

# Linux Network Administration

System Management  
COMP1071 - Summer 2020

# Managing Linux Systems

- We can consider several aspects of managing a Linux system
  - System resources
  - Users and access control
  - Software
  - Network services
- Small systems are typically run by a single individual performing all tasks, larger systems call for a role-based team approach
- No matter who performs these tasks, administrative access is required to make changes to the system configuration

# Administrative Access



- Most commands in a system can be run by any user, e.g. **cat**, **more**, **vi**, **mkdir**, **cd**, **rm**, etc.
- Superuser privilege is required to make changes to the system, e.g. modify configuration files, enable or disable services or devices, etc.
- For increased security and logging of access, we login as a normal user and use **su** or **sudo** to perform superuser tasks
- Extended sessions requiring **root** are often performed by starting a root shell using **su** or **sudo**
- The installation process for most distributions includes setting up this basic access for a default account

# Linux Installation

- Linux is distributed most commonly via http or ftp
- Most distributions are available from their vendor websites, [redhat.com](http://redhat.com), [fedora.redhat.com](http://fedora.redhat.com), [centos.org](http://centos.org), [scientificlinux.org](http://scientificlinux.org), [ubuntu.com](http://ubuntu.com), [debian.org](http://debian.org), [opensuse.org](http://opensuse.org), [kali.org](http://kali.org)
- [distrowatch.com](http://distrowatch.com) is a good website to find a purpose-built distro suited to your tasks and tastes
- Download a distro, burn it to a CD/DVD or a bootable USB device, and boot it

# Basic Linux System Setup

- As part of the installation process, there are several configuration steps performed
- Typically, you will be prompted for the information necessary to set the following:
  - **host name** - simple or fully-qualified, do not use the default name
  - **network config** - dhcp, or static with address/mask, gateway, dns server
  - **first end-user account** - user name and password
- Additionally, you may be asked to configure:
  - **host type** - server or desktop, i.e. do you want a GUI?
  - **storage** - disks, possibly raid configs
  - **software** - as common bundles of packages, or from a list of available packages
  - **localization** - timezone, locale, etc.

# Setting a Hostname

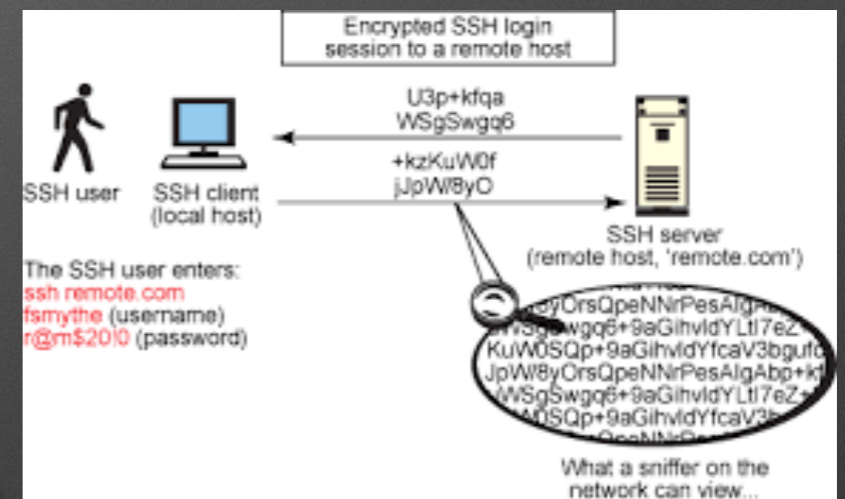
- Two files are used by Linux when booting which contain the hostname
- The `/etc/hostname` file contains a single line with the name of the host, this is used to set the system's hostname
- The `/etc/hosts` file contains the mappings of host name to IP addresses, the system's hostname often maps to a loopback address
- The `hostnamectl` command can be used to change the system hostname without editing files directly

# User Accounts

- User accounts can be managed with `useradd`, `usermod`, `userdel` or you can use `adduser`, `deluser`
- Groups can be managed with `groupadd`, `groupmod`, `groupdel` or you can use `addgroup`, `delgroup`
- Users may need to belong to a specific group to perform group-controlled tasks like `sudo`, `wheel`, or `lpadmin`
- Creating user accounts will copy the files in `/etc/skel` to the new user's home directory, giving them a directory structure and default environment to work with

# Remote Access

- Using **ssh** is the primary method to remotely access a Linux server command line for administration, and **ssh** is enabled as a service by default in many distros
- Typical defaults are:
  - **TCP** port **22**
  - passwords are required on accounts
  - direct root access requires keys or is disabled
- Keys can allow access between trusted hosts to eliminate password snooping, they are essentially just really long passwords stored securely and automatically used





# SSH Service

- **SSH** is a protocol and program suite that allows secure remote access for terminal login, file transfer, or tunneling applications
- It supports host identification, encryption and enhanced login security using key pairs, with all SSH services being provided by the **sshd** daemon program
- The **sshd** daemon configuration is kept in the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file and allows you to modify things like the port number and login options
- The **AllowUsers** or **AllowGroups** options can be used to restrict logins to specific user accounts
- Other interesting options include **PasswordAuthentication**, **PermitEmptyPasswords**, **PermitRootLogin**, **PubkeyAuthentication**

# Using Keys With SSH

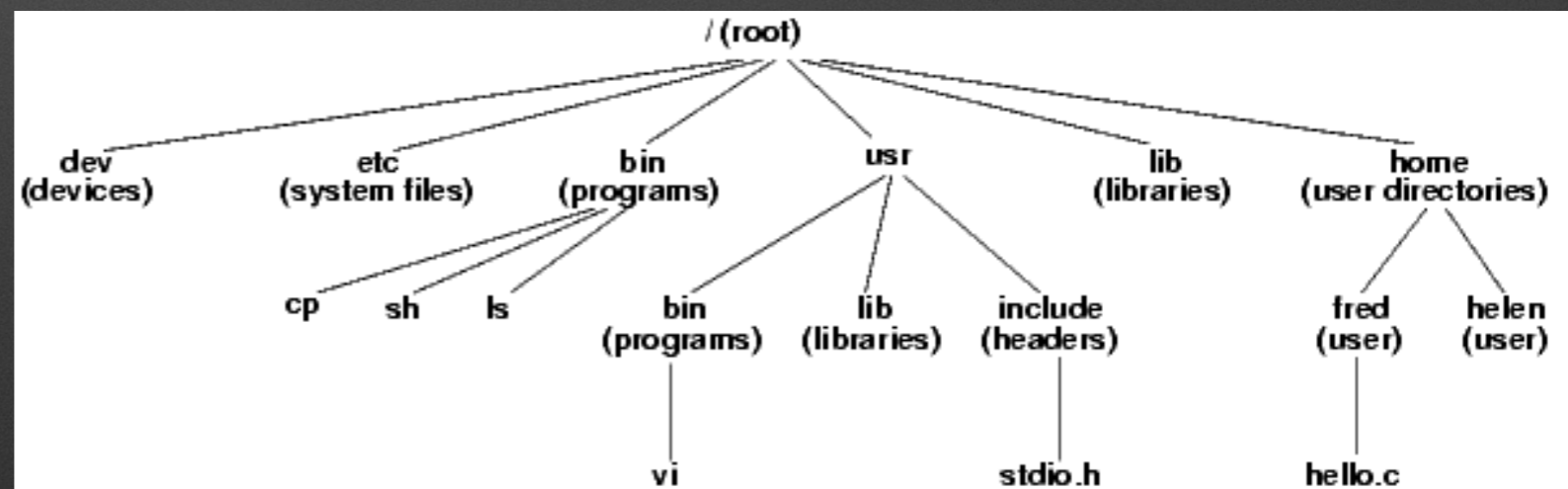
- To create keys for `ssh` login, use the `ssh-keygen` command on the client machine
- The private key gets saved on the client host in `~/.ssh/id_rsa`, and the public key gets saved in `~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub`
- Other encryption algorithms are also available
- Insert the public key from the `id_rsa.pub` file into `~/.ssh/authorized_keys` on the target host for the target user
- `~/.ssh/known_hosts` on the client host stores host keys for previously authorized connections, used to help prevent spoofing
- You should passphrase protect your private key file

# Remote Access Tools

- On a UNIX or Linux platform, simply use a terminal window and the **ssh** command, or the **sftp** command if you want to transfer files instead of using a terminal login  
e.g. **ssh [user[:password]@]hostname\_or\_ip\_address**
- On Windows, use a program like **putty**, input the **hostname or ip** you want, select **ssh**, and click **connect**
- If you have your server connected to your home network and the ability to forward a port on your router, you can forward the ssh port to the server's ip address and access the command line of your server from the internet  
**Be certain you have assigned a strong password to any login user accounts on the server if you do this! Also install the fail2ban package.**
- Showing information about who is, or was, logged in can be done with the **id**, **who**, **w**, and **last** commands

# Filesystems in Linux

- A filesystem is a data structure on a storage device, created using the **mkfs** command
- It stores user data using file types, names, directories, and attributes
- The file names are used to uniquely identify containers for data, directories, or mechanisms for accessing data stored elsewhere (i.e. links or devices)
- The names are hierarchically structured using directories in a tree structure with one root directory and all other files contained either in that directory, or in a subdirectory one or more levels below that

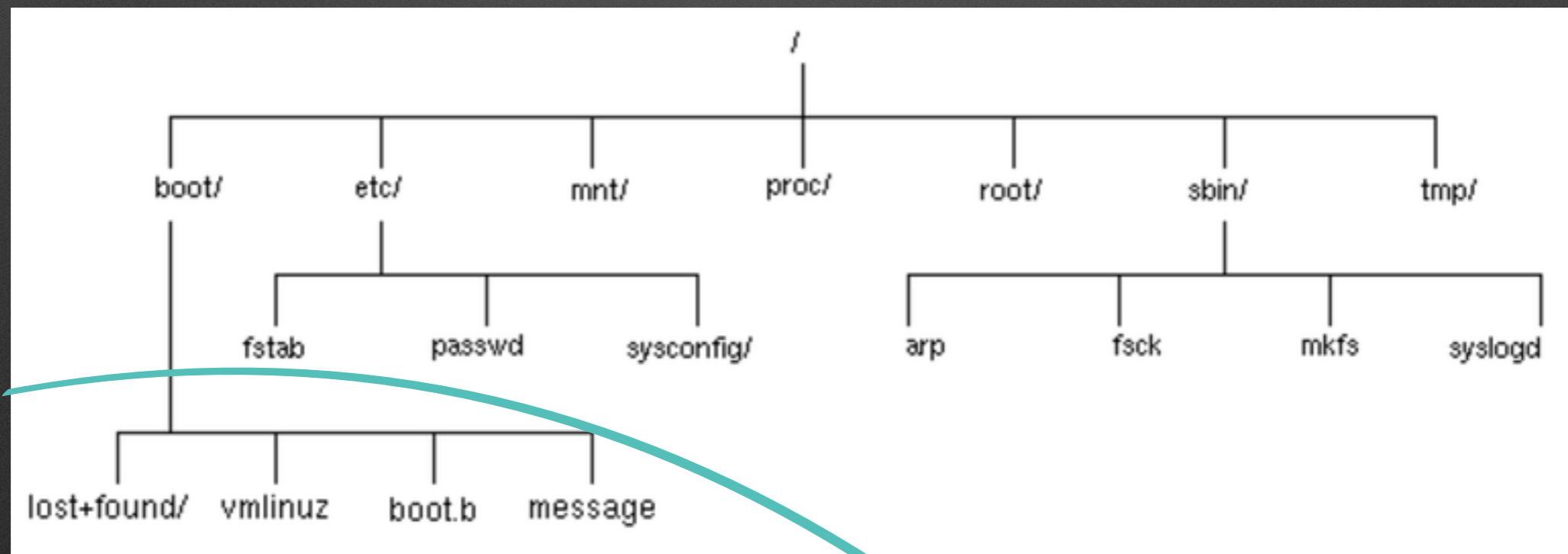


# Storage Devices

- Storage devices in Linux have corresponding files in the `/dev` directory
- Each partition or slice of a storage device can hold a filesystem, and each gets a unique name in `/dev`
- The name in `/dev` is constructed using a device type name followed by a unit number, optionally followed by a partition letter  
e.g. `/dev/sd0a`, `/dev/md0`, `/dev/disk/sd4g`
- The `lsblk` and `fdisk -l` commands can be used to show your attached block storage devices and their partitions with names

# Multiple Filesystems

- At powerup, the boot program creates the root point in memory and mounts the root filesystem onto it
- The boot filesystem is then mounted onto the `/boot` directory
- The kernel can access the files it needs using normal filesystem semantics
- The `/etc/fstab` file specifies the disk devices containing filesystems to be mounted along with their attributes such as filesystem type and options
- Filesystems may be manually connected and disconnected using the `mount` and `umount` commands, use `eject` for removable media drives such as USB drives, optical media, etc.



# Storage Usage

- Hardware identification and monitoring
  - `lshw`, `lspci`, `lsusb` will show installed and recognized hardware
  - `iostat` displays storage subsystems activity
- Storage monitoring and investigation
  - `df` shows storage in use and amount remaining
  - `du` can be used to identify what space is being used by specific files and directories
  - `tree` can be used to show the hierarchy of files in a directory tree
  - more detailed usage tracking can be done with many tools, e.g. `sar`

# Resource Investigation

- Hardware investigation
  - `lshw`, `lspci`, `lsusb`, `lscpu`, `lsblk` will show installed and recognized hardware
- Activity monitoring
  - `ps`, `vmstat`, `prstat`, `netstat`, `top` show system utilization; there are many flavours of the `top` command (e.g. `htop`, `vtop`, `iftop`, `slabtop`)
  - `memstat`, `mpstat`, `nfsiostat`, `cifsioostat` show additional information about specific resources



# sar

- **sar** is a system accounting report tool
- It can be run manually, collecting current data to report, or automatically for long term data collection
- It is disabled by default to avoid consuming log space
- Change the enabled setting in the file `/etc/default/sysstat` if you want it to collect data at all times

# Software Installation

- Software is managed using packages, Debian uses the deb packaging format
- **apt-get** (or just **apt**) is used to install software packages, it is a friendly face for the **dpkg** tool e.g. **apt-get install memstat**
- APT uses a database of software packages kept in **/var**, and updated with **apt-get update**
- Always make sure your package database is up to date before doing software installations or upgrades



**KEEP  
CALM  
and  
SUDO  
APT-GET IT**

# Software Configuration

- Many packages include scripts which run at installation to perform basic configuration of the software
- `dpkg` is the tool that does all the package management work and is useful for some manual tasks  
e.g. `dpkg -l`
- Re-running the installation scripts for a package is done using `dpkg-reconfigure packagename`
- After installation, some software packages are further configured by editing configuration files or by running additional tools, typically installed as part of the package

# Software Management

- Reviewing installed software and identifying which files belong to which packages is done with `dpkg`  
e.g. `dpkg -l packagename`  
`dpkg -L packagename`  
`dpkg -S filename`
- `unattended-upgrades` is a package you can use to automatically install updates, use `dpkg-reconfigure unattended-upgrades` to turn it on
- You can manually update your software by using `apt upgrade`, be sure to have an updated software database when doing this
- Removing software is done using `apt remove` or `apt autoremove` for software which is no longer required  
e.g. `apt-get remove bfgminer`  
e.g. `apt-get autoremove`

# Interesting Commands

- hostnamectl
- useradd, usermod, userdel
- adduser, deluser
- groupadd, groupmod, groupdel
- addgroup, delgroup
- ssh, ssh-keygen
- id, who, w, last
- mkfs, mount, umount, eject, fdisk
- lshw, lspci, lsusb, lscpu, lsblk
- iostat
- df, du, ltree
- sar
- ps, vmstat, prtstat, vmstat, top
- memstat, mpstat, nfsiostat, cifsioostat
- apt, apt-get
- dpkg, dpkg-reconfigure

# Interesting Files

- `/dev`
- `/boot`
- `/etc/fstab`
- `/etc/default/sysstat`
- `/var`
- `/etc/hostname`
- `/etc/hosts`
- `/etc/skel`
- `/etc/ssh/config`
- `~/.ssh`