

Guide pour serveurs Ubuntu

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par Projet de Documentation d'Ubuntu <ubuntu-doc@lists.ubuntu.com>

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Résumé

Une introduction à l'installation et à la configuration d'applications pour serveurs sur Ubuntu.

Remerciements et licence

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À propos de ce guide

1. Conventions

Vous trouverez la signalitique suivante tout au long de cet ouvrage :



Une note met en relief un élément d'information intéressant, parfois technique, en rapport avec le thème abordé.



Une astuce présente un conseil ou une méthode plus simple.



Un avertissement signale au lecteur les problèmes potentiels et l'aide à les éviter.



Une alerte avertit le lecteur d'un risque lié à la réalisation d'un scénario donné.

Les conventions d'affichage des références croisées seront les suivantes :

- Les liens vers d'autres documents ou sites web auront cet aspect :



Les versions PDF, HTML et XHTML de ce document utiliseront les hyperliens pour gérer les références croisées.

Les conventions typographiques seront les suivantes :

- Les noms de fichiers ou les chemins d'accès aux répertoires seront affichés avec la police de caractères `monospace`.
- Les commandes à saisir dans l'invite de commande d'un terminal seront affichées ainsi :
`commande à saisir`
- Les options à cliquer, à sélectionner ou à choisir dans une interface utilisateur seront affichées avec la police de caractères `monospace`.

Sélections de menu, actions de la souris et raccourcis clavier :

- Une séquence de sélection de menu sera affichée comme suit : Fichier → Ouvrir
- Dans la suite de ce document, nous supposons que la souris est configurée pour les droitiers. Les termes « cliquez » et « double-cliquez » renvoient à l'utilisation du bouton gauche de la souris. Le terme « clic-droit » renvoie à l'utilisation du bouton droit de la souris. Le terme « clic-molette » renvoie à l'utilisation du bouton central de la souris qui s'obtient, selon le modèle de votre souris, par pression sur la molette centrale ou par pression simultanée des boutons de droite et de gauche.
- Les raccourcis clavier seront présentés comme suit : **Ctrl-N**. Par convention, les touches « Contrôle », « Majuscule » et « Alternative » seront respectivement abrégées en **Ctrl**, **Maj** et **Alt**. En outre, cette représentation des raccourcis signifiera que la première touche devra être maintenue tout en enfonçant la seconde.

2. Contribution et retour d'expérience

Ce guide est développé par l'

Si vous trouvez une anomalie dans ce document ou souhaitez faire une suggestion, vous pouvez tout simplement envoyer un rapport de bogue au

Mille mercis,

Votre équipe de documentation d'Ubuntu

Chapitre 1. Introduction

Bienvenue dans le *Guide serveur d'Ubuntu* !

Le *Guide serveur d'Ubuntu* contient des informations sur la manière d'installer et de configurer selon vos besoins différentes applications serveur sur votre système Ubuntu. C'est un guide pas à pas, organisé selon les tâches de configuration et de personnalisation du système. Ce manuel aborde beaucoup de sujets intermédiaires comme :

- Configuration du réseau
- Configuration Apache2
- Bases de données
- Réseaux Windows

Ce manuel est divisé en catégories principales que voici :

- Installation
- Gestion des paquets
- Réseau
- Réseaux Windows

Ce guide présume que vous avez une connaissance suffisante de votre système Ubuntu. Si vous avez besoin d'une aide plus détaillée pour l'installation, référez-vous au guide d'installation d'Ubuntu.

Les versions HTML et PDF de ce manuel sont disponibles en ligne sur *le site web de la Documentation d'Ubuntu* [<http://help.ubuntu.com>].

You can buy this guide in book form from *our Lulu store* [<http://www.lulu.com/ubuntu-doc>]. You will only pay for the price of printing and postage.

Chapitre 2. Installation

Ce chapitre présente un survol rapide de l'installation de Ubuntu 6.06 LTS édition serveur.
Pour des instructions plus détaillées, référez-vous au guide d'installation d'Ubuntu.

1. Préparer l'installation

Cette section détaille différents aspects à considérer avant de commencer l'installation.

1.1. Exigences du système

L'édition serveur de Ubuntu 6.06 LTS supporte trois architectures importantes : Intel x86, AMD64, et PowerPC. Le tableau ci-dessous présente les exigences matérielles recommandées. Selon vos besoins, il serait possible de se débrouiller avec des ressources plus faibles. Cependant, la plupart des utilisateurs risquent de se sentir frustrés s'ils ignorent ces suggestions.

Tableau 2.1. Exigences minimales recommandées

Type d'installation	RAM	Capacité Disque
Serveur	64 Megaoctets	500 Megaoctets

Vous trouverez ci-dessous le profil par défaut pour l'édition serveur de Ubuntu 6.06 LTS. Il est clair que la taille de l'installation dépendra grandement des services sélectionnés durant l'installation. Pour la plupart des administrateurs, les services par défaut conviendront pour une utilisation généraliste d'un serveur.

Serveur

Ce profil correspond à un petit serveur, constituant une base commune pour toutes sortes de serveurs d'applications. C'est une configuration minimale, sur laquelle il est prévu d'ajouter des services supplémentaires comme le service de fichiers ou d'impression, l'hébergement Web, l'hébergement de messagerie, etc. Pour ces services, 500 Mo d'espace disque devraient suffire, mais il s'agit de prévoir l'ajout d'espace supplémentaire selon les services que vous souhaitez ajouter au serveur.

Souvenez-vous que ces quantités n'incluent pas tous les autres types objets qu'on trouve généralement, comme les fichiers personnels des utilisateurs, les courriels, les journaux et les données. Il convient toujours d'être généreux quand on prévoit l'espace destiné à ses propres fichiers et données.

1.2. Sauvegarde

- Avant de commencer, assurez-vous de sauvegarder chaque fichier présent sur votre système. Si c'est la première fois que vous installez un autre système d'exploitation, autre que celui préinstallé, il est vraisemblable que vous ayez à repartitionner votre disque, pour faire de la place pour Ubuntu. Chaque fois, que vous partitionnez votre disque, vous devez être prêt à perdre toutes les données qu'il contient, suite à une erreur de votre part, ou un problème autre, comme une coupure de l'alimentation. Les programmes utilisés lors de l'installation sont très fiables et sont utilisés depuis des années, mais ils peuvent

réaliser des actions destructives, et une erreur dans leur emploi, peut provoquer la perte de données importantes.

If you are creating a multi-boot system, make sure that you have the distribution media of any other present operating systems on hand. Especially if you repartition your boot drive, you might find that you have to reinstall your operating system's boot loader, or in many cases the whole operating system itself and all files on the affected partitions.

2. Installation à partir du CD

Insérez votre CD d'installation dans le lecteur puis redémarrez l'ordinateur. La procédure d'installation démarre immédiatement après l'insertion du CD. Après l'initialisation, votre premier écran apparaîtra.

At this point, read the text on the screen. You may want to read the help screen provided by the installation system. To do this, press F1.

To perform a default server installation, select « Install to the hard disk » and press **Enter**. The installation process will be started. Simply follow the on-screen instructions, and your Ubuntu system will be installed.

Alternatively, to install a LAMP server (Linux, Apache, MySQL, PHP/Perl/Python), select « Install a LAMP server », and follow the instructions.

Chapitre 3. Gestion des paquets

Ubuntu dispose d'un système complet de gestion de paquets pour l'installation, la configuration et la suppression de programmes. Ce système permet non seulement d'accéder à une base de données contenant plus de 17 000 paquets de programmes pour votre ordinateur Ubuntu, mais aussi de gérer les résolutions de dépendances ainsi que les vérifications de mises à jour.

Divers outils pour interagir avec le système de gestion de paquets d'Ubuntu sont disponibles, des utilitaires en simple ligne de commande qui peuvent aisément être automatisés par les administrateurs système, à une interface graphique simple à utiliser pour les débutants sur Ubuntu.

1. Introduction

Le système de gestion des paquets d'Ubuntu est dérivé du même système utilisé par la distribution GNU/Linux Debian. Les paquets contiennent tous les fichiers nécessaires, ainsi que les méta-données et les instructions permettant d'implémenter une fonctionnalité particulière ou une application logicielle dans votre ordinateur Ubuntu.

Les paquets Debian portent généralement l'extension ".deb", et sont situés dans des *dépôts* qui sont des collections de paquets existants sur divers médias, tels que les CD-ROM ou Internet. Les paquets sont généralement au format binaire précompilé, ce qui rend leur installation rapide et ne requiert aucune compilation de logiciel.

Un grand nombre de paquets évolués utilisent le concept de *dépendances*. Les dépendances sont des paquets additionnels requis par le principal pour fonctionner correctement. Par exemple, l'application de synthèse vocale Festival nécessite festvox-kalpc16k, qui est un paquet fournissant une des voix utilisées par le logiciel. Pour que Festival fonctionne, toutes ses dépendances devront être installées en même temps que le paquet principal. Les outils de gestion d'applications d'Ubuntu le feront automatiquement.

2. Apt-Get

La commande apt-get est un puissant outil en ligne de commande travaillant avec l'*Advanced Packaging Tool* (APT) d'Ubuntu, offrant des fonctionnalités telles que l'installation de nouveaux logiciels, la mise à jour de ceux déjà existants, le rafraîchissement des index de paquets et même la mise à niveau complète de votre système Ubuntu.

Etant un simple outil en ligne de commande, apt-get a de nombreux avantages par rapport aux autres outils de gestion de paquets disponibles dans Ubuntu pour les administrateurs de serveurs. Ces avantages incluent la simplicité d'utilisation à travers de simples connexions terminal (SSH) et la possibilité d'être utilisé dans des scripts d'administration système, qui peuvent à leur tour être automatisés par l'utilitaire de planification cron.

Quelques exemples d'utilisation habituelle de l'utilitaire apt-get :

- **Installation d'un paquet** : L'installation de paquets en utilisant l'outil apt-get est relativement simple. Par exemple, pour installer le scanner réseau *nmap*, entrez la commande suivante :

```
sudo apt-get install nmap
```

- **Suppression d'un paquet** : La suppression d'un paquet ou de paquets est également un processus simple et direct. Pour supprimer le paquet *nmap* installé dans l'exemple précédent, entrez la commande suivante :

```
sudo apt-get remove nmap
```



Paquets multiples : Vous pouvez spécifier plusieurs paquets à installer ou à supprimer en les séparant par des espaces.

- **Mettre à jour l'index des paquets** : L'index des paquets de APT est principalement une base de données des paquets disponibles dans les dépôts listés dans le fichier `/etc/apt/sources.list`. Pour synchroniser l'index local avec les derniers changements effectués sur les dépôts, tapez cette ligne de commande :

```
sudo apt-get update
```

- **Mettre à jour les paquets** : Avec le temps, des versions mises à jour des paquets installés sur votre ordinateur peuvent être mise en ligne dans les dépôts (des mises à jour de sécurité par exemple). Pour mettre à jour votre système, mettez d'abord à jour l'index des paquet comme expliqué ci-dessus, puis tapez :

```
sudo apt-get upgrade
```

Si un paquet a besoin d'installer ou de supprimer de nouvelles dépendances lorsqu'il est mis à jour, il ne sera pas mis à jour par la commande *upgrade*. Pour une mise à jour de ce type, il est nécessaire d'utiliser la commande *dist-upgrade*.

Vous pouvez également mettre à jour votre système Ubuntu entièrement d'une version à une autre avec *dist-upgrade*. Par exemple pour mettre à jour Ubuntu de la version 5.10 à 6.06, vous devez d'abord remplacer les dépôts 5.10 par les 6.06 dans */etc/apt/sources.list*, puis exécuter *apt-get update* comme expliqué ci-dessus, et enfin faire la mise à jour en tapant :

```
sudo apt-get dist-upgrade
```

Après un certain temps, votre ordinateur sera à jour. En général, des étapes supplémentaires sont nécessaires et sont expliquées dans les notes de mise à jour de la version vers laquelle vous avez fait la mise à jour.

Les actions de la commande *apt-get*, tel que l'ajout ou la suppression de paquets, sont inscrites dans le fichier */var/log/dpkg.log*.

Pour plus d'information sur l'utilisation de APT, consultez la documentation détaillée sur *Debian APT User Manual* [<http://www.debian.org/doc/user-manuals#apt-howto>] ou tapez

```
apt-get help
```


3. Aptitude

Aptitude est une application texte utilisant des menus, et servant d'interface à *Advanced Packaging Tool* (APT). Beaucoup des fonctions communes de gestion des paquets, comme l'installation, la désinstallation, et la mise à jour, sont effectuées dans Aptitude avec une simple commande ayant une seule option, qui sont généralement des lettres minuscules.

Aptitude est mieux indiquée pour être utilisée dans un environnement présentant un terminal non graphique pour s'assurer un bon fonctionnement des touches de commandes. Vous pouvez démarrer Aptitude en tant qu'utilisateur normal avec la commande suivante dans un terminal:

```
sudo aptitude
```

Au démarrage d'Aptitude, vous verrez une barre de menu en haut de l'écran et deux panneaux sous cette barre. Le panneau du haut contient les catégories des paquets, telles que *Nouveaux Paquets* et *Paquets Non Installés*. Le panneau du bas contient les informations relatives aux paquets et catégories de paquets.

Utiliser Aptitude pour la maintenance des paquets est relativement direct, et l'interface utilisateur simplifie les tâches communes. Les exemples suivants sont des opérations de maintenance des paquets habituelles effectuées à la manière d'Aptitude :

- **Installer des paquets:** Pour installer un paquet, localisez le avec la catégories "Paquets non installés", par exemple, en utilisant les touches fléchées du clavier et en appuyant sur **Entrée**, puis sélectionnez le paquet que vous voulez installer. Appuyez ensuite sur la touche **+**, et la couleur du paquet changera en *vert*, indiquant qu'il est sélectionné pour être installé. Appuyez maintenant sur la touche **g** pour avoir une liste des actions possibles. Appuyez à nouveau sur **g**, et on vous demandera de devenir super-utilisateur pour continuer. Appuyez sur **Entrée** pour avoir une invite et tapez le mot de passe pour vous identifier en tant que super-utilisateur. Enfin, appuyez sur **g** une fois de plus et il vous sera demandé de télécharger le logiciel. Appuyez sur **Entrée** à l'invite *Continuer* pour que le téléchargement et l'installation commencent.
- **Désinstaller des paquets:** Pour désinstaller un paquet, localisez le avec la catégories "Paquets installés", par exemple, en utilisant les touches fléchées du clavier et en appuyant sur **Entrée**, puis sélectionnez le paquet que vous voulez désinstaller. Appuyez ensuite sur la touche **-**, et la couleur du paquet changera en *rose*, indiquant qu'il est sélectionné pour être désinstallé. Appuyez maintenant sur la touche **g** pour avoir une liste des actions possibles. Appuyez à nouveau sur **g**, et on vous demandera de devenir super-utilisateur pour continuer. Appuyez sur **Entrée** pour avoir une invite et tapez le mot de passe pour vous identifier en tant que super-utilisateur. Appuyez sur **Entrée** à l'invite *Continuer* pour que la désinstallation commencent.
- **Mettre à jour l'index des paquets:** Pour mettre à jour l'index des paquets, appuyez sur la touche **u**, et on vous demandera de devenir super-utilisateur pour continuer. Appuyez

sur **Entrée** pour avoir une invite et tapez le mot de passe pour vous identifier en tant que super-utilisateur. La mise à jour de l'index va commencer. Appuyez sur keycap>Entrée

- **Mettre à jour des paquets:** Pour mettre à jour des paquets, suivez la procédure ci-dessus pour mettre à jour l'index, puis appuyez sur la touche **U** pour marquer tous les paquets que vous pouvez mettre à jour. Appuyez maintenant sur la touche **g** pour avoir une liste des actions possibles. Appuyez à nouveau sur **g**, et on vous demandera de devenir super-utilisateur pour continuer. Appuyez sur **Entrée** pour avoir une invite et tapez le mot de passe pour vous identifier en tant que super-utilisateur. Enfin, appuyez sur **g** une fois de plus et il vous sera demandé de télécharger le logiciel. Appuyez sur **Entrée** à l'invite *Continuer* pour que le téléchargement et la mise à jour des paquets commencent.

La première colonne d'information affichée dans la liste des paquets dans le panneau du haut, lorsqu'on examine réellement des paquets, liste l'état actuel du paquet et utilise la syntaxe suivante pour décrire l'état du paquet:

- **i** : Paquet installé.
- **c**: Le paquet n'est plus installé, mais sa configuration est conservée sur le système
- **p**: Purgé du système
- **v** : Paquet virtuel
- **B** : Paquet cassé
- **u**: Fichiers décompressés, mais paquet pas encore configuré.
- **C**: Mal configuré- La configuration a échoué et nécessite une correction
- **H**: Demi-installé- La Suppression a échoué et nécessite une correction

Pour quitter Aptitude, appuyez simplement sur la touche **q** et confirmez que vous désirez fermer le logiciel. Beaucoup d'autres fonctions sont disponibles à partir du menu d'Aptitude, en appuyant sur la touche **F10**.

4. Configuration

La liste des dépôts utilisée par *Advanced Packaging Tool* (APT) est enregistrée dans le fichier de configuration `/etc/apt/sources.list`. Un exemple de ce fichier est présenté ici, de même que les informations pour ajouter ou supprimer des liens vers des dépôts dans ce fichier.



Ceci [`./sample/sources.list`] est un exemple simple d'un fichier `/etc/apt/sources.list` typique.

Vous pouvez éditer le fichier pour activer ou désactiver certains dépôts. Par exemple, pour désactiver la nécessité d'insérer le CD-ROM Ubuntu à chaque fois que vous faites une opération sur les paquets, mettez simplement en commentaire la ligne appropriée qui se trouve au début du fichier :

```
# no more prompting for CD-ROM please
# deb cdrom:[Ubuntu 6.06 _Dapper Drake_ - Release i386 (20060329.1)]/ dapper main restrict
```

5. Dépôts supplémentaires

En plus des dépôts officiellement supportés par Ubuntu, il en existe des supplémentaires maintenus par la communauté qui offrent un grand nombre de paquets supplémentaires. Deux de ces dépôts les plus populaires sont *Universe* et *Multiverse*. Bien qu'ils ne soient pas officiellement supportés par Ubuntu, ce pourquoi ils ne sont pas activés par défaut, ils proposent généralement des paquets sûrs et ne présentant aucun risque pour votre ordinateur.

-  Les paquets situés dans le dépôt Multiverse ont souvent des licences particulières qui les empêchent d'être distribués avec un système d'exploitation libre, et ils peuvent être illégaux dans votre pays.
-  Soyez prévenus que ni le dépôt *Universe* ni le dépôt *Multiverse* ne contiennent des paquets officiellement supportés. Il peut donc ne pas y avoir de mises à jour de sécurité pour ces paquets.

De nombreux autres sources de paquets sont disponibles, et offrent même souvent un seul paquet, comme par exemple dans le cas des sources venant de développeurs d'une seule application. Vous devriez cependant toujours faire très attention quand vous utilisez des sources exotiques. Recherchez des sources et des paquets fiables avant d'effectuer une installation. Certains paquets provenant de sources non fiables peuvent rendre votre système instable ou inutilisable.

Pour activer les dépôts *Universe* et *Multiverse*, éditez le fichier `/etc/apt/sources.list` et supprimez les commentaires des lignes appropriées.

```
# Nous désirons les dépôts Multiverse et Universe  
  
deb http://archive.ubuntu.com/ubuntu dapper universe multiverse  
deb-src http://archive.ubuntu.com/ubuntu dapper universe multiverse
```

5.1. Références

Méthode pour ajouter des Dépôts (Wiki Ubuntu)

[<https://wiki.ubuntu.com/AddingRepositoriesHowto>]

Chapitre 4. Réseau

Les réseaux sont formés de 2 ou plusieurs appareils, comme des ordinateurs ou des imprimantes par exemple, qui sont reliés entre eux par un lien physique ou sans fil dans le but d'échanger des informations.

Cette partie du Guide du serveur Ubuntu offre des informations générales et spécifiques aux réseaux, y compris un aperçu des concepts des réseaux et des détails sur les principaux protocoles réseau et applications pour serveurs.

1. Configuration du réseau

Ubuntu est fourni avec de nombreux utilitaires graphiques pour la configuration des périphériques réseau. Ce document s'adresse aux administrateurs de serveurs et se focalisera sur la gestion de votre réseau par la ligne de commande.

1.1. Ethernet

La plus grande partie de la configuration d'ethernet est dans un seul fichier :

`/etc/network/interfaces`. Si vous n'avez pas de périphérique ethernet, seule l'interface de boucle locale sera dans ce fichier, qui ressemblera à ceci :

```
# This file describes the network interfaces available on your system
# and how to activate them. For more information, see interfaces(5).

# The loopback network interface
auto lo
iface lo inet loopback
address 127.0.0.1
netmask 255.0.0.0
```

Si vous n'avez qu'un périphérique, `eth0`, qu'il obtient sa configuration depuis un serveur DHCP et qu'il doit être activé au démarrage, seulement 2 lignes supplémentaires sont nécessaires :

```
auto eth0
iface eth0 inet dhcp
```

La première ligne précise que le périphérique doit être automatiquement activé au démarrage. La deuxième ligne précise que cette interface (« iface ») `eth0` doit avoir un adressage IPv4 (remplacer « inet » par « inet6 » pour un périphérique IPv6) et qu'elle doit être configurée automatiquement par DHCP. En supposant que votre réseau et votre serveur DHCP sont correctement configurés, vous ne devriez pas avoir besoin de configuration supplémentaire. Le serveur DHCP fournira la passerelle par défaut (via la commande `route`), l'adresse IP du périphérique (via la commande `ifconfig`), et les serveurs DNS (dans le fichier `/etc/resolv.conf`).

Pour configurer votre périphérique ethernet avec une adresse IP statique et des paramètres personnalisés, plus d'informations sont nécessaires. Supposez que vous voulez assigner l'adresse `192.168.0.2` au périphérique `eth1`, avec le masque `255.255.255.0` et une passerelle par défaut sera `192.168.0.1`. Le fichier `/etc/network/interfaces` ressemblera à ceci :

```
iface eth1 inet static
address 192.168.0.2
netmask 255.255.255.0
gateway 192.168.0.1
```

Dans ce cas vous devez préciser les serveurs DNS vous même dans `/etc/resolv.conf`, qui ressemblera à ça :

```
search mydomain.com
nameserver 192.168.0.1
nameserver 4.2.2.2
```

La directive *search* ajoutera `mydomain.com` aux requêtes de nom d'hôte dans le but de résoudre les noms dans votre réseau. Par exemple, si le domaine de votre réseau est `mydomain.com` et que vous tentez de pinger l'hôte « `mybox` », la requête DNS sera modifiée pour chercher « `mybox.mydomain.com` ». La directive *nameserver* précise les serveurs qui seront utilisés pour la résolution de noms. Si vous utilisez votre propre serveur, entrez-le ici. Sinon demandez à votre fournisseur d'accès les adresses des serveurs DNS primaires et secondaires et entrez-les dans `/etc/resolv.conf` comme expliqué ci-dessus.

De nombreuses autres configurations sont possible, y compris pour les interfaces de modem PPP, les réseaux IPv6, des VPN, etc. Lisez man 5 interfaces pour plus d'informations et les options supportées. Souvenez-vous que `/etc/network/interfaces` est utilisé par les scripts `ifup/ifdown` à un niveau plus haut que dans beaucoup d'autres distribution Linux, et que les utilitaires de bas niveau comme `ifconfig`, `route`, et `dhclient` sont toujours disponibles pour configurer votre réseau comme vous le souhaitez.

1.2. Gérer les entrées DNS

Cette section explique la configuration du serveur de noms dans le cas d'une résolution d'adresses IP en noms d'hôtes et vice-versa. Elle ne concerne pas la configuration du système en tant que serveur de noms.

Pour gérer les entrées DNS, vous pouvez ajouter, modifier, ou enlever les noms des DNS du fichier `/etc/resolv.conf`. Un *fichier d'exemple* [`../sample/resolv.conf`] est donné ci-dessous :

```
search com
nameserver 204.11.126.131
nameserver 64.125.134.133
nameserver 64.125.134.132
nameserver 208.185.179.218
```

La clé *search* spécifie la chaîne de caractères qui sera ajoutée à un nom d'hôte incomplet. Ici, nous avons choisi `com`. Donc quand vous exécuterez **ping ubuntu**, ça sera interprété comme **ping ubuntu.com**.

La clé *nameserver* précise l'adresse IP du serveur de noms. Elle sera utilisée pour résoudre l'adresse IP ou le nom de domaine donné. Ce fichier peut avoir plusieurs entrées de serveurs de nom. Ils seront utilisés par les requêtes dans l'ordre où ils sont écrits dans le fichier.



Si les serveurs DNS sont récupérés automatiquement par DHCP ou PPOE (depuis votre fournisseur d'accès), n'ajoutez rien à ce fichier. Il sera mis à jour automatiquement.

1.3. Gérer les hôtes

Pour gérer les hôtes, vous pouvez ajouter, éditer ou retirer des hôtes du fichier `/etc/hosts`. Ce fichier contient les adresses IP et leur nom d'hôte correspondant. Quand votre système essaye de résoudre un nom de domaine vers une IP ou une IP vers un nom de domaine, il regarde d'abord dans le fichier `/etc/hosts` avant de faire appel aux serveurs DNS. Si l'adresse IP est listée dans `/etc/hosts`, les serveurs DNS ne seront pas utilisés. Ce comportement peut être modifié en éditant `/etc/nsswitch.conf` à vos risques et périls.

Si votre réseau contient des ordinateurs dont les adresses IP ne sont pas listées par les DNS, il est recommandé de les ajouter dans le fichier `/etc/hosts`.

2. TCP/IP

Transmission Control Protocol et Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) sont les protocoles standards développés à la fin des années 1970 par la Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA) pour servir de moyen de communication entre les différents types d'ordinateurs et de réseaux. TCP/IP est le moteur d'Internet, et est donc l'ensemble de protocoles le plus populaire au monde.

2.1. Introduction à TCP/IP

Les deux protocoles de TCP/IP traitent différentes parties des réseau. *Internet Protocol*, le "IP" de TCP/IP, est un protocole non-connecté qui ne traite que le routage de paquets en utilisant le *datagramme IP* comme unité de base de l'information passant sur le réseau. Un datagramme IP consiste en un en-tête suivi d'un message. Le *Transmission Control Protocol* est le "TCP" of TCP/IP. Il permet aux hôtes d'établir des connexions qui serviront à échanger des flux de données. TCP assure que les données arriveront à destination dans le même ordre que lorsqu'elles ont été envoyées.

2.2. Configuration TCP/IP

La configuration du protocole TCP/IP consiste en plusieurs éléments qui doivent être configurés en éditant le fichier de configuration adapté, ou en déployant des solutions telles qu'un serveur Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) qui pourra fournir automatiquement la bonne configuration IP aux clients. Ces données de configuration doivent être définies correctement pour assurer un bon fonctionnement du réseau avec Ubuntu.

Les paramètres de configuration TCP/IP et leurs buts sont les suivants:

- **adresse IP** L'adresse IP est un identifiant unique composé de 4 nombres entre 0 et 255., séparés par des point. Chaque nombre représente 8 bits de l'adresse qui fait au total 32 bits. Ce format est appelé *notation décimale*.
- **Masque de sous-réseau** Le masque de sous-réseau est un masque de bits, ou ensemble de marqueurs, qui séparent les parties de l'adresse IP correspondantes au réseau, et celles qui correspondent au *sous-réseau*. Par exemple dans un réseau de classe C, le masque standard qui est 255.255.255.0 cache les 3 premiers octets de l'adresse et permet d'utiliser le dernier octet pour adresser les hôtes du réseau.
- **Adresse du réseau** L'adresse du réseau représente les octets qui forment la partie réseau de l'adresse IP. par exemple, l'hôte 12.128.1.2 dans un réseau de classe A utilisera 12.0.0.0 comme adresse du réseau. 12 représente la partie réseau, et les 0 représentent la partie hôte. Les hôtes qui utilisent les adresses privées non routables telles que 192.168.1.100 utiliseront 192.168.1.0 comme adresse du réseau. Elle est constituée des 3 premiers octets de l'adresse de classe C 192.168.1 et d'un 0 pour la partie hôtes.

- **Adresse de diffusion** L'adresse de diffusion est une adresse IP qui permet d'envoyer des données simultanément à tous les hôtes d'un sous-réseau au lieu d'un hôte particulier. L'adresse standard de diffusion des réseaux IP est 255.255.255.255, mais cette adresse ne peut pas envoyer de message à tous les hôtes d'Internet car les routeurs la bloquent. Une adresse mieux appropriée sera adaptée à un sous-réseau spécifique. Par exemple, dans un réseau de classe C, 192.168.1.0, l'adresse de diffusion sera 192.168.1.255. Les messages diffusés sont généralement envoyés par les protocoles comme Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) et Routing Information Protocol (RIP).
- **Adresse de la passerelle** Adresse de la passerelle est l'adresse IP passerelle. En g Adresse DNS L'adresse DNS reprprimaires, les secondaires, et les tertiaires. Pour que votre syst Les adresses IP, masques, adresses de r/etc/network/interfaces. L'adresse de serveur de nom est snameserver dans le fichier /etc/resolv.conf. Pour plus d'informations, lisez la page de manuel pour interfaces ou resolv.conf respectivement, avec les commande suivantes en console : Accinterfaces avec la commande suivante : man interfaces Accresolv.conf avec la commande suivante :resolv.conf avec la commande suivante : man resolv.conf

2.3. Routage IP

Le routage IP est un moyen de choisir des chemins à travers différents réseaux pour envoyer les données dans un réseau TCP/IP. Le routage utilise des *tables de routage* pour diriger les paquets de la source vers la destination, souvent en passant à travers plusieurs noeuds intermédiaires appelés *routeurs*. Le routage IP est le mode de choix de chemins le plus utilisé sur internet. Il existe 2 modes de routage IP : le *routage statique* et la *routage dynamique*.

Le routage statique implique l'ajout manuel des routes dans la table de routage, ce qui est généralement fait grâce à la commande route. Le routage statique a des nombreux avantages sur le routage dynamique, comme la simplicité d'implémentation dans un petit réseau, le fait que les routes soient prévisibles (la table de routage est générée à l'avance et donc la route est la même à chaque fois qu'elle est utilisée), et une faible utilisation du réseau due à l'absence de protocole de routage dynamique. Cependant le routage statique a également des inconvénients. Il est par exemple limité aux petits réseaux et s'étend avec difficultés. Il est également incapable de s'adapter à des pannes sur le réseau à cause de la nature fixe des routes.

Le routage dynamique dépend de larges réseaux où de multiples routes sont possibles entre la source et la destination, et utilise des protocoles spécialisés comme Router Information Protocol (RIP), qui prend en charge l'adaptation des tables de routage qui rend le routage dynamique possible. Le routage dynamique a de nombreux avantages sur le routage statique, comme une plus grande adaptabilité à la taille des réseaux et la possibilité de faire face à des pannes dans le réseau. De plus il nécessite moins de configuration manuelle des tables de routage puisque le routeur apprend tout seul les routes disponibles

et la présence d'autres routeurs. Cela empêche également de faire des erreurs humaines dans les tables de routage. Le routage dynamique a cependant des inconvénients comme une plus grande complexité, ainsi qu'une utilisation plus intensive du réseau à cause de la communication entre routeurs, qui ne bénéficie pas directement à l'utilisateur.

2.4. TCP et UDP

TCP est un protocole dit "connecté", qui permet la correction d'erreurs, et garantit que les données arriveront à destination grâce à un *contrôle de flux*. Le contrôle de flux détermine quand le flux de données doit être stoppé, et les précédents paquets doivent être envoyés à nouveau à cause de problèmes comme des *collisions* par exemple, pour assurer un transport fiable des données. TCP est généralement utilisé dans l'échange de données importantes comme les transactions de bases de données par exemple.

User Datagram Protocol (UDP), à l'inverse, est un protocole dit "*non-connecté*" qui est peu utilisé pour l'échange de données importantes puisqu'il ne gère pas le contrôle de flux ou d'autres méthodes pour fiabiliser le transport des données. UDP est souvent utilisé dans des applications de diffusion audio ou vidéo car il est plus rapide que TCP grâce à l'absence de correction d'erreur et de contrôle de flux, et également parce-que la perte de quelques paquets n'est généralement pas importante pour ces applications.

2.5. ICMP

Internet Control Messaging Protocol (ICMP) est une extension de Internet Protocol (IP) comme défini dans la Request For Comments (RFC) #792 et qui supporte les paquets de réseau incluant des messages de contrôle, d'erreur, et d'informations. ICMP est utilisé par des application comme ping, qui peut déterminer si un hôte ou un périphérique est en ligne ou non. *Destination Unreachable* et *Time Exceeded* sont des exemples de messages retournés par ICMP et qui sont utiles pour des hôtes comme pour des routeurs par exemple.

2.6. Services

Les services sont des applications particulières qui s'exécutent généralement en permanence et en tâche de fond, et qui attendent des requêtes venant d'autres applications pour la fonctions qu'ils exercent. De nombreux services sont liés au réseau, et donc beaucoup de services dans un système Ubuntu offrent des fonctionnalités pour les réseaux. Les services possibles sont par exemple *Hyper Text Transport Protocol Daemon* (httpd), qui propose des fonctions de serveur web, *Secure SHell Daemon* (sshd), qui permet un accès distant sécurisé au système et le transfert de fichiers sécurisé, ou *Internet Message Access Protocol Daemon* (imspd), qui offre des services de messagerie électronique.

3. Configuration du pare-feu

Le noyau Linux intègre le sous-système *Netfilter*, qui est utilisé pour manipuler ou décider ce qui arrivera lorsque du trafic réseau passe par votre serveur. Tous les pare-feu modernes pour Linux utilisent ce système pour le filtrage des paquets.

3.1. Introduction au pare-feu

Le filtrage de paquets du noyau serait d'une utilité relative aux administrateurs sans une interface utilisateur pour le gérer. C'est le but d'*iptables*. Quand un paquet atteint votre serveur, *Netfilter* décidera si il sera accepté, manipulé, ou rejeté en suivant les règles fournies grâce à *iptables*. *Iptables* suffit donc à gérer votre firewall, mais de nombreuses interfaces existent pour vous simplifier la tâche.

3.2. Translation d'IP

The purpose of IP Masquerading is to allow machines with private, non-routable IP addresses on your network to access the Internet through the machine doing the masquerading. Traffic from your private network destined for the Internet must be manipulated for replies to be routable back to the machine that made the request. To do this, the kernel must modify the *source* IP address of each packet so that replies will be routed back to it, rather than to the private IP address that made the request, which is impossible over the Internet. Linux uses *Connection Tracking* (*conntrack*) to keep track of which connections belong to which machines and reroute each return packet accordingly. Traffic leaving your private network is thus "masqueraded" as having originated from your Ubuntu gateway machine. This process is referred to in Microsoft documentation as Internet Connection Sharing.

Cela peut être effectué à l'aide d'une simple règle *iptables*, qui pourra éventuellement changer suivant la configuration de votre réseau :

```
sudo iptables -t nat -A POSTROUTING -s 192.168.0.0/16 -o ppp0 -j MASQUERADE
```

La commande ci-dessus considère que votre adresse de réseau privé est 192.168.0.0/16 et que votre interface reliée à Internet est *ppp0*. La syntaxe est construite comme ceci :

- `-t nat` -- la règle ira dans la table NAT
- `-A POSTROUTING` -- la règle sera ajoutée (-A) à la chaîne POSTROUTING
- `-s 192.168.0.0/16` -- la règle s'applique au trafic provenant de plage d'adresse précisée
- `-o ppp0` -- la règle s'applique au trafic devant être routé à travers l'interface réseau précisée
- `-j MASQUERADE` -- traffic matching this rule is to "jump" (-j) to the MASQUERADE target to be manipulated as described above

Each chain in the filter table (the default table, and where most or all packet filtering occurs) has a default *policy* of ACCEPT, but if you are creating a firewall in addition to a gateway device, you may have set the policies to DROP or REJECT, in which case your masqueraded traffic needs to be allowed through the FORWARD chain for the above rule to work:

```
sudo iptables -A FORWARD -s 192.168.0.0/16 -o ppp0 -j ACCEPT
sudo iptables -A FORWARD -d 192.168.0.0/16 -m state --state ESTABLISHED,RELATED -i ppp0 -j
```

The above commands will allow all connections from your local network to the Internet and all traffic related to those connections to return to the machine that initiated them.

3.3. Outils

There are many tools available to help you construct a complete firewall without intimate knowledge of iptables. For the GUI-inclined, Firestarter is quite popular and easy to use, and fwbuilder is very powerful and will look familiar to an administrator who has used a commercial firewall utility such as Checkpoint FireWall-1. If you prefer a command-line tool with plain-text configuration files, Shorewall is a very powerful solution to help you configure an advanced firewall for any network. If your network is relatively simple, or if you don't have a network, ipkungfu should give you a working firewall "out of the box" with zero configuration, and will allow you to easily set up a more advanced firewall by editing simple, well-documented configuration files. Another interesting tool is fireflifer, which is designed to be a desktop firewall application. It is made up of a server (fireflifer-server) and your choice of GUI clients (GTK or QT), and behaves like many popular interactive firewall applications for Windows.

3.4. Journaux

Firewall logs are essential for recognizing attacks, troubleshooting your firewall rules, and noticing unusual activity on your network. You must include logging rules in your firewall for them to be generated, though, and logging rules must come before any applicable terminating rule (a rule with a target that decides the fate of the packet, such as ACCEPT, DROP, or REJECT). For example:

```
sudo iptables -A INPUT -m state --state NEW -p tcp --dport 80 -j LOG --log-prefix "NEW_HTTP"
```

A request on port 80 from the local machine, then, would generate a log in dmesg that looks like this:

```
[4304885.870000] NEW_HTTP_CONN: IN=lo OUT= MAC=00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:00:08:00 S
```

The above log will also appear in `/var/log/messages`, `/var/log/syslog`, and `/var/log/kern.log`. This behavior can be modified by editing `/etc/syslog.conf` appropriately or by installing and configuring `ulogd` and using the ULOG target instead of LOG. The `ulogd` daemon is a userspace server that listens for logging instructions from the

kernel specifically for firewalls, and can log to any file you like, or even to a PostgreSQL or MySQL database. Making sense of your firewall logs can be simplified by using a log analyzing tool such as fwalog, fwlogwatch, or lire.

4. Serveur OpenSSH

4.1. Introduction

Cette partie du Guide du serveur Ubuntu parle du puissant ensemble d'outils pour le contrôle à distance d'ordinateurs connectés et le transfert de fichiers entre ordinateurs connectés, appelé *OpenSSH*. Vous apprendrez également certains paramètres de configuration possibles avec le serveur OpenSSH et comment les modifier sur votre système Ubuntu.

OpenSSH est une version libre du protocole Secure Shell (SSH), comme d'autres logiciels utilisés pour le contrôle d'ordinateurs à distance, ou le transfert de fichiers entre ordinateurs. Les outils traditionnels pour effectuer ces tâches, comme telnet ou rcp, ne sont pas sécurisés et font transiter le mot de passe de l'utilisateur en clair. OpenSSH fournit un serveur et des outils clients pour faciliter le contrôle à distance et le transfert de fichiers de façon sécurisée grâce au chiffrement des données, et donc remplace efficacement les anciens outils.

Le serveur OpenSSH, `sshd`, attend en permanence des connexions depuis des clients. Quand une connexion a lieu, `sshd` établit la connexion correcte en fonction du type de client. Par exemple, si un client se connecte avec le client `ssh`, le serveur OpenSSH va établir une connexion sécurisée après une authentification. Si un client se connecte avec `scp`, le serveur OpenSSH va commencer un transfert de fichier sécurisé entre le serveur et le client après une authentification. OpenSSH peut utiliser de nombreuses méthodes d'authentification, par exemple un mot de passe, une clé publique, ou un ticket Kerberos.

4.2. Installation

L'installation des applications client et serveur d'OpenSSH est simple. Pour installer les applications clientes d'OpenSSH sur votre système Ubuntu, tapez cette commande dans un terminal :

```
sudo apt-get install openssh-client
```

Pour installer le serveur OpenSSH et les fichiers nécessaires, utilisez cette commande dans un terminal :

```
sudo apt-get install openssh-server
```

4.3. Configuration

You may configure the default behavior of the OpenSSH server application, `sshd`, by editing the file `/etc/ssh/sshd_config`. For information about the configuration directives

used in this file, you may view the appropriate manual page with the following command, issued at a terminal prompt:

```
man sshd_config
```

There are many directives in the sshd configuration file controlling such things as communications settings and authentication modes. The following are examples of configuration directives that can be changed by editing the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file.



Avant d'éditer le fichier de configuration, vous devriez faire une copie du fichier original et le protéger en écriture de façon à conserver les paramètres d'origine en référence et à pouvoir les réutiliser en cas de besoin.

Copy the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file and protect it from writing with the following commands, issued at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo cp /etc/ssh/sshd_config /etc/ssh/sshd_config.original
sudo chmod a-w /etc/ssh/sshd_config.original
```

Voici des exemples de directives de configuration que vous pourriez changer :

- To set your OpenSSH to listen on TCP port 2222 instead of the default TCP port 22, change the Port directive as such:

```
Port 2222
```

- To have sshd allow public key-based login credentials, simply add or modify the line:

```
PubkeyAuthentication yes
```

in the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file, or if already present, ensure the line is not commented out.

- To make your OpenSSH server display the contents of the `/etc/issue.net` file as a pre-login banner, simply add or modify the line:

```
Banner /etc/issue.net
```

dans le fichier `/etc/ssh/sshd_config`.

After making changes to the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file, save the file, and restart the sshd server application to effect the changes using the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/ssh restart
```



Many other configuration directives for sshd are available for changing the server application's behavior to fit your needs. Be advised, however, if your only method of access to a server is ssh, and you make a mistake in configuring

sshd via the `/etc/ssh/sshd_config` file, you may find you are locked out of the server upon restarting it, or that the sshd server refuses to start due to an incorrect configuration directive, so be extra careful when editing this file on a remote server.

4.4. Références

Site Internet de OpenSSH [<http://www.openssh.org/>]

Advanced OpenSSH Wiki Page [<https://wiki.ubuntu.com/AdvancedOpenSSH>]

5. Serveur FTP

File Transfer Protocol (FTP) is a TCP protocol for uploading and downloading files between computers. FTP works on a client/server model. The server component is called an *FTP daemon*. It continuously listens for FTP requests from remote clients. When a request is received, it manages the the login and sets up the connection. For the duration of the session it executes any of commands sent by the FTP client.

L'accès à un serveur FTP peut être réalisé de deux façons:

- Anonyme
- Authentifié

In the Anonymous mode, remote clients can access the FTP server by using the default user account called 'anonymous' or 'ftp' and sending an email address as the password. In the Authenticated mode a user must have an account and a password. User access to the FTP server directories and files is dependent on the permissions defined for the account used at login. As a general rule, the FTP daemon will hide the root directory of the FTP server and change it to the FTP Home directory. This hides the rest of the file system from remote sessions.

5.1. vsftpd - Installation du serveur FTP

vsftpd is an FTP daemon available in Ubuntu. It is easy to install, set up, and maintain. To install vsftpd you can run the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install vsftpd
```

5.2. vsftpd - Configuration du serveur FTP

You can edit the vsftpd configuration file, `/etc/vsftpd.conf`, to change the default settings. By default only anonymous FTP is allowed. If you wish to disable this option, you should change the following line:

```
anonymous_enable=YES
```

to

```
anonymous_enable=NO
```

By default, local system users are not allowed to login to FTP server. To change this setting, you should uncomment the following line:

```
#local_enable=YES
```

By default, users are allowed to download files from FTP server. They are not allowed to upload files to FTP server. To change this setting, you should uncomment the following line:

```
#write_enable=YES
```

Similarly, by default, the anonymous users are not allowed to upload files to FTP server. To change this setting, you should uncomment the following line:

```
#anon_upload_enable=YES
```

The configuration file consists of many configuration parameters. The information about each parameter is available in the configuration file. Alternatively, you can refer to the man page, **man 5 vsftpd.conf** for details of each parameter.

Une fois vsftpd configuré, vous pouvez démarrer le démon. La commande suivante permet de démarrer le démon vsftpd :

```
sudo /etc/init.d/vsftpd start
```



Veillez noter que les réglages par défaut du fichier de configuration sont tels qu'ils sont pour des raisons de sécurité. Chacun des changements cités ci-dessus diminue la sécurité du système, par conséquent ne les appliquez qu'en cas de nécessité.

6. Network File System (NFS)

NFS permet à un système de partager des répertoires et des fichiers à travers un réseau. En utilisant NFS, utilisateurs et programmes peuvent accéder aux fichiers de systèmes distants comme s'ils étaient des fichiers locaux.

Quelques uns des plus remarquables avantages que NFS peut apporter sont :

- Local workstations use less disk space because commonly used data can be stored on a single machine and still remain accessible to others over the network.
- There is no need for users to have separate home directories on every network machine. Home directories could be set up on the NFS server and made available throughout the network.
- Storage devices such as floppy disks, CDROM drives, and USB Thumb drives can be used by other machines on the network. This may reduce the number of removable media drives throughout the network.

6.1. Installation

Dans un terminal, entrez la commande suivante pour installer le serveur NFS :

```
sudo apt-get install nfs-kernel-server
```

6.2. Configuration

Vous pouvez choisir les répertoires à exporter en les ajoutant au fichier `/etc/exports`. Par exemple :

```
/ubuntu *(ro,sync,no_root_squash)
/home *(rw,sync,no_root_squash)
```

You can replace `*` with one of the hostname formats. Make the hostname declaration as specific as possible so unwanted systems cannot access the NFS mount.

Pour démarrer le serveur NFS, vous pouvez taper la commande suivante dans un terminal :

```
sudo /etc/init.d/nfs-kernel-server start
```

6.3. Configuration du client NFS

Utilisez la commande `mount` pour monter un répertoire NFS partagé à partir d'une autre machine, en tapant dans un terminal une commande telle que :

```
sudo mount exemple.nomhote.com:/ubuntu /local/ubuntu
```



Le répertoire `/local/ubuntu` du point de montage doit exister. Il ne devrait y avoir ni fichiers ni sous-répertoires dans le répertoire `/local/ubuntu`

An alternate way to mount an NFS share from another machine is to add a line to the `/etc/fstab` file. The line must state the hostname of the NFS server, the directory on the server being exported, and the directory on the local machine where the NFS share is to be mounted.

La syntaxe générale des lignes dans le fichier `/etc/fstab` est celle-ci :

```
exemple.nomhote.com:/ubuntu /local/ubuntu nfs rsize=8192,wsiz=8192,timeo=14,intr#
```

6.4. Références

FAQ Linux NFS [<http://nfs.sourceforge.net/>]

7. Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)

The Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) is a network service that enables host computers to be automatically assigned settings from a server as opposed to manually configuring each network host. Computers configured to be DHCP clients have no control over the settings they receive from the DHCP server, and the configuration is transparent to the computer's user.

The most common settings provided by a DHCP server to DHCP clients include:

- Adresse IP et masque réseau
- DNS
- WINS

However, a DHCP server can also supply configuration properties such as:

- Nom d'hôte
- Nom de domaine
- Passerelle par défaut
- Serveur de temps
- Serveur d'impression

The advantage of using DHCP is that changes to the network, for example a change in the address of the DNS server, need only be changed at the DHCP server, and all network hosts will be reconfigured the next time their DHCP clients poll the DHCP server. As an added advantage, it is also easier to integrate new computers into the network, as there is no need to check for the availability of an IP address. Conflicts in IP address allocation are also reduced.

A DHCP server can provide configuration settings using two methods:

Adresse MAC

This method entails using DHCP to identify the unique hardware address of each network card connected to the network and then continually supplying a constant configuration each time the DHCP client makes a request to the DHCP server using that network device.

Address Pool

This method entails defining a pool (sometimes also called a range or scope) of IP addresses from which DHCP clients are supplied their configuration properties dynamically and on a first come first serve basis. When a DHCP client is no longer on the network for a specified period, the configuration is expired and released back to the address pool for use by other DHCP Clients.

Ubuntu is shipped with both DHCP server and client. The server is `dhcpd` (dynamic host configuration protocol daemon). The client provided with Ubuntu is `dhclient` and should be installed on all computers required to be automatically configured. Both programs are easy to install and configure and will be automatically started at system boot.

7.1. Installation

At a terminal prompt, enter the following command to install `dhcpcd`:

```
sudo apt-get install dhcpcd
```

You will see the following output, which explains what to do next:

```
Please note that if you are installing the DHCP server for the first
time you need to configure. Please stop (/etc/init.d/dhcp
stop) the DHCP server daemon, edit /etc/dhcpd.conf to suit your needs
and particular configuration, and restart the DHCP server daemon
(/etc/init.d/dhcp start).
```

```
You also need to edit /etc/default/dhcp to specify the interfaces dhcpcd
should listen to. By default it listens to eth0.
```

```
NOTE: dhcpcd's messages are being sent to syslog. Look there for
diagnostics messages.
```

```
Starting DHCP server: dhcpcd failed to start - check syslog for diagnostics.
```

7.2. Configuration

The error message the installation ends with might be a little confusing, but the following steps will help you configure the service:

Most commonly, what you want to do is assign an IP address randomly. This can be done with settings as follows:

```
# Sample /etc/dhcpd.conf
# (add your comments here)
default-lease-time 600;
max-lease-time 7200;
option subnet-mask 255.255.255.0;
option broadcast-address 192.168.1.255;
option routers 192.168.1.254;
option domain-name-servers 192.168.1.1, 192.168.1.2;
option domain-name "mydomain.org";

subnet 192.168.1.0 netmask 255.255.255.0 {
range 192.168.1.10 192.168.1.100;
range 192.168.1.150 192.168.1.200;
}
```

This will result in the DHCP server giving a client an IP address from the range 192.168.1.10-192.168.1.100 or 192.168.1.150-192.168.1.200. It will lease an IP address for 600 seconds if the client doesn't ask for a specific time frame. Otherwise the maximum

(allowed) lease will be 7200 seconds. The server will also "advise" the client that it should use 255.255.255.0 as its subnet mask, 192.168.1.255 as its broadcast address, 192.168.1.254 as the router/gateway and 192.168.1.1 and 192.168.1.2 as its DNS servers.

If you need to specify a WINS server for your Windows clients, you will need to include the `netbios-name-servers` option, e.g.

```
option netbios-name-servers 192.168.1.1;
```

Dhcpd configuration settings are taken from the DHCP mini-HOWTO, which can be found *here* [<http://www.tldp.org/HOWTO/DHCP/index.html>].

7.3. Références

FAQ DHCP [http://www.dhcp-handbook.com/dhcp_faq.html]

8. Domain Name Service (DNS)

Domain Name Service (DNS) is an Internet service that maps IP addresses and fully qualified domain names (FQDN) to one another. In this way, DNS alleviates the need to remember IP addresses. Computers that run DNS are called *name servers*. Ubuntu ships with BIND (Berkley Internet Naming Daemon), the most common program used for maintaining a name server on GNU/Linux.

8.1. Installation

At a terminal prompt, enter the following command to install dns:

```
sudo apt-get install bind
```

8.2. Configuration

The DNS configuration files are stored in the `/etc/bind` directory. The primary configuration file is `/etc/bind/named.conf`. The content of the default configuration file is shown below:

```
// This is the primary configuration file for the BIND DNS server named.
//
// Please read /usr/share/doc/bind/README.Debian for information on the
// structure of BIND configuration files in Debian for BIND versions 8.2.1
// and later, *BEFORE* you customize this configuration file.
//

include "/etc/bind/named.conf.options";

// reduce log verbosity on issues outside our control
logging {
    category lame-servers { null; };
    category cname { null; };
};

// prime the server with knowledge of the root servers
zone "." {
    type hint;
    file "/etc/bind/db.root";
};

// be authoritative for the localhost forward and reverse zones, and for
// broadcast zones as per RFC 1912

zone "localhost" {
    type master;
    file "/etc/bind/db.local";
};
```

```
zone "127.in-addr.arpa" {
    type master;
    file "/etc/bind/db.127";
};

zone "0.in-addr.arpa" {
    type master;
    file "/etc/bind/db.0";
};

zone "255.in-addr.arpa" {
    type master;
    file "/etc/bind/db.255";
};

// add local zone definitions here
include "/etc/bind/named.conf.local";
```

The include line specifies the filename which contains the DNS options. The directory line in the options file tells DNS where to look for files. All files BIND uses will be relative to this directory.

The file named `/etc/bind/db.root` describes the root name servers in the world. The servers change over time and must be maintained now and then.

The zone section defines a master server, and it is stored in a file mentioned against file tag. Every zone file contains 3 resource records (RRs): an SOA RR, an NS RR and a PTR RR. SOA is short of Start of Authority. The "@" is a special notation meaning the origin. NS is the Name Server RR. PTR is Domain Name Pointer. To start the DNS server, run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/bind start
```

You can refer to the documentation mentioned in the references section for details.

8.3. Références

DNS HOWTO [<http://www.tldp.org/HOWTO/DNS-HOWTO.html>]

9. CUPS - Serveur d'impression

The primary mechanism for Ubuntu printing and print services is the **Common UNIX Printing System** (CUPS). This printing system is a freely available, portable printing layer which has become the new standard for printing in most GNU/Linux distributions.

CUPS manages print jobs and queues and provides network printing using the standard Internet Printing Protocol (IPP), while offering support for a very large range of printers, from dot-matrix to laser and many in between. CUPS also supports PostScript Printer Description (PPD) and auto-detection of network printers, and features a simple web-based configuration and administration tool.

9.1. Installation

To install CUPS on your Ubuntu computer, simply use `sudo` with the `apt-get` command and give the packages to install as the first parameter. A complete CUPS install has many package dependencies, but they may all be specified on the same command line. Enter the following at a terminal prompt to install CUPS:

```
sudo apt-get install cupsys cupsys-client
```

Upon authenticating with your user password, the packages should be downloaded and installed without error. Upon the conclusion of installation, the CUPS server will be started automatically. For troubleshooting purposes, you can access CUPS server errors via the error log file at: `/var/log/cups/error_log`. If the error log does not show enough information to troubleshoot any problems you encounter, the verbosity of the CUPS log can be increased by changing the **LogLevel** directive in the configuration file (discussed below) to "debug" or even "debug2", which logs everything, from the default of "info". If you make this change, remember to change it back once you've solved your problem, to prevent the log file from becoming overly large.

9.2. Configuration

The Common UNIX Printing System server's behavior is configured through the directives contained in the file `/etc/cups/cupsd.conf`. The CUPS configuration file follows the same syntax as the primary configuration file for the Apache HTTP server, so users familiar with editing Apache's configuration file should feel at ease when editing the CUPS configuration file. Some examples of settings you may wish to change initially will be presented here.



Prior to editing the configuration file, you should make a copy of the original file and protect it from writing, so you will have the original settings as a reference, and to reuse as necessary.

Copy the `/etc/cups/cupsd.conf` file and protect it from writing with the following commands, issued at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo cp /etc/cups/cupsd.conf /etc/cups/cupsd.conf.original
sudo chmod a-w /etc/cups/cupsd.conf.original
```

- **ServerAdmin:** To configure the email address of the designated administrator of the CUPS server, simply edit the `/etc/cups/cupsd.conf` configuration file with your preferred text editor, and modify the `ServerAdmin` line accordingly. For example, if you are the Administrator for the CUPS server, and your e-mail address is 'bjoy@somebigco.com', then you would modify the `ServerAdmin` line to appear as such:

```
ServerAdmin bjoy@somebigco.com
```

For more examples of configuration directives in the CUPS server configuration file, view the associated system manual page by entering the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
man cupsd.conf
```

- ② Whenever you make changes to the `/etc/cups/cupsd.conf` configuration file, you'll need to restart the CUPS server by typing the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/cupsys restart
```

Some other configuration for the CUPS server is done in the file

```
/etc/cups/cups.d/ports.conf:
```

- **Listen:** By default on Ubuntu, the CUPS server installation listens only on the loopback interface at IP address `127.0.0.1`. In order to instruct the CUPS server to listen on an actual network adapter's IP address, you must specify either a hostname, the IP address, or optionally, an IP address/port pairing via the addition of a `Listen` directive. For example, if your CUPS server resides on a local network at the IP address `192.168.10.250` and you'd like to make it accessible to the other systems on this subnetwork, you would edit the `/etc/cups/cups.d/ports.conf` and add a `Listen` directive, as such:

```
Listen 127.0.0.1:631          # existing loopback Listen
Listen /var/run/cups/cups.sock # existing socket Listen
Listen 192.168.10.250:631    # Listen on the LAN interface, Port 631 (IPP)
```

In the example above, you may comment out or remove the reference to the Loopback address (`127.0.0.1`) if you do not wish `cupsd` to listen on that interface, but would

rather have it only listen on the Ethernet interfaces of the Local Area Network (LAN). To enable listening for all network interfaces for which a certain hostname is bound, including the Loopback, you could create a Listen entry for the hostname *socrates* as such:

```
Listen socrates:631 # Listen on all interfaces for the hostname 'socrates'
```

or by omitting the Listen directive and using *Port* instead, as in:

```
Port 631 # Listen on port 631 on all interfaces
```

9.3. Références

Site Internet de CUPS [<http://www.cups.org/>]

10. HTTPD - serveur Internet Apache2

Apache is the most commonly used Web Server on GNU/Linux systems. Web Servers are used to serve Web Pages requested by client computers. Clients typically request and view Web Pages using Web Browser applications such as Firefox, Opera, or Mozilla.

Users enter a Uniform Resource Locator (URL) to point to a Web server by means of its Fully Qualified Domain Name (FQDN) and a path to the required resource. For example, to view the home page of the *Ubuntu Web site* [<http://www.ubuntu.com>] a user will enter only the FQDN. To request specific information about *paid support* [<http://www.ubuntu.com/support/supportoptions/paidsupport>], a user will enter the FQDN followed by a path.

The most common protocol used to transfer Web pages is the Hyper Text Transfer Protocol (HTTP). Protocols such as Hyper Text Transfer Protocol over Secure Sockets Layer (HTTPS), and File Transfer Protocol (FTP), a protocol for uploading and downloading files, are also supported.

Apache Web Servers are often used in combination with the MySQL database engine, the HyperText Preprocessor (PHP) scripting language, and other popular scripting languages such as Python and Perl. This configuration is termed LAMP (Linux, Apache, MySQL and Perl/Python/PHP) and forms a powerful and robust platform for the development and deployment of Web-based applications.

10.1. Installation

The Apache2 web server is available in Ubuntu Linux. To install Apache2:

- At a terminal prompt enter the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install apache2
```

10.2. Configuration

Apache is configured by placing *directives* in plain text configuration files. The main configuration file is called `apache2.conf`. In addition, other configuration files may be added using the *Include* directive, and wildcards can be used to include many configuration files. Any directive may be placed in any of these configuration files. Changes to the main configuration files are only recognized by Apache2 when it is started or restarted.

The server also reads a file containing mime document types; the filename is set by the *TypesConfig* directive, and is `mime.types` by default.

The default Apache2 configuration file is `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf`. You can edit this file to configure the Apache2 server. You can configure the port number, document root, modules, log files, virtual hosts, etc.

10.2.1. Réglages de base

This section explains Apache2 server essential configuration parameters. Refer to the *Apache2 Documentation* [<http://httpd.apache.org/docs/2.0/>] for more details.

- Apache2 ships with a virtual-host-friendly default configuration. That is, it is configured with a single default virtual host (using the *VirtualHost* directive) which can be modified or used as-is if you have a single site, or used as a template for additional virtual hosts if you have multiple sites. If left alone, the default virtual host will serve as your default site, or the site users will see if the URL they enter does not match the *ServerName* directive of any of your custom sites. To modify the default virtual host, edit the file `/etc/apache2/sites-available/default`. If you wish to configure a new virtual host or site, copy that file into the same directory with a name you choose. For example, **sudo cp /etc/apache2/sites-available/default /etc/apache2/sites-available/mynewsite** Edit the new file to configure the new site using some of the directives described below.
- The *ServerAdmin* directive specifies the email address to be advertised for the server's administrator. The default value is `webmaster@localhost`. This should be changed to an email address that is delivered to you (if you are the server's administrator). If your website has a problem, Apache2 will display an error message containing this email address to report the problem to. Find this directive in your site's configuration file in `/etc/apache2/sites-available`.
- The *Listen* directive specifies the port, and optionally the IP address, Apache2 should listen on. If the IP address is not specified, Apache2 will listen on all IP addresses assigned to the machine it runs on. The default value for the *Listen* directive is `80`. Change this to `127.0.0.1:80` to cause Apache2 to listen only on your loopback interface so that it will not be available to the Internet, to (for example) `81` to change the port that it listens on, or leave it as is for normal operation. This directive can be found and changed in its own file, `/etc/apache2/ports.conf`
- The *ServerName* directive is optional and specifies what FQDN your site should answer to. The default virtual host has no *ServerName* directive specified, so it will respond to all requests that do not match a *ServerName* directive in another virtual host. If you have just acquired the domain name `ubunturocks.com` and wish to host it on your Ubuntu server, the value of the *ServerName* directive in your virtual host configuration file should be `ubunturocks.com`. Add this directive to the new virtual host file you created earlier (`/etc/apache2/sites-available/mynewsite`).



You may also want your site to respond to `www.ubunturocks.com`, since many users will assume the `www` prefix is appropriate. Use the *ServerAlias* directive for this. You may also use wildcards in the *ServerAlias* directive. For example, **`ServerAlias *.ubunturocks.com`** will cause your site to respond to any domain request ending in `.ubunturocks.com`.

- The *DocumentRoot* directive specifies where Apache should look for the files that make up the site. The default value is `/var/www`. No site is configured there, but if you

uncomment the *RedirectMatch* directive in `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` requests will be redirected to `/var/www/apache2-default` where the default Apache2 site awaits. Change this value in your site's virtual host file, and remember to create that directory if necessary!



The `/etc/apache2/sites-available` directory is **not** parsed by Apache2. Symbolic links in `/etc/apache2/sites-enabled` point to "available" sites. Use the `a2ensite` (Apache2 Enable Site) utility to create those symbolic links, like so: **`sudo a2ensite mynewsite`** where your site's configuration file is `/etc/apache2/sites-available/mynewsite`. Similarly, the `a2dissite` utility should be used to disable sites.

10.2.2. Réglages par défaut

This section explains configuration of the Apache2 server default settings. For example, if you add a virtual host, the settings you configure for the virtual host take precedence for that virtual host. For a directive not defined within the virtual host settings, the default value is used.

- The *DirectoryIndex* is the default page served by the server when a user requests an index of a directory by specifying a forward slash (/) at the end of the directory name.

For example, when a user requests the page `http://www.example.com/this_directory/`, he or she will get either the *DirectoryIndex* page if it exists, a server-generated directory list if it does not and the *Indexes* option is specified, or a *Permission Denied* page if neither is true. The server will try to find one of the files listed in the *DirectoryIndex* directive and will return the first one it finds. If it does not find any of these files and if *Options Indexes* is set for that directory, the server will generate and return a list, in HTML format, of the subdirectories and files in the directory. The default value, found in `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` is " `index.html index.cgi index.pl index.php index.xhtml`". Thus, if Apache2 finds a file in a requested directory matching any of these names, the first will be displayed.

- The *ErrorDocument* directive allows you to specify a file for Apache to use for specific error events. For example, if a user requests a resource that does not exist, a 404 error will occur, and per Apache2's default configuration, the file `/usr/share/apache2/error/HTTP_NOT_FOUND.html.var` will be displayed. That file is not in the server's *DocumentRoot*, but there is an *Alias* directive in `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` that redirects requests to the `/error` directory to `/usr/share/apache2/error/`. To see a list of the default *ErrorDocument* directives, use this command: **`grep ErrorDocument /etc/apache2/apache2.conf`**
- By default, the server writes the transfer log to the file `/var/log/apache2/access.log`. You can change this on a per-site basis in your virtual host configuration files with the *CustomLog* directive, or omit it to accept the default, specified in `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf`. You may also specify the file to which errors are logged,

via the *ErrorLog* directive, whose default is `/var/log/apache2/error.log`. These are kept separate from the transfer logs to aid in troubleshooting problems with your Apache2 server. You may also specify the *LogLevel* (the default value is "warn") and the *LogFormat* (see `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` for the default value).

- Some options are specified on a per-directory basis rather than per-server. Option is one of these directives. A Directory stanza is enclosed in XML-like tags, like so:

```
<Directory /var/www/mynewsite>
    ...
</Directory>
```

The Options directive within a Directory stanza accepts one or more of the following values (among others), separated by spaces:

- **ExecCGI** - Allow execution of CGI scripts. CGI scripts are not executed if this option is not chosen.



Most files should not be executed as CGI scripts. This would be very dangerous. CGI scripts should be kept in a directory separate from and outside your DocumentRoot, and only this directory should have the ExecCGI option set. This is the default, and the default location for CGI scripts is `/usr/lib/cgi-bin`.

- **Includes** - Allow server-side includes. Server-side includes allow an HTML file to *include* other files. This is not a common option. See *the Apache2 SSI Howto* [<http://httpd.apache.org/docs/2.0/howto/ssi.html>] for more information.
- **IncludesNOEXEC** - Allow server-side includes, but disable the `#exec` and `#include` commands in CGI scripts.
- **Indexes** - Display a formatted list of the directory's contents, if no `DirectoryIndex` (such as `index.html`) exists in the requested directory.



For security reasons, this should usually not be set, and certainly should not be set on your DocumentRoot directory. Enable this option carefully on a per-directory basis only if you are certain you want users to see the entire contents of the directory.

- **Multiview** - Support content-negotiated multiviews; this option is disabled by default for security reasons. See the *Apache2 documentation on this option* [http://httpd.apache.org/docs/2.0/mod/mod_negotiation.html#multiviews].
- **SymLinksIfOwnerMatch** - Only follow symbolic links if the target file or directory has the same owner as the link.

10.2.3. Virtual Hosts Settings

Virtual hosts allow you to run different servers for different IP addresses, different host names, or different ports on the same machine. For example, you can run the website for `http://www.example.com` and `http://www.anotherexample.com` on the same Web server using virtual hosts. This option corresponds to the `<VirtualHost>` directive for the default

virtual host and IP-based virtual hosts. It corresponds to the `<NameVirtualHost>` directive for a name-based virtual host.

The directives set for a virtual host only apply to that particular virtual host. If a directive is set server-wide and not defined within the virtual host settings, the default setting is used. For example, you can define a Webmaster email address and not define individual email addresses for each virtual host.

Set the `DocumentRoot` directive to the directory that contains the root document (such as `index.html`) for the virtual host. The default `DocumentRoot` is `/var/www`.

The `ServerAdmin` directive within the `VirtualHost` stanza is email the address used in the footer of error pages if you choose to show a footer with an email address on the error pages.

10.2.4. Paramètres du serveur

This section explains how to configure basic server settings.

LockFile - The `LockFile` directive sets the path to the lockfile used when the server is compiled with either `USE_FCNTL_SERIALIZED_ACCEPT` or `USE_FLOCK_SERIALIZED_ACCEPT`. It must be stored on the local disk. It should be left to the default value unless the logs directory is located on an NFS share. If this is the case, the default value should be changed to a location on the local disk and to a directory that is readable only by root.

PidFile - The `PidFile` directive sets the file in which the server records its process ID (pid). This file should only be readable by root. In most cases, it should be left to the default value.

User - The `User` directive sets the userid used by the server to answer requests. This setting determines the server's access. Any files inaccessible to this user will also be inaccessible to your website's visitors. The default value for `User` is `www-data`.



Unless you know exactly what you are doing, do not set the `User` directive to `root`. Using `root` as the `User` will create large security holes for your Web server.

The `Group` directive is similar to the `User` directive. `Group` sets the group under which the server will answer requests. The default group is also `www-data`.

10.2.5. Modules d'Apache

Apache is a modular server. This implies that only the most basic functionality is included in the core server. Extended features are available through modules which can be loaded into Apache. By default, a base set of modules is included in the server at compile-time. If

the server is compiled to use dynamically loaded modules, then modules can be compiled separately, and added at any time using the `LoadModule` directive. Otherwise, Apache must be recompiled to add or remove modules. Ubuntu compiles Apache2 to allow the dynamic loading of modules. Configuration directives may be conditionally included on the presence of a particular module by enclosing them in an `<IfModule>` block. You can install additional Apache2 modules and use them with your Web server. You can install Apache2 modules using the `apt-get` command. For example, to install the Apache2 module for MySQL authentication, you can run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install libapache2-mod-auth-mysql
```

Once you install the module, the module will be available in the `/etc/apache2/mods-available` directory. You can use the `a2enmod` command to enable a module. You can use the `a2dismod` command to disable a module. Once you enable the module, the module will be available in the `/etc/apache2/mods-enabled` directory.

10.3. HTTPS Configuration

The `mod_ssl` module adds an important feature to the Apache2 server - the ability to encrypt communications. Thus, when your browser is communicating using SSL encryption, the `https://` prefix is used at the beginning of the Uniform Resource Locator (URL) in the browser navigation bar.

The `mod_ssl` module is available in `apache2-common` package. If you have installed this package, you can run the following command from a terminal prompt to enable the `mod_ssl` module:

```
sudo a2enmod ssl
```

10.3.1. Certificats et sécurité

To set up your secure server, use public key cryptography to create a public and private key pair. In most cases, you send your certificate request (including your public key), proof of your company's identity, and payment to a Certificate Authority (CA). The CA verifies the certificate request and your identity, and then sends back a certificate for your secure server.

Alternatively, you can create your own self-signed certificate. Note, however, that self-signed certificates should not be used in most production environments. Self-signed certificates are not automatically accepted by a user's browser. Users are prompted by the browser to accept the certificate and create the secure connection.

Once you have a self-signed certificate or a signed certificate from the CA of your choice, you need to install it on your secure server.

10.3.2. Types de certificats

You need a key and a certificate to operate your secure server, which means that you can either generate a self-signed certificate or purchase a CA-signed certificate. A CA-signed certificate provides two important capabilities for your server:

- Browsers (usually) automatically recognize the certificate and allow a secure connection to be made without prompting the user.
- When a CA issues a signed certificate, it is guaranteeing the identity of the organization that is providing the web pages to the browser.

Most Web browsers that support SSL have a list of CAs whose certificates they automatically accept. If a browser encounters a certificate whose authorizing CA is not in the list, the browser asks the user to either accept or decline the connection.

You can generate a self-signed certificate for your secure server, but be aware that a self-signed certificate does not provide the same functionality as a CA-signed certificate. A self-signed certificate is not automatically recognized by most Web browsers, and a self-signed certificate does not provide any guarantee concerning the identity of the organization that is providing the website. A CA-signed certificate provides both of these important capabilities for a secure server. The process of getting a certificate from a CA is fairly easy. A quick overview is as follows:

1. Create a private and public encryption key pair.
2. Create a certificate request based on the public key. The certificate request contains information about your server and the company hosting it.
3. Send the certificate request, along with documents proving your identity, to a CA. We cannot tell you which certificate authority to choose. Your decision may be based on your past experiences, or on the experiences of your friends or colleagues, or purely on monetary factors.

Once you have decided upon a CA, you need to follow the instructions they provide on how to obtain a certificate from them.

4. When the CA is satisfied that you are indeed who you claim to be, they send you a digital certificate.
5. Install this certificate on your secure server, and begin handling secure transactions.

Whether you are getting a certificate from a CA or generating your own self-signed certificate, the first step is to generate a key.

10.3.3. Generating a Certificate Signing Request (CSR)

To generate the Certificate Signing Request (CSR), you should create your own key. You can run the following command from a terminal prompt to create the key:

```
openssl genrsa -des3 -out server.key 1024
```

```
Generating RSA private key, 1024 bit long modulus
.....+++++
.....+++++
unable to write 'random state'
e is 65537 (0x10001)
Enter pass phrase for server.key:
```

You can now enter your passphrase. For best security, it should at least contain eight characters. The minimum length when specifying `-des3` is four characters. It should include numbers and/or punctuation and not be a word in a dictionary. Also remember that your passphrase is case-sensitive.

Re-type the passphrase to verify. Once you have re-typed it correctly, the server key is generated and stored in `server.key` file.



You can also run your secure web server without a passphrase. This is convenient because you will not need to enter the passphrase every time you start your secure web server. But it is highly insecure and a compromise of the key means a compromise of the server as well.

In any case, you can choose to run your secure web server without a passphrase by leaving out the `-des3` switch in the generation phase or by issuing the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
openssl rsa -in server.key -out server.key.insecure
```

Once you run the above command, the insecure key will be stored in the `server.key.insecure` file. You can use this file to generate the CSR without passphrase.

To create the CSR, run the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
openssl req -new -key server.key -out server.csr
```

It will prompt you enter the passphrase. If you enter the correct passphrase, it will prompt you to enter Company Name, Site Name, Email Id, etc. Once you enter all these details, your CSR will be created and it will be stored in the `server.csr` file. You can submit this CSR file to a CA for processing. The CAN will use this CSR file and issue the certificate. On the other hand, you can create self-signed certificate using this CSR.

10.3.4. Creating a Self-Signed Certificate

To create the self-signed certificate, run the following command at a terminal prompt:

```
openssl x509 -req -days 365 -in server.csr -signkey server.key -out server.crt
```

The above command will prompt you to enter the passphrase. Once you enter the correct passphrase, your certificate will be created and it will be stored in the `server.crt` file.



If your secure server is to be used in a production environment, you probably need a CA-signed certificate. It is not recommended to use self-signed certificate.

10.3.5. Installing the Certificate

You can install the key file `server.key` and certificate file `server.crt` or the certificate file issued by your CA by running following commands at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo cp server.crt /etc/ssl/certs
sudo cp server.key /etc/ssl/private
```

You should add the following four lines to the `/etc/apache2/sites-available/default` file or the configuration file for your secure virtual host. You should place them in the *VirtualHost* section. They should be placed under the *DocumentRoot* line:

```
SSLEngine on

SSLOptions +FakeBasicAuth +ExportCertData +CompatEnvVars +StrictRequire

SSLCertificateFile /etc/ssl/certs/server.crt
SSLCertificateKeyFile /etc/ssl/private/server.key
```

HTTPS should listen on port number 443. You should add the following line to the `/etc/apache2/ports.conf` file:

```
Listen 443
```

10.3.6. Accéder au serveur

Once you install your certificate, you should restart your web server. You can run the following command at a terminal prompt to restart your web server:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/apache2 restart
```



You should remember and enter the passphrase every time you start your secure web server.

You will be prompted to enter the passphrase. Once you enter the correct passphrase, the secure web server will be started. You can access the secure server pages by typing `https://your_hostname/url/` in your browser address bar.

10.4. Références

Documentation d'Apache2 [<http://httpd.apache.org/docs/2.0/>]

Mod SSL Documentation [<http://www.modssl.org/docs/>]

11. Squid - Proxy Server

Squid is a full-featured web proxy cache server application which provides proxy and cache services for Hyper Text Transport Protocol (HTTP), File Transfer Protocol (FTP), and other popular network protocols. Squid can implement caching and proxying of Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) requests and caching of Domain Name Server (DNS) lookups, and perform transparent caching. Squid also supports a wide variety of caching protocols, such as Internet Cache Protocol, (ICP) the Hyper Text Caching Protocol, (HTCP) the Cache Array Routing Protocol (CARP), and the Web Cache Coordination Protocol. (WCCP)

The Squid proxy cache server is an excellent solution to a variety of proxy and caching server needs, and scales from the branch office to enterprise level networks while providing extensive, granular access control mechanisms and monitoring of critical parameters via the Simple Network Management Protocol (SNMP). When selecting a computer system for use as a dedicated Squid proxy, or caching servers, ensure your system is configured with a large amount of physical memory, as Squid maintains an in-memory cache for increased performance.

11.1. Installation

At a terminal prompt, enter the following command to install the Squid server:

```
sudo apt-get install squid squid-common
```

11.2. Configuration

Squid is configured by editing the directives contained within the `/etc/squid/squid.conf` configuration file. The following examples illustrate some of the directives which may be modified to affect the behavior of the Squid server. For more in-depth configuration of Squid, see the References section.



Prior to editing the configuration file, you should make a copy of the original file and protect it from writing so you will have the original settings as a reference, and to re-use as necessary.

Copy the `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file and protect it from writing with the following commands entered at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo cp /etc/squid/squid.conf /etc/squid/squid.conf.original
sudo chmod a-w /etc/squid/squid.conf.original
```

- To set your Squid server to listen on TCP port 8888 instead of the default TCP port 3128, change the `http_port` directive as such:

```
http_port 8888
```


- Change the `visible_hostname` directive in order to give the Squid server a specific hostname. This hostname does not necessarily need to be the computer's hostname. In this example it is set to *weezie*

```
visible_hostname weezie
```

- Again, Using Squid's access control, you may configure use of Internet services proxied by Squid to be available only users with certain Internet Protocol (IP) addresses. For example, we willlll illustrate access by users of the 192.168.42.0/24 subnetwork only:

Add the following to the **bottom** of the ACL section of your `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file:

```
acl fortytwo_network src 192.168.42.0/24
```

Then, add the following to the **top** of the `http_access` section of your `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file:

```
http_access allow fortytwo_network
```

- Using the excellent access control features of Squid, you may configure use of Internet services proxied by Squid to be available only during normal business hours. For example, we'll illustrate access by employees of a business which is operating between 9:00AM and 5:00PM, Monday through Friday, and which uses the 10.1.42.0/42 subnetwork:

Add the following to the **bottom** of the ACL section of your `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file:

```
acl biz_network src 10.1.42.0/24 acl biz_hours time M T W T F 9:00-17:00
```

Then, add the following to the **top** of the `http_access` section of your `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file:

```
http_access allow biz_network biz_hours
```

- ② After making changes to the `/etc/squid/squid.conf` file, save the file and restart the squid server application to effect the changes using the following command entered at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/squid restart
```

11.3. Références

Squid Website [<http://www.squid-cache.org/>]

12. Version Control System

Version control is the art of managing changes to information. It has long been a critical tool for programmers, who typically spend their time making small changes to software and then undoing those changes the next day. But the usefulness of version control software extends far beyond the bounds of the software development world. Anywhere you can find people using computers to manage information that changes often, there is room for version control.

12.1. Subversion

Subversion is an open source version control system. Using Subversion, you can record the history of source files and documents. It manages files and directories over time. A tree of files is placed into a central repository. The repository is much like an ordinary file server, except that it remembers every change ever made to files and directories.

12.1.1. Installation

To access Subversion repository using the HTTP protocol, you must install and configure a web server. Apache2 is proven to work with Subversion. Please refer to the HTTP subsection in the Apache2 section to install and configure Apache2. To access the Subversion repository using the HTTPS protocol, you must install and configure a digital certificate in your Apache 2 web server. Please refer to the HTTPS subsection in the Apache2 section to install and configure the digital certificate.

To install Subversion, run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install subversion libapache2-svn
```

12.1.2. Server Configuration

This step assumes you have installed above mentioned packages on your system. This section explains how to create a Subversion repository and access the project.

12.1.2.1. Create Subversion Repository

The Subversion repository can be created using the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
svnadmin create /path/to/repos/project
```

12.1.3. Access Methods

Subversion repositories can be accessed (checked out) through many different methods --on local disk, or through various network protocols. A repository location, however, is

always a URL. The table describes how different URL schemas map to the available access methods.

Tableau 4.1. Access Methods

Schema	Access Method
file://	direct repository access (on local disk)
http://	Access via WebDAV protocol to Subversion-aware Apache2 web server
https://	Same as http://, but with SSL encryption
svn://	Access via custom protocol to an svnserve server
svn+ssh://	Same as svn://, but through an SSH tunnel

In this section, we will see how to configure Subversion for all these access methods. Here, we cover the basics. For more advanced usage details, refer to the *svn book* [<http://svnbook.red-bean.com/>].

12.1.3.1. Direct repository access (file://)

This is the simplest of all access methods. It does not require any Subversion server process to be running. This access method is used to access Subversion from the same machine. The syntax of the command, entered at a terminal prompt, is as follows:

```
svn co file:///chemin/vers/depot/nomduprojet
```

ou

```
svn co file://localhost/chemin/vers/depot/nomduprojet
```

- ❓ If you do not specify the hostname, there are three forward slashes (`///`) -- two for the protocol (file, in this case) plus the leading slash in the path. If you specify the hostname, you must use two forward slashes (`//`).

The repository permissions depend on filesystem permissions. If the user has read/write permission, he can checkout from and commit to the repository.

12.1.3.2. Access via WebDAV protocol (http://)

To access the Subversion repository via WebDAV protocol, you must configure your Apache 2 web server. You must add the following snippet in your

`/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` file:

```
<Location /svn>
```

```

DAV svn
SVNPath /path/to/repos
AuthType Basic
AuthName "Your repository name"
AuthUserFile /etc/subversion/passwd
<LimitExcept GET PROPFIND OPTIONS REPORT>
Require valid-user
</LimitExcept>
</Location>

```

Next, you must create the `/etc/subversion/passwd` file. This file contains user authentication details. To add an entry, i.e. to add a user, you can run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
htpasswd2 /etc/subversion/passwd nom_utilisateur
```

This command will prompt you to enter the password. Once you enter the password, the user is added. Now, to access the repository you can run the following command:

```
svn co http://nomduserveur/svn
```



The password is transmitted as plain text. If you are worried about password snooping, you are advised to use SSL encryption. For details, please refer next section.

12.1.3.3. Access via WebDAV protocol with SSL encryption (*https://*)

Accessing Subversion repository via WebDAV protocol with SSL encryption (*https://*) is similar to *http://* except that you must install and configure the digital certificate in your Apache2 web server.

You can install a digital certificate issued by a signing authority like Verisign. Alternatively, you can install your own self-signed certificate.

This step assumes you have installed and configured a digital certificate in your Apache 2 web server. Now, to access the Subversion repository, please refer to the above section! The access methods are exactly the same, except the protocol. You must use *https://* to access the Subversion repository.

12.1.3.4. Access via custom protocol (*svn://*)

Once the Subversion repository is created, you can configure the access control. You can edit the `/path/to/repos/project/conf/svnserve.conf` file to configure the access control. For example, to set up authentication, you can uncomment the following lines in the configuration file:

```
# [general]
```

```
# password-db = passwd
```

After uncommenting the above lines, you can maintain the user list in the passwd file. So, edit the file `passwd` in the same directory and add the new user. The syntax is as follows:

```
username = password
```

For more details, please refer to the file.

Now, to access Subversion via the `svn://` custom protocol, either from the same machine or a different machine, you can run `svnserver` using `svnserv` command. The syntax is as follows:

```
$ svnserv -d --foreground -r /path/to/repos
# -d -- daemon mode
# --foreground -- run in foreground (useful for debugging)
# -r -- root of directory to serve
```

For more usage details, please refer to:

```
$ svnserv --help
```

Once you run this command, Subversion starts listening on default port (3690). To access the project repository, you must run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
svn co svn://nom_hote/projet projet --username nom_utilisateur
```

Based on server configuration, it prompts for password. Once you are authenticated, it checks out the code from Subversion repository. To synchronize the project repository with the local copy, you can run the **update** sub-command. The syntax of the command, entered at a terminal prompt, is as follows:

```
cd repertoire_du_projet ; svn update
```

For more details about using each Subversion sub-command, you can refer to the manual. For example, to learn more about the `co` (checkout) command, please run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
svn co help
```

12.1.3.5. Access via custom protocol with SSL encryption (svn+ssh://)

The configuration and server process is same as in the `svn://` method. For details, please refer to the above section. This step assumes you have followed the above step and started the Subversion server using `svnserv` command.

It is also assumed that the `ssh` server is running on that machine and that it is allowing incoming connections. To confirm, please try to login to that machine using `ssh`. If you can login, everything is perfect. If you cannot login, please address it before continuing further.

The `svn+ssh://` protocol is used to access the Subversion repository using SSL encryption. The data transfer is encrypted using this method. To access the project repository (for example with a checkout), you must use the following command syntax:

```
svn co svn+ssh://hostname/var/svn/repos/project
```

- ② You must use the full path (`/path/to/repos/project`) to access the Subversion repository using this access method.

Based on server configuration, it prompts for password. You must enter the password you use to login via ssh. Once you are authenticated, it checks out the code from the Subversion repository.

12.2. Serveur CVS

CVS is a version control system. You can use it to record the history of source files.

12.2.1. Installation

At a terminal prompt, enter the following command to install cvs:

```
sudo apt-get install cvs
```

After you install cvs, you should install xinetd to start/stop the cvs server. At the prompt, enter the following command to install xinetd:

```
sudo apt-get install xinetd
```

12.2.2. Configuration

Once you install cvs, the repository will be automatically initialized. By default, the repository resides under the `/var/lib/cvs` directory. You can change this path by running following command:

```
cvs -d /your/new/cvs/repo init
```

Once the initial repository is set up, you can configure xinetd to start the CVS server. You can copy the following lines to the `/etc/xinetd/cvspserver` file.

```
service cvspserver
{
    port = 2401
    socket_type = stream
    protocol = tcp
    user = root
    wait = no
```

```

type = UNLISTED
server = /usr/bin/cvs
server_args = -f --allow-root /var/lib/cvs pserver
disable = no
}

```



Be sure to edit the repository if you have changed the default repository (/var/lib/cvs) directory.

Once you have configured xinetd you can start the cvs server by running following command:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/xinetd start
```

You can confirm that the CVS server is running by issuing the following command:

```
sudo netstat -tap | grep cvs
```

When you run this command, you should see the following line or something similar:

```
tcp 0 0 *:cvspserver *:* LISTEN
```

From here you can continue to add users, add new projects, and manage the CVS server.



CVS allows the user to add users independently of the underlying OS installation. Probably the easiest way is to use the Linux Users for CVS, although it has potential security issues. Please refer to the CVS manual for details.

12.2.3. Add Projects

This section explains how to add new project to the CVS repository. Create the directory and add necessary document and source files to the directory. Now, run the following command to add this project to CVS repository:

```
cd your/project
cvs import -d :pserver:username@hostname.com:/var/lib/cvs -m "Importing my project to CVS"

```



You can use the CVSROOT environment variable to store the CVS root directory. Once you export the CVSROOT environment variable, you can avoid using -d option to above cvs command.

The string *new_project* is a vendor tag, and *start* is a release tag. They serve no purpose in this context, but since CVS requires them, they must be present.



When you add a new project, the CVS user you use must have write access to the CVS repository (/var/lib/cvs). By default, the src group has write access to the

CVS repository. So, you can add the user to this group, and he can then add and manage projects in the CVS repository.

12.3. Références

Subversion Home Page [<http://subversion.tigris.org/>]

Subversion Book [<http://svnbook.red-bean.com/>]

CVS Manual [http://ximbiot.com/cvs/manual/cvs-1.11.21/cvs_toc.html]

13. Bases de données

Ubuntu provides two Database servers. They are:

- MySQL™
- PostgreSQL

They are available in the main repository. This section explains how to install and configure these database servers.

13.1. MySQL

MySQL is a fast, multi-threaded, multi-user, and robust SQL database server. It is intended for mission-critical, heavy-load production systems as well as for embedding into mass-deployed software.

13.1.1. Installation

To install MySQL, run the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install mysql-server mysql-client
```

Once the installation is complete, the MySQL server should be started automatically. You can run the following command from a terminal prompt to check whether the MySQL server is running:

```
sudo netstat -tap | grep mysql
```

When you run this command, you should see the following line or something similar:

```
tcp 0 0 localhost.localdomain:mysql ** LISTEN -
```

If the server is not running correctly, you can type the following command to start it:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/mysql restart
```

13.1.2. Configuration

By default, the administrator password is not set. Once you install MySQL, the first thing you must do is to configure the MySQL administrator password. To do this, run the following commands:

```
sudo mysqladmin -u root password nouveau_mot_de_passe_sql
```

```
sudo mysqladmin -u root -h localhost password nouveau_mot_de_passe_sql
```

You can edit the `/etc/mysql/my.cnf` file to configure the basic settings -- log file, port number, etc. Refer to `/etc/mysql/my.cnf` file for more details.

13.2. PostgreSQL

PostgreSQL is an object-relational database system that has the features of traditional commercial database systems with enhancements to be found in next-generation DBMS systems.

13.2.1. Installation

To install PostgreSQL, run the following command in the command prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install postgresql
```

Once the installation is complete, you should configure the PostgreSQL server based on your needs, although the default configuration is viable.

13.2.2. Configuration

By default, connection via TCP/IP is disabled. PostgreSQL supports multiple client authentication methods. By default, IDENT authentication method is used. Please refer *the PostgreSQL Administrator's Guide* [<http://www.postgresql.org/docs/8.1/static/admin.html>].

The following discussion assumes that you wish to enable TCP/IP connections and use the MD5 method for client authentication. PostgreSQL configuration files are stored in the `/etc/postgresql/<version>/main` directory. For example, if you install PostgreSQL 7.4, the configuration files are stored in the `/etc/postgresql/7.4/main` directory.



To configure ident authentication, add entries to the `/etc/postgresql/7.4/main/pg_ident.conf` file.

To enable TCP/IP connections, edit the file

```
/etc/postgresql/7.4/main/postgresql.conf
```

Locate the line `#tcpip_socket = false` and change it to `tcpip_socket = true`. You may also edit all other parameters, if you know what you are doing! For details, refer to the configuration file or to the PostgreSQL documentation.

By default, the user credentials are not set for MD5 client authentication. So, first it is necessary to configure the PostgreSQL server to use *trust* client authentication, connect to the database, configure the password, and revert the configuration back to use MD5 client authentication. To enable *trust* client authentication, edit the file `/etc/postgresql/7.4/main/pg_hba.conf`

Comment out all the existing lines which use *ident* and *MD5* client authentication and add the following line:

```
local all postgres trust sameuser
```

Then, run the following command to start the PostgreSQL server:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/postgresql start
```

Once the PostgreSQL server is successfully started, run the following command at a terminal prompt to connect to the default PostgreSQL template database

```
psql -U postgres -d template1
```

The above command connects to PostgreSQL database *template1* as user *postgres*. Once you connect to the PostgreSQL server, you will be at a SQL prompt. You can run the following SQL command at the psql prompt to configure the password for the user *postgres*.

```
template1=# ALTER USER postgres with encrypted password 'your_password';
```

After configuring the password, edit the file `/etc/postgresql/7.4/main/pg_hba.conf` to use *MD5* authentication:

Comment the recently added *trust* line and add the following line:

```
local all postgres md5 sameuser
```



The above configuration is not complete by any means. Please refer *the PostgreSQL Administrator's Guide* [<http://www.postgresql.org/docs/8.1/static/admin.html>] to configure more parameters.

14. Email Services

The process of getting an email from one person to another over a network or the Internet involves many systems working together. Each of these systems must be correctly configured for the process to work. The sender uses a *Mail User Agent* (MUA), or email client, to send the message through one or more *Mail Transfer Agents* (MTA), the last of which will hand it off to a *Mail Delivery Agent* (MDA) for delivery to the recipient's mailbox, from which it will be retrieved by the recipient's email client, usually via a POP3 or IMAP server.

14.1. Postfix

Postfix is the default Mail Transfer Agent (MTA) in Ubuntu. It attempts to be fast and easy to administer and secure. It is compatible with the MTA sendmail. This section explains how to install and configure postfix. It also explains how to set it up as an SMTP server using a secure connection (for sending emails securely).

14.1.1. Installation

To install postfix with SMTP-AUTH and Transport Layer Security (TLS), run the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install postfix
```

Simply press return when the installation process asks questions, the configuration will be done in greater detail in the next stage.

14.1.2. Configuration de base

To configure postfix, run the following command:

```
sudo dpkg-reconfigure postfix
```

The user interface will be displayed. On each screen, select the following values:

- OK
- Site Internet
- NONE
- mail.example.com
- mail.example.com, localhost.localdomain, localhost
- Non
- 127.0.0.0/8
- Oui
- 0
- +

- AUCUN(E)



Replace mail.example.com with your mail server hostname.

14.1.3. Authentication SMTP

The next steps are to configure postfix to use SASL for SMTP AUTH. Rather than editing the configuration file directly, you can use the **postconf** command to configure all postfix parameters. The configuration parameters will be stored in `/etc/postfix/main.cf` file. Later if you wish to re-configure a particular parameter, you can either run the command or change it manually in the file.

1. Configure Postfix to do SMTP AUTH using SASL (saslauthd):

```
postconf -e 'smtpd_sasl_local_domain ='
postconf -e 'smtpd_sasl_auth_enable = yes'
postconf -e 'smtpd_sasl_security_options = noanonymous'
postconf -e 'broken_sasl_auth_clients = yes'
postconf -e 'smtpd_recipient_restrictions = permit_sasl_authenticated,permit_mynetworks'
postconf -e 'inet_interfaces = all'
echo 'pwcheck_method: saslauthd' >> /etc/postfix/sasl/smtpd.conf
echo 'mech_list: plain login' >> /etc/postfix/sasl/smtpd.conf
```

2. Next, configure the digital certificate for TLS. When asked questions, follow the instructions and answer appropriately.

```
openssl genrsa -des3 -rand /etc/hosts -out smtpd.key 1024
chmod 600 smtpd.key
openssl req -new -key smtpd.key -out smtpd.csr
openssl x509 -req -days 3650 -in smtpd.csr -signkey smtpd.key -out smtpd.crt
openssl rsa -in smtpd.key -out smtpd.key.unencrypted
mv -f smtpd.key.unencrypted smtpd.key
openssl req -new -x509 -extensions v3_ca -keyout cakey.pem -out cacert.pem -days 3650
mv smtpd.key /etc/ssl/private/
mv smtpd.crt /etc/ssl/certs/
mv cakey.pem /etc/ssl/private/
mv cacert.pem /etc/ssl/certs/
```



You can get the digital certificate from a certificate authority. Alternatively, you can create the certificate yourself. Refer to *Section 10.3.4, « Creating a Self-Signed Certificate » [53]* for more details.

3. Configure Postfix to do TLS encryption for both incoming and outgoing mail:

```
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_auth_only = no'
postconf -e 'smtp_use_tls = yes'
postconf -e 'smtpd_use_tls = yes'
postconf -e 'smtp_tls_note_starttls_offer = yes'
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_key_file = /etc/ssl/private/smtpd.key'
```

```

postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_cert_file = /etc/ssl/certs/smtpd.crt'
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_CAfile = /etc/ssl/certs/cacert.pem'
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_loglevel = 1'
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_received_header = yes'
postconf -e 'smtpd_tls_session_cache_timeout = 3600s'
postconf -e 'tls_random_source = dev:/dev/urandom'
postconf -e 'myhostname = mail.example.com'

```

- ② After you run all the commands, the SMTP AUTH is configured with postfix.
The self-signed certificate is created for TLS and it is configured with postfix.

Now, the file `/etc/postfix/main.cf` should look like *this* [`./sample/postfix_configuration`].

The postfix initial configuration is complete. Run the following command to start postfix daemon:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/postfix start
```

Now the postfix daemon is installed, configured and run successfully. Postfix supports SMTP AUTH as defined in *RFC2554* [<ftp://ftp.isi.edu/in-notes/rfc2554.txt>]. It is based on *SASL* [<ftp://ftp.isi.edu/in-notes/rfc2222.txt>]. However it is still necessary to set up SASL authentication before you can use SMTP.

14.1.4. Configuring SASL

The `libsasl2`, `sasl2-bin` and `libsasl2-modules` are necessary to enable SMTP AUTH using SASL. You can install these applications if you have not installed them already.

```
apt-get install libsasl2 sasl2-bin
```

A few changes are necessary to make it work properly. Because Postfix runs chrooted in `/var/spool/postfix`, SASL needs to be configured to run in the false root (`/var/run/saslauthd` becomes `/var/spool/postfix/var/run/saslauthd`):

```
mkdir -p /var/spool/postfix/var/run/saslauthd
rm -rf /var/run/saslauthd
```

To activate `saslauthd`, edit the file `/etc/default/saslauthd`, and change or add the `START` variable. In order to configure `saslauthd` to run in the false root, add the `PWDIR`, `PIDFILE` and `PARAMS` variables. Finally, configure the `MECHANISMS` variable to your liking. The file should look like this:

```

# This needs to be uncommented before saslauthd will be run
# automatically
START=yes

```

```
PWDIR="/var/spool/postfix/var/run/saslauthd"
PARAMS="-m ${PWDIR}"
PIDFILE="${PWDIR}/saslauthd.pid"

# You must specify the authentication mechanisms you wish to use.
# This defaults to "pam" for PAM support, but may also include
# "shadow" or "sasldb", like this:
# MECHANISMS="pam shadow"

MECHANISMS="pam"
```

- ② If you prefer, you can use **shadow** instead of **pam**. This will use MD5 hashed password transfer and is perfectly secure. The username and password needed to authenticate will be those of the users on the system you are using on the server.

Next, update the dpkg "state" of `/var/spool/postfix/var/run/saslauthd`. The `saslauthd` init script uses this setting to create the missing directory with the appropriate permissions and ownership:

```
dpkg-statoverride --force --update --add root sasl 755 /var/spool/postfix/var/run/saslauthd
```

14.1.5. Testing

SMTP AUTH configuration is complete. Now it is time to start and test the setup. You can run the following command to start the SASL daemon:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/saslauthd start
```

To see if SMTP-AUTH and TLS work properly, run the following command:

```
telnet mail.example.com 25
```

After you have established the connection to the postfix mail server, type:

```
ehlo mail.example.com
```

If you see the following lines among others, then everything is working perfectly. Type **quit** to exit.

```
250-STARTTLS
250-AUTH LOGIN PLAIN
250-AUTH=LOGIN PLAIN
250 8BITMIME
```

14.2. Exim4

Exim4 is another Message Transfer Agent (MTA) developed at the University of Cambridge for use on Unix systems connected to the internet. Exim can be installed in place of sendmail, although the configuration of exim is quite different to that of sendmail.

14.2.1. Installation

To install exim4, run the following command:

```
sudo apt-get install exim4 exim4-base exim4-config
```

14.2.2. Configuration

To configure exim4, run the following command:

```
sudo dpkg-reconfigure exim4-config
```

The user interface will be displayed. The user interface lets you configure many parameters. For example, In exim4 the configuration files are split among multiple files. If you wish to have them in one file you can configure accordingly in this user interface.

All the parameters you configure in the user interface are stored in `/etc/exim4/update-exim4.conf.conf` file. If you wish to re-configure, either you re-run the configuration wizard or manually edit this file using your favourite editor. Once you configure, you can run the following command to generate the master configuration file:

```
sudo update-exim4.conf
```

The master configuration file, is generated and it is stored in `/var/lib/exim4/config.autogenerated`.



At any time, you should not edit the master configuration file, `/var/lib/exim4/config.autogenerated` manually. It is updated automatically every time you run **update-exim4.conf**

You can run the following command to start exim4 daemon.

```
sudo /etc/init.d/exim4 start
```

TODO: This section should cover configuring SMTP AUTH with exim4.

14.3. Serveur Dovecot

Dovecot is a Mail Delivery Agent, written with security primarily in mind. It supports the major mailbox formats: mbox or Maildir. This section explain how to set it up as an imap or pop3 server.

14.3.1. Installation

To install dovecot, run the following command in the command prompt:


```
sudo apt-get install dovecot-common dovecot-imapd dovecot-pop3d
```

14.3.2. Configuration

To configure dovecot, you can edit the file `/etc/dovecot/dovecot.conf`. You can choose the protocol you use. It could be `pop3`, `pop3s` (`pop3` secure), `imap` and `imaps` (`imap` secure). A description of these protocols is beyond the scope of this guide. For further information, refer to the wikipedia articles on *POP3* [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/POP3>] and *IMAP* [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Internet_Message_Access_Protocol].

IMAPS and POP3S are more secure than the simple IMAP and POP3 because they use SSL encryption to connect. Once you have chosen the protocol, amend the following line in the file `/etc/dovecot/dovecot.conf`:

```
protocols = pop3 pop3s imap imaps
```


It enables the protocols when dovecot is started. Next, add the following line in `pop3` section in the file `/etc/dovecot/dovecot.conf`:

```
pop3_uidl_format = %08Xu%08Xv
```

Next, choose the mailbox you use. Dovecot supports **maildir** and **mbox** formats. These are the most commonly used mailbox formats. They both have their own benefits and they are discussed on *the dovecot website* [<http://dovecot.org/doc/configuration.txt>].

Once you have chosen your mailbox type, edit the file `/etc/dovecot/dovecot.conf` and change the following line:

```
default_mail_env = maildir:~/Maildir # (pour maildir)
ou
default_mail_env = mbox:~/mail:INBOX=/var/spool/mail/%u # (pour mbox)
```

 You should configure your Mail Transport Agent (MTA) to transfer the incoming mail to this type of mailbox if it is different from the one you have configured.

Once you have configured dovecot, start the dovecot daemon in order to test your setup:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/dovecot start
```

If you have enabled `imap`, or `pop3`, you can also try to log in with the commands **telnet localhost pop3** or **telnet localhost imap2**. If you see something like the following, the installation has been successful:

```
bhuvan@rainbow:~$ telnet localhost pop3
Trying 127.0.0.1...
```

```
Connected to localhost.localdomain.  
Escape character is '^]'.  
+OK Dovecot ready.
```

14.3.3. Dovecot SSL Configuration

To configure dovecot to use SSL, you can edit the file `/etc/dovecot/dovecot.conf` and amend following lines:

```
ssl_cert_file = /etc/ssl/certs/dovecot.pem  
ssl_key_file = /etc/ssl/private/dovecot.pem  
ssl_disable = no  
disable_plaintext_auth = no
```

The **cert** and **key** files are created automatically by dovecot when you install it. Please note that these keys are not signed and will give "bad signature" errors when connecting from a client. To avoid this, you can use commercial certificates, or even better, you can use your own SSL certificates.

14.3.4. Firewall Configuration for an Email Server

To access your mail server from another computer, you must configure your firewall to allow connections to the server on the necessary ports.

- IMAP - 143
- IMAPS - 993
- POP3 - 110
- POP3S - 995

14.4. Mailman

Mailman is an open source program for managing electronic mail discussions and e-newsletter lists. Many open source mailing lists (including all the *Ubuntu mailing lists* [<http://lists.ubuntu.com>]) use Mailman as their mailing list software. It is powerful and easy to install and maintain.

14.4.1. Installation

Mailman provides a web interface for the administrators and users. So, it requires apache with mod_perl support. Mailman uses an external mail server to send and receive emails. It works perfectly with the following mail servers:

- Postfix
- Exim
- Sendmail

- Qmail

We will see how to install mailman, the apache web server and the Exim mail server. If you wish to install mailman with a different mail server, please refer to the references section.

14.4.1.1. Apache2

To install apache2 you refer to *Section 10.1, « Installation » [46]*.

14.4.1.2. Exim4

To install Exim4 you run the following commands at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install exim4
sudo apt-get install exim4-base
sudo apt-get install exim4-config
```

Once exim4 is installed, the configuration files are stored in the `/etc/exim4` directory. In ubuntu, by default, the exim4 configuration files are split across different files. You can change this behavior by changing the following variable in the `/etc/exim4/update-exim4.conf` file:

- `dc_use_split_config='true'`

14.4.1.3. Mailman

To install Mailman, run following command at a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get install mailman
```

It copies the installation files in `/var/lib/mailman` directory. It installs the CGI scripts in `/usr/lib/cgi-bin/mailman` directory. It creates `list` linux user. It creates the `list` linux group. The mailman process will be owned by this user.

14.4.2. Configuration

This section assumes you have successfully installed mailman, apache2, and exim4. Now you just need to configure them.

14.4.2.1. Apache2

Once apache2 is installed, you can add the following lines in the `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` file:

```
Alias /images/mailman/ "/usr/share/images/mailman/"
Alias /pipermail/ "/var/lib/mailman/archives/public/"
```

Mailman uses apache2 to render its CGI scripts. The mailman CGI scripts are installed in the `/usr/lib/cgi-bin/mailman` directory. So, the mailman url will be `http://hostname/cgi-bin/mailman/`. You can make changes to the `/etc/apache2/apache2.conf` file if you wish to change this behavior.

14.4.2.2. Exim4

Once Exim4 is installed, you can start the Exim server using the following command from a terminal prompt:

```
sudo apt-get /etc/init.d/exim4 start
```

In order to make mailman work with exim4, you need to configure exim4. As mentioned earlier, by default, exim4 uses multiple configuration files of different types. For details, please refer to the *Exim* [<http://www.exim.org>] website. To run mailman, we should add new a configuration file to the following configuration types:

- Main
- Transport
- Router

Exim creates a master configuration file by sorting all these mini configuration files. So, the order of these configuration files is very important.

14.4.2.3. Main

All the configuration files belonging to the main type are stored in the `/etc/exim4/conf.d/main/` directory. You can add the following content to a new file, named `04_exim4-config_mailman`:

```
# start
# Home dir for your Mailman installation -- aka Mailman's prefix
# directory.
# On Ubuntu this should be "/var/lib/mailman"
# This is normally the same as ~mailman
MM_HOME=/var/lib/mailman
#
# User and group for Mailman, should match your --with-mail-gid
# switch to Mailman's configure script. Value is normally "mailman"
MM_UID=list
MM_GID=list
#
# Domains that your lists are in - colon separated list
# you may wish to add these into local_domains as well
domainlist mm_domains=hostname.com
#
# -----
#
```

```

# These values are derived from the ones above and should not need
# editing unless you have munged your mailman installation
#
# The path of the Mailman mail wrapper script
MM_WRAP=MM_HOME/mail/mailman
#
# The path of the list config file (used as a required file when
# verifying list addresses)
MM_LISTCHK=MM_HOME/lists/${lc::$local_part}/config.pck
# end

```

14.4.2.4. Transport

All the configuration files belonging to transport type are stored in the `/etc/exim4/conf.d/transport/` directory. You can add the following content to a new file named `40_exim4-config_mailman`:

```

mailman_transport:
  driver = pipe
  command = MM_WRAP \
    '${if def:local_part_suffix \
      ${sg{$local_part_suffix}{-(\\w+)(\\+.*?)?}{\\$1}} \
      {post}}' \
    $local_part
  current_directory = MM_HOME
  home_directory = MM_HOME
  user = MM_UID
  group = MM_GID

```

14.4.2.5. Router

All the configuration files belonging to router type are stored in the `/etc/exim4/conf.d/router/` directory. You can add the following content in to a new file named `101_exim4-config_mailman`:

```

mailman_router:
  driver = accept
  require_files = MM_HOME/lists/$local_part/config.pck
  local_part_suffix_optional
  local_part_suffix = -bounces : -bounces+* : \
    -confirm+* : -join : -leave : \
    -owner : -request : -admin
  transport = mailman_transport

```



The order of main and transport configuration files can be in any order. But, the order of router configuration files must be the same. This particular file must appear before the `200_exim4-config_primary` file. These two configuration files contain same type of information. The first file takes the precedence. For more details, please refer to the references section.

14.4.2.6. Mailman

Once mailman is installed, you can run it using the following command:

```
sudo /etc/init.d/mailman start
```

Once mailman is installed, you should create the default mailing list. Run the following command to create the mailing list:

```
sudo /usr/sbin/newlist mailman
```

```
Enter the email address of the person running the list: bhuvan at ubuntu.com
Initial mailman password:
To finish creating your mailing list, you must edit your /etc/aliases (or
equivalent) file by adding the following lines, and possibly running the
`newaliases' program:
```

```
## mailman mailing list
mailman: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman post mailman"
mailman-admin: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman admin mailman"
mailman-bounces: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman bounces mailman"
mailman-confirm: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman confirm mailman"
mailman-join: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman join mailman"
mailman-leave: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman leave mailman"
mailman-owner: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman owner mailman"
mailman-request: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman request mailman"
mailman-subscribe: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman subscribe mailman"
mailman-unsubscribe: "|/var/lib/mailman/mail/mailman unsubscribe mailman"
```

```
Hit enter to notify mailman owner...
```

```
#
```

We have configured exim to recognize all emails from mailman. So, it is not mandatory to make any new entries in `/etc/aliases`. If you have made any changes to the configuration files, please ensure that you restart those services before continuing to next section.

14.4.3. Administration

We assume you have a default installation. The mailman cgi scripts are still in `/usr/lib/cgi-bin/mailman/` directory. Mailman provides a web based administration facility. To access this page, point your browser to the following url:

```
http://hostname/cgi-bin/mailman/admin
```

The default mailing list, *mailman*, will appear in this screen. If you click the mailing list name, it will ask for your authentication password. If you enter the correct password, you will be able to change administrative settings of this mailing list. You can create a new

mailing list using command line utility (**/usr/sbin/newlist**). Alternatively, you can create a new mailing list using web interface.

14.4.4. Utilisateurs

Mailman provides a web based interface for users. To access this page, point your browser to the following url:

`http://hostname/cgi-bin/mailman/listinfo`

The default mailing list, *mailman*, will appear in this screen. If you click the mailing list name, it will display the subscription form. You can enter your email address, name (optional), and password to subscribe. An email invitation will be sent to you. You can follow the instructions in the email to subscribe.

14.4.5. Références

GNU Mailman - Manuel d'installation [<http://www.list.org/mailman-install/index.html>]

Guide pratique - Utiliser Exim4 avec Mailman 2.1
[<http://www.exim.org/howto/mailman21.html>]

Chapitre 5. Réseaux Windows

Les réseaux d'ordinateurs sont souvent composés de systèmes divers et, même si opérer un réseau constitué entièrement de serveurs et de postes d'utilisateur Ubuntu serait plaisant, certains environnements réseau doivent comprendre à la fois des systèmes Ubuntu et Microsoft®Windows® travaillant ensemble en harmonie. Cette section du Guide du Serveur Ubuntu présente les principes et les outils utilisés afin de configurer votre serveur Ubuntu pour le partage des ressources réseau avec des ordinateurs Windows.

1. Introduction

Pour établir avec succès un réseau entre votre système Ubuntu et des clients Windows, il faut fournir et intégrer les services utilisés couramment dans les environnements Windows. Ces services assistent aux transferts de données et d'information sur les ordinateurs et utilisateurs existant dans le réseau. Ils peuvent être classifiés en trois catégories principales selon leur fonctionnalité.

- **Services de partage de fichiers et d'imprimantes.** Utiliser le protocole Server Message Block (SMB) pour faciliter le partage de fichiers, de dossiers, de volumes et d'imprimantes à travers le réseau.
- **Services d'annuaire.** Partager l'information vitale sur les ordinateurs et utilisateurs du réseau avec des technologies telles que le Lightweight Directory Access Protocol (LDAP) et le Microsoft Active Directory®.
- **Authentification et accès.** Établir l'identité d'un ordinateur ou d'un utilisateur et déterminer l'information à laquelle l'ordinateur ou l'utilisateur a l'autorisation d'accéder en utilisant des principes et technologies telles que les permissions sur les fichiers, les politiques de groupes, et le service d'authentification Kerberos.

Heureusement, votre système Ubuntu peut fournir tous ces services aux clients Windows et partager les ressources réseau avec eux. Un des principaux composants de votre système Ubuntu pour la réseautique Windows est la suite SAMBA d'outils et d'applications pour serveur SMB. Cette section du Guide serveur d'Ubuntu présentera brièvement l'installation et la configuration de base de la suite SAMBA. La documentation et l'information additionnelle et détaillée sur SAMBA dépassent le but du présent document mais peuvent être trouvées sur le *site web SAMBA* [<http://www.samba.org>].

2. Installer SAMBA

A l'invite système, entrez la commande suivante pour installer les applications serveur SAMBA :

```
sudo apt-get install samba
```

3. Configurer SAMBA

Vous pouvez configurer le serveur SAMBA en éditant le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` pour modifier les paramètres par défaut ou en ajouter des nouveaux. De l'information supplémentaire sur chaque paramètre est disponible dans les commentaires du fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` ou en regardant la page manuel du fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` en entrant la commande suivante dans un terminal :

```
man smb.conf
```



Avant de modifier le fichier de configuration, vous devriez faire une copie du fichier original et le protéger contre l'écriture pour avoir les paramètres originaux comme référence et ainsi le réutiliser si nécessaire.

Sauvegardez le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` :

```
sudo cp /etc/samba/smb.conf /etc/samba/smb.conf.original
```

Maintenant, éditez le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` et faites vos modifications.

3.1. Serveur

En supplément de la suite d'applications serveur SAMBA de partage de fichiers et d'imprimantes, Ubuntu inclus aussi d'autres applications serveur puissantes destinées à fournir des fonctionnalités réseau supplémentaires et similaires à celles fournies par les serveurs Windows aux clients Windows. Par exemple, Ubuntu offre une gestion centralisée des ressources réseau telles que les ordinateurs ou les utilisateurs grâce à Directory Services, et facilite l'identification et la gestion des permissions des ordinateurs et des utilisateurs grâce à Authentication Services.

Les sections suivantes évoqueront plus en détails SAMBA et les technologies associées, telles que le serveur Lightweight Directory Access Protocol (LDAP) ou le serveur d'authentification Kerberos. Vous apprendrez aussi quelques directives de configuration disponibles pour SAMBA qui facilitent l'intégration dans un réseau comportant des clients et des serveurs Windows.

3.1.1. Active Directory

Active Directory est une implémentation propriétaire de Microsoft des services d'annuaire et est utilisé pour partager l'information sur les ressources réseau et utilisateurs. En plus de fournir une source centralisée de cette information, Active Directory agit aussi comme autorité centralisée de l'authentification sécuritaire pour le réseau. Active Directory, qui combine des capacités traditionnellement trouvées dans des systèmes d'annuaire distincts et spécialisés, simplifie l'intégration, la gestion et la sécurité des ressources réseau. Le paquet

SAMBA peut être configuré pour utiliser les services Active Directory d'un contrôleur de domaine Windows.

3.1.1.1. LDAP

L'application serveur LDAP fournit les fonctionnalités Directory Services aux ordinateurs Windows d'une manière très similaire aux services Microsoft Active Directory. Ces services comprennent la gestion des identités et des relations entre ordinateurs, utilisateurs ainsi que des groupes d'ordinateurs et d'utilisateurs qui font partie du réseau et fournissent une manière cohérente de décrire, localiser et gérer ces ressources. L'implémentation de LDAP librement disponible pour votre système Ubuntu se nomme *OpenLDAP*. Le processus serveur responsable de traiter les requêtes OpenLDAP et de propager les données d'un serveur LDAP à l'autre sur Ubuntu sont `slapd` et `slurpd`. OpenLDAP peut être utilisé conjointement avec SAMBA pour fournir les services de partage des fichiers, d'imprimerie et de répertoire tout comme le ferait un Windows Domain Controller pour autant que SAMBA soit compilé avec le support LDAP.

3.1.1.2. Kerberos

Le système de sécurisation des authentifications Kerberos est un service standardisé qui fournit une authentification aux ordinateurs et aux utilisateurs grâce à un serveur centralisé qui accorde des tickets d'autorisation cryptés acceptés comme authentification par tout autre ordinateur utilisant Kerberos. Parmi les avantages de l'authentification avec Kerberos, on peut citer l'authentification réciproque, l'authentification par procuration, l'interopérabilité et une gestion simplifiée de la confiance. Les démons serveurs principaux qui gèrent l'authentification Kerberos et l'administration de la base de données Kerberos sous Ubuntu sont `krb5kdc` et `kadmin`. Il se peut que SAMBA utilise Kerberos comme mécanisme pour authentifier des ordinateurs et des utilisateurs au moyen d'un contrôleur de domaine Windows. À cette fin, il faut que Kerberos soit installé sur le système Ubuntu, et le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` doit être modifié pour choisir le mode convenable de *realm* et *security*. Par exemple, modifiez le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` et ajoutez les valeurs:

realm = NOM_DOMAINE

security = ADS

dans le fichier, et enregistrez-le.



Assurez-vous de remplacer l'expression `NOM_DOMAINE` de l'exemple ci-dessus par le nom réel de votre propre domaine Windows.

Vous devrez redémarrer les démons SAMBA pour appliquer ces changements. Redémarrez les démons SAMBA en entrant la commande suivante lors de l'invite du terminal :

```
sudo /etc/init.d/samba restart
```

3.1.2. Comptes d'ordinateurs

Les comptes d'ordinateur sont utilisés dans Directory Services pour identifier de manière unique les ordinateurs d'un réseau, et sont traités de la même manière que les utilisateurs en terme de sécurité. Les comptes d'ordinateurs peuvent avoir des mots de passe comme les comptes utilisateurs, et font l'objet d'autorisation pour accéder aux ressources du réseau. Par exemple, si un utilisateur du réseau avec un compte valide pour un réseau en particulier essaye de s'authentifier à partir d'un ordinateur qui n'a pas de compte d'ordinateur valide, par rapport à la politique mise en oeuvre sur le réseau, il peut lui être refusé l'accès si cet ordinateur ne fait pas partie des ordinateurs autorisés.

Un compte d'ordinateur peut être ajouté au fichier de mots de passe SAMBA, pourvu que le nom de l'ordinateur à ajouter existe déjà comme un nom de compte d'utilisateur valide dans la base de données locale. Pour ajouter un compte d'ordinateur ou de machine au fichier de mots de passe SAMBA, il faut utiliser la commande `smbpasswd` dans une console comme ceci :

```
sudo smbpasswd -a -m NOM_ORDINATEUR
```



Assurez-vous de remplacer la chaîne `COMPUTER_NAME` dans l'exemple ci-dessus avec le nom de l'ordinateur pour lequel vous voulez ajouter un compte de machine.

3.1.3. Permissions de fichier

Les Permissions de fichiers définissent les droits explicites qu'un ordinateur ou un utilisateur a sur un dossier, fichier ou groupe de fichiers particulier. De telles permissions peuvent être définies en éditant le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` et en définissant explicitement les permissions d'un partage de fichiers défini. Par exemple, si vous avez défini un partage SAMBA intitulé *sourcedocs* et souhaitez donner les droits de *lecture seule* au groupe d'utilisateurs appelé *planning*, mais souhaitez autoriser l'accès au partage en écriture par le groupe appelé *authors* et à l'utilisateur nommé *richard*, alors vous pouvez éditer le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf`, et ajouter les lignes suivantes sous l'entrée *[sourcedocs]* :

```
read list = @planning
```

```
write list = @authors, richard
```

Sauvegardez `/etc/samba/smb.conf` pour que les changements prennent effet.

Une autre possibilité de permission est de déclarer des permissions *administratives* pour une ressource partagée particulière. Les utilisateurs ayant des permissions administratives peuvent lire, écrire, ou modifier toutes information contenue dans la ressource dont l'utilisateur a explicitement donné des permissions administratives. Par exemple, si

vous voulez donner à l'utilisateur *melissa* des permissions administratives sur le partage *sourcedocs* de l'exemple, vous devez éditer le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` et ajouter la ligne suivante sous l'entrée `[sourcedocs]` :

admin users = melissa

Sauvegardez `/etc/samba/smb.conf` pour que les changements prennent effet.

3.2. Clients

Ubuntu fournit des applications clientes et des capacités pour accéder aux ressources partagées grâce au protocole SMB. Par exemple, l'utilitaire nommé `smbclient` permet d'accéder à des documents, par exemple `bill`, en utilisant `smbclient`, on entrera la commande suivante :

```
smbclient //bill/documents -U <nomutilisateur>
```

Il vous sera alors demandé le mot de passe de l'utilisateur spécifié après le paramètre `-U`, et après la réussite de l'authentification, vous obtiendrez une invite vous permettant de manipuler ou transférer des fichiers avec une syntaxe semblable au client FTP en mode texte. Pour plus d'informations sur l'utilitaire `smbclient`, consultez la page du manuel avec la commande :

```
man smbclient
```

Le montage d'une ressource réseau fournie par le protocole SMB est aussi possible grâce à la commande `mount`. Par exemple, pour monter un répertoire nommé *code-projet* disponible sur un serveur Windows *developpement* pour l'utilisateur *toto* sur votre système Ubuntu dans le répertoire `/mnt/pcode`, vous devrez entrer la commande suivante à l'invite :

```
mount -t smbfs -o username=toto //developpement/code-projet- /mnt/pcode
```

Il vous sera alors demandé d'entrer le mot de passe utilisateur, et après vous être authentifié, le contenu de la ressource partagée sera accessible localement via le point de montage spécifié par le dernier argument de la commande `mount`. Pour déconnecter la ressource partagée, utilisez simplement la commande `umount` comme vous le feriez avec n'importe quel autre système de fichiers monté. Par exemple :

```
umount /mnt/pcode
```

3.2.1. Comptes d'utilisateurs

Les comptes d'utilisateurs définissent des personnes avec un certain niveau d'autorisation pour utiliser un certain ordinateur et des ressources réseau. Typiquement, dans un

environnement réseau, un compte d'utilisateur est fourni à chaque personne autorisée à accéder à un ordinateur ou à un réseau, où des politiques de sécurité et des permissions définissent alors de quels droits explicites ce compte d'utilisateur dispose. Pour définir des utilisateurs réseau SAMBA sur votre système Ubuntu, vous pouvez utiliser la commande `smbpasswd`. Par exemple, pour ajouter un utilisateur SAMBA à votre système Ubuntu avec le nom d'utilisateur *toto*, vous pourriez entrer ceci à l'invite de commande :

```
smbpasswd -a toto
```

L'application `smbpasswd` vous demandera alors d'entrer un mot de passe pour l'utilisateur :

Nouveau mot de passe SMB :

Entrez le mot de passe que vous désirez fixer pour l'utilisateur, et l'application `smbpasswd` vous demandera de confirmer le mot de passe:

Retapez le nouveau mot de passe SMB :

Confirmez le mot de passe et `smbpasswd` ajoutera une entrée pour l'utilisateur au fichier de mots de passe SAMBA.

3.2.2. Groupes

Les Groupes définissent un ensemble d'ordinateurs ou d'utilisateurs qui ont un niveau d'accès commun à des ressources réseau particulières, et offrent une certaine granularité dans le contrôle d'accès à de telles ressources. Par exemple, si un groupe *qa* est défini et contient les utilisateurs *freda*, *danika*, et *rob*, et un second groupe *support* est défini et contient les utilisateurs *danika*, *jeremy* et *vincent*, alors certaines ressources réseau configurées pour autoriser l'accès au groupe *qa* autoriseraient par conséquent l'accès à *freda*, *danika* et *rob*, mais pas à *jeremy* ou à *vincent*. Comme l'utilisateur *danika* appartient aux deux groupes *qa* et *support*, elle sera capable d'accéder aux ressources configurées comme accessibles par les deux groupes, tandis que tous les autres utilisateurs n'auront accès qu'aux ressources autorisant explicitement le groupe dont ils font partie.

Lors de la définition de groupes dans le fichier de configuration de SAMBA, `/etc/samba/smb.conf`, la syntaxe reconnue est le préfixage du nom de groupe par le symbole "@". Par exemple, si vous souhaitez définir un groupe nommé *sysadmin* dans une certaine section du fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf`, vous devez entrer le nom de groupe `@sysadmin`.

3.2.3. Stratégie de groupe

Les stratégies de groupes définissent certains réglages de configuration SAMBA en rapport avec le domaine ou le groupe de travail auquel appartient le compte d'ordinateur, ainsi que d'autres réglages globaux du serveur SAMBA. Par exemple, si le serveur

SAMBA appartient au groupe de travail Windows appelé *NIVEAU1*, le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` pourrait alors être modifié de la manière suivante :

workgroup = NIVEAU1

Enregistrez le fichier et redémarrez les démons SAMBA pour appliquer le changement.

D'autres réglages de stratégie globaux importants comprennent la *chaîne server* qui définit le nom serveur NETBIOS qui sera annoncé aux autres machines du réseau Windows par votre système Ubuntu. C'est le nom par lequel votre système Ubuntu sera reconnu par les clients Windows et d'autres ordinateurs capables de parcourir le réseau avec le protocole SMB. De plus, vous pouvez indiquer le nom et l'emplacement du fichier journal du serveur SAMBA en utilisant la directive *log file* dans le fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf`.

Quelques directives supplémentaires influençant la stratégie de groupe globale concernent la spécification de la nature globale des ressources partagées. Par exemple, l'emplacement de certaines directives sous la section *[global]* du fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf` concernera toutes les ressources partagées, sauf si une directive identique remplace celle-ci sous la section d'une ressource partagée précise. Vous indiquez que tous les partages peuvent être parcourus par tous les clients du réseau en plaçant la directive *browseable*, qui prend une valeur booléenne, sous la section *[global]* du fichier `/etc/samba/smb.conf`. C'est-à-dire que si vous modifiez le fichier en ajoutant la ligne :

browseable = true

sous la section *[global]* de `/etc/samba/smb.conf`, tous les partages offerts par votre système Ubuntu par SAMBA pourront être parcourus par tous les clients autorisés, sauf si un partage précis contient une directive *browseable = false* qui remplacera la directive globale.

Les directives *public* et *writable* sont d'autres exemples qui fonctionnent de la même manière. La directive *public* prend une valeur booléenne et détermine si une ressource partagée particulière est visible par tous les clients, autorisés ou non. La directive *writable* prend également une valeur booléenne et détermine si une ressource partagée particulière est accessible en écriture par n'importe quel client du réseau.

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