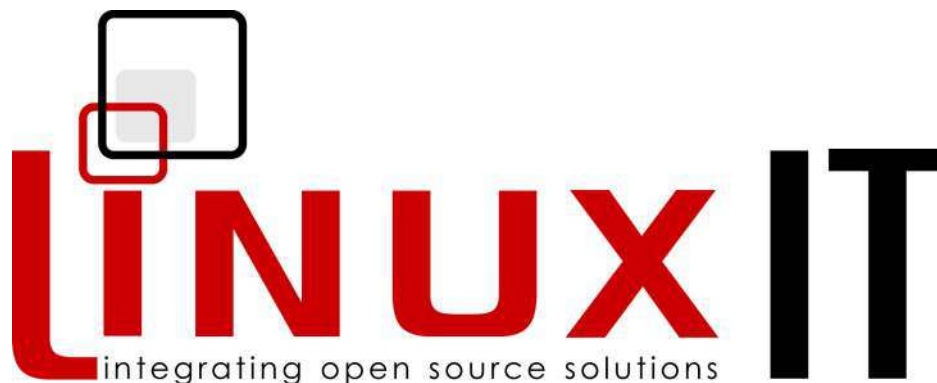


Study Guide for

Advanced Linux System Administration I

Lab work for LPI 201



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The Linux Kernel

This module will describe the kernel source tree and the documentation available. We will also apply patches and recompile patched kernels. Information found in the `/proc` directory will be highlighted.

1. Kernel Components

● Modules

Module Components in the Source Tree

In the kernel source tree `/usr/src/linux`, the kernel components are stored in various subdirectories:

Subdirectory	Description	Example
<code>./drivers</code>	contains code for different types of hardware support	pcmcia
<code>./fs</code>	code for filesystem supported	nfs
<code>./net</code>	code for network support	ipx

These components can be selected while configuring the kernel (see **2. Compiling a Kernel**).

Module Components at Runtime

The `/lib/modules/<kernelversion>/kernel` directory, has many of the same subdirectories present in the kernel source tree. However only the modules that have been compiled will be stored here.

● Types of Kernel Images

The various kernel image types differ depending only on the type of compression used to compress the kernel.

The **make** tool will read the `/usr/src/linux/Makefile` to compile

- A compressed linux kernel using **gzip** is compiled with: `make zImage`
The compiled kernel will be:

```
/usr/src/linux/arch/i386/boot/zImage
```

- A compressed linux kernel using better compression is compiled with: `make bzImage`
The compiled image will be:

```
/usr/src/linux/arch/i386/boot/bzImage
```

- One can also use: `make zdisk` or `make bzdisk` to create compressed kernels on a floppy. The compiled kernel will be written to:

```
/dev/fd0
```

Remember to put a floppy in the drive!

● Documentation

Most documentation is available in the `/usr/src/linux/Documentation` directory. The main files are the following:

File	Description
00-INDEX	Summary of the contents for each file in the Documentation directory
Configure.help	Contains the help displayed when configuring a kernel

The **Configure.help** file also provides further information for when a kernel module doesn't load properly. Specific options and aliases for `/etc/modules.conf` are specified in that file.

Information about compiling and documentation is available in `/usr/src/linux/README`.

The version of the kernel is set at the beginning of the Makefile.

```
VERSION = 2  
PATCHLEVEL = 4  
SUBLEVEL = 22  
EXTRAVERSION =
```

Make sure to add something to the EXTRAVERSION line like
`EXTRAVERSION=-test`

This will build a kernel called **2.4.22-test**

Notice: You need the “-” sign in EXTRAVERSION or else the version will be 2.4.22test

2. Compiling a Kernel

Compiling and installing a kernel can be described in three stages.

● Stage 1: configuring the kernel

Here we need to decide what kind of hardware and network support needs to be included in the kernel as well as which type of kernel we wish to compile (modular or monolithic). These choices will be saved in a single file:

```
/usr/src/linux/.config
```

Creating the .config file	
Command	Description
make config	Edit each line of .config one at a time
make menuconfig	Edit .config browsing through menus (uses ncurses)
make xconfig	Edit .config browsing through menus (uses GUI widgets)

When editing the **.config** file using any of the above methods the choices available for most kernel components are:

Do not use the module (n)
Statically compile the module into the kernel (y)
Compile the module as dynamically loadable (M)

Notice that some kernel components can only be statically compiled into the kernel. One cannot therefore have a totally modular kernel.

When compiling a **monolithic** kernel none of the components should be compiled dynamically.

● Stage 2: compiling the modules and the kernel

The next table outlines the various 'makes' and their function during this stage. Notice that not all commands actually compile code and that the **make modules_install** has been

included

Compiling	
Command	Description
make clean	makes sure no stale <code>.o</code> files have been left over from a previous build
make dep	adds a <code>.depend</code> with headers specific to the kernel components
make	build the kernel
make modules	build the dynamic modules
make modules_install	install the modules in <code>/lib/modules/kernel-version/</code>

● Stage 3: Installing the kernel image

This stage has no script and involves copying the kernel image manually to the boot directory and configuring the bootloader (LILO or GRUB) to find the new kernel.

3. Patching a Kernel

Incremental upgrades can be applied to an existing source tree. If you have downloaded the `linux-2.4.21.tgz` kernel source and you want to update to a more recent kernel `linux-2.4.22` for example, you must download the `patch-2.4.22` patch.

● Applying the Patch

The patch file attempts to overwrite files in the 2.4.21 tree. One way to apply the patch is to proceed as follows:

```
cd /usr/src
zcat patch-2.4.22.gz | patch -p0
```

The `-p` option can strip any number of directories the patch is expecting to find. In the above example the patch starts with:

```
--- linux-2.4.21/...
+++ linux-2.4.22/...
```

This indicates that the patch can be applied in the directory where the **linux-2.4.21** is.

However if we apply the patch from the **/usr/src/linux-2.4.21** directory then we need to strip the first part of all the paths in the patch. So that

```
--- linux-2.4.21/arch/arm/def-configs/adsagc
+++ linux-2.4.22/arch/arm/def-configs/adsagc
```

becomes

```
--- ./arch/arm/def-configs/adsagc
+++ ./arch/arm/def-configs/adsagc
```

This is done with the **-p1** option of **patch** effectively telling it to strip the first directory.

```
cd /usr/src/linux-2.4.21
zcat patch-2.4.22.gz | patch -p1
```

● Testing the Patch

Before applying a patch one can test what will be changed without making them:

```
patch -p1 -dry-run < patchfile
```

● Recovering the Old Source Tree

The **patch** tool has several mechanisms to reverse the effect of a patch.

In all cases, make sure the old configuration (.config file) is saved. For example, copy the .config file to the **/boot** directory.

```
cp .config /boot/config-kernelversion
```

1. Apply the patch in reverse

The **patch** tool has a **-R** switch which can be used to reverse all the operations in a patch file

Example: assuming we have patched the 2.4.21 Linux kernel with patch-2.4.22.gz

The next command will extract the patch:

```
cd /usr/src
zcat patch-2.4.22.gz | patch -p0 -R
```

2. You can backup the old changed file to a directory of your choice

```
mkdir oldfiles
patch -B oldfiles/ -p0 < patch-file
```

This has the advantage of letting you create a backup patch that can restore the source tree to it's original state.

```
diff -ur linux-2.4.21 oldfiles/linux-2.4.21 > recover-2.4.21-
patch
```

NOTICE

Applying this recover-2.4.21-patch will have the effect of removing the 2.4.22 patch we just applied in the previous paragraph

3. You can apply the patch with the -b option

By default this option keeps all the original files and appends a “.orig” to them.

```
patch -b -p0 < patch-file
```

The patch can be removed with the following lines:

```
for file in $(find linux-2.4.29 | grep orig)
do
FILENAME=$(echo $file | sed 's/\.orig//')
mv -f $file $FILENAME
```

```
done
```

● Building the New Kernel after a patch

Simply copy the old `.config` to the top of the source directory.

```
cp /boot/config-kernelversion /usr/src/linux-  
kernelversion/.config
```

Next 'make oldconfig' will only prompt for new features.

```
make oldconfig  
make dep  
make clean bzImage modules modules_install
```

4. Customising a Kernel

● Loading Kernel modules

Loadable modules are inserted into the kernel at runtime using various methods.

The **modprobe** tool can be used to selectively insert or remove modules and their dependencies.

The kernel can automatically insert modules using the **kmod** module. This module has replaced the **kerneld** module.

When using **kmod** the kernel will use the tool listed in `/proc/sys/kernel/modprobe` whenever a module is needed.

Check that **kmod** has been selected in the source tree as a static component:

```
grep -i "kmod" /usr/src/linux/.config  
CONFIG_KMOD=y
```

When making a monolithic kernel the CONFIG_MODULES option must be set to no.

● The /proc/ directory

The kernel capabilities that have been selected in a default or a patched kernel are reflected in the **/proc** directory. We will list some of the files containing useful information:

/proc/cmdline

Contains the command line passed at boot time to the kernel by the bootloader

/proc/cpuinfo

CPU information is stored here

/proc/meminfo

Memory statistics are written to this file

/proc/filesystems

Filesystems currently supported by the kernel. Notice that by inserting a new module (e.g cramfs) this will add an entry to the file. So the file isn't a list of all filesystems supported by the kernel!

/proc/partitions

The partition layout is displayed with further information such as the name, the number of block, the major/minor numbers, etc

/proc/sys/

The **/proc/sys** directory is the only place where files with write permission can be found (the rest of /proc is read-only). Values in this directory can be changed with the **sysctl** utility or set in the configuration file **/etc/sysctl.conf**

/proc/sys/kernel/hotplug

Path to the utility invoked by the kernel which implements hotplug (used for USB devices or hotplug PCI and SCSI devices)

/proc/sys/kernel/modprobe

Path to the utility invoked by the kernel to insert modules

/proc/sys/overflowgid/uid

Maximum number of users on a system. The filesystem uses 16 bits for the user and group fields, so the maximum is $2^{16} = 65534$ which is usually mapped to the user **nobody** or **nfsnobody** more recently

/proc/modules

List of currently loaded modules, same as the output of **lsmod**

TASK: Patch the linux-2.4.22-1.2149.nptl kernel to support Extended Attributes and Posix Access Control Lists (ACL) for ext2 and ext3 filesystems.

ACLs are beyond this course. All we need to know is that they provide a greater flexibility for directory and file permissions on the filesystem allowing, for example, several groups to access resources with different permissions.

WARNING

This patch will fail on older kernel versions (e.g linux-2.4.22-1.2115.nptl)

Install the 2.4.22-1.2149.nptl kernel and point the /usr/src/linux link to the new source. Then do:

```
cd /usr/src/linux
bzcatt /usr/src/ea+acl+nfsacl-2.4.22-0.8.65.patch.bz2 | patch -p1
-dry-run
```

If there are no error messages then run **patch** with no **-dry-run** option. Next, we compile the new kernel:

Step 1:

Use an editor to add "EXTRAVERSION=-acl" to the Makefile

Step 2:

```
make mrproper
cp configs/kernel-2.4.22-i686.config .config
```

```
make oldconfig    (answer y to all questions relative to ACLs)
make dep bzImage modules modules_install
```

A quick test:

Once you have rebooted with the new kernel, add the **acl** option into **/etc/fstab** on any EXT3 filesystem

```
LABEL=/usr /usr    ext3    defaults,acl    1 2
```

You can then use the **setfacl** to add assign permissions for different groups on the same directory.

We first create two groups **eng** and **sales**:

```
groupadd eng
groupadd sales
```

Then add a directory called **/usrNEWS**:

```
mkdir /usr/NEWS
```

The **getfacl** is a tool that lists ACL privileges. So before we do anything lets look at the following output:

```
getfacl /usr/NEWS
# file: share
# owner: root
# group: root
user::rwx
group::r-x
other::r-x
```

Next add **rwX** permissions on NEWS for the group sales:

```
setfacl -m g:sales:rwx NEWS/
```

List the ACL privileges:

```
getfacl NEWS/  
# file: NEWS  
# owner: root  
# group: sales  
user::rwx  
group::r-x  
group:sales:rwx  
mask::rwx  
other::r-x
```

Finally add **r_x** permissions for the group **eng** and list the permissions:

```
setfacl -m g:eng:r-x NEWS/
```

```
getfacl NEWS/  
# file: NEWS  
# owner: root  
# group: sales  
user::rwx  
group::r-x  
group:sales:rwx  
group:eng:r-x  
mask::rwx  
other::r-x
```

The kernel patch has worked. The above tools are not in the 201 objectives.

System Startup

Customising the boot process involves understanding how startup script are called. The chapter also describes common problems that arise at different points during the booting process as well as some recovery techniques. Finally we focus our attention on the “initial ram disk” (or initial root device) *initrd* stage of the booting process. This will allow us to make decisions as to when new initial ram disks need to be made.

1. Customising the Boot Process

● Overview of `init`

In order to prevent processes run by users from interfering with the kernel two distinct memory areas are defined. These are referred to as “kernel space memory” and “user space memory”. The `init` process is the first program to run in user-space .

`Init` is therefore the parent of all processes. The `init` program's configuration file is

`/etc/inittab`

● Runlevels

Runlevels determine which processes should run together. All processes that can be started or stopped at a given runlevel are controlled by a script (called an “init script” or an “rc script”) in `/etc/rc.d/init.d`

List of rc scripts on a typical system					
anacron	halt	kudzu	ntpd	rusersd	syslog
ypxfrd					
apmd	identd	lpd	portmap	rwalld	vncserver
atd	ipchains	netfs	radvd	rwhod	xfs
autofs	iptables	network	random	sendmail	xinetd
crond	kdcrotate	nfs	rawdevices	single	ypbind
functions	keytable	nfslock	rhnsd	snmpd	yppasswdd
gpm	killall	nscd	rstatd	sshd	ypserv

Selecting a process to run or be stopped in a given runlevel is done by creating symbolic

links in the `/etc/rc.d/rcN.d/` directory, where N is a runlevel.

Example 1: selecting **httpd** process for runlevel 3:

```
ln -s /etc/rc.d/init.d/httpd /etc/rc.d/rc3.d/S85httpd
```

Notice that the name of the link is the same as the name of the process and is preceded by an **S** for *start* and a number representing the order of execution.

Example 2: stopping **httpd** process for runlevel 3:

```
rm /etc/rc.d/rc3.d/S85httpd  
ln -s /etc/rc.d/init.d/httpd /etc/rc.d/rc3.d/K15httpd
```

This time the name of the link starts with a **K** for *kill* to make sure the process is stopped when switching from one runlevel to another.

● Starting Local scripts

We want to run a script at a given run level. Our script will be called **printtotty10** and will simply print the message given as an argument to `/dev/tty10`.

```
/bin/printtotty10  
#!/bin/bash  
echo $1 > /dev/tty10
```

1. One way to have the script started at a specific run level is to add a line in `/etc/inittab` like

```
pr10:3:once:/bin/printtotty10 "Printtotty was started in inittab"
```

This is not always the best way to do this. What if many scripts need to be started? The `inittab` file would look messy.

2. We can write a custom rc-script. We follow the usage to call the script the same name as the actual tool we want to startup.

```
/etc/rc.d/init.d/printtotty10
#!/bin/sh
# chkconfig: 345 85 15
# description: This line has to be here for chkconfig to work ... \
#The script will display a message on /dev/tty10
#First source some predefined functions such as echo_success()
./etc/rc.d/init.d/functions

start() {
    echo -n "Starting printtotty10"
    /bin/printtotty10 "printtotty10 was started with an rc-script "
    echo_success
    echo
}

stop() {
    echo -n "Stopping custom-rc"
    /bin/printtotty10 "The custom script has stopped"
    echo_success
    echo
}

case "$1" in
    start)
        start;;
    stop)
        stop;;
esac
exit 0
```

3. The ***printtotty10*** script can be started at boot time by placing the command in ***/etc/rc.d/rc.local***. The ***rc.local*** script is the last rc-script to be run.

Notice: When setting up a linux server as a router it is possible to switch on ip-forwarding at boot time by adding the following line to ***rc.local***:

```
echo 1 > /proc/sys/net/ipv4/ip_forward
```

However it is better to use the ***sysctl*** mechanism to switch ip-forwarding on every time the network interface is started. This is done by adding the following line to ***/etc/sysctl.conf***:

```
net.ipv4.ip_forward = 1
```

2. System Recovery

When a system crashes and fails to restart it is necessary to alter the normal booting process. This section describes a few solutions corresponding to problems that can occur at the following stages of the booting process

Booting Stage	Type of error	Suggested Solution
INIT	corrupt root filesystem or a faulty /etc/fstab entry	use root login prompt
	a kernel module fails to load or an RC script fails	override INIT (see below p.23) or use alternative runlevel
KERNEL	Kernel panic	(see below p.24)
	Hardware initialisation errors (often with older kernels on latest mother boards)	Pass appropriate bootloader parameter - e.g <code>acpi=off</code> . (p.27)
BOOT LOADER	Not installed or broken	use a rescue disk or a boot disk (see below p.24)

● Overriding the INIT stage

This is necessary if the boot process fails due to a faulty init script. Once the kernel successfully locates the root file system it will attempt to run `/sbin/init`. But the kernel can be instructed to run a shell instead which will allow us to have access to the system before the services are started.

At the LILO or GRUB boot prompt add the following kernel parameter:

```
init=/bin/bash
```

At the end of the kernel boot stage you should get a **bash** prompt. Read-write access to the root filesystem is achieved with the following

```
mount /proc  
mount -o remount,rw /
```

● Errors at the end of the kernel stage

- If the kernel can't mount the root filesystem it will print the following message:

```
Kernel panic: VFS: Unable to mount root fs on 03:05
```

The number **03** is the major number for the first IDE controller, and **05** is the 5th partition on the disk. The problem is that the kernel is missing the proper modules to access the disk.

We need to boot the system using an alternative method. The fix next involves creating a custom **initrd** and using it for the normal boot process.

Question: In the case above since the drive isn't a SCSI drive what could have caused the problem?

- If the wrong root device is passed to the kernel by the boot loader (LILO or GRUB) then the INIT stage cannot start since **/sbin/init** will be missing

```
Kernel Panic: No init found. Try passing init= option to kernel
```

Again we need to boot the system using a different method, then edit the bootloader's configuration file (telling the kernel to use another device as the root filesystem), and reboot.

In both scenarios above it isn't always necessary to use a rescue disk. In fact, it often is a case of booting with a properly configured kernel. But what happens if we don't have the option? What if the bootloader was reconfigured with the wrong kernels using no initial root disks or trying to mount the wrong root filesystem?

This leads us to the next possible cause of booting problems.

● Misconfigured Bootloaders

At this stage we need to use a rescue method to boot the system.

Using a rescue disk

We already know from LPI 101 that any Linux distribution CD can be used to start a system in *rescue mode*. The advantage of these CDs is that they work on any Linux system.

The rescue process can be broken down into the following steps:

1. Boot from the CD and find the appropriate option (often called “rescue” or “boot an existing system”)
2. In most cases the root device for the existing system is automatically detected and mounted on a subdirectory of the initial root device (in RAM)
3. If the mount point is called **/system** it can become the root of the filesystem for our current shell by typing:

```
chroot /system
```

4. At this stage the entire system is available and the bootloader can be fixed

When a bootloader is misconfigured one can use an alternative bootloader (on a floppy or a CD). This bootloader will load a kernel which is instructed to use the root device on the hard drive.

This method is called a **boot disk** and is used to recover a specific system.

Custom Boot Disk 1:

All we need is a floppy with a Linux kernel image that can boot, and this image must be told where to find the root device on the hard drive.

Assuming that we are using a pre-formatted DOS floppy, the following creates a bootable floppy which will launch a linux kernel image

```
dd if=/boot/vmlinuz of=/dev/fd0
```

Next, **rdev** is used to tell the kernel where the root device is. The command must be run on the system we wish to protect and the floppy with the kernel must be in the drive

```
rdev /dev/fd0 /dev/hda2
```

Custom Boot Disk 2:

The **syslinux** package installs a binary called **syslinux** that can be used to create bootable floppies. The procedure (taken from the packages documentation) is as follows:

1. Make a DOS bootable disk. This can be done either by specifying the `/s` option when formatting the disk in DOS, or by running the DOS command `SYS` (this can be done under DOSEMU if DOSEMU has direct device access to the relevant drive):

```
format a: /s
```

or

```
sys a:
```

2. Boot Linux. Copy the DOS boot sector from the disk into a file:

```
dd if=/dev/fd0 of=dos.bss bs=512 count=1
```

3. Run SYSLINUX on the disk:

```
syslinux /dev/fd0
```

4. Mount the disk and copy the DOS boot sector file to it. The file ***must*** have extension `.bss`:

```
mount -t msdos /dev/fd0 /mnt  
cp dos.bss /mnt
```

5. Copy the Linux kernel image(s), `initrd(s)`, etc to the disk, and create/edit `syslinux.cfg` and help files if desired:

For example if your root device is `/dev/sda1` then `syslinux.cfg` would be:

```
DEFAULT linux  
LABEL linux  
    KERNEL vmlinuz
```

```
APPEND initrd=initrd.img root=/dev/sda1
```

then

```
cp /boot/vmlinuz /mnt  
cp /boot/initrd.img /mnt
```

6. Unmount the disk (if applicable.)

```
umount /mnt
```

NOTICE

Although SYSLINUX can be installed on a CD it is recommended to use the ISOLINUX bootloader instead (see p.53).

● Bootloader Kernel Parameters

load_ramdisk=n	If n is 1 then load a ramdisk, the default is 0
prompt_ramdisk=n	If n is 1 prompt to insert a floppy disk containing a ramdisk
nosmp or maxcpus=N	Disable or limit the number of CPUs
apm=off	Disable APM, sometime needed to boot from yet unsupported motherboards
init=	Defaults to /sbin/init but may also be a shell or an alternative process
root=	Set the root filesystem device (can be set with rdev*)
mem=	Assign available RAM size
vga=	Change the console video mode (can be changed with rdev*)

*The **rdev** manual pages say; “The rdev utility, when used other than to find a name for the current root device, is an ancient hack that works by patching a kernel image at a magic offset with magic numbers. It does not work on architectures other than i386. Its use is strongly discouraged. Use a boot loader like SysLinux or LILO instead”

● Troubleshooting LILO

When installing LILO the bootloader mapper, `/sbin/lilo`, will backup the existing bootloader.

For example if you install LILO on a floppy, the original bootloader will be save to `/boot/boot.0200`

Similarly when changing the bootloader on an IDE or a SCSI disk the files will be called `boot.0300` and `boot.0800` respectively. The original bootloader can be restored with:

```
lilo -u
```

By default the second stage LILO is called `/boot/boot.b` and when it is successfully loaded it will prompt you with a “boot: ”.

Here the possible errors during the boot stage (taken from the LILO README)

- nothing LILO is either not installed or the partition isn't active
- L The first stage loader has been loaded but the second stage has failed
- LI The second stage boot loader has loaded but was unable to execute
This could be cause if `/boot/boot.b` moved and `/sbin/lilo` wasn't rerun
- LIL The second stage boot loader has been started, but it can't load the descriptor table from the map file or the second stage boot loader has been loaded at an incorrect address

This could be cause if `/boot/boot.b` moved and `/sbin/lilo` wasn't rerun.

- LIL- The descriptor table is corrupt

This could be cause if `/boot/map` moved and `/sbin/lilo` wasn't rerun.

- Scrolling 010101 errors This happens when the second stage boot loader is on a slave device

3. Customised *initrd*

In most cases a “customised *initrd*” requires running `mkinitrd` which will determine the kernel modules needed to support block devices and filesystems used on the root device.

The `mkinitrd` script

The following are methods used in the **mkinitrd** script to determine critical information about the root device and filesystem.

-The root filesystem type:

Using **/etc/fstab** the script determines which filesystem is used on the root device and the corresponding module (for example **ext3** or **xfs**).

-Software RAID:

Using **/etc/raidtab** the **mkinitrd** script deduces the names of the raid arrays to start all the devices (even non root).

-LVM root device

Once the root device `$rootdev` is determined in **/etc/fstab** the major number is obtained from the following line:

```
root_major=$(/bin/ls -l $rootdev | awk '{ print $5 }')
```

If this corresponds to a logical volume, the logical volume commands are copied onto the ram disk.

The **mkinitrd** script will transfer all the required tools and modules to a file mounted as a loop device on a temporary directory. Once unmounted, the file is compressed and can be used as an **initrd**.

Syntaxes

The syntax for the Debian and the other distribution's **mkinitrd** is different.

Debian **mkinitrd**

Options:

- d confdir Specify an alternative configuration directory.
- k Keep temporary directory used to make the image.
- m command Set the command to make an **initrd** image.
- o outfile Write to outfile
- r root Override **ROOT** setting in **mkinitrd.conf**

```
Example: mkinitrd -o /boot/initrd-test-$(uname -r).img
```

Mandriva, RedHat, Suse/Novell **mkinitrd**

```
usage: mkinitrd [--version] [-v] [-f] [--preload <module>]
  [--omit-scsi-modules] [--omit-raid-modules] [--omit-lvm-modules]
  [--with=<module>] [--image-version] [--fstab=<fstab>] [--nocompress]
  [--builtin=<module>] [--nopivot] <initrd-image> <kernel-version>
```

```
Example: mkinitrd /boot/initrd-test-2.2.5-15.img 2.2.5-15
```

Example:

As an example we will copy the content of an existing initrd to a new initrd and change the root filesystem type from ext3 to ext2..

1. Uncompress the current initrd

```
cp /boot/initrd-your-kernel-version.img /tmp/initrd.img.gz
gunzip /tmp/initrd.img.gz
```

2. Mount the current initrd using a loop device

```
mkdir /mnt/current
mount -o loop /tmp/initrd.img /mnt/current
```

3. Estimate the size needed for the new initrd:

```
df -k /mnt/current
```

Filesystem	1K-blocks	Used	Available	Use%	Mounted on
/tmp/initrd.img	317	191	126	61%	
/mnt/current					

4. Create a new image file called initrd-new.img of size 161K

```
dd if=/dev/zero of=/tmp/initrd-new.img bs=1K count=317
```

5. Estimate the number of inodes needed in the current initrd:

```
df -i /mnt/current
```

Filesystem	Inodes	IUsed	IFree	IUse%	Mounted on
/tmp/initrd.img	48	33	15	69%	/mnt/current

6. Create a filesystem on the file /tmp/initrd-new.img with 48 inodes

```
mke2fs -F -m 0 -N 48 /tmp/initrd-new.img
```

7. Mount the file on a new directory and copy across all the files of the current initrd to the new one:

```
mkdir /mnt/new  
mount -o loop /tmp/initrd-new.img /mnt/new  
(cd /mnt/current/; tar cf - .) | (cd /mnt/new; tar xf -)
```

8. Edit the /mnt/new/linuxrc file and delete the line where the **ext3** module is inserted. Also replace the **ext3** option by **ext2** at the **mount** command.

9. Finally, unmount the /tmp/initrd-new.img then compress and rename it.

```
gzip /tmp/initrd-new.img ; mv /tmp/initrd-new.img.gz /boot/initrd-  
test.img
```

Or

```
gzip < /tmp/initrd-new.img > /boot/initrd-test.img
```

10. Create a new kernel entry in /etc/lilo.conf or /boot/grub/grub.conf instructing the bootloader to use the new initrd.

Sample grub.conf:

```
title linux (2.4.22)  
    root (hd0,1)
```

```
kernel /vmlinuz-2.4.22 ro root=LABEL=  
initrd /initrd-2.4.22.img
```

```
title broken?
```

```
root (hd0,1)
```

```
kernel /vmlinuz-2.4.22-1.2115.nptl ro root=LABEL=  
initrd /initrd-new.img
```

Sample lilo.conf:

```
image=/boot/vmlinuz-2.4.22-1.2115.nptl
```

```
initrd=/boot/initrd-2.4.22.img
```

```
read-only
```

```
label=linux
```

```
append="root=LABEL="/
```

```
image=/boot/vmlinuz-2.4.22-1.2115.nptl
```

```
initrd=/boot/initrd-new.img
```

```
read-only
```

```
label=broken?
```

```
append="root=LABEL="/
```


The Linux Filesystem

This objective covers most points seen in LPI 101. Configuring **automount** is a new feature where special attention has to be paid to the syntax.

1. Operating the Linux Filesystem

When adding new filesystems to the existing root filesystem the key file involved is **/etc/fstab** which assigns a mount point, a mount order and global options per device.

/etc/fstab options	
ro or rw	Read only or read write
noauto	Do not respond to mount -a . Used for external devices CDRoms ...
noexec	Executables cannot be started from the device
nosuid	Ignore SUID bit throughout the filesystem
nodev	Special device files such as block or character devices are ignored
noatime	Do not update atimes (performance gain)
owner	The device can be mounted only by it's owner
user	Implies noexec , nosuid and nodev . A single user's name is added to mtab so that other users may not unmount the devices
users	Same as user but the device may be unmounted by any other user

Mount will also keep track of mounted operations by updating **/etc/mtab**. The content of this file is similar to another table held by the kernel in **/proc/mounts**.

● Regular local filesystems

When the system boots all local filesystems are mounted from the **rc.sysinit** script. The **mount** command will mount every thing in **/etc/fstab** that has not yet been mounted and that is not encrypted or networked:

```
mount -a -t nonfs,smbfs,ncpfs -o no_netdev,noloop,noencrypted
```

When shutting down, all filesystems are unmounted by the **halt** script by scanning the **/proc/mounts** file with the help of some **awk** commands!

● Swap Partions and SWAP files

At boot time, swap partitions are activated in `/etc/rc.d/rc.sysinit`

```
swapon -a
```

Similarly when the system shuts down swap is turned off in the `halt` rc-script:

```
SWAPS=`awk '! /^Filename/ { print $1 }' /proc/swaps`  
[ -n "$SWAPS" ] && runcmd "Turning off swap: " swapoff $SWAPS
```

Example 1: Making a swap file of 10MB

1.

```
dd if=/dev/zero of=/tmp/SWAPFILE bs=1k count=10240
```

2.

```
mkswap /tmp/SWAPFILE
```

3.

```
swapon /tmp/SWAPFILE
```

5.

```
cat /proc/swaps  
Filename                Type                Size      Used    Priority  
/dev/hda6                partition           522072   39744   -1  
/tmp/SWAPFILE            file                10232    0       -2
```

Example 2: Making a swap partition of 16MB

1. Make a new partition (e.g /dev/hda16) of type swap (82) and size 16MB. Reboot
2. Make a swap filesystem on the devices

```
mkswap /dev/hda16
```

3. Add the following to **/etc/fstab**

```
/dev/hda16 swap swap pri=-1 0 0
```

4. Make the swap partition available with `swapon -a`

Notice that if two swap partition are defined the kernel will automatically access them in “striped” mode, provided they have been mounted with the same priority determined by the **pri=** option in **/etc/fstab**

2. Maintaining a Linux Filesystem

This section covers a list of commands related to filesystem maintenance.

fsck - check and repair a Linux file system

Main options:

- b use alternative superbck
- c check for bad blocks
- f force checking even when partition is marked clean
- p automatic repair
- y answer yes to all question

sync - flush filesystem buffers

Updates modified superblocks and inodes and executes delayed writes. The operating system keeps data in RAM in order to speed up operations. This may cause data to be lost in the event of a crash unless sync is executed. Sync will simply call the 'sync' system call. Another way of doing this is to use the 'ALT+sysreq+s' key combination

badblocks - search a device for bad blocks

It is recommended NOT to use badblocks directly but to use the **-c** flag with **fsck** or **mkfs**.

Main options:

- b block size
- c number of blocks tested at a time
- i file with a list of known bad blocks, these blocks will be skipped
- o output file, passed to **mkfs**

mke2fs - create an ext2/3 filesystem

Main options:

- b blocksize
- i number of bytes between consecutive inodes 'bytes-per-inode'
- N number of inodes
- m Percentage of blocks reserved for user root
- c Check for bad blocks
- l Read bad blocks from file
- L Set a volume LABEL
- j/-J Create journal (ext3)
- T Optimise filesystem "type", values are:
 - news one inode per 4kb block
 - largefile one inode per megabyte
 - largefile4 one inode per 4 megabytes

dumpe2fs - dump filesystem information

dumpe2fs prints the super block and blocks group information for the filesystem present on a device

debugfs - ext2 file system debugger

debugfs is used to test and repair an ext2 filesystem. The main options are:

- w open the filesystem as writeable
- b blocksize

tune2fs - adjust tunable filesystem parameters on second extended filesystems

Main options:

- l read the superblock
- L set the device's volume LABEL
- m change the filesystem's reserved blocks for user root
- j or -J set a journal

3. Configuring automount

Mounting can be automated using a mechanism called **automount** or **autofs**.

The **/usr/sbin/automount** is invoked with the rc-script **/etc/init.d/autofs**.

```
service autofs start
```

This script reads the configuration file **/etc/auto.master** also called a *map*. The map file defines mount points to be monitored by individual **automount** daemons.

Sample **/etc/auto.master**

```
/extra /etc/auto.extra
```

```
/home /etc/auto.home
```

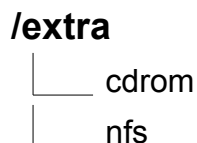


When **autofs** is started it will invoke an instance of **/usr/sbin/automount** for each mount point defined in the master map **/etc/auto.master**.

When the map file **/etc/auto.master** is changed it is necessary to restart **autofs**. For example if mount points have been deleted, then the associated **automount** daemon is terminated. Likewise, new daemons are started for newly defined mount points.

Multiple filesystems can be mounted on a single mount point. These filesystems as well as the mount options needed (filesystem type, read-write permissions, etc) are defined in a separate file.

Sample /etc/auto.extra		
cdrom	-fstype=iso9660,ro,user,exec,nodev,nosuid	:/dev/cdrom
nfs	-fstype=nfs,soft,intr,rsize=8192,wsiz=8	192 192.168.3.100:/usr/local



The CDROM will automatically be accessible in **/extra/cdrom** and the NFS share is mounted as soon as the **/extra/nfs** directory is accessed

NOTICE
<p><u>In the above example:</u></p> <p>The directories /extra/cdrom and /extra/nfs must not be created</p> <p>New entries in /etc/auto.extra are immediately made available: adding 'new -fstype=ext3 /dev/hda2' to the file will automatically make /extra/new available</p> <p>By default a mounted device will stay mounted for 5 minutes: if we uncomment the 'cdrom' device in the map file /etc/auto.extra shortly after the CDROM has been accessed, then the device will still be available for approximately 5 minutes in /extra/cdrom</p>

Hardware and Software Configuration

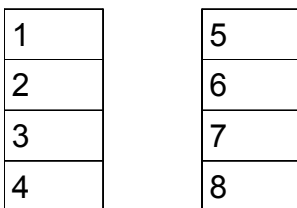
This module will cover the configuration of components which need both kernel support and software tools.

1. Software RAID

RAID stands for “Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks” and was originally designed to combine cheap hard disks together. RAID can either increase **speed** or **reliability** depending on the RAID level used.

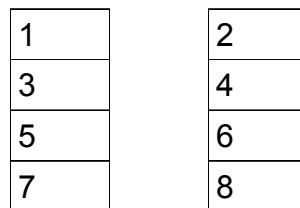
● RAID Levels

RAID-Linear



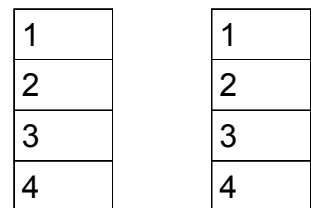
read	write	redundancy
0	0	no

RAID-0 (stripe)



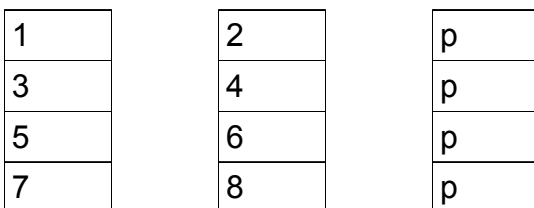
read	write	redundancy
+	+	no

RAID-1 (mirror)



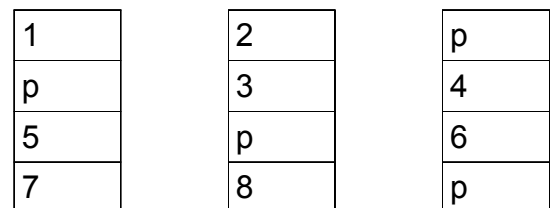
read	write	redundancy
+	-	yes

RAID-4



read	write	redundancy
+	-	yes

RAID-5



read	write	redundancy
+	0	yes

● Spare Disks

If spare disks are configured they will be used in the RAID array as soon as one of the array disks fail.

● Kernel and software components

Software raid is handle by the following kernel module:

RAID0	raid0.o
RAID1	raid1.o
RAID4 or RAID5	raid5.o

The **raidtools** package will provide these most common tools:

Tool	Description
/sbin/lswraid	query raid devices
/sbin/mkraid	create md devices from instructions given in /etc/raidtab
/sbin/raidstart and raidstop	start and stop the md devices

Once a meta device has been successfully created the information can be found in

/proc/mdstats

● Booting from a RAID root device (exercise)

1. Make two new partitions of the same size as the root device of type “Linux raid autodetect”.

One can make a smaller new root partition by checking the actual used space on the current root device

```
df -h /
```

Filesystem	Size	Used	Avail	Use%	Mounted on
/dev/hda7	286M	71M	201M	27%	/

Use **fdisk** to create the new partions (e.g /dev/hda14 and /dev/hda15) Reboot.

2. Configure software RAID 1 on these partitions

/etc/raidtab

```
raiddev    /dev/md0
           raidlevel 1
           nr-raid-disks 2
           nr-spare-disks 0
           chunk-size 4
           persistent-superblock 1
           device /dev/hda14
           raid-disk 0
           device /dev/hda15
           raid-disk 1
```

Use the raidtools to make the array and start it up:

```
mkraid /dev/md0
raidstart /dev/md0
```

Make an EXT2 filesystem on the new meta device and mount it on **/mnt/sys**:

```
mke2fs /dev/md0
mkdir /mnt/sys
mount /dev/md0 /mnt/sys
```

3. Copy all files on the current root device to the new root device:

```
(tar lcvf - /) | (cd /mnt/sys; tar xvf -)
```

The **l** option for **tar** is an instruction to stay on the same file system.

4. Prepare to reboot

The **mkinitrd** script will read **/etc/rainab** and **/mnt/sys/etc/fstab** to customise an initrd.

Edit **/mnt/sys/etc/fstab** and change the root device to **/dev/md0** as well as the filesystem type to **ext2**.

/mnt/sys/etc/fstab					
/dev/md0	/	ext2	defaults	1	1

Make the initial rootdisk and call it *initrd-raid.img*

```
mkinitrd --fstab=/mnt/sys/etc/fstab /boot/initrd-raid.img $(uname -r)
```

Uncompress **/boot/initrd-raid.img** and mount it on a loop device to check that **linuxrc** will insert the correct modules.

Reconfigure LILO/GRUB to change the following

Sample lilo.conf:

```
image=/boot/vmlinuz-2.4.22-1.2115.npt1
    initrd=/boot/initrd-raid.img
    read-only
    root=/dev/md0
    label=linux-raid
```

2. **LVM Configuration**

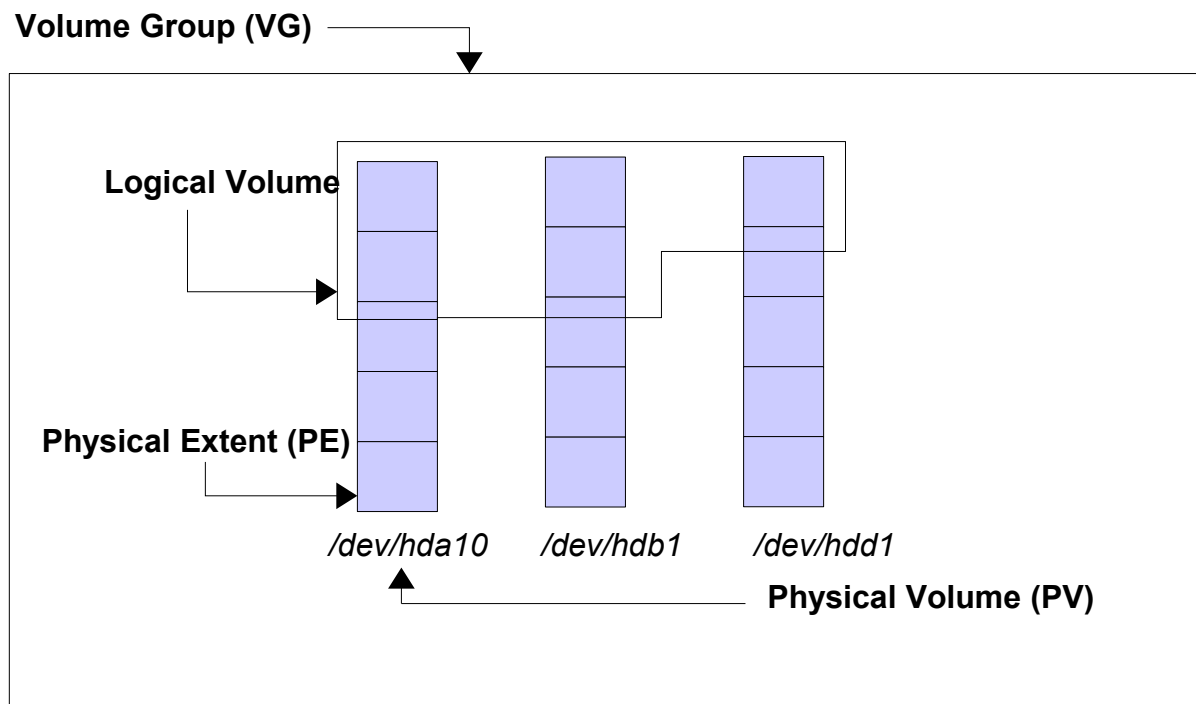
● Logical Volume Management (LVM)

The Logical Volume Management framework allows one to group different block devices (disks, partitions, RAID arrays...) together as a single larger device, the volume group (VG).

Individual devices used to form a volume group are referred to as physical volumes (PV).

Physical volumes once regrouped into a volume group lose their individual character.

Instead the entire volume group is divided into physical extents (PE) of fixed size (4MB by default) from which logical volumes (LV) are created. A logical volume can be thought of as a partition.



● Kernel and software components

The LVM kernel module is **lvmod.o**. The software tools are installed by the **lv** package which provides in particular **/sbin/vgscan**. This command will start the LVM environment by scanning all the volume groups and build the **/etc/lvmtab** as well as databases in **/etc/lvmtab.d** which are used by all the other LVM tools.

Main LVM tools :

PV tools:	pvcreate, pvmove, pvchange, pvdisplay, pvscan ...
VG tools:	vgcreate, vgremove, vgchange, vgdisplay, vgscan ...
LV tools:	lvcreate, lvextend, lvreduce, lvremove, lvchange, lvscan ...

We won't need to use or know all the above tools. We will rather focus on the various LVM components (as depicted in the diagram) and the commands needed to create these components: **pvcreate**, **vgcreate** and **lvcreate**.

Example:

Create a volume group called *volumeA* with three physical volumes (3 partitions in this case) and create a logical volume called *lv0* of size 150MB initially.

1. Run **vgscan** to create the **/etc/lvmtab** file
2. Create three new partitions (say **/dev/hda16**, **/dev/hda17**, **/dev/hda18**) of 100MB each. Make sure you toggle the partition type to **8e** (Linux LVM). Then reboot.
3. Prepare the physical volumes

```
pvcreate /dev/hda16  
pvcreate /dev/hda17  
pvcreate /dev/hda18
```

4. Create a volume group called *volumeA* with the above physical volumes:

```
vgcreate volumeA /dev/hda16 /dev/hda17 /dev/hda18
```

This will create a directory called **/dev/volumeA/**. The default PE size of 4MB will be used, one can change this with the **-s** option.

5. Create a logical volume called *lv0* of size 150MB on this volume group

```
lvcreate -L 150M -n lv0 volumeA
```

This will create the block device **/dev/volume1/lv0**

6. Make a filesystem on *lv0* and mount it on **/mnt/lvm**

```
mkfs -t ext3 /dev/volumeA/lv0  
mkdir /mnt/lvm  
mount /dev/volumeA/lv0 /mnt/lvm
```

This wouldn't be very different from other partition types if it weren't for the possibility to change the logical volume's size at anytime.

Let's first show how to reduce the existing 150MB logical volume **lv0** with the **esfsadm** tool installed by the **lvm** package.

```
umount /mnt/lvm  
e2fsadm -L 25 /dev/volumeA/lv0
```

NOTICE

The **-L** option refers to size in megabytes. This is the case with most LVM tools. The **-l** option can be used to specify logical extents (LE) instead. The default size of an LE is 4MB.

The next section will show how to add a new physical volume (a disk) to a volume group and demonstrates how an existing logical volume can be made larger by including physical extents available in the volume group to itself. Once this is done the **e2fsadm** tool will resize the filesystem across the logical volume.

● Extending the Volume Group with a RAID 0 device

So far we have:

```
VG = /dev/hda16 + /dev/hda17 + /dev/hda18  
and we would like to add a RAID0 device to  
this
```

1. Create three more partitions (e.g `/dev/hda19`, `/dev/hda20` and `/dev/hda21`) of size 50MB and of type "Linux raid autodetect" (fd) – reboot!

2. Edit `/etc/mtab` to add the following RAID 0 device:

```
raiddev /dev/md1  
  
raid-level 0  
nr-raid-disks 3  
nr-spare-disks 0  
persistent-superblock 1  
chunk-size 4  
device /dev/hda19  
raid-disk 0  
device /dev/hda20
```

```
raid-disk 1  
device /dev/hda21  
raid-disk 2
```

3. Start the raid meta device:

```
mkraid /dev/md1  
raidstart /dev/md1
```

4. Add this device to the Volume Group *volumeA*

Before adding the device to the volume group run **pvscan** to see which physical volumes are available. Notice that **/dev/md1** is not listed.

We now prepare **/dev/md1** as a PV (physical volume):

```
pvcreate /dev/md1
```

When running **pvscan** again the output should look like the following. Notice that **/dev/md1** is now listed.

```
pvscan  
pvscan -- reading all physical volumes (this may take a while...)  
pvscan -- ACTIVE PV "/dev/md1" is in no VG [305.62 MB]  
pvscan -- ACTIVE PV "/dev/hda10" of VG "volumeA" [96 MB / 0 free]  
pvscan -- ACTIVE PV "/dev/hda11" of VG "volumeA" [96 MB / 0 free]  
pvscan -- ACTIVE PV "/dev/hda12" of VG "volumeA" [96 MB / 84 MB free]  
pvscan -- total:4[611.46 MB] /in use:3[305.83 MB] /in no VG:1 [305.62 MB]
```

We next add the device **/dev/md1** to the volume group **volumeA**:

```
vgextend volumeA /dev/md1
```

At this stage the volume group has four devices:

VolumeA = /dev/hda10 + /dev/hda11 + /dev/hda12 + /dev/md1

We can take 50MB from **/dev/md1** and add them to **lv0** (unmount the volume first)

```
lvextend -L +50 /dev/volumeA/lv0 /dev/md1
```

The original **lv0** volume had 150 megabytes. The **+** flag in front of the requested size has added 50MB to the logical volume, making it about 200 megabytes. But we haven't extended the filesystem across the entire logical volume yet.

The output of **lvscan** will show 80MB available. This corresponds to the 25 megabytes resizing done with **e2fsadm** on p. 21 plus the 50MB added by **lvextend** above

```
lvscan
lvscan -- ACTIVE          "/dev/volumeA/lv0" [80 MB]
lvscan -- 1 logical volumes with 80 MB total in 1 volume group
lvscan -- 1 active logical volume
```

The next command will extend the filesystem to 80 megabytes:

```
e2fsadm -L 80 /dev/volume/lv0
```

If you remount this volume on **/mnt/lvm** you can see the new available space with **df**.

REBOOT WARNING

The LVM tools need the **lvm-mod.o** module and in our case the metadvice **/dev/md1**. You need to create a new initrd with **mkinitrd** or add the following lines to a new initrd:

```
insmod /lib/lvm-mod.o
raidautorun /dev/md1
```

The volume group is then activated with **vgscan** from the **rc.sysinit** script.

● Booting from a logical volume root device

As with software RAID we are going to investigate some issues we need to consider when using LVM on the root device.

First make sure the volume we have created previously is mounted. If it isn't then do

```
mount /dev/volumeA/lv0 /mnt/lvm
```

Next we archive the root device in the same way as we did for RAID:

```
tar clvf - / | (cd /mnt/lvm/; tar xvf -)
```

Edit **/mnt/lvm/etc/fstab** and enter

```
/dev/volumeA/lv0 / ext2 defaults 0 1
```

Edit **/etc/lilo.conf** or **/etc/grub.conf** to add a new entry where the kernel points to the new root logical volume. For a 2.4.22 kernel an additional entry in **/etc/grub.conf** looks like this:

```
title lvm-root
    root (hd0,1)
    kernel /vmlinuz-2.4.22 ro root=LABEL=/
    initrd /initrd-2.4.22-lvm.img
```

All we need is the initrd **initrd-2.4.22-lvm.img**.

Once again we will run **mkinitrd** with **--fstab=<fstab>** which we will use to make the script read our new fstab file **/mnt/lvm/etc/fstab**.

We test this:

```
mkinitrd --fstab=/mnt/lvm/etc/fstab /boot/initrd-lvm.img $(uname -r)
```

If we mount this initial ram disk we can see that this is going to work by looking at the **linuxrc** script.

```
linuxrc
echo "Loading lvm-mod.o module"
insmod /lib/lvm-mod.o
echo Creating block devices
mkdevices /dev
echo Scanning logical volumes
vgscan
echo Activating logical volumes
```



```
vgchange -ay  
----snip---
```

3. CD Burners and Linux

● Hardware detection

The tools available on the commandline to burn CDs assume that the CD writer is a SCSI device. However most cheaper CD burners are IDE devices. The **2.4** kernels get around this by providing a **ide-scsi.o** module to drive the CD burner device.

If you run **cdrecord** with the **-scanbus** option you will see that the tool is looking for a SCSI device.

If the CD burner is attached as a secondary master (./dev/hdc) then the following entry in **/etc/modules.conf** will enable the **ide-sci** module for this device :

```
/etc/modules.conf (from the CD-Writing HOWTO)  
options ide-scsi=/dev/hdb  
options ide-cd ignore=hdb  
alias scd0 sr_mod  
pre-install sg modprobe ide-scsi # load ide-scsi before sg  
pre-install sr_mod modprobe ide-scsi # load ide-scsi before sr_mod  
pre-install ide-scsi modprobe ide-cd # load ide-cd before ide-scsi
```

The device will be seen as **/dev/scd0** and can be added to **/etc/fstab** with it's own mount point.

The following command shows that the hardware has been correctly detected:

```
cdrecord -scanbus  
Cdrecord 2.0 (i686-pc-linux-gnu) Copyright (C) 1995-2002 J rg Schilling  
Linux sg driver version: 3.1.24  
Using libscg version 'schily-0.7'  
cdrecord: Warning: using unofficial libscg transport code version (schily - Red  
Hat-scsi-linux-sg.c-1.75-RH '@(#)scsi-linux-sg.c 1.75 02/10/21 Copyright  
1997 J. Schilling').  
scsibus0:
```

```
0,0,0    0) 'PHILIPS ' 'CDRW48A          ' 'P1.3' Removable CD-ROM
0,1,0    1) *
0,2,0    2) *
0,3,0    3) *
0,4,0    4) *
0,5,0    5) *
0,6,0    6) *
0,7,0    7) *
```

● Burning an Isolmage

The **cdrecord** tool can record either data or sound files.

```
cdrecord [ general options ] dev=device [ track options ] track1...trackn
```

The Device

From the output of the `cdrecord -scanbus` we will use the device `dev=0,0,0` for our examples.

Main general options

`speed` specify the speed of the CD burner, e.g `speed=8`
`-eject` eject the CD when the recording is done
`-multi session` start multi session recording. This option must be used with each multi recording

Main track options

`-data` the track contains data
`-audio` the track is an audio file (`.au`, `.wav` or `.cdr`)

Data Recording

```
cdrecord -v speed=2 dev=0,0,0 -data cd_image.iso
```

Audio Recordng

```
cdrecord -v speed=2 dev=0,0,0 -audio *.wav
```

Mixed Recording

```
cdrecord -v speed=2 dev=0,0,0 -data cd_image.iso -audio *.wav
```

● ISO9660 Filesystem and burning CDs



From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia*

ISO 9660, a standard published by the International Organization for Standardization, defines a file system for CD-ROM media. It aims at supporting different computer operating systems such as Microsoft Windows, Mac OS, and systems that follow the Unix specification, so that data may be exchanged.

Levels and restrictions

There are different levels to this standard.

Level 1 File names are restricted to eight characters with a three-character extension, upper case letters, numbers and underscore; maximum depth of directories is eight

Level 2 File names may be up to 31 characters

Level 3 Files allowed to be fragmented (mainly to allow packet writing, or incremental CD recording).

Extensions

There are common extensions to ISO 9660 to deal with the limitations. Rock Ridge supports the preservation of Unix/Linux permissions and longer ASCII-coded names; Joliet supports names stored in Unicode, thus allowing almost any character to be used, even from non-Latin scripts; El Torito enables CDs to be bootable. ISO 13490 is basically ISO 9660 with multisession support.

*This article is licensed under the "<http://www.gnu.org/copyleft/fdl.html>" GNU Free Documentation License. It uses material from the "http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ISO_9660" Wikipedia article "ISO_9660"

Creating a CD Image

Store all the data that need to be copied in a separated directory (e.g backups/). We next need to create an isoimage of this directory as follows:

```
mkisofs -o baskups-image.iso backups/
```

Check the image file by mounting it as a loop device:

```
mount -o loop backups-image.iso /mnt
ls /mnt
umount /mnt
```

Finally, burn the CD with **cdrecord**. From the output of `cdrecord -scanbus` on the previous page we see that the CD writer device is seen as **dev=0,0,0** so we type:

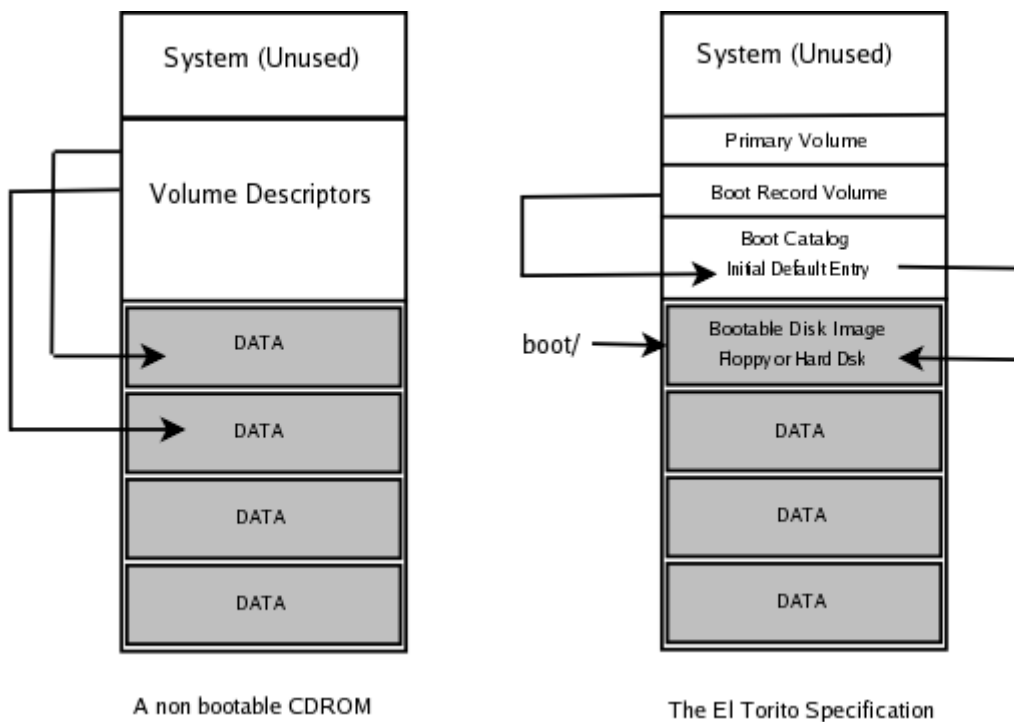
```
cdrecord -v dev=0,0,0 backups-image.iso
```

4. Bootable CDRoms

To allow the BIOS to boot from a CDRom, an extension to the ISO-9660 specification called El Torito was written in 1995 by Phoenix Technologies and IBM. This specification uses the existing ISO-9660 definitions and will cause the BIOS to boot a disk image using a floppy or hard disk emulation.

The ISO -9660 standard specifies that a CDRom should contain any number of “Volume Descriptors”. The El Torito specification adds such a descriptor called a “Boot Record”.

The “Boot Record” points to a “Boot Catalog” which can contain a list of boot entries. The boot catalog contains a default entry which points to a floppy or hard disk boot image.



The **mkisofs** tool can take a boot image (floppy or hard disk) and add the image in the root directory of the CDROM (usually **boot/**).

Using disk emulation

Assuming we are creating the CD in a directory called *CD-root*, we can create the bootable disk image with **dd**.

```
dd if=/path/to/boot/image of=<CD-root>/boot/boot.img
```

The iso-image is then created with the following command:

```
mkisofs -b boot/boot.img -c boot/boot.catalog -o boot-cd.iso .
```

Alternatives without disk emulation

It is possible to make a bootable CD using the ISOLINUX bootloader.

“ISOLINUX is a boot loader for Linux/i386 that operates off ISO 9660/EI Torito CD-ROMs in "no emulation" mode. This avoids the need to create an "emulation disk image" with limited space (for "floppy emulation") or compatibility problems (for "hard disk emulation".)”

The **syslinux** package will install the **isolinux.bin** bootloader. Depending on the distribution this can be found in **/usr/lib/syslinux/** or **/usr/share/syslinux/**.

You next need to create a bootable CD.

1. Make a directory in **/tmp**

```
mkdir /tmp/boot-cd
```

2. Copy the files needed

```
cp /usr/share/syslinux/isolinux.bin /tmp/boot-cd
cp /boot/vmlinuz-<full-version> /tmp/boot-cd/vmlinuz
cp /boot/initrd-<full-version>.img /tmp/boot-cd/initrd
```

3. Edit the **/tmp/boot-cd/isolinux.cfg** file with the following content:

```
DEFAULT linux
LABEL linux
KERNEL vmlinuz
APPEND initrd=initrd root=/dev/???
```

4. Create the isoimage with the **-no-emul-boot** option

```
cd /tmp/boot-cd/
```

```
mkisofs -o ../boot-cd.iso -b isolinux.bin -c boot.cat \
-no-emul-boot -boot-load-size 4 -boot-info-table ./
```

● Copying a Bootable CD

In this section we assume that we already have a bootable CDROM. For example the first disk of a boxed Linux distribution.

Put the bootable CD into the CDROM tray. Do not mount the disk!

Then simply type:

```
dd if=/dev/cdrom of=distro-inst1.iso
```

This will create an iso-image of the disk called *distro-inst1.iso* and can be written to a blank disk with **cdrecord**.

5. Configuring PCMCIA Devices

The **cardmgr** utility monitors the PCMCIA slots. It will scan the **/proc/devices** file searching for the *pcmcia* entry. If this entry isn't there then **cardmgr** will exit.

In order to get the kernel to write an entry into **/proc/devices** it is necessary to load the relevant modules. Only once kernel support is enabled will **cardmgr** work properly. The module names are kept in the following configuration files:

For RedHat like distributions: **/etc/sysconfig/pcmcia**

For Debian like distributions: **/etc/pcmcia.conf**

The main module is called **pcmcia_core** and uses two other modules called **yenta_socket** and **ds**.

One can start **cardmgr** on the commandline after having inserted the above kernel modules

```
modprobe pcmcia_core
modprobe yenta_socket
modprobe ds
cardmgr
cardmgr[18772]: watching 2 sockets
```

But it is best to use the rc-script provided with the **pcmcia-cs** package:

```
/etc/rc.d/init.d/pcmcia restart
```

The configuration file with a database of possible devices (e.g modems, wireless network

interfaces, memory cards ...) is called `/etc/pcmcia/config`.

To get information about your pcmcia card use the `cardctl` utility. Put the card into the pcmcia slot and run:

```
cardctl info
....snip....
PROID_1="Xircom"
PROID_2="CardBus Ethernet 10/100 + Modem 56"
PROID_3="CBEM56G"
....snip....
```

We can check that this card is listed in `/etc/pcmcia/config`. The next table shows the information relevant to this card, in particular the `xircom_cb` module needed.

`/etc/pcmcia/config` – section relevant to scanned card

```
card "Xircom CBEM56G-100 CardBus 10/100 Ethernet + 56K Modem"
version "Xircom", "*", "CBEM56G"
bind "xircom_cb" to 0
```


File and Service Sharing

This module covers SAMBA and NFS. The objectives state a few specific implementations such as file servers and printer shares.

1. Samba Client Tools

nmblookup
<pre>nmblookup trainer-1 querying trainer-1 on 192.168.3.255 192.168.3.101 trainer-1<00></pre>

smbpasswd	
<code>smbpasswd -a USER</code>	add a samba user
<code>smbpasswd -e USER</code>	enable a samba user

smbtar
Script using smbclient to archive SMB shares directly to tape

smbclient
<code>smbclient //HOST/SHARE</code> Logs onto the specified share
<code>smbclient -L //HOST</code> List all available shares

Output of smbstatus	
Samba version 2.2.7a-security-rollup-fix	
Service	uid gid pid machine

dean	dean dean 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:34:54 2003
IPC\$	nobody nogroup 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:34:45 2003
IPC\$	nobody nogroup 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:34:53 2003
dean	dean dean 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:35:14 2003
netlogon	dean dean 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:34:54 2003
public	nobody nogroup 3145 drakelap (192.168.3.100) Mon Nov 26 13:35:34 2003
IPC\$	nobody nogroup 3106 trainer-1 (192.168.3.101) Mon Nov 26 13:34:54 2003

2. Configuring a SAMBA server

The SAMBA server configuration file **smb.conf** is usually in `/etc/samba/`. Within the '[global]' options, parameters such as the 'WORKGROUP = ' can be set.

The SAMBA server uses two daemons called **nmbd** and **smbd** implementing NMB and SMB services respectively. Both daemons are started with the single rc-script:

```
/etc/rc.d/init.d/smb start
```

● The LanManager host file **lmhosts**

This file is usually in the same directory as the **smb.conf** file and is read by **nmbd** to resolve netBIOS hostnames. The file content is similar to `/etc/hosts`:

```
10.0.0.20 accounts
```

● Shared Directories

We will define one share called 'readshare' which is readable and another called 'rw-share' which has read-write permissions but is only accessible for user 'tux':

The smb.conf options

```
[readshare]
comment = Read-only Directory
path = /usr/local/news/
guest only = yes
browseable = yes # this is optional

[rw-share]
comment = Read-write Share for tux
path = /usr/local/documents
browseable = yes
guest ok = yes
writeable = yes
valid users = tux
```

● Sharing Printers

We choose to export all printers defined with CUPS on the Linux server. The following configuration will enable this:

The smb.conf options

```
[global]
printcap name = cups
load printers = yes
printing = cups

# printing without filters
[printers]
comment = All Printers defined using CUPS
path = /var/spool/samba
browseable = no
guest ok = yes           # allow 'guest account to print'
writable = no
printable = yes
create mode = 0700
# printer drivers must be on the client side
print command = lpr-cups -P %p -o raw %s -r
```

● Implementing WINS with Samba?

On a NetBIOS network machine names are resolved using “Windows information network services” or WINS.

Clients can either use broadcasts to query host names or be configured to use a **WINS server**. This server reduces the amount of traffic on the network due to broadcasts.

SAMBA as a WINS server

To enable WINS in SAMBA the following option is set in **smb.conf**

```
wins support = yes
```

Windows clients can then be configured to use the SAMBA server as a WINS server.

Second WINS server

A NetBIOS network generally only has one WINS server. If a second server is configured then the servers should be able to synchronise their host information. One can configure SAMBA to register on an existing network as a second WINS server by giving it the address of this server with the option:

```
wins server = <existing wins server>
```

NOTICE

The options 'wins support' and 'wins server' are mutually exclusive. The 'wins server' option registers the SAMBA server with an existing WINS server **and** enables WINS capabilities, there is no need to set 'wins support' as well.

● Samba server as a Domain Controller

Options selected in /etc/samba/smb.conf:

```
security = users
domain master = yes
local master
preferred master = yes
domain logon = yes

[netlogon]
path=/var/lib/samba/netlogon
writable = no
public = no
```

Notice: You don't need to have a logon script. This netlogon share is something the Windows client needs to connect to even if it is empty

3. Configuring an NFS server

" The NFS protocol is designed to be portable across different machines, operating systems, network architectures, and transport protocols. This portability is achieved through the use of **Remote Procedure Call** (RPC) primitives built on top of an eXternal Data Representation (XDR)" (RFC1094 NFS v2)

"NFS (Network File System) version 4 is a distributed file system protocol which owes heritage to NFS protocol versions 2 [[RFC1094](#)] and 3 [[RFC1813](#)]. Unlike earlier versions, the NFS version 4 protocol supports traditional file access while integrating support for file locking and the mount protocol

[...]

The NFS version 4 protocol [...] retains the essential characteristics of previous versions: design for easy recovery, **independent of transport protocols**, operating systems and filesystems, simplicity, and good performance" (RFC3010)

The NFS server runs the following daemons:

```
rpc.nfsd  
rpc.mountd
```

These services are started with the **nfs** service:

```
/etc/init.d/nfs start/stop/status/restart/reload
```

In addition `rpc.statd` is used to notify the client when the NFS service is unexpectedly interrupted, and `rpc.lockd` allows clients to lock files accessed on the server.

These services are started with the **nfslock** service:

```
/etc/init.d/nfslock start/stop/status/restart
```

Programs using remote procedure calls (RPC) use specific program numbers listed in **/etc/rpc**. When a RPC service is started it will tell **portmap** which port number it is using as well as its program number.

It is necessary for **portmap** to be running before starting any NFS service

RPC clients connect to the **portmap** service, although it is possible to work around

portmap if the RPC program number is known.

The `/etc/exports` file

Syntax:

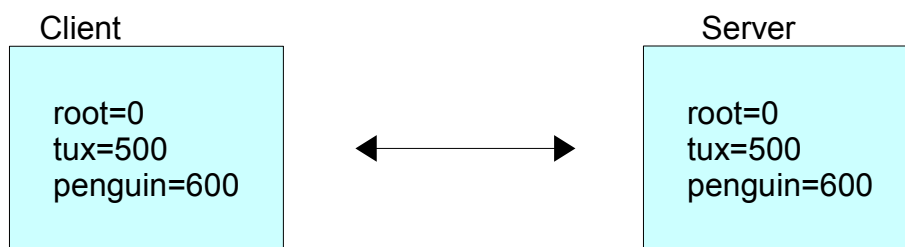
```
directory <host>(<option1,option2,...>) <host>(<option1,...>)
```

/etc/exports common options:

Option	Description
<code>ro</code>	Read only. There is also the read-write option <code>rw</code>
<code>no_root_squash</code>	override the default (<code>root_squash</code>) where <code>root</code> is mapped to user <code>nobody</code>
<code>async</code>	the server writes to disk at predefined intervals (may cause data loss)
<code>sync</code>	use <code>sync</code> rather than <code>async</code> when exporting a directory read-write

User Mappings

Once a remote directory is mounted on the local client one would expect local users to access their files as if the directory was locally mounted. However this will only be the case if UIDs on both the local and remote systems correspond.



NFS is generally used in an environment where UIDs are common between the server and the clients.

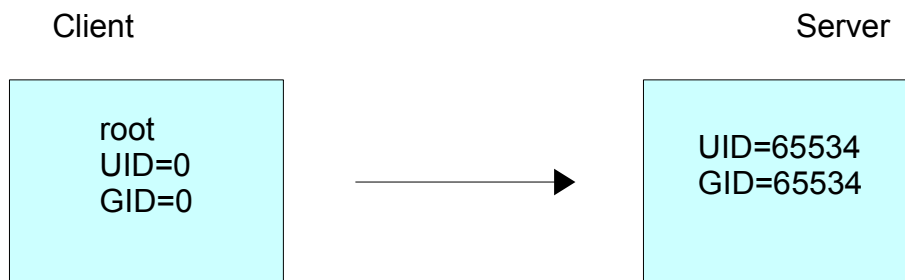
Anonuid and Anongid

It is possible, using **anonuid** and **anongid** options to assign a unique anonymous UID or GID per exported directory. Users mounting that share will be given the rights of that anonymous ID on the server. For example, everybody accessing the share below will inherit the right of the remote user with UID=150 and GID=100

```
/share *(rw,anonuid=150,anongid=100)
```

Root Squashing

By default the root user on the client system will be mapped to the user **nobody** on the server. This option is disabled in `/etc/exports` with the **no_root_squash** option



Finally, it is possible to map all users from any client to the user **nobody** with the **all_squash** option.

TCPwrappers

The **portmap** tool has been compiled with libwrap giving us the option to control access through `/etc/hosts.allow` and `/etc/hosts.deny`.

```
strings `which portmap` |grep hosts.allow
```

Using exportfs and nfsstat

The **exportfs** command with no arguments will show all exported directories.

exportfs options	
-r	re-read <code>/etc/exports</code> and export all directories listed
-u	unexport all shares (until <code>exportfs -r</code> is called)
-a	applies to all exports
-o	specify directories not listed in <code>/etc/exports</code>

The **nfsstat** displays statistics about NFS server and client activity. The information is read from two files:

```
/proc/net/rpc/nfs contains information about NFS client activity
```

`/proc/net/rpc/nfsd` contains information about the NFS server

nfsstat options	
<code>-s</code>	show only server statistics
<code>-c</code>	shpw only client statistics
<code>-n</code>	print NFS statistics only
<code>-r</code>	print RPC statistics only
<code>-o</code>	print statistics for specific utility (nfs, rpc, net, fh, rc)

4. Setting up an NFS Client

Mount options	
<code>soft</code>	When a major timeout happens send the calling program an I/O error, rather than retry indefinitely.
<code>hard</code>	When a major timeout happens, report “server not responding” and continues to reconnect indefinitely unless the <code>intr</code> option is also specified
<code>bg</code>	If the first mount fails retry subsequent mounts in the background (default is <code>fg</code>)
<code>intr</code>	Allows NFS requests to be interrupted
<code>nolock</code>	Sometimes needed with older NFS servers
<code>rsize=n</code>	Set communication block sizes for read and write. The default is 1024 bytes.
<code>wsiz=n</code>	On a clear network the speed may be improved by setting <code>n</code> to 8192

ERRORS	Possible cause
<code>mount: RPC: Program not registered</code>	The remote NFS server is not running
<code>mount: IP:share failed, reason given by server: Permission denied</code>	Wrong directory

The **showmount** tool can view NFS shares available on a remote host. The main options are:

<code>showmount -a server</code>	lists client IP and directory mounted
<code>showmount -e server</code>	lists the content of <code>/etc/exports</code> from the server
<code>showmount -d server</code>	lists only the exported directories on the server



System Maintenance

This module covers the **syslogd** similarly to LPI 102. The added emphasis is on remote logging and name resolution. Software packaging is covered here to. We will see how to make our own RPM package.

1. System Logging

● Stopping and Starting syslogd

The **syslogd** daemon is responsible for system logging. It is started as a service:

```
/etc/rc.d/init.d/syslogd start/stop/status/restart/condrestart
```

The following lines are from the **syslogd** rc-script:

```
if [ -f /etc/sysconfig/syslog ] ; then  
    . /etc/sysconfig/syslog
```

The **/etc/sysconfig/syslog** file defines the following default variables:

```
SYSLOGD_OPTIONS="-m 0"  
KLOGD_OPTIONS="-2"
```

● Configuration File

The configuration file is **/etc/syslog.conf** with the following format:

FACILITY.PRIORITY ACTION

Facilities

auth, authpriv, cron,daemon, kern, lpr, mail, mark, news, security (same as auth), syslog, user, uucp and local0 to local7

Priorities

debug, info, notice, warning,err, crit, alert, emerg

The following are deprecated:

error (same as err), warn (same as warning), panic (same as emerg)

Actions

Flat file	Full path to a file, usually in /var/log/
Terminal	use /dev/ttyN to output logs to
Username	if Username is logged in, send logs to the user's tty
Host	send logs to a remote host. Prepend the remote host's IP with a @ sign.

● Sending logs to a remote server

As seen above the local **syslogd** can send logs to a remote host (say 192.168.10.33) running a **syslogd**. Assume we want to send all logs to this remote host, this would be the syntax:

```
*.* @192.168.10.33
```

● Configuring syslogd to accept remote logs

In this case we want remote systems to send their logs to our server. The only option that needs to be added at startup is `-r`.

Edit `/etc/sysconfig/syslog` and add the `-r` option to the `SYSLOGD_OPTIONS` variable

```
SYSLOGD_OPTIONS="-r -m 0"
```

Then restart the **syslog** service.

● Name resolution

Once a server has been setup as a remote logging server it will accept logs from hosts on the network. By default these hosts will appear with an IP address in the logs unless the hosts are listed in `/etc/hosts`. This is due to the fact that **syslogd** cannot use DNS services. In fact **syslogd** has not been compiled with `libresolv.so`, as seen below:

```
ldd syslogd
libc.so.6 => /lib/i686/libc.so.6 (0x40024000)
/lib/ld-linux.so.2 => /lib/ld-linux.so.2 (0x40000000)

ldd ping
libresolv.so.2 => /lib/libresolv.so.2 (0x40024000)
libc.so.6 => /lib/i686/libc.so.6 (0x40035000)
/lib/ld-linux.so.2 => /lib/ld-linux.so.2 (0x40000000)
```

2. RPM Builds

Here is an overview of the specfile sections

Description	
Summary	A summary of what the package provides
Name	Name of the package
Version	Package version
Release	Package release
Copyright	Copyright agreement under which the package is released
Group	The package group (Amusement, Documentation ...)
Source	Path to the archive containing source and files
BuildRoot	Path to the temporary (fake) root filesystem

Macros and Section	
%define	Define a variable that can be referenced later in the SPEC file
%description	Paragraph type description for the package (usually longer than Summary)
%prep	The preparation section, includes unpacking the source archive and patching
%setup	Unpack the source archive
%patch	Apply patches if needed
%build	The build section, includes commands to run in the BUILD directory and execute the next commands (make, ...)
%install	The install section, includes command to copy files from the BUILD directory to the fake \$RPM_BUILD_ROOT directory
%clean	Delete all files in \$RPM_BUILD_ROOT
%files	List of files in the package
%doc	List which files are part of the documentation
%config	List which files are configuration files

Example: Copy fstab to /tmp/etc/fstab

We can build a simple RPM package that installs an fstab file into /tmp/etc/. The spec file will look like this:

```
#This is the Header section
Summary: Installs a fstab file to /tmp/etc
%define name tmp-fstab
%define version 0.2
%define release 1
Name: %{name}
Version: %{version}
Release: %{release}
Copyright: Freely distributable
Group: Documentation
Source: %{name}-%{version}.tar.gz
Packager: Adrian Thomasset <adrian@linuxit.com>

#The BuildRoot directory is a temporary replacement for root (/) while the package is being built.
BuildRoot: /var/tmp/rpm-%{name}/

%description
This package copies a file called fstab to /tmp/etc/

%prep
#The %setup macro simply opens the archived files from SOURCES into BUILD and changes #directory to it
(/../BUILD/%{name}-%{version}/
%setup

#All the work is done here: $RPM_BUILD_ROOT is a reference to the variable defined using the %BuildRoot
command earlier
%install

rm -rf $RPM_BUILD_ROOT
mkdir -p $RPM_BUILD_ROOT/tmp/etc/
install -m 644 fstab $RPM_BUILD_ROOT/tmp/etc/fstab

%clean
rm -rf $RPM_BUILD_ROOT
#Define which files must be copied to the binary RPM package. The $RPM_BUILD_ROOT is #taken as the root
directory
%files
/tmp/etc/fstab
%defattr(-,adrian,adrian)
```

All that is left to do is to prepare the source. In this case we need to create a directory called **tmp-fstab-0.2** containing `fstab`. Notice that the name and the version correspond to the name and version defined in the SPEC file

```
mkdir tmp-fstab-0.2
cp /etc/fstab tmp-fstab-0.2/
```

Next we archive the directory and copy this to the SOURCES directory

```
tar cvzf tmp-fstab-0.2.tar.gz tmp-fstab/
cp tmp-fstab-0.2.tar.gz /path/to/SOURCES/
```

3. Debian Rebuilds

The Debian rebuilding tools are installed with

```
apt-get install devscripts build-essential fakeroot
```

Example: building a package *foo*

The following command will get the source package *foo*

```
apt-get source foo
```

We must also install the packages required to rebuild the package *foo* as follows

```
apt-get build-dep foo
```

We next go into the source directory of *foo* and use **debuild** to make the package:

```
cd foo/  
debuild -us -uc
```

Finally, the directory above will contain the **dpkg** package.

System Automation

This module covers most scripting objectives for LPI 201. You do not need to learn a new language such as perl or bash. All that is expected is to accurately describe what a script is doing. Knowing the exact syntax for a specific scripting language is not expected.

The best way to train for this is to go through a few examples. For this we will implement the suggested automated tasks in the LPI objectives.

1. Writing simple perl scripts (using modules)

The online documentation for perl is contained in the **perldoc** package. The man pages are split into sections. For example the **perlintro** section can be accessed with:

```
man perlintro
```

or

```
perldoc perlintro
```

Here is a summary of this perldoc.

Perl scripts must be readable and executable. The first line of the script must point to the interpreter.

For example if `which perl` returns `/usr/bin/perl`, then the first line in a script should be:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
```

There are three variable types which can be declared and referenced as in the following script:

```
# Scalars
my $VARIABLE = "value";           #declare VARIABLE
```



```
print ("${VARIABLE} \n"); #print VARIABLE
```

```
# Arrays
my @ARRAY = ("color1","color2","color3"); # declare ARRAY
$index=0 # print ARRAY
while ($index < @ARRAY) {
    print ("element of $index is @ARRAY[$index] \n");
    $index++;
}
```

```
# Hashes or Associative Arrays ({key,value} pairs)
my %HASH=("color1", "blue","color2", "red", "color3", "white");
foreach $key (keys %HASH) {
    print ("The key $key corresponds to the value $HASH{$key} \n");
}
@color_rank = sort keys %HASH; # assign the keys to an array
```

2. Using the Perl taint module to secure data

The **taint** module is used to check that external variables supplied by the user cannot be used to exploit the system. This module is automatically used when running scripts that have the setuid or setgid bit turned on. It is possible to force a perl script to switch the **taint** module on with the **-T** option.

For example the system call bellow will allow any user to read files with read access :

```
insecure.pl
#!/usr/bin/perl
$FILENAME=ARGV[0] # this is the equivalent to $1 in bash
system("/usr/bin/less", $FILENAME);
```

If the script is set SUID root or if the **-T** option is used then the **taint** module will be called and this script will not execute.

```
check-secure.pl
#!/usr/bin/perl -T
$FILENAME=ARGV[0] # this is the equivalent to $1 in bash
```

```
system("/usr/bin/less", $FILENAME);
```

In fact the **check-secure.pl** script isn't secure, it simply won't run with SUID root or the **-T** option. Here is a version of insecure.pl which works around the taint mechanism and is VERY INSECURE !!

```
if (open (FILE,"$FILENAME")) {  
    $line = <FILE>;  
    while ($line ne "") {  
        print ($line);  
        $line = <FILE>;  
    }  
}
```

3. Installing Perl modules (CPAN)

Read the following perldoc pages for information on perl modules

```
man perlmod
```

A set of specific functions can be written as modules and imported into new scripts with the directive:

```
use module
```

There are two methods available to download, build and install modules from www.cpan.org

Method 1: The modules can be downloaded from www.cpan.org and build as follows:

Unpack the archive and type

```
perl Makefile.pl  
make  
make test  
make install
```

Method 2: Use the `cpan` tool

We can interactively configure CPAN as follows:

```
# cpan
CPAN is the world-wide archive of perl resources. It consists of about
100 sites that all replicate the same contents all around the globe.
Many countries have at least one CPAN site already. The resources
found on CPAN are easily accessible with the CPAN.pm module. If you
want to use CPAN.pm, you have to configure it properly
Are you ready for manual configuration? [yes]

This can also be done with the commandline

CPAN build and cache directory? [/root/.cpan]

How big should the disk cache be for keeping the build directories
with all the intermediate files?
Cache size for build directory (in MB)? [10]

Where is your gzip program? [/bin/gzip]
Where is your tar program? [/bin/tar]
Where is your unzip program? [/usr/bin/unzip]
Where is your make program? [/usr/bin/make]
Where is your links program? [/usr/bin/links]
Where is your wget program? [/usr/bin/wget]
Warning: ncftpget not found in PATH
Where is your ncftpget program? [] /usr/bin/lftpget

Now we need to know where your favorite CPAN sites are located.
[...]
(1) Africa
(2) Asia
(3) Central America
(4) Europe
(5) North America
(6) Oceania
(7) South America
Select your continent (or several nearby continents) [] 4
[...]

cpan shell -- CPAN exploration and modules installation (v1.7601)
ReadLine support available (try 'install Bundle::CPAN')

cpan> install Bundle::CPAN
[...]
```

Once CPAN is configured we can install modules from the command line

```
perl -MCPAN -e "install MODULENAME"
```

Modules are installed in subdirectories of `/usr/lib/perl`. One can check if a specific module is installed with:

```
perl -MMODULENAME -e 1
```

For an example application using perl modules see the Appendix.

4. Check for process execution

Searching through the output of `ps` for a process using `grep` will sometimes return a positive status even though the process is not running!

This is due to the fact that the `grep` process itself is sometimes printed out by `ps`. As in the example below:

```
ps au|grep junk  
root 13643 0.0 0.2 1724 600 pts/1 S 11:22 0:00 grep junk
```

Needless to say, there aren't any pre-installed tools called `junk` in general, so the above line would return a positive evaluation in a script!

There is a work around for this problem.

Use pgrep

This tool will search the output of `ps` for the PIDs of all processes that match the search criteria. For example:

```
ps aux | pgrep -u root httpd
```

will match all **httpd** processes run by user **root**. One can also use **pgrep** like **grep** with a single keyword.

Use `grep -v grep`

By piping the output of **ps** into `grep -v grep` one can prevent **grep** from matching itself. This will not work however if the process you are monitoring contains the string `grep`.

```
ps aux | grep smbd | grep -v grep
```

5. Monitor Processes and generate alerts

This objective gives us the opportunity to use bash's control flow capabilities to make decisions when checking for the status of a given process.

Say we want to check that the **smbd** daemon is running, then restart it and send a message if it is stopped and do nothing if it is still running. The following script will do this:

```
#!/bin/bash
PROCESS=smb
if ps aux | grep "$PROCESS" | grep -v grep >/dev/null ; then
    echo Process $PROCESS is running
else
    echo Process $PROCESS is stopped - Restarting it ...
    /etc/rc.d/init.d/smb start > /dev/null
fi
```

Checking the response from a host using ping

```
#!/bin/bash
while (true)
do
#get the times from 10 ping outputs
  x=$(ping -c 10 $1 | cut -d"=" -f4 | tail +2|head | sed "s/ms//")
#loop through the times to check which ones are longer than 14ms
  for times in $x
  do
    dectimes=$(echo $times | cut -d. -f1) # get an integer
    if [ $((dectimes-14)) -gt 0 ]; then
      echo Time exceeded 14ms: $times
    fi
  done
done
```

● Schedule scripts that parse log files and email them

We can use a perl script to run **last** in order to read **/var/run/utmp** and get it to search for the string **still** which will match all logged users and mail the line to root.

```
#!/usr/bin/perl
$LOGFILE="/tmp/lastlog";
$line="0";
system("last> $LOGFILE");

open (MAIL, "| mail root");

if (open (FILE,$LOGFILE)) {

    while ($line ne "") {
        $line=<FILE>;
        if ($line =~ still) {
            print MAIL $line;
        }
    }
}

close MAIL;
```

If this script needs to run every hour and it is called `/usr/bin/last-log.pl`, then you can create a symbolic link in `/etc/cron.hourly` pointing to it.

● Monitor changed files and generate email alert

A 128-bit fingerprint (or “message-digest”) for a file can be computed with **md5sum**.

The following script will check the MD5 checksums for all the files in `/etc` and compare the output from each run with **diff**. If there are any differences the changed files are mailed to user root

```
#!/bin/bash
touch /tmp/md5old
touch /tmp/md5new
mv /tmp/md5new /tmp/md5old

for files in $(find /etc -type f )
do
    md5sum $files >> /tmp/md5new
done

x=$(diff /tmp/md5old /tmp/md5new)

if [ -z "$x" ]; then
    break
else
    echo $x |mail root
fi
```

Notice that the first time you run this script all the files will be seen as changed!

Checking valid MD5 fingerprints can be done from the STDIN or from a list of pre-computed sums using **md5sum -c** (`--check`). We first compute these sums with

```
find /etc -type f | xargs md5sum > etc-md5.dat
```

We next pass the content of `etc-md5.dat` to **md5sum -c**.

If for example we delete a few blank lines in `/etc/sysctl.conf` we can see that something has changed with:

```
md5sum -c etc-md5.dat | grep -v OK
/etc/sysctl.conf: FAILED
md5sum: WARNING: 1 of 1906 computed checksums did NOT match
```

- Write a script that notifies administrators when somebody logs in or out

It may not be a good idea to mail all this information but it is possible to gather it and possibly format it using XML or HTML.

Here we read from a list of users we wish to monitor `/etc/checks` and send an email as soon as they are logged in.

This can run through a cron every minute. This does imply that when somebody from the list is logged in, an email every minute would be sent!

```
#!/bin/bash
for luser in $(cat /etc/checks)
do
  x=$(last |grep $luser|grep still)
  if [ -n "$x" ]; then
    echo User $luser is logged in | mail root;
  fi
done
```

6. Using rsync

Rsync works like an optimised **r**cp or **s**cp command. It will copy to the destination directory only the files that are missing or have been changed in the source directory. Even with changed files **rsync** will send only the difference between the two files.

The syntaxes are:

```
rsync SRC HOST:/DEST
rsync HOST:/SRC DEST
```


One can change the value of the remote shell variable RSYNC_RSH used by rsync :

```
export RSYNC_RSH=ssh
```

Here is an example script using **rsync** to keep “Fedora Updates” updated on the local server:

```
#!/bin/sh

cd /var/ftp/pub/updates/fedora

(
date
echo
echo "=== Sync Files ==="
rsync -vaz --delete --delete-excluded --exclude="*/debug/*"
rsync://rsync.mirror.ac.uk:873/download.fedora.redhat.com/pub/fedora/linux/core/up
dates/1/
linux/core/updates/1/ 2>&1
echo "=== Sync Files Done ==="
echo
date
) | mail -s "Fedora Updates Sync Results" andrew@anvil.org
```

AppendixA

Example Perl Module: Spreadsheet

The Spreadsheet::WriteExcel perl module can generate spreadsheet files. This module is dependent on the Parse::RecDescent module.

So we need the following module sources from <http://search.cpan.org/>

Parse-RecDescent-1.94.tar.gz
Spreadsheet-WriteExcel-0.42.tar.gz

Extract the archives and run

```
perl Makefile.PL
make
make test
make install
```

Then try the following test script:

```
#!/usr/bin/perl -w
#
use strict;
use Spreadsheet::WriteExcel;

# vars
my($workbook,$worksheet,$format,$col,$row);

# Create a new Excel workbook
$workbook = Spreadsheet::WriteExcel->new("perl.xls");
```

Add a worksheet

```
$worksheet = $workbook->add_worksheet();
```

Add and define a format

```
$format = $workbook->add_format(); # Add a format
```

```
$format->set_bold();
```

```
$format->set_color('red');
```

```
$format->set_align('center');
```

Write a formatted and unformatted string, row and column notation.

```
$col = $row = 0;
```

```
$worksheet->write($row, $col, "Hi Excel!", $format);
```

```
$worksheet->write(1, $col, "Hi Excel!");
```

Write a number and a formula using A1 notation

```
$worksheet->write('A3', 1.2345);
```

```
$worksheet->write('A4', '=SIN(PI()/4)');
```

```
$workbook->close();
```

Exam 201: Detailed Objectives

This is a required exam for LPI certification Level 2. It covers advanced system administration skills that are common across all distributions of Linux.

Each objective is assigned a weighting value. The weights range roughly from 1 to 10, and indicate the relative importance of each objective. Objectives with higher weights will be covered in the exam with more questions.

Topic 201: Linux Kernel

- **2.201.1 Kernel Components**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidates should be able to utilize kernel components that are necessary to specific hardware, hardware drivers, system resources and requirements. This objective includes implementing different types of kernel images, identifying stable and development kernels and patches, as well as using kernel modules.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

zImage
bzImage

- **2.201.2 Compiling a kernel**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidates should be able to properly compile a kernel to include or disable specific features of the Linux kernel as necessary. This objective includes compiling and recompiling the Linux kernel as needed, implementing updates and noting changes in a new kernel, creating a system initrd image, and installing new kernels.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/usr/src/linux/
/etc/lilo.conf

make options (config, xconfig, menuconfig, oldconfig, mrproper zImage, bzImage, modules, modules_install)

mkinitrd (both Red Hat and Debian based)
make

- **2.201.3 Patching a kernel**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 2

Description: Candidates should be able to properly patch a kernel for various purposes including to implement kernel updates, to implement bug fixes, and to add support for new hardware. This objective also includes being able to properly remove kernel patches from existing production kernels.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

Makefile

patch

gzip

bzip

- **2.201.4 Customizing a kernel**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidates should be able to customize a kernel for specific system requirements by patching, compiling, and editing configuration files as required. This objective includes being able to assess requirements for a kernel compile versus a kernel patch as well as build and configure kernel modules.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`/usr/src/linux`

`/proc/sys/kernel/`

`/etc/conf.modules, /etc/modules.conf`

patch

make

modprobe

insmod, lsmod

kernelld

kmod

Topic 202: System Startup

- **2.202.1 Customizing system startup and boot processes**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 2

Description: Candidates should be able to edit appropriate system startup scripts to customize standard system run levels and boot processes. This objective includes interacting with run levels and creating custom initrd images as needed.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`/etc/init.d/`

`/etc/inittab`

`/etc/rc.d/`

mkinitrd (both Red Hat and Debian scripts)

- **2.202.2 System recovery**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: Candidates should be able to properly manipulate a Linux system during both the boot process and during recovery mode. This objective includes using both the `init` utility and `init=` kernel options.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`inittab`

`LILO`

`init`

`mount`

`fsck`

Topic 203: Filesystem

- **2.203.1 Operating the Linux filesystem**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: Candidates should be able to properly configure and navigate the standard Linux filesystem. This objective includes configuring and mounting various filesystem types. Also included, is manipulating filesystems to adjust for disk space requirements or device additions.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`/etc/fstab`

`/etc/mtab`

`/proc/mounts`

mount and umount

sync

swapon

swapoff

- **2.203.2 Maintaining a Linux filesystem**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 4

Description: Candidates should be able to properly maintain a Linux filesystem using system utilities. This objective includes manipulating a standard ext2 filesystem.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

fsck (fsck.ext2)

badblocks

mke2fs

dumpe2fs

debuge2fs

tune2fs

- **2.203.3 Creating and configuring filesystem options**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: Candidates should be able to configure automount filesystems. This objective includes configuring automount for network and device filesystems. Also included is creating non ext2 filesystems for devices such as CD-ROMs.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:

`/etc/auto.master`

`/etc/auto.[dir]`

mkisofs

dd

mke2fs

Topic 204: Hardware

- **2.204.1 Configuring RAID**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 2

Description: Candidates should be able to configure and implement software RAID. This objective includes using mkraid tools and configuring RAID 0, 1, and 5.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:

`/etc/raidtab`

mkraid

- **2.204.2 Adding new hardware**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: Candidates should be able to configure internal and external devices for a system including new hard disks, dumb terminal devices, serial UPS devices, multi-port serial cards, and LCD panels.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:

`/proc/bus/usb`

XFree86

modprobe

lsmod

lsdev

lspci

setserial

usbview

- **2.204.3 Software and kernel configuration**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 2

Description: Candidates should be able to configure kernel options to support various hardware devices including UDMA66 drives and IDE CD burners. This objective includes using LVM (Logical Volume Manager) to manage hard disk drives and partitions as well as software tools to interact with hard disk settings.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`/proc/interrupts`

hdparm

tune2fs

sysctl

- **2.204.4 Configuring PCMCIA devices**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidates should be able to configure a Linux installation to include PCMCIA support. This objective includes configuring PCMCIA devices, such as ethernet adapters, to autodetect when inserted.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

`/etc/pcmcia/`

`*.opts`

cardctl

cardmgr

Topic 209: File and Service Sharing

- **2.209.1 Configuring a samba server**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 5

Description: The candidate should be able to set up a Samba server for various

clients. This objective includes setting up a login script for Samba clients, and setting up an nmbd WINS server. Also included is to change the workgroup in which a server participates, define a shared directory in smb.conf, define a shared printer in smb.conf, use **nmblookup** to test WINS server functionality, and use the **smbmount** command to mount an SMB share on a Linux client.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

smbd, nmbd

smbstatus, smbtestparm, smbpasswd, nmblookup

smb.conf, lmhosts

- **2.209.2 Configuring an NFS server**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: The candidate should be able to create an exports file and specify filesystems to be exported. This objective includes editing exports file entries to restrict access to certain hosts, subnets or netgroups. Also included is to specify mount options in the exports file, configure user ID mapping, mount an NFS filesystem on a client, using mount options to specify soft or hard and background retries, signal handling, locking, and block size. The candidate should also be able to configure tcpwrappers to further secure NFS.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/etc/exports

exportfs

showmount

nfsstat

Topic 211: System Maintenance

- **2.211.1 System logging**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: The candidate should be able to configure syslogd to act as a central network log server. This objective also includes configuring syslogd to send log output to a central log server, logging remote connections, and using grep and other text utils to automate log analysis.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

syslog.conf
/etc/hosts
sysklogd

- **2.211.2 Packaging software**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: The candidate should be able to build a package. This objective includes building (or rebuilding) both RPM and DEB packaged software.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/debian/rules
SPEC file format
rpm

- **2.211.3 Backup operations**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 2

Description: The candidate should be able to create an off site backup storage plan.

Topic 213: System Customization and Automation

- **2.213.1 Automating tasks using scripts**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 3

Description: The candidate should be able to write simple Perl scripts that make use of modules where appropriate, use the Perl taint mode to secure data, and install Perl modules from CPAN. This objective includes using sed and awk in scripts, and using scripts to check for process execution and generate alerts by email or pager if a process dies. Candidates should be able to write and schedule automatic execution of scripts to parse logs for alerts and email them to administrators, synchronize files across machines using rsync, monitor files for changes and generate email alerts, and write a script that notifies administrators when specified users log in or out.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:
perl -MCPAN -e shell

bash, awk, sed
crontab
at

Topic 214: Troubleshooting

- **2.214.2 Creating recovery disks**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidate should be able to: create both a standard bootdisk for system entrance, and a recovery disk for system repair.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:

/etc/fstab

/etc/inittab

Any standard editor

Familiarity with the location and contents of the [LDP Bootdisk-HOWTO](#)

/usr/sbin/rdev

/bin/cat

/bin/mount (includes -o loop switch)

/sbin/lilo

/bin/dd

/sbin/mke2fs

/usr/sbin/chroot

- **2.214.3 Identifying boot stages**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidate should be able to: determine, from bootup text, the 4 stages of boot sequence and distinguish between each.

Key files, *terms*, and utilities include:

boot loader start and hand off to kernel

kernel loading

hardware initialization and setup
daemon initialization and setup

- **2.214.4 Troubleshooting LILO**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: Candidate should be able to: determine specific stage failures and corrective techniques.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/boot/boot.b

Know meaning of L, LI, LIL, LILO, and scrolling 010101 errors

Know the different LILO install locations, MBR, /dev/fd0, or primary/extended partition.

Know significance of /boot/boot.### files

- **2.214.5 General troubleshooting**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: A candidate should be able to recognize and identify boot loader and kernel specific stages and utilize kernel boot messages to diagnose kernel errors. This objective includes being able to identify and correct common hardware issues, and be able to determine if the problem is hardware or software.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/proc filesystem

Various system and daemon log files in /var/log/

/, /boot, and /lib/modules

screen output during bootup

kernel syslog entries in system logs (if entry is able to be gained)

location of system kernel and attending modules

dmesg

/sbin/lspci

/usr/bin/lshdev

/sbin/lsmode

/sbin/modprobe

/sbin/insmod

/bin/uname

strace

strings

ltrace

Isof

- **2.214.6 Troubleshooting system resources**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: A candidate should be able to identify, diagnose and repair local system environment.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/etc/profile && /etc/profile.d/

/etc/init.d/

/etc/rc.*

/etc/sysctl.conf

/etc/bashrc /etc/ld.so.conf

(or other appropriate global shell configuration files)

Core system variables

Any standard editor

/bin/lm

/bin/rm

/sbin/ldconfig

/sbin/sysctl

- **2.214.8 Troubleshooting environment configurations**

Modified: 2001-August-24

Maintainer: [Dimitrios Bogiatzoules](#)

Weight: 1

Description: A candidate should be able to identify common local system and user environment configuration issues and common repair techniques.

Key files, terms, and utilities include:

/etc/inittab

/etc/rc.local

/etc/rc.boot

/var/spool/cron/crontabs/

/etc/`shell_name`.conf

/etc/login.defs

/etc/syslog.conf

/etc/passwd

/etc/shadow

/etc/group

/etc/profile

/sbin/init

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