

# GNU Rush – a restricted user shell

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# 1 Introduction

GNU Rush is a Restricted User Shell, designed for sites that provide limited remote access to their resources, such as svn or git repositories, scp, or the like. Using a sophisticated configuration file, GNU Rush gives you complete control over the command lines that users execute, as well as over the usage of system resources, such as virtual memory, CPU time, etc.



## 2 Operation

GNU Rush is usually installed as a user shell. When a user connects to the server (e.g. by using using SSH protocol), the shell binary, **rush**, is executed. GNU Rush must be called with exactly two arguments: the **-c** command line option and a command line to be executed on the host machine<sup>1</sup>. If wrong arguments are supplied, the shell aborts.

The third argument to **rush** supplies a command line to be executed. That command line, shell environment for its execution and the password database entry for the user who executes **rush** are said to form a *request*.

After startup, **rush** reads a set of *rules* from its configuration file. Each rule consists of matching conditions and actions. *Conditions* decide whether the request matches the rule. They can include regular expression matching against entire command line or particular words thereof, comparisons of user name or group, etc. If all conditions match the request, actions are executed. *Actions* can instruct **rush** to:

- Modify the command line;
- Impose resource limits;
- Set umask;
- Change current working directory;
- Modify the execution environment;
- Run command in a special root directory (**'chroot'**).

Finally, after all actions have been completed successfully, **rush** runs the requested command. Notice, that by that time the resulting command line is not necessarily the same as the original one supplied to **rush** with the **-c** option.

A special kind of rules, called *fall-through* ones, is provided. Fall-through rules differ from other rules in that they do not execute the command. After all actions in a fall-through rule have been executed, GNU Rush continues to search for another matching rule in its configuration and applies it, if found. Fall-through rules are useful to set default values for subsequent rules.

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<sup>1</sup> Starting from version 1.6, it is possible to use GNU Rush for interactive shell sessions. See Section 4.4.11 [Interactive], page 32, for more information about it.



## 3 Quick Start

To give you the feel of GNU Rush possibilities, let's consider the following configuration file rule:

```

rush 2.0

rule sftp
  # Matching condition
  match $uid >= 100 && $command ~ "^./sftp-server"
  # Actions:
  set [0] = "bin/sftp-server"
  umask 002
  chroot "~"
  chdir "/"

```

The first clause defines the version of the syntax this configuration uses. Each configuration must begin with this statement.

Next clause, `rule`, defines a new rule. Its argument serves as a rule tag and is used for diagnostic messages and in accounting.

Lines beginning with `#` are comments, they are intended for a human reader and are ignored by `rush`.

The `match` statement, defines condition that must be met for this rule to become active. In this example it requests that the UID of the requesting user be greater than or equal to 100, and the command line begin with `/sftp-server`, optionally preceded by arbitrary directory components.

Subsequent clauses define actions associated with this rule.

The `set` clause contains instructions on how to modify the first argument of the command line. Argument indices start at 0, so `[0]` refers to the command name. The expression in our example instructs GNU Rush to replace it with `bin/sftp-server`.

The `umask` clause sets the file creation mask.

The `chroot` clause instructs GNU Rush to `chroot` to the user home directory before executing the command.

Finally, the `chdir` statement sets the directory to change to after installing the `chroot`.



## 4 Configuration File

The configuration file `rush.rc` is located in `/usr/local/etc` by default.<sup>1</sup>

The configuration file is read and parsed right after start up. Any errors occurred in parsing are reported using `syslog` facility `'authpriv'` and priority `'notice'`. When run in `'test'` mode, all diagnostics is displayed on the standard error output. See Chapter 7 [Test Mode], page 45, for a detailed description of ways to debug and test your configurations.

Before parsing, `rush` checks the ownership and permissions of the configuration file for potential security breaches. The configuration file is considered unsafe if any of the following conditions are met:

1. It is not owned by root.
2. It is group writable.
3. It is world writable.
4. It resides in a group writable directory.
5. It resides in a world writable directory.
6. It is a symbolic link to a file residing in a group or world writable directory.

If the file is considered unsafe, `rush` rejects it and aborts execution.

Any of these tests can be disabled using the `--security-check` option (see `[-security-check]`, page 47).

As of version 2.1, `rush` supports two distinct configuration file formats.

The *legacy* configuration format is the one used in `rush` versions up to 1.9. It is still supported to facilitate transition of existing installations to the new syntax. Its support will eventually be removed in future versions, so the users are encouraged to switch to the new syntax as soon as possible. The legacy syntax is described in detail in <http://www.gnu.org.ua/software/rush/legacy>.

This manual describes new configuration file format.

### 4.1 Lexical Structure of the Configuration File

Configuration file consists of tokens separated by arbitrary amount of white-space characters: horizontal spaces and tabs. Except when enclosed in double quotes or preceded by a dollar sign, the `#` character introduces an inline comment: the character itself and any material that follows it up to the end of the physical line is ignored. Comments are treated as newlines.

The following classes of tokens are recognized.

*Newlines*    A newline character (ASCII 10) terminates a statement. If newline is immediately preceded by a backslash, both characters

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<sup>1</sup> The exact location of the configuration file is defined when configuring the package. See the file `INSTALL` in the GNU Rush source directory for more information

are removed and the following line is treated as a continuation of the current line. This allows for splitting exceedingly long statements over several physical lines.

*Identifiers* Identifiers begin with a letter and consist of letters, digits, underscores and dashes. They serve as keywords and variable names.

*Decimal numbers*

A sequence of decimal digits, optionally preceded by a minus or plus sign.

*Unquoted strings*

An unquoted string is any contiguous sequence of any characters, except newlines, whitespace and the following special characters: ‘\’, ‘”’, ‘!’, ‘=’, ‘<’, ‘>’, ‘(’, ‘)’, ‘{’, ‘}’, ‘[’, ‘]’, ‘\$’, ‘%’, ‘&’, ‘|’, ‘~’, ‘#’.

*Quoted strings*

A quoted string is a sequence of characters enclosed in double-quotes. Quoted strings are subject to backslash interpretation, backreference interpretation and variable expansion.

During *backslash interpretation*, the *escape sequences* are recognized and replaced as per table below:

Sequence	Replaced with
\a	Audible bell character (ASCII 7)
\b	Backspace character (ASCII 8)
\f	Form-feed character (ASCII 12)
\n	Newline character (ASCII 10)
\r	Carriage return character (ASCII 13)
\t	Horizontal tabulation character (ASCII 9)
\v	Vertical tabulation character (ASCII 11)
\\	Single backslash character
\"	Double-quote
\%	Percent character

Table 4.1: Backslash escapes

A backslash immediately followed by newline character is removed. A backslash followed by any other character except as listed above is retained along with the character.

During *backreference interpretation*, references to parenthesized groups in regular expression are replaced with the actual content of the corresponding group in the most recently matched string. A reference is ‘*{n}*’ where *n* is a decimal number. If *n* is one



digit, curly braces can be omitted: `%n`. If the `%` character results from previous backslash interpretation, no backreference interpretation occurs.

Strings used in the left-hand side of a comparison expression are subject to variable expansion. This is discussed in detail in Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16.

### *Variable references*

Variable references consist of a `$` sign, followed by the positional argument number or variable name, optionally enclosed in curly braces. Positional arguments greater than 9 must be enclosed in curly braces. The variable name must follow the rules for valid identifiers: it must begin with a letter and consist of letters, digits and underscores. Variable name in curly braces can be followed by `-`, `=`, `?`, or `+`, optionally preceded by `:` as summarized in the table below:

Reference	Meaning
<code>\${var:-word}</code>	Use Default Values
<code>\${var:=word}</code>	Assign Default Values
<code>\${var:?word}</code>	Display Error if Null or Unset
<code>\${var:+word}</code>	Use Alternate Value

Table 4.2: Variable reference

Where *word* stands for any valid token as described in this section. See Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16, for a detailed discussion of these forms and their meaning.

### *Comparison and boolean operators*

These are:

<code>&amp;&amp;</code>	Boolean <i>and</i>
<code>  </code>	Boolean <i>or</i>
<code>!</code>	Boolean negation
<code>==</code>	Equality (string or numeric)
<code>!=</code>	Inequality (string or numeric)
<code>&lt;</code>	Less than
<code>&lt;=</code>	Less than or equal to
<code>&gt;</code>	Greater than
<code>&gt;=</code>	Greater than or equal to
<code>~</code>	Regexp matching
<code>!~</code>	Negated regexp matching
<code>in</code>	Membership in set of strings
<code>group</code>	Membership in UNIX group
<code>=</code>	Assignment
<code>=~</code>	Regular expression substitution

Table 4.3: Operators

See Section 4.4.2 [Matching Conditions], page 18, for a detailed discussion.

## 4.2 Syntax

The `‘rush’` configuration consists of *statements*.

A *statement* consists of a keyword and optional arguments, separated by any amount of whitespace. Each statement occupies one line in the configuration file and is terminated by a newline character. Extremely long statements may be split across several physical lines by ending each line except the last with a backslash followed by a newline.

Statements may be separated by any amount of empty lines or comments.

The first statement in a configuration file indicates the syntax version. It has the following form:

```
rush 2.0
```

This statement is mandatory. In its absence, the file will be treated as a legacy configuration file<sup>2</sup>. To avoid confusion, a notice message to that effect will be printed.

Statements that follow form logical groups. Each group begins with a `rule` or `global` statement.

The `global` statement introduces global settings. It affects all statements that follow it.

The `rule` statement introduces a single `rush` rule, that defines how to process a particular command.

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<sup>2</sup> For the discussion of the legacy syntax, please refer to <http://www.gnu.org.ua/software/rush/legacy>.

These statements are described in the sections that follow.

## 4.3 The global statement

The `global` statement defines global settings. The syntax is:

```
global
  stmt1
  stmt2
  ...
```

where dots represent any number of statements. The following subsections discuss the statements that can be used within a `global` block.

### 4.3.1 Expansion control

The following statement controls the behavior of `rush` when an undefined variable is expanded (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16).

```
expand-undefined bool [global]
```

If *bool* is `'true'`, expand undefined variables to empty value. If it is `'false'` (the default), issue an error and abort.

The following values can be used as synonyms for `'true'`: `'yes'`, `'on'`, `'t'`, `'1'`.

The following values can be used as synonyms for `'false'`: `'no'`, `'off'`, `'nil'`, `'0'`.

See [handling of undefined variables], page 17, for a detailed discussion of how `rush` processes undefined variables and for the recommended techniques of handling them.

### 4.3.2 Debugging

The `debug` global statement sets the *debugging level* – an integer value that controls the verbosity of `rush`:

```
debug num [global]
```

Set debugging level to *num*.

The greater *num* is, the more verbose is the logging. The debugging information is reported via `syslog` at facility `'authpriv'`, priority `'debug'`. As of version 2.1, the following debugging levels are supported:

- 1           A minimum debugging level, and the only one whose messages are logged using the priority `'notice'`. At this level, `rush` only logs requests and rules selected to handle them. For example:
 

```
rush[16821]: Serving request "/usr/libexec/sftp-server"
for sergiusz by rule sftp-savane
```
- 2           List all actions executed when serving requests.

- 3           When parsing a legacy configuration file, verbosely describe parsing process.

More debugging levels may be implemented in future.

### 4.3.3 The `sleep-time` statement

`sleep-time num` [global]

Set the time to sleep before exiting on error, in seconds. This statement is intended as a measure against brute-force attacks. Default sleep time is 5 seconds.

### 4.3.4 Error Messages

`message class text` [global]

Define a textual message which is returned to the remote party if an error of the given *class* occurs.

Valid values for *class* are:

`usage-error`

This error is reported when `rush` has been invoked improperly. The default text is:

`You are not permitted to execute this command.`

`nologin-error`

Define a textual message which is returned to the remote user if there is no such user name in the password database.

Default is:

`You do not have interactive login access to this machine.`

`config-error`

Define a textual message which is returned to the remote party if the `rush` configuration file contains errors.

Default is:

`Local configuration error occurred.`

`system-error`

Define a textual message which is returned to the remote party if a system error occurs.

Default message is:

`A system error occurred while attempting to execute command.`

### 4.3.5 The `regexp` statement

The `regexp` statement configures the flavor of regular expressions for use by subsequent `match`, `set`, and `insert` statements.

**regex *flags* ...** [global]

Configure the type of regular expressions.

Each *flag* is a word specifying some regular expression feature. It can be preceded by '+' to enable this feature (this is the default), or by '-' to disable it. Valid flags are:

'extended'

Use POSIX Extended Regular Expression syntax when interpreting regex. This is the default.

'basic' Use basic regular expressions. Equivalent to '-extended'.

'icase'

'ignore-case'

Do not differentiate case. Subsequent regex matches will be case insensitive.

For example, the following statement enables POSIX extended, case insensitive matching:

```
global
  regex +extended +icase
```

### 4.3.6 The include-security statement

Additional configuration can be included to the main configuration file using the **include** statement (see Section 4.5 [Include], page 35). Before inclusion, a number of checks is performed on the file to ensure it is safe to rely on it. These checks are configured using the following statement:

**include-security *list*** [global]

Configure the security checks for include files. This statement takes a list of arguments, separated by white space. The following arguments are recognized:

all Enable all checks.

owner The file is not owned by root.

iwgrp

groupwritablefile

The file is group writable.

iwoth

worldwritablefile

The file is world writable.

dir\_iwgrp

groupwritabledir

The file resides in a group writable directory.

dir\_iwoth

worldwritabledir

The file resides in a world writable directory.

**link**           The file is a symbolic link to a file residing in a group or world writable directory.

Each of the above keywords may be prefixed by ‘no’, which reverses its meaning. The special keyword ‘none’ disables all checks. Each keyword adds or removes a particular test to the existing check list, which is initialized as described in [security checks], page 7. Thus, the following statement results in all checks, except for the file ownership:

```
global
include-security noowner
```

In the example below, the check list is first cleared by using the **none** statement, and then a set of checks is added to it:

```
global
include-security none owner iwoth iwgrp
```

### 4.3.7 Accounting control statements

The following global statements control file mode and permissions of the *accounting database files*. For a detailed description of this feature, See Chapter 11 [Accounting Database], page 55.

**acct-umask** *mask* [global]  
Set umask used when accessing accounting database files. Default value is ‘022’.

**acct-dir-mode** *mode* [global]  
Set mode bits for the accounting directory. The *mode* argument is the mode in octal.

**acct-file-mode** *mode* [global]  
Set mode bits for the **wtmp** and **utmp** files.

## 4.4 Rule

The **rule** statement configures a GNU **rush** rule. This is a *block* statement, which means that all statements located between it and the next **rule** statement (or end of file, whichever occurs first) modify the definition of that rule.

The syntax of the **rule** statement is:

```
rule tag [Configuration]
```

The *tag* argument is optional. If it is given, it supplies a *tag* for the rule, i.e. a (presumably unique) identifier, which is used to label this rule. **Rush** uses this tag in its diagnostic messages. For rules without explicit *tag*, **Rush** supplies a default tag, which is constructed by concatenating ‘#’ character and the ordinal number of rule in the configuration file, in decimal notation. Rule numbering starts from ‘1’.

Each rule group can contain a number of statements that control what kind of requests match that rule and what actions are taken when the rule is matched. Arguments to these statements can refer to command line arguments and other parts of the request.

### 4.4.1 The Request

User request consists of the user `passwd` entry, the command line supplied to `rush`, and environment variables. The request is analyzed and can be eventually modified by rules in `rush` configuration file. Rules access parts of the request using *variables*.

There are four classes of variables. All of them share the same namespace and are accessed using the same syntax.

#### 4.4.1.1 Positional variables

Rush performs word splitting using the same rules as `sh`. Statements in the configuration file refer to command line arguments (*words*) by their *index*, using *positional variables*. A positional variable can have the following forms:

```
$n
${n}
```

where *n* is the variable index. The form with curly braces must be used if *n* is negative (see below) or greater than 9.

Arguments are numbered from '0'. The name of the command is argument '\$0'. Consider, for example, the following command line:

```
/bin/scp -t /upload
```

Word splitting phase results in three positional variables being defined:

Variable	Value
\$0	/bin/scp
\$1	-t
\$2	/upload

These values can also be referred to using negative indexes. They refer to words in the reverse order, as illustrated in the following table (notice the use of curly braces):

Variable	Value
\${-3}	/bin/scp
\${-2}	-t
\${-1}	/upload

Notice also, that negative indexes are 1-based.

One final note about the '\$0' variable. Immediately after word splitting it refers to both the executable program name and the 0th argument that will be passed to that program (`argv[0]`). Most of the time the two values coincide. However, the rule can modify either value, so that they become

different. Whether modified or not, the actual name of the program to be run is kept in the request variable ‘`$program`’ (see the following section).

#### 4.4.1.2 Request variables

The following variables can be used to refer to various parts of the user request:

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Expansion</b>
<code>\$user</code>	User name
<code>\$group</code>	Name of the user’s principal group
<code>\$uid</code>	UID
<code>\$gid</code>	GID
<code>\$home</code>	User’s home directory
<code>\$gecos</code>	User’s GECOS field
<code>\$program</code>	Executable program name
<code>\$command</code>	Entire command line
<code>\$#</code>	Number of arguments in ‘ <code>\$command</code> ’

#### 4.4.1.3 Environment variables

Environment variables are accessed using the same syntax as the rest of the variables. Rules can modify them using the `setenv`, `clrenv` and `keepenv` statements (see Section 4.4.4 [Environment], page 25).

#### 4.4.1.4 User-defined variables

In addition to the built-in variables, arbitrary variables can be defined and used in the configuration file. These *user-defined* variables are defined using the `set` statement (see Section 4.4.3.1 [set], page 21) and are normally used to pass information between rules. They are invisible to whatever command `rush` executes as the final result of processing.

#### 4.4.1.5 Variable Expansion

Most statements in the configuration file undergo variable expansion prior to their use. During variable expansion, references to variables in the string are replaced with their actual values. A variable reference has two basic forms:

```
$v
${v}
```

where `v` is either the name of the variable (request, environment, or user-defined), or the index of the positional variable. The notation in curly braces serves several purposes. First, it is obligatory if `v` is an index of the positional variable that is negative or greater than 9. Secondly, it should be used if the variable reference is immediately followed by an alphanumeric symbol, which will otherwise be considered part of it (as in ‘`${home}dir`’). Finally, this form allows for specifying the action to take if the variable is undefined or expands to an empty value.



The following special forms are recognized:

`${variable:-word}`

*Use Default Values.* If *variable* is unset or null, the expansion of *word* is substituted. Otherwise, the value of *variable* is substituted.

`${variable:=word}`

*Assign Default Values.* If *variable* is unset or null, the expansion of *word* is assigned to *variable*. The value of *variable* is then substituted.

`${variable:?word}`

*Display Error if Null or Unset.* If *variable* is null or unset, the expansion of *word* (or a message to that effect if *word* is not present) is output to the current logging channel. Otherwise, the value of *variable* is substituted.

`${variable:+word}`

*Use Alternate Value.* If *variable* is null or unset, nothing is substituted, otherwise the expansion of *word* is substituted.

These constructs test for a variable that is unset or null. Omitting the colon results in a test only for a variable that is unset.

When expanding a variable reference, the variable name is first looked among the request variables. If it is not found, it is looked up in the user-defined variable list. If it is not there, the look up in the environment is attempted.

If the variable name is not found in any of these lists, the default **rush** behavior is to report the error of ‘**config-error**’ class (see Section 4.3.4 [Error Messages], page 12) and exit. To gracefully handle such cases, use the *default value construct*, defined above. For example, the following statement safely appends the string ‘**/opt/man**’ to the value of the **MANPATH** environment variable:

```
setenv MANPATH = "${MANPATH:-""}${MANPATH:+:}/opt/man"
```

The ‘`${MANPATH:-""}`’ reference ensures no error is reported if the variable is undefined. The ‘`${MANPATH:+:}`’ reference appends a semicolon to the value, if the variable is defined. Finally the string ‘**/opt/man**’ is appended to the resulting value.

Another way to gracefully handle undefined variables, is to use the **expand-undefined** global setting. If you place the following statement at the beginning of your configuration file, any undefined variable will be silently expanded to empty string:

```
global
  expand-undefined true
```

This statement affects variable expansion in statements that follow it in the configuration file. So you can place it in some point after which this

behavior is needed, and then disable it where it is no longer desired, by using the following global statement:

```
global
  expand-undefined false
```

## 4.4.2 Matching Conditions

`match expr` [*rule*]

The `match` statement defines conditions that decide whether the rule matches the particular request. Its argument is a simple expression or a boolean expression involving several simple expressions.

A *simple expression* is either a comparison or membership test.

### 4.4.2.1 Comparisons

A *comparison expression* is:

```
lhs op rhs
```

here, *lhs* (*left-hand side*) is a string (quoted or unquoted), or a variable reference (see Section 4.1 [Lexical Structure], page 7), *rhs* (*right-hand side*) is a string or number, and *op* is one of the following binary operators:

'=='	Equality (string or numeric)
'!=='	Inequality (string or numeric)
'<'	Less than
'<='	Less than or equal to
'>'	Greater than
'>='	Greater than or equal to
'~'	Regexp matching
'!~'	Negated regexp matching

Table 4.4: Comparison Operators

Prior to evaluating simple expression, its left-hand side undergoes variable expansion and backreference interpretation. In contrast, the right-hand side is always treated verbatim.

For example the following rule will match any request with 2 or more arguments (recall, that the command name itself is counted as one of the arguments):

```
rule
  match $# >= 2
```

The '==' and '!=' can operate both on strings and on numbers. When applied to strings the '==' means byte-to-byte equality, e.g.

```
match $0 == "/bin/ls"
```

will match requests with '/bin/ls' as the command name.

The '~' and '!~' operators implement *regular expression matching*.

The expression '*lhs* ~ *rx*' yields 'true' if *lhs* matches regular expression *rx*. E.g.

```
match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-t /incoming/(alpha|ftp)"
```

The '!~' evaluates to 'true' if *lhs* does not match the regular expression in the *rhs*.

If the regular expression contains parenthesized groups, subsequent commands can refer to the strings that matched the groups using the *backreference notation* '%*n*', where *n* is 1-based index ordinal number of the group in the regular expression (see [backreference], page 8). The reference '%0' expands to the entire matched string. For example:

```
rule chdir
  match $command "^cd (.+) && (.+)"
  chdir %1
  set command = %2
  fall-through
```

It splits the compound command into the working directory and the command itself. Then it remembers the name of the working directory (first parenthesized group – '%1') for changing to it later (see [chdir], page 27) and resets the command line to the part of the string that follows the '&&' token. Finally, it passes control to another rules (see Section 4.4.7 [Fall-through], page 28).

#### 4.4.2.2 Membership operators

Membership operators check if their argument is a member of some set of values. There are two such operators.

```
lhs in ( args )
```

The *in* operator evaluates to 'true' if *lhs* is listed in *args*, which is a whitespace-separated list of strings. For example:

```
match $0 in ("scp" "rsync")
```

The *group* operator evaluates to 'true' if the requesting user is a member of at least one group listed in its right-hand side. It can have two forms:

**group *grp*** Evaluate to 'true' if the user is a member of the group *grp*. The group can be given either by its name or GID.

```
group ( list )
```

Evaluate to 'true' if the user is a member of one of the groups in whitespace delimited *list*. Members of *list* are group names or GIDs.

#### 4.4.2.3 Boolean expressions

Simple expressions can be combined into complex conditions using boolean operators:

'  '	Disjunction ( <i>or</i> )
'&&'	Conjunction ( <i>and</i> )
'!'	Negation

Table 4.5: Boolean Operators

Arguments to these operators can be either simple expressions or another boolean expressions. The operators in the table above are ordered by their precedence. As in most programming languages, parentheses can be used to enforce the desired order of evaluation.

Both binary operators implement shortcut evaluation.

For example, the following rule will match if the command name contains 'git-receive-pack' or 'git-upload-pack' and either the UID is 100 or the user is a member of the group 'git':

```
rule
  match $0 ~ "git-(receive|upload)-pack" && \
    ($uid == 100 || group "git")
```

Notice the use of parentheses to enforce proper evaluation order. The '&&' operator has higher priority than '||'. Without parentheses the rule would match if either the command name matched the regexp and the user ID was 100, or if the user was a member of the 'git' group, no matter what command was issued.

### 4.4.3 Modifying variables

Rules can change or unset variables. Two separate groups of statements are provided to that effect. The `set`, `unset`, and `map` statements operate on positional, request, and user-defined variables. The `setenv`, `unsetenv`, `clrenv`, and `keepenv` statements modify the environment. These will be discussed in a separate subsection (see Section 4.4.4 [Environment], page 25).

Modifications to positional and request variables deserve a special explanation.

The only two request variables that can be modified (but not unset) are `$command` and `$program`.

Positional variables and the `$command` request variable are mutually dependent. If the `$command` is modified, the word splitting is applied to it and resulting words are assigned to the positional variables. Similarly, any modifications to positional variables trigger rebuilding of the `$command` variable from the modified arguments. Both operations are run immediately after the change that triggered them. Notice, however, that any transformations, including variable modifications, are executed after `match` statements have been evaluated, so that `match` always operates on unchanged variables, no matter where in the rule you place it,

If the rules result in accepting the request, then modified `$command` becomes the actual command that `rush` will execute.

Obviously, none of the request variables can be unset. You can however, unset a positional variable (excepting ‘\$0’). It is equivalent to removing the corresponding argument from the command line.

### 4.4.3.1 The set statement

The **set** statement modifies the value of a positional, request, or user-defined variable.

```
set name = value [rule]
set [n] = value [rule]
```

Sets the variable *name* to *value*. Prior to use, *value* undergoes backreference interpretation (see [backreference], page 8) and variable expansion (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16).

The second form assigns to the positional variable ‘\$*n*’. It is discussed in more detail in Section 4.4.5 [Transformations], page 26.

```
set name = value ~ s-expr [rule]
set [n] = value ~ s-expr [rule]
```

Applies the **sed** search-and-replace expression *s-expr* to *value* and assigns the result to the variable *name* or argument *n*. Both *value* and *s-expr* are subject to variable expansion and backreference interpretation.

```
set name =~ s-expr [rule]
set [n] =~ s-expr [rule]
```

Applies the **sed**-like search-and-replace expression *s-expr* to the current value of the variable *name* and stores the resulting string as its new value. Prior to use, *s-expr* undergoes backreference interpretation (see [backreference], page 8) and variable expansion (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16). This is a shortcut for

```
set name = ${name:-""} ~ s-expr
```

Second form modifies the value of the positional variable ‘\$*n*’. This statement is a shortcut for

```
set [n] = ${n:-""} ~ s-expr
```

See Section 4.4.5 [Transformations], page 26, for a detailed discussion.

The transformation expression, *s-expr*, is **sed**-like replace expression of the form:

```
s/regexp/replace/[flags]
```

where *regexp* is a *regular expression*, *replace* is a replacement for each part of the input that matches *regexp* and *flags* are optional flags that control the substitution. Both *regexp* and *replace* are described in Section “The ‘s’ Command” in *GNU sed*.

As in **sed**, you can give several replace expressions, separated by semicolons.

Supported *flags* are:

- 'g' Apply the replacement to *all* matches to the *regexp*, not just the first.
- 'i' Use case-insensitive matching
- 'x' *regexp* is an *extended regular expression* (see Section “Extended regular expressions” in *GNU sed*).
- '*number*' Only replace the *numberth* match of the *regexp*.  
 Note: the POSIX standard does not specify what should happen when you mix the 'g' and *number* modifiers. **Rush** follows the GNU **sed** implementation in this regard, so the interaction is defined to be: ignore matches before the *numberth*, and then match and replace all matches from the *numberth* on.

Normally, the *s-expr* is a quoted string, and as such it is subject to backslash interpretation. It is therefore important to properly escape backslashes, especially in *replace* part. Consider this example:

```
set bindir = $program ~ "s/(.*)\\//\\1/"
```

The intention is to extract the directory part of the executable program name and store it in the variable 'bindir'. Notice, that each backslash is escaped, so that the actual string that is compiled into a regular expression is

```
s/(.*)\\//\\1/
```

#### 4.4.3.2 The insert statement

The **insert** statement inserts new positional argument at a given position. Its syntax is similar to **set**:

```
insert [n] = value [rule]
insert [n] = value ~ s-expr [rule]
```

Shift arguments starting from *n* one position to the right (so that *n* becomes *n+1* etc.) and insert *value* at **argv**[*n*].

In the second form, the value to be inserted is computed by applying sed-expression *s-expr* to *value*.

Both *value* and *s-expr* are subject to variable expansion and backreference interpretation.

Example using this statement to insert the **--root=/tmp** argument at position 1:

```
insert [1] = "--root=/tmp"
```

Note that when inserting multiple arguments (e.g. an option with a value), you have two possibilities. First, you can insert each argument at its corresponding position. For example, to insert two arguments '--root' and '/tmp' starting at position 1, one can use:

```
insert [1] = "--root"
insert [2] = "/tmp"
```

Otherwise, you can revert the arguments and insert them at the same position, as shown in the example below:

```
insert [1] = "/tmp"
insert [1] = "--root"
```

#### 4.4.3.3 The unset statement

**unset *name*** [rule]  
Unset the variable *name*.

**unset *n*** [rule]  
Unset the positional argument *n* (an integer number greater than 0), shifting the remaining arguments one position left. The effect is the same as from `delete` (see Section 4.4.3.5 [delete], page 23).

#### 4.4.3.4 The remopt statement

The `remopt` statement removes from the command line all occurrences of the supplied option.

**remopt *sopt*** [rule]  
**remopt *sopt lopt*** [rule]

Remove from the command line all occurrences of the short option described by *sopt*. The *sopt* argument is the short option letter, optionally followed by a colon if that option takes a mandatory argument, or by two colons if it takes an optional argument.

Optional *lopt* supplies a long option equivalent to *sopt*. If no short option equivalent exists, use ‘\_’ as *sopt*, eventually followed by ‘:’ or ‘::’.

For example, to remove all occurrences of the `-r (--root)` option that takes a mandatory argument, use:

```
remopt r: root
```

#### 4.4.3.5 The delete statement

Another statement modifying the command line is `delete`:

**delete *n*** [rule]  
Delete *n*th argument.

**delete *i j*** [rule]  
Delete positional parameters between ‘*i*’ and ‘*j*’, inclusive.

Neither form can be used to delete the program name (‘\$0’).

For example, the following statement deletes all arguments from the command line, except for the program name:

```
delete 1 -1
```

To delete a single argument, `unset` can also be used. The following statements have the same effect:

```
delete 2
unset 2
```

#### 4.4.3.6 The map statement

```
map name file delim key kn vn [rule]
map [n] file delim key kn vn default [rule]
```

The ‘`map`’ statement uses file lookup to find a new value for the variable *name* (or, in its second form, for the positional variable ‘`$n`’).

Arguments are:

<i>file</i>	Name of the <i>map file</i> . It must begin with ‘/’ or ‘~/’. Before using, the file permissions and ownership are checked using the procedure described in [security checks], page 7.
<i>delim</i>	A string containing allowed field delimiters.
<i>key</i>	The value of the lookup key. Before using, it undergoes backslash interpretation and variable expansion.
<i>kn</i>	Number of the key field in <i>file</i> . Fields are numbered starting from 1.
<i>vn</i>	Number of the value field.
<i>default</i>	If supplied, this value is used as a replacement value, when the key was not found in <i>file</i> .

The map file consists of *records*, separated by newline characters (in other words, a record occupies one line). Each record consists of fields, separated by delimiters listed in *delim* argument. If *delim* contains a space character, then fields may be delimited by any amount of whitespace characters (spaces and/or tabulations). Otherwise, exactly one delimiter delimits fields.

Fields are numbered starting from 1.

The `map` action works as follows:

1. Variable expansion is performed on the *key* argument (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16) and the resulting value is used as lookup key.
2. The *file* is scanned for a record whose *kn*th field matches the lookup key.
3. If such a record is found, the value of its *vn*th field is assigned to the variable.
4. Otherwise, if *default* is supplied, it becomes the new value of the variable.
5. Otherwise, the variable remains unchanged.



For example, suppose that the file `/etc/passwd.rush` has the same syntax as the system `passwd` file (see Section “passwd” in *passwd(5) man page*). Then, the following statement will replace ‘\$0’ with the value of ‘shell’ field, using the current user name as a key:

```
map [0] /etc/passwd.rush : ${user} 1 7
```

See also Section 4.4.11 [Interactive], page 32, for another example of using this statement.

#### 4.4.4 Environment

The following actions modify the environment in which the program will be executed.

**clrenv** [rule]

Clear the environment.

**keepenv *list*** [rule]

Retain the names in *list* in the environment. This statement should be used in conjunction with `clrenv`.

Argument is a whitespace delimited list of variables to retain. Each element in the list can be either a variable name, or a shell-style globbing pattern, in which case all variables matching that pattern will be retained, or a variable name followed by an equals sign and a value, in which case it will be retained only if its actual value equals the supplied one. For example, to retain only variables with names beginning with ‘LC\_’:

```
keepenv "LC_*"
```

**setenv *name* = *value*** [rule]

Set the environment variable *name*. The *value* argument is subject to variable expansion (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16) and backreference interpretation (see [backreference], page 8).

For example, to modify the PATH value:

```
setenv PATH = "$PATH:/opt/bin"
```

**unsetenv *list*** [rule]

Unset environment variables listed as arguments.

Argument is a whitespace delimited list of variables to retain. Each element in the list can be either a variable name, or a shell-style globbing pattern, in which case all variables matching that pattern will be unset, or a variable name followed by an equals sign and a value, in which case it will be unset only if its actual value equals the supplied one.

**evalenv *string*** [rule]

Performs backslash interpretation, backreference interpretation and variable expansion on *string* and discards the result. This statement is similar to the shell’s *colon* statement. For example, the following statement will

define the `DEPTH` variable and initialize it to 10, unless it is already defined:

```
evalenv ${DEPTH:=10}
```

### 4.4.5 Transformations

Transformations are special actions that modify entire command line or particular arguments from it (positional variables).

Statements that modify variable have been described in the previous section: these are `set`, `insert`, `unset`, `remopt`, `delete` and `map` statements. When `set` or `map` is applied to the ‘`command`’ variable, it modifies entire command line. When these statements are applied to an index (‘`[n]`’), they modify the corresponding positional variable (argument). This subsection discusses the implications of modifying these variable and illustrates them with some examples.

Positional variables and the `$command` request variable are mutually dependent. If the `$command` is modified, the word splitting is applied to it and resulting words are assigned to the positional variables. Similarly, any modifications to positional variables trigger rebuilding of the `$command` variable from the modified arguments. See Section 4.4.3 [Modifying variables], page 20, for more detail on it.

Let’s consider several examples.

1. Echo the command line

```
rule
  set command = "/bin/echo $command"
```

2. Remove all occurrences of `-r` option and its arguments from the command line, and then adds its own `-r` option and replaces ‘`svnserve`’ with the full program file name.

There are at least three different ways to do so.

- a. The recommended approach is to use the `remopt` and `insert` statements, as shown below:

```
rule svn
  match $command ~ "^svnserve -t"
  set program = "/usr/bin/svnserve"
  remopt r:
  insert [1] = "-r"
  insert [2] = "/svnroot"
```

- b. The same can be achieved using regular expressions. This was the default in versions of `rush` prior to 2.0:

```
rule svn
  match $command ~ "^svnserve -t"
  set command =~ "s/-r *[^ ]*//"
  set command =~ \
    "s|^svnserve |/usr/bin/svnserve -r /svnroot |"
```

Notice the use of ‘|’ as a delimiter in s-command, in order to avoid escaping each ‘/’ in the pathname. Without it, the expression in the second `set` command will be

```
"s/^svnserve /\|/usr\|/bin\|/svnserve -r \|/svnroot /"
```

- c. The same rule, rewritten using the single `set` statement:

```
rule svn
  match $command ~ "^svnserve -t"
  set command =~ "s|-r *[\^ ]*||;\|
    s|^svnserve |/usr/bin/svnserve -r /svnroot |"
```

3. Override the executable program name.

```
rule cvs
  match $command ~ "^cvs server"
  set [0] = /usr/bin/cvs
```

#### 4.4.6 System Actions

System actions provide an interface to the operating system.

`umask` *mask* [rule]

Set the umask. The *mask* must be an octal value not greater than ‘0777’. The default umask is ‘022’.

`newgrp` *group-id* [rule]  
`newgroup` *group-id* [rule]

Change the current group ID to *group-id*, which is either a numeric value or a name of an existing group.

`chroot` *dir* [rule]

Change the root directory to that specified in *dir*. This directory will be used for file names beginning with ‘/’. The argument is subject to tilde, variable, and backreference expansions. During tilde expansion, a tilde (‘~’) at the start of string is replaced with the absolute pathname of the user’s home directory. The two other expansions are described in Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16, and [backreference], page 8.

The directory *dir* must be properly set up to execute the commands. For example, the following rule defines execution of `sftp-server` in an environment chrooted to the user’s home directory:

```
rule sftp
  match $program ~ "^./sftp-server"
  set [0] = "bin/sftp-server"
  chroot "~"
```

For this to work, each user’s home must contain the directory `bin` with a copy of `sftp-server` in it, as well as all directories and files that are needed for executing it, in particular `lib`.

**chdir *dir*** [rule]

Change to the directory *dir*. The argument is subject to tilde, variable (see Section 4.4.1.5 [Variable expansion], page 16), and backreference expansions (see [backreference], page 8). If both **chdir** and **chroot** are specified, then **chroot** is applied first.

**limits *res*** [rule]

Impose limits on system resources, as defined by *res*. The argument consists of *commands*, optionally separated by any amount of whitespace. A command is a single command letter followed by a number, that specifies the limit. The command letters are case-insensitive and coincide with those used by the shell **ulimit** utility:

<b>Command</b>	<b>The limit it sets</b>
A	max address space (KB)
C	max core file size (KB)
D	max data size (KB)
F	maximum file size (KB)
M	max locked-in-memory address space (KB)
N	max number of open files
R	max resident set size (KB)
S	max stack size (KB)
T	max CPU time (MIN)
U	max number of processes
L	max number of logins for this user (see below)
P	process priority -20..20 (negative = high priority)

For example:

```
limits T10 R20 U16 P20
```

If some limit cannot be set, execution of the rule aborts. In particular, the ‘L’ limit can be regarded as a condition, rather than an action. Setting **limit Ln** succeeds only if no more than *n* **rush** instances are simultaneously running for the same user. This can be used to limit the number of simultaneously open sessions.

The use of ‘L’ resource automatically enables *forked mode*. See Section 4.4.8 [Accounting and Forked Mode], page 29, for more information about it.

### 4.4.7 Fall-through

The *fall-through* statement is a special action that does not execute the requested command. When a matching fall-through rule is encountered, **rush** evaluates it and continues scanning its configuration for the next matching rule. Any modifications to the request found in the fall-through rule take effect immediately, which means that subsequent rules will see modi-

fied command line and environment. Execution of any other actions found in the fall-through rule is delayed until a usual rule is found.

A fall-through rule is declared using the following statement:

```
fall-through [rule]
fallthrough [rule]
  Declare a fall-through rule.
```

Usually this statement is placed as the last statement in a rule, e.g.:

```
rule default
  umask 002
  clrenv
  keepenv HOME USERNAME PATH
  fall-through
```

Fall-through rules provide a way to set default values for subsequent rules. For example, any rules that follow the ‘default’ rule shown above, will inherit the umask and environment set there.

One can also use fall-through rules to “normalize” command lines. For example, consider this rule:

```
rule default
  set [0] =~ "s|.|*|/|'"
  fall-through
```

It will remove all path components from the first command line argument. As a result, all subsequent rules may expect a bare binary name as the first argument.

Yet another common use for such rules is to enable accounting (see the next subsection), or set resource limits for the rest of rules:

```
rule default
  limit l1
  fall-through
```

#### 4.4.8 Accounting and Forked Mode

GNU Rush is able to operate in two modes, which we call default and forked. When operating in the default mode, the process image of **rush** itself is overwritten by the command being executed. Thus, when it comes to launching the requested command, the running instance of **rush** ceases to exist.

There is also another operation mode, which we call *forked mode*. When running in this mode, **rush** executes the requested command in a subprocess, and remains in memory supervising its execution. Once the command terminates, **rush** exits.

One advantage of the forked mode is that it allows you to keep *accounting*, i.e. to note who is doing what and to keep a history of invocations. The accounting, in turn, can be used to limit simultaneous executions of commands (*logins*, in GNU Rush terminology), as requested by ‘L’ command to **limit** statement (see [L limit], page 28).

The forked mode is enabled on a per-rule basis, for rules that contain either ‘L’ command in the `limit` statement, or ‘`acct on`’ command:

`acct bool` [rule]

Turn accounting mode on or off, depending on *bool*. The argument can be one of the following: ‘`yes`’, ‘`on`’, ‘`t`’, ‘`true`’, or ‘`1`’, to enable accounting, and ‘`no`’, ‘`off`’, ‘`nil`’, ‘`false`’, ‘`0`’, to disable it.

Notice, that there is no need in explicit `acct on` command, if you use `limit L`.

The notion ‘`rule contains`’, used above, means that either the rule in question contains that statement, or inherits it from one of the fall-through rules (see Section 4.4.7 [Fall-through], page 28) that were matched before it. In fact, in most cases the accounting should affect all rules, therefore we suggest to enable it in a fall-through rule at the beginning of the configuration file, e.g.:

```
rule default
  acct on
  fall-through
```

If the need be, you can disable it for some of the subsequent rules by placing `acct off` in it. Notice, that this will disable accounting only, the forked mode will remain in action. To disable it as well and enforce default mode for a given rule, use the following statement:

`fork bool` [rule]

Enable or disable forked mode. This statement is mainly designed as a way of disabling the forked mode for a given rule.

Once accounting is enabled, you can use the `rushwho` command to see the list of users presently running some commands (see Chapter 9 [Rushwho], page 49) and view the history of last accesses using `rushlast` command (see Chapter 10 [Rushlast], page 53).

#### 4.4.9 Post-process Notification

Rush can be configured to send a *notification* over INET or UNIX sockets, after completing user request. It is done using the `post-socket` statement:

`post-socket url` [rule]

Notify URL about completing the user request. This statement implies forked mode (see Section 4.4.8 [Accounting and Forked Mode], page 29).

Allowed formats for *url* are:

```
inet://hostname[:port]
```

Connect to remote host *hostname* using TCP/IP. *Hostname* is the host name or IP address of the remote machine. Optional *port* specifies the port number to connect to. It can be either a decimal port number or a service name from

`/etc/services`. If *port* is absent, ‘`tcpmux`’ (port 1) is assumed.

```
unix://filename
local://filename
```

Connect to a UNIX socket *filename*.

For example:

```
rule default
  post-socket "inet://localhost"
```

The GNU Rush notification protocol is based on TCPMUX (RFC 1078 (<http://www.rfc-editor.org/rfc/rfc1078.txt>)).

After establishing connection, `rush` sends the rule tag followed by a CRLF pair. The rule tag acts as a service name. The remote party replies with a single character indicating positive (+) or negative (-) acknowledgment, optionally followed by a message of explanation, and terminated with a CRLF.

If positive acknowledgment is received, `rush` sends a single line, consisting of the user name and the executed command line, separated by a single space character. The line is terminated with a CRLF.

After sending this line, `rush` closes the connection.

The post-process notification feature can be used to schedule execution of some actions after certain rules.

See Section 6.7 [notification example], page 43, for an example of how to use this feature.

#### 4.4.10 Exit rule

The *exit* rule does not execute any commands. Instead, it writes the supplied error message to the specified file descriptor and exits immediately. The exit rule is defined using the following statement:

```
exit fd message [rule]
exit message [rule]
```

Write textual message *message* to a file descriptor, given by the optional argument *fd*. If *fd* is absent, ‘2’ (standard error) is used.

The *message* argument can be either a quoted string, or an identifier.

If it is a quoted string, it is subject to backreference interpretation and variable expansion prior to being used.

For example (note the use of line continuation character):

```
exit "\
  \r\nYou are not allowed to execute that command.\r\n\
  \r\nIf you think this is wrong, ask <foo@bar.com> for assistance.\r\n"
```

If *message* is an identifier, it must be the name of a predefined error message (see Section 4.3.4 [Error Messages], page 12). The corresponding message text will be printed. For example:

```
exit nologin-message
```

If the identifier does not match any predefined error message name, an error of type ‘config-error’ is signaled and `rush` exits.

Exit actions are useful for writing *trap rules*, i.e. the rules that are intended to trap incorrect or prohibited command lines and to return customized reply messages in such cases. Consider the following rule:

```
rule git
  match $program ~ "^git-." && $1 ~ "~/sources/[^ ]+\.git$"
  set command =~ "s|.*|/usr/bin/git-shell -c \"&\""
```

It allows the client to use only those Git repositories that are located under `/sources` directory<sup>3</sup>. If a user tries to access a repository outside this root, he will be returned a default error message, saying ‘You are not permitted to execute this command’ (see Section 4.3.4 [Error Messages], page 12). You can, however, provide a more convenient message in this case. To do so, place the following after the ‘git’ rule:

```
rule git-trap
  match $command ~ "^git-."
  exit "fatal: Use of this repository is prohibited."
```

This rule will trap all git invocations that do not match the ‘git’ rule.

#### 4.4.11 Interactive Access

Sometimes it may be necessary to allow some group of users limited access to interactive shells. GNU Rush contains provisions for such usage. When `rush` is invoked without `-c` it assumes interactive usage. In this case only rules explicitly marked as interactive are considered, the rest of rules is ignored.

`interactive bool` [rule]

If *bool* is ‘true’, this statement marks the rule it appears in as interactive. This rule will match only if `rush` is invoked without command line arguments.

Unless command line transformations are applied, interactive rule finishes by executing `/bin/sh`. The first word in the command line (`argv[0]`) is normally set to the base name of the command being executed prefixed by a dash sign.

Consider the following example:

```
rule login
  interactive true
  group rshell
  map program /etc/rush.shell : ${user} 1 2
  set [0] = ${program} ~ "s|^.*|/||;s,^,-r,"
```

```
rule nologin
```

---

<sup>3</sup> See Section 6.6 [git], page 42, for a better way to handle Git accesses.



```
interactive true
exit You don't have interactive access to this machine.
```

The ‘login’ rule will match interactive user requests if the user is a member of the group ‘rshell’. It uses `/etc/rush.shell` to select a shell to use for that user (see Section 4.4.3.6 [map], page 24). This map file consists of two fields, separated by a colon. If the shell is found, its base name, prefixed with ‘-r’, will be used as ‘argv[0]’ (this indicates a restricted login shell). Otherwise, the trap rule ‘nologin’ will be matched, which will output the given diagnostics message and terminate `rush`.

To test interactive access, use the `-i` option:

```
rush --test -i
```

#### 4.4.12 Localization

GNU Rush is internationalized, which means that it is able to produce log and diagnostic messages in any language, if a corresponding translation file is provided. This file is called a *localization* or *domain* file. To find an appropriate localization file, `rush` uses the following parameters:

*locale*      *Locale name* is a string that describes the language, territory and optionally, the character set to use. It consists of the language (ISO 639) and country (ISO 3166) codes, separated by an underscore character, e.g. ‘en\_US’ or ‘pl\_PL’. If a character set is specified, its name follows the country code and is separated from it by a ‘@’ character.

There are two special locale names: ‘C’ or ‘POSIX’ mean to use the default POSIX locale, and ‘’ (an empty string), means to use the value of the environment variable `LC_ALL` as the locale name.

*locale\_dir*    Directory where localization files are located. If not specified, a predefined set of directories is searched for the matching file.

*domain*      *Text domain* defines the base name of the localization file.

Given these parameters, the name of the full pathname of the localization file is defined as:

```
locale_dir/locale/LC_MESSAGES/domain.mo
```

GNU Rush produces three kinds of messages:

diagnostics

These are diagnostics messages that GNU Rush produces to its log output (syslog, unless in test mode).

error messages

Messages sent to the remote party when `rush` is not able to execute the request (see Section 4.3.4 [Error Messages], page 12).

exit messages

These are messages sent to the remote party by `exit` rules (see Section 4.4.10 [Exit], page 31).

These messages use different domain names (and may use different locale directories). The diagnostics and error messages use textual domain ‘`rush`’. The corresponding locale directory is defined at compile time and defaults to `prefix/share/locale`, where *prefix* stands for the installation prefix, which is `/usr/local`, by default.

GNU Rush is shipped with several localization files, which are installed by default. As of version 2.1, these files cover the following languages: Chinese, Danish, Dutch, Finnish, French, Galician, German, Polish, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish, Swedish, Ukrainian, and Vietnamese. If the localization you need is not in this list, visit <http://translationproject.org/domain/rush.html>. If it is not there either, consider writing it (see Section “Translators” in *GNU gettext utilities*, for a detailed instructions on how to do that).

Exit messages use custom domain files. It is the responsibility of the system administrator to provide and install such files.

#### 4.4.12.1 Localization Directives

The following configuration directives control localization. They are available for use in `rule` statements:

`locale name` [rule]

Sets the locale name. To specify empty locale, use ‘`""`’ as *name* (recall that empty locale name means to use the value of the environment variable `LC_ALL` as locale name).

`locale-dir name` [rule]

Sets the name of the locale directory.

`text-domain name` [rule]

Sets the textual domain name.

The following configuration fragment illustrates their use:

```
rule l10n
  locale "pl_PL"
  text-domain "rush-config"
  fall-through
```

Different users may have different localization preferences. See [per-user l10n], page 36, for a description of how to implement this.

#### 4.4.12.2 Writing Your Localization

You need to write a localization file for your configuration script if it implements exit rules (see Section 4.4.10 [Exit], page 31) and changes user locale (see Section 4.4.12.1 [Localization Directives], page 34).

Preparing a localization consists of three stages: extracting exit messages and forming a PO file, editing this file, compiling and installing it. The discussion below describes these stages in detail.

1. Creating a ‘po’ file.

A PO (*Portable Object*) file is a plain text file, containing original messages and their translations for a particular language. See Section “PO Files” in *GNU gettext utilities*, for a description of its format.

The script `rush-po` extracts translatable messages from the configuration file and produces a valid PO file. It takes the name of the rush configuration file as its argument and produces the PO file on the standard output, or in the file given with the `-o` (`--output`) option. E.g., to create a PO file from your configuration file, run:

```
rush-po -o myconf.po /usr/local/etc/rush.rc
```

2. Editing the PO file

Open the created PO file with your favorite editor and supply message translations after `msgstr` keywords. Although you can use any editor capable of handling plain text files, we recommend to use GNU Emacs, which provides a special *po-mode*. See Section “Basics” in *GNU gettext utilities*, for guidelines on editing PO files and using the *po-mode*.

3. Compiling the PO file

When ready, the PO file needs be compiled into a MO (*Message Object*) file, which is directly readable by `rush`. This is done using `msgfmt` utility from GNU *gettext*:

```
msgfmt -o myconf.mo myconf.po
```

See Section “`msgfmt` Invocation” in *GNU gettext utilities*, for a detailed description of the `msgfmt` utility.

After creating the MO file, copy it into appropriate directory. It is important that the installed MO file uses the naming scheme described in [localization file naming], page 33.

## 4.5 Include

The `include` statement forces inclusion of the named file in that file location:

```
include file [rule]
  Include file file.
```

The statement is evaluated when parsing the configuration file, which means that *file* undergoes only *tilde expansion*: the two characters ‘~/’ appearing at the beginning of *file* are replaced with the full path name of the current user’s home directory.

If *file* is a directory, that directory is searched for a file whose name coincides with the current user name. If such a file is found, it is included.

In any case, if the file named by *file* (after tilde expansion) does not exist, no error is reported, and parsing of the configuration file continues.

Before including the file **rush** checks if it is secure, using the same rules as for the main configuration file (see [security checks], page 7). The exact list of checks can be tuned using the **include-security** statement (see Section 4.3.6 [include-security], page 13).

The **include** statement can be used only within a rule. The included file may not contain **rule** and **global** statements.

This statement provides a convenient way for user-dependent **rush** configuration. For example, the following fall-through rule (see Section 4.4.7 [Fall-through], page 28) allows the administrator to keep each user personal configuration in a file named **.rush**, located in the user's home directory:

```
rule user
  include "~/ .rush"
  fall-through
```

Of course, it is supposed that such a per-user file, if it exists, is writable only for super-user.

The use of include files may be especially useful for per-user localization (see Section 4.4.12 [Localization], page 33). It suffices to provide a fall-through rule, similar to the one above, and to place a **locale** directive in **~/ .rush** files, according to the user preferences.

## 5 Default Configuration

You can compile `rush` with the default configuration built in the binary. Such a binary can then be run without configuration file. However, if a configuration file is present, it will be used instead of the built-in configuration.

To compile `rush` with the built-in configuration, first compile the package as usual. Then, prepare a configuration file, and test it using `rush --lint`. If the test shows no errors, reconfigure the package, using the `--with-default-config` option:

```
./configure --with-default-config=file
```

where *file* is the name of your configuration file. Then, recompile and install the package.

You can inspect the built-in configuration using the `--show-default` option:

```
rush --show-default
```



## 6 Usage Tips

In this chapter we will explain how to write GNU Rush configuration rules for several popular remote copy and version control system utilities. For this purpose, we assume the following setup:

- Users are allowed to use `scp` and `rsync` to upload files to the `/incoming` directory and to copy files to and from their `~/public_html` directory. The actual location of the `/incoming` directory is `/home/ftp`, but that must be transparent to users, i.e. they use `scp file host:/incoming` (not `host:/home/ftp/incoming`) to upload files.
- Additionally, users may use `sftp` to manage their `~/public_html` directory. In this case, to prevent users from accessing other directories, `sftp-server` is executed in a chrooted environment.
- The server runs three version control system repositories, whose corresponding root directories are:

VCS	Repository Root
cvs	/cvsroot
svn	/svnroot
git	/gitroot

### 6.1 scp

The `scp` utility is executed on the server side with option `-t`, when copying files to server, and with `-f` when copying from it. Thus, the basic templates for `scp` rules are:

```
# Copying to server:
rule scp-to
  match $command ~ "^scp -t"
  ...

# Copying from server:
rule scp-from
  match $command ~ "^scp -f"
  ...
```

You may also wish to allow for `-v` ('verbose') command line option. In this case, the 'scp-to' rule will become:

```
rule scp-to
  match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-t"
  ...
```

Now, we want users to be able to upload files to `/home/ftp/incoming` directory. Moreover, the `/home/ftp` directory prefix must be invisible to them. We should also make sure that the user cannot get outside the `incoming` directory by using `../` components in his upload path. So, our first rule for `scp` uploads will be:

```

rule scp-to-incoming
  match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-t /incoming/" && \
    ${-1} !~ "\\.\\"/>

```

The `match` statement ensures that no relative components are used. The two `set` statements ensure that the right `scp` binary is used and that `/home/ftp` prefix is prepended to the upload path.

Other than uploading to `/incoming`, users must be able to use `scp` to manage `public_html` directories located in their homes. They should use relative paths for that, i.e., the command:

```
$ scp file.html server:
```

will copy file `file.html` to `~/public_html/file.html` on the server. The corresponding rule is:

```

rule scp-home
  match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-[tf] [~/].*" && \
    ${-1} !~ "\\.\\"/>

```

Finally, we provide two trap rules for diagnostic purposes:

```

rule scp-to-trap
  match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-t"
  exit "Error: Uploads to this directory prohibited"

rule scp-from
  match $command ~ "^scp (-v )?-f"
  exit "Error: Downloads from this directory prohibited"

```

## 6.2 rsync

On the server side, `rsync` is executed with the `--server` command line option. In addition, when copying files from the server, the `--sender` option is used. This makes it possible to discern between incoming and outgoing requests.

In our setup, `rsync` is used the same way as `scp`, so the two rules will be:



```

rule rsync-incoming
  match $command ~ "^rsync --server" && \
    $command !~ --sender && \
    ${-1} ~ "/incoming/" && ${-1} !~ "\\.\.\/"
  set [0] =~ "s|^|usr/bin/|"
  set [-1] =~ "s|^|home/ftp/|"

rule rsync-home
  match $command ~ "^rsync" && \
    ${-1} !~ "^[^/]" && \
    ${-1} !~ "\\.\.\/"
  set [0] = "s|^|usr/bin/|"
  set [-1] =~ "s|^|public_html/|"
  chdir "~"

```

The trap rules for rsync are trivial:

```

rule rsync-to-trap
  match $command ~ "^rsync.*--sender"
  exit "Error: Downloads from this directory prohibited"

rule rsync-from-trap
  match $command ~ "^rsync"
  exit "Error: Uploads to this directory prohibited"

```

## 6.3 sftp

Executing `sftp` on the client machine invokes `sftp-server`, without arguments, on the server.

We want to allow our users to use `sftp` to manage their `public_html` directories. The `sftp-server` will be executed with the user's home directory as root, in a chrooted environment. For this to work, each user's home must contain a copy of `sftp-server` (which we'll place in `~/bin` subdirectory) and all files it needs for normal execution: `/etc/group` and `/etc/passwd` with one entry (for the user and his group), and, unless the binary is linked statically, all the shared libraries it is linked with, in the subdirectory `~/lib`.

Given these prerequisites, the following rule will ensure proper `sftp` interaction:

```

rule sftp-incoming
  match $command ~ "^.*/sftp-server"
  set [0] = "/bin/sftp-server"
  chroot "~"
  chdir "public_html"

```

Notice the last action. Due to it, users don't have to type `cd public_html` at the beginning of their `sftp` sessions.

## 6.4 cvs

Using `cvs` over `ssh` invokes `cvs server` on the server machine. In the simplest case, the following rule will do to give users access to CVS repositories:

```
rule cvs
  match $command ~ "^cvs server"
  set command ~ "s|^cvs|/usr/bin/cvs -f"
```

However, `cvs` as of version 1.12.13 does not allow to limit root directories that users are allowed to access. It does have `--allow-root` option, but unfortunately this option is ignored when invoked as `cvs server`. To restrict possible roots, we have to run `cvs` in a chrooted environment. Let's suppose we created an environment for `cvs` in directory `/var/cvs`, with the `cvs` binary located in `/var/cvs/bin` and repository root directory being `/var/cvs/cvsroot`. Then, we can use the following rule:

```
rule cvs
  match $command ~ "^cvs server"
  set [0] = "/bin/cvs"
  chroot "/var/cvs"
```

## 6.5 svn

Remote access to SVN repositories is done via `svnserve` binary. It is executed on server with `-t` option. The `-r` option can be used to restrict access to a subset of root directories. So, we can use the following rule:

```
rule svn
  match $command ~ "^svnserve -t"
  set command =~ "s|-r *[^ ]*||"
  set command =~ \
    "s|^svnserve |/usr/bin/svnserve -r /svnroot|"
```

The first `set command` action removes any `-r` options the user might have specified and enforces a single root directory. A more restrictive action can be used to improve security:

```
set command =~ "s|.*/usr/bin/svnserve -r /svnroot|"
```

## 6.6 git

Remote access to Git repositories over `ssh` causes execution of `git-receive-pack` and `git-upload-pack` on the server. The simplest rule for Git is:

```
rule git
  set $command ~ "^git-(receive|upload)-pack"
  set [0] =~ "s|^|/usr/bin/|"
```

The `set` action is necessary to ensure the proper location of Git binaries to use. This example supposes they are placed in `/usr/bin`, you will have to tailor it if they are located elsewhere on your system.

To limit Git accesses to repositories under `/gitroot` directory, modify the `$1`, as shown in the example below:

```
rule git
  match $command ~ "^git-(receive|upload)-pack"
  set [1] =~ "^/gitroot[^ ]+\.git$"
  set [0] =~ "s|^|/usr/bin/|"
```

To provide more helpful error messages, you may follow this rule by a trap rule (see Section 4.4.10 [Exit], page 31):

```
# Trap the rest of Git requests:
rule git-trap
  match $command ~ "^git-."
  exit "fatal: access to this repository is denied."
```

## 6.7 Notification

In this section we will show how to set up a mail notification for Rush rules. Let's suppose we wish to receive emails for each upload by `scp-to` rule (see Section 6.1 [scp], page 39). To do so, we add the following fall through rule to the beginning of `rush.rc`:

```
rule default
  post-socket "inet://localhost"
  fall-through
```

This will enable notifications for each rule located below this one. Missing port in `post-socket` statement means `rush` will be using the default `'tcpmux'` port.

To receive and process these requests, you will need an `inetd` capable to handle TCPMUX. We recommend the one from GNU Inetutils package (GNU Inetutils (<http://www.gnu.org/software/inetutils>)). In `/etc/inetd.conf` file, we add:

```
# Enable TCPMUX handling.
tcpmux          stream  tcp  nowait  root  internal
# Handle 'scp-to' service.
tcpmux/+scp-to  stream  tcp  nowait  root  \
                /usr/sbin/tcpd  /bin/rushmail
```

The program `/bin/rushmail` does the actual notification. Following is its simplest implementation:

```
#!/bin/sh
```

```
read user command
```

```
/usr/sbin/sendmail -oi -t <<EOT
```

```
From: GNU Rush Notification <devnull@localhost>
```

```
To: <root@localhost>
```

```
Subject: GNU Rush notification
```

```
Be informed that $user executed $command.
```

```
EOT
```

## 7 Test Mode

GNU Rush provides a special *test mode*, intended to test configuration files and to emulate execution of commands. Test mode is enabled by the `--test` command line option (aliases: `--lint`, `-t`). When `rush` is given this option, the following occurs:

1. All diagnostic messages are redirected to standard error, instead of `syslog`.
2. If a single non-option argument is present, it is taken as a name of the configuration file to use.
3. The configuration file is parsed. If parsing fails, the program exits with the code 1.
4. If the `-c` option is present, `rush` processes its argument as usual (see Chapter 2 [Operation], page 3), except that the command itself is not executed.
5. Otherwise, if `-i` option is present, `rush` emulates interactive usage, but does not execute the final command.

An exit status of 0 means no errors, 1 means an error has occurred.

You can also emulate access by a particular user, by supplying his user name via the `--user (-u)` option. This option implies `--test`.

In test mode, you can set debugging level (see Section 4.3.2 [Debugging], page 11) from the command line, using the `--debug (-d)` command line option. It expects a single number specifying debugging level as its argument. The debugging level set this way overrides settings from the configuration file.

Here are several examples that illustrate the use of test mode in various cases:

1. Test default configuration file:
 

```
$ rush --test
```
2. Test configuration file `sample.rc`:
 

```
$ rush --test sample.rc
```
3. Test interactive access
 

```
$ rush --test -i sample.rc
```
4. Test the configuration file and emulate execution of the command `cvs server`. Use debugging level 2:
 

```
$ rush --test --debug=2 -c "cvs server"
```
5. Same, but for user 'jeff':
 

```
$ rush --user=jeff --debug=2 -c "cvs server"
```

Note, that you don't need to specify `--test` along with `--user` or `-i` options.
6. Same, but use `sample.rc` instead of the default configuration file:
 

```
$ rush --test --debug=2 -c "cvs server" sample.rc
```

## 7.1 Dump Mode

Dump mode is similar to test mode. The main difference is that in this mode, `rush` dumps to the standard output a description of the user request after performing all checks and transformations.

The mode is requested by the `--dump=attr` (`-D attr`) option. The argument *attr* is a comma-separated list of the names of attributes to be included in the dump, or the word `'all'`, standing for all attributes.

Additional options and arguments are the same as for the `--test` option.

The description is formatted as a JSON object<sup>1</sup> with the following attributes. These are also the allowed values for the *attr* list:

<code>cmdline</code>	Command line after transformations.
<code>argv</code>	Array of command line arguments after transformations.
<code>prog</code>	Name of the program to be executed. If <code>'null'</code> , <code>argv[0]</code> will be used.
<code>interactive</code>	<code>'0'</code> for normal requests, <code>'1'</code> for interactive requests.
<code>pw_name</code>	Name of the user from the system user database.
<code>pw_uid</code>	UID of the user.
<code>pw_gid</code>	GID of the user.
<code>pw_dir</code>	Home directory of the user, as set in the system user database.
<code>umask</code>	Value of the umask (octal).
<code>chroot_dir</code>	Chroot directory.
<code>home_dir</code>	Current working directory.
<code>gid</code>	New GID as set by the <code>newgrp</code> action, or <code>'-1'</code> if unchanged.
<code>fork</code>	Fork mode. It is a three-state attribute: <code>'0'</code> meaning <i>disabled</i> , <code>'1'</code> meaning <i>enabled</i> , and <code>'-1'</code> meaning <i>default state</i> .
<code>acct</code>	Accounting mode. See <code>'fork'</code> , for a description of possible values.
<code>text_domain</code>	Textual domain for <code>i18n</code> .
<code>localedir</code>	Locale directory for <code>i18n</code> .
<code>locale</code>	Locale name
<code>environ</code>	Dump of the environment (array of assignments).
<code>vars</code>	Defined variables, as a JSON object.

The attribute `'all'` stands for all attribute in the same order as listed in the table above.

---

<sup>1</sup> Well, almost. It diverges from the JSON standard in that slash characters are not escaped in string objects.

## 8 Option Summary

This chapter provides a short summary of `rush` command line options.

- `-c command`  
Specify the command to run.
- `-C test`  
`--security-check=test`  
Configure security checks for the main configuration file. See Section 4.3.6 [include-security], page 13, for the description of *test* argument. See [security checks], page 7, for the discussion of the available security tests.
- `-d number`  
`--debug=number`  
Set debugging level.
- `--dump=attrs`  
`-D attrs` Run in *request dump mode*. Argument is a comma-separated list of attribute names. See Section 7.1 [dump mode], page 46, for a detailed description of the request dump mode.
- `-i` Emulate interactive access. See Chapter 7 [Test Mode], page 45.
- `--show-default`  
Display the default built-in configuration. See Chapter 5 [Default Configuration], page 37, for more information.
- `-t`  
`--test`  
`--lint` Run in test mode. An optional argument may be used with this option to specify alternative configuration file name, e.g.:  

```
$ rush --lint ./test.rc
```

If the `-c` option is also specified, `rush` emulates the normal processing for the command, but does not execute it.
- `-x`  
`--trace` Print parser traces. When used twice, print lexical scanner traces as well. This option is intended for debugging.
- `-T` Test scanner mode. This option is used by the `rush` testsuite.
- `-u name`  
`--user=name`  
Emulate access by user *name*. This option implies `--test` and is valid only when used by root and in conjunction with the `-c` option.
- `-v`  
`--version`  
Display program version.

**-h**  
**--help**     Display a short help message.  
**--usage**    Display a concise usage summary.



## 9 The `rushwho` utility.

The `rushwho` utility displays a list of users who are currently using `rush`. The utility operates on default Rush database, which is maintained if `rush` runs in accounting mode (see Section 4.4.8 [Accounting and Forked Mode], page 29). The following is a sample output from `rushwho`:

```

Login   Rule   Start   Time      PID      Command
jeff    sftp  Sun 12:17 00:58:26 10673    bin/sftp-server
```

The information displayed is:

Login	The login name of the user.
Rule	The tag of the rule he is served under (see Section 4.4 [Rule], page 14).
Start	Time when the rule began execution.
Time	Duration of the session.
PID	PID of the running command.
Command	Command line being executed.

This format is a built-in default. It may be changed either by setting the `RUSHWHO_FORMAT` environment variable to the desired format string, or by using `--format` command line option.

### 9.1 Rushwho Options

This section summarizes the command line options understood by `rushwho` utility.

`-F string`

`--format=string`

Use *string* instead of the default format, described in Chapter 9 [Rushwho], page 49. See Section 9.2 [Formats], page 50, for a detailed description of the output format syntax. If *string* begins with a '@', then this character is removed from it, and the resulting string is treated as the name of the file to read. The contents of this file is the format string. The file is read literally, except that lines beginning with ';' are ignored (they can be used to introduce comments). For example, `rushwho --format=@formfile` reads in the contents of the file named `formfile`.

`-f dir`

`--file=dir`

Use database directory *dir*, instead of the default. By default, database files are located in `/usr/local/var/rush`.

-H  
 --no-header      Do not display header line.

-v  
 --version        Display program version.

-h  
 --help          Display a short help message.

--usage         Display a concise usage summary.

## 9.2 Output Formats

A format string controls the output of every record from GNU Rush accounting database. It may contain following four types of objects:

### Ordinary characters

These are copied to the output verbatim.

Escapes      An escape is a backslash ('\''), followed by a single character. It is interpreted as follows:

Escape	Output
\a	Audible bell character (ASCII 7)
\b	Backspace character (ASCII 8)
\e	Escape character (ASCII 27)
\f	Form-feed character (ASCII 12)
\n	Newline character (ASCII 10)
\r	Carriage return character (ASCII 13)
\t	Horizontal tabulation character (ASCII 9)
\v	Vertical tabulation character (ASCII 11)
\\	A single backslash ('\'')
\"	A double-quote.

Any escape not listed in the table above results in its second character being output.

### Quoted strings

Strings are delimited by single or double quotes. Within a string escape sequences are interpreted as described above.

### Format specifications

A *format specification* is a kind of function, which outputs a particular piece of information from the database record.

Each format specification starts with an opening brace and ends with a closing brace. The first word after the brace is the name of the format

specification. Remaining words are *positional arguments* followed by *keyword arguments*. Both are optional. When specified, keyword arguments must follow positional ones. A keyword argument begins with a colon. For example:

(time) A single format specification.

(time 10) The same format specification with the output width limited to 10 characters.

(time 10 Duration)

The ‘time’ format specification, with the output width limited to 10 characters and ‘Duration’ as a header title.

(time 10 "Session Duration" :right :format %H:%M)

The same with two keyword arguments: ‘:right’ and ‘:format’. The latter takes the string ‘%H:%M’ as its argument. Notice the use of quoted string to preserve the whitespace.

A full list of format specifications follows.

**newline** [*count*] [Format Spec]  
Causes the newline character to be output. If the optional *count* is supplied, that many newlines will be printed

**tab** [*num*] [Format Spec]  
Advance to the next tab stop in the output stream. If optional *num* is present, then skip *num* tab stops. Each tab stop is eight characters long.

The following specifications output particular fields from the database record. They all take two positional arguments: *width* and *title*.

The first argument, *width* sets the maximum output length for this specification. If the number of characters actually output is less than the width, they will be padded with whitespace either to the left or to the right, depending on the presence of the `:right` keyword argument. If the number of characters is greater than *width*, they will be truncated to fit. If *width* is not given, the field is output as is.

The second argument, *title*, gives the title of this column for the heading line. By default no title is output.

Every field specification accepts at least two keyword arguments. The keyword `:right` may be used to request alignment to the right. This keyword is ignored if *width* is not given.

The keyword `:empty` followed by a string instructs `rushwho` to output that string if the resulting value for this specification would otherwise be empty.

**user** *width title* [:*empty repl*][:*right*] [Format Spec]  
Print the user login name.

**time** *width title* [:empty repl] [:right] [:format] [Format Spec]  
*date-format*]

**start-time** *width title* [:empty repl] [:right] [Format Spec]  
[:format *date-format*]

Date and time when the session started.

The **:format** keyword introduces the **strftime** format string to be used when converting the date for printing. The default value is `'%a %H:%M'`. See Appendix A [Time and Date Formats], page 59, for a detailed description of **strftime** format strings.

**stop-time** *width title* [:empty repl] [:right] [Format Spec]  
[:format *date-format*]

Time when the command finished. This specifier is meaningful only for **rushlast** (see Chapter 10 [Rushlast], page 53). If the command is still running, the word `'running'` is output.

**duration** *width title* [:empty repl] [:right] [Format Spec]  
Total time of the session duration.

**rule** *width title* [:right] [Format Spec]  
The tag of the rule used to serve the user. See Section 4.4 [Rule], page 14, for a detailed description of rules and tags.

**command** *width title* [:empty repl] [:right] [Format Spec]  
Command line being executed.

**pid** *width title* [:right] [Format Spec]  
PID of the process.

For example, the following is the default format for the **rushwho** utility. It is written in a form suitable for use in a file supplied with the `--format=@file` command line option (see [format option], page 49):

```
(user 10 Login)" "  

(rule 8 Rule)" "  

(start-time 0 Start)" "  

(duration 9 Time)" "  

(pid 10 PID)" "  

(command 28 Command)
```

## 10 The `rushlast` utility.

The `rushlast` utility searches back through the GNU Rush database and displays a list of all user sessions since the database was created. By default, it displays the following information:

```

Login Rule  Start      Stop      Time  Command
gray  rsync Sun 20:43 Sun 20:43 05:57 /usr/bin/rsync /upload
jeff  sftp  Sun 20:09 running   07:17 /bin/sftp-server

```

Login      The login name of the user.

Rule        The tag of the rule he is served under (see Section 4.4 [Rule], page 14).

Start       Time when the rule began execution.

Start       Time when the command finished, or the word ‘**running**’ if it is still running.

Time        Duration of the session.

Command    Command line being executed.

This format is a built-in default. It may be changed either by setting the `RUSHLAST_FORMAT` environment variable to the desired format string, or by using `--format` command line option (see Section 10.1 [Rushlast Options], page 53).

### 10.1 Rushlast Options

This section summarizes the command line options understood by `rushlast` utility.

`-F string`

`--format=string`

Use *string* instead of the default format, described in Chapter 9 [Rushwho], page 49. See Section 9.2 [Formats], page 50, for a detailed description of the output format syntax. To read format from a file, use `--format=@filename`. The file is read literally, except that lines beginning with ‘;’ are ignored (they can be used to introduce comments).

`-f dir`

`--file=dir`

Use database directory *dir*, instead of the default. By default, database files are located in `/usr/local/var/rush`.

`--forward`

Display entries in chronological order, instead of the reverse chronological one, which is the default.

`-n number`  
`--count=number`  
`-number` Show at most *number* records. The form `-number` is provided for compatibility with the *last(1)* utility.

`-H`  
`--no-header` Do not display header line.

`-v`  
`--version` Display program version.

`-h`  
`--help` Display a short help message.

`--usage` Display a concise usage summary.

## 11 Accounting Database

Rush accounting database is stored in the directory *localstatedir/rush*, where *localstatedir* stands for the name of the local state directory, defined at compile time. By default, it is *prefix/var*, where *prefix* is the installation prefix, which defaults to */usr/local*. Thus, the default database directory is */usr/local/var/rush*. You can change this default using the `--localstatedir` option to `configure` before compiling the package. The `--prefix` option affects it as well.

As of version 2.1, the database consists of two files, called `utmp` and `wtmp`. The `wtmp` file keeps information about all user sessions, both finished and still active. The `utmp` file contains indices to those records in `wtmp`, which represent active sessions.

The `wtmp` grows continuously, while `utmp` normally grows the first day or two after enabling accounting mode, and from then on its size remains without changes. If you set up log file rotation, e.g. by using `logrotate` (see Section “logrotate” in *logrotate man page*), or a similar tool, it is safe to rotate `wtmp` without notifying `rush`. The only requirement is to truncate `utmp` to zero size after rotating `wtmp`, as shown in the following `logrotate.conf` snippet:

```
/var/run/rush/wtmp {
    monthly
    create 0640 root svusers
    postrotate
        cat /dev/null > /var/run/rush/utmp
    endscript
}
```

Accounting files are owned by ‘root’ and normally are accessible only to the owner (file mode ‘600’). You may change the default permissions using the following global configuration file statements:

`acct-umask mask` [global]  
Set umask used when accessing accounting database files. Default value is ‘022’.

`acct-dir-mode mode` [global]  
Set mode bits for the accounting directory. The *mode* argument is the mode in octal.

`acct-file-mode mode` [global]  
Set mode bits for `wtmp` and `utmp` files.

Notice, that these statements affect file and directory modes only when the corresponding file or directory is created. `Rush` will not change modes of the existing files.

The following sections contain a detailed description of the structure of these two files. You may skip them, if you are not interested in technical details.

## 11.1 The wtmp file

The `wtmp` file consists of variable-size entries. It is designed so that it can easily be read in both directions.

Each record begins with a fixed-size header, which is followed by three zero-terminated strings, and the record size in `size_t` representation. The three strings are, in that order: the user login name, the rule tag, and the full command line.

The header has the following structure:

```
struct rush_wtmp {
    size_t reclen;
    pid_t pid;
    struct timeval start;
    struct timeval stop;
    char *unused[3];
};
```

where:

- `reclen` is the length of the entire record, including the size of this header. This field is duplicated at the end of the record.
- `pid` is the PID of the command executed for the user.
- `start` represents the time of the beginning of the user session.
- `stop` represents the time when the user session finished. If the session is still running, this field is filled with zeros.
- `unused` The three pointers at the end of the structure are used internally by `rush`. On disk, these fields are always filled with zeros.

## 11.2 The utmp file

The `utmp` file consists of a fixed-size records of the following structure:

```
struct rush_utmp {
    int status;
    off_t offset;
};
```

The fields have the following meaning:

- `status` Status of the record: '0' if the record is unused, and '1' if it represents an active session.
- `offset` Offset of the corresponding record in `wtmp` (see previous section).



## 12 How to Report a Bug

Email bug reports to `bug-rush@gnu.org`. Please include a detailed description of the bug and information about the conditions under which it occurs, so we can reproduce it. To facilitate the task, the following list shows the basic set of information that is needed in order to find the bug:

- Package version you use.
- A detailed description of the bug.
- Conditions under which the bug appears.
- It is often helpful to send the contents of `config.log` file along with your bug report. This file is created after running `./configure` in the GNU Rush source root directory.



## Appendix A Time and Date Formats

This appendix documents the time format specifications understood by the `:format` keyword in time output format specifiers (see Section 9.2 [Formats], page 50). Essentially, it is a reproduction of the man page for GNU `strftime` function.

Ordinary characters placed in the format string are reproduced without conversion. Conversion specifiers are introduced by a `'%'` character, and are replaced as follows:

<code>%a</code>	The abbreviated weekday name according to the current locale.
<code>%A</code>	The full weekday name according to the current locale.
<code>%b</code>	The abbreviated month name according to the current locale.
<code>%B</code>	The full month name according to the current locale.
<code>%c</code>	The preferred date and time representation for the current locale.
<code>%C</code>	The century number (year/100) as a 2-digit integer.
<code>%d</code>	The day of the month as a decimal number (range 01 to 31).
<code>%D</code>	Equivalent to <code>'%m/%d/%y'</code> .
<code>%e</code>	Like <code>'%d'</code> , the day of the month as a decimal number, but a leading zero is replaced by a space.
<code>%E</code>	Modifier: use alternative format, see below (see [conversion specs], page 61).
<code>%F</code>	Equivalent to <code>'%Y-%m-%d'</code> (the ISO 8601 date format).
<code>%G</code>	The ISO 8601 year with century as a decimal number. The 4-digit year corresponding to the ISO week number (see <code>'%V'</code> ). This has the same format and value as <code>'%y'</code> , except that if the ISO week number belongs to the previous or next year, that year is used instead.

%g	Like ‘%G’, but without century, i.e., with a 2-digit year (00-99).
%h	Equivalent to ‘%b’.
%H	The hour as a decimal number using a 24-hour clock (range 00 to 23).
%I	The hour as a decimal number using a 12-hour clock (range 01 to 12).
%j	The day of the year as a decimal number (range 001 to 366).
%k	The hour (24-hour clock) as a decimal number (range 0 to 23); single digits are preceded by a blank. (See also ‘%H’.)
%l	The hour (12-hour clock) as a decimal number (range 1 to 12); single digits are preceded by a blank. (See also ‘%I’.)
%m	The month as a decimal number (range 01 to 12).
%M	The minute as a decimal number (range 00 to 59).
%n	A newline character.
%O	Modifier: use alternative format, see below (see [conversion specs], page 61).
%p	Either ‘AM’ or ‘PM’ according to the given time value, or the corresponding strings for the current locale. Noon is treated as ‘pm’ and midnight as ‘am’.
%P	Like ‘%p’ but in lowercase: ‘am’ or ‘pm’ or a corresponding string for the current locale.
%r	The time in ‘a.m.’ or ‘p.m.’ notation. In the POSIX locale this is equivalent to ‘%I:%M:%S %p’.
%R	The time in 24-hour notation (‘%H:%M’). For a version including the seconds, see ‘%T’ below.
%s	The number of seconds since the Epoch, i.e., since 1970-01-01 00:00:00 UTC.

%S	The second as a decimal number (range 00 to 61).
%t	A tab character.
%T	The time in 24-hour notation ('%H:%M:%S').
%u	The day of the week as a decimal, range 1 to 7, Monday being 1. See also '%w'.
%U	The week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 00 to 53, starting with the first Sunday as the first day of week 01. See also '%V' and '%W'.
%V	The ISO 8601:1988 week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 01 to 53, where week 1 is the first week that has at least 4 days in the current year, and with Monday as the first day of the week. See also '%U' and '%W'.
%w	The day of the week as a decimal, range 0 to 6, Sunday being 0. See also '%u'.
%W	The week number of the current year as a decimal number, range 00 to 53, starting with the first Monday as the first day of week 01.
%x	The preferred date representation for the current locale without the time.
%X	The preferred time representation for the current locale without the date.
%y	The year as a decimal number without a century (range 00 to 99).
%Y	The year as a decimal number including the century.
%z	The time-zone as hour offset from GMT. Required to emit RFC822-conformant dates (using '%a, %d %b %Y %H:%M:%S %z')
%Z	The time zone or name or abbreviation.
%+	The date and time in <i>date(1)</i> format.
%%	A literal '%' character.

Some conversion specifiers can be modified by preceding them by the ‘E’ or ‘O’ modifier to indicate that an alternative format should be used. If the alternative format or specification does not exist for the current locale, the behaviour will be as if the unmodified conversion specification were used. The Single Unix Specification mentions ‘%Ec’, ‘%EC’, ‘%Ex’, ‘%EX’, ‘%Ry’, ‘%EY’, ‘%Od’, ‘%Oe’, ‘%OH’, ‘%OI’, ‘%Om’, ‘%OM’, ‘%OS’, ‘%Ou’, ‘%OU’, ‘%OV’, ‘%Ow’, ‘%OW’, ‘%Oy’, where the effect of the ‘O’ modifier is to use alternative numeric symbols (say, roman numerals), and that of the ‘E’ modifier is to use a locale-dependent alternative representation.

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# Concept Index

This is a general index of all issues discussed in this manual.

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