

LINUX SYSTEM HARDENING

A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO SECURING
LINUX FROM KERNEL TO CLOUD



KERNEL
SECURITY



NETWORK
DEFENSE



ACCESS
CONTROLS



CONTAINERS
& ISOLATION



CLOUD
SECURITY



- Understand the **mechanisms**.
- Mitigate real **threats**.
- Implement with **confidence**.
- Make informed **trade-offs**.

Secure Linux systems
that run in the
real world.

DANIEL R. TURNER

Linux System Hardening

A Practical Guide to Securing Linux from Kernel to Cloud

Steve Publications

This book is available at <https://leanpub.com/linuxsystemhardening>

This version was published on 2026-09-04



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A Practical Guide to Securing Linux from Kernel to Cloud

This book provides a comprehensive, risk-based guide to hardening Linux systems for production environments. It covers the Linux security model from kernel internals through network services, mandatory access controls, containers, and enterprise-scale operations. Every recommendation explains the underlying mechanism, the threat it mitigates, implementation details, and the operational trade-offs involved. The intended audience is Linux administrators, security engineers, DevSecOps professionals, and infrastructure architects who need both a deep understanding of Linux security and practical, production-ready configurations.

Introduction: Why Linux Security Is Not a Given

The idea that Linux is inherently secure is one of the most dangerous myths in modern IT. It is also one of the most persistent.

Linux is indeed more security-conscious by default than many alternatives. Its modular design, open source code base, and strong community have produced a system where security features are built in rather than bolted on. But none of these strengths guarantee safety. They simply give you better tools to achieve it.

The data does not support complacency. A 2023–2024 Trend Micro analysis of their Smart Protection Network found that ransomware attack attempts against Linux systems increased by 62% in a single year, while brute-force attacks account for 89% of all endpoint behaviors on Linux according to Elastic’s 2024 Global Threat Report [1, 2]. The CrowdStrike 2025 Global Threat Report noted that 79% of attacks against Linux are malware-free: attackers use stolen credentials and live off the land, operating entirely with built-in system tools [3]. Meanwhile, the Linux kernel alone saw 3,529 new CVEs in 2024, a tenfold increase from prior years [4].

These numbers tell a simple story: Linux systems are under constant attack, and default configurations are rarely sufficient.

This book is not a checklist. Anyone can paste together a hundred CIS benchmark controls and call it security. The result is usually a system that fails audits in production, breaks applications, and creates a false sense of safety. Effective hardening requires understanding how each control works, what it protects, and what it costs in operational terms. It requires threat modeling, risk assessment, and continuous adaptation.

The chapters that follow build progressively from fundamentals to advanced topics:

- We begin with the Linux security model itself: how the kernel manages processes, users, file permissions, capabilities, namespaces, and the system call interface. You cannot harden what you do not understand.

- We then cover the boot process, initialization, and runtime environment: firmware through systemd, how each stage can be secured, and where common failures occur.
- Identity, authentication, and access control receive detailed treatment: PAM configuration, SSH hardening, sudo policy, multi-factor authentication, and service account management.
- Filesystem security and data protection cover mount options, encryption, ACLs, secrets management, and backup strategies.
- Network hardening spans TCP/IP stack tuning, firewall configuration with nftables and firewalld, TLS, and host-based network controls.
- Kernel-level security mechanisms get a full chapter: ASLR, NX, stack canaries, seccomp, kernel lockdown, module signing, and the work of the Kernel Self-Protection Project.
- Mandatory access control is covered in depth for both SELinux and AppArmor, including policy writing and production troubleshooting.
- Auditing, logging, and security monitoring cover auditd, journald, file integrity monitoring, and integration with SIEM systems.
- Secure configuration of common services and workloads follows: SSH, web servers, databases, DNS, mail, cloud instances, CI/CD systems, and more.
- Container and virtualization security builds on the namespace and cgroup foundation to cover Docker, containerd, Kubernetes, and hypervisors.
- We then examine common Linux attack paths and privilege escalation techniques from a defensive perspective, showing how to detect and prevent them.
- Enterprise hardening at scale covers configuration management with Ansible, immutable infrastructure, patch management, and fleet-wide security operations.
- Compliance frameworks including CIS Benchmarks, DISA STIGs, NIST guidance, and ISO 27001 are discussed in the context of practical implementation.
- We close with incident response, troubleshooting broken security controls, and continuous improvement practices.

Every hardening recommendation in this book follows a consistent pattern: what threat it mitigates, how the underlying mechanism works, how to implement it, how to verify it works, what the operational consequences are, and when you should consider not applying it. Security without context is useless.

The guidance is based on modern Linux distributions and kernels. Where behavior differs between major families (Debian/Ubuntu, RHEL/Rocky/AlmaLinux, Fedora, SUSE), the differences are called out explicitly. Configuration examples use current tooling: nftables rather than legacy iptables where practical, LUKS2 rather than LUKS1, systemd sandboxing directives, and Pod Security Standards rather than deprecated PodSecurityPolicy in Kubernetes.

This is not a theoretical exercise. The configurations and strategies presented are designed for real systems under real constraints. Some of them will not apply to your environment. That is intentional. The goal is not maximalism but sustainable, defensible, and auditable security.

By the end of this book, you should be able to:

- Explain how Linux security works at the kernel and userspace level.
- Assess the attack surface of any Linux system you encounter.
- Design and implement a risk-based hardening strategy tailored to specific environments.
- Configure, verify, and maintain key security controls including firewalls, MAC, auditing, and encryption.
- Secure containers, Kubernetes nodes, and cloud workloads using Linux-native mechanisms.
- Detect and investigate common Linux attack techniques and privilege escalation paths.
- Automate and scale hardening across large Linux fleets.
- Navigate security standards and benchmarks without being captured by them.

Let us begin.

Chapter 1: The State of Linux Security

Why Linux Security Matters

Linux is the dominant operating system in the places where security matters most: public cloud infrastructure, container platforms, Kubernetes clusters, high-performance web servers, and enterprise data centers. It powers over 81% of the internet's top websites and approximately 90% of public cloud workloads [1]. This dominance makes it a primary target.

When a Linux system is compromised, the consequences cascade. A single breached web server can serve as a pivot point into internal networks. A compromised container host can expose every workload running on it. A hijacked Kubernetes node can steal cluster credentials and move laterally across namespaces. A captured build server can poison software supply chains.

Yet many Linux deployments operate with default configurations designed for convenience rather than security. Password authentication remains enabled on SSH. Unnecessary services run with full privileges. File systems are mounted without restrictive options. Kernel parameters retain their interoperability-first defaults. No one is monitoring system calls, file integrity, or privilege escalation events.

This gap between default configuration and security requirement is the fundamental problem that hardening addresses.

The Linux Threat Landscape in Modern Environments

The Linux threat landscape is characterized by several persistent patterns.

Brute-force attacks remain the most common technique. Elastic's 2024 Global Threat Report found that 89% of all endpoint behaviors on Linux involve brute-force activity, primarily targeting SSH endpoints [2]. These are rarely targeted attacks against specific organizations. They are automated campaigns scanning the entire internet for systems with weak credentials, known vulnerabilities, or misconfigured services. The systems that fall are almost always the ones running default configurations with password authentication enabled.

Credential-based attacks are growing. The CrowdStrike 2025 Global Threat Report noted that 79% of Linux attacks use no malware at all [3]. Attackers log in using stolen credentials obtained elsewhere, then operate entirely with built-in system tools. They use `curl` for data exfiltration, `nc` for reverse shells, `ssh` for lateral movement. No custom binaries, no signatures to detect, no EDR alerts triggered. This pattern is often called “living off the land” and it is particularly effective on Linux where powerful tools are ubiquitous and their use is not inherently suspicious.

Ransomware targeting Linux has become significant. Trend Micro’s Linux Threat Landscape Report documented a 62% increase in Linux ransomware attacks between early 2022 and early 2023 [1]. These attacks are not aimed at home desktops. They target financial institutions, cloud infrastructure, backup servers, and virtualization platforms. The economic impact of encrypting a Kubernetes cluster’s storage or a company’s backup infrastructure is enormous.

Web application and service vulnerabilities continue to be exploited. The 2021 Log4Shell vulnerability (CVE-2021-44228), the Apache Struts vulnerabilities, Atlassian Confluence issues (CVE-2022-26134), and OpenSSH vulnerabilities (CVE-2018-15473) are examples of remote code execution flaws in widely deployed services that attackers actively seek out [1]. These exploits do not care whether your system is otherwise well hardened. If a vulnerable service is exposed to the internet and running with sufficient privileges, attackers can reach your system regardless of SSH configuration or firewall rules on port 22.

Kernel-level vulnerabilities are increasing. The Linux kernel saw 3,529 CVEs in 2024, approximately ten times the rate of prior years [4]. While not all of these are exploitable in practice, the sheer volume creates an impossible triage problem for security teams. Kernel vulnerabilities are particularly dangerous because they can grant attackers root-level access with a single exploit, bypassing most userspace security controls.

Container escapes and supply chain attacks add new vectors. Containerized workloads share the host kernel, so a vulnerability in the container runtime, the kernel namespace implementation, or a privilege-escalation flaw in a misconfigured container can give an attacker access to the underlying host. Official images from Docker Hub frequently contain critical vulnerabilities because base images like Python, Node.js, and Golang are not updated frequently enough [1]. Build pipeline compromise allows attackers to insert malicious code or credentials into legitimate software distributed to thousands of users.

The Linux kernel self-protection documentation captures the core problem well: “Kernel bugs have a very long lifetime.” The kernel is enormous, complex, and used in countless ways. It is impossible to find and fix every vulnerability before exploitation. Defense must therefore assume that vulnerabilities will exist and focus on making exploitation difficult, containing the damage when it occurs, and detecting intrusions quickly [5].

Principles of Risk-Based Hardening

Effective hardening is not about applying every possible security control. That approach is unworkable in practice and produces worse security outcomes than a measured, risk-based approach.

The principle of risk-based hardening states that security controls should be proportional to risk. A public-facing web server requires more hardening than an internal bastion host. A database server holding sensitive data requires more hardening than a logging aggregator. A container host in a multi-tenant environment requires more hardening than a single-purpose build agent behind a firewall.

Risk assessment starts with three questions:

1. What is the value of the system or data? A server holding customer payment data is higher value than a test environment.
2. What is the exposure? A system directly connected to the internet faces more threats than one behind multiple network layers.
3. What is the impact of compromise? If this system is breached, what can the attacker do next? Can they reach other systems, exfiltrate data, modify critical code, or destroy infrastructure?

These questions are not purely technical. They require input from business stakeholders, compliance requirements, and threat intelligence. A PCI DSS requirement might mandate hardening controls for a payment processing server that would be excessive for an internal development machine.

Risk-based hardening accepts trade-offs. Every security control imposes some cost: performance overhead, operational complexity, developer friction, or reduced functionality. The question is whether the security benefit exceeds the cost in the specific context.

For example, running SELinux in enforcing mode provides strong mandatory access control that can contain a compromised process. But it also requires policy tuning, can break applications that interact with the filesystem in unexpected ways, and increases the time needed for system administration. For a high-security server or a multi-tenant platform, these costs are worth paying. For a small, well-isolated internal server with minimal exposure, the security benefit may not justify the operational overhead. Both decisions can be defensible within a risk-based framework.

Another example: disabling all IPv6 connectivity eliminates an entire attack surface on the IPv6 stack. But it may break connectivity to IPv6-only services, complicate network management, or interfere with container networking. If the system has no legitimate need for IPv6 and no IPv6 traffic is expected, disabling it is reasonable. If the environment uses IPv6 extensively, hardening IPv6 stack parameters is better than disabling the protocol entirely.

Risk-based hardening also recognizes that some controls are always appropriate. These are controls with high security benefit and minimal operational cost. Examples include:

- Disabling password authentication on SSH in favor of key-based authentication
- Keeping systems patched with current security updates
- Enabling logging and ensuring logs are protected and monitored
- Using firewalls with a default-deny posture
- Running services with minimal required privileges

These controls should be applied universally. Risk assessment then determines what additional controls are needed for each system.

Defense in Depth and Zero Trust for Linux

Defense in depth is the principle that security should be layered so that the failure of any single control does not lead to complete compromise. On Linux, defense in depth means using multiple, overlapping security mechanisms that protect against different attack vectors.

A properly layered Linux system includes:

- **Physical and hypervisor security:** Protecting the underlying hardware and virtualization layer.
- **Boot integrity:** Secure Boot and signed kernels to prevent firmware and boot-level attacks.
- **Kernel hardening:** ASLR, NX, seccomp, stack canaries, and lockdown mode to complicate exploitation.
- **Mandatory access control:** SELinux or AppArmor to confine processes and limit damage from compromise.
- **Privilege separation:** Running services with minimal capabilities, avoiding root where possible.
- **Firewall rules:** Restricting network access to required ports and sources only.
- **Encryption:** Disk encryption for data at rest, TLS for data in transit.
- **Audit logging:** Recording security-relevant events for detection and forensics.
- **File integrity monitoring:** Detecting unauthorized changes to critical files.
- **Network segmentation:** Isolating different workloads and preventing lateral movement.

If an attacker exploits a web server vulnerability, defense in depth ensures they still face obstacles: the process is confined by SELinux, it cannot escalate privileges due to capability restrictions, the firewall limits what they can reach on the network, audit logs record their activity, and file integrity monitoring alerts on changes. No single control stops them, but collectively they slow the attacker down, contain the damage, and make detection possible.

Zero trust is a complementary concept applied to access control and network architecture. It assumes that no user, process, or network segment should be trusted by default, even if they are inside the perimeter. On Linux, zero trust principles translate into:

- Verifying authentication for all access, including internal communications.
- Granting minimal required privileges to each user and service.
- Restricting network connectivity between components to what is strictly necessary.
- Treating every system call, file access, and privilege escalation as something that could be abused and should be monitored.

Zero trust and defense in depth work together. Defense in depth provides multiple layers of protection. Zero trust ensures that trust is not granted implicitly within those layers.

The Hardening Lifecycle: Assess, Implement, Verify, Maintain

Hardening is not a one-time event. A system hardened today will drift from its secure configuration over time. New services will be added, configurations will be modified, patches will be applied, and vulnerabilities will be discovered. Effective security requires a continuous lifecycle.

The hardening lifecycle has four phases:

Assess: Understand the current state. What system is this? What does it do? What is its exposure? What security controls are already in place? What vulnerabilities exist? Assessment starts with reconnaissance of the system itself: running services, listening ports, user accounts, installed packages, configuration files, active security controls. It continues with vulnerability scanning using tools like Lynis, OpenSCAP, or commercial scanners, and review against applicable security benchmarks. Assessment also includes understanding business context and compliance requirements.

Assessment produces a gap analysis: a prioritized list of weaknesses that need to be addressed. Prioritization considers exploitability (is this weakness easily exploitable?), impact (what can an attacker do if they exploit this?), and remediation cost (how difficult is it to fix?).

Implement: Apply the hardening controls identified in the gap analysis. This phase involves actual configuration changes: modifying SSH settings, configuring firewalls, adjusting kernel parameters, deploying SELinux policies, enabling audit rules, encrypting disks, and so on. Implementation should follow several principles:

- Test in a non-production environment first.
- Document every change and the reason for it.
- Apply changes incrementally and verify that systems continue to work after each step.
- Have a rollback plan for every change.

- Communicate changes to stakeholders and ensure they understand potential impacts.

In large environments, implementation is driven by configuration management tools like Ansible, ensuring that the same hardening controls are applied consistently across all systems of a given type.

Verify: Confirm that the hardening controls are in place and working correctly. Verification is not optional. A configuration that appears correct in a text file may have failed to apply due to syntax errors, service restart failures, or conflicts with other settings. Verification includes:

- Checking that configurations match the intended state.
- Testing that security controls actually block unauthorized access or activity.
- Running vulnerability and compliance scanners to confirm remediation.
- Reviewing logs to ensure monitoring is working and generating expected events.
- Performing controlled penetration tests or attack simulations.

Verification should be automated wherever possible. Continuous compliance tools can monitor systems for configuration drift and alert when controls are weakened or removed.

Maintain: Keep hardened systems secure over time. Maintenance involves:

- Applying security patches promptly.
- Reviewing and updating hardening configurations as systems change.
- Monitoring logs and security events continuously.
- Detecting and responding to incidents.
- Periodically re-assessing systems against current threats and benchmarks.
- Training personnel on security procedures.

Maintenance is where many hardening efforts fail. A system that was properly assessed, implemented, and verified can become vulnerable again if patches are delayed, configurations are modified without review, monitoring is not attended, or security controls are disabled to fix operational issues and never re-enabled.

The lifecycle is iterative. Each incident, each vulnerability disclosure, each change in threat landscape, each evolution of the system itself triggers a new assessment. Security is not a destination but a continuous process.

This book covers all four phases of the lifecycle. Subsequent chapters provide the technical knowledge needed for assessment and implementation. Later chapters address verification, monitoring, and maintenance at scale. Throughout, the emphasis is on practical, risk-based security that works in production environments.

Chapter 2: The Linux Security Model

You cannot harden a system you do not understand. The security of a Linux system is determined not by any single tool or configuration file but by the interaction of dozens of mechanisms in the kernel and userspace. This chapter establishes the foundation: how Linux represents processes and users, how it enforces access controls, how it isolates workloads, and how attackers exploit gaps in this model.

Understanding these mechanisms serves three purposes. First, it gives you the mental model needed to reason about security controls throughout the rest of this book. Second, it explains why certain hardening practices work and others are ineffective. Third, it helps you diagnose problems when security controls break applications or fail to block attacks.

Kernel Architecture and Privilege Levels

The Linux kernel operates in a privileged execution mode that gives it direct access to all hardware and memory. On x86 processors, this is called ring 0; user programs run in ring 3. The boundary between these privilege levels is enforced by the processor itself. A user-space program cannot execute privileged instructions, access kernel memory directly, or modify processor state without going through a controlled interface.

This boundary is fundamental to all Linux security. If an attacker can execute arbitrary code in kernel space, they can bypass every userspace security control: permissions, capabilities, SELinux, firewalls, everything. Kernel vulnerabilities are so dangerous precisely because they cross this boundary.

The kernel provides three main interfaces for user-space programs to request privileged operations:

1. **System calls:** The primary interface for requesting kernel services such as file operations, process management, and network I/O. Each system call is a privileged entry point into the kernel. A program cannot perform any operation involving kernel data structures or hardware without invoking a system call.

2. **Interrupts:** Hardware events that cause the processor to switch to kernel mode. Malicious users cannot directly generate arbitrary interrupts on modern systems, but device drivers that handle interrupts can be exploited.
3. **I/O memory mapping:** Direct memory access to device registers via mmap of device memory. This is restricted on modern Linux but was historically a significant attack surface.

The kernel also maintains internal data structures that track the state of the system: process tables, memory management structures, filesystem metadata, network routing tables, and so on. These structures are not directly accessible from user space, but they can be read or modified indirectly through system calls and special interfaces such as `/proc` and `/sys`.

Hardening focuses on three aspects of this architecture:

- **Protecting the kernel itself** from being exploited. This includes exploit mitigations like ASLR, stack canaries, non-executable stacks, control-flow integrity, and the work of the Kernel Self-Protection Project [5].
- **Limiting what programs can do through the kernel** by restricting system calls, capabilities, and interfaces accessible from user space.
- **Ensuring the kernel is running in a trusted state** through signed kernels, module signing, and lockdown mode.

Modern kernels incorporate numerous self-protection mechanisms. The Kernel Self-Protection Project recommends settings including `CONFIG_STACK-PROTECTOR` for stack canaries, `CONFIG_STRICT_KERNEL_RWX` to ensure executable memory cannot be written, `CONFIG_HARDENED_USERCOPY` to prevent information leaks through copy operations, and `CONFIG_SECURITY_LOCKDOWN_LSM` to restrict access to sensitive kernel features after boot [6]. These are compiled into the kernel at build time and cannot be easily disabled by attackers.

Processes, User IDs, and Isolation

A Linux process is an executing program with its own memory space, open file descriptors, signal handlers, and security context. Each process has three user ID fields that determine its privileges:

- **Real UID:** The actual user who owns the process.
- **Effective UID:** The user ID used for permission checks.
- **Saved set-user-ID:** Preserves a privileged UID for `setuid` programs so they can drop and regain privileges safely.

By default, a process's effective UID equals its real UID, meaning it runs with the privileges of the user who started it. When a process executes a `setuid` program (a program with the `setuid` bit set, mode 4000), the kernel changes the effective UID to match the file owner, typically `root`. This is how programs like `passwd` can modify `/etc/shadow`, which is readable only by `root`.

The privilege boundary between processes is the first line of defense in Linux security. If the web server process runs as `www-data` (UID 33) and is compromised, the attacker has only the privileges of `www-data`. They cannot read `root`-owned files, modify system configuration, or install backdoors unless they can escalate privileges further.

This model is effective only if it is enforced properly. Common failures include:

- **Running services as root:** Many services historically ran as `root` by default for reasons of convenience or legacy compatibility. A compromised root-level service immediately gives the attacker full system control.
- **Overly permissive `setuid` binaries:** Any `setuid`-root program with a vulnerability can be exploited for privilege escalation. The number of `setuid` binaries on a system should be minimized.
- **Shared process groups:** Processes in the same session can sometimes affect each other through signals or job control. While not a direct privilege boundary, this interaction surface can be exploited.

Modern Linux adds further isolation through namespaces, which we will discuss below, and through `seccomp` filters that restrict the system calls a process can make.

Hardening recommendations:

- Ensure all services run with dedicated, non-`root` user accounts.
- Use `systemd` sandboxing directives such as `NoNewPrivileges=yes` to prevent privilege escalation from within a service [7].
- Audit `setuid` binaries regularly and remove unnecessary ones.
- Run applications with restricted capabilities rather than full `root` access where possible.

Users, Groups, and Authorization Basics

Linux implements authorization through a combination of user IDs, group IDs, and file permissions. This system, inherited from Unix, is known as Discretionary Access Control (DAC) because the owner of a resource can decide who can access it.

Each user has a unique user ID (UID) stored in `/etc/passwd`. Group memberships are defined in `/etc/group`. Users are organized into groups for convenience: a single permission change on a group-owned file affects all members.

The standard Unix permission model provides three permission bits for each of three classes (owner, group, others): read, write, and execute. A file's permissions determine who can read its contents, modify it, or execute it as a program.

For files:

- Read (r) allows reading the file contents.
- Write (w) allows modifying the file.
- Execute (x) allows executing the file as a program or entering a directory.

For directories:

- Read allows listing directory contents.
- Write allows creating, deleting, or renaming files within the directory.
- Execute allows accessing files within the directory if you know their names.

This model is simple and effective for basic access control but has limitations:

- It does not distinguish between different types of read access (reading a log file versus reading a shadow password file).
- It does not enforce policy at the application level (a compromised web server that owns its log directory can delete or modify those logs regardless of permission bits).
- It is insufficient for multi-tenant environments where fine-grained isolation is required.

For these limitations, Linux provides mandatory access control (SELinux, AppArmor) and capabilities, which we discuss in later chapters.

Hardening recommendations:

- Ensure sensitive files and directories are owned by root with permissions that restrict access to authorized users only. For example, `/etc/shadow` should be 640 (readable by root and the shadow group, nothing for others).
- Use dedicated user accounts for services rather than sharing accounts across multiple services.
- Lock or disable accounts that are no longer needed.
- Monitor `/etc/passwd` and `/etc/group` for unauthorized changes using audit rules or file integrity monitoring.

File Permissions, ACLs, and Special Modes

Beyond the basic permission bits, Linux provides additional file permission mechanisms that affect security.

Access Control Lists (ACLs) extend the basic permission model by allowing more than three classes of permissions. An ACL can specify permissions for individual users and groups beyond the file's owner and group. ACLs are configured with the `setfacl` and `getfacl` commands and stored as extended attributes on the filesystem.

ACLs are useful when you need fine-grained permissions that the basic owner-group-others model cannot express. For example, you might want a file to be readable by the web server user and a specific backup user but not by other members of the web server's group.

From a security perspective, ACLs should be audited just like standard permissions. An improperly configured ACL can grant unexpected access to sensitive files. The `getfacl` command can reveal ACL settings that are not visible with a standard `ls -la` listing.

Special permission bits add additional behavior:

- **Setuid (4000):** When set on an executable, the program runs with the effective UID of the file owner rather than the invoking user. This is the

mechanism by which programs like `passwd`, `sudo`, and `su` gain elevated privileges. A `setuid-root` program is a significant security concern: any vulnerability in it can be exploited for privilege escalation.

- **Setgid (2000):** When set on an executable, the program runs with the effective GID of the file's group. When set on a directory, new files created within that directory inherit the directory's group rather than the creating user's primary group. This is commonly used for shared project directories.
- **Sticky bit (1000):** When set on a directory, only the file's owner, the directory's owner, or root can delete or rename files within the directory. This is essential for directories like `/tmp` where multiple users create files but should not be able to delete each other's files.

Hardening recommendations:

- Audit `setuid` and `setgid` binaries regularly. Use `find / -perm /6000 -type f` to list them. Remove `setuid` bits from non-essential programs.
- Ensure `/tmp` and `/var/tmp` have the sticky bit set (mode 1777). Without it, a local user can mount or symlink a maliciously named file and trick a privileged process into operating on it (a TOCTOU race condition).
- Review ACLs on sensitive files and directories.
- Use restrictive default permissions for new files through the `umask` mechanism. A `umask` of 027 creates files readable only by owner and group, with no permissions for others.

Capabilities and Privilege Separation

The traditional Linux privilege model is binary: you are either root (UID 0) with complete system access, or you are not. This is impractical for modern systems where a single process may need specific privileged operations (like binding to a low-numbered port) without requiring full root access.

Linux capabilities solve this problem by breaking the monolithic root privilege into discrete capabilities. Each capability grants a specific type of access:

- **CAP_NET_BIND_SERVICE:** Bind to TCP/UDP ports below 1024.
- **CAP_SYS_TIME:** Change system time.

- **CAP_DAC_OVERRIDE**: Bypass file read, write, and execute permission checks.
- **CAP_SYS_ADMIN**: A broad and powerful capability that grants many administrative privileges including mounting filesystems, loading kernel modules, setting namespaces, and more.
- **CAP_NET_ADMIN**: Configure network interfaces, routing tables, and firewall rules.

A process has several capability sets:

- **Permitted**: Capabilities the process can add to its effective set.
- **Effective**: Capabilities currently in use for permission checks.
- **Inheritable**: Capabilities that can be passed to child processes through `execve`.
- **Bounding**: The maximum set of capabilities that can be granted to the process.

Capabilities are assigned to files using the `setcap` command. For example, `setcap cap_net_bind_service=+ep /usr/bin/myservice` allows `myservice` to bind to privileged ports without running as root.

The most important capability from a security perspective is `CAP_SYS_ADMIN`. It is extremely powerful and is often described as “almost as dangerous as root” [8]. It is commonly granted to containers to allow them to perform administrative tasks within their namespace, but this also enables container escapes if not carefully controlled.

Hardening recommendations:

- Avoid running processes as root when capabilities can provide the required privileges.
- Minimize the use of `CAP_SYS_ADMIN`. For containers specifically, remove it when possible and grant only the specific capabilities needed.
- Audit files with capabilities using `getcap -r /` and remove unnecessary ones.
- Use systemd’s `CapabilityBoundingSet=` directive to restrict the capabilities available to services.

Namespaces and Cgroups: The Foundation of Isolation

Namespaces and cgroups are the two kernel mechanisms that make containers possible. They are also fundamental to understanding modern Linux security architecture.

Namespaces provide isolation by giving processes their own view of system resources. There are seven types of namespaces in modern Linux:

1. **PID namespace:** Isolates process IDs. A process in a PID namespace sees only its own processes and its descendants. The init process (PID 1) of a container is different from the host's init.
2. **Network namespace:** Isolates network stack elements: interfaces, routing tables, firewall rules, ports. A process in its own network namespace has its own network interfaces and cannot see traffic from other namespaces.
3. **Mount namespace:** Isolates filesystem mount points. A process in a mount namespace sees only its own set of mounts and cannot affect mounts visible to other namespaces.
4. **UTS namespace:** Isolates hostname and domain name. Each namespace can have its own hostname.
5. **IPC namespace:** Isolates inter-process communication mechanisms like message queues, semaphores, and shared memory.
6. **User namespace:** Maps user and group IDs. A process that is root (UID 0) inside a user namespace can be mapped to an unprivileged user on the host. This is a critical security feature that limits the damage from container escapes.
7. **Cgroup namespace:** Isolates the view of the cgroup hierarchy.

Namespaces provide strong isolation but they are not a complete security boundary. All namespaces on a host share the same kernel. A kernel vulnerability can be exploited to break out of any namespace. Additionally, certain operations can escape namespaces if they are granted sufficient capabilities or if the system is misconfigured.

Control groups (cgroups) limit resource usage rather than providing visibility isolation. A cgroup can restrict:

- CPU time and share of CPU

- Memory usage
- Block I/O
- Network bandwidth
- Number of processes

From a security perspective, cgroups protect against denial-of-service attacks. A compromised container or process without cgroup limits can consume all available CPU, memory, or disk I/O, affecting other workloads on the same host. Cgroups are not a defense against exploitation; they limit the impact of resource exhaustion.

The user namespace is the most security-relevant namespace type. When properly configured, it allows containers to run with root inside while having no real privileges on the host. A container process that escalates to root within the user namespace is still unprivileged relative to the host kernel. This significantly reduces the impact of container escapes.

However, user namespaces have historically been a source of security concerns. The kernel treats processes in user namespaces with special privileges, and certain operations that are normally restricted to root become available within them. Several kernel vulnerabilities (such as CVE-2022-0847, the Dirty Pipe vulnerability) were exploitable only from within user namespaces but led to full host compromise. As a result, some hardening guides recommend disabling user namespaces entirely with `user.max_user_namespaces=0` on systems that do not require containers [9].

Hardening recommendations:

- Use user namespaces for containers when possible to limit host privileges.
- Apply cgroup limits to all containerized workloads and services to prevent resource exhaustion.
- On systems without container requirements, consider disabling unprivileged user namespaces.
- Use seccomp to restrict system calls available within namespaces.
- Monitor namespace-related kernel parameters for security changes.

System Calls, Procfs, Sysfs, and the Attack Surface

Every interaction between a user-space program and the kernel goes through a system call. On x86-64 Linux, there are over 300 system calls covering

operations like file access (open, read, write, close), process management (fork, execve, wait), networking (socket, connect, accept), and memory management (mmap, brk).

Each system call is a potential attack surface. A vulnerability in any system call handler can allow an attacker to exploit the kernel. System calls also reveal information about the system: the output of `ls`, `ps`, `netstat` all come from data exposed through system calls.

The kernel provides two pseudo-file systems that expose internal kernel data to user space:

/proc (procfs): Provides detailed information about processes and system state. Files like `/proc/cpuinfo`, `/proc/meminfo`, `/proc/version`, and `/proc/self/maps` reveal system configuration, running processes, memory layout, and other potentially sensitive information. Malicious programs can use `procfs` for reconnaissance and information gathering.

/sys (sysfs): Exposes kernel objects and device information. Many kernel parameters can be read and written through `sysfs`. For example, `/sys/kernel/debug/` provides access to debugging features that should be disabled on production systems.

Hardening recommendations:

- Restrict access to sensitive `procfs` files using mount options: `mount -o hidepid=2,gid=proc /proc /proc` limits which processes can see other processes' details. The `hidepid=2` option makes `/proc/<pid>` directories invisible except to their owner and root.
- Disable or restrict `/sys/kernel/debug/` by mounting it with `nosuid,nodev,noexec` or not mounting it at all.
- Use `seccomp` to filter unnecessary system calls from applications that do not need them.
- Restrict access to `/proc/kcore`, `/dev/mem`, and `/dev/kmem` which can expose kernel memory contents.
- Monitor system call usage through `auditd` to detect suspicious activity.

The system call interface is also the primary mechanism for `seccomp` filtering, which we discuss in the kernel security chapter. By restricting which system calls a process can invoke, `seccomp` significantly reduces the attack surface available if that process is compromised.

This chapter has covered the fundamental mechanisms that make Linux security possible. The remaining chapters build on this foundation, showing how each mechanism can be hardened, how they interact with each other, and how they can be configured for production security. Understanding this model is essential for making informed hardening decisions throughout the rest of the book.

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