




Introduction to Linux Shell



What is a Shell?

A **shell** is a **command-line interface (CLI)** that allows users to interact with the **operating system** by executing commands. It serves as a bridge  between the **user** and the **kernel**.



Types of Shells



Shell Type



Description


Bourne Shell (sh)

The original Unix shell.


Bash (Bourne Again Shell)

 Improved version of Bourne Shell, widely used in Linux.

C Shell (csh)

 Uses C-like syntax.

Korn Shell (ksh)

 Combines features of Bourne and C Shell.

Z Shell (zsh)

 Extended version of Bash with extra features.



Basic Linux Commands



File and Directory Management




Command




Description


`ls`

 List files and directories.

`pwd`






 Show current directory.

`cd <directory>`







 Change directory.

`mkdir <directory>`





 Create a new directory.

<code>rmdir <directory></code>	 Remove an empty directory.
<code>rm <file></code>	 Delete a file.
<code>rm -r <directory></code>	 Delete a directory and its contents.
<code>cp <source> <destination></code>	 Copy files or directories.
<code>mv <source> <destination></code>	 Move or rename files and directories.





File Viewing

 Command	 Description
<code>cat <file></code>	 Display file contents.
<code>less <file></code>	 View file page by page.
<code>head <file></code>	 Show the first 10 lines.
<code>tail <file></code>	 Show the last 10 lines.

File Permissions and Ownership

 Command	 Description
<code>chmod <permissions> <file></code>	 Change file permissions.
<code>chown <user>:<group> <file></code>	 Change file ownership.

Process Management

 Command	 Description
<code>ps</code>	 Show running processes.
<code>top</code>	 Display system resource usage.

`kill <PID>` 🚫 Terminate a process by its ID.

`pkill` 🛑 Kill a process by name.
`<process_name>`

💻 System Information

📌 Command	📊 Description
<code>uname -a</code>	💻 Show system details.
<code>df -h</code>	💾 Display disk usage.
<code>free -m</code>	🧠 Check memory usage.

🌐 Networking Commands

🌍 Command	📡 Description
<code>ping <host></code>	📡 Check network connectivity.
<code>ifconfig / ip addr show</code>	🔍 View network interfaces.
<code>netstat -tulnp</code>	🔥 Show active network connections.
<code>curl <URL></code>	🌐 Fetch data from a URL.

📖 Command Line Help

📖 Getting Help on Commands

🔧 Command	📌 Description
<code>man <command></code>	📖 Show manual for a command.
<code>info</code> <code><command></code>	📖 View detailed documentation.

`<command>` 📌 Quick command guide.
`--help`

`whatis` 📌 One-line command summary.
`<command>`

🧑 Searching for Commands

🔍 Command	📌 Description
<code>apropos</code> <code><keyword></code>	🔍 Find commands related to a keyword.
<code>which</code> <code><command></code>	📌 Show full command path.

🐧 Bash Shell

🏆 What is Bash?

Bash (Bourne Again Shell) is the most commonly used **Linux shell**. It provides powerful **scripting**, **command history**, and **job control** features.

🚀 Bash Features

- ✅ **Command history** – Use `history` or arrow keys to navigate previous commands.
 - ✅ **Auto-completion** – Press `Tab` to autocomplete commands.
 - ✅ **Aliases** – Define shortcuts using `alias name='command'`.
-

📝 Bash Scripting Basics

🔧 Creating a Bash Script

① Create a new script file:

```
nano script.sh
```

② Add script content:

```
#!/bin/bash  
echo "Hello, World!"
```

③ Make it executable:

```
chmod +x script.sh
```

④ Run the script:

```
./script.sh
```

Variables in Bash

```
name="John"  
echo "Hello, $name"
```

Conditional Statements

```
if [ "$name" == "John" ]; then  
    echo "Name is John"  
else  
    echo "Name is not John"  
fi
```

Loops in Bash

```
for i in {1..5}; do  
    echo "Number: $i"  
done
```



Linux Core Concepts



1. Linux Kernel



What is the Linux Kernel?

The **Linux Kernel** is the **core** of the operating system. It acts as a **bridge** between **hardware** and **user applications**, managing:

- ✓ **Processes** 
- ✓ **Memory** 
- ✓ **Devices** 
- ✓ **File Systems** 
- ✓ **Networking** 



Checking Kernel Information

Use these commands to check kernel details:

```
uname -r          # Display kernel version
uname -a          # Show complete system information
cat /proc/version # Detailed kernel version info
```



Updating the Kernel

To check and upgrade your kernel:

```
sudo apt update && apt list --upgradable | grep linux-image # Check
for kernel updates
sudo apt install linux-image-generic # Upgrade the kernel
```



2. Working with Hardware



Device Files in Linux

Linux represents hardware as files in the `/dev/` directory:

- ♦ **Character Devices** – Process data **one character at a time** (e.g., `/dev/tty` for terminals).
- ♦ **Block Devices** – Process data **in blocks** (e.g., `/dev/sda` for storage).

Checking Hardware Information

Use these commands to check system hardware:

```
lscpu          # Display CPU details
lsblk          # Show storage devices and partitions
lspci          # List PCI devices (graphics, network cards, etc.)
lsusb          # List connected USB devices
df -h          # Show disk space usage
free -m        # Display RAM usage in MB
```

Managing Devices

 **Mount a device:**

```
sudo mount /dev/sdb1 /mnt # Mount device at /mnt
```

 **Unmount a device:**

```
sudo umount /mnt # Unmount device from /mnt
```

 **Load a kernel module:**

```
sudo modprobe <module_name> # Load a specific kernel module
```

 **Remove a kernel module:**

```
sudo rmmod <module_name> # Remove a kernel module
```



3. Linux Boot Sequence

The **Linux Boot Process** consists of:










- 1 **BIOS/UEFI** – Initializes hardware and loads bootloader.
- 2 **Bootloader (GRUB, LILO, Syslinux, etc.)** – Loads the Linux kernel.
- 3 **Kernel Initialization** – Detects hardware and mounts the root filesystem.
- 4 **Init System (Systemd, SysVinit, Upstart)** – Starts system processes.
- 5 **Runlevel/Target Execution** – Loads user processes and services.

Checking Boot Information

```
dmesg | less          # Show boot messages
journalctl -b         # View system logs from the last boot
cat /var/log/syslog   # Check system boot logs
```

4. Runlevels (SysVinit) and Systemd Targets

Runlevels in SysVinit Systems

 Runlevel	 Description
0	Shutdown 
1	Single-user mode 
2	Multi-user (No Networking) 
3	Multi-user (With Networking) 
4	Unused/Custom 
5	Graphical mode (GUI) 
6	Reboot 

Check & Change Runlevels:

```
runlevel              # Check current runlevel
sudo init 3           # Change to runlevel 3 (multi-user mode)
```

Systemd Targets (Modern Linux Systems)

Systemd Target	Equivalent Runlevel
----------------	---------------------

poweroff.target	Runlevel 0 (Shutdown)
rescue.target	Runlevel 1 (Single-user mode)
multi-user.target	Runlevel 3 (Multi-user mode)
graphical.target	Runlevel 5 (Graphical mode)
reboot.target	Runlevel 6 (Reboot)

📌 Managing Systemd Targets:

```
systemctl get-default # Check the current target
sudo systemctl set-default multi-user.target # Set default target
sudo systemctl isolate graphical.target # Switch to a specific target
```

📁 5. Linux File Types

📁 File Type	📌 Description	📁 Example
Regular File	Normal text, binary, or script file	<code>/etc/passwd</code>
Directory	Folder containing files	<code>/home/user/</code>
Symbolic Link	Shortcut to another file	<code>/usr/bin/python -> /usr/bin/python3</code>
Character Device	Reads/Writes one character at a time	<code>/dev/tty</code>
Block Device	Reads/Writes data in blocks	<code>/dev/sda</code>
Named Pipe	Inter-process communication	<code>/tmp/mypipe</code>
Socket	Network communication endpoint	<code>/var/run/docker.sock</code>

📌 Checking File Types:




```
ls -l # Display file types
file /dev/sda # Check type of a specific file
```

📌 Example output of `ls -l`:

```
-rw-r--r--  1 user user 1024 Mar 07 12:00 file.txt    # Regular file
drwxr-xr-x  2 user user 4096 Mar 07 12:00 mydir/      # Directory
lrwxrwxrwx  1 user user   10 Mar 07 12:00 link -> file.txt # Symbolic
link
```

6. Filesystem Hierarchy

 The **Filesystem Hierarchy Standard (FHS)** organizes Linux directories:

 Directory	 Purpose	 Example Command
/	Root directory (everything starts here)	<code>ls /</code>
/bin	Essential binaries (e.g., <code>ls</code> , <code>cat</code>)	<code>ls /bin</code>
/boot	Boot files (Kernel, GRUB)	<code>ls /boot</code>
/dev	Device files	<code>ls /dev</code>
/etc	Configuration files	<code>ls /etc</code>
/home	User home directories	<code>ls /home</code>
/lib	Shared libraries & kernel modules	<code>ls /lib</code>
/media	Mount points for removable media	<code>ls /media</code>
/mnt	Temporary mount points	<code>ls /mnt</code>
/opt	Optional software packages	<code>ls /opt</code>
/proc	Virtual filesystem (process info)	<code>ls /proc</code>
/root	Home directory for root user	<code>ls /root</code>
/sbin	System binaries (for admin tasks)	<code>ls /sbin</code>
/srv	Data served by the system	<code>ls /srv</code>
/tmp	Temporary files	<code>ls /tmp</code>

<code>/usr</code>	User applications and libraries	<code>ls /usr</code>
<code>/var</code>	Variable data (logs, caches, databases)	<code>ls /var</code>

Checking Disk Usage:

`df -h` # Show available disk space

`du -sh /var/log` # Display the size of the `/var/log` directory

Linux Package Management

1. Introduction to Package Management




What is Package Management?

Package management is how Linux handles **software installation, updates, and removal**. Different distributions use different package management tools.

Types of Package Managers

- ♦ **Low-Level Package Managers (work directly with package files):**
 - `rpm` → Used in **Red Hat-based** systems
 - `dpkg` → Used in **Debian-based** systems
- ♦ **High-Level Package Managers (handle dependencies & repositories):**
 - `yum` / `dnf` → Used in **Red Hat-based** systems
 - `apt` / `apt-get` → Used in **Debian-based** systems

Package Manager Categories by Distribution

 Distribution	 Low-Level Package Manager	 High-Level Package Manager
Debian-based (Ubuntu, Debian, Mint)	<code>dpkg</code>	<code>apt</code> , <code>apt-get</code>
Red Hat-based (RHEL, CentOS, Fedora)	<code>rpm</code>	<code>yum</code> , <code>dnf</code>

2. RPM and YUM (For Red Hat-based Systems)

RPM (Red Hat Package Manager)

`RPM` is a **low-level package manager** used in Red Hat-based distributions like **CentOS** and **Fedora**.

⚡ Common RPM Commands

📌 Install a package:

```
sudo rpm -ivh package.rpm
```

📌 Upgrade a package:

```
sudo rpm -Uvh package.rpm
```

📌 Remove a package:

```
sudo rpm -e package-name
```

📌 Query installed packages:

```
rpm -qa | grep package-name
```

📌 Show package details:

```
rpm -qi package-name
```

📌 YUM (Yellowdog Updater, Modified)

YUM is a high-level package manager that resolves dependencies automatically.

⚡ Common YUM Commands

📌 Install a package:

```
sudo yum install package-name
```

📌 Remove a package:

```
sudo yum remove package-name
```

📌 Update all packages:

```
sudo yum update
```

📌 Check if a package is installed:

```
yum list installed | grep package-name
```

📌 Show package info:

```
yum info package-name
```

♦ **Note:** `dnf` is the newer version of `yum` used in Fedora and CentOS 8+.

🔵 3. DPKG and APT (For Debian-based Systems)

📌 DPKG (Debian Package Manager)

`dpkg` is a **low-level** package manager for `.deb` packages and **does not handle dependencies** automatically.

⚡ Common DPKG Commands

📌 Install a package:

```
sudo dpkg -i package.deb
```

📌 Remove a package:

```
sudo dpkg -r package-name
```

📌 Reconfigure a package:

```
sudo dpkg-reconfigure package-name
```

📌 List installed packages:

```
dpkg -l | grep package-name
```

APT (Advanced Package Tool)

APT is a **high-level package manager** for **Debian-based** systems that resolves dependencies automatically.

Common APT Commands

Update package lists:

```
sudo apt update
```

Install a package:

```
sudo apt install package-name
```

Remove a package:

```
sudo apt remove package-name
```

Upgrade all packages:

```
sudo apt upgrade
```

Show package details:

```
apt show package-name
```


Search for a package:

```
apt search package-name
```

4. APT vs APT-GET

- ◆ Both **apt** and **apt-get** are used in Debian-based distributions, but **apt** is newer and more user-friendly.

Key Differences

 Feature	 <code>apt-get</code>	 <code>apt</code>
Introduced in	Debian	Ubuntu 16.04+
Handles package management	✓ Yes	✓ Yes
Displays progress bar	✗ No	✓ Yes
Simplified syntax	✗ No	✓ Yes

Example Commands Comparison

Task	<code>apt-get</code> (Old)	<code>apt</code> (New)
Update package lists	<code>sudo apt-get update</code>	<code>sudo apt update</code>
Install a package	<code>sudo apt-get install package-name</code>	<code>sudo apt install package-name</code>
Upgrade all packages	<code>sudo apt-get upgrade</code>	<code>sudo apt upgrade</code>

♦ **Note:** `apt-get` is still available for **backward compatibility**, but `apt` is recommended for newer systems.

Conclusion

- ✓ **Red Hat-based systems** use `rpm` (low-level) and `yum/dnf` (high-level).
- ✓ **Debian-based systems** use `dpkg` (low-level) and `apt/apt-get` (high-level).
- ✓ **High-level package managers** (`apt`, `yum`, `dnf`) **handle dependencies automatically**.
- ✓ **Low-level package managers** (`rpm`, `dpkg`) **work directly with package files**.

Choosing the Right Package Manager:

- If you're on **Ubuntu/Debian**, use `apt`.
- If you're on **Fedora/CentOS**, use `dnf`.
- If you want **manual control**, use `dpkg` or `rpm`.



Working with Shell in Linux

1. File Compression and Archival



What is File Compression and Archival?

- **Compression** reduces file sizes, making them easier to store or transfer.
- **Archiving** bundles multiple files into a single file.



Common Compression and Archival Commands

Command	Description
<code>tar</code>	Archive multiple files into one file
<code>gzip</code>	Compress files using the Gzip algorithm
<code>bzip2</code>	Compress files using the Bzip2 algorithm
<code>xz</code>	Compress files using the XZ algorithm
<code>zip</code>	Compress files into a <code>.zip</code> format
<code>unzip</code>	Extract <code>.zip</code> archives



Archiving with tar

Create an archive (without compression):

```
tar -cvf archive.tar file1 file2 directory/
```

Extract an archive:

```
tar -xvf archive.tar
```

List contents of an archive:

```
tar -tvf archive.tar
```

Compressing with gzip, bzip2, and xz

Compress a file using gzip:

```
gzip file.txt # Produces file.txt.gz  
gunzip file.txt.gz # Decompress
```

Compress a file using bzip2:

```
bzip2 file.txt # Produces file.txt.bz2  
bunzip2 file.txt.bz2 # Decompress
```

Compress a file using xz:

```
xz file.txt # Produces file.txt.xz  
unxz file.txt.xz # Decompress
```

Combining tar with Compression

Create a gzip-compressed archive:

```
tar -czvf archive.tar.gz file1 file2 directory/
```

Create a bzip2-compressed archive:

```
tar -cjvf archive.tar.bz2 file1 file2 directory/
```

Create an xz-compressed archive:

```
tar -cJvf archive.tar.xz file1 file2 directory/
```

Extract compressed archives:

```
tar -xzvf archive.tar.gz # For gzip
tar -xjvf archive.tar.bz2 # For bzip2
tar -xJvf archive.tar.xz # For xz
```

Working with Zip Files

Create a zip archive:

```
zip archive.zip file1 file2 directory/
```

Extract a zip archive:

```
unzip archive.zip
```

2. Searching for Files and Patterns

Why Search for Files?

Searching for files and text patterns is **essential for managing a Linux system** effectively.

Finding Files with find

Find a file by name:

```
find /home -name "file.txt"
```

Find files larger than 100MB:

```
find / -size +100M
```

Find all `.log` files in `/var/log`:

```
find /var/log -name "*.log"
```

Find and delete files older than 7 days:

```
find /tmp -type f -mtime +7 -exec rm {} \;
```

Searching for Text in Files with grep

Find a pattern in a file:

```
grep "error" /var/log/syslog
```

Case-insensitive search:

```
grep -i "warning" /var/log/syslog
```

Recursive search in a directory:

```
grep -r "TODO" /home/user/projects/
```

Show line numbers for matches:

```
grep -n "failed" /var/log/auth.log
```

Searching Faster with locate

Find files using **locate (requires **updatedb** first):**

```
locate bashrc
```

Update the locate database:

```
sudo updatedb
```

3. I/O Redirection

What is I/O Redirection?

I/O redirection allows you to control where input and output streams go in the shell.

Stream	Description	File Descriptor
<code>stdin</code>	Standard input	<code>0</code>
<code>stdout</code>	Standard output	<code>1</code>
<code>stderr</code>	Standard error	<code>2</code>

Redirecting Output to a File

Redirect `stdout` to a file (overwrite):

```
ls > output.txt
```

Redirect `stdout` to a file (append):

```
ls >> output.txt
```

Redirect `stderr` to a file:

```
ls non_existing_file 2> error.txt
```

Redirect both `stdout` and `stderr`:

```
ls non_existing_file > output.txt 2>&1
```

Suppress error messages:

```
command 2>/dev/null
```

Redirecting Input from a File

Read from a file instead of standard input:

```
sort < unsorted.txt
```

Using Pipes (|) to Redirect Output Between Commands

Count lines in a file:

```
cat file.txt | wc -l
```

Find all **.log** files and search for "error":

```
find /var/log -name "*.log" | xargs grep "error"
```

4. Vi Editor



What is the Vi Editor?

vi is a **powerful text editor** used in Unix/Linux systems.



Opening and Closing Files

Open a file in vi editor:

```
vi filename
```

Exit without saving:

```
:q!
```

Save and exit:

```
:wq
```

Vi Modes

Mode	Description
Normal Mode	Default mode for navigation and commands
Insert Mode	Used for text editing (press i or a to enter)
Command Mode	Used for executing commands (: followed by command)

Basic Navigation

- Move left: **h**
 - Move right: **l**
 - Move down: **j**
 - Move up: **k**
-

Editing in Insert Mode

- Insert before cursor: **i**
 - Append after cursor: **a**
 - Open a new line below: **o**
 - Return to Normal mode: **ESC**
-

Copy, Cut, and Paste

- Copy a line: **yy**
 - Cut (delete) a line: **dd**
 - Paste after the cursor: **p**
 - Paste before the cursor: **P**
-

Searching in Vi

- Search forward for "word": **/word**
- Search backward for "word": **?word**

- Repeat last search forward: `n`
 - Repeat last search backward: `N`
-

Saving and Exiting

- Save: `:w`
- Quit: `:q`
- Save and quit: `:wq`
- Quit without saving: `:q!`

❑ Linux Networking

1 Network Issues

📌 Overview

Networking issues in Linux can arise due to misconfigurations, hardware failures, or connectivity problems. Below are **common network issues, their causes, and solutions**.

🔧 Common Network Issues

Issue	Cause	Solution
No Internet	Missing IP address, no default gateway	Check with <code>ip a</code> , <code>route -n</code>
Slow Connection	High network traffic, DNS issues	Test with <code>ping</code> , <code>traceroute</code>
Cannot Reach Host	Firewall, incorrect routes	Check <code>iptables</code> , <code>firewalld</code> , <code>netstat -r</code>
Hostname Not Resolving	DNS issues	Verify <code>/etc/resolv.conf</code> , use <code>nslookup</code> , <code>dig</code>
No Network Interface	Driver issue	Use <code>lspci</code> , <code>lsmod</code> , reinstall drivers

📌 Basic Network Commands

```
ip a           # Show network interfaces
ip r           # Display routing table
ping 8.8.8.8    # Test connectivity
traceroute google.com # Trace route to a host
nslookup google.com   # Resolve domain to IP
netstat -tulnp  # Show open ports and listening services
```

DNS (Domain Name System)

Overview

DNS translates domain names (e.g., `google.com`) into IP addresses.

Checking DNS Configuration

View DNS servers in use:

```
cat /etc/resolv.conf
```

Test domain resolution:

```
nslookup google.com  
dig google.com  
host google.com
```

Flushing DNS Cache

If using `systemd-resolved`:

```
sudo systemctl restart systemd-resolved
```

For `nsd` (Name Service Cache Daemon):

```
sudo systemctl restart nsd
```

Manually Setting DNS

Edit `/etc/resolv.conf` (temporary change):

```
nameserver 8.8.8.8  
nameserver 1.1.1.1
```

For permanent changes, modify `/etc/systemd/resolved.conf`:

```
[Resolve]
DNS=8.8.8.8 1.1.1.1
```

Then restart the service:

```
sudo systemctl restart systemd-resolved
```

Networking Basics

Overview

Linux networking follows a layered approach similar to the **OSI model**.

Key Networking Components

Component	Description
IP Addressing	Identifies a device in a network (e.g., <code>192.168.1.1</code>)
Subnet Mask	Defines the network range (e.g., <code>255.255.255.0</code>)
Gateway	Router address for external traffic
DNS Server	Resolves domain names (e.g., <code>8.8.8.8</code> for Google DNS)
MAC Address	Unique hardware address of a network interface

Viewing Network Configuration

```
ip a      # Show IP addresses
ip r      # Show routing table
ip link   # Show network interfaces
```

Assigning a Static IP (Temporary)

```
sudo ip addr add 192.168.1.100/24 dev eth0
sudo ip route add default via 192.168.1.1
```

Assigning a Static IP (Permanent - Ubuntu)

Edit `/etc/netplan/*.yaml`:

```
network:
  ethernets:
    eth0:
      addresses:
        - 192.168.1.100/24
      gateway4: 192.168.1.1
      nameservers:
        addresses:
          - 8.8.8.8
          - 1.1.1.1
  version: 2
```

Apply the changes:

```
sudo netplan apply
```

4 Network Troubleshooting

Overview

Troubleshooting involves diagnosing and resolving network issues **systematically**.

Step-by-Step Troubleshooting

Step 1: Check Network Interfaces

```
ip a          # List all interfaces
ifconfig -a   # Show interface details
```

Step 2: Check Connectivity

```
ping 8.8.8.8           # Test internet access
ping -c 5 google.com   # Test DNS resolution
```

● Step 3: Verify Routing Table

```
ip r          # Show routing table
route -n      # Display routes
```

● Step 4: Check DNS Resolution

```
nslookup google.com
dig google.com
host google.com
```

● Step 5: Check Open Ports

```
netstat -tulnp # Show listening ports
ss -tulnp      # Alternative to netstat
```

● Step 6: Restart Networking Services

```
sudo systemctl restart networking # Restart networking service
sudo systemctl restart systemd-resolved # Restart DNS resolver
```

● Step 7: Inspect Logs

```
journalctl -u networking --no-pager # View networking logs
dmesg | grep eth0                   # Check for interface errors
```

✅ Summary of Key Commands

Action	Command
Show network interfaces	<code>ip a</code>
Display routing table	<code>ip r</code>
Test connectivity	<code>ping 8.8.8.8</code>
Trace route to a host	<code>traceroute google.com</code>

Check DNS resolution	<code>nslookup google.com</code>
Restart networking service	<code>sudo systemctl restart networking</code>
Assign a static IP (temporary)	<code>sudo ip addr add 192.168.1.100/24 dev eth0</code>
Set a static IP permanently (Ubuntu)	Edit <code>/etc/netplan/*.yaml</code> and run <code>sudo netplan apply</code>
Show open ports	<code>netstat -tulnp</code> or <code>ss -tulnp</code>
View networking logs	<code>journalctl -u networking --no-pager</code>



Linux Security and File Permissions

1 Security Incidents



Overview

A security incident in Linux refers to unauthorized access, malware, data breaches, or misconfigurations that compromise system integrity.



Common Security Incidents in Linux

Incident Type	Description	Detection Method
Unauthorized Access	An attacker gains unauthorized system access	Check <code>/var/log/auth.log</code> , <code>last</code> , <code>w</code>
Privilege Escalation	User gains unauthorized root access	Audit sudo logs (<code>cat /var/log/auth.log</code>)
Malware Infection	Malicious software compromises the system	Scan with <code>chkrootkit</code> , <code>clamav</code>
File Integrity Breach	Unauthorized modification of files	Use <code>tripwire</code> or <code>aide</code> for integrity checking
Denial of Service (DoS)	Overloading services to cause downtime	Monitor <code>netstat</code> , <code>top</code> , <code>fail2ban</code>



Basic Security Audit Commands

<code>last</code>	<code># Show last logins</code>
<code>who</code>	<code># Show logged-in users</code>
<code>ps aux --sort=-%mem</code>	<code># Find processes using high memory</code>
<code>netstat -tulnp</code>	<code># Check open ports</code>

2 Linux Accounts

Overview

Linux has different types of accounts to manage access and permissions.

Types of Linux Accounts

Account Type	Description
Root User (UID=0)	Full system access
Regular User	Restricted access, used for daily tasks
System Accounts (UID<1000)	Used by services (e.g., <code>www-data</code> , <code>mysql</code>)

Managing User Accounts

<code>whoami</code>	<code># Show current user</code>
<code>id user1</code>	<code># Show user ID and group ID</code>
<code>cat /etc/passwd</code>	<code># List all users</code>

3 Access Control Files

Overview

Linux uses access control files to manage permissions for users and groups.

Important Access Control Files

File	Description
<code>/etc/passwd</code>	Stores user account details
<code>/etc/shadow</code>	Stores encrypted passwords
<code>/etc/group</code>	Manages group memberships
<code>/etc/sudoers</code>	Controls sudo access

Checking User Access

```
cat /etc/passwd | grep user1    # View user account details
cat /etc/group | grep sudo      # Check if a user is in the sudo group
```

4 User Management

Creating and Managing Users

```
# Create a new user
sudo useradd -m user1

# Set a password for the user
sudo passwd user1

# Add a user to a group
sudo usermod -aG sudo user1

# Delete a user
sudo userdel -r user1
```

Group Management

```
# Create a new group
sudo groupadd developers

# Add a user to a group
sudo usermod -aG developers user1

# Remove a user from a group
sudo gpasswd -d user1 developers
```

5 File Permissions and Ownership

Overview

Linux file permissions determine who can read, write, and execute files.

Understanding File Permissions

To view file permissions, use:

```
ls -l file.txt
```

Example output:

```
-rwxr-xr-- 1 user1 group1 1024 Mar 7 10:00 file.txt
```

Permission Symbol	Meaning
r (read)	Can read the file
w (write)	Can modify the file
x (execute)	Can run the file as a program

- **First three characters:** Owner permissions
- **Next three:** Group permissions
- **Last three:** Others' permissions

Changing Permissions

```
chmod 755 file.txt      # Owner: rwx, Group: r-x, Others: r-x
chmod u+r file.txt      # Add read permission for owner
```

Changing Ownership

```
chown user1 file.txt    # Change file owner
chgrp group1 file.txt   # Change file group
```

6 SSH and SCP

Secure Shell (SSH)

SSH allows secure remote login:

```
ssh user@remote-server
```

Copying Files Securely with SCP

```
# Copy file to a remote server
scp file.txt user@remote-server:/home/user/
```

```
# Copy file from a remote server
scp user@remote-server:/home/user/file.txt .
```

7 IPTables Introduction

Overview

iptables is a firewall used to filter traffic.

Basic IPTables Commands

```
# List current rules
sudo iptables -L -v

# Block an IP address
sudo iptables -A INPUT -s 192.168.1.10 -j DROP

# Allow SSH (port 22)
sudo iptables -A INPUT -p tcp --dport 22 -j ACCEPT

# Save rules
sudo iptables-save > /etc/iptables.rules
```

8 Securing the Environment with IPTables

Securing Common Services

```
# Allow web traffic (HTTP and HTTPS)
sudo iptables -A INPUT -p tcp --dport 80 -j ACCEPT
sudo iptables -A INPUT -p tcp --dport 443 -j ACCEPT

# Allow internal network access
sudo iptables -A INPUT -s 192.168.1.0/24 -j ACCEPT

# Block all other incoming traffic
sudo iptables -P INPUT DROP
```

Saving and Reloading Rules

```
sudo iptables-save > /etc/iptables.rules
sudo iptables-restore < /etc/iptables.rules
```

Cron Jobs

Overview

Cron jobs automate scheduled tasks in Linux.

Creating a Cron Job

```
crontab -e # Edit cron jobs
```

Example Cron Jobs

Task	Cron Expression
Run a script every minute	<pre>* * * * * /path/to/script.sh</pre>
Run a script daily at midnight	<pre>0 0 * * * /path/to/script.sh</pre>

Run a script every Sunday at 2 AM `0 2 * * 0`
 `/path/to/script.sh`

List and Remove Cron Jobs

```
crontab -l # List scheduled jobs
crontab -r # Remove all cron jobs
```

Summary of Key Security Commands

Action	Command
Show last logins	<code>last</code>
Show logged-in users	<code>who</code>
Check open ports	<code>netstat -tulnp</code>
Change file permissions	<code>chmod</code>
Change file ownership	<code>chown</code>
Securely copy files	<code>scp</code>
List current firewall rules	<code>sudo iptables -L -v</code>
Block an IP address	<code>sudo iptables -A INPUT -s <IP></code> <code>-j DROP</code>
Restart SSH service	<code>sudo systemctl restart sshd</code>

Linux System Management: systemd Services

1. Creating a systemd Service

What is systemd?

systemd is an init system that manages services, processes, and system states. It uses **unit files** to control how services are started, stopped, and restarted.

Steps to Create a Custom systemd Service

1. Create the Service File

systemd service files are stored in `/etc/systemd/system/`.

```
sudo nano /etc/systemd/system/myservice.service
```

2. Define the Service Configuration

A basic **systemd** service file has three sections:

- ✓ **[Unit]** – Describes the service and dependencies
- ✓ **[Service]** – Defines how the service runs
- ✓ **[Install]** – Specifies when to start the service

Example systemd Service File

```
[Unit]
Description=My Custom Service
After=network.target

[Service]
ExecStart=/usr/bin/python3 /home/user/myscript.py
Restart=always
User=user
```

```
Group=user
WorkingDirectory=/home/user
StandardOutput=journal
StandardError=journal
```

```
[Install]
WantedBy=multi-user.target
```

3. Reload systemd to Recognize the New Service

```
sudo systemctl daemon-reload
```

► 4. Enable and Start the Service

```
sudo systemctl enable myservice
sudo systemctl start myservice
```

5. Check Service Status

```
sudo systemctl status myservice
```

6. Stop and Disable the Service

```
sudo systemctl stop myservice
sudo systemctl disable myservice
```

2. systemd Service Management and Tools

Managing Services

Action	Command
Start a service	<pre>sudo systemctl start myservice</pre>

Stop a service	<code>sudo systemctl stop myservice</code>
Restart a service	<code>sudo systemctl restart myservice</code>
Reload a service	<code>sudo systemctl reload myservice</code>
Enable at boot	<code>sudo systemctl enable myservice</code>
Disable at boot	<code>sudo systemctl disable myservice</code>
Check service status	<code>sudo systemctl status myservice</code>
View service logs	<code>journalctl -u myservice</code>

Checking System Services

```
systemctl list-units --type=service      # List all active services
systemctl list-unit-files --type=service # List all installed
services
```

3. Service Unit File Options

[Unit] Section (Describes the service)

Option	Description
<code>Description=</code>	Short description of the service
<code>After=</code>	Services that should start before this one
<code>Before=</code>	Services that should start after this one
<code>Requires=</code>	Hard dependency – If this service fails, dependent services fail too

Wants= **Soft dependency** – If this service fails, dependent services may continue

[Service] Section (Defines how the service runs)

Option	Description
ExecStart=	Command to start the service
ExecStop=	Command to stop the service
ExecReload=	Command to reload the service
Restart=	Restart policy (always , on-failure , no , on-success)
User=	Specifies which user runs the service
Group=	Specifies which group runs the service
WorkingDirectory=	Specifies the working directory
Environment=	Sets environment variables

[Install] Section (Specifies startup behavior)

Option	Description
WantedBy=	Defines target where the service should start (e.g., multi-user.target)
RequiredBy=	Services that depend on this service

4. systemctl Command Options

Command	Description
---------	-------------

<code>systemctl start <service></code>	Starts a service
<code>systemctl stop <service></code>	Stops a service
<code>systemctl restart <service></code>	Restarts a service
<code>systemctl reload <service></code>	Reloads the configuration of a running service
<code>systemctl enable <service></code>	Enables a service at boot
<code>systemctl disable <service></code>	Disables a service at boot
<code>systemctl status <service></code>	Shows service status
<code>systemctl is-active <service></code>	Checks if a service is running
<code>systemctl is-enabled <service></code>	Checks if a service is enabled
<code>systemctl mask <service></code>	Prevents a service from starting
<code>systemctl unmask <service></code>	Allows a masked service to start

5. Checking systemd Logs

```
journalctl -xe    # Show detailed logs
journalctl -u myservice --since "1 hour ago" # View logs for a
specific service
journalctl --boot -1 # Show logs from the previous boot
```

6. Editing and Reloading Services

```
sudo systemctl edit myservice    # Edit service configuration
sudo systemctl daemon-reexec     # Restart systemd itself
sudo systemctl reset-failed      # Clear failed services list
```

Conclusion

- `systemd` provides a powerful way to manage services in Linux.
- You can create, enable, disable, start, stop, and monitor services with `systemctl`.
- Logs can be viewed with `journalctl` to debug issues.
- Understanding systemd helps in automating processes, running background jobs, and optimizing system performance.

 **Mastering systemd = Better Linux System Administration!**  

Linux Storage Management

1. Disk Partitions

A **disk partition** is a logical division of a physical storage device that allows better management of data. In Linux, partitions are managed using tools like `fdisk`, `parted`, and `lsblk`.

Types of Partitions

Partition Type	Description
Primary	Can contain a bootable OS, limited to 4 partitions
Extended	Used to create more than 4 partitions, acts as a container
Logical	Partitions inside an extended partition

Checking Disk Partitions

```
lsblk      # List block devices and partitions
fdisk -l   # Display partition details
parted -l  # Show partition table info
```

Creating a New Partition with fdisk

```
sudo fdisk /dev/sdb
# Press 'n' → Create a new partition
# Press 'p' → Make it a primary partition
# Enter partition number and size
# Press 'w' → Write changes
```

Formatting a Partition

```
sudo mkfs.ext4 /dev/sdb1 # Format as ext4
```

Mounting a Partition

```
sudo mount /dev/sdb1 /mnt/data
```

To make it permanent, add to `/etc/fstab`:

```
/dev/sdb1 /mnt/data ext4 defaults 0 2
```

2. File Systems in Linux

A **file system** defines how data is stored and accessed on a disk.

Common File Systems

File System	Description
ext4	Default Linux file system, supports journaling
xfs	High-performance file system, used in RHEL
btrfs	Supports snapshots and RAID features
vfat	Used for USB drives, compatible with Windows
ntfs	Windows file system, needs <code>ntfs-3g</code> to write

Checking File System Type

```
df -T /mnt/data    # Check file system type of a mount point
lsblk -f           # Show file system type of all partitions
```

Converting File Systems

```
sudo mkfs.xfs /dev/sdb1 # Convert to XFS
sudo mkfs.btrfs /dev/sdb1 # Convert to Btrfs
```

3. DAS, NAS, and SAN

Linux storage can be categorized into:

- ✓ **Direct-Attached Storage (DAS)**
 - ✓ **Network-Attached Storage (NAS)**
 - ✓ **Storage Area Network (SAN)**
-

3.1 Direct-Attached Storage (DAS)

DAS refers to storage devices that are directly connected to a single computer without a network.

Examples of DAS

- **Internal Hard Drives (HDDs & SSDs):** SATA, NVMe
- **External USB Drives:** USB hard drives, flash drives
- **RAID:** Locally attached RAID controllers

✓ Advantages of DAS

- ✓ High speed (direct connection)
- ✓ No network dependency
- ✓ Lower cost

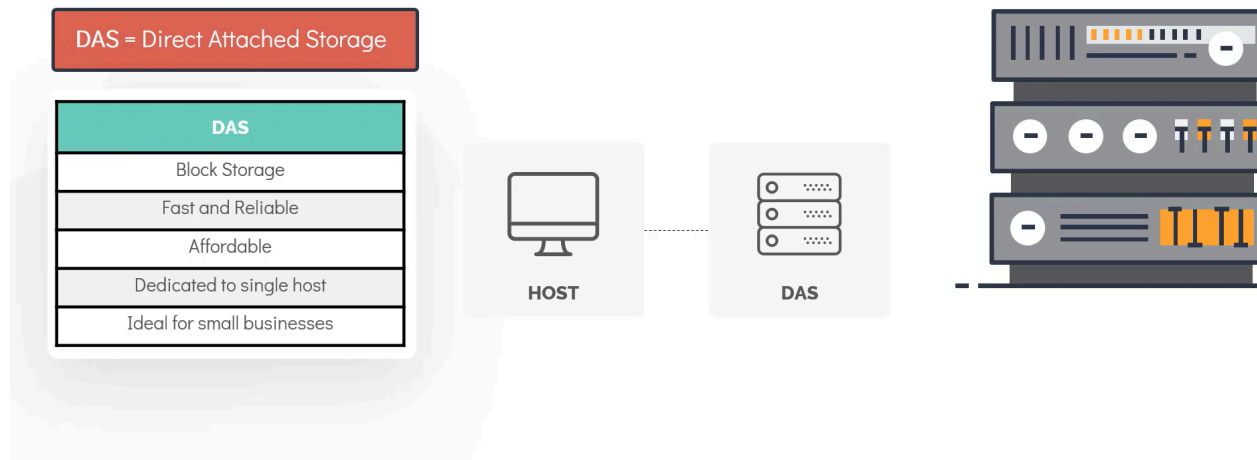
✗ Disadvantages of DAS

- ✗ Limited to a single machine
- ✗ Not easily shareable

Checking DAS Devices in Linux

```
lsblk      # Show block devices
fdisk -l   # List partitions
df -h      # Show mounted file systems
```

DAS



3.2 Network-Attached Storage (NAS)

NAS is a storage device connected to a network, accessible by multiple clients over protocols like **NFS (Linux/Unix)** and **SMB (Windows)**.

Examples of NAS

- **Dedicated NAS appliances** (e.g., Synology, QNAP)
- **Linux-based file servers**

✓ Advantages of NAS

- ✓ Centralized storage
- ✓ Multiple users can access files
- ✓ Easy to scale

✗ Disadvantages of NAS

- ✗ Slower than local DAS
- ✗ Dependent on network performance

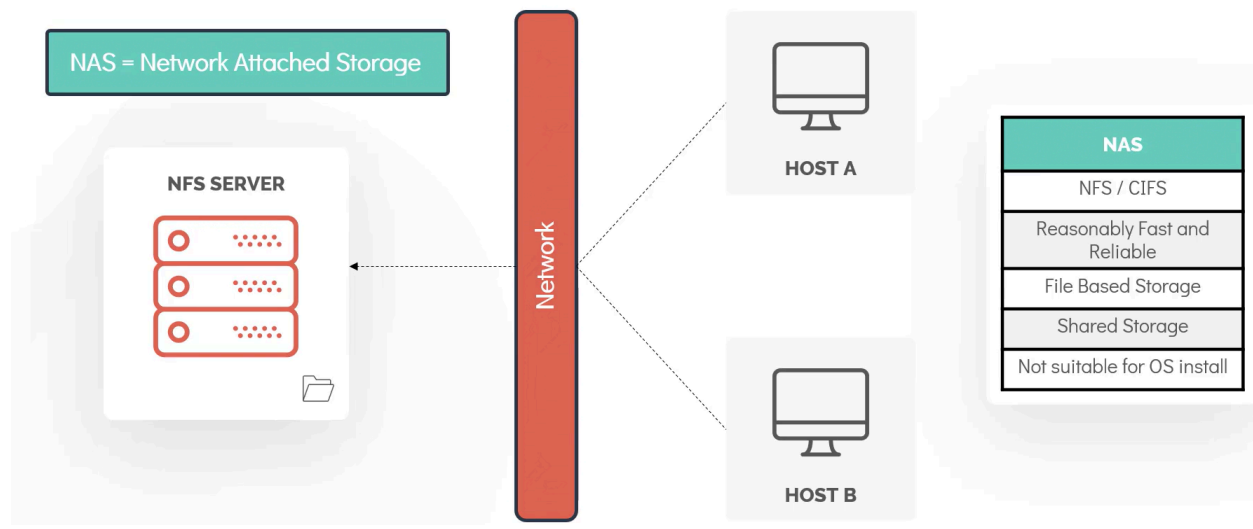
🔧 Mounting a NAS Share via NFS

```
sudo mount -t nfs 192.168.1.100:/shared_folder /mnt/nas
```

To make it persistent, add to `/etc/fstab`:

```
192.168.1.100:/shared_folder /mnt/nas nfs defaults 0 0
```


NAS



⚡ 3.3 Storage Area Network (SAN)

SAN is a high-speed network dedicated to providing block-level storage to multiple machines, often used in data centers.

Examples of SAN Technologies

- **Fibre Channel (FC)** – High-speed storage networking
- **iSCSI (Internet Small Computer System Interface)** – Block storage over TCP/IP

✅ Advantages of SAN

- ✓ High-speed performance
- ✓ Redundancy and fault tolerance
- ✓ Supports virtualization

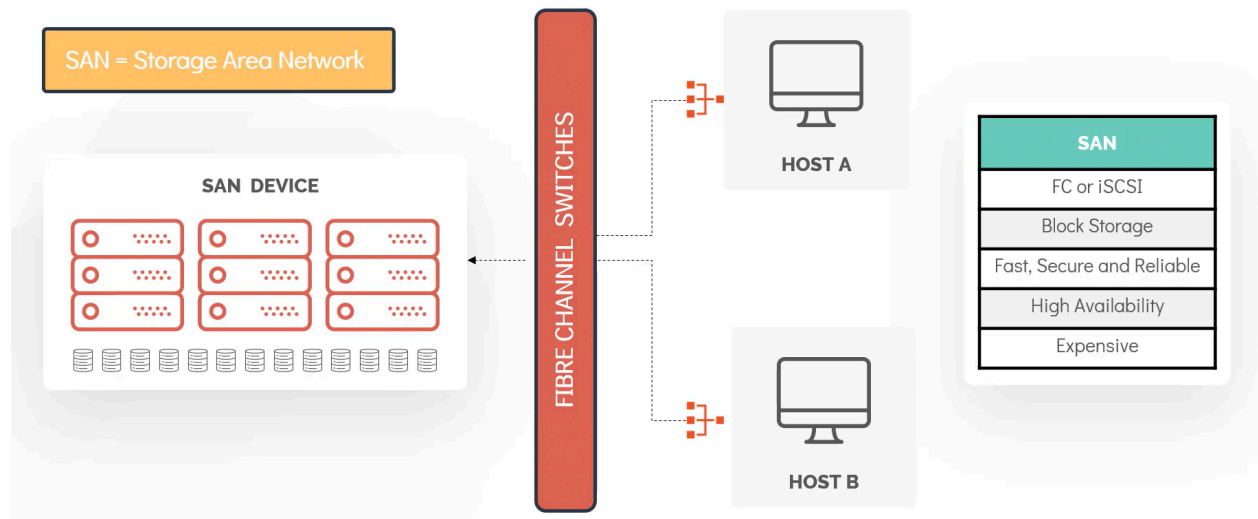
❌ Disadvantages of SAN

- ✗ Expensive setup
- ✗ Requires specialized hardware

🔧 Checking SAN/iSCSI Devices in Linux

```
iscsiadm -m session # List active iSCSI sessions
lsblk                # Show block devices
multipath -ll        # Show multi-path storage devices
```

SAN



4. NFS (Network File System) in Linux

NFS allows Linux systems to share files over a network using a **client-server architecture**.

4.1 Installing NFS

On the NFS Server:

```
sudo apt install nfs-kernel-server    # Debian-based
```

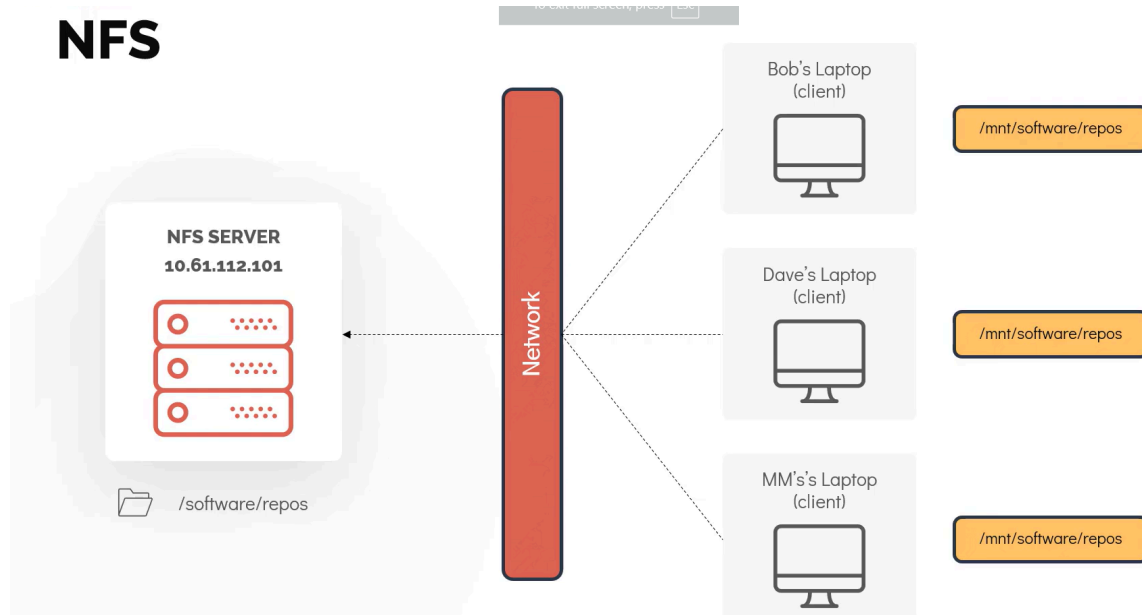
```
sudo yum install nfs-utils            # RHEL-based
```

On the NFS Client:

```
sudo apt install nfs-common          # Debian-based
```

```
sudo yum install nfs-utils           # RHEL-based
```

NFS



🔧 4.2 Configuring an NFS Server

Create a Shared Directory:

```
sudo mkdir -p /mnt/shared
sudo chmod 777 /mnt/shared
```

Edit the NFS Exports File:

```
sudo nano /etc/exports
```

Add:

```
/mnt/shared 192.168.1.0/24(rw,sync,no_root_squash)
```

Restart NFS Service:

```
sudo systemctl restart nfs-server
```

4.3 Mounting an NFS Share on a Client

```
sudo mount -t nfs 192.168.1.100:/mnt/shared /mnt/client
```

To make it persistent, add to `/etc/fstab`:

```
192.168.1.100:/mnt/shared /mnt/client nfs defaults 0 0
```

4.4 Checking NFS Status

```
showmount -e 192.168.1.100 # Show available NFS shares
systemctl status nfs-server # Check NFS service status
```

5. LVM (Logical Volume Manager)

LVM allows **flexible disk management**, enabling resizing and snapshots.

5.1 LVM Components

Component	Description
Physical Volume (PV)	Raw storage device (e.g., <code>/dev/sdb</code>)
Volume Group (VG)	Collection of physical volumes
Logical Volume (LV)	Partition inside a volume group

5.2 Creating an LVM Partition

Step 1: Initialize the Physical Volume

```
sudo pvcreate /dev/sdb
```

Step 2: Create a Volume Group

```
sudo vgcreate my_vg /dev/sdb
```

Step 3: Create a Logical Volume

```
sudo lvcreate -L 10G -n my_lv my_vg
```

Step 4: Format and Mount the LVM Volume

```
sudo mkfs.ext4 /dev/my_vg/my_lv
```

```
sudo mkdir /mnt/lvm
```

```
sudo mount /dev/my_vg/my_lv /mnt/lvm
```

To make the mount persistent, add it to `/etc/fstab`:

```
/dev/my_vg/my_lv /mnt/lvm ext4 defaults 0 2
```

5.3 Resizing an LVM Volume

Increase LVM Size

```
sudo lvextend -L +5G /dev/my_vg/my_lv # Increase by 5GB
```

```
sudo resize2fs /dev/my_vg/my_lv # Resize file system
```

Reduce LVM Size (Unmount First!)

```
sudo umount /mnt/lvm
```

```
sudo lvreduce -L -5G /dev/my_vg/my_lv
```

```
sudo resize2fs /dev/my_vg/my_lv
```

```
sudo mount /dev/my_vg/my_lv /mnt/lvm
```

5.4 Creating LVM Snapshots

Create a Snapshot

```
sudo lvcreate -L 1G -s -n my_snapshot /dev/my_vg/my_lv
```

Restore from a Snapshot

```
sudo lvconvert --merge /dev/my_vg/my_snapshot
```

5.5 Checking LVM Status

Show Physical Volumes

```
sudo pvs
```

Show Volume Groups

```
sudo vgs
```

Show Logical Volumes

```
sudo lvs
```