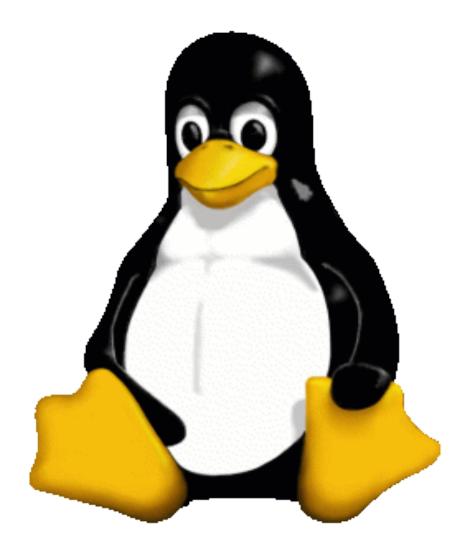
Linux File System Administration

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https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tux

This course is for you because...

- You are a Linux user with a basic understanding of the Linux operating system and..
- You want to learn advanced operating system topics such as...
- ACLs, quotas, file archive, file links, creating and mounting disk partitions and partition types such as...
- LVM and RAID

You Will Understand

- Linux filesystem concepts and tools
- How to find and search files
- The inode table and file links
- The difference between a hard link and a soft link

You Will Be Able To

- Modify file permissions and ACLs
- Use file quotas
- Archive and back up files
- Create and mount disk partitions
- Implement LVMs and RAID

You Should Know and Have

- Know basics of the Linux shell and the Linux filesystem
- Know basic shell commands
- Have access to a Linux installation (I will be using Ubuntu) and...
- Have installed Linux with plenty of unused disk space (we will create several new disk partitions)

File Permissions

File Permissions

- We will discuss:
 - File permission basics
 - Use of chmod and chown
 - SUID / SGID
 - The often misunderstood writeable directory and the sticky bit
 - Simultaneous file edits

File Permission Basics

File permissions are shown with 1s -1:

```
student$ ls -1
total 64
-rwxrwxr-x 1 student student 832 Oct 2 16:26 backup.sh
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student
                              70 Mar 6 2016 hello.pl
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 30832 Mar 6
                                         2016 largefile.txt
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student
                              53 Mar 6 2016 quote.txt
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 142 Mar 6 2016 records.data
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student
                               8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student
                              53 Mar 6 2016 sed.out
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student
                              76 Mar 6 2016 wallquote.txt
```

File Permission Basics

- r read
 - w write
 - x execute

The first character can be:

- - regular file
- d directory
- 1 symbolic link
- b block file
- c character device file
- p named pipe
- s socket

Change file permissions with chmod:

```
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod 600 regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rw----- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

The numeric value represents:

```
6 0 0
110 000 000
rw- ---
```

For 751:

```
7 5 1
111 101 001
rwx r-x --x
```

```
student$ chmod 751 regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rwxr-x--x 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

Symbolic notation can also be used:

```
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rwxr-x--x 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod -x regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod g+w regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rw-rw---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod gu-r regex.txt
student$ chmod gu-r regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
```

```
student$ ls -l regex.txt
--w--w---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod g+r,o+x regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
--w-rw---x 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
student$ chmod u+r,g-w,o-x regex.txt
student$ ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

chown / chgrp

The chown command changes the owner - only root can do this:

```
root# ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
root# chown jdoe regex.txt
root# ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 jdoe student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

chown can also be used to change owner and group:

```
root# chown student:class regex.txt
root# ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 student class 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

chown / chgrp

The chgrp command changes the group associated with the file:

```
root# chgrp student regex.txt
root# ls -l regex.txt
-rw-r---- 1 student student 8 Oct 15 08:54 regex.txt
```

chown / chgrp

The chown and chgrp commands can do their work recursively with the -R option:

```
root# ls -ld data
drwxrwxr-x 2 student student 4096 Nov 5 13:46 data
root# ls -l data
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Nov 5 13:46 a.dat
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Nov 5 13:46 b.dat
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Nov 5 13:46 c.dat
root# chown -R jdoe data
root# ls -ld data
drwxrwxr-x 2 jdoe student 4096 Nov 5 13:46 data
root# ls -l data
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jdoe student 0 Nov 5 13:46 a.dat
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jdoe student 0 Nov 5 13:46 b.dat
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jdoe student 0 Nov 5 13:46 c.dat
```

SUID and SGID

SUID (Set User ID) is an access flag that allows the executable to be executed with the permissions of the executable's owner or group.

SGID (Set Group ID) causes files and sub-directories to inherit the GID of the directory.

SUID is necessary when normal users are executing programs that require elevated privileges, such as the passwd utility that modifies /etc/shadow:

```
$ ls -l /usr/bin/passwd -rwsr-xr-x 1 root root 54256 May 16 19:37 /usr/bin/passwd
```

The s in place of the owner's x permission indicates the program SUID.

Consider the following C program (setuid.c) that will print the real user id and the effective user id:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

int main() {
  int real = getuid();
  int euid = geteuid();
  printf("The REAL UID = %d\n", real);
  printf("The EFFECTIVE UID = %d\n", euid);
}
```

Let's execute this program and see how the effective user ID changes to the owner of the program:

```
student$ gcc -o /tmp/setuid setuid.c
student$ ls -l /tmp/setuid
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 8172 Oct 16 17:25 /tmp/setuid
student$ /tmp/setuid
The REAL UID = 1001
The EFFECTIVE UID = 1001
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ /tmp/setuid
The REAL UID = 1002
The EFFECTIVE UID = 1002
jdoe$ exit
```

A file is set to SUID with chmod. Note the x replaced with s:

```
student$ chmod u+s /tmp/setuid
student$ ls -l /tmp/setuid
-rwsr-xr-x 1 student student 8172 Oct 16 17:25 /tmp/setuid
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ /tmp/setuid
The REAL UID = 1002
The EFFECTIVE UID = 1001
jdoe$ exit
```

Using numeric notation (4xxx):

```
student$ chmod 4755 /tmp/setuid
```

SGID Directories

Setting the SGID permission on a directory causes new files and subdirectories created within it to inherit its GID. The SGID bit is also inherited. This only affects new directories created, not currently existing directories.

```
student$ mkdir /tmp/test
student$ chmod 777 /tmp/test
student$ ls -l /tmp/test
total 0
student$ ls -ld /tmp/test
drwxrwxrwx 2 student student 4096 Oct 16 18:36 /tmp/test
jsmith$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ mkdir /tmp/test/foo1
jdoe$ ls -ld /tmp/test/foo1
drwxrwxr-x 2 jdoe jdoe 4096 Mar 4 18:36 /tmp/test/foo1
jdoe$ exit
```

SGID Directories

```
student$ chmod g+s /tmp/test
student$ ls -ld /tmp/test
drwxrwsrwx 3 student student 4096 Oct 16 18:36 /tmp/test
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ mkdir /tmp/test/foo2
jdoe$ ls -ld /tmp/test/*
drwxrwxr-x 2 jdoe jdoe 4096 Oct 16 18:36 /tmp/test/foo1
drwxrwsr-x 2 jdoe student 4096 Oct 16 18:38 /tmp/test/foo2
jdoe$ exit
```

Using numeric notation (2xxx):

```
student$ chmod 2775 /tmp/test
```

Writeable Directory

The writeable directory is often misunderstood.

One can write into and delete files owned by others from a directory that is writeable, even if the file is not readable or writeable:

```
student$ ls -ld /tmp/mydirectory
drwxrwxrwx 2 jdoe jdoe 17 Oct 16 16:17 my directory
student$ ls -l /tmp/mydirectory
-rw----- 1 jdoe jdoe 17 Oct 16 16:19 myfile.txt
student$ cat /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
cat: /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt: Permision denied
student$ rm /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
rm: remove write-protected regular file '/tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt'? y
student$ cat /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
cat: /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
```

Writeable Directory

Solved with the "sticky bit" created with chmod +t. Notice the "other" x changes to a t:

```
jdoe$ chmod +t /tmp/mydirectory
jdoe$ ls -ld /tmp/mydirctory
drwxrwxrwt 2 jdoe jdoe 4096 Oct 16 17:07 /tmp/mydirctory
jdoe$ touch /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
jdoe$ chmod 600 /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
jdoe$ su - student
Password:
student$ cat /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
cat: /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt: Permission denied
student$ rm /tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt
rm: remove write-protected regular empty file '/tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt'? y
rm: cannot remove '/tmp/mydirectory/myfile.txt': Operation not permitted
```

/tmp is an example of a directory with a sticky bit.

Writeable Directory

Numeric notation can be used to set the sticky bit (1xxx):

jdoe\$ chmod 1777 /tmp/mydirectory

Simultaneous File Edits

- files simultaneously edited by two users follow the "last one wins" rule
- if more than one user is editing the same file, the last write overwrites all other writes
- the only way to resolve this issue is by locking files

Simultaneous File Edits

```
Consider this file (flock.sh):
#!/bin/bash
scriptname=$(basename $0)
lock="/tmp/${scriptname}"
echo "Lockfile: $lock"
# assign file descriptor to file
exec 200>$lock
# lock the file, exit if locked
flock -n 200 || exit 1
echo "$lock locked"
# write the PID to the file, sleep
pid=$$
echo $pid 1>&200
sleep 60
echo "Hello world"
```

Simultaneous File Edits

In one shell:

```
$ ./flock.sh
Lockfile: /tmp/flock.sh
/tmp/flock.sh locked
```

In another shell:

```
$ ./flock.sh
Lockfile: /tmp/flock.sh
$
```

Exercise

1. Given the following permissions, write the numeric chmod argument to create them:

rwxrw-r	chmod	
r-xrr	chmod	
rw-rw-rw-	chmod	
rw-rw-r	chmod	
rwx	chmod	
r	chmod	
rr	chmod	

Exercise

2. Given the following permissions, write the symbolic chmod argument to create them (cumulative, meaning from the recent permissions to the desired permissions):

rw-rr	chmod	
rw-rw-r	chmod	
rw-rw-rw-	chmod	
rwx	chmod	
r	chmod	
rr	chmod	
rwxrw-r	chmod	
r-xrr	chmod	

Exercise

- 3. Compile the program setuid.c. Run it as a non-SUID program as another user. Then SUID it, run it again.
- 4. Create a directory and set the sticky bit (as root) with the numeric notation.
- 5. Experiment with flock.sh.

File Attributes and ACLs

File Attributes and ACLs

- file attributes
 - the lsattr command
 - the chattr command
- Access Control Lists (ACLs)
 - the getfacl command
 - the setfacl command

File Attributes

Linux supports additional file attributes beyond r, w, x and include (see man chattr for a complete list):

- a only use append for writing
- A no atime updates
- c automatically compress on disk
- d don't backup with dump(8)
- i file cannot be modified (immutable)
- j data journaling
- s when file is deleted, zero out disk

lsattr and chattr

The lsattr command lists the attributes. The chattr command changes attributes:

```
root# touch test.txt
root# lsattr test.txt
-----e-- test.txt
root# chattr +i test.txt
root# lsattr test.txt
----i----e-- test.txt
root# echo hello >> test.txt
-bash: test.txt: Operation not permitted
```

lsattr and chattr

```
root# echo this is a test >> test.txt
-bash: test.txt: Permission denied
root# chattr +a -i test.txt
root# lsattr test.txt
----a---e-- test.txt
root# echo this is a test > test.txt
-bash: test.txt: Operation not permitted
root# echo this is a test >> test.txt
root# chattr -a test.txt
root# lsattr test.txt
 ------e-- test.txt
```

Access Control Lists

Access Control Lists (ACLs) provide more granularity for controls on file and directory permissions, for example:

- remove read/write permissions on a file from the group and others, but
- allow one or two users to have read/write permissions

The getfac1 command shows a file's ACLs:

```
student$ touch test.txt
student$ chmod 750 test.txt
student$ ls -l test.txt
-rwxr-x--- 1 student student 0 Oct 6 08:54 test.txt
student$ getfacl test.txt
# file: test.txt
# owner: student
# group: student
user::rwx
group::r-x
other::---
```

Now let's give read/write permission to the user jdoe, who at this time has no permissions for this file (since that user is in the "other" category):

```
student$ setfacl -m user:jdoe:rw- test.txt
student$ getfacl --omit-header test.txt
user::rwx
user:jdoe:rw-
group::r-x
mask::rwx
other::---
```

Notice the change in the ls -1 output (the addition of the + character):

```
student$ ls -l test.txt
-rwxrwx---+ 1 student student 0 Oct 6 08:54 test.txt
```

Now the user jdoe can modify the file:

```
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ echo hi >> /tmp/test.txt
jdoe$ exit
```

We can also apply ACLs to directories. Let's create a directory that jdoe cannot write into:

```
student$ mkdir /tmp/acl
student$ chmod 700 /tmp/acl
student$ getfacl --omit-header /tmp/acl
getfacl: Removing leading '/' from absolute path
names
# file: tmp/acl
# owner: student
# group: student
user::rwx
group::---
other::---
```

Let's see if jdoe can write into it:

```
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ touch /tmp/acl/test.txt
touch: cannot touch `/tmp/acl/test.txt': Permission denied
```

Let's give jdoe read/write permission:

```
student$ setfacl -m user:jdoe:rwx /tmp/acl
student$ getfacl --omit-header /tmp/acl
getfacl: Removing leading '/' from absolute path names
user::rwx
user:jdoe:rwx
group::---
mask::rwx
other::---
student$ ls -ld /tmp/acl
drwxrwx---+ 2 student student 4096 Mar 6 09:26 /tmp/acl
```

```
student$ su - jdoe
Password:
jdoe$ touch /tmp/acl/test.txt
jdoe$ ls -l /tmp/acl/test.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 jdoe jdoe 0 Mar 6 09:26 /tmp/acl/test.txt
jdoe$ exit
```

- 1. Create a file. Using chattr, make it immutable. Then try to write to it.
- 2. Using chattr, make the file mutable but only appendable. Then try to write to it. Then try to append to the file.
- 3. Using chattr, make the file automatically compressed. Compare the output of these commands:

```
student$ du test.dat
student$ du --apparent-size test.dat
```

- 4. Create a file. Set the permissions so that only the owner can read and write. Using setfac1, allow the user jdoe to read and write the file.
- 5. Create a directory. Set the permissions so only the owner can create files in the directory. Using setfac1, allow jdoe to create files in the directory, but not able to list its contents.

Locating and Searching Files

Locating and Searching Files

- the which command
- the whatis command
- the find command
- the locate command
- grep and regular expressions (aka. regexes)

which Command

use which to locate an executable

```
student$ which date
/bin/date
```

• which searches all directories in the PATH variable and prints first found - use -a (or --all) to print all executables:

```
student$ ls ~/bin/date
~/bin/date
student$ which -a date
/bin/date
~/bin/date
```

whatis Command

 a man page database can be created with /usr/sbin/ makewhatis and can be searched with whatis - it will display the man pages for utilities that exactly match the argument:

```
student$ whatis printf
printf (1) - format and print data
printf (3) - formatted output conversion
student$ whatis prin
prin: nothing appropriate
```

man -k Command

whatis finds exact matches - for partial matches, use
 man -k (aka apropos)

```
student$ man -k print
banner (6) - print large banner on printer
base64 (1) - base64 encode/decode data and print to standard output
blkid (8) - command-line utility to locate/print block device attributes
cat (1) - concatenate files and print on the standard output
date (1) - print or set the system date and time
```

man -K Command

 man -K searches the content of man pages (not just titles):

```
student$ man -K Linus
--Man-- next: git-read-tree(1) [ view (return) | skip (Ctrl-D) | quit (Ctrl-C) ]
--Man-- next: git-describe(1) [ view (return) | skip (Ctrl-D) | quit (Ctrl-C) ]
--Man-- next: git-diff-tree(1) [ view (return) | skip (Ctrl-D) | quit (Ctrl-C) ]
```

find Command

• find searches for files - it has a lot of options, but a simple use is to look in /usr for the file zip:

```
student$ find /usr -name zip
/usr/bin/zip
/usr/share/doc/zip
```

 if there is standard error output, it can be suppressed with:

```
student$ find /usr -name zip 2>/dev/null
```

find Command

here are some examples of using find:

```
# find all files that have been accessed more than
# 1 day ago
find / -atime 1

# find all files created this year
touch --date="12:00 am jan 1 2018" /tmp/ref_time
find / -newer /tmp/ref_time

# get list of all newly updated videos
find /filer/videos -type f -mtime 1 -print
```

find Command

```
# strip suid bits from anything in /home
find /home -perm -4000 -exec chmod u-s {} \;

# fix the permissions on /var/www/htdocs
# make it so that everyone in www-data group can
# create and edit all files, and sgid bit on dir
# assures that all files are created with www-data
# group ownership as well
chown -R www-data:www-data /var/www/htdocs
find /var/www/htdocs -type d -exec chmod 2775 {} \;
find /var/www/htdocs -type f -exec chmod 664 {} \;
```

locate Command

- the locate command quickly searches for files on the system by searching the database created by updatedb
- note: updatedb should be run by root daily and is usually done so through cron

```
student$ locate locate
/bin/ntfsfallocate
/etc/alternatives/locate.1.gz
/etc/cron.daily/mlocate
/usr/bin/fallocate
/usr/bin/locate
/usr/bin/mlocate
```

locate Command

- locate has many options:
 - -i case insensitive search
 - -n limit the lines of output to the provided number
 - –e exclude provided directories
 - -r filter output with supplied regex
 - -d path of databases to search

Regular Expressions

- a regular expression (aka regex) is a sequence or pattern of characters that is compared against a string of text
- regexes are used to perform text matching, text replacement, text extraction and various other text manipulation operations
- the grep command uses regexes to look for text in files;
 this example displays all lines of the file a.dat that match the regex xyz:

student\$ grep xyz a.dat

Patterns: Single Characters

- most characters match themselves:
 - a matches "a" anywhere
 - ab matches "ab" anywhere
 - abc matches "abc" anywhere
- there are some special characters:
 - . (the period) matches any character but newline
 - ^ matches the beginning of the string
 - \$ matches the end of the string

Patterns: Character Classes

- created using square brackets matches one occurrence of any character in the class:
 - [abcde] matches one of either "a", "b", "c", "d" or "e"
 - [a-e] the same
 - [0-9] matches one digit
- if the carat (^) is the first character in the class, it matches any character except what is in the class:
 - [^abcde] any character except "a", "b", "c", "d" and "e"
 - [^a-e] the same
 - [^0-9] matches one non-digit

Patterns: Quantifiers

- the number of characters can be specified with *quantifiers*:
 - * 0 or more
 - + 1 or more
 - ? 0 or 1
 - \{m\} exactly m
 - \{m, \} m or more
 - \{m, n\} m through n, inclusive

Patterns: Quantifiers

Examples:

```
# one or more e in a row in largefile.txt
grep e+ largefile.txt
# exactly 2 e in a row in largefile.txt
grep "e\{2\}" largefile.txt
# 2 or more vowels in a row in largefile.txt
grep "[aeiou]\{2,\}" largefile.txt
# one or more lower or upper e at the beginning
# of the line in largefile.txt
grep ^[eE]+ largefile.txt
```

grep Command

The grep command attempts to match every line of a file against a regular expression. If the regex matches, the line is printed:

```
student$ grep abc file.txt
```

The -i option ignores case:

```
student$ grep -i abc file.txt
```

The –v prints all lines that do not match:

```
student$ grep -v abc file.txt
```

grep Command

If no file argument is provided, then read from standard input:

```
student$ ls -l | grep ^d
```

The -f option uses the regexes in the provided file:

```
student$ cat regex.txt
thou
^G
student$ grep -f regex.txt largefile.txt
```

1. For these words:

red
read
dread
bread
head
lead

Determine with words match each of these regexes:

```
^ead
^.ead
^.[ea]+d
r[a-z]\{4\}
.[a-z]\{3,4\}
[b-z]\{1,5\}
```

- 2. Create regexes to do the following:
- 0 or 1 "a" followed by any number of "b"
- one or more digits followed by one or more alpha characters

- 3. Search for the following text using grep:
- all lines of largefile.txt with the text "thee"
- all lines of largefile.txt with the text "thee" regardless of case (hint: -i is helpful)
- all the blank lines in largefile.txt
- all lines of largefile.txt with two vowels next to one another, but not 3 vowels

- 4. Find the location of these programs when executed from the shell
 - who
 - date
 - ifconfig
- 5. Find all files that were modified 2 days ago

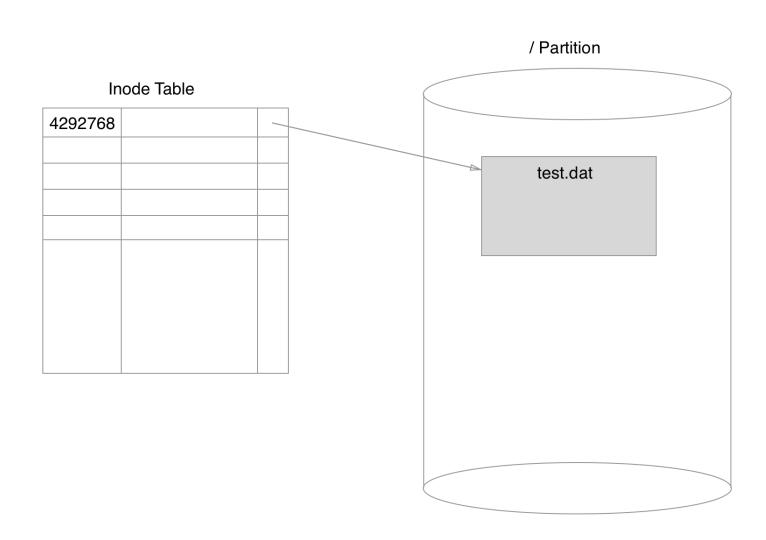
Inodes, Links and Low-level File Data

Inodes, Links and Low-level File Data

- inodes
- hard links
- soft links
- low-level file data (stat, readlink, lsof, etc)

An *inode* is a unique number given to every file (or directory, etc.) stored on the disk. To display a file's inode number, use ls -i:

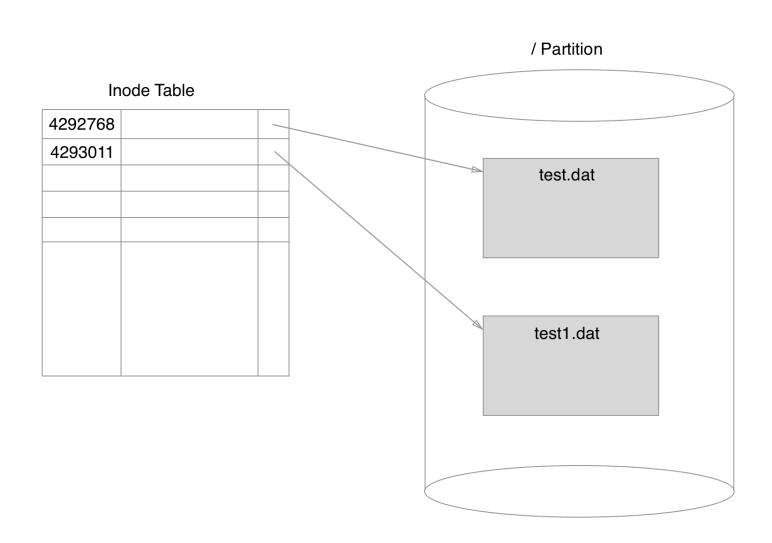
```
student$ touch test.dat
student$ ls -il test.dat
4292768 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Apr 16 13:07 test.dat
```



When a file is copied, another file is created, with its own unique inode number:

```
student$ cp test.dat test1.dat
student$ ls -il test*.dat
4293011 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Oct 6 13:07 test1.dat
4292768 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Oct 6 13:07 test.dat
```

When a file is removed, the inode number is released, and if there are no other inodes pointing to it, the file is deleted from disk.



A directory is a special file that lists other files in the directory and their inode numbers:

```
student$ mkdir inode.dir
student$ ls -lid inode.dir
4293848 drw-rw-r-- 1 student student 0 Oct 6 13:07 inode.dir
student$ touch inode.dir/a.dat
student$ touch inode.dir/z.dat
student$ touch inode.dir/c.dat
```

Using vim to edit the directory:

student\$ vim inode.dir

We would see:

Links

Linux has two types of links:

- hard links
 - not a new file on disk
 - an entry in its directory that has the same inode as the physical file to which it is linked
 - must reside on the same disk partition as the file to which it is linked

Links

- soft links
 - a new file on disk
 - an alias to another file
 - its "content" is the name of the file to which it is linked
 - can reside on a different disk partition as the file to which it is linked

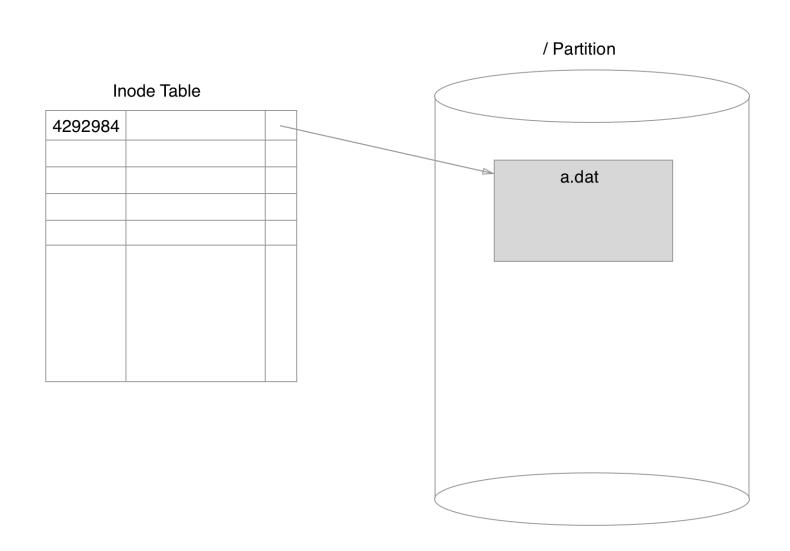
Links

- they are both create using the ln command
- advantages
 - can save disk space one copy of the file exists on the disk
 - if link to the file is edited, the file is modified for all links

A hard link is another entry in a directory with the same inode as the file to which it links. Consider this file:

```
student$ cat a.dat
this is the file a.dat
student$ ls -li a.dat
4292984 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 23 Oct 6 16:02 a.dat
```

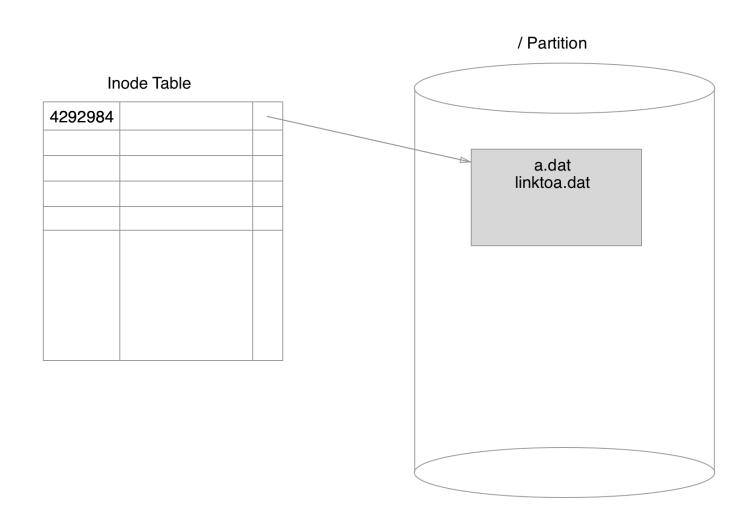
This shows that the inode number of this file is 4292984 and the number of hard links to this file (the number just to the left of the username) is 1. This means that this file's inode number is only listed in one directory (the current directory).



Let's create a hard link to this file - we'll call it linktoa.dat:

```
student$ In a.dat linktoa.dat
student$ Is -li a.dat linktoa.dat
4292984 -rw-rw-r-- 2 student student 23 Oct 6 16:02 a.dat
4292984 -rw-rw-r-- 2 student student 23 Oct 6 16:02 linktoa.dat
```

Notice that the inode numbers of these files are the same (which means they are the same file physically on the disk). Also notice the number to the left of the username is now 2 since there are now 2 links to the file.



Let's show the contents of linktoa.dat:

```
student$ cat linktoa.dat this is the file a.dat
```

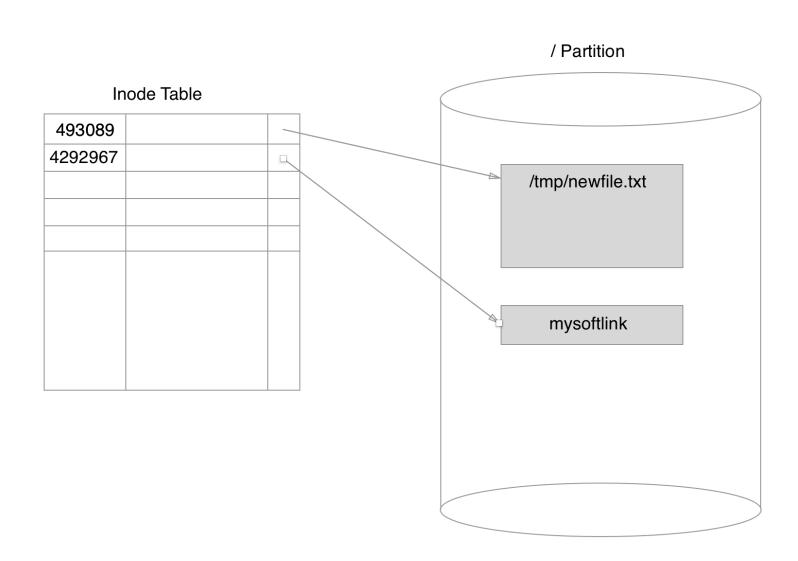
Now let's delete the original file a.dat and show that the physical file still exists:

```
student$ rm a.dat
student$ ls -li linktoa.dat
4292984 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 23 Oct 6 16:02 linktoa.dat
student$ cat linktoa.dat
this is the file a.dat
```

Now the link count is down to 1. Once the link count decreases to 0, the file is removed from disk.

A soft link (aka *symbolic link*) is entirely new file with its own inode, however it is a special type of file. Its "content" is the name of the file to which it is linked. It is created with ln -s:

```
student$ echo this is a test of soft link > /tmp/newfile.txt
student$ cat /tmp/newfile.txt
this is a test of soft link
student$ ls -il /tmp/newfile.txt
493089 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 28 Apr 3 18:02 /tmp/newfile.txt
student$ ln -s /tmp/newfile.txt mysoftlink
student$ ls -il /tmp/newfile.txt mysoftlink
4292967 lrwxrwxrwx 1 student student 16 Apr 3 18:03 mysoftlink -> /tmp/newfile.txt
493089 -rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 28 Apr 3 18:02 /tmp/newfile.txt
student$ cat mysoftlink
this is a test of soft link
```



Note:

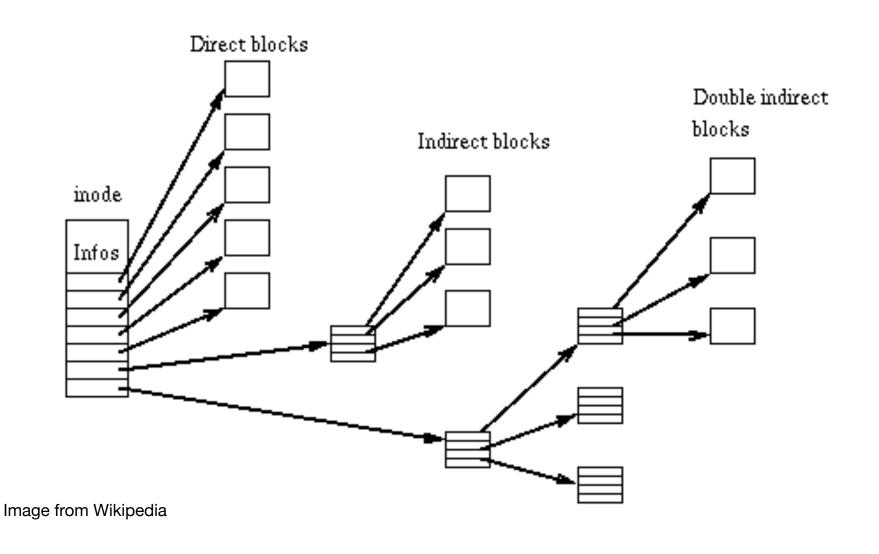
- /tmp/newfile.txt has the inode number 493089
- when a soft link is linked to it, the soft link has a different inode number (here 4292967), so it is an entirely new file on disk
- the first character of the permissions is an 1 and not a dash
- the size of the link is 16, the number of characters in the filename /tmp/newfile.txt

When the link is cat-ed out, it shows the content of the file to which it is linked.

It is possible to delete the file that the soft link is linked to, and the soft link will still exist, although it now links to a nonexistent file:

```
student$ rm /tmp/newfile.txt
student$ ls -li mysoftlink
4292967 lrwxrwxrwx 1 student student 16 Oct 6 18:03 mysoftlink -> /tmp/newfile.txt
jdoe$ cat mysoftlink
cat: mysoftlink: No such file or directory
```

Inode Pointer Structure



Low Level File Data

File meta data is available through several low level file commands including:

- stat
- readlink
- lsof

stat

The stat command displays a file's system status:

stat

The -f option shows status of a file system:

```
student$ stat -f /dev/sda1
 File: "/dev/sda1"
   ID: 0 Namelen: 255 Type: tmpfs
Block size: 4096 Fundamental block size: 4096
Blocks: Total: 249974 Free: 249974 Available: 249974
Inodes: Total: 249974 Free: 249516
student$ stat /dev/sda1
 File: '/dev/sda1'
 Size: 0 Blocks: 0 IO Block: 4096 block special file
Device: 6h/6d Inode: 11567 Links: 1 Device type: 8,1
Access: (0660/brw-rw---) Uid: ( 0/ root) Gid: ( 6/
                                                           disk)
Access: 2017-11-06 07:24:05.148000000 -0500
Modify: 2017-11-06 07:24:05.148000000 -0500
Change: 2017-11-06 07:24:05.148000000 -0500
Birth: -
```

stat

The --format constructs a format string (for all options, see man stat):

```
student$ stat --format=%g regex.txt
1000
student$ stat --format=%G regex.txt
student
student$ stat --format=%i regex.txt
436131
student$ stat --format="%g %G %i" regex.txt
1000 student 436131
```

readlink

The readlink command shows the file a symbolic link links to:

```
student$ ls -1 /etc/rc2.d/S02cron
lrwxrwxrwx 1 root root 14 Sep 28 15:38 /etc/rc2.d/S02cron -> ../init.d/cron
student$ readlink /etc/rc2.d/S02cron
../init.d/cron
```

The lsof command lists information about open files:

```
student$ lsof
COMMAND
           PID
                TID
                                 USER
                                        FD
                                                TYPE
                                                                  DEVICE
SIZE/OFF
      NODE NAME
                                 root
             1
                                             unknown
systemd
                                       cwd
           /proc/1/cwd (readlink: Permission denied)
                                 root rtd
                                             unknown
systemd
           /proc/1/root (readlink: Permission denied)
systemd
                                 root txt
                                             unknown
           /proc/1/exe (readlink: Permission denied)
```

The -u option shows files opened by a specific user:

student\$ lsof -u student							
COMMAND	PID USER	FD	TYPE	DEVICE	SIZE/OFF	NODE	NAME
systemd	1219 student	cwd	DIR	8,2	4096	2	/
systemd	1219 student	rtd	DIR	8,2	4096	2	/
systemd	1219 student	txt	REG	8,2	1577232	396936	/lib/systemd/systemd

•••

The -i option shows processes running on a specific port:

```
Student$ lsof -i TCP:22

COMMAND PID USER FD TYPE DEVICE SIZE/OFF NODE NAME ssh 2005 student 3u IPv4 26959 0t0 TCP 192.168.56.101:41648->192.168.56.1:ssh (ESTABLISHED) student$ lsof -i TCP:1-1024

COMMAND PID USER FD TYPE DEVICE SIZE/OFF NODE NAME ssh 2005 student 3u IPv4 26959 0t0 TCP 192.168.56.101:41648->192.168.56.1:ssh (ESTABLISHED)
```

The -p shows open files for a specific PID:

```
root# lsof -p 1
COMMAND PID USER
                          TYPE
                                           DEVICE SIZE/OFF
                                                                 NODE NAME
                  FD
         1 root cwd
systemd
                           DIR
                                              8,2
                                                      4096
                                                                    2 /
systemd
                                              8,2
                                                      4096
                                                                    2 /
         1 root rtd
                           DIR
systemd
                                              8,2 1577232
                                                               396936 /lib/systemd/systemd
         1 root txt
                           REG
```

. . .

For more information on the many options for lsof see the man page:

student# man lsof

Exercise

- 1. Create a hard link to regex.txt. Show the inode for regex.txt and the link. Show the contents of the link. Edit the link, then show the contents of regex.txt. Show information about the link and regex.txt using stat. Remove the link.
- 2. Create a soft link to regex.txt. Edit the soft link, then show the contents of regex.txt. Show the size of the link and of regex.txt. Show information about the link and regex.txt using stat. Show the file that is linked with readlink. Remove the link.

Exercise

- 3. Using vim, view the contents of the current directory.
- 4. Experiment with 1sof.

Archive and Backups

Archive and Backups

- It is common to archive files and directories for the following reasons:
 - backing up files and directories
 - transporting or copying files and/or directories from one machine to another
- we will discuss these three archive commands:
 - zip/unzip
 - gzip/gunzip
 - tar

zip/unzip

A common compression utility on Linux is zip. It will compress using an algorithm compatible with PKZIP used in the Windows world.

To compress a file:

```
student$ zip largefile.zip largefile.txt
  adding: largefile.txt (deflated 57%)
student$ ls -l largefile.*
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 30832 Oct 1 16:56 largefile.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 13285 Oct 2 08:23 largefile.zip
```

zip/unzip

To recursively compress the contents of a directory:

```
student$ zip -r temp.zip temp.dir
  adding: temp.dir/ (stored 0%)
  adding: temp.dir/temp.dat (stored 0%)
student$ ls -l temp.zip
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 347 Oct 2 08:35 temp.zip
```

See man zip for details.

zip/unzip

To uncompress a file that was compressed with zip, use unzip:

```
student$ mkdir newtemp.dir
student$ cp largefile.zip temp.zip newtemp.dir
student$ cd newtemp.dir
student$ unzip largefile.zip
Archive: largefile.zip
  inflating: largefile.txt
student$ ls -l largefile.*
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 30832 Oct 1 16:56 largefile.txt
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 13285 Oct 2 08:46 largefile.zip
```

zip/unzip

```
student$ unzip temp.zip
Archive: temp.zip
   creating: temp.dir/
  extracting: temp.dir/temp.dat
student$ ls -Rl temp.dir
temp.dir:
total 4
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 17 Oct 2 08:35 temp.dat
```

See man unzip for details.

gzip/gunzip

Alternatives to zip and unzip are the GNU programs: gzip and gunzip.

```
$ ls -l largefile.txt
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 30832 Nov 7 14:39 largefile.txt
$ gzip largefile.txt
$ ls -l largefile.txt.gz
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 13141 Nov 7 14:39 largefile.txt.gz
$ gunzip largefile.txt.gz
$ ls -l largefile.txt
-rwxr-xr-x 1 student student 30832 Nov 7 14:39 largefile.txt
```

gzip/gunzip

Notice what happens when you recursively zip up a directory:

tar

 The most common Linux archive utility is tar (Tape ARchive) - it will take a collection of files and directories (and their contents) and collect them together into a single file

tar

```
student$ tar cvf /tmp/mystuff.tar *
class/
class/quote.txt
class/sed.out
class/wallquote.txt
class/hello.pl
class/records.data
class/largefile.txt
Desktop/
Documents/
Downloads/
examples.desktop
Music/
Pictures/
Public/
Templates/
Videos/
```

tar

 this command uses the cvf options which "creates, verbose, file" mystuff.tar

• file details:

```
student$ file /tmp/mystuff.tar
/tmp/mystuff.tar: POSIX tar archive (GNU)
student$ ls -l /tmp/mystuff.tar
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 61440 Oct 1 16:56 /tmp/mystuff.tar
```

tar Options

- here are some common options:
 - c createfile
 - x extractfile
 - f filename
 - v verbose
 - z zip (compress)
 - r append
 - t list contents

tar Append

Here is an example of appending a file to our tarfile /tmp/mystuff.tar, and then listing its contents:

```
student$ tar rvf /tmp/mystuff.tar /etc/passwd
tar: Removing leading \( \)/' from member names
/etc/passwd
student$ tar tf /tmp/mystuff.tar
class/
class/quote.txt
class/sed.out
class/wallquote.txt
class/hello.pl
class/records.data
class/largefile.txt
Desktop/
Documents/
Downloads/
examples.desktop
etc/passwd
```

tar Extract

we can then extract the tar file

```
student$ mkdir /tmp/tartest
student$ cd /tmp/tartest
student$ tar xvf /tmp/mystuff.tar
class/
class/quote.txt
class/sed.out
class/wallquote.txt
class/hello.pl
class/records.data
class/largefile.txt
Videos/
etc/passwd
student$ ls -F
class/ Desktop/ Documents/ Downloads/ etc/ examples.desktop
Music/ Pictures/ Public/
                           Templates/ Videos/
```

tar Compression

- compression is done with the z option
- the compressed file is much smaller than the uncompressed file
- the file is usually named either .tar.gz or .tgz

tar Compression

```
student$ tar czf /tmp/mystuff.tar.gz *
student$ tar czf /tmp/mystuff.tgz *

student$ ls -l /tmp/mystuff.*
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 61440 Oct 1 16:56 /tmp/mystuff.tar
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 18158 Oct 1 16:59 /tmp/mystuff.tar.gz
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 18158 Oct 1 16:59 /tmp/mystuff.tqz
```

tar Compression

Note: a .tar.gz file can be unzipped with gunzip:

```
student$ ls -l mystuff.tar.gz
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 18158 Oct 1 17:38 mystuff.tar.gz
student$ gunzip mystuff.tar.gz
student$ ls -l mystuff.tar*
-rw-rw-r-- 1 student student 61440 Oct 1 17:38 mystuff.tar
```

Backup Strategies

- Failures happen:
 - hardware failure
 - power failure
 - theft
 - fire / earthquake / etc
 - security breach

Backup Strategies

- Backup to another location:
 - another piece of hardware
 - server in the cloud
 - backup service

Backup Strategies

- Backup regularly:
 - machine on the network
 - server in the cloud
 - backup service

Backup Script

Here is a shell script to back up a list of files or all the files that changed in the last day:

```
#! /bin/bash
# backup.sh
# be sure to create ~/.backup_files_list, a list of
# files to back up weekly
# to back up the specified users list of files
# root# ./backup.sh
# an incremental backup
# root# ./backup.sh incr

DIR=/data/backups
DATE=`date +'%Y%m%d'`
USERS='student jdoe'
```

Backup Script

Here is a shell script to back up a list of files or all the files that changed in the last day:

```
cd /
mkdir $DIR/$DATE | exit
for USER in `echo $USERS`
do
    if [ "$1" == "incr" ]
    then
        echo "Incremental backup of $USER"
        FILE LIST="/tmp/$DATE.$USER.incr files"
        find /home/$USER -type f -mtime -1 | cut -c2- > $FILE LIST
        echo $DIR/$DATE/incr $USER.tar
        tar cf $DIR/$DATE/incr $USER.tar -W -T $FILE LIST
        rm $FILE LIST
    else
        echo "Backing up into $DIR/$DATE the content of $USER "
        tar cf $DIR/$DATE/$USER.tar -W -T \
            /home/$USER/.backup files list
    fi
done
```

Backup Script

Cron jobs can be set up to run this script:

```
# 11:45pm every Sunday
30 45 * * 0 /usr/local/bin/backup.sh

# 11:45pm Monday-Saturday
30 45 * * 1,2,3,4,5,6 /usr/local/bin/backup.sh incr
```

Exercise

- 1. Zip up the class directory (using zip). Unzip it in /tmp (using unzip) and verify that all the files were transferred.
- 2. Do the same with tar.
- 3. Compare the size of a .zip file to a .tgz file.
- 4. Experiment with backup.sh.

End of Day 1

Filesystem Types

Filesystem Types

- ext{2,3,4}
- JFS
- ReiserFS
- Btrfs
- xfs

ext - the extended file system, was the first filesystem specifically created for the Linux kernel

- created in April 1992
- included in Linux version 0.96c
- inspired by the Unix File System (UFS), designed to overcome Minix limitations (max 64 MB and 14 character filenames)
- could handle filesystems up to 2 Gig and 255 character filenames
- no support of separate timestamps for file access, inode modification, and data modification

ext2 - the second extended file system

- developed in January 1993 for Linux kernel 0.99, designed with extensibility in mind
- added support for separate timestamps for file access, inode modification, and data modification
- still recommended over journaling file systems (like ext3) on bootable USB flash drives (faster access)
- max partition size: 4TB, max file size: 2GB-2TB (depending on kernel)
- with Large File Support (LFS) max partition size: 2TB-32TB; max file size: 2GB-2TB

ext3 - the third extended file system

- released in November 2001 for Linux kernel 2.4.15
- added journaling (keeps track of uncommitted changes in a journal)
 - improves reliability
 - eliminates the need to check the file system after an unclean shutdown
- ext2 can be changed to ext3 by adding journaling with (be sure to modify /etc/fstab):

```
tune2fs -j /dev/sdaN
```

ext4 - the fourth extended file system

- released on 25 December 2008 in the 2.6.28 kernel
- features include
 - partition size up to 1 EiB (2**60 bytes); file size up to 16 TiB (Redhat recommends xfs for large files)
 - uses extents a single extent can map up to 128 MiB of contiguous space with a 4 KiB block size
 - backward compatible with ext2 and ext3 can mount ext2 or ext3 as ext4
 - persistent pre-allocation and delayed allocation
 - unlimited number of sub-directories

JFS

JFS - Journaled File System - 64 bit journaling filesystem created by IBM. Features include:

- June 2001 kernel 2.4.18pre9-ac4
- fast and reliable with good performance under different kinds of loads
- unlike ext3, journaling was built in from the start
- uses a B+ Tree
- dynamic inode allocation
- extents
- most chose ext4 over JFS

ReiserFS

ReiserFS was developed by Hans Reiser and a team at Namesys. The first Linux version was Reiser3, followed by Reiser4.

- kernel 2.4.18
- metadata-only journaling (block journaling since kernel 2.6.8)
- online resizing
- tail packing to reduce internal fragmentation
- faster than ext2 and ext3

Btrfs

Btrfs is based on the copy-on-write (COW) principle. Initially designed by Oracle for Linux in 2007.

- version 1.0 accepted into kernel in 2009
- ext4 developer Theodor T'so said Btrfs is better than ext4 because "it offers improvements in scalability, reliability, and ease of management"
- default filesystem for SUSE
- deprecated in RHEL 7.4 in August 2017

Btrfs

- features include:
 - copy-on-write (shadowing)
 - auto-defrag
 - online growth/shrinking
 - offline filesystem check
 - data scrubbing find and auto-fix errors
 - RAID {0,1,10}

xfs

- eXtents File System (xfs) development begun by Silicon Graphics in 1993
- merged into Linux kernel 2.4.25 in Feb 2004
- default file system for RHEL 7.0 released in June 2014

xfs

- features include:
 - 64-bit file system, max size 8 EiB
 - journaling
 - allocation groups providing scalability and parallelism
 - striped allocation
 - extent based allocation
 - online defragmentation (with xfs_fsr) and resizing (with xfs growfs)

Disk Partitioning

Disk Partitioning

- adding a disk partition
- formatting a disk partition
- mounting a disk partition

Disk Partitioning

A disk partition is a portion of a physical disk. The partition can be formatted and mounted. The benefits of having more than one disk partition:

- each partition has a limited number of inodes, so it is possible to run out them - having multiple partitions means there are more inodes
- put similar "files" together
- share a part of the file system on the network

Disk Partitioning

The number of currently mounted partitions are shown with the df command:

```
      student$ df

      Filesystem
      1K-blocks
      Used Available Use% Mounted on udev
      999896
      0
      999896
      0% /dev

      tmpfs
      204596
      21920
      182676
      11% /run

      /dev/sda2
      9481444
      4949280
      4027488
      56% /

      /dev/sda1
      230925
      174452
      40243
      82% /boot
```

In this example, /dev/sda1 is mounted on /boot and /dev/sda2 is mounted on /.

Disk Partitioning

The df command can show inode information:

Notice that more than 40% of the available nodes on / are used. If we create a large number of files on that partition, we will run out inodes.

We can partition the disk with the fdisk:

This output shows 3 partitions. The one we have not seen is /dev/sda3, our swap space (more on swap later).

To create a new partition:

- create partition on disk with fdisk
- tell the kernel about the new partition with partprobe
- mount the new partition with mount
- add new partition to /etc/fstab

To create a new partition on disk with fdisk (p prints the partition table):

root# fdisk /dev/sda

```
Welcome to fdisk (util-linux 2.27.1).
Changes will remain in memory only, until you decide to write them.
Be careful before using the write command.
Command (m for help): p
Disk /dev/sda: 20.9 GiB, 22395486208 bytes, 43741184 sectors
Device
         Boot
                            End Sectors Size Id Type
                 Start
/dev/sda1 *
                  2048
                         487423 485376 237M 83 Linux
/dev/sda2
                 487424 20019199 19531776 9.3G 83 Linux
/dev/sda3
               20019200 24018943 3999744 1.9G 82 Linux swap / Solaris
Command (m for help):
```

n creates a new partition. Because we have only one primary partition left, we will first create an extended partition with the rest of the disk, and we can then create partitions within it:

```
Command (m for help): n
Partition type
      primary (3 primary, 0 extended, 1 free)
      extended (container for logical partitions)
Select (default e): e
Selected partition 4
First sector (24018944-43741183, default 24018944): <enter>
Last sector, +sectors or +size{K,M,G,T,P} (24018944-43741183, default 43741183): <enter>
Created a new partition 4 of type 'Extended' and of size 9.4 GiB.
Command (m for help): p
Disk /dev/sda: 20.9 GiB, 22395486208 bytes, 43741184 sectors
Device
           Boot
                  Start
                             End Sectors Size Id Type
                          487423 485376 237M 83 Linux
/dev/sda1 *
                   2048
                 487424 20019199 19531776 9.3G 83 Linux
/dev/sda2
              20019200 24018943 3999744 1.9G 82 Linux swap / Solaris
/dev/sda3
/dev/sda4
               24018944 43741183 19722240 9.4G 5 Extended
Command (m for help):
```

Now that we have the extended partition created, we can created partitions within it. n creates a new partition. We will make it 1G in size:

```
Command (m for help): n
All primary partitions are in use.

Adding logical partition 5
First sector (24020992-43741183, default 24020992): <enter>
Last sector, +sectors or +size{K,M,G,T,P}
(24020992-43741183, default 43741183): +1G

Created a new partition 5 of type 'Linux' and of size 1 GiB.

Command (m for help):
```

Let's make sure it was created:

```
Command (m for help): p
Disk /dev/sda: 20.9 GiB, 22395486208 bytes, 43741184 sectors
Device
         Boot.
                 Start
                           End Sectors Size Id Type
/dev/sda1
                  2048
                        487423 485376 237M 83 Linux
/dev/sda2
                487424 20019199 19531776 9.3G 83 Linux
/dev/sda3 20019200 24018943 3999744 1.9G 82 Linux swap / Solaris
/dev/sda4 24018944 43741183 19722240 9.4G 5 Extended
/dev/sda5
              24020992 26118143 2097152 1G 83 Linux
Command (m for help):
```

Write the new information:

Command (m for help): w

```
The partition table has been altered.

Calling ioctl() to re-read partition table.

Re-reading the partition table failed: Device or resource busy
```

The kernel still uses the old table. The new table will be used at the next reboot or after you run partprobe(8) or kpartx(8).

Tell the Kernel

We need to tell the kernel about the changes. We can use partprobe. Or we can reboot the system.

root# partprobe

Note: some distributions (such as CentOS) require either executing partx (not recommended) or a reboot.

Make a Filesystem

The next step is to format the new disk. We will format as ext4, but it can be formatted as other filesystem types. To format at ext4, use mkfs.ext4:

root# mkfs.ext4 /dev/sda5

Mount the Partition

To make the partition available, it must be mounted. Many linux systems mount new partitions under /mnt. Make a new directory under /mnt and then use the mount command:

```
root# mkdir /mnt/newpartition
root# mount /dev/sda5 /mnt/newpartition
root# ls -ld /mnt/newpartition
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 Oct 14 11:01 /mnt/newpartition
root# ls -l /mnt/newpartition
total 16
drwx----- 2 root root 16384 Oct 14 11:01 lost+found
root# touch /mnt/newpartition/test.txt
root# ls /mnt/newpartition
lost+found test.txt
```

Check Our Work

Let's check df:

```
root# df -i
Filesystem Inodes IUsed IFree IUse% Mounted on
/dev/sda2 610800 262004 348796 43% /
/dev/sda1 60720 313 60407 1% /boot
/dev/sda5 65536 12 65524 1% /mnt/newpartition
```

Note the number of inodes. This number can be increased by using mkfs.ext4 -N.

Mount When Booting

At this point, we have a mounted filesystem, but if the machine is rebooted, it won't be mounted. To make sure the filesystem is mounted on reboot, add a line to /etc/fstab (file system table):

/dev/sda5 /mnt/newpartition ext4 defaults 0 2

Some systems use an UUID number (eg. Ubuntu). If that is true about your system, you can replace /dev/sda5 with UUID="id" that is in the output of this command:

root# blkid /dev/sda5

Mount When Booting

Reboot to verify:

root# reboot

When the system boots, log in and check the directory:

Swap space is physical disk space used to store memory, usually when the RAM fills to capacity and the OS needs a place to put the content. Linux supports swap through either a disk partition or a file on disk.

We saw our swap space with fdisk:

We can see our swap space with swapon:

```
root# swapon -s
Filename Type Size Used Priority
/dev/sda3 partition 1999868 0 -1
```

Let's create a new swap disk partition. We have to toggle (t) the disk type to 82, the value for swap.

```
root# fdisk /dev/sda
Command (m for help): n
All primary partitions are in use.
Adding logical partition 6
First sector (26120192-43741183, default 26120192): <enter>
Last sector, +sectors or +size{K,M,G,T,P} (26120192-43741183, default
43741183): +1G
Created a new partition 6 of type 'Linux' and of size 1 GiB.
Command (m for help): p
Disk /dev/sda: 20.9 GiB, 22395486208 bytes, 43741184 sectors
Device
                  Start
                             End Sectors Size Id Type
          Boot
/dev/sda6
               26120192 28217343 2097152 1G 83 Linux
```

```
Command (m for help): t
Partition number (1-6, default 6): 6
Partition type (type L to list all types): 82

Changed type of partition 'Linux' to 'Linux swap / Solaris'.

Command (m for help): p
...
/dev/sda6 26120192 28217343 2097152 1G 82 Linux swap / Solaris

Command (m for help): w
...
root# partprobe
```

The mkswap command makes swap. Then we can turn it on with swapon:

```
root# mkswap /dev/sda6
Setting up swapspace version 1, size = 1024
MiB (1073737728 bytes)
no label, UUID=a14f218f-041d-4abc-a739-
d588f4988539
root# swapon /dev/sda6
root# swapon -s
Filename Type Size Used Priority
/dev/sda3 partition 1999868 0 -1
/dev/sda6 partition 1048572 0 -2
```

Add to /etc/fstab (the UUID can also be used):

```
/dev/sda6 none swap sw 0 0
```

Reboot, then make sure swap got turned on:

```
root# swapon -s
Filename Type Size Used Priority
/dev/sda3 partition 1999868 0 -1
/dev/sda6 partition 1048572 0 -2
```

A file can also be used for swap. Use the dd command to create it, make it with mkswap, then swapon to turn it on:

```
root# dd if=/dev/zero of=/swap/swap1 bs=512 count=4000
4000+0 records in
4000+0 records out
2048000 bytes (2.0 MB, 2.0 MiB) copied, 0.00563459 s, 363 MB/s
root# ls -l /swap/swap1
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2048000 Oct 14 11:58 /swap/swap1
```

```
root# mkswap /swap/swap1
Setting up swapspace version 1, size = 2 MiB (2043904 bytes)
no label, UUID=74811884-69d5-46de-b7aa-8e9d68fa4a67
root# chmod 600 /swap/swap1
root# swapon /swap/swap1
root# swapon -s
Filename Type Size Used Priority
/dev/sda3 partition 1999868 0 -1
/dev/sda6 partition 1048572 0 -2
/swap/swap1 file 1996 0 -3
```

Add to /etc/fstab to have the swap space survive a reboot:

/swap/swap1 none swap sw 0 0

Exercise

- 1. Create a new partition (you might have to first create an extended partition) of size 500M.
- 2. Format that partition as ext4.
- 3. Mount the partition at /mnt/ex1.
- 4. Add an entry to /etc/fstab, reboot, verify the partition mounted.

Exercise

- 5. Create a new partition size 500M as type swap.
- 6. Make the swap, turn it on.
- 7. Add an entry to /etc/fstab, reboot, verify the swap is turned on.

- Quotas overview
- Configuring quotas
- Managing quotas

- limit resources for a user or a group (eg. amount of disk space or number of files)
- two types of limits:
 - soft when hit, the user is warned, and after a time period elapses without resolution, they will be locked out
 - hard the user is locked out when the limit is hit

- limits are set per disk partition typically, only certain partitions have quotas:
 - /home
 - /tmp
 - /var/spool/lpd print spools
 - /var/spool/mail mail spools
 - /var/www web sites

Quotas and SELinux

Note: SELinux must be turned off for quotas to be enabled:

root# setenforce 0

The quota package must be installed. For Debian:

root# apt install quota

For RHEL:

root# yum install quota

Turning On Quotas

 step one: mount a partition with quota options (usrquota and grpquota):

```
root# mount /dev/sda6 /mnt/qpart -o usrquota,grpquota
root# mount | grep qpart
/dev/sda6 on /mnt/qpart type ext4 (usrquota,grpquota)
```

• or:

root# mount -o remount usrquota, grpquota /dev/sda6

Turning On Quotas

- step two:
 - execute quotacheck to create needed files:

```
root# quotacheck -acuvgm
```

 or create two files on the partition that are readable only by root:, then executed quotacheck:

```
root# touch /mnt/qpart/aquota.user
root# touch /mnt/qpart/aquota.group
root# chmod 0600 /mnt/qpart/aquota.*
root# quotacheck -auvgm
```

Turning On Quotas

step four: turn on quotas for the partition:

```
root# quotaon /dev/sda6
```

Setting Quotas

to set quotas, edit the quotas for a user with edquota:

```
root# edquota student
```

this command brings up an editor with this content:

```
Disk quotas for user student (uid 502):

Filesystem blocks soft hard nodes soft hard
/dev/sda6 0 0 0 0 0 0
```

Setting Quotas

• if a limit has a value of 0, there is no quota - let's give student some limits:

```
Disk quotas for user student (uid 502):

Filesystem blocks soft hard nodes soft hard
/dev/sda6 0 20 40 0 20 40
```

Setting Quotas

we can create quotas for a group:

Setting Quotas

setting the grace periods:

```
root# edquota -t

Grace period before enforcing soft limits for users:

Time units may be: days, hours, minutes or seconds

Filesystem Block grace period Inode grace period

/dev/sda6 7days 7days
```

Testing Quotas

 create a directory for student, switch to that user, and copy some files over:

```
root# mkdir /boot/forstudent
root# chown student:student /boot/forstudent
root# su - student
student$ cd /boot/forstudent
student$ cp -r /etc/pam.d .
cp: error writing './pam.d/chsh': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/cron': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/cups': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/gnome-screensaver': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/lightdm': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/lightdm-autologin': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/lightdm-greeter': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/lightdm-greeter': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/login': Disk quota exceeded
cp: error writing './pam.d/login': Disk quota exceeded
```

More On Quotas

we can apply one user's quotas to other users:

```
root# edquota -p student jdoe jsmith
```

 to make quotas permanent, edit /etc/fstab and add the usrquota, grpquota options:

```
/dev/sda6 /mnt/qpart ext4 usrquota, grpquota 1 2
```

Exercise

- 1. Turn on quotas for /mnt/ex1.
- 2. Set up quotas for blocks (10 soft, 40 hard) and inodes (10 soft, 40 hard).
- 3. Copy enough data for the user to exceed one of the soft limits.
- 4. Copy enough data for the user to exceed one of the hard limits.
- 5. Create a new user, give that new user the same quotas.
- 6. Turn off quotas for /mnt/ex1.

Logical Volume Manager

LVM is a Logical Volume Manager - it manages disk drives, usually large ones. Some common uses are:

- similar to RAID 0, make a single logical volume out of multiple physical volumes, allowing for dynamic resizing
- add, replace, copy disks without disrupting service good for large disk farms
- easily resize partitions as needed good for desktops
- make backups (snapshots)

- LVM is a layer of software on top of the disk and partitions, creating a logical, continuous disk that is easy to resize
- Any partition, with the exception of /boot, can be part of an LVM

- many distributions support LVM during the installation:
 - Ubuntu can select LVM
 - /boot partition as ext4
 - / partition as LVM
 - swap partition as LVM
 - Centos default is LVM
 - /boot partition as xfs
 - / partition as LVM
 - swap partition as LVM

- basic functionality:
 - create one or more Physical Volumes (PVs) using one or more disk partitions (on one or more disks)
 - create a Volume Group (VG) by combining one or more PVs
 - create one or more Logical Volumes (LVs) in a VG
 - VGs can be extended by adding additional PVs
 - LVs can be resized by adding or removing extents

Working with LVMs

- It might be necessary to install the required software
 - Debian

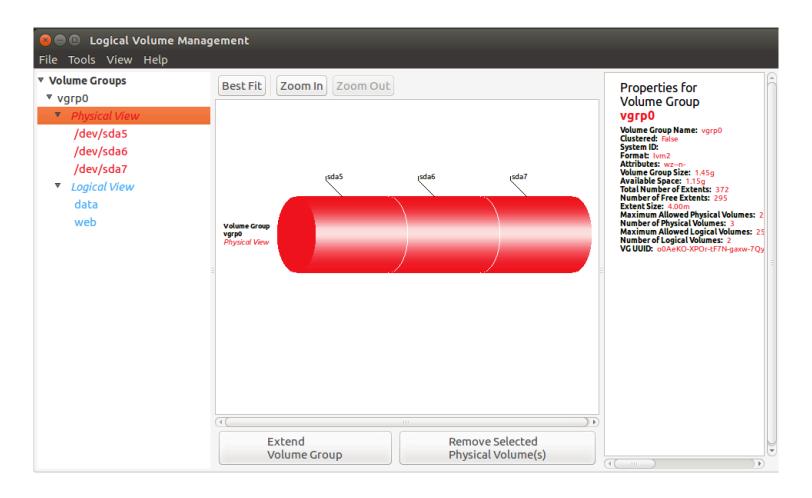
```
root# apt install lvm2 system-config-lvm
```

RHEL

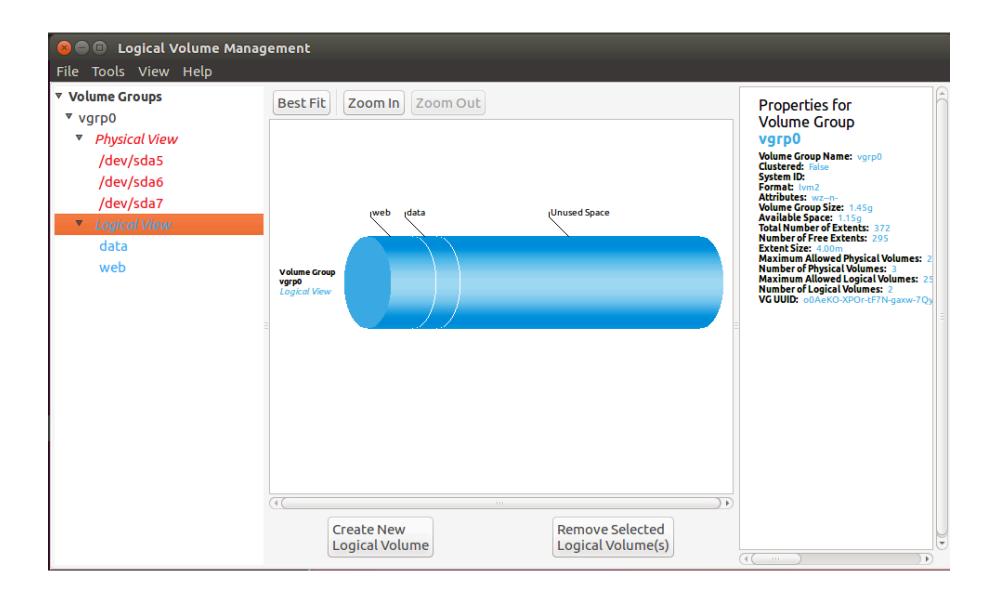
```
root# yum install lvm2 system-config-lvm
```

Graphical Tools

• system-config-lvm



Graphical Tools



Working with LVMs

To create an LVM:

- create partitions and give them a type of 8e
- initialize each physical volume with pvcreate
- create a volume group with vgcreate
- create mountable logical volumes with lvcreate

Create LVM Partitions

The first step in creating an LVM is to create disk partitions that will be part of the volume group. These partitions can be on the same physical disk, or they can be on different physical disks. Create the partitions with type 8e, Linux LVM.

Initialize LVM PV

 The next step in creating an LVM is to initialize each physical volume with pvcreate

```
root# pvcreate /dev/sda{8,9,10}
Physical volume "/dev/sda8" successfully created
Physical volume "/dev/sda9" successfully created
Physical volume "/dev/sda10" successfully created
```

Initialize LVM PV

Let's look at one of the partitions with with pvdisplay (with no argument, this command shows all PVs)

```
root# pvdisplay /dev/sda8
  "/dev/sda8" is a new physical volume of "500.00 MiB"
  --- NEW Physical volume ---
                         /dev/sda8
 PV Name
 VG Name
 PV Size
                        500.00 MiB
 Allocatable
                        NO
 PE Size
                         0
  Total PE
                         0
 Free PE
                         0
 Allocated PE
 PV UUID
                         nno7Lt-9R3g-eKw4-kt66-IuDv-8g9Y-ahVsXn
```

The next step in creating an LVM is to create a volume group that contains the physical volumes. The -s option is the size of the extents

```
root# vgcreate vgrp0 /dev/sda{8,9,10}
Volume group "vgrp0" successfully created
```

```
root# vgdisplay vgrp0
  --- Volume group ---
 VG Name
                        vgrp0
  System ID
 Format.
                        lvm2
                        3
 Metadata Areas
 Metadata Sequence No
                        read/write
 VG Access
 VG Status
                        resizable
 MAX LV
                         0
 Cur LV
                         0
 Open LV
 Max PV
                         0
  Cur PV
 Act PV
                        1.45 GiB
 VG Size
 PE Size
                        4.00 MiB
  Total PE
                        372
                        0 / 0
 Alloc PE / Size
 Free PE / Size
                        372 / 1.45 GiB
 VG UUID
                        o0AeKO-XPOr-tF7N-gaxw-7Qyp-Tb83-4ku7PC
```

The next step in creating an LVM is to create a mountable logical volume group (LVG) in an existing VG with lvcreate. This is a mountable volume.

root# lvcreate -L 200M -n web vgrp0 Logical volume "web" created.

```
root# lvdisplay /dev/vgrp0/web
  --- Logical volume ---
 LV Path
                          /dev/vgrp0/web
 LV Name
                         web
 VG Name
                          vgrp0
 LV UUID
                          eHoiBQ-hRMH-auG7-eLCl-oYjG-HY7K-A1xWOW
                         read/write
 LV Write Access
 LV Creation host, time ubuntu2, 2017-09-30 11:49:45 -0400
 LV Status
                          available
  # open
                          0
 LV Size
                          200,00 MiB
  Current LE
                          50
  Segments
 Allocation
                          inherit
  Read ahead sectors
                          auto
  - currently set to
                         256
  Block device
                          253:0
```

```
root# mkfs.ext4 /dev/vgrp0/web
root# mkdir /mnt/web
root# mount /dev/vgrp0/web /mnt/web
root# blkid | grep web
/dev/mapper/vgrp0-web:
UUID="4253b8b2-626d-4366-8e1c-15144a011236" TYPE="ext4"
# add to /etc/fstab
/dev/vgrp0/web /mnt/web ext4 defaults 0 2
```

Let's create another LV:

```
# make 20 extents
root# lvcreate -l 20 -n data vgrp0
root# mkfs.ext4 /dev/vgrp0/data
root# mkdir /mnt/data
root# mount /dev/vgrp0/data /mnt/data
# add to /etc/fstab
/dev/vgrp0/data /mnt/data ext4 defaults 0 2
```

Resizing Logical Volumes

Logical volumes can be resized without needing to reboot. They can be expanded without having to unmount (if the size is to be reduced, then it must be unmounted). The lvextend will increase the size of the volume, and lvreduce will decrease its size.

The lvextend option -L extends the volume by a given size, the -1 option extends by the number of extents.

Resizing Logical Volumes

```
root# lvextend -L +10M /dev/vgrp0/data
Rounding size to boundary between physical extents: 12.00 MiB
Size of logical volume vgrp0/data changed from 80.00 MiB (20
extents) to 92.00 MiB (23 extents).
Logical volume data successfully resized.
root# lvextend -l +4 /dev/vgrp0/data
Size of logical volume vgrp0/data changed from 96.00 MiB (24
extents) to 112.00 MiB (28 extents).
Logical volume data successfully resized.
```

Resizing Logical Volumes

To reduce the size of a logical volume:

```
root# umount /mnt/data
root# lvreduce -L -5M /dev/vgrp0/data
  Rounding size to boundary between physical extents: 4.00 MiB
  WARNING: Reducing active logical volume to 108.00 MiB
  THIS MAY DESTROY YOUR DATA (filesystem etc.)
Do you really want to reduce data? [y/n]: y
  Size of logical volume vgrp0/data changed from 112.00 MiB
(28 extents) to 108.00 MiB (27 extents).
  Logical volume data successfully resized.
root# mount /dev/vgrp0/data /mnt/data
```

Removing Logical Volumes

Logical volumes can be removed with lvremove:

```
root# umount /mnt/data
root# lvremove /dev/vgrp0/data
```

Adding Physical Volumes

first, create a new disk partition (in this example, 11):

Adding Physical Volumes

next, create a physical volume:

```
root# pvcreate /dev/sda11
Physical volume "/dev/sda11" successfully created
```

 next, add the partition to the volume group with vgextend:

```
root# vgextend vgrp0 /dev/sda11
Volume group "vgrp0" successfully extended
```

Display LVM Info

As a review, we can display information about our LVMs:

physical volumes

```
root# pvdisplay /dev/sda8
```

volume groups

```
root# vgdisplay vgrp0
```

logical volumes

```
root# lvdisplay /dev/vgrp0/web
```

RAID

Software RAID

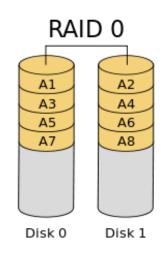
- RAID (Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks) came about because (as the story goes) an organization with little money and a lot of old hard drives needed some storage space. So the idea to combine the inexpensive disks into a single disk was born. These days, they are better known as Redundant Array of Independent Disks.
- RAID is often used as a term describing a way to divide and replicate data among multiple disks.

Software Raid

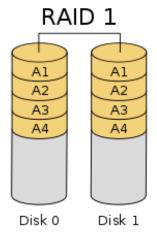
- RAID redundancy is achieved through:
 - mirroring writing the same data to multiple drives
 - parity data extra data across multiple disks for fault tolerance, data is computed on one or more disks and stored in another location

Types of RAID Drives

- Different types of RAID drives:
 - RAID 0 striped disks distribute data across all disks - no parity, redundancy or fault tolerance (for speed)

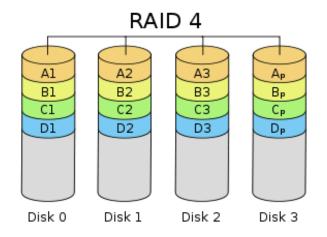


 RAID 1 - mirrored disks - duplicates data across all disks in the array

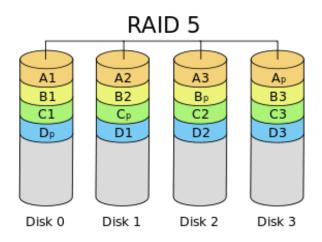


Types of RAID Drives

- RAID 2 and 3 rarely used
- RAID 4 striping with a dedicated parity disk

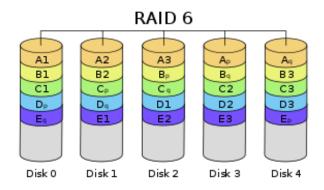


 RAID 5 - striped disks with parity - combines 3 or more disks so that loss of one disk will not lose any data

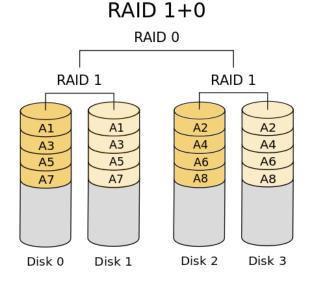


Types of RAID Drives

 RAID 6 - striped disks with dual parity - can recover from the loss of two disks (uncommon)



 RAID 10 (1 + 0) - striped and mirrored disks - uses both striping and mirroring



Software RAID

- Software RAID is when the various RAID levels are implemented within the kernel:
 - cheapest solution
- To create a software RAID:
 - create partitions
 - create virtual device file
 - that device file is then mounted

Creating a Software RAID

install packages if necessary

```
root# apt install mdadm
root# yum install mdadm
```

create 2 or more disk partitions of type fd:

tell the kernel about the new disk partitions:

```
root# partprobe
```

Creating a Software RAID

• create the virtual device (device is /dev/md0, RAID 1, two disks):

format the RAID:

```
root# mkfs.ext4 /dev/md0
```

create a mount point and mount the partition:

```
root# mkdir /mnt/RAID
root# mount /dev/md0 /mnt/RAID
```

Creating a Software RAID

store new detail in configuration file

```
root# mdadm --detail --scan | \
    tee -a /etc/mdadm/mdadm.conf
```

 update the initial RAM file system so the array will be available during the early boot process

```
root# update-initramfs -u
```

• add a mount point to /etc/fstab:

```
root# echo '/dev/md0 /mnt/RAID ext4 \
          defaults,nofail,discard 0 0' | \
          tee -a /etc/fstab
```

RAID Info

To show information about the RAID device

```
root# mdadm -D /dev/md0
```

```
/dev/md0:
```

Version: 1.2

Creation Time : Fri Sep 29 17:24:11 2017

Raid Level: raid1

Array Size: 511680 (499.77 MiB 523.96 MB)

Used Dev Size: 511680 (499.77 MiB 523.96 MB)

Raid Devices : 2

Total Devices : 2

Persistence: Superblock is persistent

RAID Info

```
Update Time: Fri Sep 29 17:47:20 2017
         State: clean
Active Devices: 2
Working Devices : 2
Failed Devices: 0
 Spare Devices : 0
          Name: ubuntu2:0 (local to host ubuntu2)
          UUID: 9077a64b:ee2fcfc0:08fc26bd:5e9f1bd8
        Events: 21
   Number
            Major Minor RaidDevice State
              8
                                      active sync
                       5
dev/sda5
```

dev/sda6

active sync

Removing a RAID

- To remove a RAID:
 - unmount the device:

```
root# umount /dev/md0
```

stop and remove the RAID:

```
root# mdadm --stop /dev/md0
root# mdadm --remove /dev/md0
```

Removing a RAID

remove the line added at the bottom of mdadm.conf:

```
root# vi /etc/mdadm/mdadm.conf
```

update the initial RAM file system:

```
root# update-initramfs -u
```

• remove entry from /etc/fstab

Exercise

- 1. Create an LVM:
 - 3 partitions of size 1024M
 - 1 volume group
 - 2 logical volumes: vol1 (512M) and vol2 (100 extents)
 - mount the volumes at /mnt/vol1 and /mnt/vol2
 - add them to /etc/fstab
 - reboot to confirm they mount at boot

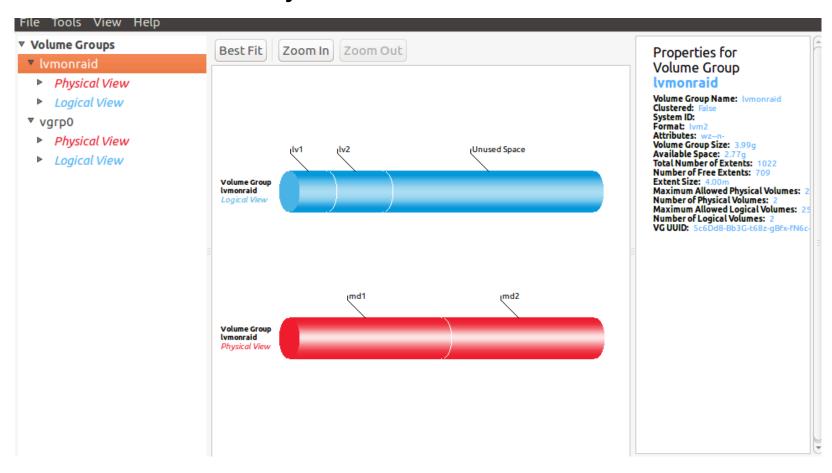
Exercise

2. Create a RAID:

- 3 partitions of size 1024M
- RAID 0
- block size 2048
- stride 32
- mount it at /mnt/RAID
- add it to /etc/fstab
- reboot to confirm they mount at boot

Supplemental: LVM on RAID

Let's create an LVM from two partitions, each partition is a RAID with redundancy.



1. Create partitions - use fdisk and create 4 2G partitions:

2. Create 2 RAIDS from these 4 partitions, 2 partitions each:

- 3. Create create an LVM from these raids first create PV:
- # pvcreate /dev/md1 /dev/md2
- 4. Create a VG:
- # vgcreate lvmonraid /dev/md1 /dev/md2
- 5. Create some LVs:
- # lvcreate -L 500M -n lv1 lvmonraid
 # lvcreate -L 750M -n lv2 lvmonraid

6. Format these LVs:

```
# mkfs.ext4 /dev/lvmonraid/lv1
# mkfs.ext4 /dev/lvmonraid/lv2
```

7. Mount them:

```
# mkdir /mnt/lv1
# mkdir /mnt/lv2
# mount /dev/lvmonraid/lv1 /mnt/lv1
# mount /dev/lvmonraid/lv2 /mnt/lv2
```

The result:

