Advanced Unix System Administration Fall 2008 Homework 2 Solutions

- 1. POSIX ACLs, and portability considerations. I noted in class that the interface to POSIX draft ACLs isn't the same on all the systems where ACLs are implemented. Here's a chance to work with ACLs a bit, and look at portability differences between Linux and Solaris (specifically, Solaris Nevada build 99, a pre-release version of Solaris 11).
 - a. On a Linux box (like the login server), create a new file with permissions 0600, then set ACLs on it allowing user nobody to read it (don't forget the mask). Look at the output of ls -l on the file. Repeat on Solaris. What differences, if any, do you notice?

On Linux:

sluo@tempest:~\$ touch file
sluo@tempest:~\$ chmod 600 file
sluo@tempest:~\$ setfacl -m u:nobody:4,m:4 file
sluo@tempest:~\$ ls -l file
-rw-r----+ 1 sluo sluo 0 2008-04-21 19:21 file

On Solaris (I'm using a Solaris 10 box, but you should have gotten the same results):

```
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ touch file
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ chmod 600 file
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ setfacl -m u:nobody:4,m:4 file
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ ls -l file
-rw-----+ 1 sluo ocf 0 Apr 21 19:22 file
```

The commands work the same way, but 1s shows different permissions for the file. Recall that the mask attribute for a POSIX ACL is actually stored as the regular group permissions on the file, and not as part of the ACL list; the Linux 1s is simply displaying the regular permission bits, whereas the Solaris 1s is smart enough to look at the ACLs on the file:

```
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ setfacl -m g::4 file
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ ls -l file
-rw-r----+ 1 sluo ocf 0 Apr 21 19:22 file
```

In both cases, a + is displayed at the end of the permissions string, to indicate that an ACL is set on the file.

(In either case, you could have used symbolic modes:

setfacl -m u:nobody:r--,m:r-- file

would also have worked. I'm just used to numeric modes.)

 b. Remove the ACLs on the file, on both Linux and Solaris. What did you do differently on each system?
 Linux:

sluo@tempest:~\$ setfacl -x u:nobody,m file
sluo@tempest:~\$ ls -l file
-rw----- 1 sluo sluo 0 2008-04-21 19:21 file

Solaris:

[sluo@asteroid ~]\$ setfacl -d u:nobody,m: file
[sluo@asteroid ~]\$ ls -l file
-rw----- 1 sluo ocf 0 Apr 21 19:22 file

Not only do they need different arguments to setfac1, they parse the ACL specification list differently! Annoying.

c. Now create a directory with permissions 0700. Set a default ACL on it allowing user **nobody** to read files created in this directory, and **cd** into and read subdirectories of this directory. How does the procedure for doing this differ? Linux:

```
sluo@tempest:~$ mkdir dir
sluo@tempest:~$ chmod 700 dir
sluo@tempest:~$ setfacl -m d:u:nobody:5,d:m:5 dir
Solaris:
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ mkdir dir
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ chmod 700 dir
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ setfacl -m \
```

d:u::7,d:g::0,d:o:0,d:u:nobody:5,d:m:5 dir

Notice you have to specify all the default ACL entries – if you'd tried what you did on Linux, you'd see:

```
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ setfacl -m d:u:nobody:5,d:m:5 dir
Missing user/group owner, other, mask entry
aclcnt 6, file dir
```

When default ACL entries are present, the user and group owner and other entries must always be present; unlike the Linux setfac1, the Solaris setfac1 does not fill these values in for you with sane defaults if you omit them.

d. Create a new file and a new subdirectory in this directory, and look at the ACLs that they inherit. Are they the same on both Linux and Solaris? How does the mask interact with the ACL entry for user nobody? Linux:

```
sluo@tempest:~$ cd dir
sluo@tempest: ~/dir$ touch file
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ mkdir dir
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ getfacl file
# file: file
# owner: sluo
# group: sluo
user::rw-
user:nobody:r-x
                                #effective:r--
group::---
mask::r--
other::---
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ getfacl dir
# file: dir
# owner: sluo
# group: sluo
user::rwx
user:nobody:r-x
group::---
mask::r-x
other::---
default:user::rwx
default:user:nobody:r-x
default:group::---
default:mask::r-x
```

```
default:other::---
Solaris:
[sluo@asteroid ~]$ cd dir
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ touch file
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ mkdir dir
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ getfacl file
# file: file
# owner: sluo
# group: ocf
user::rw-
user:nobody:r-x
                        #effective:r--
group::---
                        #effective:---
mask:r--
other:---
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ getfacl dir
# file: dir
# owner: sluo
# group: ocf
user::rwx
user:nobody:r-x
                        #effective:r-x
group::---
                        #effective:---
mask:r-x
other:---
default:user::rwx
default:user:nobody:r-x
default:group::---
default:mask:r-x
default:other:---
```

The inherited ACLs are (thankfully) the same on Linux and Solaris. Notice the ACL on the file you created; the ACL for nobody says that read and execute permissions should be available, but the mask no longer has the execute bit set (presumably because touch created the file with requested permissions 0666, which prevents the file from being executed), so execute is not permitted.

e. Use chmod to add group execute permissions to the file you created in part (d). Look at the ACLs now; why did they change in this way? Compare the ACLs on Linux and Solaris. Are they the same? Linux:

```
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ chmod g+x file
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ getfacl file
# file: file
# owner: sluo
# group: sluo
user::rw-
user:nobody:r-x
group::---
mask::r-x
other::---
Solaris:
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ chmod g+x file
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ getfacl file
# file: file
# owner: sluo
# group: ocf
user::rw-
user:nobody:r-x
                        #effective:r-x
group::--x
                        #effective:--x
mask:r-x
other:---
```

In both cases, execute permission is added to the mask (remember that the mask is stored as the regular group permission). Solaris chmod also creates a group owner ACL for you with the execute bit set, which results in more intuitive behavior than on Linux (where chmod g+x doesn't give the group owner execute permission, like it normally would). In both cases, though, the addition of execute permission to the mask also allows user nobody to execute the file – perhaps not the result you were expecting!

f. Set umask 777, then try creating a new file. Is the umask honored? Linux:

```
sluo@tempest: ~/dir$ umask 777
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ touch file2
sluo@tempest:~/dir$ getfacl file2
# file: file2
# owner: sluo
# group: sluo
user::rw-
                                #effective:r--
user:nobody:r-x
group::---
mask::r--
other::---
Solaris:
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ umask 777
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ touch file2
[sluo@asteroid ~/dir]$ getfacl file2
# file: file2
# owner: sluo
# group: ocf
user::rw-
user:nobody:r-x
                        #effective:r--
group::---
                        #effective:---
mask:r--
other:---
```

In a word, no. This is rather unfortunate, as it means, for example, that setting a default ACL on your home directory is not such a good idea (because programs which change the umask and expect the files they create to be private won't have such behavior).

g. Trace the getfacl command on both systems (on Solaris, you want truss(1)). Identify the system call used to access the ACL list. Is it the same on both systems? *Optional:* What does this reveal about the way POSIX draft ACLs are implemented on the two systems?

On Linux, strace getfacl file contains the following:

```
getxattr("file", "system.posix_acl_access", "\x02\x00"..., 132)
= 44
```

Linux stores POSIX ACLs as a form of extended attribute in the underlying filesystem, so the system call used to get the ACLs is the generic one for accessing extended attributes. A libacl userspace library provides functions so that programs don't have to know this.

On Solaris, truss getfacl file gives us:

| <pre>acl("file",</pre> | GETACLCNT, | 0, 0x0000000) | = 5 |
|------------------------|------------|---------------|-----|
| <pre>acl("file",</pre> | GETACL, 5, | 0x08063778) | = 5 |

Solaris has a dedicated acl() system call for accessing ACLs. (This doesn't tell us anything about how ACLs are implemented on Solaris, by the way.)

These sorts of portability differences drive everyone who has to work on multiple systems crazy; this is why, where possible, you want to demand that your software vendors work towards creating cross-platform standards, and adhere to existing standards to the greatest degree possible.

- 2. User names and UIDs. As I mentioned in class, the relationship between user names and UIDs is not as absolute as you might believe.
 - a. Create a new user, and observe what 1s shows the owner of that user's home directory to be.

```
tempest:~# adduser foobar
[...]
tempest:~# ls -ld /home/foobar
drwxr-xr-x 2 foobar foobar 4096 2008-04-22 02:51 /home/foobar
```

No surprises so far.

b. Change the username (edit /etc/passwd and /etc/shadow). Does the owner displayed by 1s for the user's home directory change as well?

After changing the username to **baz** by editing the appropriate files:

```
tempest:~# ls -ld /home/foobar
drwxr-xr-x 2 baz foobar 4096 2008-04-22 02:51 /home/foobar
```

c. Remove the /etc/passwd entry for your new user (make a backup first, you'll need it for the rest of the problem). Now what does ls show for the ownership of the user's home directory?

Now we see:

```
tempest:~# ls -ld /home/foobar
drwxr-xr-x 2 1007 foobar 4096 2008-04-22 02:51 /home/foobar
```

d. Based on the above, how do you think the ownership information is stored on disk? How do you think 1s decides what username to display?

Clearly, ownership information is stored on disk with the numeric user ID – which is in keeping with the general principle that access checks on users are done on the user ID, not the username. On most systems, 1s decides what username to display for a particular UID based on the mapping defined in /etc/passwd; more generally, the Name Service Switch is used to determine what data source to use for username-UID mappings.

If, for some reason, you managed to do these exercises on a machine where the name service cache daemon (nscd) was running, it might have taken several minutes for the cached entries to expire; hence the changes to /etc/passwd may not have been reflected immediately in the ls output. nscd is rare on systems that don't use network NSS sources (LDAP, NIS, etc.), though, so this wasn't likely a problem for you.

e. Restore the entry you removed, and create a second entry in /etc/passwd with the same UID, but a different username. Copy the /etc/shadow entry for the first user and change the username to match your duplicate user. Try logging in as both. Do things look and behave the same for both? Is there a difference in what files they can read? Can they kill each other's processes?

You should notice that everything looks and behaves the same way for both users, that they can read the same files, and kill each other's processes. Again, remember that in general, access checks in the kernel are done by UID and not by username, so this makes sense.

f. Add one of the users to a group to which it doesn't already belong, and try logging in as both users again. Do they both belong to this group? Change one of the users' passwords. Do they both have the same password now? Having added baz, but not quux, to group cdrom by editing /etc/group, we see this for baz:

baz@tempest:~\$ echo \$USER baz baz@tempest:~\$ groups foobar cdrom

For quux, on the other hand:

```
baz@tempest:~$ echo $USER
quux
baz@tempest:~$ groups
foobar
```

In other words, it is possible to add one user to groups without adding the other.

You should also have noticed that changing the password for one user does not affect the password for the other user.

These are two of the places where the information is indexed by username and not UID, so this isn't too surprising; the inconsistency is perhaps a bit troubling, but there's really nothing to be done about it at this point ...

g. Based on the above, why might you want to have two users with the same UID? How might this be abused?

Having two users with the same UID might be useful in a situation where you want the same "user" to be able to have two different group lists; for example, where you normally want to log in without certain extra groups, but want to be able to get those groups' privileges without losing access to files owned by that user. On the other hand, a second account with UID 0 might go completely unnoticed, but still have full root privileges (attackers have been known to create extra accounts with UID 0 as a form of crude back door, in fact).

- 3. A simplified set of init scripts. I mentioned in class that reading init scripts is one of the best ways to learn how an unfamiliar, inadequately documented system is put together and how to configure it. Here's a simplified set of init scripts that does what it takes to configure and boot the system, while being easier to read through than real scripts (which have to deal with many varied configurations, errors, etc.). Note that, to avoid complexity, the configuration looks different than most traditional Unix systems.
 - a. Examine /etc/inittab. Do these init scripts implement a SysV- or BSD-style init? How do you know?

They implement SysV-style init – they deal with runlevels, which is a concept traditional BSD-style init doesn't have.

b. Describe in general terms the tasks that will be performed on every system boot, no matter which runlevel is selected.
 /etc/inittab has this to say about what happens when the system boots:

si::sysinit:/etc/init.d/rc S

On boot, then, /etc/init.d/rc S is run. Reading this script, we find that this just runs all the scripts linked to in /etc/rcS.d, with links starting with S called with the start argument and links starting with K called with stop:

- S01hostname: sets the system hostname to the contents of /etc/hostname
- S02mountkernfs: mounts /proc and /sys, pseudo-filesystems used by various programs on Linux
- S10mountroot: checks the root filesystem for errors, then mounts it
- S15modules: loads kernel modules listed in /etc/modules
- S20mountfs: check and mount the rest of the filesystems
- S30networking: configure network interfaces
- S50wtmp: create /var/run/utmp. utmp is used by the system to record who's currently logged in.
- S70urandom: load some stored entropy (randomness) from the last boot into the kernel random number generator, to ensure that the generated random numbers won't be predictable
- c. How would you configure a new filesystem (/dev/hdc1, type ext3, mounted on /export with options nodev and nosuid) to be mounted on boot? What if you didn't want it to be mounted on boot? How would you change the mount options for the root filesystem? How would you force the system to check all filesystems on the next boot?

To add the new filesystem, add a file in /etc/filesystems (for example, /etc/filesystems/3, though any other name would do; note that filesystems are mounted in the order which these filenames sort), with the following contents:

```
DEVICE=/dev/hdc1
FSTYPE=ext3
MOUNTPOINT=/export
FSOPTS=nodev,nosuid
MOUNT_AT_BOOT=yes
```

To prevent this from being mounted on boot, simply change the value of MOUNT_AT_BOOT to any value other than "yes" (the logical choice being "no", but anything else would do too). (Note that it won't do to simply remove MOUNT_AT_BOOT from the file, since this results in behavior that depends on

what the previously considered filesystem was configured for! This is a bug in the script, which I didn't think was worth fixing.)

To change the mount options for the root filesystem (or any other filesystem, for that matter), edit the appropriate config file file (for the root filesystem, /etc/filesystems/0) and change or add the FSOPTS line as necessary.

To force a filesystem check on the next boot, touch /forcefsck.

Notice that this is nothing like the usual filesystem configuration, which involves editing /etc/fstab (or a similar file). The init scripts can implement any configuration interface they like; it's just that, in most cases, distributors implement standard interfaces like fstab. I chose not to do this here because the code needed to parse the file would have been more complex and difficult to read.

d. How would you add a new network interface (device name eth1, with IP address 10.20.42.42, netmask 255.255.0)? How would you change eth0's IP address? How would you change the default route?

To add a new network interface, add a new file /etc/netif/eth1 with the following contents:

IPADDR=10.20.42.42 NETMASK=255.255.255.0

To add another interface, just create a file in /etc/netif with the name of the interface, containing the appropriate settings.

To change ethO's IP address, edit the IPADDR variable in /etc/netif/ethO.

To change the default route, change the contents of /etc/defaultrouter.

As far as I know, this network configuration style isn't shared by any serious distribution, though elements of it are inspired by network configuration on the BSDs and Solaris.

e. What is the default runlevel? Describe in general terms the tasks that are performed when booting into this runlevel.

/etc/inittab contains the following:

id:3:initdefault:

which tells us that runlevel 3 is the default.

To determine what happens when we boot into this runlevel, we look at the lines in /etc/inittab with a "3" in the runlevel field:

r2:23:wait:/etc/init.d/rc 2 r3:3:wait:/etc/init.d/rc 3 1:23:respawn:/sbin/getty 38400 xvc0

In other words, when booting into runlevel 3, first /etc/init.d/rc 2 is run, then /etc/init.d/rc 3, then /sbin/getty 38400 xvc0 is run and respawned whenever it dies. This is a SysV-style init in the way Solaris implements it; when booting into runlevel N, tasks for runlevels 2 through (N - 1) are run as well.

The startup scripts in runlevel 2, which are run first, are:

- S10sysklogd: starts the system log daemon
- S11klogd: starts the kernel log daemon (reads from the kernel message log and writes the contents to syslog)
- S89cron: starts the cron daemon

Next, the script in runlevel 3 is run:

• S20ssh: starts the SSH daemon

The getty then provides terminal login services on xvc0, the device name of the virtual machine console. Each getty only handles one login session; once a user logs out, the getty dies and is respawned by init.

f. Describe in general terms what tasks are performed when the system is shut down. (Hint: which runlevel corresponds to shutdown?)

Remembering that the system goes into runlevel 0 when it's shut down, we look in /etc/inittab and find that the scripts in /etc/rc.0 are executed on shutdown:

- K10sshd: stop the SSH daemon
- K39cron: stop the cron daemon
- K48klogd: stop the kernel log daemon
- K49sysklogd: stop the system log daemon
- K50killall: kill all processes still running on the system
- K55wtmp: write a reboot record into /var/log/wtmp (which records everyone who's logged in, and each system start and stop)
- K55urandom: save some entropy to disk to seed the kernel random number generator with at the next boot
- K60networking: bring down network interfaces

- K80mountfs: unmount filesystems (note that, for simplicity, this doesn't deal with mounted filesystems which aren't in /etc/filesystems! this is probably a bug)
- K90mountroot: remount the root filesystem read-only
- K99poweroff: turn off the computer
- g. Suppose you wanted to have a webserver (init script /etc/init.d/httpd) be started on system startup and stopped gracefully on system shutdown. How would you set this up?

Add some links pointing to /etc/init.d/httpd in the appropriate runlevels:

- /etc/rc3.d/S20httpd
- /etc/rc0.d/K10httpd
- /etc/rc6.d/K10httpd

Where the start script is placed in the boot sequence doesn't really matter, as long as it's after filesystems have been mounted and the network has been brought up. The placement of the shutdown scripts doesn't really matter either, as long as the server's stopped before it's killed off via brute force by the killall script.

To be complete, we should also add a /etc/rc1.d/K10httpd killing off the server when we go into single user mode, but I didn't ask for that in the problem ...