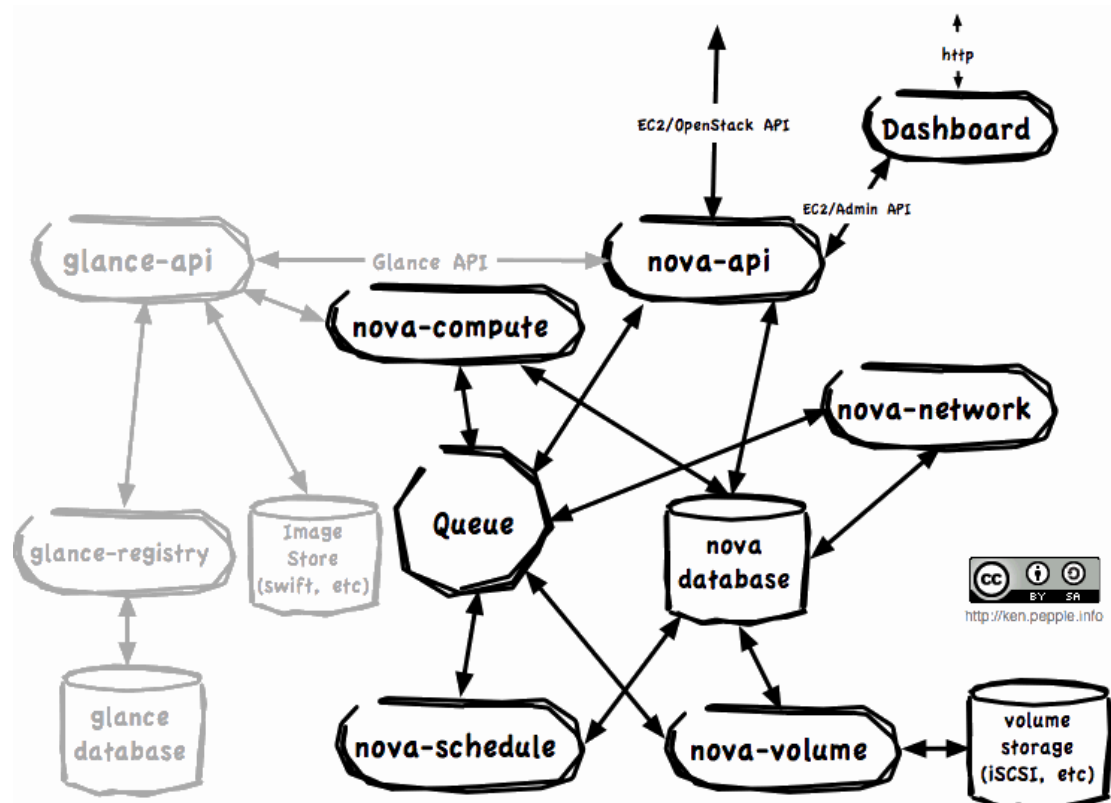
With this model in place, let's shift gears and look at OpenStack Compute's logical architecture.

OpenStack Compute Logical Architecture

Now that we've looked at a proposed conceptual architecture, let's see how OpenStack Compute is logically architected. At the time of this writing, Cactus was the newest release (which means if you are viewing this after around July 2011, this may be out of date). There are several logical components of OpenStack Compute architecture but the majority of these components are custom written python daemons of two varieties:

- WSGI applications to receive and mediate API calls (`nova-api`, `glance-api`, etc.)
- Worker daemons to carry out orchestration tasks (`nova-compute`, `nova-network`, `nova-schedule`, etc.)

However, there are two essential pieces of the logical architecture are neither custom written nor Python based: the messaging queue and the database. These two components facilitate the asynchronous orchestration of complex tasks through message passing and information sharing. Putting this all together we get a picture like this:



This complicated, but not overly informative, diagram as it can be summed up in three sentences:

- End users (DevOps, Developers and even other OpenStack components) talk to `nova-api` to interface with OpenStack Compute
- OpenStack Compute daemons exchange info through the queue (actions) and database (information) to carry out API requests
- OpenStack Glance is basically a completely separate infrastructure which OpenStack Compute interfaces through the Glance API

Now that we see the overview of the processes and their interactions, let's take a closer look at each component.

- The `nova-api` daemon is the heart of the OpenStack Compute. You may see it illustrated on many pictures of OpenStack Compute as API and "Cloud Controller". While this is partly true, cloud controller is really just a class (specifically the `CloudController` in `trunk/nova/api/ec2/cloud.py`) within the `nova-api` daemon. It provides an endpoint for all API queries (either OpenStack API or EC2 API), initiates most of the orchestration activities (such as running an instance) and also enforces some policy (mostly quota checks).
- The `nova-schedule` process is conceptually the simplest piece of code in OpenStack Compute: take a virtual machine instance request from the queue and determines where it should run (specifically, which compute server host it should run on). In practice however, I am sure this will grow to be the most complex as it needs to factor in current state of the entire cloud infrastructure and apply complicated algorithm to ensure efficient usage. To that end, `nova-schedule` implements a pluggable architecture that let's you choose (or write) your own algorithm for scheduling. Currently, there are several to choose from (simple, chance, etc) and it is a area of hot development for the future releases of OpenStack Compute.
- The `nova-compute` process is primarily a worker daemon that creates and terminates virtual machine instances. The process by which it does so is fairly complex (see this blog post by Laurence Luce for the gritty details) but the basics are simple: accept actions from the queue and then perform a series of system commands (like launching a KVM instance) to carry them out while updating state in the database.
- As you can gather by the name, `nova-volume` manages the creation, attaching and detaching of persistent volumes to compute instances (similar functionality to Amazon's Elastic Block Storage). It can use volumes from a variety of providers such as iSCSI or AoE.
- The `nova-network` worker daemon is very similar to `nova-compute` and `nova-volume`. It accepts networking tasks from the queue and then performs tasks to manipulate the network (such as setting up bridging interfaces or changing `iptables` rules).
- The queue provides a central hub for passing messages between daemons. This is currently implemented with RabbitMQ today, but theoretically could be any AMPQ message queue supported by the `python amqp` lib.
- The SQL database stores most of the build-time and run-time state for a cloud infrastructure. This includes the instance types that are available for use, instances in use,

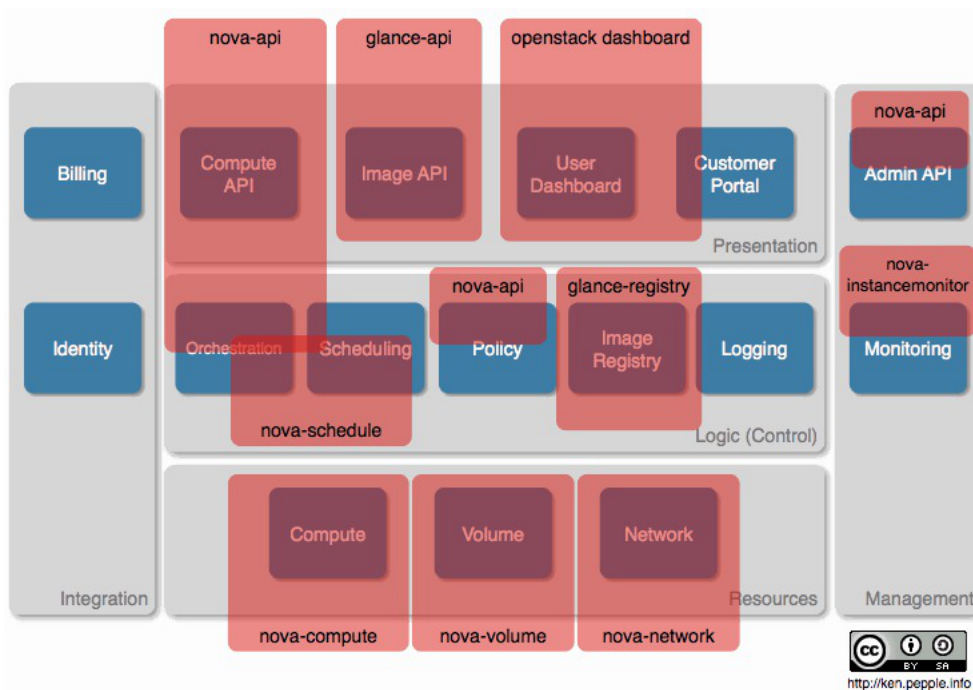
networks available and projects. Theoretically, OpenStack Compute can support any database supported by SQL-Alchemy but the only databases currently being widely used are sqlite3 (only appropriate for test and development work), MySQL and PostgreSQL.

- OpenStack Glance is a separate project from OpenStack Compute, but as shown above, complimentary. While it is an optional part of the overall compute architecture, I can't imagine that most OpenStack Compute installations will not be using it (or a complimentary product). There are three pieces to Glance: `glance-api`, `glance-registry` and the image store. As you can probably guess, `glance-api` accepts API calls, much like `nova-api`, and the actual image blobs are placed in the image store. The `glance-registry` stores and retrieves metadata about images. The image store can be a number of different object stores, include OpenStack Object Storage (Swift).
- Finally, another optional project that we will need for our fictional service provider is an user dashboard. I have picked the OpenStack Dashboard here, but there are also several other web front ends available for OpenStack Compute. The OpenStack Dashboard provides a web interface into OpenStack Compute to give application developers and devops staff similar functionality to the API. It is currently implemented as a Django web application.

This logical architecture represents just one way to architect OpenStack Compute. With its pluggable architecture, we could easily swap out OpenStack Glance with another image service or use another dashboard. In the coming releases of OpenStack, expect to see more modularization of the code especially in the network and volume areas.

Nova Conceptual Mapping

Now that we've seen a conceptual architecture for a fictional cloud provider and examined the logical architecture of OpenStack Nova, it is fairly easy to map the OpenStack components to the conceptual areas to see what we are lacking:



As you can see from the illustration, I've overlaid logical components of OpenStack Nova, Glance and Dashboard to denote functional coverage. For each of the overlays, I've added the name of the logical component within the project that provides the functionality. While all of these judgements are highly subjective, you can see that we have a majority coverage of the functional areas with a few notable exceptions:

- The largest gap in our functional coverage is logging and billing. At the moment, OpenStack Nova doesn't have a billing component that can mediate logging events, rate the logs and create/present bills. That being said, most service providers will already have one (or *many*) of these so the focus is really on the logging and integration with billing. This could be remedied in a variety of ways: augmentations of the code (which should happen in the next release "Diablo"), integration with commercial products or services (perhaps Zuora) or custom log parsing.
- Identity is also a point which will likely need to be augmented. Unless we are running a stock LDAP for our identity system, we will need to integrate our solution with OpenStack Compute. Having said that, this is true of almost all cloud solutions.
- The customer portal will also be an integration point. While OpenStack Compute provides a user dashboard (to see running instance, launch new instances, etc.), it doesn't provide an interface to allow application owners to signup for service, track their bills and lodge trouble tickets. Again, this is probably something that it is already in place at our imaginary service provider.
- Ideally, the Admin API would replicate all functionality that we'd be able to do via the command line interface (which in this case is mostly exposed through the nova-manage command). This will get better in the Diablo release with the Admin API work.
- Cloud monitoring and operations will be an important area of focus for our service provider. A key to any good operations approach is good tooling. While OpenStack Compute provides nova-instancemonitor, which tracks compute node utilization, we're really going to need a number of third party tools for monitoring.
- Policy is an extremely important area but very provider specific. Everything from quotas (which are supported) to quality of service (QoS) to privacy controls can fall under this. I've given OpenStack Nova partial coverage here, but that might vary depending on the intricacies of the providers needs. For the record, the Catus release of OpenStack Compute provides quotas for instances (number and cores used, volumes (size and number), floating IP addresses and metadata.
- Scheduling within OpenStack Compute is fairly rudimentary for larger installations today. The pluggable scheduler supports chance (random host assignment), simple (least loaded) and zone (random nodes within an availability zone). As within most areas on this list, this will be greatly augmented in Diablo. In development are distributed schedulers and schedulers that understand heterogeneous hosts (for support of GPUs and differing CPU architectures).

As you can see, OpenStack Compute provides a fair basis for our mythical service provider, as long as the mythical service providers are willing to do some integration here and there.

Note that since the time of this writing, OpenStack Identity Service has been added.

Why Cloud?

In data centers today, many computers suffer the same underutilization in computing power and networking bandwidth. For example, projects may need a large amount of computing capacity to complete a computation, but no longer need the computing power after completing the computation. You want cloud computing when you want a service that's available on-demand with the flexibility to bring it up or down through automation or with little intervention. The phrase "cloud computing" is often represented with a diagram that contains a cloud-like shape indicating a layer where responsibility for service goes from user to provider. The cloud in these types of diagrams contains the services that afford computing power harnessed to get work done. Much like the electrical power we receive each day, cloud computing provides subscribers or users with access to a shared collection of computing resources: networks for transfer, servers for storage, and applications or services for completing tasks.

These are the compelling features of a cloud:

- On-demand self-service: Users can provision servers and networks with little human intervention.
- Network access: Any computing capabilities are available over the network. Many different devices are allowed access through standardized mechanisms.
- Resource pooling: Multiple users can access clouds that serve other consumers according to demand.
- Elasticity: Provisioning is rapid and scales out or in based on need.
- Metered or measured service: Just like utilities that are paid for by the hour, clouds should optimize resource use and control it for the level of service or type of servers such as storage or processing.

Cloud computing offers different service models depending on the capabilities a consumer may require.

- SaaS: Software as a Service. Provides the consumer the ability to use the software in a cloud environment, such as web-based email for example.
- PaaS: Platform as a Service. Provides the consumer the ability to deploy applications through a programming language or tools supported by the cloud platform provider. An example of platform as a service is an Eclipse/Java programming platform provided with no downloads required.
- IaaS: Infrastructure as a Service. Provides infrastructure such as computer instances, network connections, and storage so that people can run any software or operating system.

When you hear terms such as public cloud or private cloud, these refer to the deployment model for the cloud. A private cloud operates for a single organization, but can be managed on-premise or off-premise. A public cloud has an infrastructure that is available to the general public or a large industry group and is likely owned by a cloud services company. The NIST also defines community cloud as shared by several organizations supporting a specific community with shared concerns.

Clouds can also be described as hybrid. A hybrid cloud can be a deployment model, as a composition of both public and private clouds, or a hybrid model for cloud computing may involve both virtual and physical servers.

What have people done with cloud computing? Cloud computing can help with large-scale computing needs or can lead consolidation efforts by virtualizing servers to make more use of existing hardware and potentially release old hardware from service. People also use cloud computing for collaboration because of its high availability through networked computers. Productivity suites for word processing, number crunching, and email communications, and more are also available through cloud computing. Cloud computing also avails additional storage to the cloud user, avoiding the need for additional hard drives on each users's desktop and enabling access to huge data storage capacity online in the cloud.

For a more detailed discussion of cloud computing's essential characteristics and its models of service and deployment, see <http://www.nist.gov/itl/cloud/>, published by the US National Institute of Standards and Technology.

2. Introduction to OpenStack Object Storage

OpenStack Object Storage is a scalable object storage system - it is not a file system in the traditional sense. You will not be able to mount this system like traditional SAN or NAS volumes. Since OpenStack Object Storage is a different way of thinking when it comes to storage, take a few moments to review the key concepts listed below.

Accounts and Account Servers

The OpenStack Object Storage system is designed to be used by many different storage consumers or customers. Each user must identify themselves using an authentication system.

Nodes that run the Account service are a separate concept from individual accounts. Account servers are part of the storage system and must be configured along with Container servers and Object servers.

Authentication and Access Permissions

You must authenticate against an Authentication service to receive OpenStack Object Storage connection parameters and an authentication token. The token must be passed in for all subsequent container/object operations. One authentication service that you can use as a middleware example is called `swauth` and you can download it from <https://github.com/gholt/swauth>. You can also integrate with the OpenStack Identity Service, code-named `Keystone`, which you can download from <https://github.com/openstack/keystone>.



Note

Typically the language-specific APIs handle authentication, token passing, and HTTPS request/response communication.

You can implement access control for objects either for users or accounts using `X-Container-Read: accountname` and `X-Container-Write: accountname:username`, which allows any user from the `accountname` account to read but only allows the `username` user from the `accountname` account to write. You can also grant public access to objects stored in OpenStack Object Storage but also limit public access using the `Referer` header to prevent site-based content theft such as hot-linking (for example, linking to an image file from off-site and therefore using other's bandwidth). The public container settings are used as the default authorization over access control lists. For example, using `X-Container-Read: referer:any` allows anyone to read from the container regardless of other authorization settings.

Generally speaking, each user has their own storage account and has full access to that account. Users must authenticate with their credentials as described above, but once authenticated they can create/delete containers and objects within that account. The only

way a user can access the content from another account is if they share an API access key or a session token provided by your authentication system.

Containers and Objects

A container is a storage compartment for your data and provides a way for you to organize your data. You can think of a container as a folder in Windows® or a directory in UNIX®. The primary difference between a container and these other file system concepts is that containers cannot be nested. You can, however, create an unlimited number of containers within your account. Data must be stored in a container so you must have at least one container defined in your account prior to uploading data.

The only restrictions on container names is that they cannot contain a forward slash (/) and must be less than 256 bytes in length. Please note that the length restriction applies to the name after it has been URL encoded. For example, a container name of `Course Docs` would be URL encoded as `Course%20Docs` and therefore be 13 bytes in length rather than the expected 11.

An object is the basic storage entity and any optional metadata that represents the files you store in the OpenStack Object Storage system. When you upload data to OpenStack Object Storage, the data is stored as-is (no compression or encryption) and consists of a location (container), the object's name, and any metadata consisting of key/value pairs. For instance, you may chose to store a backup of your digital photos and organize them into albums. In this case, each object could be tagged with metadata such as `Album : Caribbean Cruise` or `Album : Aspen Ski Trip`.

The only restriction on object names is that they must be less than 1024 bytes in length after URL encoding. For example, an object name of `C++final(v2).txt` should be URL encoded as `C%2B%2Bfinal%28v2%29.txt` and therefore be 24 bytes in length rather than the expected 16.

The maximum allowable size for a storage object upon upload is 5 gigabytes (GB) and the minimum is zero bytes. You can use the built-in large object support and the swift utility to retrieve objects larger than 5 GB.

For metadata, you should not exceed 90 individual key/value pairs for any one object and the total byte length of all key/value pairs should not exceed 4KB (4096 bytes).

Operations

Operations are the actions you perform within an OpenStack Object Storage system such as creating or deleting containers, uploading or downloading objects, and so on. The full list of operations is documented in the Developer Guide. Operations may be performed via the ReST web service API or a language-specific API; currently, we support Python, PHP, Java, Ruby, and C#/.NET.



Important

All operations must include a valid authorization token from your authorization system.

Language-Specific API Bindings

A set of supported API bindings in several popular languages are available from the Rackspace Cloud Files product, which uses OpenStack Object Storage code for its implementation. These bindings provide a layer of abstraction on top of the base ReST API, allowing programmers to work with a container and object model instead of working directly with HTTP requests and responses. These bindings are free (as in beer and as in speech) to download, use, and modify. They are all licensed under the MIT License as described in the COPYING file packaged with each binding. If you do make any improvements to an API, you are encouraged (but not required) to submit those changes back to us.

The API bindings for Rackspace Cloud Files are hosted at <http://github.com/rackspace>. Feel free to coordinate your changes through github or, if you prefer, send your changes to cloudfiles@rackspacecloud.com. Just make sure to indicate which language and version you modified and send a unified diff.

Each binding includes its own documentation (either HTML, PDF, or CHM). They also include code snippets and examples to help you get started. The currently supported API binding for OpenStack Object Storage are:

- PHP (requires 5.x and the modules: cURL, FileInfo, mbstring)
- Python (requires 2.4 or newer)
- Java (requires JRE v1.5 or newer)
- C#/.NET (requires .NET Framework v3.5)
- Ruby (requires 1.8 or newer and mime-tools module)

There are no other supported language-specific bindings at this time. You are welcome to create your own language API bindings and we can help answer any questions during development, host your code if you like, and give you full credit for your work.

3. Installing and Configuring OpenStack Object Storage

System Requirements

Hardware: OpenStack Object Storage specifically is designed to run on commodity hardware. At Rackspace, our storage servers are currently running fairly generic 4U servers with 24 2T SATA drives and 8 cores of processing power. RAID on the storage drives is not required and not recommended. Swift's disk usage pattern is the worst case possible for RAID, and performance degrades very quickly using RAID 5 or 6.

Operating System: OpenStack currently runs on Ubuntu and the large scale deployment at Rackspace runs on Ubuntu 10.04 LTS.

Networking: 1000 Mbps are suggested. For OpenStack Object Storage, an external network should connect the outside world to the proxy servers, and the storage network is intended to be isolated on a private network or multiple private networks.

Database: For OpenStack Object Storage, a SQLite database is part of the OpenStack Object Storage container and account management process.

Permissions: You can install OpenStack Object Storage either as root or as a user with sudo permissions if you configure the sudoers file to enable all the permissions.

Installing OpenStack Object Storage on Ubuntu

Though you can install OpenStack Object Storage for development or testing purposes on a single server, a multiple-server installation enables the high availability and redundancy you want in a production distributed object storage system.

If you would like to perform a single node installation on Ubuntu for development purposes from source code, use the Swift All In One instructions. See http://swift.openstack.org/development_saio.html.

Before You Begin

Have a copy of the Ubuntu Server 10.04 LTS installation media on hand if you are installing on a new server.

This document demonstrates installing a cluster using the following types of nodes:

- One Proxy node which runs the swift-proxy-server processes and may also run optional swauth services. It serves proxy requests to the appropriate Storage nodes.
- Five Storage nodes that run the swift-account-server, swift-container-server, and swift-object-server processes which control storage of the account databases, the container databases, as well as the actual stored objects.



Note

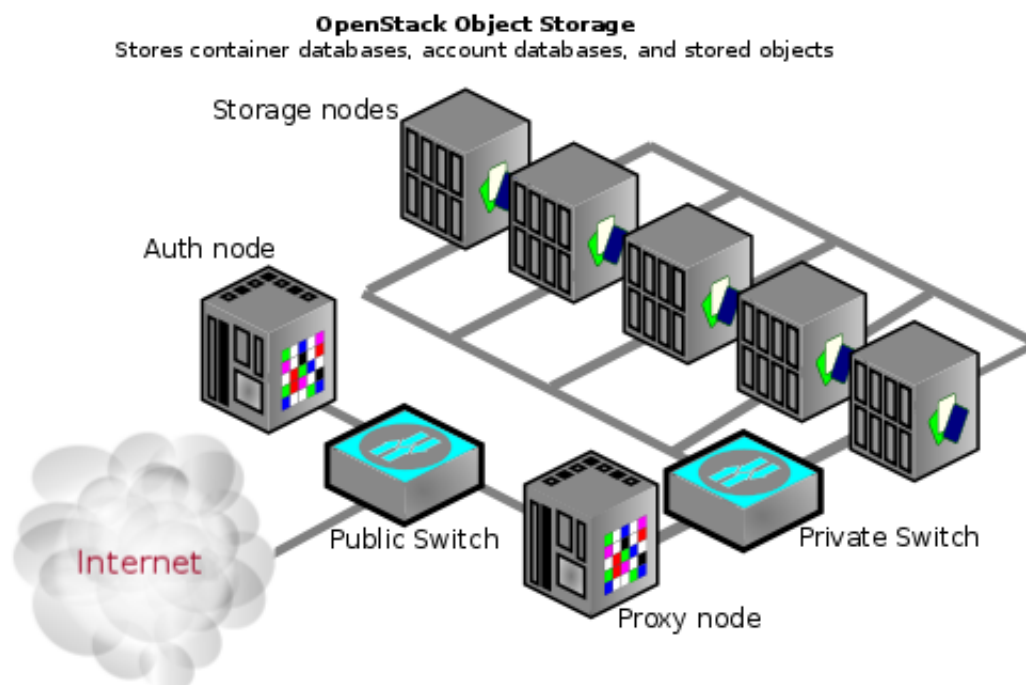
Fewer Storage nodes can be used initially, but a minimum of 5 is recommended for a production cluster.

Example Installation Architecture

- node - a host machine running one or more OpenStack Object Storage services
- Proxy node - node that runs Proxy services
- Auth node - an optional node that runs the Auth service separately from the Proxy services
- Storage node - node that runs Account, Container, and Object services
- ring - a set of mappings of OpenStack Object Storage data to physical devices

To increase reliability, you may want to add additional Proxy servers for performance.

This document describes each Storage node as a separate zone in the ring. It is recommended to have a minimum of 5 zones. A zone is a group of nodes that is as isolated as possible from other nodes (separate servers, network, power, even geography). The ring guarantees that every replica is stored in a separate zone. This diagram shows one possible configuration for a minimal installation.



Network Setup Notes

This document refers to two networks. An external network for connecting to the Proxy server, and a storage network that is not accessible from outside the cluster, to which all of

the nodes are connected. All of the OpenStack Object Storage services, as well as the rsync daemon on the Storage nodes are configured to listen on their STORAGE_LOCAL_NET IP addresses.

General Installation Steps

1. Install the baseline Ubuntu Server 10.04 LTS on all nodes.
2. Install common OpenStack Object Storage software and pre-requisites:

```
apt-get install python-software-properties
add-apt-repository ppa:swift-core/ppa
apt-get update
apt-get install swift openssh-server
```

Configuring OpenStack Object Storage

1. Create and populate configuration directories on all nodes:

```
mkdir -p /etc/swift
chown -R swift:swift /etc/swift/
```

2. Create /etc/swift/swift.conf:

```
[swift-hash]
# random unique string that can never change, keep it secret and do NOT lose
it
swift_hash_path_suffix = changeme
```



Note

The suffix value in /etc/swift/swift.conf should be set to some random string of text to be used as a salt when hashing to determine mappings in the ring. This file should be the same on every node in the cluster!

Installing and Configuring an Auth Node

There are options for running an authorization node to authorize requests against a swift cluster. Swauth is one implementation, an auth service for Swift as WSGI middleware that uses Swift itself as a backing store. Swauth, the example authorization system that was bundled with the Cactus release, is now available as a separate download rather than part of Swift, at <https://github.com/gholt/swauth>. You can install it on the proxy server, or on a separate server, but you need to point to swauth from the proxy-server.conf file in the following line:

```
[filter:swauth]
use = egg:swauth#swauth
```

In the Diablo release, the Keystone project at <http://github.com/rackspace/keystone> should become the auth standard for OpenStack, but swauth may be used as an alternative.

Installing and Configuring the Proxy Node

The proxy server takes each request and looks up locations for the account, container, or object and routes the requests correctly. The proxy server also handles API requests. You enable account management by configuring it in the proxy-server.conf file.



Note

It is assumed that all commands are run as the root user.

1. Install swift-proxy service:

```
apt-get install swift-proxy memcached
```

2. Create self-signed cert for SSL:

```
cd /etc/swift
openssl req -new -x509 -nodes -out cert.crt -keyout cert.key
```

3. Modify memcached to listen on the default interfaces. Preferably this should be on a local, non-public network. Edit the following line in /etc/memcached.conf, changing:

```
-l 127.0.0.1
to
-l <PROXY_LOCAL_NET_IP>
```

4. Restart the memcached server:

```
service memcached restart
```

5. Create /etc/swift/proxy-server.conf:

```
[DEFAULT]
# Enter these next two values if using SSL certifications
cert_file = /etc/swift/cert.crt
key_file = /etc/swift/cert.key
bind_port = 8080
workers = 8
user = swift

[pipeline:main]
# keep swauth in the line below if you plan to use swauth for authentication
pipeline = healthcheck cache swauth proxy-server

[app:proxy-server]
use = egg:swift#proxy
allow_account_management = true

[filter:swauth]
# the line below points to swauth as a separate project from swift
use = egg:swauth#swauth
# Highly recommended to change this.
super_admin_key = swauthkey

[filter:healthcheck]
use = egg:swift#healthcheck

[filter:cache]
```

```
use = egg:swift#memcache
memcache_servers = <PROXY_LOCAL_NET_IP>:11211
```



Note

If you run multiple memcache servers, put the multiple IP:port listings in the [filter:cache] section of the proxy-server.conf file like:

```
10.1.2.3:11211,10.1.2.4:11211
```

Only the proxy server uses memcache.

6. Create the account, container and object rings:

```
cd /etc/swift
swift-ring-builder account.builder create 18 3 1
swift-ring-builder container.builder create 18 3 1
swift-ring-builder object.builder create 18 3 1
```

7. For every storage device on each node add entries to each ring:

```
swift-ring-builder account.builder add z<ZONE>-<STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP>:6002/
<DEVICE> 100
swift-ring-builder container.builder add z<ZONE>-
<STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP_1>:6001/<DEVICE> 100
swift-ring-builder object.builder add z<ZONE>-<STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP_1>:6000/
<DEVICE> 100
```

For example, if you were setting up a storage node with a partition of /dev/sdb1 in Zone 1 on IP 10.0.0.1, the DEVICE would be sdb1 and the commands would look like:

```
swift-ring-builder account.builder add z1-10.0.0.1:6002/sdb1 100
swift-ring-builder container.builder add z1-10.0.0.1:6001/sdb1 100
swift-ring-builder object.builder add z1-10.0.0.1:6000/sdb1 100
```



Note

Assuming there are 5 zones with 1 node per zone, ZONE should start at 1 and increment by one for each additional node.

8. Verify the ring contents for each ring:

```
swift-ring-builder account.builder
swift-ring-builder container.builder
swift-ring-builder object.builder
```

9. Rebalance the rings:

```
swift-ring-builder account.builder rebalance
swift-ring-builder container.builder rebalance
swift-ring-builder object.builder rebalance
```



Note

Rebalancing rings can take some time.

10. Copy the account.ring.gz, container.ring.gz, and object.ring.gz files to each of the Proxy and Storage nodes in /etc/swift.

11. Make sure all the config files are owned by the swift user:

```
chown -R swift:swift /etc/swift
```

12. Start Proxy services:

```
swift-init proxy start
```

Installing and Configuring the Storage Nodes



Note

OpenStack Object Storage should work on any modern filesystem that supports Extended Attributes (XATTRS). We currently recommend XFS as it demonstrated the best overall performance for the swift use case after considerable testing and benchmarking at Rackspace. It is also the only filesystem that has been thoroughly tested.

1. Install Storage node packages:

```
apt-get install swift-account swift-container swift-object xfsprogs
```

2. For every device on the node, setup the XFS volume (/dev/sdb is used as an example):

```
fdisk /dev/sdb (set up a single partition)
mkfs.xfs -i size=1024 /dev/sdb1
echo "/dev/sdb1 /srv/node/sdb1 xfs noatime,nodiratime,nobarrier,logbufs=8 0" >> /etc/fstab
mkdir -p /srv/node/sdb1
mount /srv/node/sdb1
chown -R swift:swift /srv/node
```

3. Create /etc/rsyncd.conf:

```
uid = swift
gid = swift
log file = /var/log/rsyncd.log
pid file = /var/run/rsyncd.pid
address = <STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP>

[account]
max connections = 2
path = /srv/node/
read only = false
lock file = /var/lock/account.lock

[container]
max connections = 2
path = /srv/node/
read only = false
lock file = /var/lock/container.lock

[object]
max connections = 2
path = /srv/node/
read only = false
lock file = /var/lock/object.lock
```

4. Edit the following line in `/etc/default/rsync`:

```
RSYNC_ENABLE = true
```

5. Start rsync daemon:

```
service rsync start
```



Note

The rsync daemon requires no authentication, so it should be run on a local, private network.

6. Create `/etc/swift/account-server.conf`:

```
[DEFAULT]
bind_ip = <STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP>
workers = 2

[pipeline:main]
pipeline = account-server

[app:account-server]
use = egg:swift#account

[account-replicator]

[account-auditor]

[account-reaper]
```

7. Create `/etc/swift/container-server.conf`:

```
[DEFAULT]
bind_ip = <STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP>
workers = 2

[pipeline:main]
pipeline = container-server

[app:container-server]
use = egg:swift#container

[container-replicator]

[container-updater]

[container-auditor]
```

8. Create `/etc/swift/object-server.conf`:

```
[DEFAULT]
bind_ip = <STORAGE_LOCAL_NET_IP>
workers = 2

[pipeline:main]
pipeline = object-server

[app:object-server]
```

```
use = egg:swift#object  
  
[object-replicator]  
  
[object-updater]  
  
[object-auditor]
```

9. Start the storage services:

```
swift-init object-server start  
swift-init object-replicator start  
swift-init object-updater start  
swift-init object-auditor start  
swift-init container-server start  
swift-init container-replicator start  
swift-init container-updater start  
swift-init container-auditor start  
swift-init account-server start  
swift-init account-replicator start  
swift-init account-auditor start
```

Create OpenStack Object Storage admin Account and Verify the Installation

You can run these commands from the proxy server if you have installed swauth there. Look for the default_swift_cluster setting in the proxy-server.conf and match the URLs (including http or https) when issuing swauth commands.

1. Prepare the system for authorization commands by telling it the key and the URL for auth.

```
swauth-prep -K key -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/
```

2. Create a user with administrative privileges (account = system, username = root, password = testpass). Make sure to replace key in the swauth-add-user command below with whatever super_admin key you assigned in the proxy-server.conf file above. None of the values of account, username, or password are special - they can be anything.

```
swauth-add-user -K key -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/ -a system root  
testpass
```

3. Get an X-Storage-Url and X-Auth-Token:

```
curl -k -v -H 'X-Storage-User: system:root' -H 'X-Storage-Pass: testpass'  
http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/v1.0
```

4. Check that you can HEAD the account:

```
curl -k -v -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token-from-x-auth-token-above>' <url-from-x-  
storage-url-above>
```

5. Check that the Swift Tool, swift, works:

```
swift -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/v1.0 -U system:root -K testpass  
stat
```

6. Use swift to upload a few files named 'bigfile[1-2].tgz' to a container named 'myfiles':

```
swift -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/v1.0 -U system:root -K testpass
upload myfiles bigfile1.tgz
swift -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/v1.0 -U system:root -K testpass
upload myfiles bigfile2.tgz
```

7. Use swift to download all files from the 'myfiles' container:

```
swift -A http://<AUTH_HOSTNAME>:8080/auth/v1.0 -U system:root -K testpass
download myfiles
```

Adding an Additional Proxy Server

For reliability's sake you may want to have more than one proxy server. You can set up the additional proxy node in the same manner that you set up the first proxy node but with additional configuration steps.

Once you have more than two proxies, you also want to load balance between the two, which means your storage endpoint also changes. You can select from different strategies for load balancing. For example, you could use round robin dns, or an actual load balancer (like pound) in front of the two proxies, and point your storage url to the load balancer.

See Configure the Proxy node for the initial setup, and then follow these additional steps.

1. Update the list of memcache servers in /etc/swift/proxy-server.conf for all the added proxy servers. If you run multiple memcache servers, use this pattern for the multiple IP:port listings:

```
10.1.2.3:11211,10.1.2.4:11211
```

in each proxy server's conf file.:

```
[filter:cache]
use = egg:swift#memcache
memcache_servers = <PROXY_LOCAL_NET_IP>:11211
```

2. Change the default_cluster_url to point to the load balanced url, rather than the first proxy server you created in /etc/swift/proxy-server.conf:

```
[app:auth-server]
use = egg:swift#auth
default_cluster_url = https://<LOAD_BALANCER_HOSTNAME>/v1
# Highly recommended to change this key to something else!
super_admin_key = devauth
```

3. After you change the default_cluster_url setting, you have to delete the auth database and recreate the OpenStack Object Storage users, or manually update the auth database with the correct URL for each account.
4. Next, copy all the ring information to all the nodes, including your new proxy nodes, and ensure the ring info gets to all the storage nodes as well.
5. After you sync all the nodes, make sure the admin has the keys in /etc/swift and the ownership for the ring file is correct.

Troubleshooting Notes

If you see problems, look in `var/log/syslog` (or messages on some distros).

Also, at Rackspace we have seen hints at drive failures by looking at error messages in `/var/log/kern.log`.

4. System Administration for OpenStack Object Storage

By understanding the concepts inherent to the Object Storage system you can better monitor and administer your storage solution.

Understanding How Object Storage Works

This section offers a brief overview of each concept in administering Object Storage.

The Ring

A ring represents a mapping between the names of entities stored on disk and their physical location. There are separate rings for accounts, containers, and objects. When other components need to perform any operation on an object, container, or account, they need to interact with the appropriate ring to determine its location in the cluster.

The Ring maintains this mapping using zones, devices, partitions, and replicas. Each partition in the ring is replicated, by default, 3 times across the cluster, and the locations for a partition are stored in the mapping maintained by the ring. The ring is also responsible for determining which devices are used for handoff in failure scenarios.

Data can be isolated with the concept of zones in the ring. Each replica of a partition is guaranteed to reside in a different zone. A zone could represent a drive, a server, a cabinet, a switch, or even a datacenter.

The partitions of the ring are equally divided among all the devices in the OpenStack Object Storage installation. When partitions need to be moved around (for example if a device is added to the cluster), the ring ensures that a minimum number of partitions are moved at a time, and only one replica of a partition is moved at a time.

Weights can be used to balance the distribution of partitions on drives across the cluster. This can be useful, for example, when different sized drives are used in a cluster.

The ring is used by the Proxy server and several background processes (like replication).

Proxy Server

The Proxy Server is responsible for tying together the rest of the OpenStack Object Storage architecture. For each request, it will look up the location of the account, container, or object in the ring (see below) and route the request accordingly. The public API is also exposed through the Proxy Server.

A large number of failures are also handled in the Proxy Server. For example, if a server is unavailable for an object PUT, it will ask the ring for a hand-off server and route there instead.

When objects are streamed to or from an object server, they are streamed directly through the proxy server to or from the user – the proxy server does not spool them.

You can use a proxy server with account management enabled by configuring it in the proxy server configuration file.

Object Server

The Object Server is a very simple blob storage server that can store, retrieve and delete objects stored on local devices. Objects are stored as binary files on the filesystem with metadata stored in the file's extended attributes (xattrs). This requires that the underlying filesystem choice for object servers support xattrs on files. Some filesystems, like ext3, have xattrs turned off by default.

Each object is stored using a path derived from the object name's hash and the operation's timestamp. Last write always wins, and ensures that the latest object version will be served. A deletion is also treated as a version of the file (a 0 byte file ending with ".ts", which stands for tombstone). This ensures that deleted files are replicated correctly and older versions don't magically reappear due to failure scenarios.

Container Server

The Container Server's primary job is to handle listings of objects. It doesn't know where those object's are, just what objects are in a specific container. The listings are stored as sqlite database files, and replicated across the cluster similar to how objects are. Statistics are also tracked that include the total number of objects, and total storage usage for that container.

Account Server

The Account Server is very similar to the Container Server, excepting that it is responsible for listings of containers rather than objects.

Replication

Replication is designed to keep the system in a consistent state in the face of temporary error conditions like network outages or drive failures.

The replication processes compare local data with each remote copy to ensure they all contain the latest version. Object replication uses a hash list to quickly compare subsections of each partition, and container and account replication use a combination of hashes and shared high water marks.

Replication updates are push based. For object replication, updating is just a matter of rsyncing files to the peer. Account and container replication push missing records over HTTP or rsync whole database files.

The replicator also ensures that data is removed from the system. When an item (object, container, or account) is deleted, a tombstone is set as the latest version of the item. The replicator will see the tombstone and ensure that the item is removed from the entire system.

Updaters

There are times when container or account data can not be immediately updated. This usually occurs during failure scenarios or periods of high load. If an update fails, the update is queued locally on the file system, and the updater will process the failed updates. This is where an eventual consistency window will most likely come in to play. For example, suppose a container server is under load and a new object is put in to the system. The object will be immediately available for reads as soon as the proxy server responds to the client with success. However, the container server did not update the object listing, and so the update would be queued for a later update. Container listings, therefore, may not immediately contain the object.

In practice, the consistency window is only as large as the frequency at which the updater runs and may not even be noticed as the proxy server will route listing requests to the first container server which responds. The server under load may not be the one that serves subsequent listing requests – one of the other two replicas may handle the listing.

Auditors

Auditors crawl the local server checking the integrity of the objects, containers, and accounts. If corruption is found (in the case of bit rot, for example), the file is quarantined, and replication will replace the bad file from another replica. If other errors are found they are logged (for example, an object's listing can't be found on any container server it should be).

Configuring and Tuning OpenStack Object Storage

This section walks through deployment options and considerations.

You have multiple deployment options to choose from. The swift services run completely autonomously, which provides for a lot of flexibility when designing the hardware deployment for swift. The 4 main services are:

- Proxy Services
- Object Services
- Container Services
- Account Services

The Proxy Services are more CPU and network I/O intensive. If you are using 10g networking to the proxy, or are terminating SSL traffic at the proxy, greater CPU power will be required.

The Object, Container, and Account Services (Storage Services) are more disk and network I/O intensive.

The easiest deployment is to install all services on each server. There is nothing wrong with doing this, as it scales each service out horizontally.

At Rackspace, we put the Proxy Services on their own servers and all of the Storage Services on the same server. This allows us to send 10g networking to the proxy and 1g to the storage servers, and keep load balancing to the proxies more manageable. Storage Services scale out horizontally as storage servers are added, and we can scale overall API throughput by adding more Proxies.

If you need more throughput to either Account or Container Services, they may each be deployed to their own servers. For example you might use faster (but more expensive) SAS or even SSD drives to get faster disk I/O to the databases.

Load balancing and network design is left as an exercise to the reader, but this is a very important part of the cluster, so time should be spent designing the network for a Swift cluster.

Preparing the Ring

The first step is to determine the number of partitions that will be in the ring. We recommend that there be a minimum of 100 partitions per drive to insure even distribution across the drives. A good starting point might be to figure out the maximum number of drives the cluster will contain, and then multiply by 100, and then round up to the nearest power of two.

For example, imagine we are building a cluster that will have no more than 5,000 drives. That would mean that we would have a total number of 500,000 partitions, which is pretty close to 2^{19} , rounded up.

It is also a good idea to keep the number of partitions small (relatively). The more partitions there are, the more work that has to be done by the replicators and other backend jobs and the more memory the rings consume in process. The goal is to find a good balance between small rings and maximum cluster size.

The next step is to determine the number of replicas to store of the data. Currently it is recommended to use 3 (as this is the only value that has been tested). The higher the number, the more storage that is used but the less likely you are to lose data.

It is also important to determine how many zones the cluster should have. It is recommended to start with a minimum of 5 zones. You can start with fewer, but our testing has shown that having at least five zones is optimal when failures occur. We also recommend trying to configure the zones at as high a level as possible to create as much isolation as possible. Some example things to take into consideration can include physical location, power availability, and network connectivity. For example, in a small cluster you might decide to split the zones up by cabinet, with each cabinet having its own power and network connectivity. The zone concept is very abstract, so feel free to use it in whatever way best isolates your data from failure. Zones are referenced by number, beginning with 1.

You can now start building the ring with:

```
swift-ring-builder <builder_file> create <part_power> <replicas> <min_part_hours>
```

This will start the ring build process creating the <builder_file> with $2^{<part_power>}$ partitions. <min_part_hours> is the time in hours before a specific partition can be moved in succession (24 is a good value for this).

Devices can be added to the ring with:

```
swift-ring-builder <builder_file> add z<zone>-<ip>:<port>/<device_name>_<meta> <weight>
```

This will add a device to the ring where <builder_file> is the name of the builder file that was created previously, <zone> is the number of the zone this device is in, <ip> is the ip address of the server the device is in, <port> is the port number that the server is running on, <device_name> is the name of the device on the server (for example: sdb1), <meta> is a string of metadata for the device (optional), and <weight> is a float weight that determines how many partitions are put on the device relative to the rest of the devices in the cluster (a good starting point is 100.0 x TB on the drive). Add each device that will be initially in the cluster.

Once all of the devices are added to the ring, run:

```
swift-ring-builder <builder_file> rebalance
```

This will distribute the partitions across the drives in the ring. It is important whenever making changes to the ring to make all the changes required before running rebalance. This will ensure that the ring stays as balanced as possible, and as few partitions are moved as possible.

The above process should be done to make a ring for each storage service (Account, Container and Object). The builder files will be needed in future changes to the ring, so it is very important that these be kept and backed up. The resulting .tar.gz ring file should be pushed to all of the servers in the cluster. For more information about building rings, running swift-ring-builder with no options will display help text with available commands and options.

Server Configuration Reference

Swift uses paste.deploy to manage server configurations. Default configuration options are set in the [DEFAULT] section, and any options specified there can be overridden in any of the other sections.

Object Server Configuration

An Example Object Server configuration can be found at etc/object-server.conf-sample in the source code repository.

The following configuration options are available:

Table 4.1. object-server.conf Default Options in the [DEFAULT] section

Option	Default	Description
swift_dir	/etc/swift	Swift configuration directory
devices	/srv/node	Parent directory of where devices are mounted
mount_check	true	Whether or not check if the devices are mounted to prevent accidentally writing to the root device

bind_ip	0.0.0.0	IP Address for server to bind to
bind_port	6000	Port for server to bind to
workers	1	Number of workers to fork

Table 4.2. object-server.conf Server Options in the [object-server] section

Option	Default	Description
use		paste.deploy entry point for the object server. For most cases, this should be <code>egg:swift#object</code> .
log_name	object-server	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
log_requests	True	Whether or not to log each request
user	swift	User to run as
node_timeout	3	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
network_chunk_size	65536	Size of chunks to read/write over the network
disk_chunk_size	65536	Size of chunks to read/write to disk
max_upload_time	86400	Maximum time allowed to upload an object
slow	0	If > 0, Minimum time in seconds for a PUT or DELETE request to complete

Table 4.3. object-server.conf Replicator Options in the [object-replicator] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	object-replicator	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
daemonize	yes	Whether or not to run replication as a daemon
run_pause	30	Time in seconds to wait between replication passes
concurrency	1	Number of replication workers to spawn
timeout	5	Timeout value sent to <code>rsync -timeout</code> and <code>-contimeout</code> options
stats_interval	3600	Interval in seconds between logging replication statistics
reclaim_age	604800	Time elapsed in seconds before an object can be reclaimed

Table 4.4. object-server.conf Updater Options in the [object-updater] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	object-updater	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level

interval	300	Minimum time for a pass to take
concurrency	1	Number of updater workers to spawn
node_timeout	10	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
slowdown	0.01	Time in seconds to wait between objects

Table 4.5. object-server.conf Auditor Options in the [object-auditor] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	object-auditor	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
files_per_second	20	Maximum files audited per second. Should be tuned according to individual system specs. 0 is unlimited.
bytes_per_second	10000000	Maximum bytes audited per second. Should be tuned according to individual system specs. 0 is unlimited.

Container Server Configuration

An example Container Server configuration can be found at `etc/container-server.conf-sample` in the source code repository.

The following configuration options are available:

Table 4.6. container-server.conf Default Options in the [DEFAULT] section

Option	Default	Description
swift_dir	/etc/swift	Swift configuration directory
devices	/srv/node	Parent directory of where devices are mounted
mount_check	true	Whether or not check if the devices are mounted to prevent accidentally writing to the root device
bind_ip	0.0.0.0	IP Address for server to bind to
bind_port	6001	Port for server to bind to
workers	1	Number of workers to fork
user	swift	User to run as

Table 4.7. container-server.conf Server Options in the [container-server] section

Option	Default	Description
use		paste.deploy entry point for the container server. For most cases, this should be <code>egg:swift#container</code> .
log_name	container-server	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level

node_timeout	3	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services

Table 4.8. container-server.conf Replicator Options in the [container-replicator] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	container-replicator	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
per_diff	1000	
concurrency	8	Number of replication workers to spawn
run_pause	30	Time in seconds to wait between replication passes
node_timeout	10	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
reclaim_age	604800	Time elapsed in seconds before a container can be reclaimed

Table 4.9. container-server.conf Updater Options in the [container-updater] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	container-updater	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
interval	300	Minimum time for a pass to take
concurrency	4	Number of updater workers to spawn
node_timeout	3	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
slowdown	0.01	Time in seconds to wait between containers

Table 4.10. container-server.conf Auditor Options in the [container-auditor] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	container-auditor	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
interval	1800	Minimum time for a pass to take

Account Server Configuration

An example Account Server configuration can be found at `etc/account-server.conf-sample` in the source code repository.

The following configuration options are available:

Table 4.11. account-server.conf Default Options in the [DEFAULT] section

Option	Default	Description
swift_dir	/etc/swift	Swift configuration directory
devices	/srv/node	Parent directory or where devices are mounted
mount_check	true	Whether or not check if the devices are mounted to prevent accidentally writing to the root device
bind_ip	0.0.0.0	IP Address for server to bind to
bind_port	6002	Port for server to bind to
workers	1	Number of workers to fork
user	swift	User to run as

Table 4.12. account-server.conf Server Options in the [account-server] section

Option	Default	Description
use		Entry point for paste.deploy for the account server. For most cases, this should be <code>egg:swift#account</code> .
log_name	account-server	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level

Table 4.13. account-server.conf Replicator Options in the [account-replicator] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	account-replicator	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
per_diff	1000	
concurrency	8	Number of replication workers to spawn
run_pause	30	Time in seconds to wait between replication passes
node_timeout	10	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
reclaim_age	604800	Time elapsed in seconds before an account can be reclaimed

Table 4.14. account-server.conf Auditor Options in the [account-auditor] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	account-auditor	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level

interval	1800	Minimum time for a pass to take
----------	------	---------------------------------

Table 4.15. account-server.conf Reaper Options in the [account-reaper] section

Option	Default	Description
log_name	account-auditor	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Logging level
concurrency	25	Number of replication workers to spawn
interval	3600	Minimum time for a pass to take
node_timeout	10	Request timeout to external services
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services

Proxy Server Configuration

An example Proxy Server configuration can be found at `etc/proxy-server.conf-sample` in the source code repository.

The following configuration options are available:

Table 4.16. proxy-server.conf Default Options in the [DEFAULT] section

Option	Default	Description
bind_ip	0.0.0.0	IP Address for server to bind to
bind_port	80	Port for server to bind to
swift_dir	/etc/swift	Swift configuration directory
workers	1	Number of workers to fork
user	swift	User to run as
cert_file		Path to the ssl.crt
key_file		Path to the ssl.key

Table 4.17. proxy-server.conf Server Options in the [proxy-server] section

Option	Default	Description
use		Entry point for paste.deploy for the proxy server. For most cases, this should be <code>egg:swift#proxy</code> .
log_name	proxy-server	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Log level
log_headers	True	If True, log headers in each request
recheck_account_existence	60	Cache timeout in seconds to send memcached for account existence
recheck_container_existence	60	Cache timeout in seconds to send memcached for container existence
object_chunk_size	65536	Chunk size to read from object servers
client_chunk_size	65536	Chunk size to read from clients

memcache_servers	127.0.0.1:11211	Comma separated list of memcached servers ip:port
node_timeout	10	Request timeout to external services
client_timeout	60	Timeout to read one chunk from a client
conn_timeout	0.5	Connection timeout to external services
error_suppression_interval	60	Time in seconds that must elapse since the last error for a node to be considered no longer error limited
error_suppression_limit	10	Error count to consider a node error limited
allow_account_management	false	Whether account PUTs and DELETes are even callable

Table 4.18. proxy-server.conf Paste.deploy Options in the [filter:swauth] section

Option	Default	Description
use		Entry point for paste.deploy to use for auth, set to: egg:swauth#swauth to use the swauth downloaded from https://github.com/gholt/swauth
log_name	auth-server	Label used when logging
log_facility	LOG_LOCAL0	Syslog log facility
log_level	INFO	Log level
log_headers	True	If True, log headers in each request
reseller_prefix	AUTH	The naming scope for the auth service. Swift storage accounts and auth tokens will begin with this prefix.
auth_prefix	/auth/	The HTTP request path prefix for the auth service. Swift itself reserves anything beginning with the letter v.
default_swift_cluster	local#http://127.0.0.1:8080/v1	The default Swift cluster to place newly created accounts on; only needed if you are using Swauth for authentication.
token_life	86400	The number of seconds a token is valid.
node_timeout	10	Request timeout
super_admin_key	None	The key for the .super_admin account.

Considerations and Tuning

Fine-tuning your deployment and installation may take some time and effort. Here are some considerations for improving performance of an OpenStack Object Storage installation.

Memcached Considerations

Several of the Services rely on Memcached for caching certain types of lookups, such as auth tokens, and container/account existence. Swift does not do any caching of actual object data. Memcached should be able to run on any servers that have available RAM and

CPU. At Rackspace, we run Memcached on the proxy servers. The `memcache_servers` config option in the `proxy-server.conf` should contain all memcached servers.

System Time

Time may be relative but it is relatively important for Swift! Swift uses timestamps to determine which is the most recent version of an object. It is very important for the system time on each server in the cluster to be synced as closely as possible (more so for the proxy server, but in general it is a good idea for all the servers). At Rackspace, we use NTP with a local NTP server to ensure that the system times are as close as possible. This should also be monitored to ensure that the times do not vary too much.

General Service Tuning

Most services support either a worker or concurrency value in the settings. This allows the services to make effective use of the cores available. A good starting point to set the concurrency level for the proxy and storage services to 2 times the number of cores available. If more than one service is sharing a server, then some experimentation may be needed to find the best balance.

At Rackspace, our Proxy servers have dual quad core processors, giving us 8 cores. Our testing has shown 16 workers to be a pretty good balance when saturating a 10g network and gives good CPU utilization.

Our Storage servers all run together on the same servers. These servers have dual quad core processors, for 8 cores total. We run the Account, Container, and Object servers with 8 workers each. Most of the background jobs are run at a concurrency of 1, with the exception of the replicators which are run at a concurrency of 2.

The above configuration setting should be taken as suggestions and testing of configuration settings should be done to ensure best utilization of CPU, network connectivity, and disk I/O.

Filesystem Considerations

Swift is designed to be mostly filesystem agnostic—the only requirement being that the filesystem supports extended attributes (xattrs). After thorough testing with our use cases and hardware configurations, XFS was the best all-around choice. If you decide to use a filesystem other than XFS, we highly recommend thorough testing.

If you are using XFS, some settings that can dramatically impact performance. We recommend the following when creating the XFS partition:

```
mkfs.xfs -i size=1024 -f /dev/sda1
```

Setting the inode size is important, as XFS stores xattr data in the inode. If the metadata is too large to fit in the inode, a new extent is created, which can cause quite a performance problem. Upping the inode size to 1024 bytes provides enough room to write the default metadata, plus a little headroom. We do not recommend running Swift on RAID, but if you are using RAID it is also important to make sure that the proper `sunit` and `swidth` settings get set so that XFS can make most efficient use of the RAID array.

We also recommend the following example mount options when using XFS:

```
mount -t xfs -o noatime,nodiratime,nobarrier,logbufs=8 /dev/sda1 /  
srv/node/sda
```

For a standard swift install, all data drives are mounted directly under /srv/node (as can be seen in the above example of mounting /dev/sda1 as /srv/node/sda). If you choose to mount the drives in another directory, be sure to set the `devices` config option in all of the server configs to point to the correct directory.

General System Tuning

Rackspace currently runs Swift on Ubuntu Server 10.04, and the following changes have been found to be useful for our use cases.

The following settings should be in `/etc/sysctl.conf`:

```
# disable TIME_WAIT.. wait..  
net.ipv4.tcp_tw_recycle=1  
net.ipv4.tcp_tw_reuse=1  
  
# disable syn cookies  
net.ipv4.tcp_syncookies = 0  
  
# double amount of allowed conntrack  
net.ipv4.netfilter.ip_conntrack_max = 262144
```

To load the updated sysctl settings, run `sudo sysctl -p`

A note about changing the `TIME_WAIT` values. By default the OS will hold a port open for 60 seconds to ensure that any remaining packets can be received. During high usage, and with the number of connections that are created, it is easy to run out of ports. We can change this since we are in control of the network. If you are not in control of the network, or do not expect high loads, then you may not want to adjust those values.

Logging Considerations

Swift is set up to log directly to syslog. Every service can be configured with the `log_facility` option to set the syslog log facility destination. We recommend using `syslog-ng` to route the logs to specific log files locally on the server and also to remote log collecting servers.

Working with Rings

The rings determine where data should reside in the cluster. There is a separate ring for account databases, container databases, and individual objects but each ring works in the same way. These rings are externally managed, in that the server processes themselves do not modify the rings, they are instead given new rings modified by other tools.

The ring uses a configurable number of bits from a path's MD5 hash as a partition index that designates a device. The number of bits kept from the hash is known as the partition power, and 2 to the partition power indicates the partition count. Partitioning the full MD5 hash ring allows other parts of the cluster to work in batches of items at once which ends up either more efficient or at least less complex than working with each item separately or the entire cluster all at once.

Another configurable value is the replica count, which indicates how many of the partition->device assignments comprise a single ring. For a given partition number, each replica's device will not be in the same zone as any other replica's device. Zones can be used to group devices based on physical locations, power separations, network separations, or any other attribute that would lessen multiple replicas being unavailable at the same time.

Managing Rings with the Ring Builder

The rings are built and managed manually by a utility called the ring-builder. The ring-builder assigns partitions to devices and writes an optimized Python structure to a gzipped, pickled file on disk for shipping out to the servers. The server processes just check the modification time of the file occasionally and reload their in-memory copies of the ring structure as needed. Because of how the ring-builder manages changes to the ring, using a slightly older ring usually just means one of the three replicas for a subset of the partitions will be incorrect, which can be easily worked around.

The ring-builder also keeps its own builder file with the ring information and additional data required to build future rings. It is very important to keep multiple backup copies of these builder files. One option is to copy the builder files out to every server while copying the ring files themselves. Another is to upload the builder files into the cluster itself. Complete loss of a builder file will mean creating a new ring from scratch, nearly all partitions will end up assigned to different devices, and therefore nearly all data stored will have to be replicated to new locations. So, recovery from a builder file loss is possible, but data will definitely be unreachable for an extended time.

About the Ring Data Structure

The ring data structure consists of three top level fields: a list of devices in the cluster, a list of lists of device ids indicating partition to device assignments, and an integer indicating the number of bits to shift an MD5 hash to calculate the partition for the hash.

List of Devices in the Ring

The list of devices is known internally to the Ring class as `devs`. Each item in the list of devices is a dictionary with the following keys:

Table 4.19. List of Devices and Keys

Key	Type	Description
id	integer	The index into the list devices.
zone	integer	The zone the devices resides in.
weight	float	The relative weight of the device in comparison to other devices. This usually corresponds directly to the amount of disk space the device has compared to other devices. For

		instance a device with 1 terabyte of space might have a weight of 100.0 and another device with 2 terabytes of space might have a weight of 200.0. This weight can also be used to bring back into balance a device that has ended up with more or less data than desired over time. A good average weight of 100.0 allows flexibility in lowering the weight later if necessary.
ip	string	The IP address of the server containing the device.
port	int	The TCP port the listening server process uses that serves requests for the device.
device	string	The on disk name of the device on the server. For example: sdb1
meta	string	A general-use field for storing additional information for the device. This information isn't used directly by the server processes, but can be useful in debugging. For example, the date and time of installation and hardware manufacturer could be stored here.

Note: The list of devices may contain holes, or indexes set to None, for devices that have been removed from the cluster. Generally, device ids are not reused. Also, some devices may be temporarily disabled by setting their weight to 0.0.

Partition Assignment List

This is a list of array('l') of devices ids. The outermost list contains an array('l') for each replica. Each array('l') has a length equal to the partition count for the ring. Each integer in the array('l') is an index into the above list of devices. The partition list is known internally to the Ring class as `_replica2part2dev_id`.

So, to create a list of device dictionaries assigned to a partition, the Python code would look like: `devices = [self.devs[part2dev_id[partition]] for part2dev_id in self._replica2part2dev_id]`

array('l') is used for memory conservation as there may be millions of partitions.

Partition Shift Value

The partition shift value is known internally to the Ring class as `_part_shift`. This value used to shift an MD5 hash to calculate the partition on which the data for that hash should reside. Only the top four bytes of the hash is used in this process. For example, to compute the partition for the path `/account/container/object` the Python code might look like: `partition = unpack_from('>l', md5('/account/container/object').digest())[0]`
`>>self._part_shift`

Building the Ring

The initial building of the ring first calculates the number of partitions that should ideally be assigned to each device based the device's weight. For example, if the partition power of 20 the ring will have 1,048,576 partitions. If there are 1,000 devices of equal weight they will

each desire 1,048,576 partitions. The devices are then sorted by the number of partitions they desire and kept in order throughout the initialization process.

Then, the ring builder assigns each partition's replica to the device that desires the most partitions at that point, with the restriction that the device is not in the same zone as any other replica for that partition. Once assigned, the device's desired partition count is decremented and moved to its new sorted location in the list of devices and the process continues.

When building a new ring based on an old ring, the desired number of partitions each device wants is recalculated. Next the partitions to be reassigned are gathered up. Any removed devices have all their assigned partitions unassigned and added to the gathered list. Any devices that have more partitions than they now desire have random partitions unassigned from them and added to the gathered list. Lastly, the gathered partitions are then reassigned to devices using a similar method as in the initial assignment described above.

Whenever a partition has a replica reassigned, the time of the reassignment is recorded. This is taken into account when gathering partitions to reassign so that no partition is moved twice in a configurable amount of time. This configurable amount of time is known internally to the RingBuilder class as `min_part_hours`. This restriction is ignored for replicas of partitions on devices that have been removed, as removing a device only happens on device failure and there's no choice but to make a reassignment.

The above processes don't always perfectly rebalance a ring due to the random nature of gathering partitions for reassignment. To help reach a more balanced ring, the rebalance process is repeated until near perfect (less 1% off) or when the balance doesn't improve by at least 1% (indicating we probably can't get perfect balance due to wildly imbalanced zones or too many partitions recently moved).

History of the Ring Design

The ring code went through many iterations before arriving at what it is now and while it has been stable for a while now, the algorithm may be tweaked or perhaps even fundamentally changed if new ideas emerge. This section will try to describe the previous ideas attempted and attempt to explain why they were discarded.

A "live ring" option was considered where each server could maintain its own copy of the ring and the servers would use a gossip protocol to communicate the changes they made. This was discarded as too complex and error prone to code correctly in the project time span available. One bug could easily gossip bad data out to the entire cluster and be difficult to recover from. Having an externally managed ring simplifies the process, allows full validation of data before it's shipped out to the servers, and guarantees each server is using a ring from the same timeline. It also means that the servers themselves aren't spending a lot of resources maintaining rings.

A couple of "ring server" options were considered. One was where all ring lookups would be done by calling a service on a separate server or set of servers, but this was discarded due to the latency involved. Another was much like the current process but where servers could submit change requests to the ring server to have a new ring built and shipped back out to the servers. This was discarded due to project time constraints and because ring changes are currently infrequent enough that manual control was sufficient. However, lack of quick automatic ring changes did mean that other parts of the system had to be coded

to handle devices being unavailable for a period of hours until someone could manually update the ring.

The current ring process has each replica of a partition independently assigned to a device. A version of the ring that used a third of the memory was tried, where the first replica of a partition was directly assigned and the other two were determined by “walking” the ring until finding additional devices in other zones. This was discarded as control was lost as to how many replicas for a given partition moved at once. Keeping each replica independent allows for moving only one partition replica within a given time window (except due to device failures). Using the additional memory was deemed a good tradeoff for moving data around the cluster much less often.

Another ring design was tried where the partition to device assignments weren't stored in a big list in memory but instead each device was assigned a set of hashes, or anchors. The partition would be determined from the data item's hash and the nearest device anchors would determine where the replicas should be stored. However, to get reasonable distribution of data each device had to have a lot of anchors and walking through those anchors to find replicas started to add up. In the end, the memory savings wasn't that great and more processing power was used, so the idea was discarded.

A completely non-partitioned ring was also tried but discarded as the partitioning helps many other parts of the system, especially replication. Replication can be attempted and retried in a partition batch with the other replicas rather than each data item independently attempted and retried. Hashes of directory structures can be calculated and compared with other replicas to reduce directory walking and network traffic.

Partitioning and independently assigning partition replicas also allowed for the best balanced cluster. The best of the other strategies tended to give $\pm 10\%$ variance on device balance with devices of equal weight and $\pm 15\%$ with devices of varying weights. The current strategy allows us to get $\pm 3\%$ and $\pm 8\%$ respectively.

Various hashing algorithms were tried. SHA offers better security, but the ring doesn't need to be cryptographically secure and SHA is slower. Murmur was much faster, but MD5 was built-in and hash computation is a small percentage of the overall request handling time. In all, once it was decided the servers wouldn't be maintaining the rings themselves anyway and only doing hash lookups, MD5 was chosen for its general availability, good distribution, and adequate speed.

The Account Reaper

The Account Reaper removes data from deleted accounts in the background.

An account is marked for deletion by a reseller through the services server's `remove_storage_account` XMLRPC call. This simply puts the value `DELETED` into the status column of the `account_stat` table in the account database (and replicas), indicating the data for the account should be deleted later. There is no set retention time and no undelete; it is assumed the reseller will implement such features and only call `remove_storage_account` once it is truly desired the account's data be removed.

The account reaper runs on each account server and scans the server occasionally for account databases marked for deletion. It will only trigger on accounts that server is the primary node for, so that multiple account servers aren't all trying to do the same work at

the same time. Using multiple servers to delete one account might improve deletion speed, but requires coordination so they aren't duplicating effort. Speed really isn't as much of a concern with data deletion and large accounts aren't deleted that often.

The deletion process for an account itself is pretty straightforward. For each container in the account, each object is deleted and then the container is deleted. Any deletion requests that fail won't stop the overall process, but will cause the overall process to fail eventually (for example, if an object delete times out, the container won't be able to be deleted later and therefore the account won't be deleted either). The overall process continues even on a failure so that it doesn't get hung up reclaiming cluster space because of one troublesome spot. The account reaper will keep trying to delete an account until it eventually becomes empty, at which point the database reclaim process within the db_replicator will eventually remove the database files.

Account Reaper Background and History

At first, a simple approach of deleting an account through completely external calls was considered as it required no changes to the system. All data would simply be deleted in the same way the actual user would, through the public ReST API. However, the downside was that it would use proxy resources and log everything when it didn't really need to. Also, it would likely need a dedicated server or two, just for issuing the delete requests.

A completely bottom-up approach was also considered, where the object and container servers would occasionally scan the data they held and check if the account was deleted, removing the data if so. The upside was the speed of reclamation with no impact on the proxies or logging, but the downside was that nearly 100% of the scanning would result in no action creating a lot of I/O load for no reason.

A more container server centric approach was also considered, where the account server would mark all the containers for deletion and the container servers would delete the objects in each container and then themselves. This has the benefit of still speedy reclamation for accounts with a lot of containers, but has the downside of a pretty big load spike. The process could be slowed down to alleviate the load spike possibility, but then the benefit of speedy reclamation is lost and what's left is just a more complex process. Also, scanning all the containers for those marked for deletion when the majority wouldn't be seemed wasteful. The db_replicator could do this work while performing its replication scan, but it would have to spawn and track deletion processes which seemed needlessly complex.

In the end, an account server centric approach seemed best, as described above.

Replication

Since each replica in OpenStack Object Storage functions independently, and clients generally require only a simple majority of nodes responding to consider an operation successful, transient failures like network partitions can quickly cause replicas to diverge. These differences are eventually reconciled by asynchronous, peer-to-peer replicator processes. The replicator processes traverse their local filesystems, concurrently performing operations in a manner that balances load across physical disks.

Replication uses a push model, with records and files generally only being copied from local to remote replicas. This is important because data on the node may not belong there (as

in the case of handoffs and ring changes), and a replicator can't know what data exists elsewhere in the cluster that it should pull in. It's the duty of any node that contains data to ensure that data gets to where it belongs. Replica placement is handled by the ring.

Every deleted record or file in the system is marked by a tombstone, so that deletions can be replicated alongside creations. These tombstones are cleaned up by the replication process after a period of time referred to as the consistency window, which is related to replication duration and how long transient failures can remove a node from the cluster. Tombstone cleanup must be tied to replication to reach replica convergence.

If a replicator detects that a remote drive is has failed, it will use the ring's "get_more_nodes" interface to choose an alternate node to synchronize with. The replicator can generally maintain desired levels of replication in the face of hardware failures, though some replicas may not be in an immediately usable location.

Replication is an area of active development, and likely rife with potential improvements to speed and correctness.

There are two major classes of replicator - the db replicator, which replicates accounts and containers, and the object replicator, which replicates object data.

Database Replication

The first step performed by db replication is a low-cost hash comparison to find out whether or not two replicas already match. Under normal operation, this check is able to verify that most databases in the system are already synchronized very quickly. If the hashes differ, the replicator brings the databases in sync by sharing records added since the last sync point.

This sync point is a high water mark noting the last record at which two databases were known to be in sync, and is stored in each database as a tuple of the remote database id and record id. Database ids are unique amongst all replicas of the database, and record ids are monotonically increasing integers. After all new records have been pushed to the remote database, the entire sync table of the local database is pushed, so the remote database knows it's now in sync with everyone the local database has previously synchronized with.

If a replica is found to be missing entirely, the whole local database file is transmitted to the peer using rsync(1) and vested with a new unique id.

In practice, DB replication can process hundreds of databases per concurrency setting per second (up to the number of available CPUs or disks) and is bound by the number of DB transactions that must be performed.

Object Replication

The initial implementation of object replication simply performed an rsync to push data from a local partition to all remote servers it was expected to exist on. While this performed adequately at small scale, replication times skyrocketed once directory structures could no longer be held in RAM. We now use a modification of this scheme in which a hash of the contents for each suffix directory is saved to a per-partition hashes file. The hash for a suffix directory is invalidated when the contents of that suffix directory are modified.

The object replication process reads in these hash files, calculating any invalidated hashes. It then transmits the hashes to each remote server that should hold the partition, and only suffix directories with differing hashes on the remote server are rsynced. After pushing files to the remote server, the replication process notifies it to recalculate hashes for the rsynced suffix directories.

Performance of object replication is generally bound by the number of uncached directories it has to traverse, usually as a result of invalidated suffix directory hashes. Using write volume and partition counts from our running systems, it was designed so that around 2% of the hash space on a normal node will be invalidated per day, which has experimentally given us acceptable replication speeds.

Managing Large Objects (Greater than 5 GB)

OpenStack Object Storage has a limit on the size of a single uploaded object; by default this is 5GB. However, the download size of a single object is virtually unlimited with the concept of segmentation. Segments of the larger object are uploaded and a special manifest file is created that, when downloaded, sends all the segments concatenated as a single object. This also offers much greater upload speed with the possibility of parallel uploads of the segments.

Using swift to Manage Segmented Objects

The quickest way to try out this feature is use the included swift OpenStack Object Storage client tool. You can use the `-S` option to specify the segment size to use when splitting a large file. For example:

```
swift upload test_container -S 1073741824 large_file
```

This would split the `large_file` into 1G segments and begin uploading those segments in parallel. Once all the segments have been uploaded, swift will then create the manifest file so the segments can be downloaded as one.

So now, the following `st` command would download the entire large object:

```
swift download test_container large_file
```

The swift CLI uses a strict convention for its segmented object support. In the above example it will upload all the segments into a second container named `test_container_segments`. These segments will have names like `large_file/1290206778.25/21474836480/00000000`, `large_file/1290206778.25/21474836480/00000001`, etc.

The main benefit for using a separate container is that the main container listings will not be polluted with all the segment names. The reason for using the segment name format of `<name>/<timestamp>/<size>/<segment>` is so that an upload of a new file with the same name won't overwrite the contents of the first until the last moment when the manifest file is updated.

The swift CLI will manage these segment files for you, deleting old segments on deletes and overwrites, etc. You can override this behavior with the `--leave-segments` option if desired; this is useful if you want to have multiple versions of the same large object available.

Direct API Management of Large Objects

You can also work with the segments and manifests directly with HTTP requests instead of having swift do that for you. You can just upload the segments like you would any other object and the manifest is just a zero-byte file with an extra X-Object-Manifest header.

All the object segments need to be in the same container, have a common object name prefix, and their names sort in the order they should be concatenated. They don't have to be in the same container as the manifest file will be, which is useful to keep container listings clean as explained above with st.

The manifest file is simply a zero-byte file with the extra X-Object-Manifest:<container>/<prefix> header, where <container> is the container the object segments are in and <prefix> is the common prefix for all the segments.

It is best to upload all the segments first and then create or update the manifest. In this way, the full object won't be available for downloading until the upload is complete. Also, you can upload a new set of segments to a second location and then update the manifest to point to this new location. During the upload of the new segments, the original manifest will still be available to download the first set of segments.

Here's an example using curl with tiny 1-byte segments:

```
# First, upload the segments
curl -X PUT -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token>' \
  http://<storage_url>/container/myobject/1 -data-binary '1'
curl -X PUT -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token>' \
  http://<storage_url>/container/myobject/2 -data-binary '2'
curl -X PUT -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token>' \
  http://<storage_url>/container/myobject/3 -data-binary '3'

# Next, create the manifest file
curl -X PUT -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token>' \
  -H 'X-Object-Manifest: container/myobject/' \
  http://<storage_url>/container/myobject -data-binary ""

# And now we can download the segments as a single object
curl -H 'X-Auth-Token: <token>' \
  http://<storage_url>/container/myobject
```

Additional Notes on Large Objects

- With a GET or HEAD of a manifest file, the X-Object-Manifest: <container>/<prefix> header will be returned with the concatenated object so you can tell where it's getting its segments from.
- The response's Content-Length for a GET or HEAD on the manifest file will be the sum of all the segments in the <container>/<prefix> listing, dynamically. So, uploading additional segments after the manifest is created will cause the concatenated object to be that much larger; there's no need to recreate the manifest file.

- The response's Content-Type for a GET or HEAD on the manifest will be the same as the Content-Type set during the PUT request that created the manifest. You can easily change the Content-Type by reissuing the PUT.
- The response's ETag for a GET or HEAD on the manifest file will be the MD5 sum of the concatenated string of ETags for each of the segments in the <container>/<prefix> listing, dynamically. Usually in OpenStack Object Storage the ETag is the MD5 sum of the contents of the object, and that holds true for each segment independently. But, it's not feasible to generate such an ETag for the manifest itself, so this method was chosen to at least offer change detection.

Large Object Storage History and Background

Large object support has gone through various iterations before settling on this implementation.

The primary factor driving the limitation of object size in OpenStack Object Storage is maintaining balance among the partitions of the ring. To maintain an even dispersion of disk usage throughout the cluster the obvious storage pattern was to simply split larger objects into smaller segments, which could then be glued together during a read.

Before the introduction of large object support some applications were already splitting their uploads into segments and re-assembling them on the client side after retrieving the individual pieces. This design allowed the client to support backup and archiving of large data sets, but was also frequently employed to improve performance or reduce errors due to network interruption. The major disadvantage of this method is that knowledge of the original partitioning scheme is required to properly reassemble the object, which is not practical for some use cases, such as CDN origination.

In order to eliminate any barrier to entry for clients wanting to store objects larger than 5GB, initially we also prototyped fully transparent support for large object uploads. A fully transparent implementation would support a larger max size by automatically splitting objects into segments during upload within the proxy without any changes to the client API. All segments were completely hidden from the client API.

This solution introduced a number of challenging failure conditions into the cluster, wouldn't provide the client with any option to do parallel uploads, and had no basis for a resume feature. The transparent implementation was deemed just too complex for the benefit.

The current "user manifest" design was chosen in order to provide a transparent download of large objects to the client and still provide the uploading client a clean API to support segmented uploads.

Alternative "explicit" user manifest options were discussed which would have required a pre-defined format for listing the segments to "finalize" the segmented upload. While this may offer some potential advantages, it was decided that pushing an added burden onto the client which could potentially limit adoption should be avoided in favor of a simpler "API" (essentially just the format of the 'X-Object-Manifest' header).

During development it was noted that this "implicit" user manifest approach which is based on the path prefix can be potentially affected by the eventual consistency window of the container listings, which could theoretically cause a GET on the manifest object to return an

invalid whole object for that short term. In reality you're unlikely to encounter this scenario unless you're running very high concurrency uploads against a small testing environment which isn't running the object-updaters or container-replicators.

Like all of OpenStack Object Storage, Large Object Support is living feature which will continue to improve and may change over time.

Throttling Resources by Setting Rate Limits

Rate limiting in OpenStack Object Storage is implemented as a pluggable middleware that you configure on the proxy server. Rate limiting is performed on requests that result in database writes to the account and container sqlite dbs. It uses memcached and is dependent on the proxy servers having highly synchronized time. The rate limits are limited by the accuracy of the proxy server clocks.

Configuration for Rate Limiting

All configuration is optional. If no account or container limits are provided there will be no rate limiting. Configuration available:

Table 4.20. Configuration options for rate limiting in proxy-server.conf file

Option	Default	Description
clock_accuracy	1000	Represents how accurate the proxy servers' system clocks are with each other. 1000 means that all the proxies' clock are accurate to each other within 1 millisecond. No ratelimit should be higher than the clock accuracy.
max_sleep_time_seconds	60	App will immediately return a 498 response if the necessary sleep time ever exceeds the given max_sleep_time_seconds.
log_sleep_time_seconds	0	To allow visibility into rate limiting set this value > 0 and all sleeps greater than the number will be logged.
account_ratelimit	0	If set, will limit all requests to /account_name and PUTs to /account_name/container_name. Number is in requests per second
account_whitelist	"	Comma separated lists of account names that will not be rate limited.
account_blacklist	"	Comma separated lists of account names that will not be allowed. Returns a 497 response.
container_ratelimit_size	"	When set with container_limit_x = r: for containers of size x, limit requests per second to r. Will limit GET and HEAD requests to /account_name/container_name and PUTs and DELETEs to /account_name/container_name/object_name

The container rate limits are linearly interpolated from the values given. A sample container rate limiting could be:

```
container_ratelimit_100 = 100
```

```
container_ratelimit_200 = 50
```

```
container_ratelimit_500 = 20
```

This would result in

Table 4.21. Values for Rate Limiting with Sample Configuration Settings

Container Size	Rate Limit
0-99	No limiting
100	100
150	75
500	20
1000	20

Configuring Object Storage with the S3 API

The Swift3 middleware emulates the S3 REST API on top of Object Storage.

The following operations are currently supported:

- GET Service
- DELETE Bucket
- GET Bucket (List Objects)
- PUT Bucket
- DELETE Object
- GET Object
- HEAD Object
- PUT Object
- PUT Object (Copy)

To add this middleware to your configuration, add the swift3 middleware in front of the auth middleware, and before any other middleware that look at swift requests (like rate limiting).

Ensure that your proxy-server.conf file contains swift3 in the pipeline and the [filter:swift3] section, as shown below:

```
[pipeline:main]
    pipeline = healthcheck cache swift3 swauth proxy-server

[filter:swift3]
    use = egg:swift#swift3
```

Next, configure the tool that you use to connect to the S3 API. For S3curl, for example, you'll need to add your host IP information by adding your host IP to the @endpoints array (line 33 in s3curl.pl):

```
my @endpoints = ( '1.2.3.4' );
```

Now you can send commands to the endpoint, such as:

```
./s3curl.pl - 'myacc:myuser' -key mypw -get - -s -v  
http://1.2.3.4:8080
```

To set up your client, the access key will be the concatenation of the account and user strings that should look like test:tester, and the secret access key is the account password. The host should also point to the Swift storage node's hostname. It also will have to use the old-style calling format, and not the hostname-based container format. Here is an example client setup using the Python boto library on a locally installed all-in-one Swift installation.

```
connection = boto.s3.Connection(  
    aws_access_key_id='test:tester',  
    aws_secret_access_key='testing',  
    port=8080,  
    host='127.0.0.1',  
    is_secure=False,  
    calling_format=boto.s3.connection.OrdinaryCallingFormat())
```

Managing OpenStack Object Storage with CLI Swift

In the Object Store (swift) project there is a tool that can perform a variety of tasks on your storage cluster named swift. This client utility can be used for adhoc processing, to gather statistics, list items, update metadata, upload, download and delete files. It is based on the native swift client library client.py. Incorporating client.py into swift provides many benefits such as seamlessly re-authorizing if the current token expires in the middle of processing, retrying operations up to five times and a processing concurrency of 10. All of these things help make the swift tool robust and great for operational use.

Swift CLI Basics

The command line usage for swift, the CLI tool is:

```
swift (command) [options] [args]
```

Here are the available commands for swift.

stat [container] [object]

Displays information for the account, container, or object depending on the args given (if any).

list [options] [container]

Lists the containers for the account or the objects for a container. -p or -prefix is an option that will only list items beginning with that prefix. -d or -delimiter is option (for container listings only) that will roll up items with the given delimiter, or character that can act as a nested directory organizer.

upload [options] container file_or_directory [file_or_directory] [...]

Uploads to the given container the files and directories specified by the remaining args. -c or -changed is an option that will only upload files that have changed since the last upload.

post [options] [container] [object]

Updates meta information for the account, container, or object depending on the args given. If the container is not found, it will be created automatically; but this is not true for accounts and objects. Containers also allow the -r (or -read-acl) and -w (or -write-acl) options. The -m or -meta option is allowed on all and used to define the user meta data items to set in the form Name:Value. This option can be repeated.

Example: post -m Color:Blue -m Size:Large

download --all OR download container [object] [object] ...

Downloads everything in the account (with --all), or everything in a container, or a list of objects depending on the args given. For a single object download, you may use the -o [—output] (filename) option to redirect the output to a specific file or if "-" then just redirect to stdout.

delete --all OR delete container [object] [object] ...

Deletes everything in the account (with --all), or everything in a container, or a list of objects depending on the args given.

Example: swift -A https://auth.api.rackspacecloud.com/v1.0 -U user -K key stat

Options for swift

- version show program's version number and exit
- h, -help show this help message and exit
- s, -snet Use SERVICENET internal network
- v, -verbose Print more info
- q, -quiet Suppress status output
- A AUTH, -auth=AUTH URL for obtaining an auth token
- U USER, -user=USER User name for obtaining an auth token

-K KEY, -key=KEY Key for obtaining an auth token

Analyzing Log Files with Swift CLI

When you want quick, command-line answers to questions about logs, you can use swift with the -o or -output option. The -o —output option can only be used with a single object download to redirect the data stream to either a different file name or to STDOUT (-). The ability to redirect the output to STDOUT allows you to pipe “|” data without saving it to disk first. One common use case is being able to do some quick log file analysis. First let’s use swift to setup some data for the examples. The “logtest” directory contains four log files with the following line format.

files:

```
2010-11-16-21_access.log
2010-11-16-22_access.log
2010-11-15-21_access.log
2010-11-15-22_access.log
```

log lines:

```
Nov 15 21:53:52 lucid64 proxy-server - 127.0.0.1 15/Nov/2010/22/53/52 DELETE /v1/AUTH_cd4f57
```

The swift tool can easily upload the four log files into a container named “logtest”:

```
$ cd logs
$ swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
testing upload logtest *.log
2010-11-16-21_access.log
2010-11-16-22_access.log
2010-11-15-21_access.log
2010-11-15-22_access.log

get statistics on the account:
$ swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
testing -q stat
Account: AUTH_cd4f57824deb4248a533f2c28bf156d3
Containers: 1
Objects: 4
Bytes: 5888268

get statistics on the container:
$ swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
testing stat logtest
Account: AUTH_cd4f57824deb4248a533f2c28bf156d3
Container: logtest
Objects: 4
Bytes: 5864468
Read ACL:
Write ACL:

list all the objects in the container:
$ swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
```



```
testing list logtest
2010-11-15-21_access.log
2010-11-15-22_access.log
2010-11-16-21_access.log
2010-11-16-22_access.log
```

These next three examples use the `-o` —output option with `(-)` to help answer questions about the uploaded log files. The `swift` command will download an object, stream it to `awk` to determine the breakdown of requests by return code for everything during 2200 on November 16th, 2010. Based on the log line format column 9 is the type of request and column 12 is the return code. After `awk` processes the data stream it is piped to `sort` and then `uniq -c` to sum up the number of occurrences for each combination of request type and return code.

```
$ swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
    testing download -o - logtest 2010-11-16-22_access.log \
    | awk '{ print $9"-"$12}' | sort | uniq -c
```

```
805 DELETE-204
12 DELETE-404
2 DELETE-409
723 GET-200
142 GET-204
74 GET-206
80 GET-304
34 GET-401
5 GET-403
18 GET-404
166 GET-412
2 GET-416
50 HEAD-200
17 HEAD-204
20 HEAD-401
8 HEAD-404
30 POST-202
25 POST-204
22 POST-400
6 POST-404
842 PUT-201
2 PUT-202
32 PUT-400
4 PUT-403
4 PUT-404
2 PUT-411
6 PUT-412
6 PUT-413
2 PUT-422
8 PUT-499
```

This example uses a `bash` for loop with `awk`, `swift` with its `-o` —output option with a hyphen `(-)` to find out how many `PUT` requests are in each log file. First create a list of objects by

running swift with the list command on the “logtest” container; then for each item in the list run swift with download -o - then pipe the output into grep to filter the put requests and finally into wc -l to count the lines.

```
$ for f in `swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K testing list logtest` ; \
do echo -ne "PUTS - " ; swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K \
testing download -o - logtest $f | grep PUT | wc -l ; done

2010-11-15-21_access.log - PUTS - 402
2010-11-15-22_access.log - PUTS - 1091
2010-11-16-21_access.log - PUTS - 892
2010-11-16-22_access.log - PUTS - 910
```

By adding the -p —prefix option a prefix query is performed on the list to return only the object names that begin with a specific string. Let’s determine out how many PUT requests are in each object with a name beginning with “2010-11-15”. First create a list of objects by running swift with the list command on the “logtest” container with the prefix option -p 2010-11-15. Then on each of item(s) returned run swift with the download -o - then pipe the output to grep and wc as in the previous example. The echo command is added to display the object name.

```
$ for f in `swift -A http://swift-auth.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K testing list \
-p 2010-11-15 logtest` ; do echo -ne "$f - PUTS - " ; \
swift -A http://127.0.0.1:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K testing \
download -o - logtest $f | grep PUT | wc -l ; done

2010-11-15-21_access.log - PUTS - 402
2010-11-15-22_access.log - PUTS - 910
```

The swift utility is simple, scalable, flexible and provides useful solutions all of which are core principles of cloud computing; with the -o output option being just one of its many features.

5. OpenStack Object Storage Tutorials

We want people to use OpenStack for practical problem solving, and the increasing size and density of web content makes for a great use-case for object storage. These tutorials show you how to use your OpenStack Object Storage installation for practical purposes, and it assumes Object Storage is already installed.

Storing Large Photos or Videos on the Cloud

In this OpenStack tutorial, we'll walk through using an Object Storage installation to back up all your photos or videos. As the sensors on consumer-grade and prosumer grade cameras generate more and more megapixels, we all need a place to back our files to and know they are safe.

We'll go through this tutorial in parts:

- Setting up secure access to Object Storage.
- Configuring Cyberduck for connecting to OpenStack Object Storage.
- Copying files to the cloud.

Part I: Setting Up Secure Access

In this part, we'll get the proxy server running with SSL on the Object Storage installation. It's a requirement for using Cyberduck as a client interface to Object Storage.

You will need a key and certificate to do this, which we can create as a self-signed for the tutorial since we can do the extra steps to have Cyberduck accept it. Creating a self-signed cert can usually be done with these commands on the proxy server:

```
cd /etc/swift
openssl req -new -x509 -nodes -out cert.crt -keyout cert.key
```

Ensure these generated files are in `/etc/swift/cert.crt` and `/etc/swift/cert.key`.

You also should configure your iptables to enable https traffic. Here's an example setup that works.

```
Chain INPUT (policy ACCEPT 0 packets, 0 bytes)
pkts bytes target      prot opt in      out     source
destination
76774 1543M ACCEPT      all  --  lo      any     localhost    anywhere
416K  537M ACCEPT      all  --  any     any     anywhere     anywhere
state RELATED,ESTABLISHED
106  6682 ACCEPT      tcp  --  any     any     anywhere     anywhere
tcp dpt:https
13   760 ACCEPT      tcp  --  any     any     anywhere     anywhere
tcp dpt:ssh
3   124 ACCEPT      icmp --  any     any     anywhere     anywhere
icmp echo-request
```

```
782 38880 DROP          all  --  any    any    anywhere    anywhere

Chain FORWARD (policy ACCEPT 0 packets, 0 bytes)
 pkts bytes target    prot opt in      out     source
 destination
    0    0 DROP          all  --  any    any    anywhere    anywhere

Chain OUTPUT (policy ACCEPT 397K packets, 1561M bytes)
 pkts bytes target    prot opt in      out     source
 destination
```

If you don't have access to the Object Storage installation to configure these settings, ask your service provider to set up secure access for you.

Then, edit your `proxy-server.conf` file to include the following in the [DEFAULT] sections.

```
[DEFAULT]
bind_port = 443
cert_file = /etc/swift/cert.crt
key_file = /etc/swift/cert.key
```

Also, make sure you use `https`: for all references to the URL for the server in the `.conf` files as needed.

Verify that you can connect using the Public URL to Object Storage by using the "swift" tool:

```
swift -A https://yourswiftinstall.com:11000/v1.0 -U test:tester -K testing
stat
```

Okay, you've created the access that Cyberduck expects for your Object Storage installation. Let's start configuring the Cyberduck side of things.

Part II: Configuring Cyberduck

Next, you want to change the context of the URL from the default `/v1.0` by opening a Terminal window and using `defaults write ch.sudo.cyberduck cf.authentication.context <string>` to change the URL. Substitute `/auth/v1.0` for the `<string>` (Mac OSX).

Cyberduck 3.8.1 includes a drop-down for selecting Swift (OpenStack Object Storage) when opening a connection. Launch Cyberduck, and then click the New Connection toolbar button or choose `File > Open Connection`.

Select Swift (OpenStack Object Storage). Enter the following values:

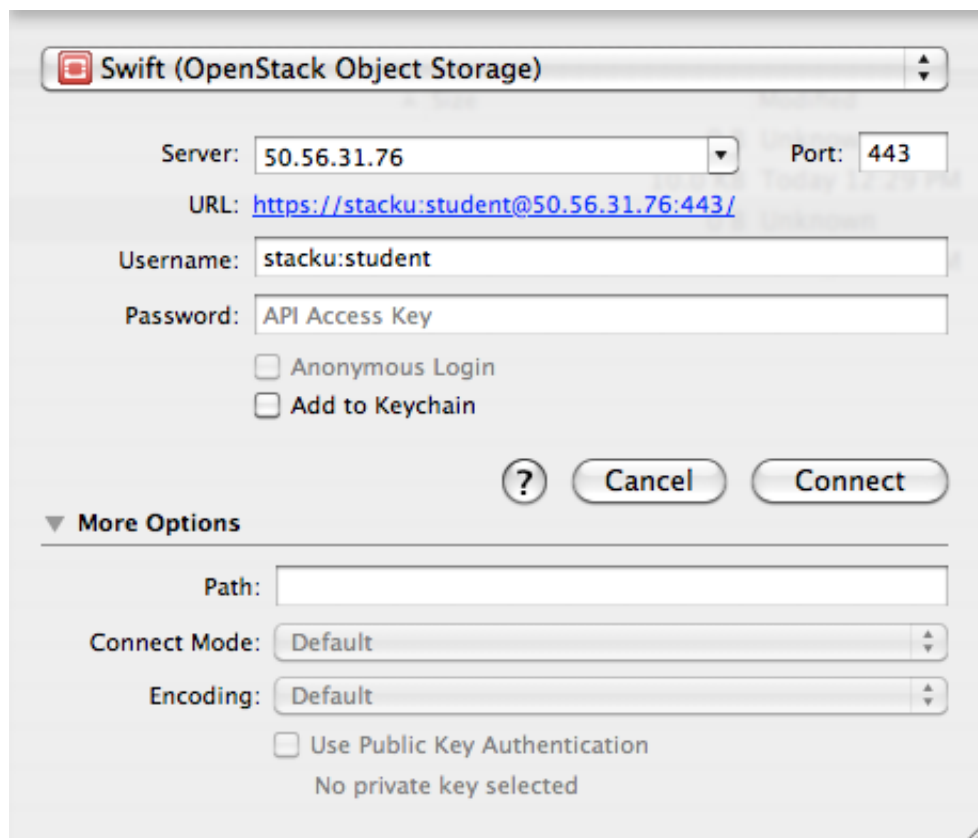
Server: Enter the URL of the installed Swift server.

Port: Enter 443 since you are connecting via `https`.

Username: Enter the account name followed by a colon and then the user name, for example `test:tester`.

Password: Enter the password for the account and user name entered above.

Figure 5.1. Example Cyberduck Swift Connection



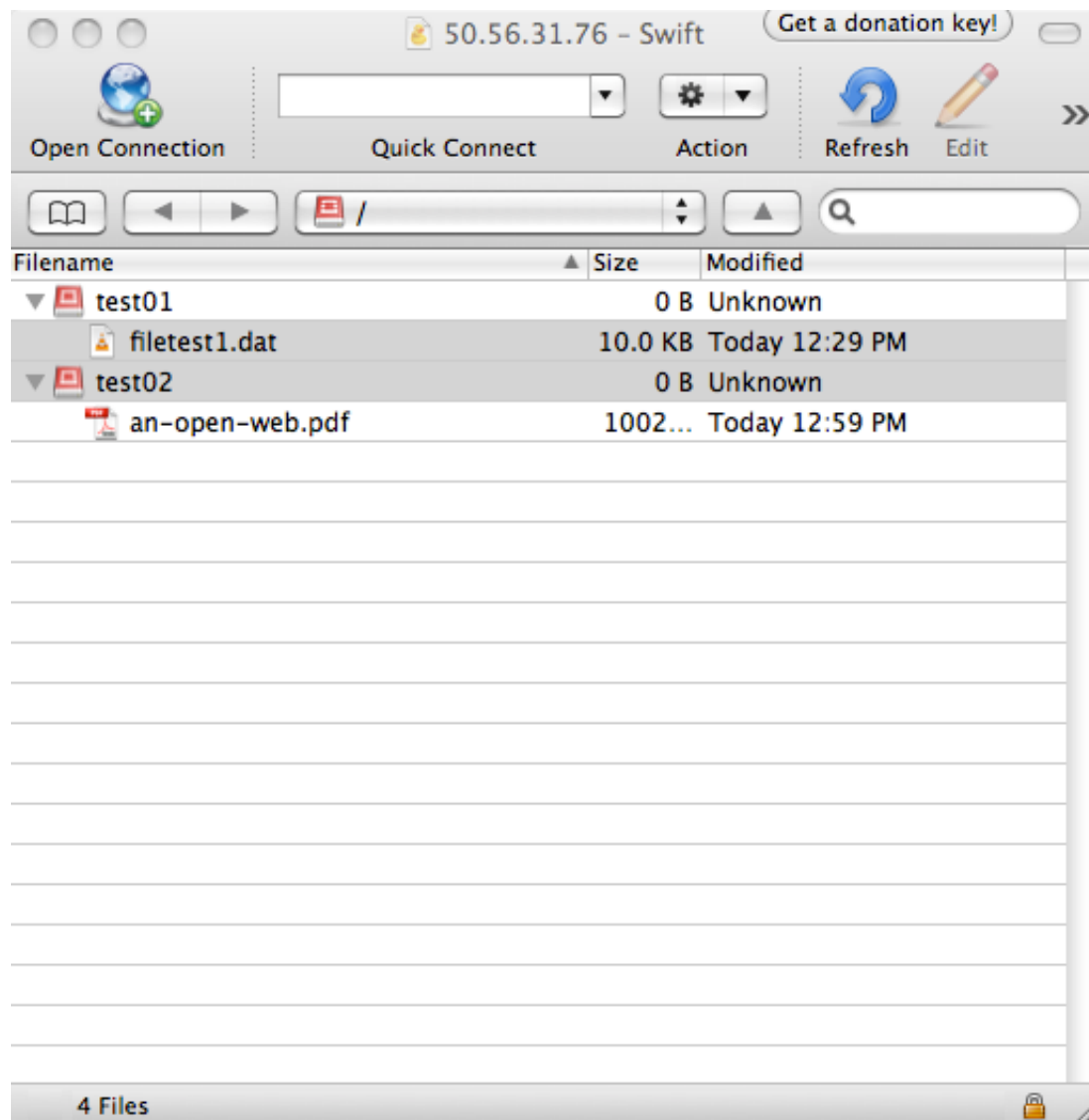
The image shows a dialog box titled "Swift (OpenStack Object Storage)". It contains the following fields and options:

- Server:** A text field with "50.56.31.76" and a dropdown arrow.
- Port:** A text field with "443".
- URL:** A text field showing the generated URL: <https://stacku:student@50.56.31.76:443/>.
- Username:** A text field with "stacku:student".
- Password:** A text field with "API Access Key".
- ☐ Anonymous Login
- ☐ Add to Keychain
- Buttons: "?", "Cancel", and "Connect".
- More Options:** A section with a dropdown arrow containing:
 - Path:** An empty text field.
 - Connect Mode:** A dropdown menu with "Default" selected.
 - Encoding:** A dropdown menu with "Default" selected.
 - ☐ Use Public Key Authentication
 - No private key selected

Part III: Creating Containers (Folders) and Uploading Files

Now you want to create containers to hold your files. Without containers, Object Storage doesn't know where to put the files. In the Action menu, choose New Folder and name the folder.

Next you can drag and drop files into the created folder or select File > Upload to select files to upload to the OpenStack Object Storage service.

Figure 5.2. Example Cyberduck Swift Showing Uploads

Et voila! You can back up terabytes of data if you just have the space and the data. That's a lot of pictures or video, so get snapping and rolling!

6. Support and Troubleshooting

Online resources aid in supporting OpenStack and the community members are willing and able to answer questions and help with bug suspicions. We are constantly improving and adding to the main features of OpenStack, but if you have any problems, do not hesitate to ask. Here are some ideas for supporting OpenStack and troubleshooting your existing installations.

Community Support

Here are some places you can locate others who want to help.

The Launchpad Answers area

During setup or testing, you may have questions about how to do something, or end up in a situation where you can't seem to get a feature to work correctly. One place to look for help is the Answers section on Launchpad. Launchpad is the "home" for the project code and its developers and thus is a natural place to ask about the project. When visiting the Answers section, it is usually good to at least scan over recently asked questions to see if your question has already been answered. If that is not the case, then proceed to adding a new question. Be sure you give a clear, concise summary in the title and provide as much detail as possible in the description. Paste in your command output or stack traces, link to screenshots, and so on. The Launchpad Answers areas are available here - OpenStack Compute: <https://answers.launchpad.net/nova> OpenStack Object Storage: <https://answers.launchpad.net/swift>.

OpenStack mailing list

Posting your question or scenario to the OpenStack mailing list is a great way to get answers and insights. You can learn from and help others who may have the same scenario as you. Go to <https://launchpad.net/~openstack> and click "Subscribe to mailing list" or view the archives at <https://lists.launchpad.net/openstack/>.

The OpenStack Wiki search

The OpenStack wiki contains content on a broad range of topics, but some of it sits a bit below the surface. Fortunately, the wiki search feature is very powerful in that it can do both searches by title and by content. If you are searching for specific information, say about "networking" or "api" for nova, you can find lots of content using the search feature. More is being added all the time, so be sure to check back often. You can find the search box in the upper right hand corner of any OpenStack wiki page.

The Launchpad Bugs area

So you think you've found a bug. That's great! Seriously, it is. The OpenStack community values your setup and testing efforts and wants your feedback. To log a bug you must have a Launchpad account, so sign up at <https://launchpad.net/+login> if you do not already

have a Launchpad ID. You can view existing bugs and report your bug in the Launchpad Bugs area. It is suggested that you first use the search facility to see if the bug you found has already been reported (or even better, already fixed). If it still seems like your bug is new or unreported then it is time to fill out a bug report.

Some tips:

- Give a clear, concise summary!
- Provide as much detail as possible in the description. Paste in your command output or stack traces, link to screenshots, etc.
- Be sure to include what version of the software you are using. This is especially critical if you are using a development branch eg. "Austin release" vs lp:nova rev.396.
- Any deployment specific info is helpful as well. eg. Ubuntu 10.04, multi-node install.

The Launchpad Bugs areas are available here - OpenStack Compute: <https://bugs.launchpad.net/nova> OpenStack Object Storage: <https://bugs.launchpad.net/swift>

The OpenStack IRC channel

The OpenStack community lives and breathes in the #openstack IRC channel on the Freenode network. You can come by to hang out, ask questions, or get immediate feedback for urgent and pressing issues. To get into the IRC channel you need to install an IRC client or use a browser-based client by going to <http://webchat.freenode.net/>. You can also use Colloquy (Mac OS X, <http://colloquy.info/>) or mIRC (Windows, <http://www.mirc.com/>) or XChat (Linux). When you are in the IRC channel and want to share code or command output, the generally accepted method is to use a Paste Bin, the OpenStack project has one at <http://paste.openstack.org>. Just paste your longer amounts of text or logs in the web form and you get a URL you can then paste into the channel. The OpenStack IRC channel is: #openstack on irc.freenode.net.

Troubleshooting OpenStack Object Storage

For OpenStack Object Storage, everything is logged in /var/log/syslog (or messages on some distros). Several settings enable further customization of logging, such as log_name, log_facility, and log_level, within the object server configuration files.

Handling Drive Failure

In the event that a drive has failed, the first step is to make sure the drive is unmounted. This will make it easier for OpenStack Object Storage to work around the failure until it has been resolved. If the drive is going to be replaced immediately, then it is just best to replace the drive, format it, remount it, and let replication fill it up.

If the drive can't be replaced immediately, then it is best to leave it unmounted, and remove the drive from the ring. This will allow all the replicas that were on that drive to be replicated elsewhere until the drive is replaced. Once the drive is replaced, it can be re-added to the ring.

Handling Server Failure

If a server is having hardware issues, it is a good idea to make sure the OpenStack Object Storage services are not running. This will allow OpenStack Object Storage to work around the failure while you troubleshoot.

If the server just needs a reboot, or a small amount of work that should only last a couple of hours, then it is probably best to let OpenStack Object Storage work around the failure and get the machine fixed and back online. When the machine comes back online, replication will make sure that anything that is missing during the downtime will get updated.

If the server has more serious issues, then it is probably best to remove all of the server's devices from the ring. Once the server has been repaired and is back online, the server's devices can be added back into the ring. It is important that the devices are reformatted before putting them back into the ring as it is likely to be responsible for a different set of partitions than before.

Detecting Failed Drives

It has been our experience that when a drive is about to fail, error messages will spew into `/var/log/kern.log`. There is a script called `swift-drive-audit` that can be run via cron to watch for bad drives. If errors are detected, it will unmount the bad drive, so that OpenStack Object Storage can work around it. The script takes a configuration file with the following settings:

```
[drive-audit]
Option Default Description
log_facility LOG_LOCAL0 Syslog log facility
log_level INFO Log level
device_dir /srv/node Directory devices are mounted under
minutes 60 Number of minutes to look back in /var/log/kern.log
error_limit 1 Number of errors to find before a device is unmounted
```

This script has only been tested on Ubuntu 10.04, so if you are using a different distro or OS, some care should be taken before using in production.

Troubleshooting OpenStack Compute

Common problems for Compute typically involve misconfigured networking or credentials that are not sourced properly in the environment. Also, most flat networking configurations do not enable ping or ssh from a compute node to the instances running on that node. Another common problem is trying to run 32-bit images on a 64-bit compute node. This section offers more information about how to troubleshoot Compute.

Log files for OpenStack Compute

Log files are stored in `/var/log/nova` and there is a log file for each service, for example `nova-compute.log`. You can format the log strings using flags for the `nova.log`

module. The flags used to set format strings are: `logging_context_format_string` and `logging_default_format_string`. If the log level is set to debug, you can also specify `logging_debug_format_suffix` to append extra formatting. For information about what variables are available for the formatter see: <http://docs.python.org/library/logging.html#formatter>

You have two options for logging for OpenStack Compute based on configuration settings. In `nova.conf`, include the `--logfile` flag to enable logging. Alternatively you can set `--use_syslog=1`, and then the nova daemon logs to syslog.

Common Errors and Fixes for OpenStack Compute

The Launchpad Answers site offers a place to ask and answer questions, and you can also mark questions as frequently asked questions. This section describes some errors people have posted to Launchpad Answers and IRC. We are constantly fixing bugs, so online resources are a great way to get the most up-to-date errors and fixes.

Credential errors, 401, 403 forbidden errors

A 403 forbidden error is caused by missing credentials. Through current installation methods, there are basically two ways to get the `novarc` file. The manual method requires getting it from within a project zipfile, and the scripted method just generates `novarc` out of the project zip file and sources it for you. If you do the manual method through a zip file, then the following `novarc` alone, you end up losing the creds that are tied to the user you created with `nova-manage` in the steps before.

When you run `nova-api` the first time, it generates the certificate authority information, including `openssl.cnf`. If it gets started out of order, you may not be able to create your zip file. Once your CA information is available, you should be able to go back to `nova-manage` to create your zipfile.

You may also need to check your proxy settings to see if they are causing problems with the `novarc` creation.

Instance errors

Sometimes a particular instance shows "pending" or you cannot SSH to it. Sometimes the image itself is the problem. For example, when using flat manager networking, you do not have a dhcp server, and an `ami-tiny` image doesn't support interface injection so you cannot connect to it. The fix for this type of problem is to use an Ubuntu image, which should obtain an IP address correctly with FlatManager network settings. To troubleshoot other possible problems with an instance, such as one that stays in a spawning state, first check your instances directory for `i-ze0bnh1q` dir to make sure it has the following files:

- `libvirt.xml`
- `disk`
- `disk-raw`
- `kernel`
- `ramdisk`

- console.log (Once the instance actually starts you should see a console.log.)

Check the file sizes to see if they are reasonable. If any are missing/zero/very small then nova-compute has somehow not completed download of the images from objectstore.

Also check nova-compute.log for exceptions. Sometimes they don't show up in the console output.

Next, check the /var/log/libvirt/qemu/i-ze0bnh1q.log file to see if it exists and has any useful error messages in it.

Finally, from the instances/i-ze0bnh1q directory, try `virsh create libvirt.xml` and see if you get an error there.