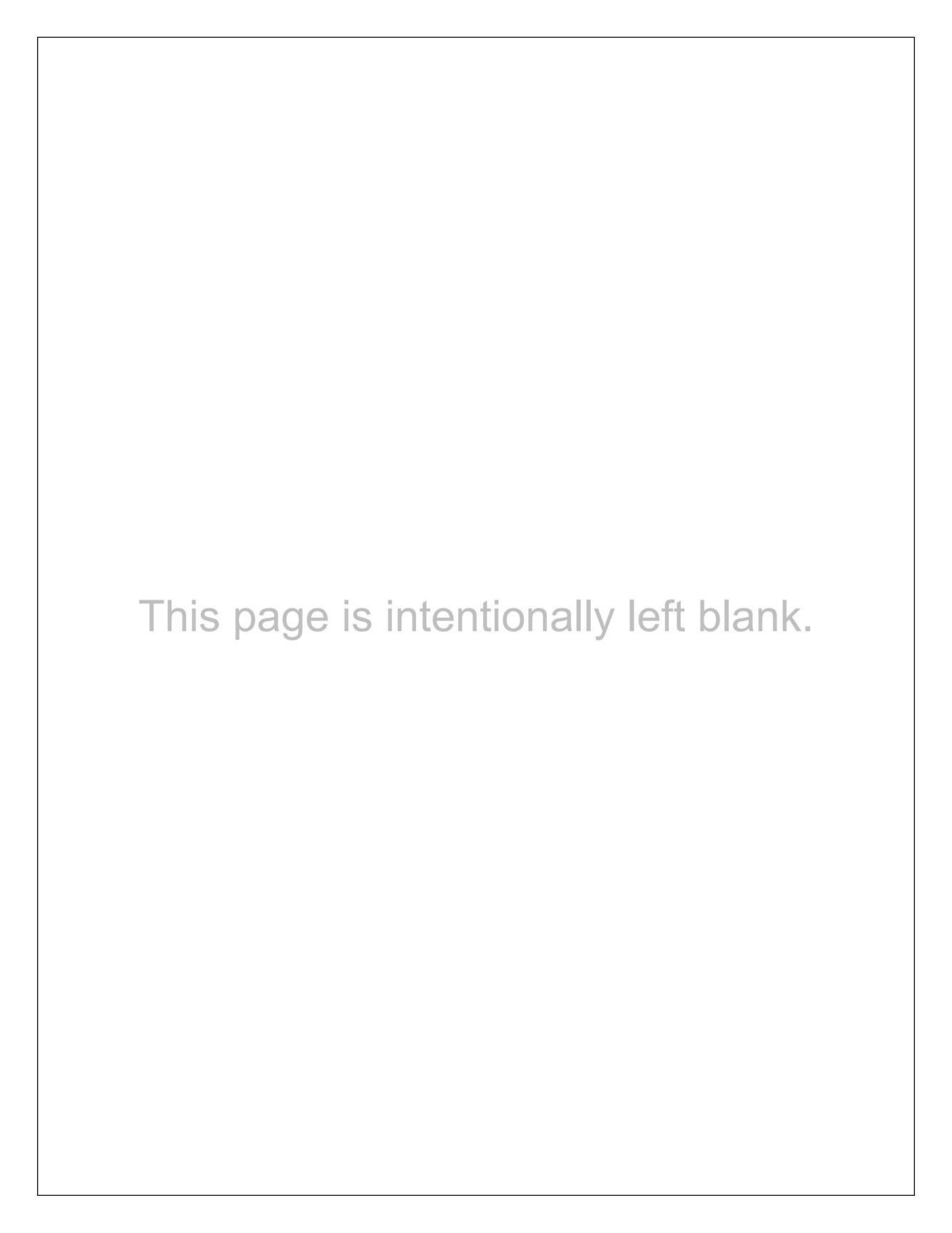




Certified Network Defender v3

MODULE 06
ENDPOINT SECURITY-LINUX SYSTEMS

EC-Council Official Curricula



LEARNING OBJECTIVES

The learning objectives of this module are:

- ➤ LO#01: Understand Linux OS and security concerns
- ➤ LO#02: Discuss Linux installation and patching
- ➤ LO#03: Discuss Linux OS hardening techniques
- ➤ LO#04: Discuss Linux user access and password management
- ➤ LO#05: Discuss Linux network and remote access security
- ➤ LO#06: Discuss various Linux security tools and frameworks

Copyright © by **EC-Gouncil**. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

Learning Objectives

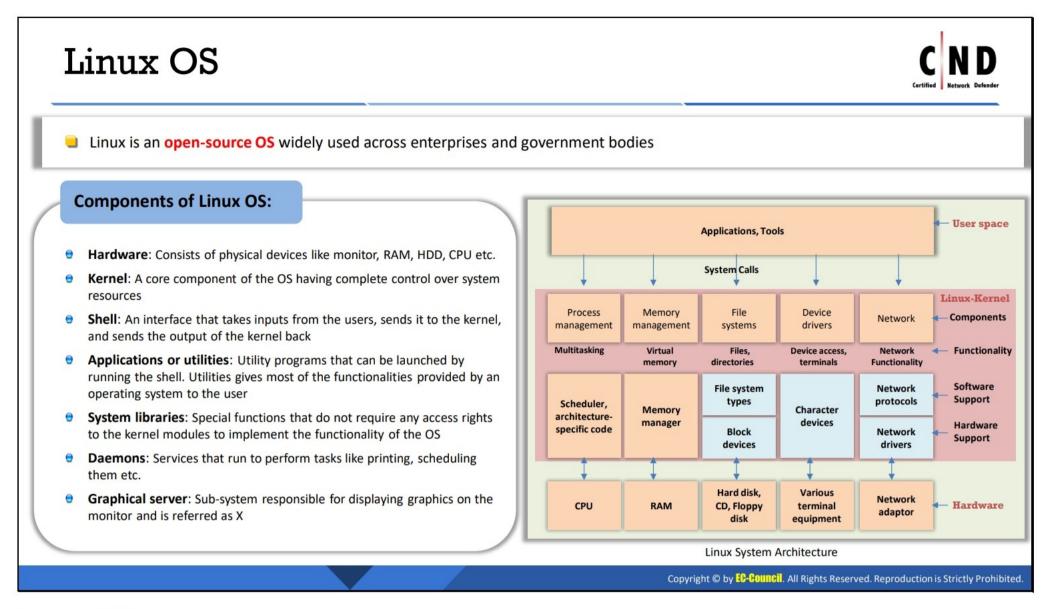
This module introduces the Linux OS, its security features, and the various techniques to harden the OS security. The objectives of this module are listed below:

- Understand Linux OS and security concerns
- Discuss Linux installation and patching
- Discuss Linux OS hardening techniques
- Discuss Linux user access and password management
- Discuss Linux network and remote access security
- Discuss various Linux security tools and frameworks



LO#01: Understand Linux OS and Security Concerns

The objective of this section is to help you understand the security features and security concerns in Linux OS.



Linux OS

Linux is an open-source OS. It is widely used across enterprises and government bodies. It is one of the popular versions of the UNIX operating system. Therefore, its functionality is very similar to UNIX. Considered to be one of the most reliable and secure operating systems, it has been around since the mid-1990s.

A few major advantages of Linux are listed below:

- Linux is a freely available to public.
- It allows applications to be installed without rebooting the OS for their functioning.
- It allows customization to fix bugs rapidly as it is open source.

A historical timeline of Linux developments is summarized below:

Year	Description
1991	First Linux code released.
1992	Linus licenses Linux under the GPL. An important decision that will contribute to its success.
1993	Slackware becomes first widely adopted distribution.
1996	Linus visits aquarium, gets bit by a penguin, and chooses it as Linux MASCOT.
1998	Tech. giants begin announcing platform support for Linux.
1999	Red Hat goes public.

2003	IBM runs the famous Linux advertisement during the Super Bowl.
2005	Linux appears on the cover of Business Week.
2007	The Linux Foundation is formed to promote and standardize Linux.
2010	The Linux-based Android OS outships all other smartphone OSes in the US and climbs to dominate.
2011	Linux turns 20 and powers the worlds' super computers, ATMS, phones, etc.

Table 6.1: Timeline of Linux Developments

Components of Linux OS

The key components of Linux OS are listed below:

- Hardware: This component comprises physical devices such as monitor, RAM, HDD, CPU, etc.
- Kernel: It is the core component of the Linux OS. It has complete control over system resources and interacts directly with hardware (memory and peripheral devices).
- Shell: This is an interface to the kernel. It hides the complexity of the functions of the kernel from users. It takes commands from the user and executes the functions of the kernel.
- Applications or utilities: Utility programs are launched by running the shell. They provide
 most of the functionalities provided by the OS to the user. They are responsible for doing
 some specialized or individual tasks.
 - Most new Linux distributions feature App store-like tools that centralize and simplify application installations. For example, the Linux Software Center allows users to search for apps and also allows installing them from a centralized location.
- System libraries: These are special functions or programs. The applications or utilities use system libraries without access rights to access the kernel's modules and to implement most of the functionalities of the OS.
- Daemons: These are the background services run to perform specific tasks like printing, scheduling, sound, etc. They either start-up during boot or after logging into the desktop.
- Graphical server: This is the subsystem responsible for displaying graphics on the monitor and is referred to as X server or just X.

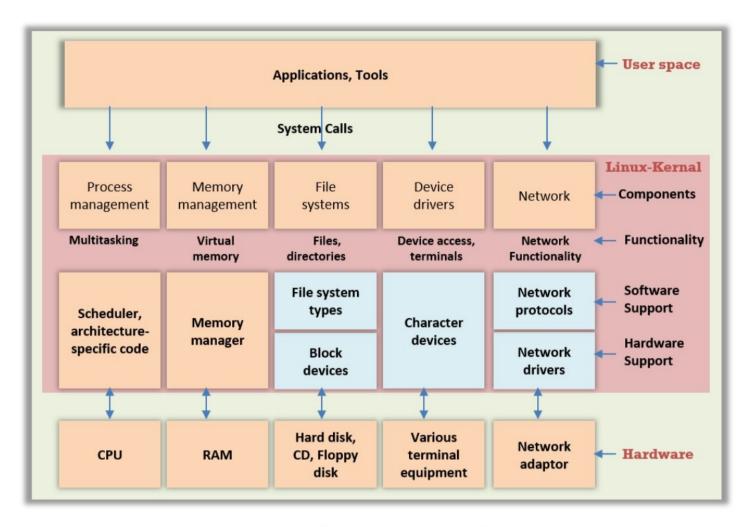
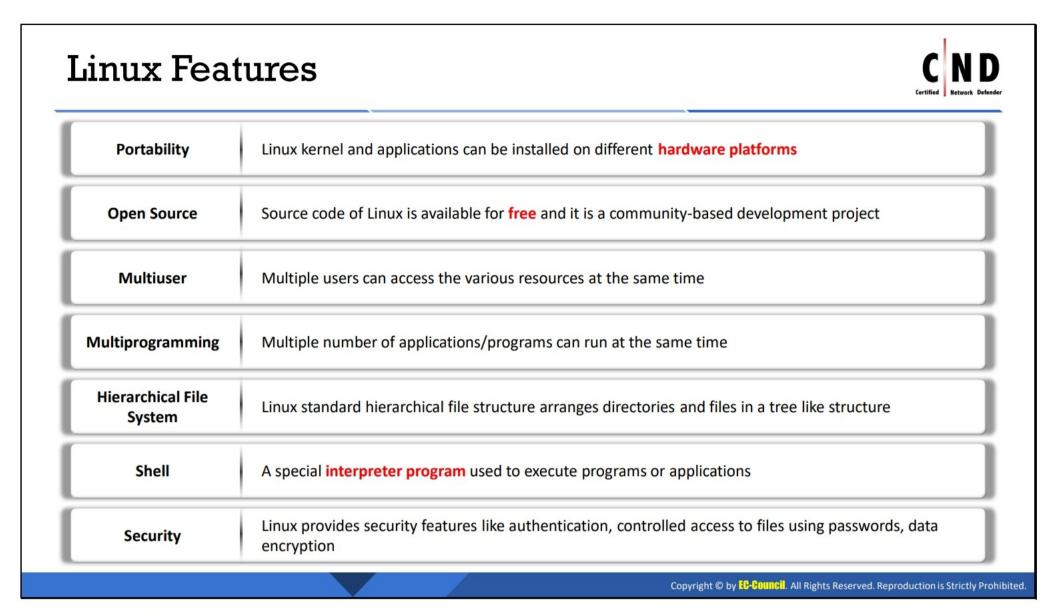
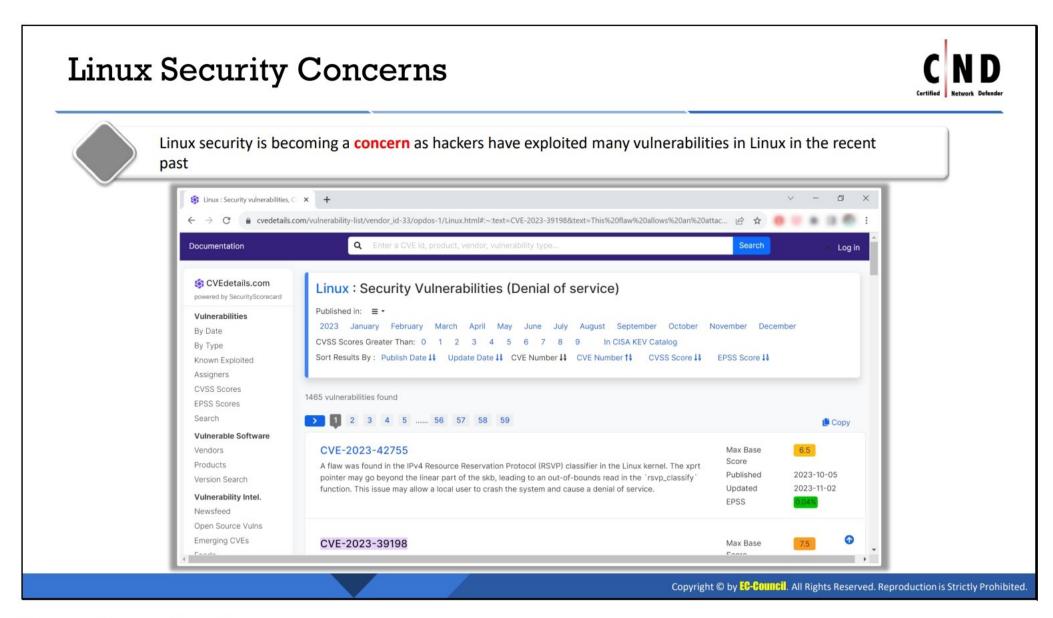


Figure 6.1: Linux System Architecture



Linux Features

- Portability: Linux works on different types of hardware in the same way.
- Open-source: OS Linux is a community-based development project, and its source code is free. Many people worldwide collaborate to improve Linux OS.
- Multi-user: Multiple users can access the system resources (memory, RAM, applications, etc.) at a time.
- Multiprogramming: OS Linux features running multiple programs at a time.
- Hierarchical file system: The system files and user files are arranged in a standard hierarchical file structure.
- Shell: It is a special interpreter program that is used to execute commands of the OS. It is used to perform different types of operations and call applications, etc.
- Security: Linux provides its users authentication (password protection, controlled access to special files, and encryption of data).



Linux Security Concerns

Even though many people considered Linux to be inherently secure, as its code can be inspected for issues, attackers have exploited a number of security vulnerabilities in the recent past.

The following screenshot shows the latest CVE details of Linux security vulnerabilities

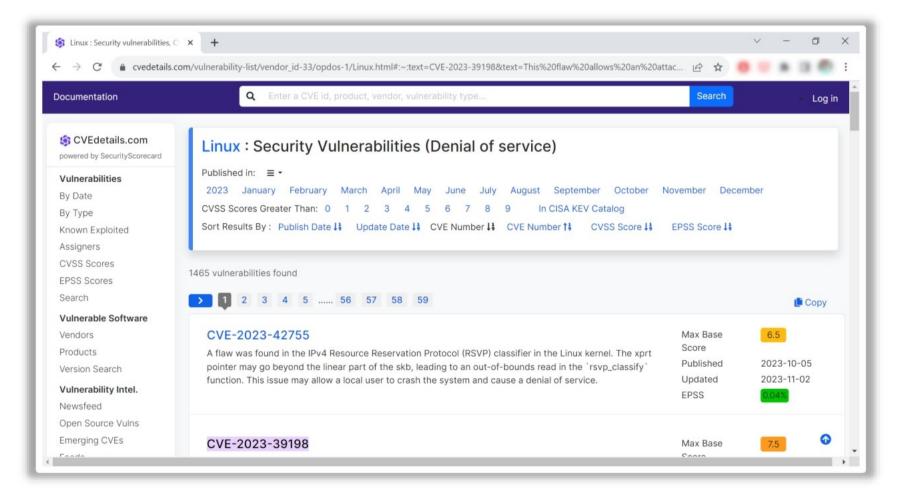
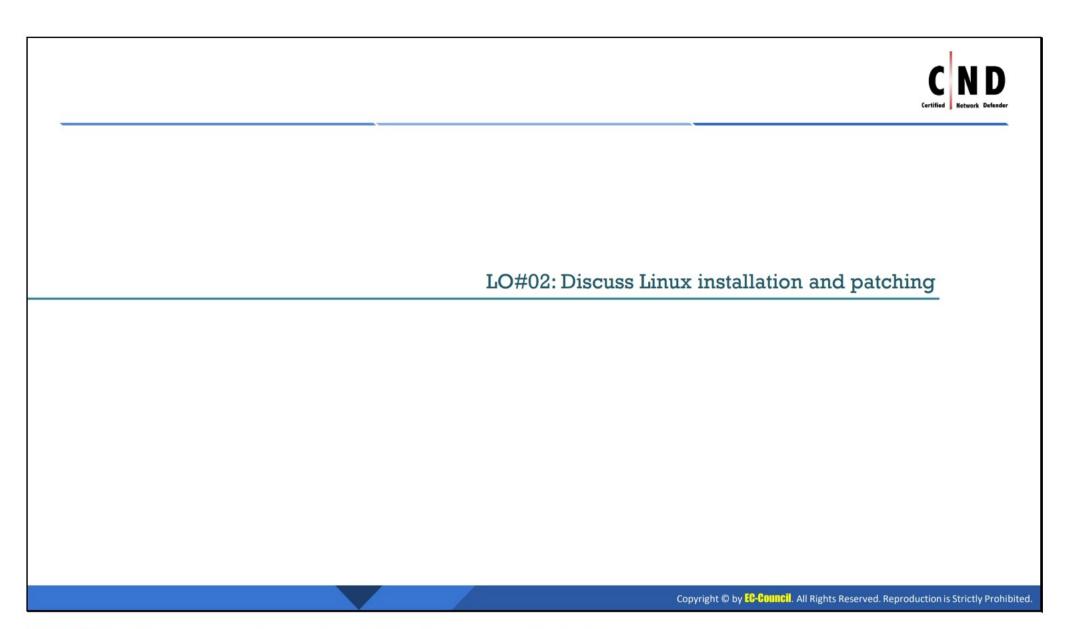


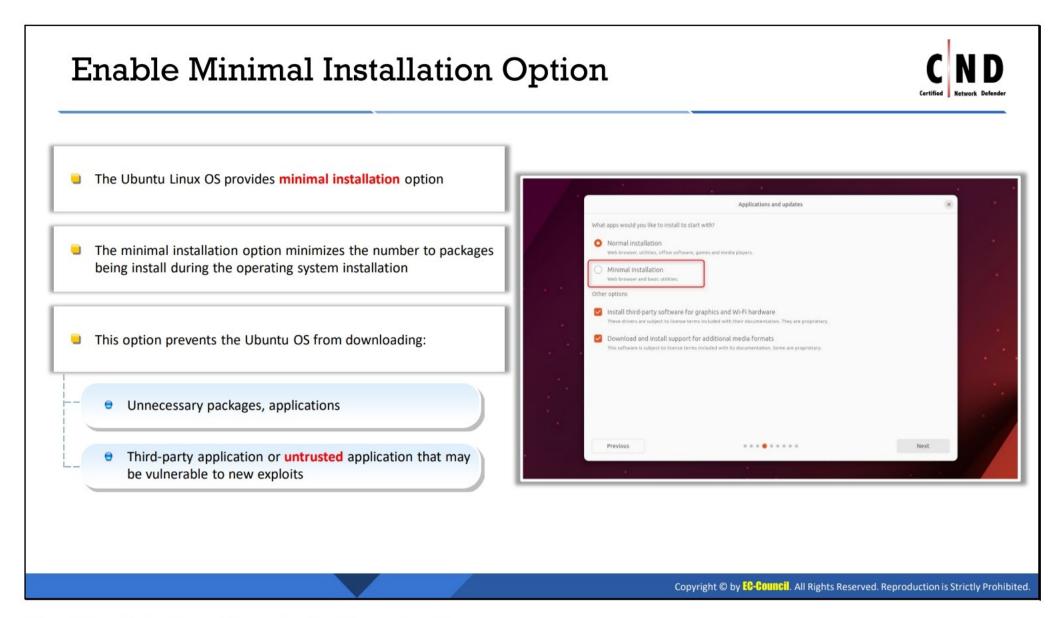
Figure 6.2: CVE Details of Linux Security Vulnerabilities

Linux OS is a free and open-source software that can be modified and distributed by anyone. This can result in unexpected vulnerabilities that can be exploited by the attacker. Some vulnerabilities arise due to oversight by network defenders and poor configuration settings. However, the recent attacks show that Linux is being targeted for various malware attacks.



LO#02: Discuss Linux Installation and Patching

The objective of this section is to help you understand the importance of security vigilance in Linux OS installation and patching. It also describes some of the standard security practices associated with Linux OS installation and patching.



Enable Minimal Installation Option

- The Ubuntu Linux operating system provides the "Minimal Installation (Minimal)" option. The "minimal install" checkbox is added to Ubiquity (the Ubuntu installer) from Ubuntu version 18.04 onward. During the setup of the Bionic Beaver (Ubuntu codename for version 18.04), the user selects whether they need a full-fat Ubuntu install or a semi-skim version.
- The "Minimal installation" option appears in the section of the installer that prompts whether
 to minimize the number of packages or prevent the unnecessary packages being installed
 during the operating system installation.
 - For example: restricting installation of codecs to enable multimedia playback alongside the main desktop.
- Minimal installation features the same core Ubuntu experience, but with fewer apps. A minimal Ubuntu install comprises a desktop environment, a web browser, a few core systems tools, and nothing else. It removes around 80 packages from the default install. The system administrator can install any required application after the completion of the OS installation.

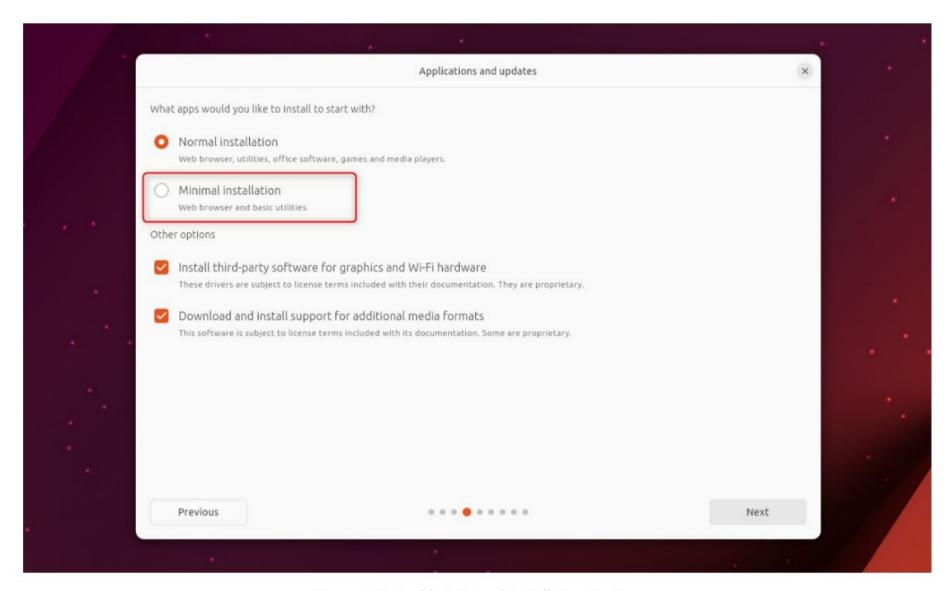
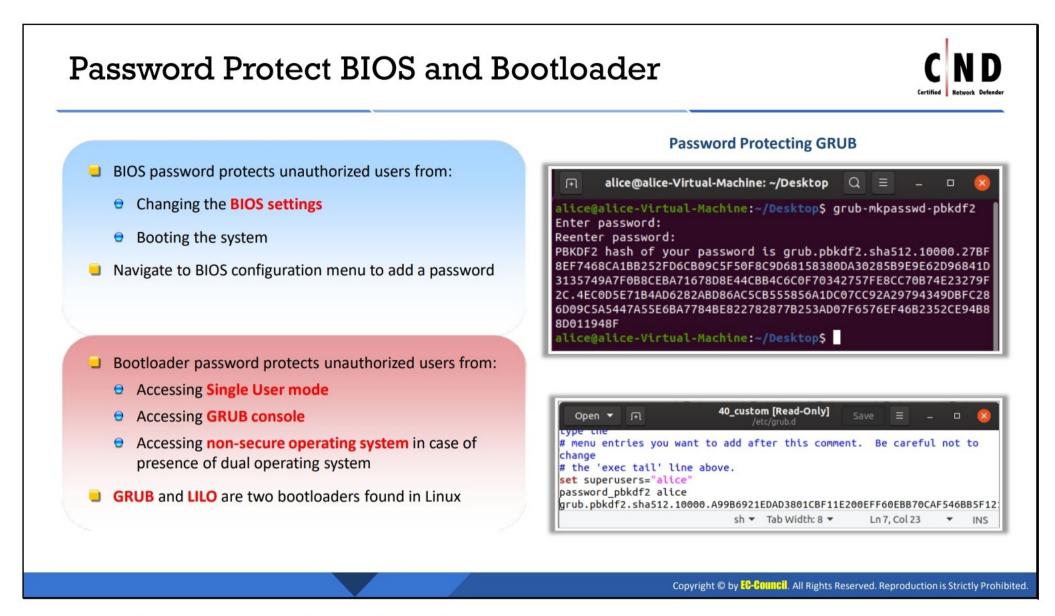


Figure 6.3: Enable Minimal Installation Option



Password Protect BIOS and Bootloader

BIOS

The Basic Input/Output System (BIOS) represents the firmware installed on the system's motherboard that is used to perform hardware initialization before booting the OS.

Protecting BIOS with a password can prevent unauthorized users from the following:

- Changing BIOS settings, which can block any physical unauthorized access to the BIOS to boot from a diskette or CD-ROM. Otherwise, the attacker enters rescue mode or singleuser mode, which can allow them to start processes on the system or copy sensitive information.
- Booting system, in which the attacker is forced to enter a password before the BIOS starts the boot loader.

Setting a BIOS Password

The exact process of setting the BIOS password varies with the motherboard manufacturer. See the system's manual for specific instructions for setting or changing the BIOS password. In case the BIOS password has been forgotten, it can either be reset through jumpers on the motherboard or by disconnecting the CMOS battery. For this reason, lock the system case when needed or see the system's manual before disconnecting the CMOS battery.

Boot Loader

The boot loader is the software that loads the kernel. It is the first software that runs after the BIOS in order to boot the Linux system. When booting a system, the boot loader menu is displayed. The menu lists out boot entries (OS instances that are installed on the system). Two of the most common Linux Boot Loaders are GRUB and LILO.

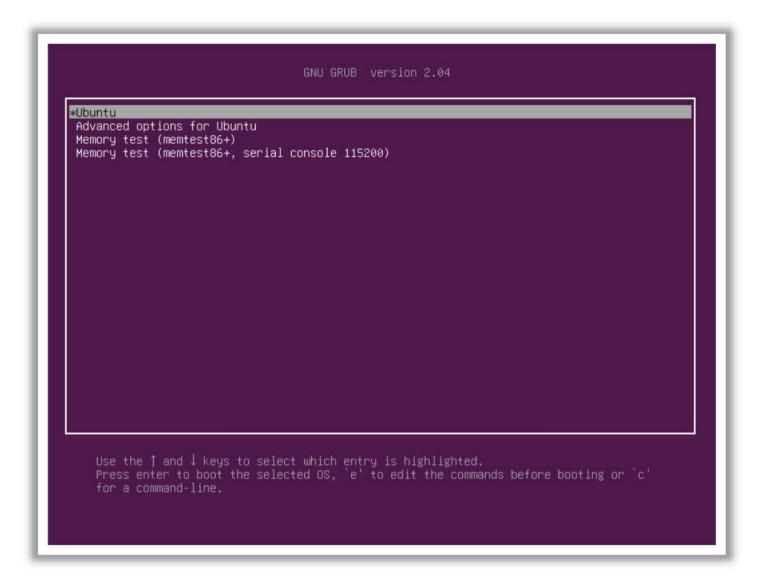


Figure 6.4: GRUB boot loader



Figure 6.5: LILO boot loader

Anyone can override the existing OS by booting their OS through removable devices. Therefore, protect the boot loader by enabling password protection.

Protecting Linux boot loader with a password can prevent unauthorized users from the following:

- Accessing single-user mode, in which the attacker is blocked from automatic logging in the system as the root user without the root password.
- Accessing the GRUB console, in which the attacker is blocked from using the GRUB editor interface to edit its configuration or to get the information using the cat command.

 Accessing non-secure OSes, in which the attacker is blocked from selecting an OS at boot time if it is a dual-boot system. For example, selecting DOS at boot time as it ignores access controls and file permissions.

Steps to Password Protect Ubuntu's Boot Loader

- Generate password hash
 - o Type grub-mkpasswd-pbkdf2 in the Ubuntu terminal and press "Enter" to generate an obfuscated password for GRUB's configuration files. Copy the long string after the "Reenter password:."

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop Q = - □ S

alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$ grub-mkpasswd-pbkdf2
Enter password:
Reenter password:
PBKDF2 hash of your password is grub.pbkdf2.sha512.10000.27BF
8EF7468CA1BB252FD6CB09C5F50F8C9D68158380DA30285B9E9E62D96841D
3135749A7F0B8CEBA71678D8E44CBB4C6C0F70342757FE8CC70B74E23279F
2C.4EC0D5E71B4AD6282ABD86AC5CB555856A1DC07CC92A29794349DBFC28
6D09C5A5447A55E6BA7784BE822782877B253AD07F6576EF46B2352CE94B8
8D011948F
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.6: Password Hash

Note: This step is optional. You can enter the password in plain text in Grub's configuration files, but it obfuscates it and provides extra security.

- Set a password
 - O Type sudo gedit /etc/grub.d/40_custom to open the 40_custom file in the Nano text editor, where the custom settings should be saved. Otherwise, they may be overwritten by newer GRUB versions if saved elsewhere.
 - Add a password entry at the bottom of the file:

Set superusers="name" password_pbkdf2 name [long string from earlier]

Figure 6.7: Set Password

Here, the superuser (who can edit boot entries) named "alice" is added. Save the file (Ctrl+O), press "Enter" and exit.

Save the file by pressing Ctrl-O and "Enter," then press Ctrl-X to exit.

Steps to Password Protect Linux's LILO

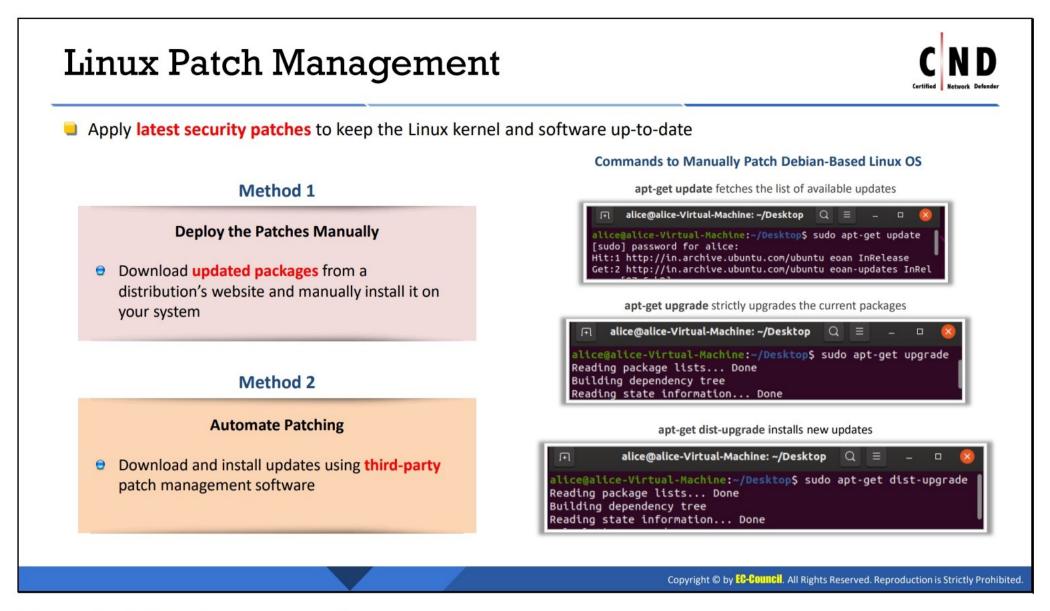
- Restrict /etc/lilo.conf to root only.
 - # chmod 600 lilo.conf
- Password protect LILO by modifying the global section of lilo.conf.

```
password=""
restricted
```

Re-run LILO to write the changes:

```
# /sbin/lilo
```

Give the root password when it prompts. It creates a /etc/lilo.conf.shs file, containing a password hash accessible only to root.



Linux Patch Management

Linux patch management involves managing patches for the applications running on Linux systems. The process of Linux patch management includes the following:

- Scanning Linux endpoints for detecting missing patches
- Downloading patches from the vendor's sites
- Deploying patches to the client systems

Linux patch management helps maintain a productive and secure environment by improving the performance of the systems.

Methods to Manage Linux Systems Using Software Patching Tools

 Manual Patch Deployment: Download the updated packages from a distribution's website and manually install it on systems. Check the distribution's website for the latest patches and updates.

Commands to patch Linux systems manually

For Debian-based Linux OSes (Debian, Ubuntu, Linux Mint, etc.):

sudo apt-get update

Fetches the list of available updates

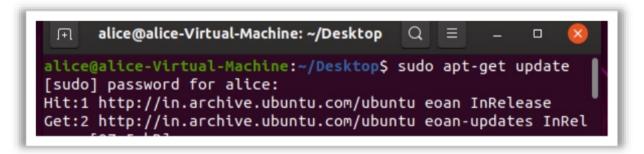


Figure 6.8: update command

sudo apt-get upgrade

Strictly upgrades the current packages

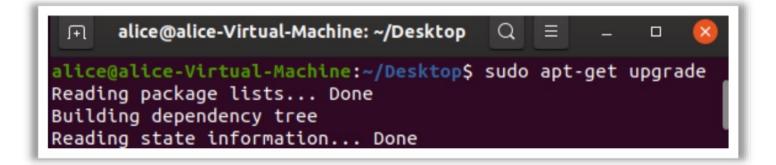


Figure 6.9: upgrade command

sudo apt-get dist-upgrade # Installs updates (new ones)

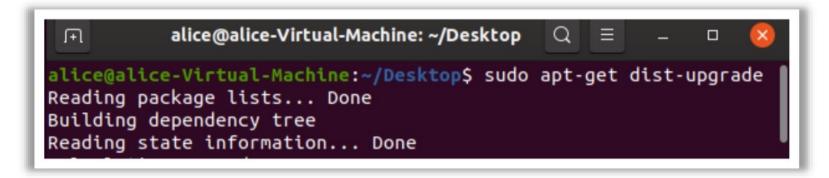


Figure 6.10: dist-upgrade command

For Red Hat-based Linux OSes (Red Hat, CentOS, Oracle Linux, etc.):

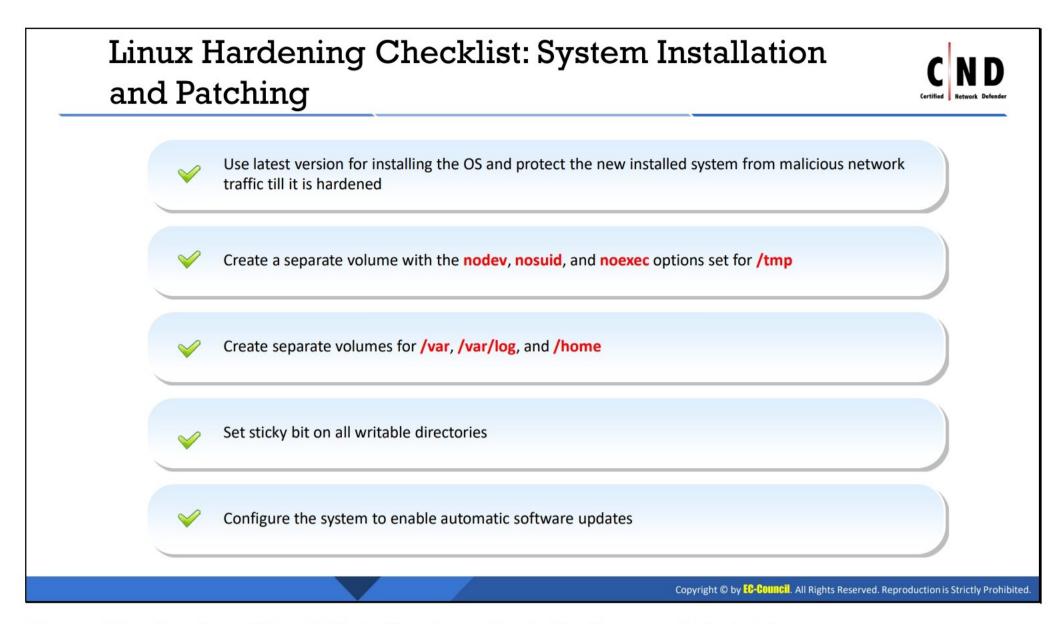
```
yum check-update  # To check for the list of available updates
yum update  # Installs updates for all the packages
```

For SUSE-based Linux OSes (SUSE Linux Enterprise, OpenSUSE):

```
zypper check-update #To check for the list of available updates
zypper update #Installs updates for all the packages
```

- For Slackware-based Linux distributions, use swaret.
- For other RPM-based Linux distributions, use autoupdate.
- Automated Patching/Using Patch Management Software: Manual deployment of patches requires many steps and may result in errors. Moreover, it is difficult to identify where the mistake happens. It is also time-consuming due to the complexities involved. In these cases, third-party patch software enable automated patch management. They can automatically perform the following functions:
 - Scan for missing patches
 - Download patches
 - Test patches in a non-production environment
 - Approve patches to be rolled out in the production environment if they do not cause any issues.
 - Schedule reports

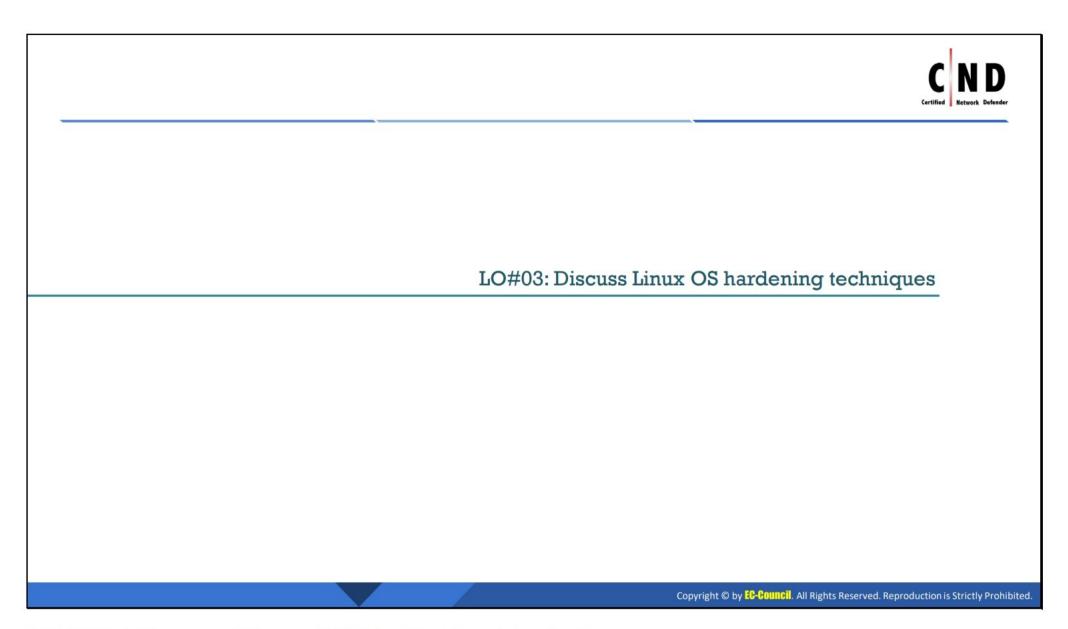
Examples of patch management software include ManageEngine Patch Manager Plus, SapphireIMS, GFI LanGuard, etc.



Linux Hardening Checklist: System Installation and Patching

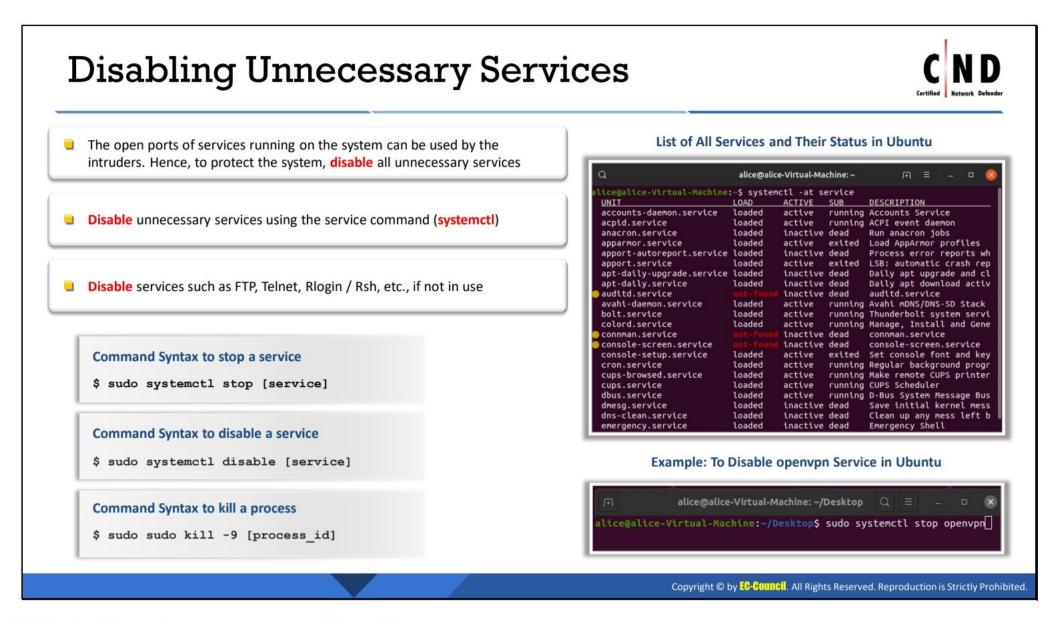
The necessary steps to make the Linux host secure are listed below:

- Secure a newly installed system from hostile network traffic until finishing the installation and hardening of OS.
- Use the latest version of the OS. Go through the documentation of the vendor support to decide the lifecycle of the version and consider the service packs releases.
- Create separate volume with nodev, nosuid, and noexec options set for /tmp to avoid resource exhaustion.
 - Setting nodev avoids users from creating or using block or special character devices.
 - o Setting noexec avoids users from running binary executables from /temp.
 - o Setting nosuid avoids users from creating set userid files in /tmp.
- Create individual volumes for /var, /var/log, and /home. Separate the write access of the non-administrative users from the root volume to restrict the impact of those volumes being filled.
- Set sticky bit on all world-writable directories to stop users with write access to the directory and deleting files of the other users.
- Configure the system to receive software update es. For all distributions, this step is a simple configuration change.



LO#03: Discuss Linux OS Hardening Techniques

The objective of this section is to explain the various techniques that can be used for hardening Linux OS.



Disabling Unnecessary Services

Several unwanted applications and services may get installed by default during the OS installation, eating away system resources without knowledge of the user. Open ports of the services running on the system can be exploited by attackers. Therefore, it is recommended to disable such services or applications to secure the system. Use the command systemctl to disable unnecessary services in the system.

- Syntax to stop a service: \$ sudo systemctl stop [service]
- Syntax to disable a service: \$ sudo systemctl disable [service]

For example: To disable openupn service in Ubuntu, follow the command:

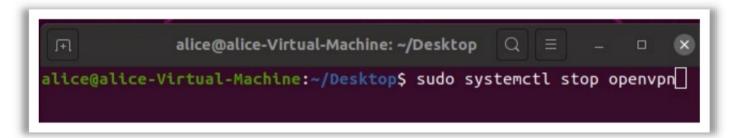


Figure 6.11: stop command

Syntax to kill a process: \$ sudo kill -9 [process_id]
For example: # sudo kill -9 1511

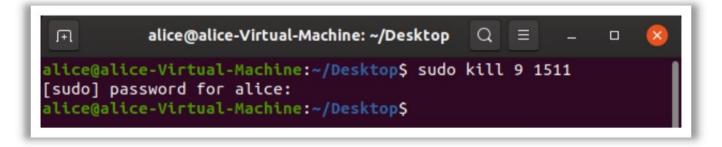


Figure 6.12: kill command

To prevent the exploitation of known vulnerabilities, list out all the installed packages on Linux OS/Servers and remove the unnecessary ones. If it is a Linux server, it is strictly recommended to remove the following unnecessary services as servers require the least number of installed applications and services on them.

Telnet-Server

It comprises the telnetd daemon, which allows connections from users from other systems through the telnet protocol. The insecure and unencrypted telnet protocol could allow attackers to sniff network traffic, who can then steal credentials.

- Steps to remove telnet server in Red Hat:
 - Enter the command to know the telnet-server package is on the system.

```
# rpm -q telnet-server package telnet-server is not installed
```

o Enter the command to remove the telnet-server from a Linux system.

```
# yum erase telnet-server
```

RSH-Server

The Berkeley rsh-server (rsh, rlogin, rcp) package comprises legacy services that exchange credentials in clear-text. This service comprises many security exposures that can be exploited.

- Steps to remove RSH-Server:
 - o Enter the command to know the RSH-server package is on the system.

```
# rpm -q rsh-server package rsh-server is not installed
```

Enter the command to remove the RSH-server from a Linux system.

```
# yum erase rsh-server
```

NIS-Server

The client-server directory service protocol, network information server (NIS) (formerly, Yellow Pages), tends to distribute system configuration files. Also, it is an insecure system that is been vulnerable to DoS attacks, buffer overflows, and poor authentication for querying NIS maps.

- Steps to remove NIS-Server
 - Enter the command to know the NIS-Server package is on the system.

```
# rpm -q ypserv package ypserv is not installed
```

o Enter the command to remove the NIS-server from a Linux system.

```
# yum erase ypserv
```

TFTP-Server

Trivial file transfer protocol (TFTP) is used to transfer configuration or boot machines from a boot server automatically. It does not support authentication or encryption to provide Confidentiality and Data Integrity protection.

Steps to remove TFTP-Server:

- o Enter the command to know the TFTP-Server package is on the system.
 - # rpm -q tftp-server package tftp-server is not installed
- o Enter the command to remove the TFTP-server from a Linux system.
 - # yum erase tftp-server

TALK-Server

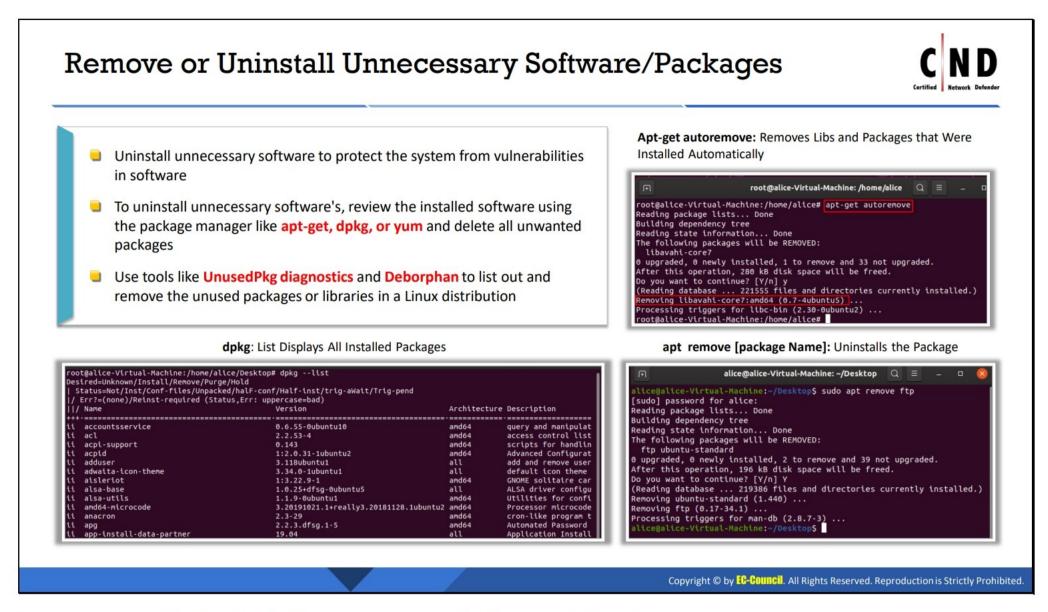
The TALK software allows sending and receiving messages across systems through a terminal session. It poses security risks as it uses unencrypted protocols for communication.

- Steps to remove TALK-Server:
 - Enter the command to know the Talk-Server package is on the system.

```
# rpm -q talk-server package talk-server is not installed
```

o Enter the command to remove the Talk-server from a Linux system.

```
# yum erase talk-server
```



Remove or Uninstall Unnecessary Software/Packages

Downloading packages from untrusted sources and leaving older versions of packages installed can introduce vulnerabilities or waste resources needed for more important tasks. Installing and uninstalling applications may leave many dependent files that have no use. Use the following commands to remove any partial package and remove any unused dependencies.

- Use command sudo apt autoclean to clean partial packages.
- Use command sudo apt-get clean to clean the apt cache.
- Use command sudo apt autoremove application-name uninstall or remove unnecessary packages.

```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice/Desktop# apt-get autoremove Reading package lists... Done Building dependency tree Reading state information... Done 0 upgraded, 0 newly installed, 0 to remove and 39 not upgraded. root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice/Desktop#
```

Figure 6.13: autoremove command

Using autoremove in Ubuntu

The administrator can use various techniques/tools to remove or uninstall unused packages in Linux using the apt-get command.

```
F
                 alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop
apt-get is a command line interface for retrieval of packages
and information about them from authenticated sources and
for installation, upgrade and removal of packages together
with their dependencies.
Most used commands:
  update - Retrieve new lists of packages
  upgrade - Perform an upgrade
  install - Install new packages (pkg is libc6 not libc6.deb)
  reinstall - Reinstall packages (pkg is libc6 not libc6.deb)
  remove - Remove packages
  purge - Remove packages and config files
  autoremove - Remove automatically all unused packages
  dist-upgrade - Distribution upgrade, see apt-get(8)
  dselect-upgrade - Follow dselect selections
  build-dep - Configure build-dependencies for source packages
  satisfy - Satisfy dependency strings
  clean - Erase downloaded archive files
  autoclean - Erase old downloaded archive files
  check - Verify that there are no broken dependencies
  source - Download source archives
  download - Download the binary package into the current directory
  changelog - Download and display the changelog for the given package
See apt-get(8) for more information about the available commands.
Configuration options and syntax is detailed in apt.conf(5).
Information about how to configure sources can be found in sources.list
Package and version choices can be expressed via apt_preferences(5).
Security details are available in apt-secure(8).
                                        This APT has Super Cow Powers.
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine:~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.14: apt-get command

Use the script-based dpkg -list to list all the installed package in Linux

```
oot@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice/Desktop# dpkg --list
Desired=Unknown/Install/Remove/Purge/Hold
Status=Not/Inst/Conf-files/Unpacked/halF-conf/Half-inst/trig-aWait/Trig-pend
/ Err?=(none)/Reinst-required (Status,Err: uppercase=bad)
                                                                                             Architecture Description
||/ Name
                                                  Version
   accountsservice
                                                  0.6.55-0ubuntu10
                                                                                                            query and manipulat
                                                                                             amd64
                                                  2.2.53-4
                                                                                             amd64
                                                                                                            access control list
   acl
                                                                                                            scripts for handlin
   acpi-support
                                                  0.143
                                                                                             amd64
                                                                                                            Advanced Configurat
                                                  1:2.0.31-1ubuntu2
                                                                                             amd64
   acpid
                                                   3.118ubuntu1
                                                                                                            add and remove user
   adduser
                                                                                                            default icon theme
   adwaita-icon-theme
                                                   3.34.0-1ubuntu1
   aisleriot
                                                   1:3.22.9-1
                                                                                                            GNOME solitaire car
                                                   1.0.25+dfsg-0ubuntu5
                                                                                                            ALSA driver configu
   alsa-utils
                                                                                                            Utilities for confi
    amd64-microcode
                                                    3.20191021.1+really3.20181128.1ubuntu
                                                                                                            Processor micrococ
                                                                                                            cron-like program t
                                                   2.2.3.dfsg.1-5
                                                                                                            Automated Password
```

Figure 6.15: dpkg -list command

Use Deborphan, a powerful tool that can list unused packages or libraries in a Linux distribution. It will check for packages that are no longer used so that the user can easily remove these entry points and keep the system clean.

Steps to install Deborphan in Linux:

Open terminal.

Type the command sudo apt-get install deborphan.

Figure 6.16: install deborphan command

Use the command deborphan --guess-all to list out the unused packages.

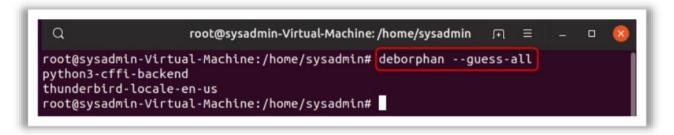


Figure 6.17: deborphan --guess-all command

The following commands show how to remove the unused packages and library.

```
sudo deborphan --guess-data | xargs sudo aptitude -y purge
sudo deborphan | xargs sudo apt-get -y remove -purge
```

Ubuntu uses repositories (servers) for handling software installations. These repositories comprise packages (software and dependencies) audited by Canonical, Ubuntu developers, and the security teams.

The Ubuntu repositories are of four types: Main, Universe, Restricted, and Multiverse. The Ubuntu team does not audit all repositories. Of these four types, the Multiverse repository offers paid software, while the Restricted repository offers free downloads but does not provide full support. Using these repositories may harm the systems as they can provide harmful applications sometimes. Restricting downloading and updating packages or applications from these unsafe and restricted repositories can be the best option to avoid installing harmful packages.

Steps to disable unsafe repositories:

Click "Show Applications" in Ubuntu Software Center.

Select "Software & Updates".



Figure 6.18: Software & Updates

Check the following options under the "Ubuntu Software" tab.

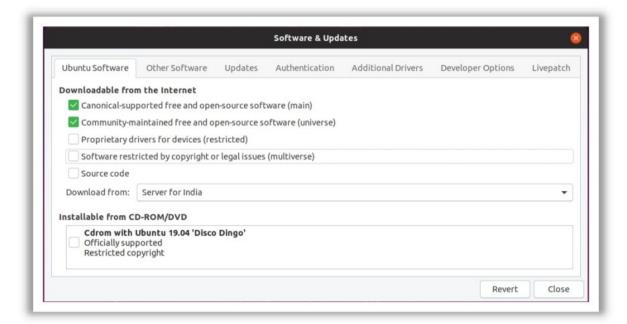


Figure 6.19: Ubuntu Software tab

Click the "Other Software" tab and uncheck the "Canonical Partners" option.

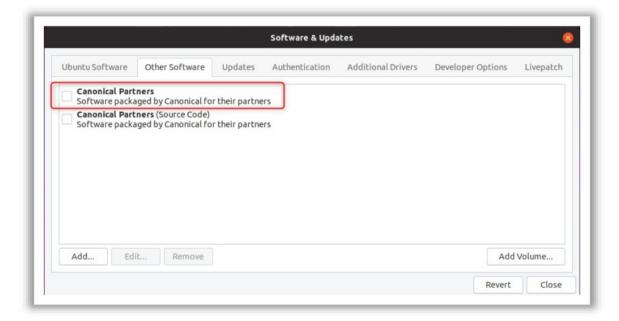
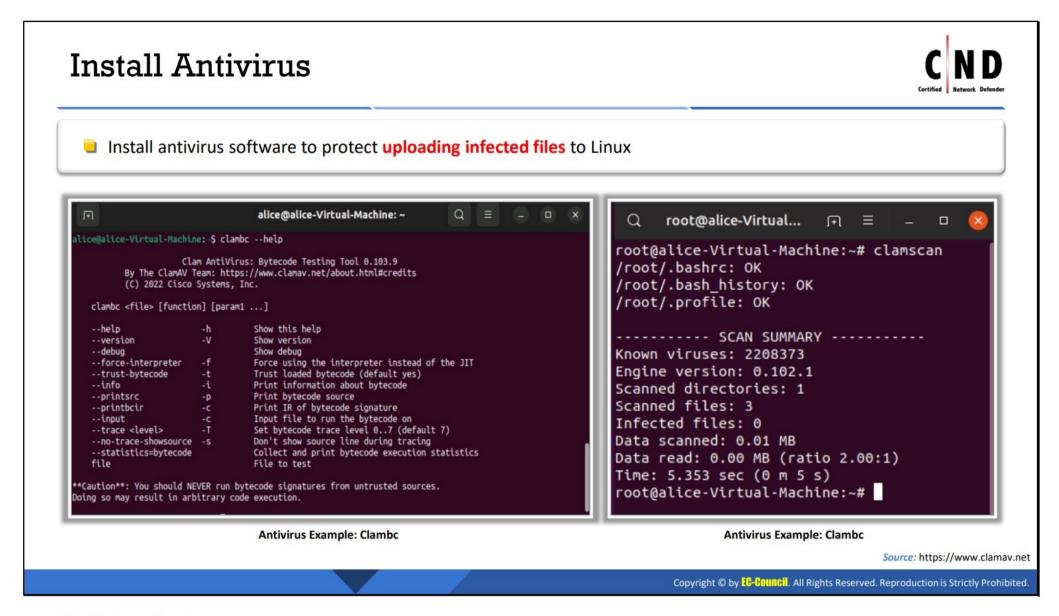


Figure 6.20: Other Software tab

Close the window. If prompted for update, click to update.

Once the settings are finished, Ubuntu automatically downloads updates daily.



Install Antivirus

Installing an antivirus software can protect the Linux system from infected files. Both open source and commercial antivirus software are available for Linux. Standalone solutions and enterprise solutions (with centralized management) for larger scale deployments are also available.

ClamAV

Source: https://www.clamav.net

ClamAV is an open-source (GPLv2) antivirus engine for detecting Trojans, viruses, malware, and other malicious threats.

To install ClamAV on Linux, the user does not need all packages provided by different Linux distributions. Know which packages are needed when installing the bare minimum.

On Debian, follow the commands.

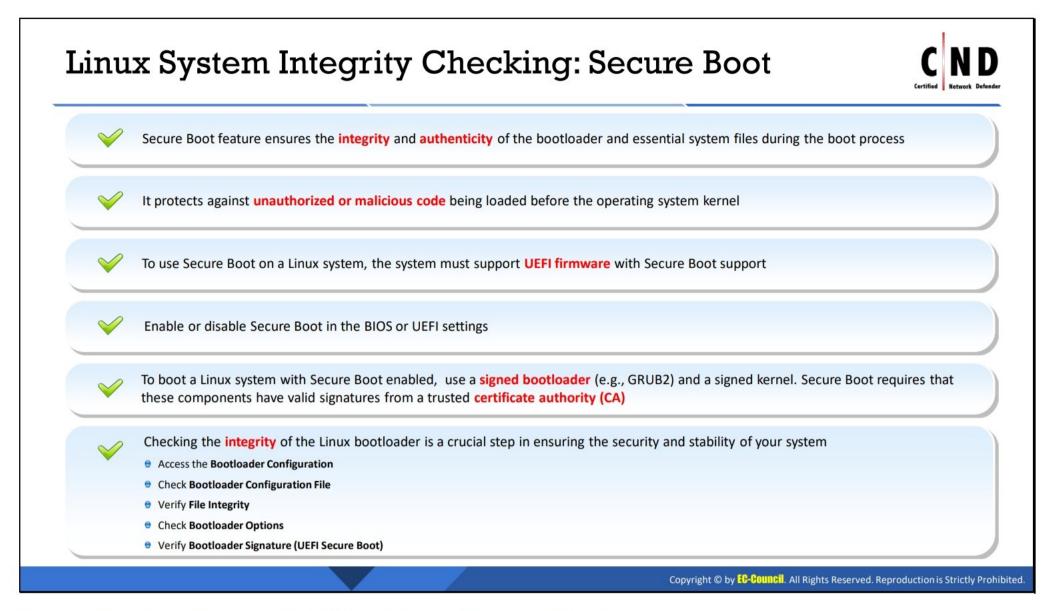
```
apt-get update
apt-get install clamav
```

On RHEL/CentOS, follow the commands.

```
yum install -y epel-release
yum install -y clamav
```

On Fedora, follow the command.

```
yum install -y clamav clamav-update
```

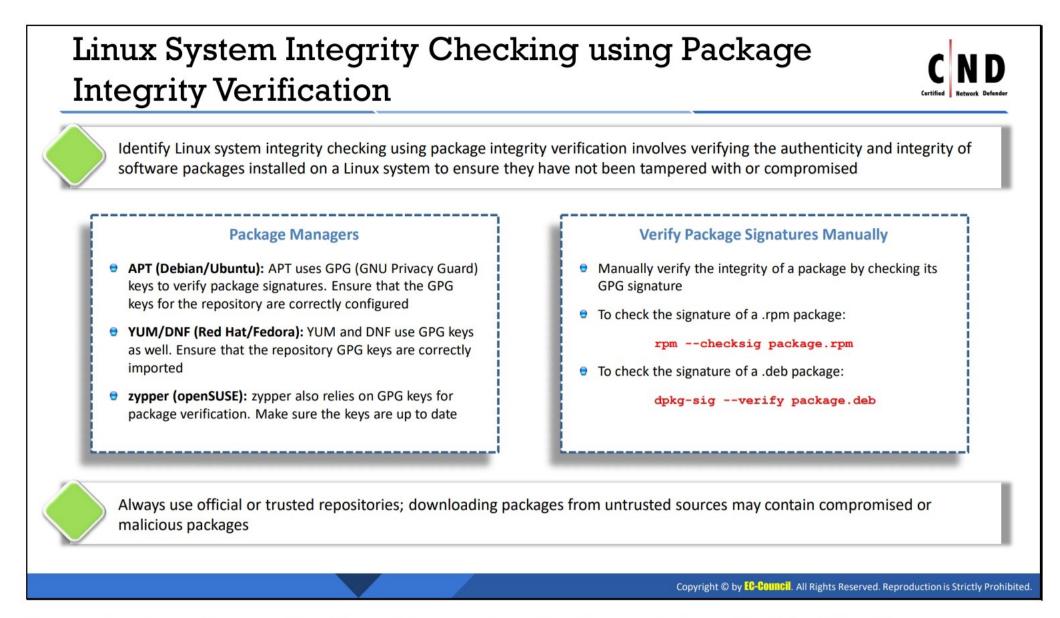


Linux System Integrity Checking: Secure Boot

Secure Boot feature ensures the integrity and authenticity of the bootloader and essential system files during the boot process. It protects against unauthorized or malicious code being loaded before the operating system kernel. To use Secure Boot on a Linux system, the system must support UEFI firmware with Secure Boot support. It can be enabled or disabled in the BIOS or UEFI settings. To boot a Linux system with Secure Boot enabled, use a signed bootloader (e.g., GRUB2) and a signed kernel. Secure Boot requires that these components have valid signatures from a trusted certificate authority (CA). Checking the integrity of the Linux bootloader is a crucial step in ensuring the security and stability of your system.

Steps to Use Secure Boot

- Access the bootloader configuration that is present in the BIOS or UEFI settings.
- Check the bootloader configuration file to ensure the secure boot is enabled.
- Verify file integrity by using checksums or digital signatures to confirm the authenticity of the installation files.
- Configure bootloader options that are only from sources that are trusted. It can be done
 using BIOS/UEFI settings. Disable the boot options that are not necessary.
- Verify the bootloader signature (UEFI Secure Boot) appended to all subsequent partition tables and app images before they are booted.



Linux System Integrity Checking using Package Integrity Verification

Linux system integrity checking using package integrity verification involves verifying the authenticity and integrity of software packages installed on a Linux system to ensure they have not been tampered with or compromised. Package managers are fundamental components of the software management process on Linux operating systems. They facilitate the installation, update, and removal of software packages. One of the key characteristics of a package manager is its capability to validate packages before installation or update. Always use the official or trusted repositories; downloading packages from untrusted sources may contain compromised or malicious packages.

Package Managers

APT (Debian/Ubuntu): Advanced Package Tool (APT) is a package management system for Linux distributions such as Debian and Ubuntu. It provides installation of new software packages, updating the package list index, and upgrading existing software packages. It uses GPG (GNU Privacy Guard) keys to verify package signatures. Ensure that the GPG keys for the repository are correctly configured.

Steps to Install and Remove a Package

 Using apt, install a package such as nmap (network scanner). Use the following command:

```
sudo apt install nmap
```

Remove a package that is installed using the following command:

```
sudo apt remove nmap
```

Steps to Update Package Index and Upgrade Packages

 To update a package index with the latest changes made in the repositories, use the command:

```
Sudo apt update
```

o To upgrade the system, update the packages and use the following command:

```
sudo apt upgrade
```

- YUM/DNF (Red Hat/Fedora): YellowDog Updater Modified (YUM) is a packet manager used to install, remove, or update software packages for Linux distributors. Dandified YUM is an improved version of YUM and provides more functionality than YUM for installing, removing, or updating a software package. These managers use config files in /etc/yum.repos.d to specify a URL for the GPG key used to verify packages in that repository. Ensure that the repository GPG keys are correctly imported.
- zypper (openSUSE): zipper is a command-line package manager for SUSE Linux that is used for installing, updating, or removing packages. It is also used for managing repositories. It relies on GPG keys for package verification. Make sure the keys are up to date.

Verify Package Signatures Manually

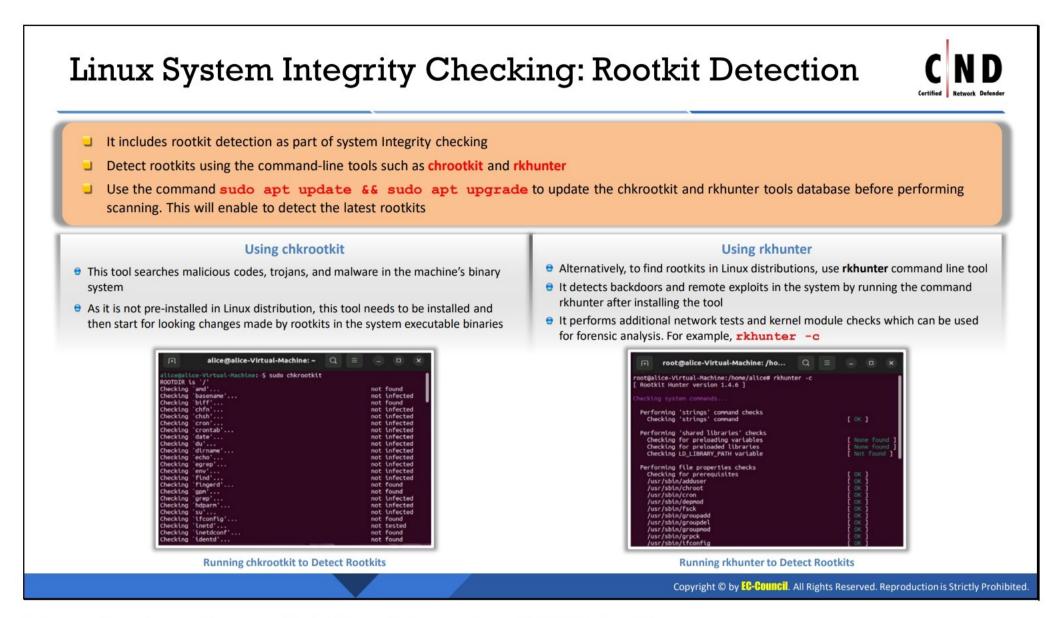
Manually verify the integrity of a package by checking its GPG signature.

■ To check the signature of a .rpm package:

```
rpm --checksig package.rpm
```

To check the signature of a .deb package

```
dpkg-sig --verify package.deb
```



Linux System Integrity Checking: Rootkit Detection

Linux System Integrity includes rootkit detection as part of system integrity checking. Rootkits can be detected using command-line tools such as chrootkit and rkhunter. Rootkits' primary objective is to remain undetectable by intercepting system calls or replacing standard system binaries. The damaged rootkits due to the system and the difficulty in locating and detecting them make them among the worst things that can happen to a system. They are also among the most dangerous attacks, more dangerous than typical malware and viruses. Rootkits can inflict severe damage to the system and remain on it for a very long period without the user even realizing it. The objective of a rootkit detector is to find any unusual behavior of common system calls or commands.

Rootkit Detection using chkrootkit

Chkrootkit thoroughly scans the machine's binary system for trojans, malware, and other types of malicious codes. It searches the system's executable binaries for modifications made by the rootkit. The default installation of the chkrootkit in Linux is absent. After installation, the utility will determine if the files are contaminated. The user may download and check their local computer for trojans in an equivalent way. Only Linux or Linux distributions are compatible with this utility.

The following are the steps to configure the chkrootkit for rootkit detection:

- Run the following command to install chkrootkit:
 - sudo apt-get install chkrootkit
- Or run the following command to install chkrootkit by cloning the Git repository:
 - git clone https://github.com/Magentron/chkrootkit.git

Navigate to the directory and run the following command to hunt rootkits in the system:

./chkrootkit

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~
 lice@alice-Virtual-Machine:~$ sudo chkrootkit
ROOTDIR is '/
Checking `amd'...
Checking `basename'...
                                                               not found
                                                               not infected
Checking `biff'...
                                                               not found
Checking `chfn'...
                                                               not infected
Checking `chsh'...
                                                               not infected
Checking `cron'...
                                                               not infected
Checking `crontab'...
                                                               not infected
         `date'...
Checking
Checking `du'...
                                                               not infected
Checking `dirname'...
Checking `echo'...
                                                               not infected
Checking
          `egrep'...
Checking `env'...
                                                               not infected
Checking
Checking `fingerd'...
Checking `gpm'...
Checking `grep'...
                                                               not infected
Checking
                                                               not infected
          `hdparm'...
Checking
                                                               not infected
Checking
          ifconfig'...
                                                               not found
Checking
          `inetd'...
                                                               not tested
          inetdconf'...
 Checking
                                                               not found
          identd'..
```

Figure 6.21: Chkrootkit Installation

Rootkit Detection Using rkhunter

Alternatively, to find rootkits in Linux distributions, use the rkhunter command-line tool. It detects backdoors and remote exploits in the system by running the command rkhunter after installing the tool. It performs additional network tests and kernel module checks, which can be used for forensic analysis.

Steps for Using rkhunter

Install rkhunter

It requires Extra Packages for the Enterprise Linux (EPEL) repository to be installed before installing rkhunter.

```
dnf install epel-release
dnf install rkhunter
```

Configure rkhunter

To change the configure file, run

```
vi /etc/rkhunter.conf
```

and search for #MAIL-ON-WARNING=me@mydomain root@mydomain and remove it
and change it to root@whatever the server name is

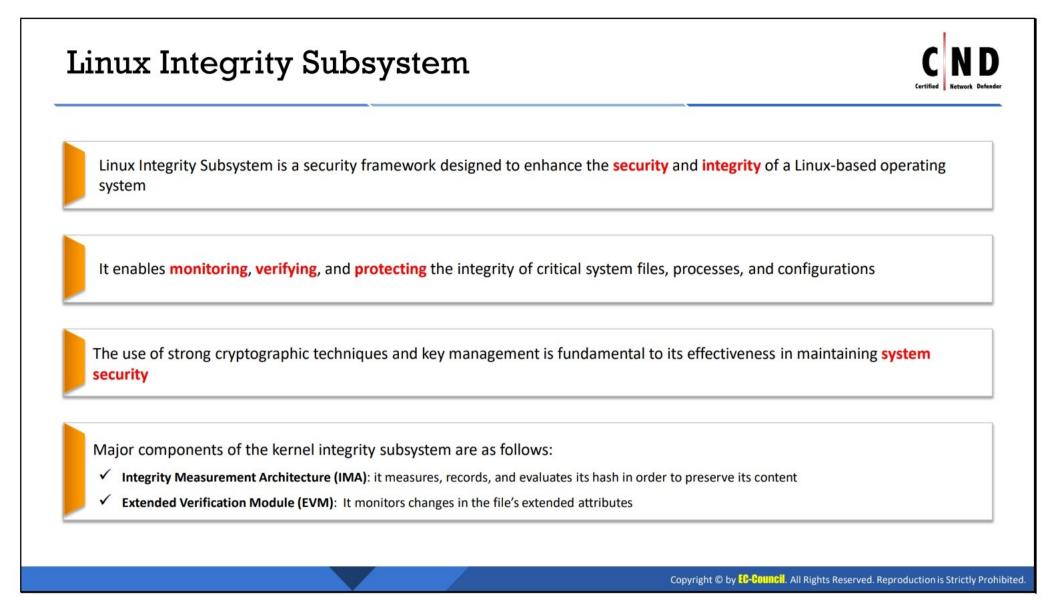
configure email and ensure it will work correctly

Run rkhunter manually to generate a list of warnings to test your email settings

```
rkhunter --check
```

 To generate a clean rkhunter.dat file that rkhunter will use from this point forward as a baseline for further checks, run the following command:

```
rkhunter --propupd
```



Linux Integrity Subsystem

Linux Integrity Subsystem is a security framework that helps Linux-based operating systems enhance their security and integrity. It provides features such as monitoring and protects the crucial file's configurations, integrity, and processes. This is more often used in combination with other security features in the operating system to take the security to the highest level and create a secure environment. In this subsystem, it is essential to use cryptographic techniques and key management as they are vital factors in a system's security and integrity. This enhances the trustworthiness of keys and data.

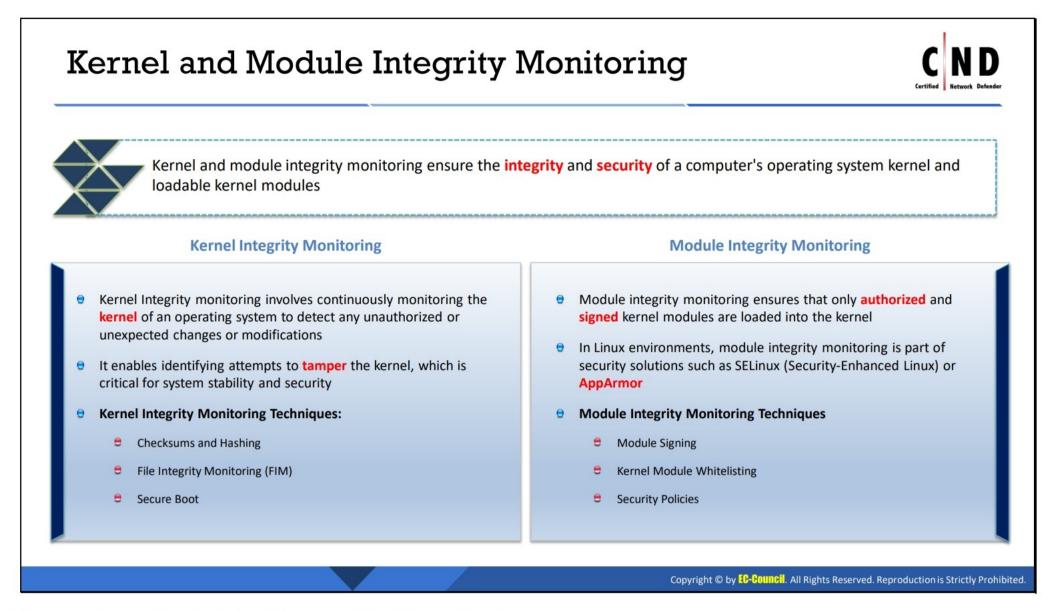
Linux integrity is comprised of two key components:

- Integrity measurement architecture (IMA): This ensures keeping a check and record of all the activities on the operating system and maintaining a record of content. It also measures the integrity of files using cryptographic hash functions and provides logs for monitoring and verification.
- Extended verification module (EVM): This is the extended version of IMA. It provides digital signatures and cryptographic verification to keep a check on integrity measurements. This protects the file attributes that are related to the system. It uses public keys to verify and sign the hashes to maintain and improve the trustworthiness of keys.

The other aspects of Linux subsystem security are as follows:

 IMA policies: This determines which part of the system or which file in the system should be monitored and prioritized. This helps the system to get control over the policies and integrity measurement.

- Secure boot: This ensures that the system boots with appropriate and trusted signed components and boot loaders.
- Audit and forensic: This monitors the system's activities and generates logs. These logs
 are invaluable for tracing security breaches and facilitating subsequent investigations.
- Remote attestation: This feature allows the system to demonstrate its integrity to remote entities. Such attestations can assist these entities in making critical decisions based on the verified integrity of the system.



Kernel and Module Integrity Monitoring

Kernel Integrity Monitoring: This feature continuously oversees the system's kernels and loadable kernel modules to ensure integrity, security, and compliance. It enables the kernel to detect any attempts to tamper with the system's security settings. This is particularly crucial in areas of the system where file modifications and changes to system components are a concern. The primary objective of kernel integrity monitoring is to maintain system stability and prevent unauthorized access and modifications, thereby avoiding disruptions in ongoing processes.

Kernel Integrity Monitoring Techniques

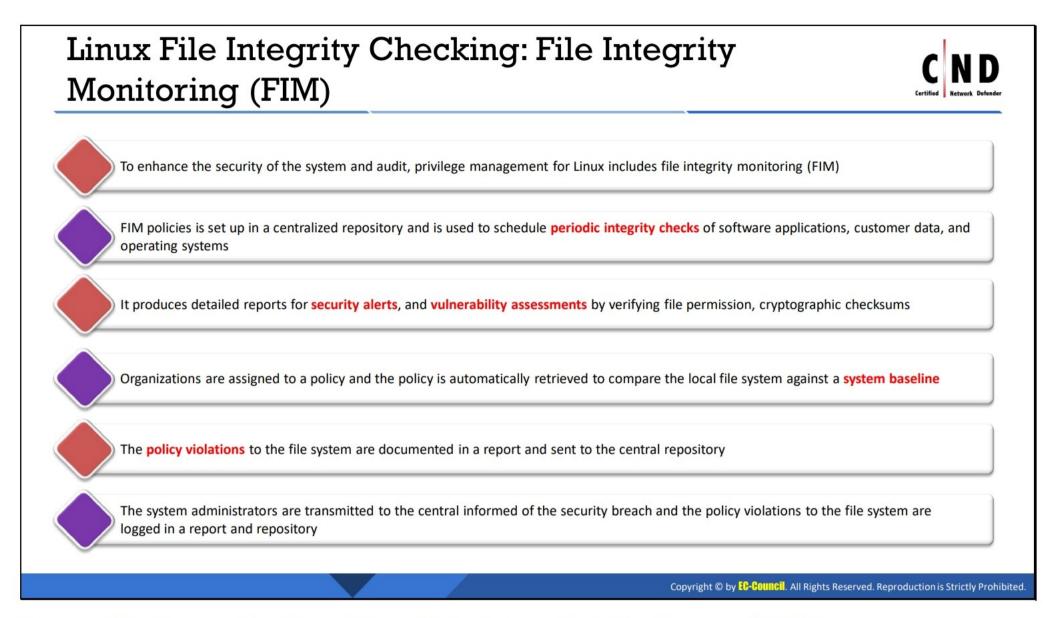
- Checksums and hashing: This calculates the hashes and checksums of critical resources in the system and compares them with good known values. If the value does not match, then the file is considered modified.
- **File Integrity Monitoring:** These generate alerts by using File integrity tools to monitor unauthorized modifications if happen.
- Secure Boot: This ensures that the system boots with appropriate and trusted signed components and boot loaders.

Module Integrity Monitoring and Techniques

This is a security practice that involves constant monitoring. This is implemented in the kernel and kernel's boot loader by restricting access to allow only the authorized modules. The pieces of code are dynamically added and removed from running the kernel and ensure no malicious content is passed. The following are the techniques:

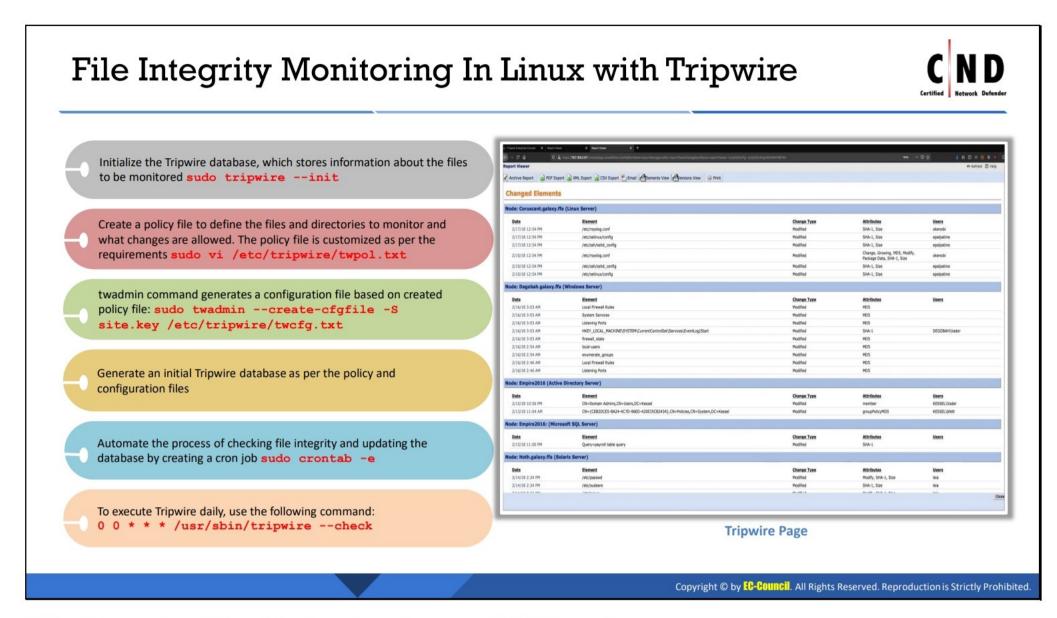
 Module signing: Process of signing the kernel modules and allowing only trusted ones in the bootloader. Unsigned ones are rejected to maintain integrity.

- Security Policies: Use policies and access controls to restrict access and improve compliance within the environment.
- Use cases: Module integrity monitoring is commonly used in Linux systems. This is often part of security solutions such as SELinux (Security Enhanced Linux).
- Kernel module Whitelisting: Maintains and allows the list of signed and authorized modules into the loader.



Linux File Integrity Checking: File Integrity Monitoring (FIM)

To enhance the security of the system and audit, privilege management for Linux includes file integrity monitoring (FIM). FIM policies are set up in a centralized repository and are used to schedule periodic integrity checks of software applications, customer data, and operating systems. It produces detailed reports for security alerts, and vulnerability assessments by verifying file permission, and cryptographic checksums. Organizations are assigned to a policy and the policy is automatically retrieved to compare the local file system against a system baseline. The policy violations to the file system are documented in a report and sent to the central repository and the system administrators are alerted of this security transgression. The policy configuration of FIM is stored as JSON script. Each policy is named and the details such as which file systems and files are to be verified, and which aspects of a file to check are specified. It also assigns a risk level to a violation.



File Integrity Monitoring in Linux with Tripwire

Source: https://www.tripwire.com

The Tripwire Enterprise's File Integrity Monitoring (FIM) solution pairs with security configuration management (SCM) to provide real-time change intelligence and threat detection. It identifies potential security breaches through regular scans, baseline creation, reporting, and alerting. It uses automation to detect system changes and to remediate those that take a configuration out of policy. This solution is for those who want the power of Tripwire FIM without the other features included in Tripwire Enterprise.

Feature of Using Tripwire FIM:

- It reduces the signals-to-noise ratio.
- It allows capture of all the changes and details of who made the change and when.
- It provides customizing severities and scoring to reflect risk profile and business context.

Steps to Use Tripwire FIM

Initialize the Tripwire database, which stores information about the files to be monitored.

```
sudo tripwire --init
```

 Create a policy file to define the files and directories to monitor and what changes are allowed. The policy file is customized as per the requirements.

```
sudo vi /etc/tripwire/twpol.txt
```

- twadmin command generates a configuration file based on a created policy file.
 sudo twadmin --create-cfgfile -S site.key /etc/tripwire/twcfg.txt
- Generate an initial Tripwire database as per the policy and configuration files
- Automate the process of checking file integrity and updating the database by creating a cron job

sudo crontab -e

To execute Tripwire daily, use the following command:

0 0 * * * /usr/sbin/tripwire -check

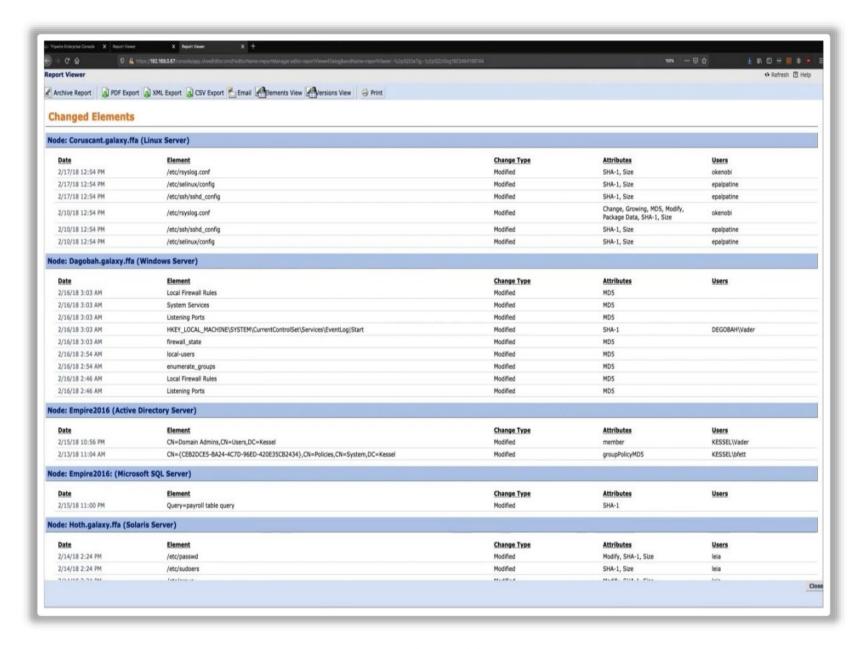
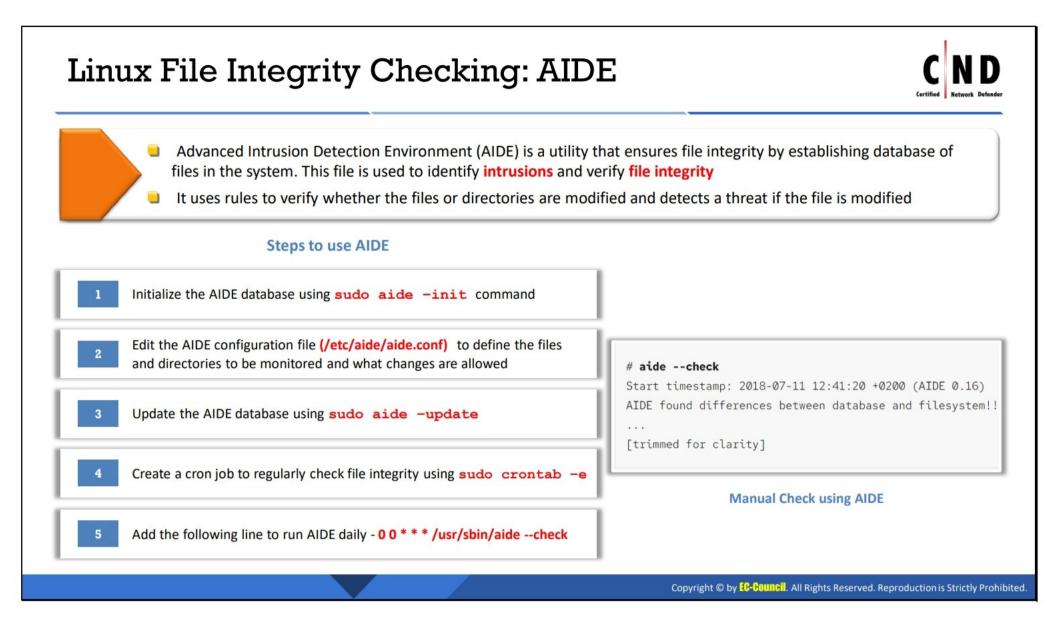


Figure 6.22: TripWire page



Linux File Integrity Checking Tool: Advanced Intrusion Detection Environment (AIDE)

Source: www.redhat.com

The Advanced Intrusion Detection Environment (AIDE) is a potent open-source intrusion detection tool that employs predefined rules to validate the integrity of Linux operating system files and directories. It protects the system from malware and viruses and detects unauthorized activity. To assure file integrity and find system intrusions, it creates a database of the file system and compares it to the system. It keeps track of recently modified or changed files. When someone tries to edit or change a file or directory, the user can keep track of that activity.

Steps to Check File Integrity with AIDE:

Initialize the AIDE database using

```
sudo aide -init
```

- Edit the AIDE configuration file (/etc/aide/aide.conf) to define the files and directories to be monitored and what changes are allowed.
- Update the AIDE database using

```
sudo aide -update
```

Create a cron job to regularly check file integrity using

```
sudo crontab -e
```

Add the following line to run AIDE daily

```
0 0 * * * /usr/sbin/aide -check
```

Check manually.

```
# aide --check
Start timestamp: 2018-07-11 12:41:20 +0200 (AIDE 0.16)
AIDE found differences between database and filesystem!!
...
[trimmed for clarity]
```

Figure 6.23: File Integrity Checking Manually

Linux File Integrity Checking: Samhain Samhain is an open-source host-based intrusion detection system (HIDS) with file integrity checking features Steps to use Samhain Customize the configuration file /etc/samhain/samhainrc, include the files and directories to be monitored and define other configuration settings Use the below configuration settings: FILE_CHECKS: Specify the files and directories to monitor HIDE_MODIFIED: Hide modified files from listings IGNORE_LIST: Define files or directories to ignore during checks REPORT_LEVEL: Reporting level (1 for minimal, 3 for detailed) SYSLOG_FACILITY: Log location (e.g., LOG_LOCAL4) View the reports in the Samhain log file, located at /var/log/samhain/samhain.log Check the most recent report using - sudo samhain -t check

Linux File Integrity Checking Tool: Samhain

Source: https://www.la-samhna.de

Samhain's performs file integrity checks, log file monitoring and analysis, rootkit detection, port monitoring, rogue SUID executable detection, and hidden process detection. It is an open-source multi-platform for Linux systems. It offers PGP-signed database and configuration files, a stealth mode, and several more features to protect its integrity.

Steps to Check Linux File Integrity Using Samhain

The steps to perform file integrity in Samhain tool are as follows:

- To install Samhain, use the distribution package manager. To install on Ubuntu/Linux, initially, update the OS with the command sudo apt-get update -y. For simple installation, use sudo apt-get install samhain command.
- To configure Samhain, customize the configuration according to the requirements. The samhain's configuration file is located in /etc/Samhain/samhainrc. Using the configuration file, the user can choose the files and directories to monitor to maintain integrity. Using the settings mentioned below, the user can customize monitoring based on what is needed.

Configuration Settings

FILE_CHECKS: Specify the files and directories to monitor

HIDE_MODIFIED: Hide modified files from listings

IGNORE_LIST: Define files or directories to ignore during checks

REPORT_LEVEL: Reporting level (1 for minimal, 3 for detailed)

SYSLOG_FACILITY: Log location (e.g., LOG_LOCAL4).

Figure 6.24: Configuration Settings for Samhain

- Now, initialize Samhain before executing the file integrity services. To initialize Samhain, use the command samhain -t init, --set-checksum-test=init.
- Find the reports in the path /var/log/samhain.log. This periodically checks file integrity and records the log results. To verify an audit trial, use samhain [-j | --just-list]
 -L logfile| --verify-log=logfile. View the reports often to find any unauthorized changes to keep a check on integrity violations.

```
samhain - check file integrity
```

Figure 6.25: Samhain File Integrity Checking

```
samhain [-j | --just-list] -L <u>logfile</u>| --verify-log=<u>logfile</u>
```

Figure 6.26: Verifying the Integrity of a Signed Logfile

Linux File Integrity Checking using OSSEC OSSEC a host-based intrusion detection system (HIDS) can be used for monitoring the integrity of files and directories on a Linux system OSSEC uses rules to define which files and directories to monitor and what actions to take when integrity violations occur OSSEC rules can be found in /var/ossec/etc/rules/local_rules.xml and /var/ossec/etc/rules/decoder.xml The OOSEC rules local_rules.xml can be customized to specify which files and directories to monitor and define the appropriate actions View alerts and reports in real-time by tailing the OSSEC alert log sudo tail -f /var/ossec/logs/alerts/alerts.log

Linux File Integrity Checking Using OSSEC

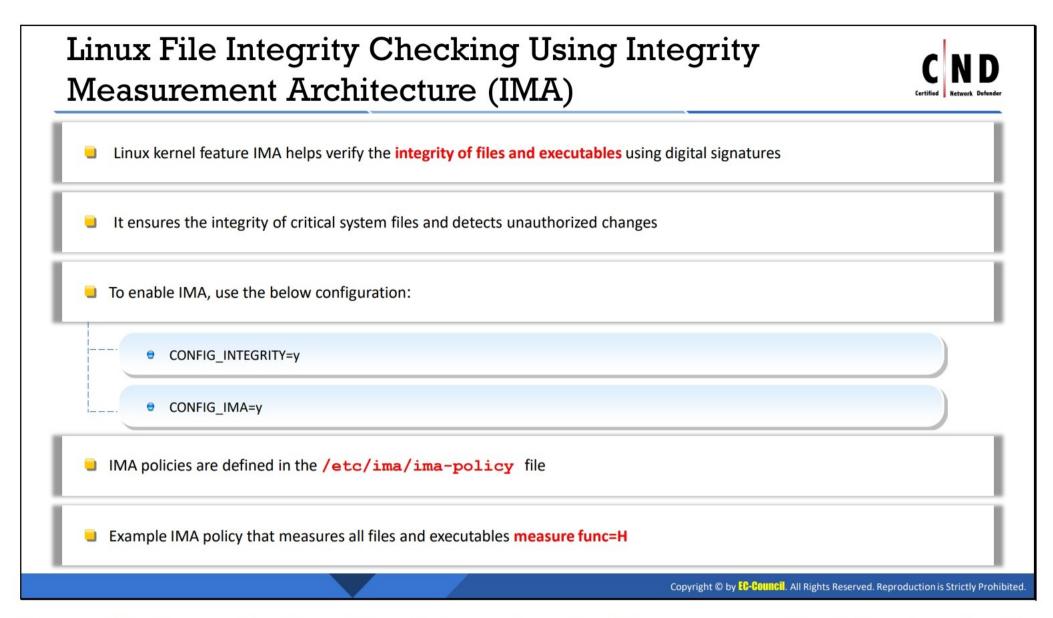
OSSEC is a host-based intrusion detection system (HIDS) and an effective tool for observing the consistency of files and directories on a Linux system. Linux server's security can be improved by configuring and customizing it to meet user's requirements and quickly spotting unauthorized changes. It helps enhance the Linux file integrity checking and provides flexibility in scheduling tasks.

OSSEC Features

- Log-based intrusion detection system (LIDS): Actively monitors data from numerous data points.
- File integrity monitoring: Keeps a forensic copy of data and spots changes to the system.
- Active response: Includes firewall integration with third-party portals to respond to attacks and changes in the system. It also provides a self-healing system.
- Compliance auditing: Supports auditing applications and systems at the level of many common standards, including PCI-DSS and CIS benchmarks.
- Rootkit and malware detection: It confines files to detect malicious applications and rootkits.
- System inventory: Keeps a check on data such as installed software, network listeners, and hardware.

Step to Use Linux File Integrity Checking Using OSSEC

- Find the OSSEC rules in /var/ossec/etc/rules/local_rules.xml path.
- In OSSEC, go to the path /var/ossec/etc/rules/ocal_riles.xml that holds the custom decoders that are added to the local_decoder.xml file.
- Find the audits and logs in the file alert.log. To access it, use the sudo tail -f /var/ossec/logs/alerts/alerts.log command.



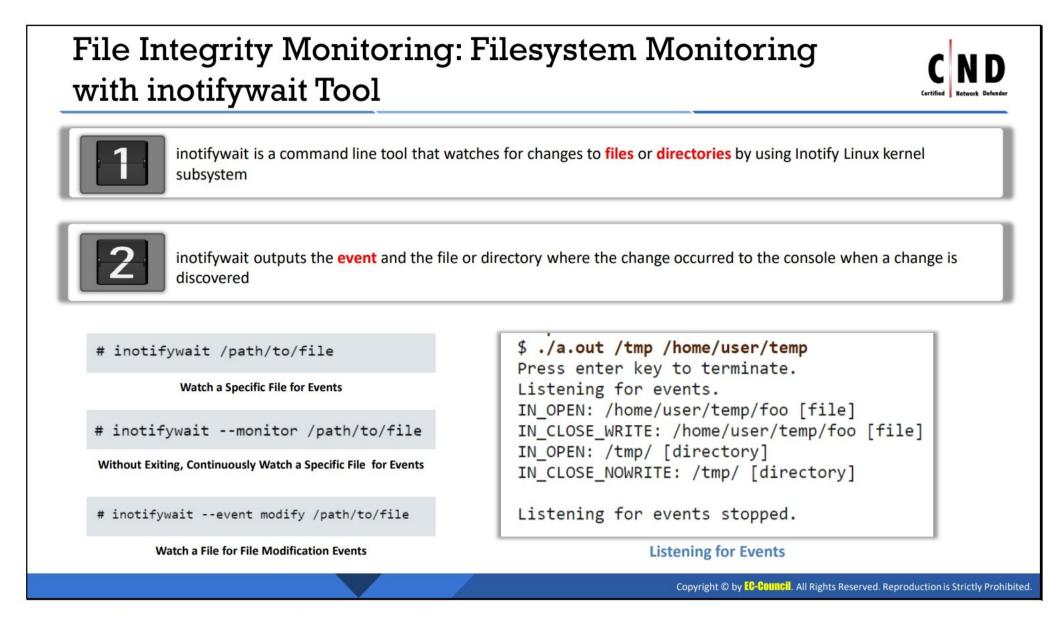
Linux File Integrity Checking Using Integrity Measurement Architecture (IMA)

Integrity Measurement Architecture (IMA) is responsible for calculating hashes of data before they are loaded. It has two subsystems in it: **measure** and **appraise**. The IMA measurement subsystem can interact with the TPM chip in the system to protect the collected hashes from alteration by a malicious administrator or application, supporting the files' integrity.

To enable IMA subsystems, enter the command CONFIG_INTEGRITY=y and CONFIG_IMA=y.

This Linux kernel feature supports file integrity validation by using digital signatures. IMA policies are defined in the **/etc/ima/ima-policy** file. For example, the IMA policy that can measure all files and executables is **func=H**.

It can store the audited file in the path /var/log/audit/audit.log. To view the file, use the command grep "ima:" /var/log/messages.



Linux File Integrity Checking Tool: inotifywait

The inotifywait command-line tool offers a monitoring system for filesystem events. It can be utilized to track individual files or directories. When monitoring a directory, it returns events for both the directory and any files within the directory.

Steps to Use inotifywait for Linux File Integrity Checking

Enter the following command to monitor specific events that are recorded:

```
# inotifywait /path/to/file
```

Enter the following command to monitor events continuously without exiting:

```
# inotifywait --monitor /path/to/file
```

Enter the following command to monitor the file and detect modification activities:

```
# inotifywait --event modify /path/to/file
```

Monitor File Integrity In Linux Using auditd (Linux **Auditing System**) Linux kernel feature Auditd enables monitoring file changes by configuring audit rules to monitor specific files or directories for changes _____ It generates detailed logs that can be reviewed and analyzed ■ To enable and start auditd, use the commands sudo systematl enable auditd and sudo systematl start auditd Use tools such as ausearch or aureport to query and analyze audit logs for To view log events of the password file sudo ausearch -k passwd changes Rule to monitor changes to /etc/passwd file use sudo auditctl -w /etc/passwd -p wa -k passwd_changes • -w: Specifies the file or directory path to monitor -p wa: Defines the permissions to monitor • w- write • a- attribute changes (e.g., permissions, ownership) • k: Assigns a unique key (used to identify related events in the audit logs) to the rule (e.g., passwd_changes) Copyright © by EG-COUNCIL. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

Monitoring File Integrity in Linux Using auditd (Linux Auditing System)

The Linux Auditing System (auditd) simplifies the task of monitoring system processes and access. It allows for file monitoring based on user-defined priorities and generates detailed logs for verification and review. These logs serve as invaluable resources for ensuring system integrity and compliance.

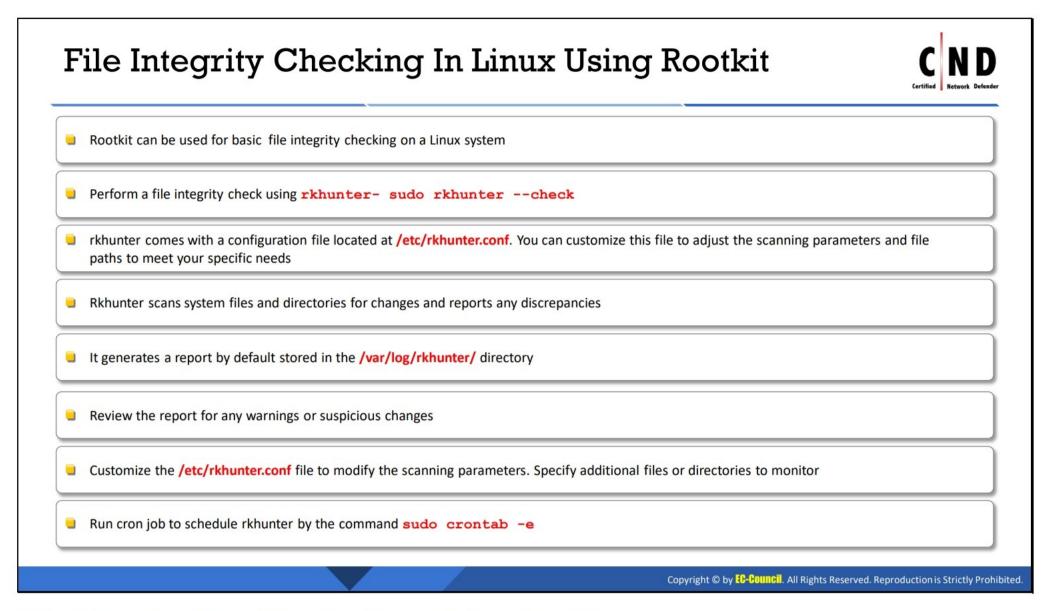
Steps to Review Logs Generated by auditd

- To enable auditd, enter the sudo systematl enable auditd command; it will start
 at boot time.
- To view the currently configured audit rules, enter the sudo auditctl -l command.
- To analyze the audits and data in detail, use the aureport and ausearch commands; these can query the audits.

```
$ sudo ausearch -i -k user-modify
$ sudo aureport -x
```

■ To monitor the changes to the /etc/passwd file, use the sudo auditcl -w /etc/passwd -p wa -k passwd_changes command, where "w" specifies the file or directory path to monitor, "-p wa" specifies the permissions to monitor, "w-" writes an attribute change (e.g., permissions, ownership), and "k" assigns a unique key (used to identify related events in the audit logs) to the rule (e.g., passwd_changes)

```
auditctl -w path_to_file -p permissions -k key_name
```



File Integrity Checking in Linux Using Rootkit

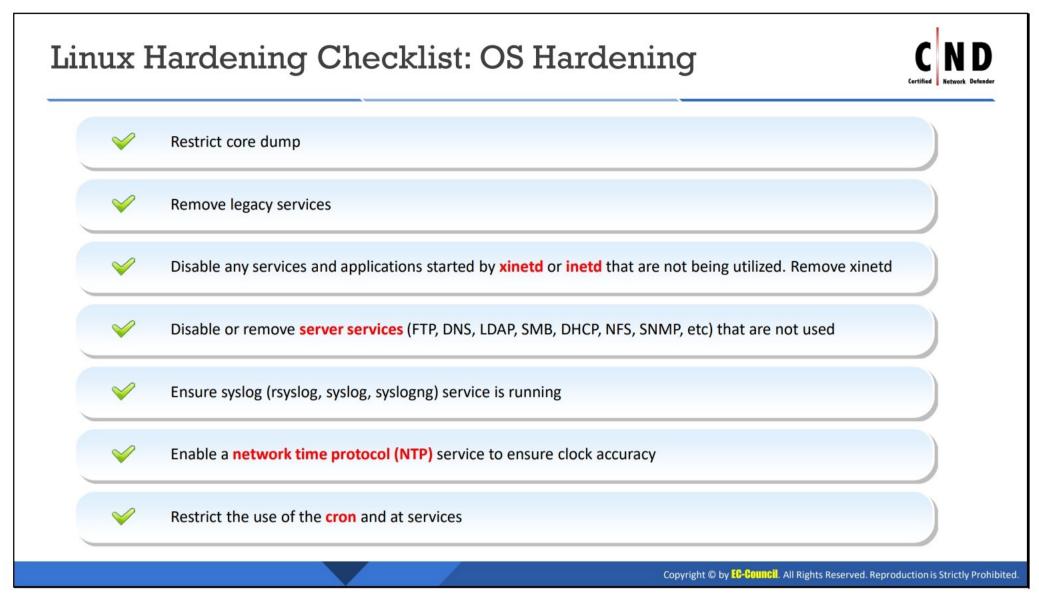
Rootkit is an open-source Linux-based tool that is used to detect malware, rootkits, or backdoor exploits in the system. This tool can scan for malware and unauthorized permissions set on binaries in Linux and hunts if any suspicious strings are attached to the kernel. It also searches for any modifications or discrepancies that are made to any file or directory in the Linux system and generates a report. Review the report for any warnings or suspicious changes by going through the stored report stored in the path /var/log/rkhunter/directory.

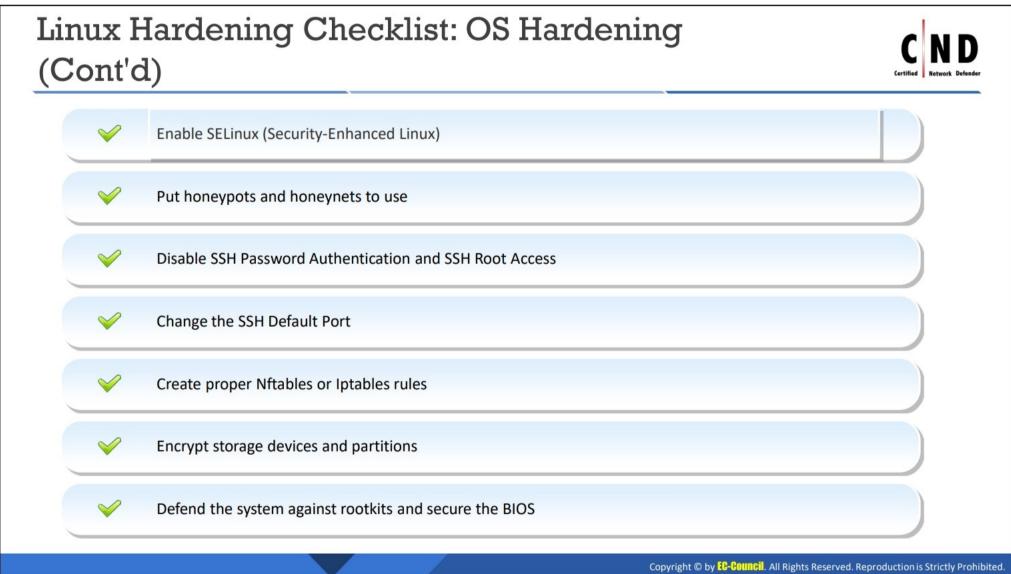
Use the configuration file /etc/rkhunter.conf to customize the parameters based on the user's requirements such as specifying additional files or directories to monitor.

Steps to Run Rootkit

To start rootkit hunter, enter the following command.

If needed, schedule the rootkit to start. Enter the command sudo crontab -e to schedule a task.

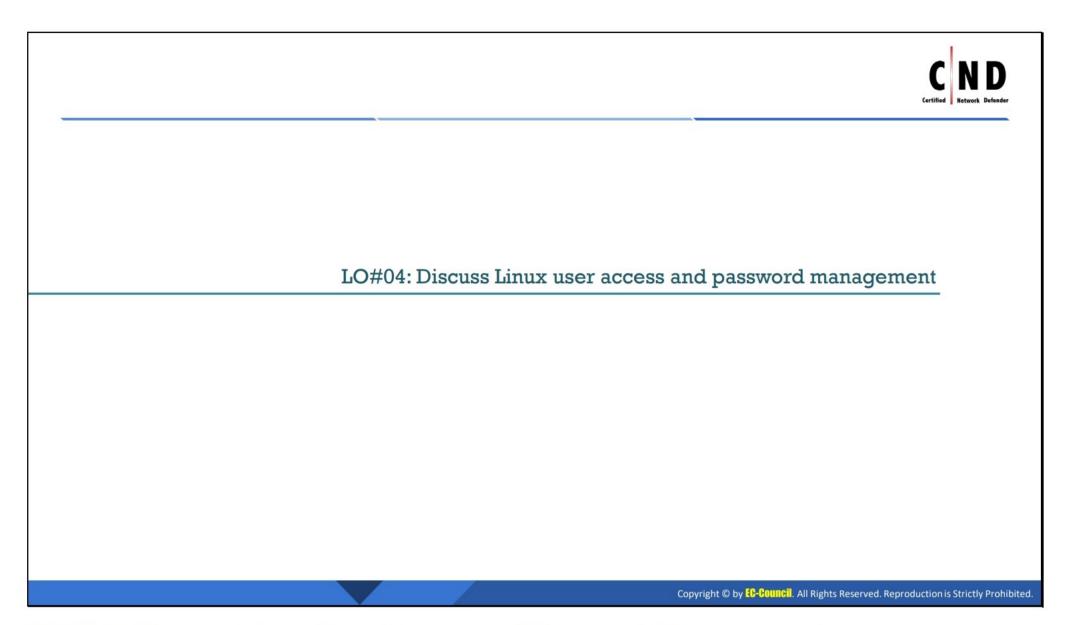




Linux Hardening Checklist: OS Hardening

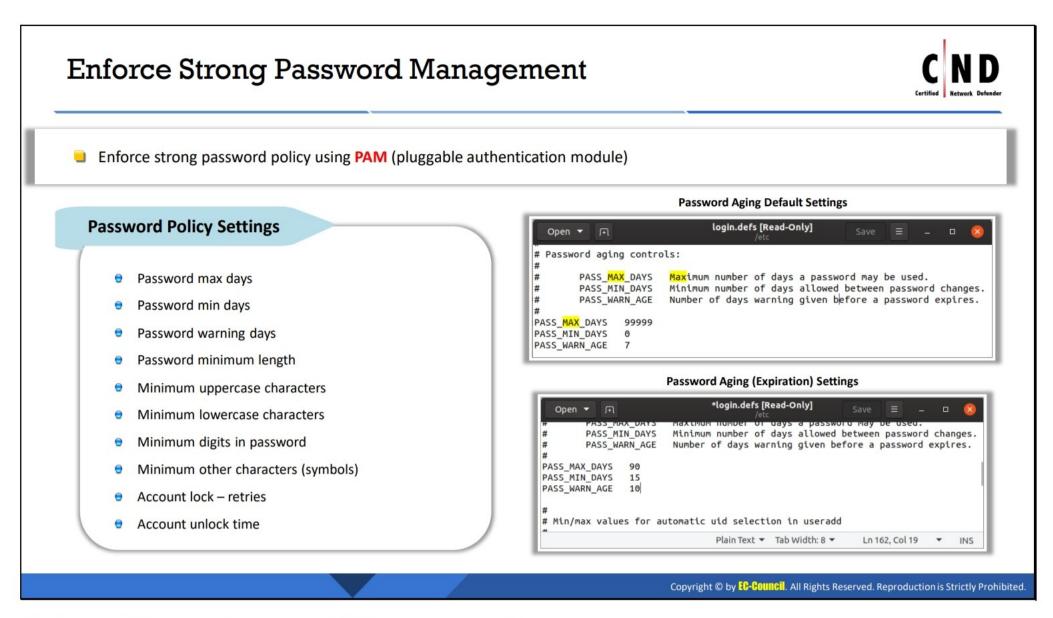
- Restrict/disable core dumps, which help understand why a program aborted but contain confidential data from memory.
- If there is no exception, remove legacy services that provide or rely on unencrypted authentication. Those services include those discussed previously:
 - o telnet-server

- o rsh, rlogin, rcp
- o ypserv, ypbind
- o tftp, tftp-server
- o talk and talk-server
- Disable the unused services and applications started by xinetd (remove if possible) or inetd. The inetd or xinetd service allows running a program when a connection is sent to a designated network port.
- Disable/remove server services if you do not use them. For example, FTP, DNS, LDAP, SMB, DHCP, NFS, SNMP, etc.
- Ensure running syslog (rsyslog, syslog, syslog-ng) service as it manages logs in /var/log/ and supports remote log forwarding.
- Enable a network time protocol (NTP) service to ensure clock accuracy. Keeping time synchronized across devices is important for many authentication and encryption services and allows for analysis of logs across multiple systems.
- Restrict the use of the cron and at services as these can run commands on the system.
 These should only be allowed to accounts that need to run commands.
- Enable SELinux (Security-Enhanced Linux) allows blocking unauthorized access and enforces separation of privilege.
- Put honeypots that creates a virtual trap to lure attackers. In addition, put honeynets the act as a decoy network containing one or more honeypots.
- Disable SSH Password Authentication and SSH Root Access since connecting to the servers using these mechanisms is unsafe.
- Change the SSH Default Port since leaving the default port 22 for SSH makes the server vulnerable to brute-force attacks.
- Create proper Nftables or Iptables rules that operate by comparing network traffic against a set of rules.
- Encrypt storage devices and partitions to ensure data integrity and security.
- Defend the system against rootkits and secure the BIOS since rootkits target a vulnerability in a machine's operating system (OS) or application on the machine.



LO#04: Discuss Linux User Access and Password Management

The objective of this section is to explain the user access and password management features in Linux.



Enforce Strong Password Management

By default, the system implements simple password rules. Linux distributions allows the administrators to set password policies. Implementing a strong password policy is one of the key user management tasks of Linux system administration, and it restricts unauthorized access to systems. If a user account has a simple password, attackers may be able to brute-force or guess the password easily and access the system. The network defender should ensure that the password rules are set as per the organization's policies.

To view and change the default password policy settings, use the following command.

sudo gedit /etc/logins.defs

Figure 6.27: Viewing and changing password policy settings

Enforcing Strong Password Policy on Linux Systems Using PAM

The file PAM (pluggable authentication module) can be found in the following locations.

- Red Hat-based systems @ /etc/pam.d/system-auth.
- Debian-based systems @ /etc/pam.d/common-password.

Parameters and Commands Used in Implementing Password Policies in Linux

 "Password max days" (applicable for new accounts only) restricts the maximum number of days a password can be used. For example:

```
# vi /etc/login.defs
PASS MAX DAYS 90
```

"Password Min days" (applicable for new accounts only) limits the minimum number of days after the password can be changed. For example, if this parameter is set to 20 and the password is set today, the user cannot change or set the password before 20 days from today. For example:

```
# vi /etc/login.defs
PASS_MIN_DAYS 20
```

"Password warning days" (applicable for new accounts only) controls the password warning days and warns the user when the password is going to expire. Till the warning days end, a warning message will be displayed to the user regularly, allowing the user to change the password before expiry. For example:

```
# vi /etc/login.defs
PASS_WARN_AGE 10
```

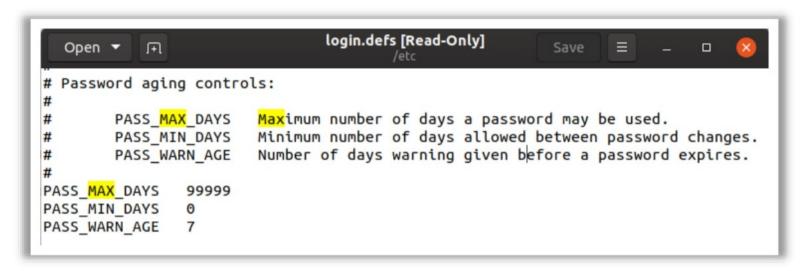


Figure 6.28: Password warning days settings

Password aging default settings

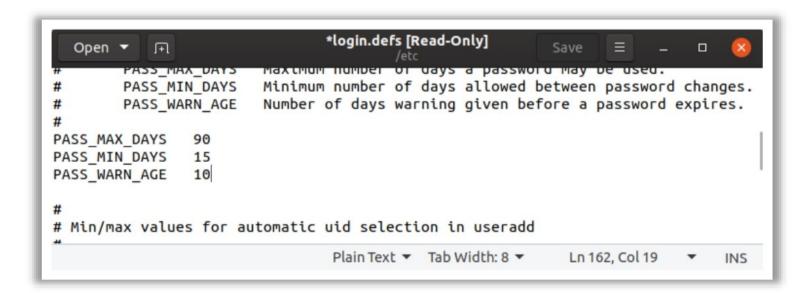


Figure 6.29: Password aging default settings

Password aging (expiration) settings

"Password history or deny re-used passwords" records the history of used passwords. It checks the password history and warns the user if they have use an old password while setting a new one. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
password sufficient
pam_unix.so sha512 shadow nullok try_first_pass use_authtok
remember=5
```

"Password minimum length" controls the minimum password length condition. It checks against this parameter and warns the user if they try to set the password length less than the set password minimum length when the user sets a new password. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
password requisite pam_cracklib.so try_first_pass retry=4
minlen=10
```

"Minimum uppercase characters" controls how many minimum uppercase characters should be added in the password. It checks against this parameter and warns the user if they do not include any uppercase characters in the password while creating a new password. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
password requisite pam_cracklib.so try_first_pass retry=3 minlen=12
ucredit=2
```

"Minimum lowercase characters" controls how many lowercase characters should be added in the password. It checks against this parameter and warns the user if they do not include any lowercase characters in the password while creating a new password. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
password requisite pam_cracklib.so try_first_pass retry=3 minlen=12
lcredit=-1
```

"Minimum digits in password" controls how many digits should be added in the password. It checks against this parameter and warns the user if they do not include any digits in the password while creating a new password. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
Password requisite pam_cracklib.so try_first_pass retry=3 minlen=12
dcredit=-1
```

"Minimum other characters (symbols)" keeps how many special characters should be added in the password. It checks against this parameter and warns the user if they do not include any symbols in the password while creating a new password. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
Password requisite pam_cracklib.so try_first_pass retry=3 minlen=12
ocredit=-1
```

 "Account lock – retries" locks the user account after reaching the given number of failed login attempts. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
auth required pam_tally2.so onerr=fail audit silent deny=5
account required pam tally2.so
```

 "Account unlock time" sets the time to unlock the user account if the user account is locked after consecutive failed authentications. For example:

```
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
auth required pam_tally2.so onerr=fail audit silent deny=5
unlock_time=900
account required pam tally2.so
```

Setting Secure Password Policy

The steps the users should follow to set a secure password policy on Debian/Ubuntu are listed below.

- Install pwquality/pam_pwquality PAM module package on Ubuntu / Debian system using the following command.
- After installation of the package, edit the /etc/pam.d/common-password (for Debian-based systems) file or edit /etc/pam.d/system-auth file (Red Hat-based systems) to set password requirements using the following command.



Figure 6.30: common-password command

 Change line 25 from password requisite pam_pwquality.so retry=3 to as marked in the screenshot.

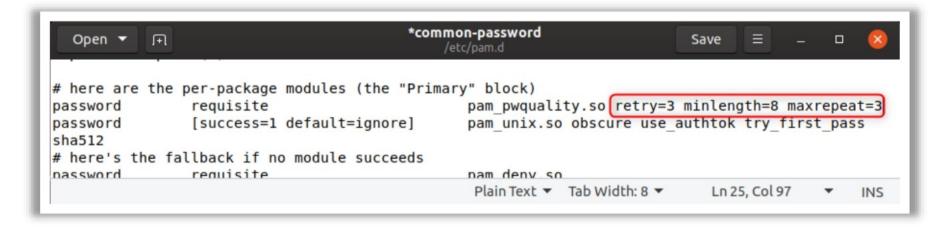


Figure 6.31: Password quality

- Change the settings that suit the desired password policy. For example,
 - o retry=3: Prompt user 3 times before displaying error
 - o minlen=8: Password cannot be less than 8 character

- o maxrepeat=3: Maximum of 3 characters are allowed to repeat
- Reboot your system using the command sudo reboot.
- Now the system will restrict creating a user account with a weak password.

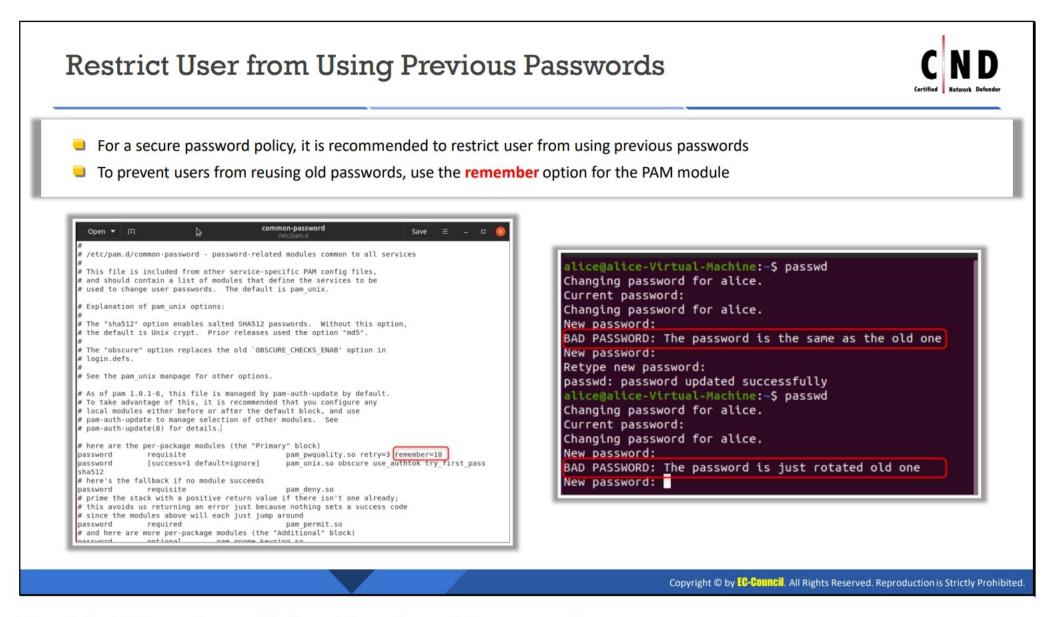
Setting Password Complexity

To set password complexity on Debian/Ubuntu edit /etc/pam.d/common-password file and set the following password complexity settings.

- ucredit=-1: Require at least one uppercase letter in the password.
- lcredit=-1: Require at least one lowercase letter in the password.
- dcredit=-1: Require at least one special character in the password.

```
common-password
  # local modules either before or after the default block, and use
# pam-auth-update to manage selection of other modules. See
# pam-auth-update(8) for details.
# here are the per-package modules (the "Primary" block)
                                                pam_pwquality.so retry=3 ucredit=-1 dcredit=-1 ocredit=-1
                                                pam unix.so obscure use authtok try first pass shabi2
password
                [success=1 default=1gnore]
# here's the fallback if no module succeeds
password
               requisite
                                                pam_deny.so
# prime the stack with a positive return value if there isn't one already;
# this avoids us returning an error just because nothing sets a success code
# since the modules above will each just jump around
# and here are more per-package modules (the "Additional" block)
password
               optional
                               pam_gnome_keyring.so
# end of pam-auth-update config
                                                         Plain Text ▼ Tab Width: 8 ▼
                                                                                     Ln 1, Col 1
```

Figure 6.32: Password complexity



Restrict User from Using Previous Passwords

It is recommended to restrict the user from using previous passwords. To prevent users from reusing old passwords, use the remember parameter of the pam_unix module. This module maintains a list of old passwords and restricts the user from using previous passwords. The list of old passwords is stored in /etc/security/opasswd file. The account information is set using /etc/passwd.

To Restrict User from Using Previous Passwords

Step 1: Limiting password reuse

- Debian/Ubuntu Linux users need to open /etc/pam.d/common-password file, then run: ##cp/etc/pam.d/common-password/root/common-password.bak vi/etc/pam.d/common-password
- To prevent the user from utilizing the last 13 passwords, edit/add password line

```
remember=13.
   password sufficient pam_unix.so use_authtok sha512 shadow
   remember=13
```

• Save and close the file.

Step 2: Enable password aging

Edit /etc/login.defs, enter:

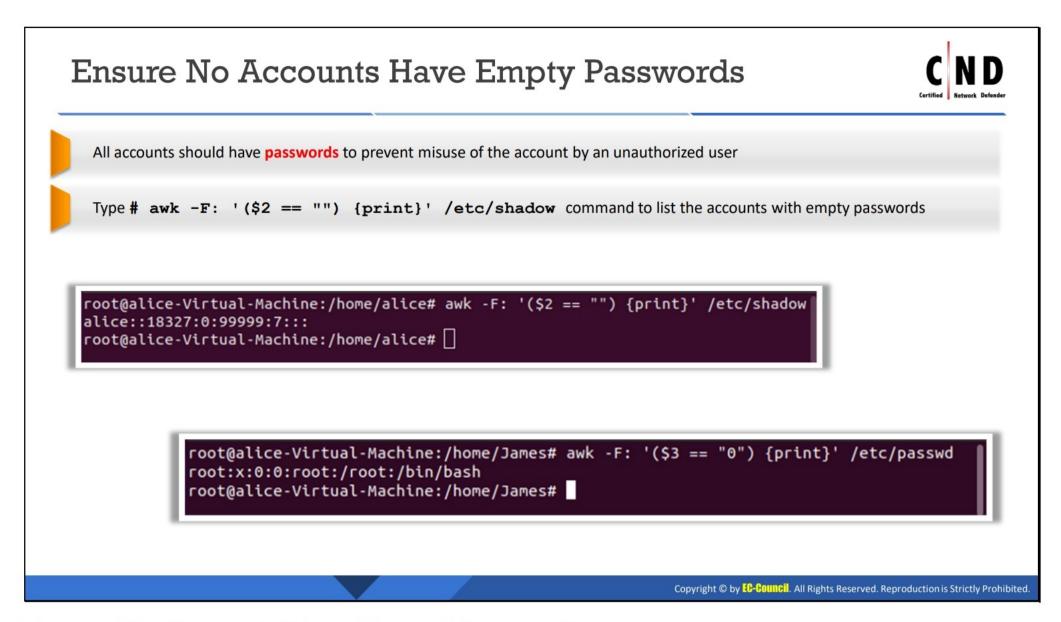
```
# vi /etc/login.defs
```

The user can set the minimum number of days to change password since last change $(PASS_MIN_DAYS = 7)$.

• Save and close the file.

Step 3: /etc/security/opasswd

The file that store the list of old password does not exist /etc/security/opasswd, the user can create the file utilizing touch or shell redirection command: # [! -f /etc/security/opasswd] && touch/etc/security/opasswd



Ensure No Accounts Have Empty Passwords

An account with an empty password can be used to login without a password. Hence, ensure that no accounts have empty passwords:

Type the below appended command

awk -F: '(\$2 == "") {print}' /etc/shadow

```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# awk -F: '($2 == "") {print}' /etc/shadow alice::18327:0:99999:7:::
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# []
```

Figure 6.33: Checking for empty password

Locking the empty password accounts

```
# passwd -l accountName
```

Disable Login for Users with Null Password

With a null password, the adversary can log in and exploit the system. Therefore, it is essential to disable login for users with a null password.

Use the following command to set up null password: # usermod -p "" username

The nullok module of PAM configuration allows the null password; therefore, remove the nullok from any authentication module.

Disabling Null Password in Debian Linux

The two files that are used by Debian Linux are

- o /etc/pam/common-auth
- o /etc/pam.d/common-password

Use cp command for files backup

a) Open /etc/pam/common-auth:

```
#cp/etc/pam/common-auth /etc/pam/common-auth.ORI
# vi /etc/pam/common-auth
```

Find and remove nullok

```
password required pam_unix.so nullok obscure min=4 max=8 md5 password required pam_unix.so obscure min=4 max=8 md5
```

Save and exit the file.

b) Open file /etc/pam.d/common-password:

```
# cp/etc/pam.d/common-password
# vi /etc/pam.d/common-password
```

Fine and remove nullok secure

- auth required pam unix.so nullok secure
- auth required pam unix.so

Save and exit the file.

Now, the adversary cannot utilize the null password to gain access to the system.

Disabling Null Password in Red Hat/Fedora Linux

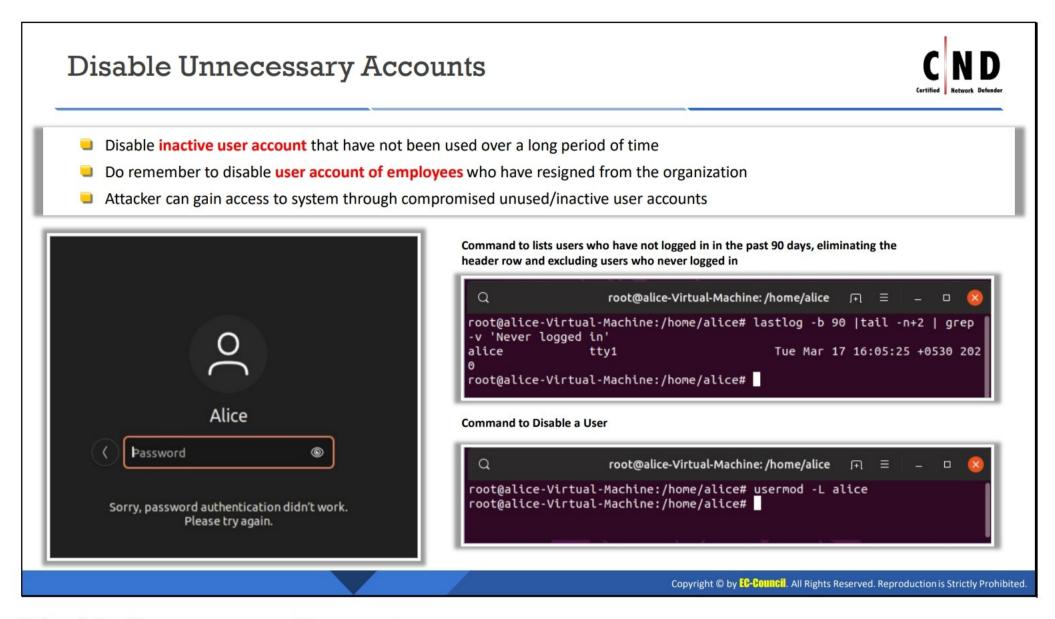
Open/etc/pam.d/system-auth:

```
# cp /etc/pam.d/system-auth /etc/pam.d/system-auth.ORI
# vi /etc/pam.d/system-auth
```

• Fine and remove nullok

```
auth sufficient /lib/security/pam_unix.so likeauth nullok auth sufficient /lib/security/pam_unix.so likeauth
```

Save the file.



Disable Unnecessary Accounts

To reduce the system's attack surface, it is recommended that inactive accounts (accounts not used over a long period of time) should be disabled. Attackers can gain access to a system through compromised unused/inactive user accounts. Moreover, an inside attacker may misuse the account of a previous employee to perform malicious activities; therefore disable user accounts of employees who have resigned from the organization. Identify the inactive accounts in the system and disable them.

Command to lists users who have not logged in in the past 90 days:

```
lastlog -b 90
```

Command to lists users who have not logged in in the past 90 days, eliminating the header row:

```
lastlog -b 90 | tail -n+2
```

Command to lists users who have not logged in in the past 90 days, eliminating the header row and excluding system users:

```
lastlog -b 90 | tail -n+2 | grep -v 'Never logged in'
```

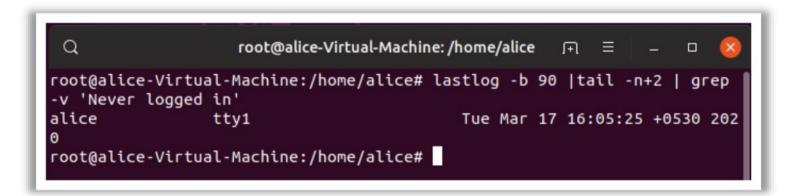


Figure 6.34: Checking for unnecessary accounts

Command to disable a user in Ubuntu:

Usermod -L <username>

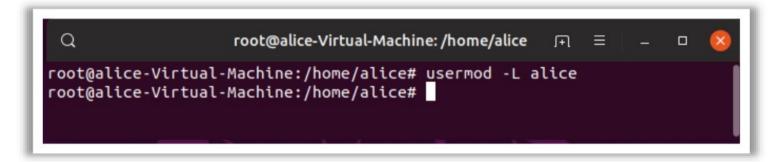
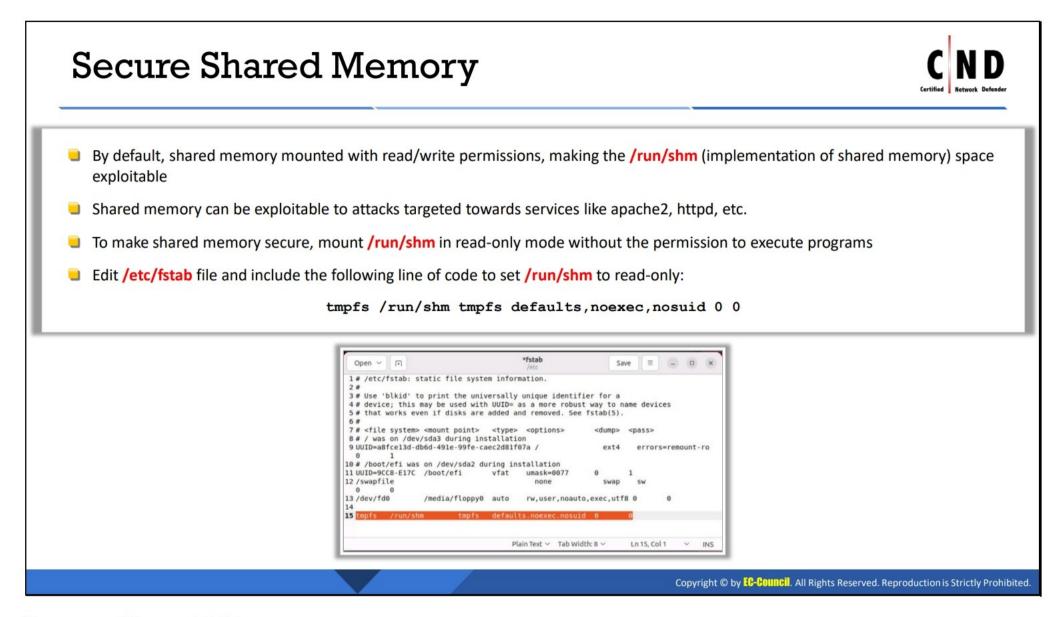


Figure 6.35: disabling user



Secure Shared Memory

Shared Memory is a feature supported by Linux. One or more programs use the same memory space for handling the execution processes as per schedule. However, this feature can be exploited. By default, the shared memory is mounted with read and write permission in the Linux system. The mounted point of the shared space is /run/shm. This mount point can be read without permission. An attacker may use it to execute programs, change UID of the program, etc. To avoid such breaches, network defenders should protect shared memory.

Steps to Secure Shared Memory

- Open the terminal and type the command sudo nano /etc/fstab and hit Enter.
- File will open in the terminal and add the below line at the bottom of the file.

tmpfs /run/shm tmpfs defaults, noexec, nosuid 0 0

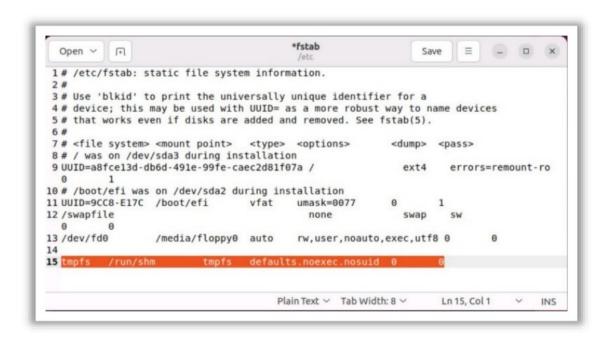
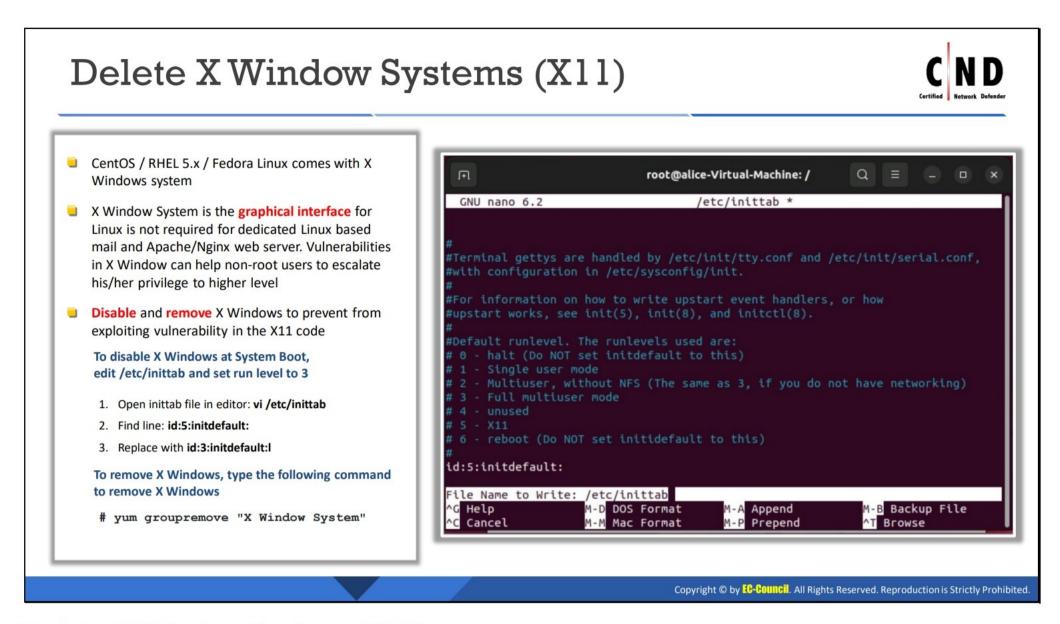


Figure 6.36: Securing shared memory

- Press Ctrl+o and hit Enter to save the file.
- Press Ctrl+x to exit the file.
- Reboot the system for the changes to take effect.



Delete X Window Systems (X11)

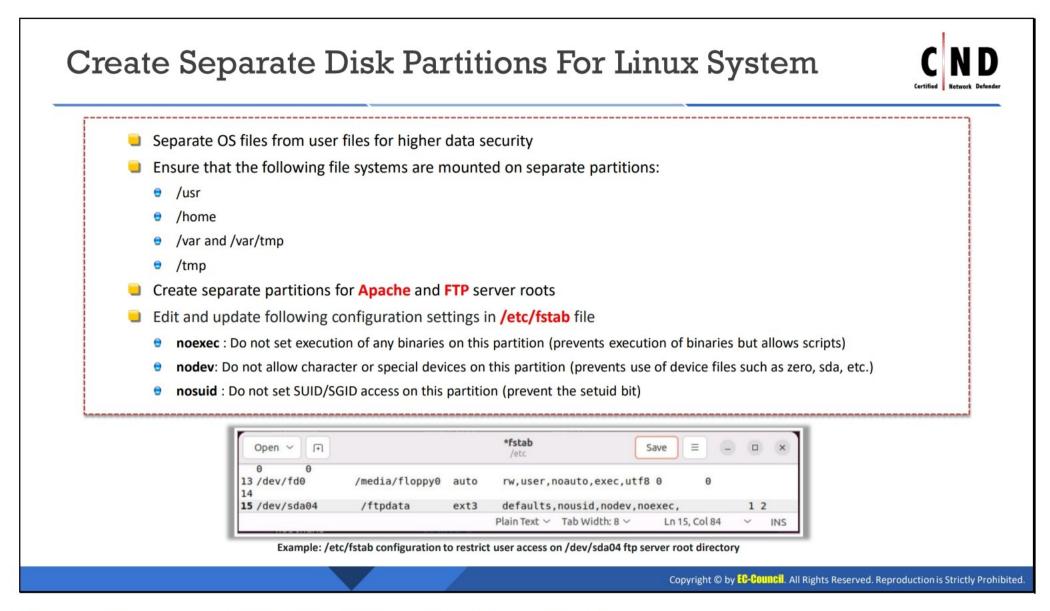
CentOS/RHEL 5.x/Fedora Linux comes with X Windows System, the graphical interface for Linux, which may not be required for dedicated Linux-based mail and Apache/Nginx web servers. Vulnerabilities in X Window System can help non-root users escalate their privilege to a higher level. Disable and remove X Windows to prevent vulnerabilities arising from the X11 code.

To disable X Windows Systems at system boot, edit /etc/inittab and set run level to 3

- 1. Open init file in editor #vi /etc/inittab
- 2. Find line id:5:initdefault:
- 3. Replace with id:3:initdefault:

To remove X Window System, execute the following command:

yum groupremove "X Window System"



Create Separate Disk Partitions for Linux System

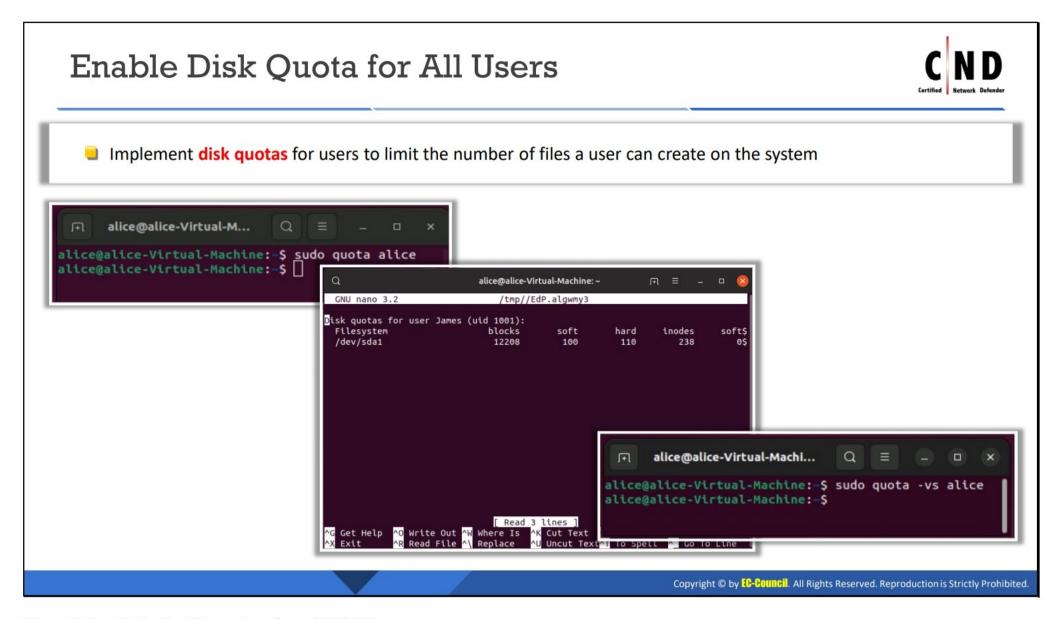
Disk partitions on a Linux system allow for easier recovery in the event of a corrupted file system, increases performance, and enhances both disk space efficiency and system security. Disk partition limits each file system's ability to expand. Hence, it is recommended to separate operating system files from user files to enhance data security. Keeping system and user files on different partitions helps eliminate the chance of attackers exploiting SUID programs and accessing restricted areas. Ensure that the following file systems are mounted on separate partitions:

- /usr: This partition stores the executable binaries, kernel source tree, and documentation.
- /home: Stores home directories.
- var: Stores spool directory such as mail and printing and error log directory.
- /var/tmp: Stores temporary files or directories of programs between system reboots.
- /tmp: Stores temporary data files.

For Apache and FTP server roots, create separate partitions. Edit /etc/fstab file and add the following configurations:

- noexec: This partition allows the execution of scripts but not binaries.
- nodev: This partition prevents character or special devices. The device files such as zero, sda, etc., cannot be executed.
- nosuid: The user should not be able to set SUID/SGID access on this partition.

Example: /etc/fstab configuration to restrict user access on /dev/sda04 ftp server root directory.



Enable Disk Quota for All Users

Disk quota restricts the disk space and sends an alert to the system administrator before the partition becomes full or the user consumes excess disk space. Implement disk quotas for users to limit the number of files a user can create on the system. Disk quota can be configured for individual users or user groups.

To enable disk quota, follow the steps outlined below.

Step 1: Installing quota in Ubuntu

Install quota package on Ubuntu using the following command.

```
$ sudo apt install quota
```

Enter 'Y' to continue the installation process.

Figure 6.37: Installing quota

Use the following command to check the version.

```
$ quota --version
```

Figure 6.38: Checking quota version

Step 2: Installing the module for quota kernel

Use the find tool for confirming the two modules quota_v1 and quota_v2 present in the /lib/modules directory.

```
$ find /lib/modules/ 'uname -r' -type f -name '*quota v*.ko*'
```

If the two modules are not found, then use the following command to install them.

```
$ sudo apt install linux-image-extra-virtual
```

```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# sudo apt install linux-image-extra-virtual
Reading package lists... Done
Building dependency tree
Reading state information... Done
linux-image-extra-virtual is already the newest version (5.0.0.38.40).
0 upgraded, 0 newly installed, 0 to remove and 174 not upgraded.
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice#
```

Figure 6.39: Installing module for quota kernel

Run the command to install the quota kernel module if not available.

Step 3: Updating file system mount options

■ The file system entry present in /etc/fstab file should be updated, which makes the quota active on a specific system by mounting it with related quota options.

```
$ sudo nano /etc/fstab
```

Depending on the representation of / or root file system, the path of fstab file and the desktop location will differ. Replace / pointing to the root system using the following command, which allows access to userquota and grpquota.

```
LABEL=cloudimg-rootfs/ext4 usrquota, grpquota 0 0
```

To implement the changes, remount the file system.

```
$ sudo mount -o remount /
```

The grep command is used to verify the use of the new options when mounting the file system in the /proc/mounts file. Use the following command to locate the root file system entry.

```
$ sudo cat /proc/mounts | grep ' / '
```

Step 4: Enabling disk quotas on Ubuntu

Run the quotacheck command, which would create a user quota file and group quota file, which contain information about the limit and usage of the file system.

```
$ sudo quotacheck -ugm /
```

 Do not run the quotacheck command if the user does not want to enable the user or group quota files. Confirm by running the following command.

```
$ ls /
```

The output will be as follows:

```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine: ...
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# ls /
                                     swapfile
aquota.group initrd.img
aquota.user
              initrd.img.old opt
bin
              lib
                              ргос
boot
              lib32
                              root
                                    UST
              lib64
                              run
              libx32
                              sbin vmlinuz
              lost+found
                              snap vmlinuz.old
etc
              media
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice#
```

Figure 6.40: Enabling disk quota output

Turn on the quota on the root file system with the following command.

```
$ sudo quotaon -v /
```

Step 5: Configure quotas for a single user

Use edquota command to edit quota belonging to the user James.

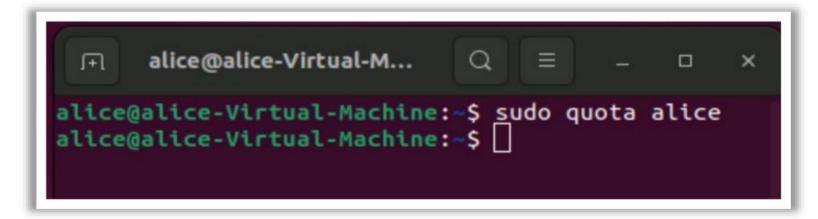


Figure 6.41: Editing quota

■ The output consists of a username, file system, usage of blocks, inodes, etc. The block-based quota controls the disk space.

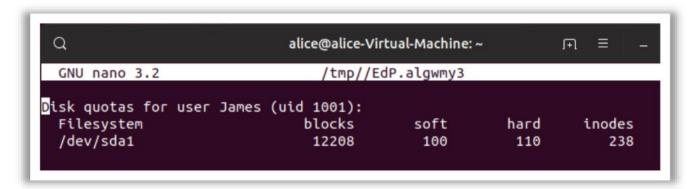


Figure 6.42: Editing quota output

- Update user block quota as per requirement. After necessary modification, close the file.
- Use the following command to check the new user quota.

```
$ sudo quota -vs james
```

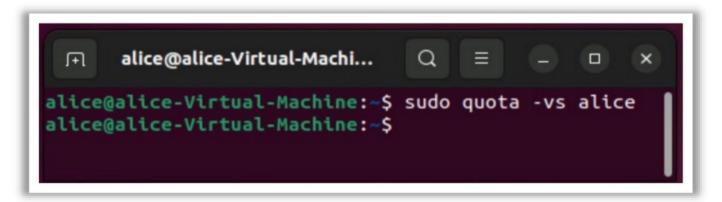
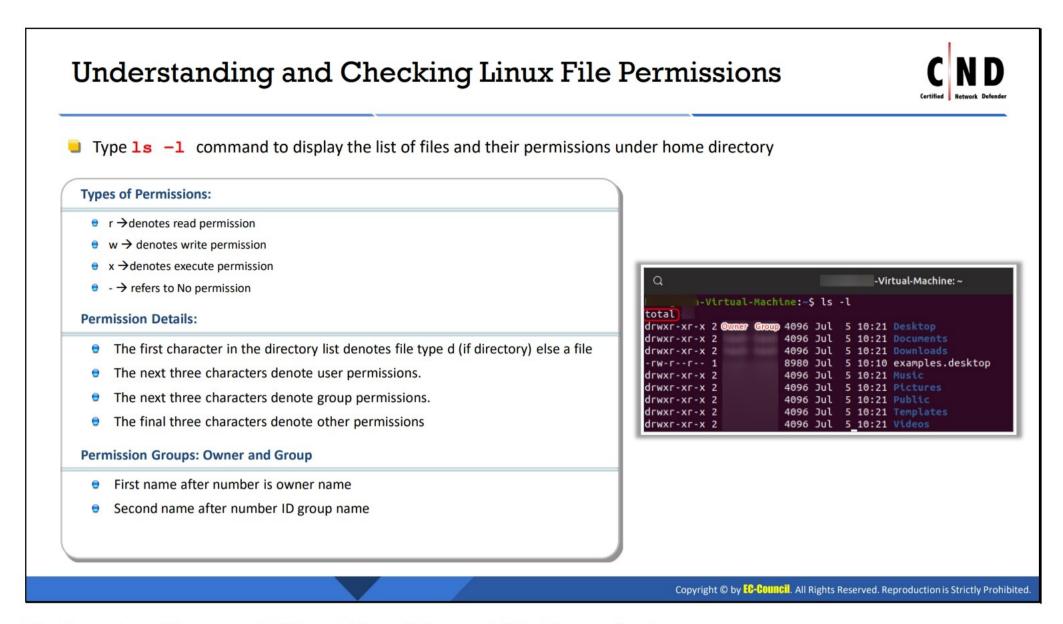


Figure 6.43: Checking for new user quota



Understanding and Checking Linux File Permissions

Linux is a multi-user OS. This feature can raise security concerns as attackers can corrupt, change, or remove important data. For ensuring strong security, Linux categorizes the file authorization into two levels, ownership and permission, for effective security.

To understand and check the Linux file permissions and ownerships, the ls-1 command lists out all the files and their permissions under the home directory. The lines give a lot of information about files and directories. Each line starts with ten characters. A few lines start with a '-' (file) and the remaining start with a 'd' (directory).

Ownership

Each file and directory on the Linux system is assigned three types of users:

- User refers to the user permissions that only apply to the owner of the file/directory. These permissions do not impact the other users' actions. In the lines, the name after the digit is the owner's name. By default, the person who creates a file is called its owner.
 - For example, if the user's permissions for a few files is set as rw- (first set of three characters), it denotes the file's owner can only read (see) and write (change the contents) of the file's contents.
- Group refers to the group permissions that apply only to the group of the file/directory. These permissions do not impact other users' actions. The name after the owner/username denotes the group's owner in the lines. A user-group comprises multiple users and they get the same access permissions to the files.

For example, if the group's permissions for a few files is set as r-x (second set of three characters), it denotes the group's members can only read (only see) and execute those files but cannot change the file's contents.

 Others refers to the permissions that apply to all the other users (except owner and groups) on the system. These other users have neither created the file nor belong to a group that owns the file.

For example, if this permission for a few files is set as r- (last set of three characters), it denotes the other users who have accounts on the Linux system are allowed to read (only see) the contents of the files, but they are not allowed to change or execute the files.

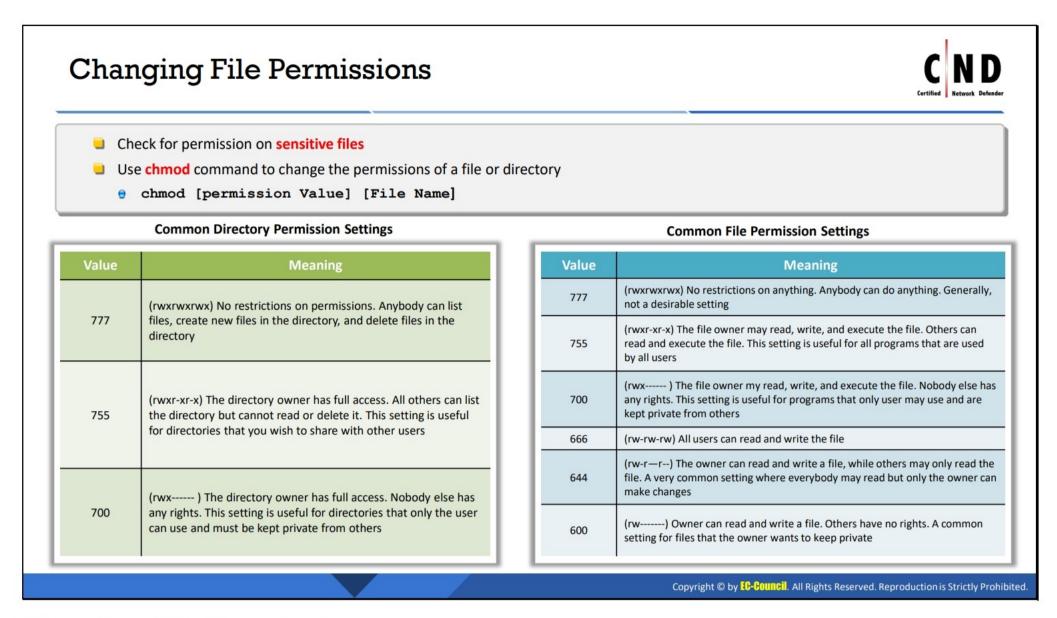
Permissions

By setting permissions, Linux distinguishes among the three user types (user, group, and others) to avoid a user from affecting the file contents of another user.

The next nine characters (example, rwxrwxrwx) in the lines reveal the security permissions for each file or directory. Assume those nine characters as three sets of three characters. Each of the three rwx refers to the operations the user/group/other can perform on the file/directory.

- 'r' (read) permission allows reading the file contents.
- 'w' (write) permission allows writing or modifying the file's contents.
- 'x' (execute) permission allows executing a file if it is a program.
- If the character '-' appears instead of any of the rwx characters, it means the permissions are revoked.

The column after the group owner denotes the size of each file in bytes. The next three columns show the date and time at which the file was last modified. And the final column denotes the file name/directory name.



Changing File Permissions

Changes in file permissions are needed to avoid unauthorized access to file contents by other users. By using the command chmod (change mode), permissions (read/write/execute) can be set on files/directories for the users (owner/group/others).

The syntax of the command is chmod permissions filename.

chmod Command Modes

 Absolute/numeric mode: This method allows a three-digit octal number instead of characters for file permissions.

Number	Permission Type	Symbol
0	No permission	
1	Execute	X
2	Write	-W-
3	Execute and write	-wx
4	Read	r
5	Read and execute	r-x
6	Read and write	rw-
7	Read, write, and execute	Rwx

Table 6.2: Numbers for All Permission Types

Value	Meaning
777	(rwxrwxrwx) No restrictions on permissions. Anybody can list files, create new files in the directory, and delete files in the directory.
755	(rwxr-xr-x) The directory owner has full access. All others can list the directory but cannot read or delete it. This setting is useful for directories that you wish to share with other users.
700	(r_{WX}) The directory owner has full access. Nobody else has any rights. This setting is useful for directories that only the user can use and must be kept private from others.

Table 6.3: Common Directory Permission Settings

Value	P. A.
Value	Meaning
777	(rwxrwxrwx) No restrictions on anything. Anybody can do anything. Generally, not a desirable setting.
755	(rwxr-xr-x) The file owner may read, write, and execute the file. Others can read and execute the file. This setting is useful for all programs that are used by all users.
700	$(r_{WX}$) The file owner my read, write, and execute the file. Nobody else has any rights. This setting is useful for programs that only user may use and are kept private from others.
666	(rw-rw-rw) All users can read and write the file.
644	(rw-r-r) The owner can read and write a file, while others may only read the file. A very common setting where everybody may read but only the owner can make changes.
600	(rw) Owner can read and write a file. Others have no rights. A common setting for files that the owner wants to keep private.

Table 6.4: Common File Sharing Settings

Symbolic mode:

This method uses mathematical symbols to modify the file/directory permissions on the three user types.

Steps to use symbolic mode:

Use arguments (u for user, g for group, o for others, and a for all) or a combination of arguments (ugo, ug, etc.) to modify the user types.
 Use a '+' for adding, a '-' for removing, and a '=' for assigning permission.

- O Specify permissions (r, w, x) or a combination of permissions to modify the existing or add permissions for files/directories.
- Use commas to modify more permissions.
- o Finally, specify the name of the file.

For example:

- o chmod o+x abc.txt refers to adding execution permissions for other users for abc.txt.
- o chmod ugo-rwx abc.txt refers to removing all permissions for everyone for abc.txt.
- o chmod ug+rw, o-x xyz.mp4 refers to adding read and write permissions for user and group while removing execute permission for others for xyz.mp4.
- o chmod ug=rx, o+r abc.txt refers to assigning read and write permissions for user and group for abc.txt.

Changing Ownership and Group

For changing the ownership of a file/directory, use the command chown user. To change the user as well as the group for a file or directory use the command chown user:group filename.

To change group owner only, use the command chgrp group_name filename. Here, chgrp stands for change group.

Check and Verify Permissions for Sensitive Files and Directories



Permission	File Pathname	Description
600	/boot/grub/menu.lst	GRUB boot loader menu file
400	/etc/cron.allow	List of users permitted to use cron to submit periodic jobs
400	/etc/cron.deny	List of users who cannot use cron to submit periodic jobs
644	/etc/crontab	System-wide periodic jobs
644	/etc/hosts.allow	List of hosts allowed to use internet services that are started using TCP wrappers
644	/etc/hosts.deny	List of hosts denied access to internet services that are started using TCP wrappers
644	/etc/logrotate.conf	File that controls how log files rotate
644	/etc/xinetd.conf	Configuration file for xinetd server
755	/etc/xinetd.d	Directory containing configuration files for specific
755	/var/log	Directory with all log files
644	/var/log/lastlog	Information about all previous logins
644	/var/log/messages	Main system message log file
664	/var/log/wtmp	Information about current logins
755	/etc/pam.d	Directory with configuration files for pluggable authentication modules (PAMs)

Copyright © by **EG-Council**. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

Check and Verify Permissions for Sensitive Files and Directories (Cont'd)



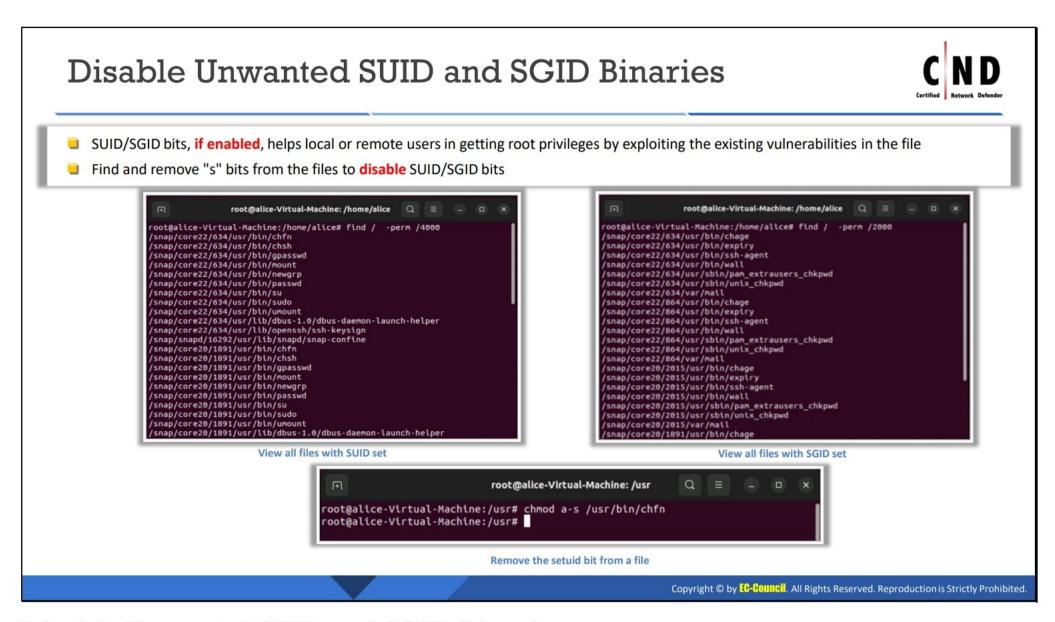
Permission	File Pathname	Description
644	/etc/passwd	Old-style password file with user account information but not the password
755	/etc/rc.d	Directory with system-startup scripts
600	/etc/securetty	TTY interfaces (terminals) from which root can log in
755	/etc/security	Policy files that control system access
400	/etc/shadow	Files with encrypted passwords and password expiration information
400	/etc/shutdown.allow	Users who can shut down or reboot by pressing Ctrl+Alt+Delete
755	/etc/ssh	Directory with configuration files for the Secure Shell (SSH)
755	/etc/sysconfig	System configuration files
644	/etc/sysct1.conf	Kernel configuration parameters
644	/etc/syslog.conf	Configuration file for the syslogd server that logs messages
644	/etc/udev/udev.conf	Configuration file for udev – the program that provides the capability to dynamically name hot-pluggable devices and create the device files in the /dev directory
600	/etc/vsftpd	Configuration file for the very secure FTP server
600	/etc/vsftpd.ftpusers	List of users who are not allowed to use FTP to transfer files

 ${\bf Copyright \: @\:\: by \: {\bf EC\text{-}Council}. \: All \: Rights \: Reserved. \: Reproduction is \: Strictly \: Prohibited }$

Check and Verify Permissions for Sensitive Files and Directories

The table shown here includes the typical numeric permission settings for important system files in Linux. This may slightly vary depending on the Linux distribution.

After knowing the numeric permission values for common file and directory permission settings, it is becomes quicker to identify the permissions given or changes in the permission values for sensitive files and directories of Linux. Network defender should compare and identify permission value allocations and changes in permission for the Linux hosts on their network.



Disable Unwanted SUID and SGID Binaries

Binaries with <code>setuid</code> and <code>setguid</code> turned on can be of potential risk as an attacker could exploit any vulnerability in the binary to gain elevated or root privileges. Programs with <code>SUID</code> bit set execute with the privileges of the program file's owner, and programs with <code>SGID</code> bit set are executed with the privileges of the file's group owner. To prevent misuse of <code>SUID/SGID</code> bits enabled file containing vulnerabilities or bugs by local or remote users, it is recommended to find and disable all unnecessary <code>SUID/SGID</code> bits.

The user needs to find all the files by using the following commands.

```
#See all set user id files:
find / -perm +4000
```

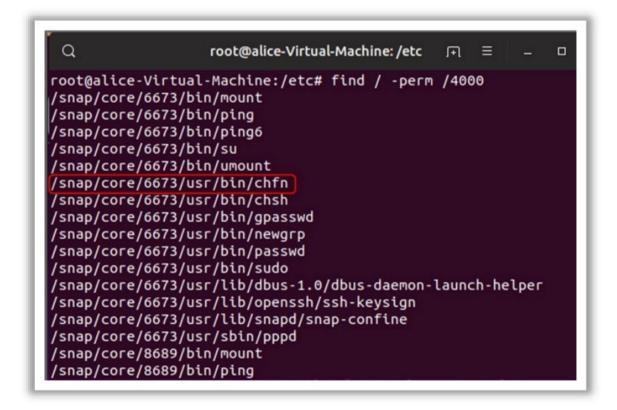


Figure 6.44: Finding user id files

See all group id files
find / -perm +2000

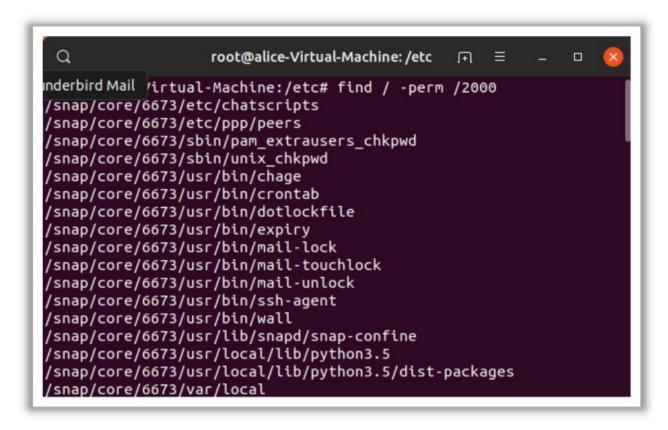


Figure 6.45: Finding group id files

Or combine both in a single command
find / \(-perm -4000 -o -perm -2000 \) -print

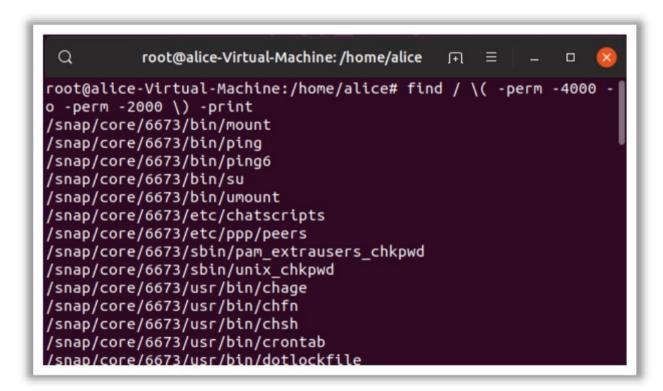


Figure 6.46: combining commands

Remove the SUID/SGID binaries.

For example, to remove the SUID /usr/bin/chfn obtained from view all files with SUID set, execute the following command chmod a-s /usr/bin/chfn.

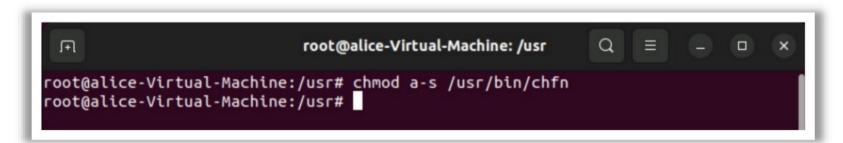
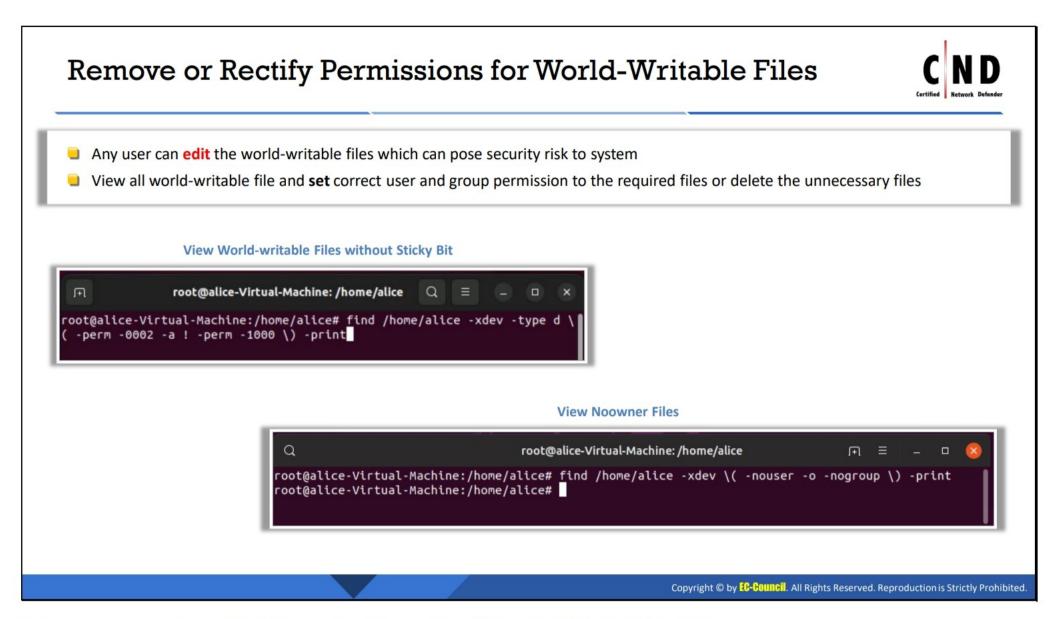


Figure 6.47: Removing SUID/SGID binaries



Remove or Rectify Permissions for World-Writable Files

World-writable files and directories can, as the name suggests, be edited by any user on the system. This can present a security issue, particularly if system files or configuration are left as world writable. View all world-writable files, correct the user and group permission to the required files or delete the necessary files. You should regularly monitor for recurring world-writable files, as they may be a symptom of a misconfigured application/user account.

Steps to find world-writable files are listed below:

Use the below command to locate world-writable files and directories on the machine.

```
find /dir -xdev -perm +o=w ! \( -type d -perm +o=t \) ! -type l -
print
```

Figure 6.48: Locating world-writable files

 Command to locate all directories that are world writable and do not have their sticky bits set. This command will discover and print these for /home/alice directory.

Figure 6.49: Locating directories

If the above command produces any output, fix each reported directory /dir

o Using the chmod command.

```
find /webroot -xdev -type d \( -perm -0002 -a ! -perm -1000 \) -
print() | xargs -0 chmod +t
```

Or, review each directory and set permission as per requirements:

```
chmod +t /path/to/dir
```

Command to disable world write access to a file.

```
chmod o-w file
```

Command to find and interactively fix world-writable files.

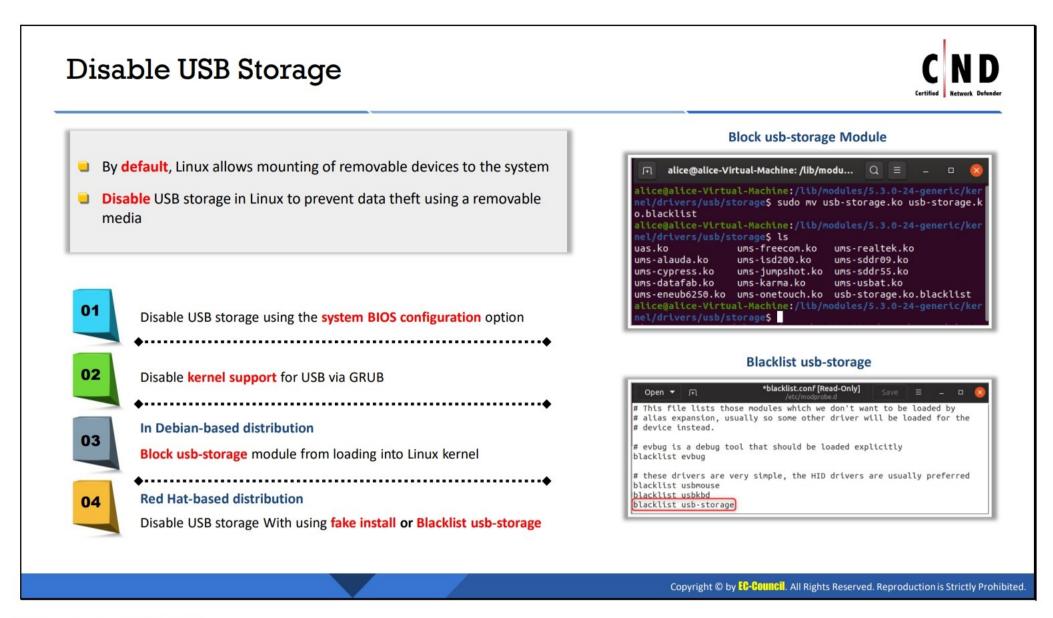
```
find /dir -xdev -perm +o=w ! \( -type d -perm +o=t \) ! -type l -
ok chmod -v o-w {} \;
```

Command to prevent newly created files from being world writable.

```
umask 002
```

Command for files that are not owned by someone.

```
Find /home/alice -xdev \( -nouser -o -nogroup\) -print
```



Disable USB Storage

Linux allows mounting of removable devices to the system and shows files and folders contained in devices by default. This allows attackers to copy files or to run a malicious script on the system. With a few configuration changes, it is possible to disable USB on Linux machines for unprivileged users.

Methods to disable USB storage are listed below.

- Methods to Disable USB Storage based on Red Hat distribution:
 - Using fake install:
 - Create and open the blacklist file named block_usb.conf in the folder /etc/modprobe.d,
 - \$ sudo vim /etc/modprobe.d/block usb.conf
 - Enter install usb-storage /bin/true command.
 - Save the file and restart the system to apply changes.
 - Blacklisting USB-storage:
 - Create the file /etc/modprobe.d/blacklist.conf to blacklist usbstorage.
 - \$ sudo vim /etc/modprobe.d/blacklist.conf

Enter the following line to blacklist the usb.

blacklist usb-storage

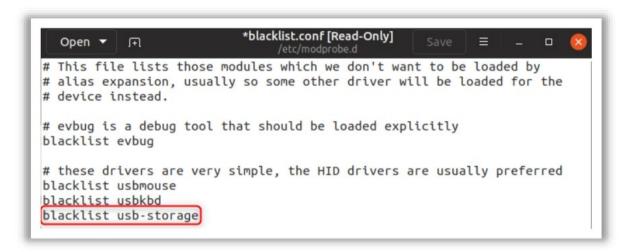


Figure 6.50: Blacklisting usb storage

- Save file and exit.
- Restart the system to take effect changes.

Note: Other privileged users may be able to load the usb-storage module again by executing the following command.

```
$ sudo modprobe usb-storage
```

o Removing/moving the USB driver: Change directory to kernel usb storage modules path and rename the usb-storage.ko.xz module to usb-storage.ko.xz.blacklist by issuing the below commands to block USB storage module from loading into kernel.

```
# cd /lib/modules/ 'uname - r'
/kernel/drivers/usb/storage/
# ls
#sudo mv usb-storage.ko usb-storage.ko.xz.blacklist
```

 In Debian-based Linux distributions: Enter the below commands to block usb-storage module from loading into Linux kernel.

```
# cd /lib/modules/ 'uname - r' /kernel/drivers/usb/storage/
# ls
#sudo mv usb-storage.ko usb-storage.ko.blacklist
```

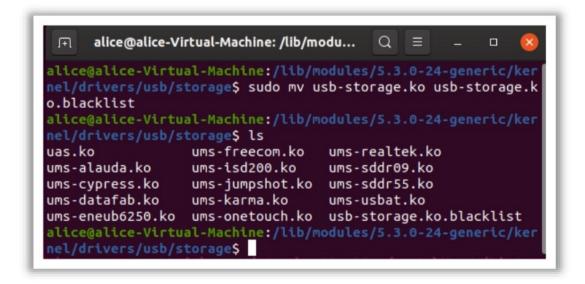
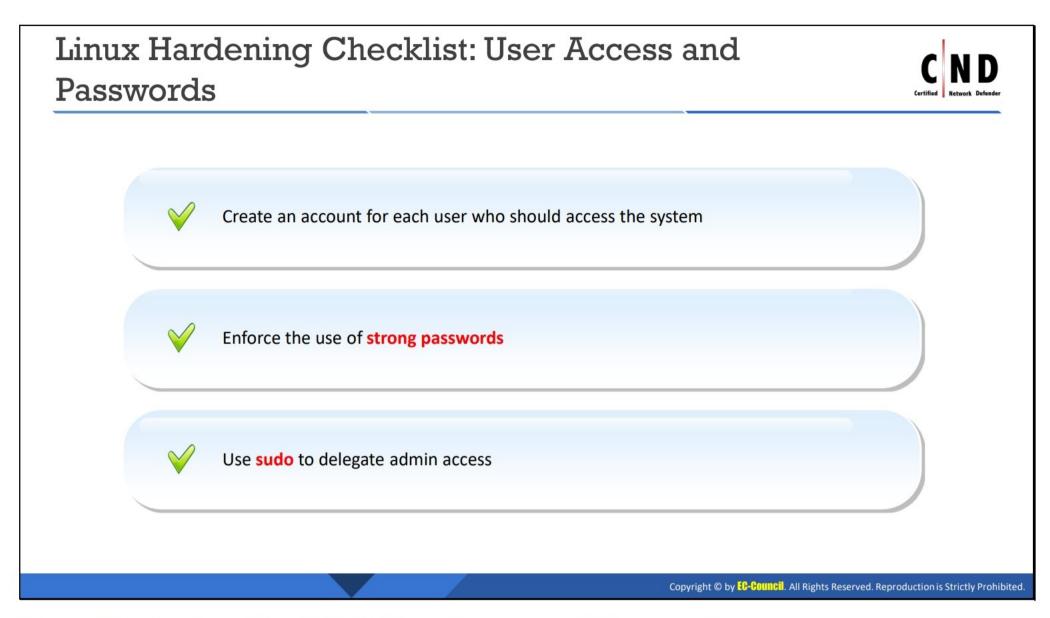


Figure 6.51: Blocking usb-storage module

Block USB in Debian and Ubuntu

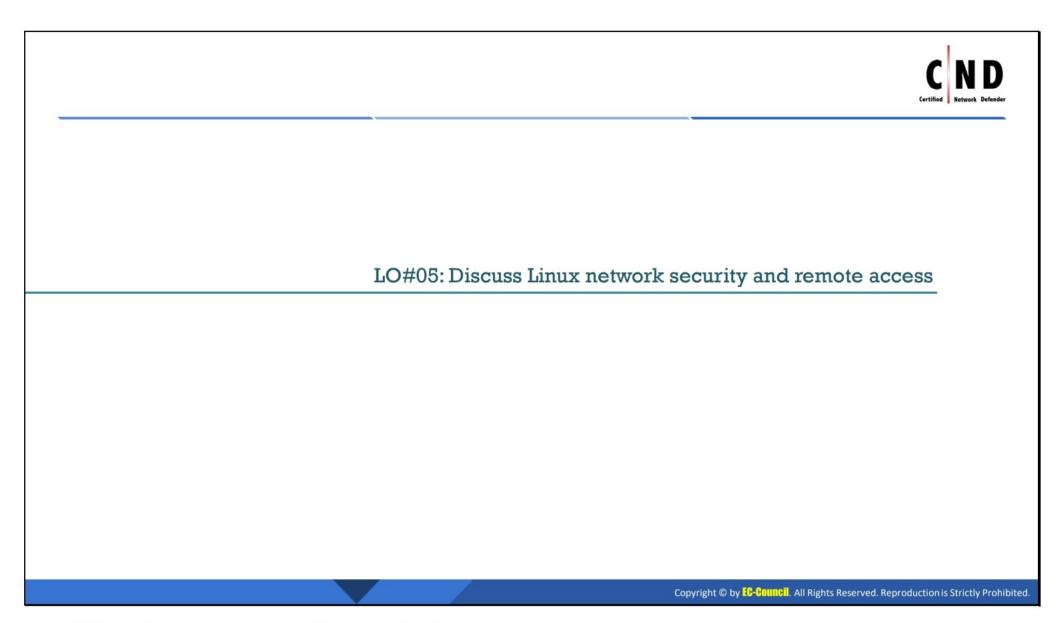
- BIOS option: Disable USB from system BIOS configuration option. Ensure BIOS is password protected. Nobody can boot the system from USB.
- GRUB option: To disable kernel support for USB through GRUB, open groub.conf or menu.lst and add "nousb" to the kernel line.

kernel /vmlinuz-2.6.18-128.1.1.el5 ro root=LABEL=/ console=tty0 console=ttyS1,19200n8 nousb



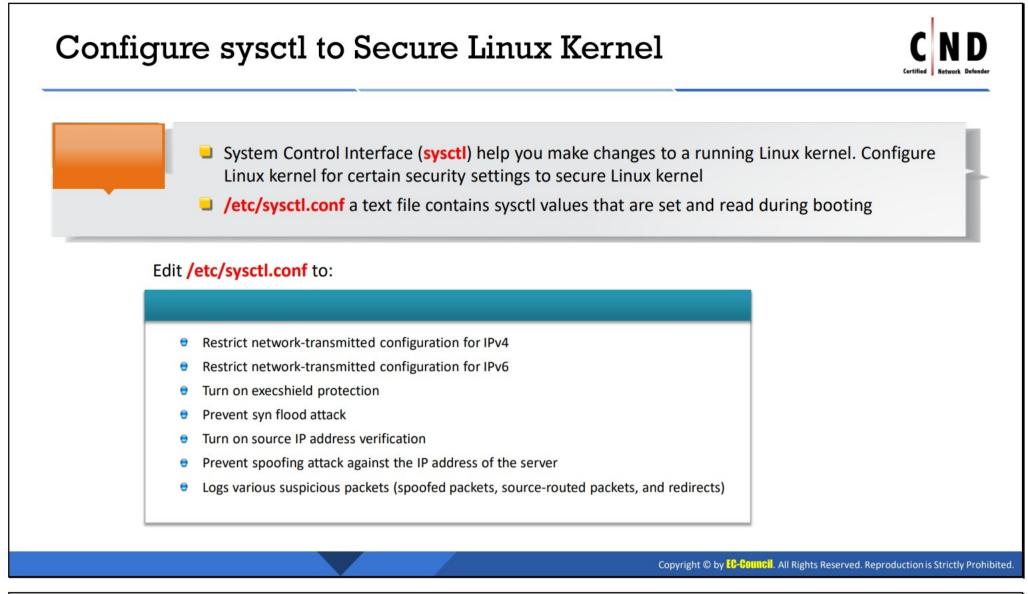
Linux Hardening Checklist: User Access and Passwords

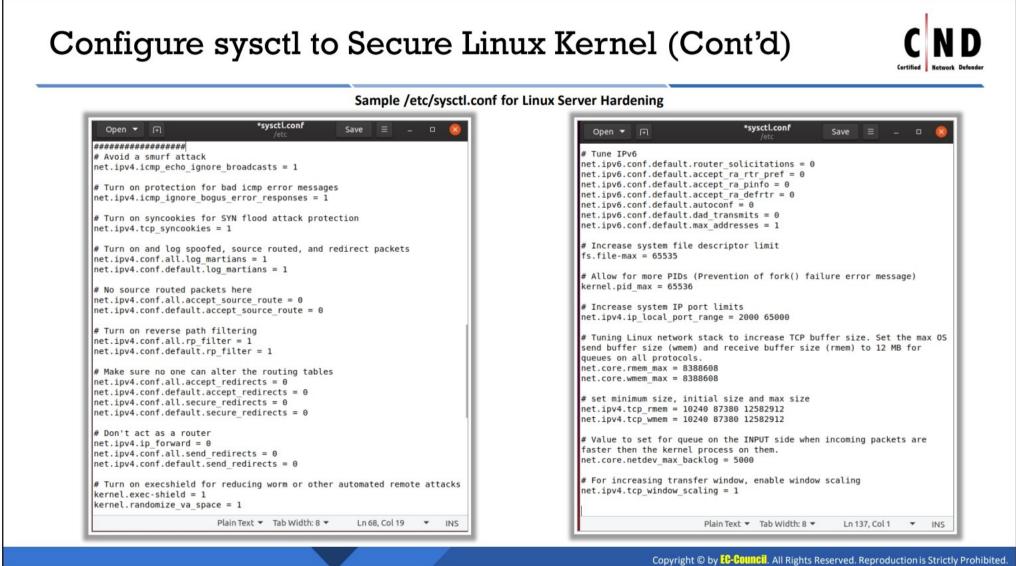
- Create an account for every user who should access the system instead of shared accounts/passwords. This can make it easy to keep an audit trail and remove access when not needed.
- Enforce the use of strong passwords using password security rules that can be set in /etc/pam.d/password-auth.
- Use sudo to delegate administrator access by editing the configuration file /etc/sudoers with the command visudo. This can create fine-grained access to run commands as root/other user IDs.



LO#05: Discuss Linux Network Security and Remote Access

This section enlists security measures required to improve Linux network and remote access security.





Configure sysctl to Secure Linux Kernel

The System Control interface or utility in Linux distribution <code>sysctl</code> helps to edit Linux kernel parameters (system settings) at runtime. The file <code>/etc/sysctl.conf</code> is a text file that comprises <code>sysctl</code> values to be read in and set by <code>sysctl</code> at boot time. The network defender can change the parameter values and make the system secure. The configuration of <code>sysctl</code>

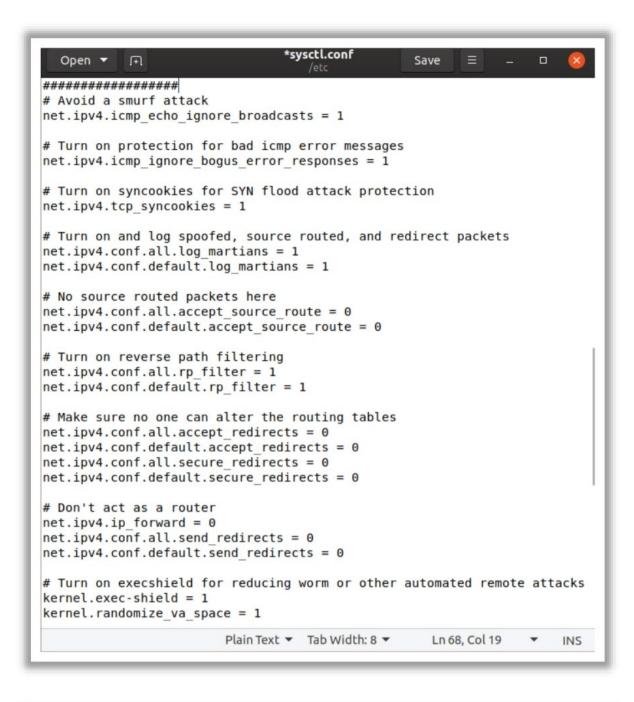
provides additional security and helps protect the host from different network-level attacks such as a man-the-middle attack, spoofing attack, etc.

Configure /etc/sysctl.conf for various Linux networking and system settings such as:

- Limits configuring network-transmitted for IPv4
- Limits configuring network-transmitted for IPv6
- Turns on execshield protection
- Prevents the common "syn flood attack"
- Turns on source IP address verification
- Avoids an attacker from using a spoofing attack against the IP address of the server
- Logs various types of suspicious packets (spoofed packets, source-routed packets, and redirects)

Steps to configure sysctl securely in Linux distribution by editing the configuration file:

- Use the command Sudo nano /etc/sysctl.conf to access the configuration file.
 - Open the file. The administrator can make the following basic security configuration.
 - Disable IP forwarding
 - Disable the send packet redirect
 - Disable ICMP redirect acceptance
 - Enable bad Error Message protection
 - o Steps to change the parameter values in /etc/sysctl.conf file.
 - Enter the command sudo gedit /etc/sysctl.conf (enter the required administrator password when prompted for password).
 - Press enter; the sysctl.conf file will open in terminal. Configure the sysctl file as shown in the following figures.



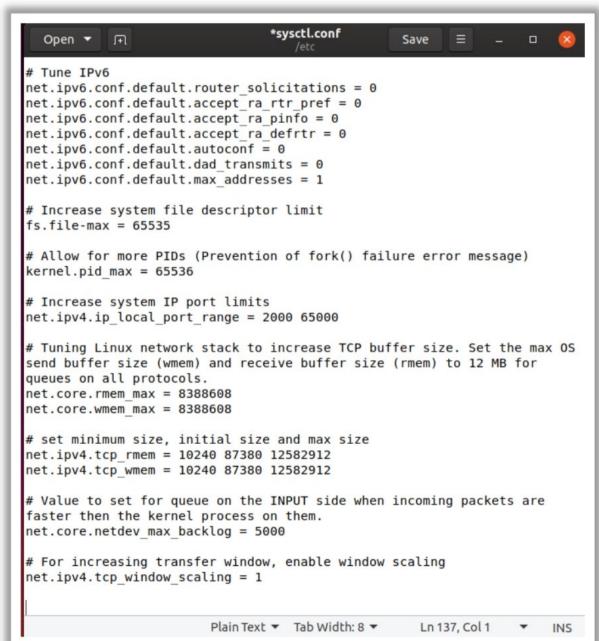
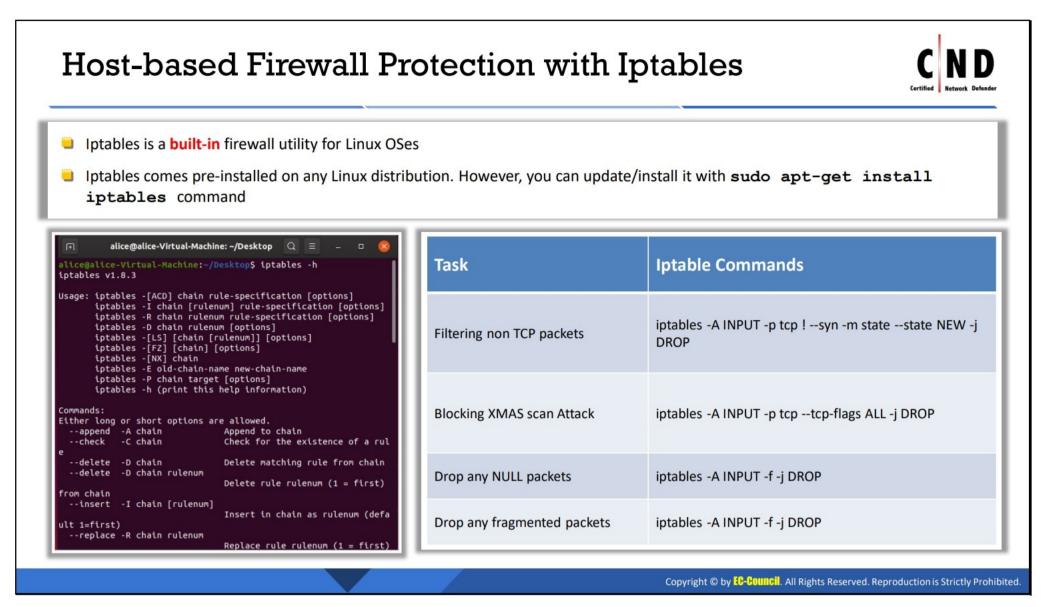
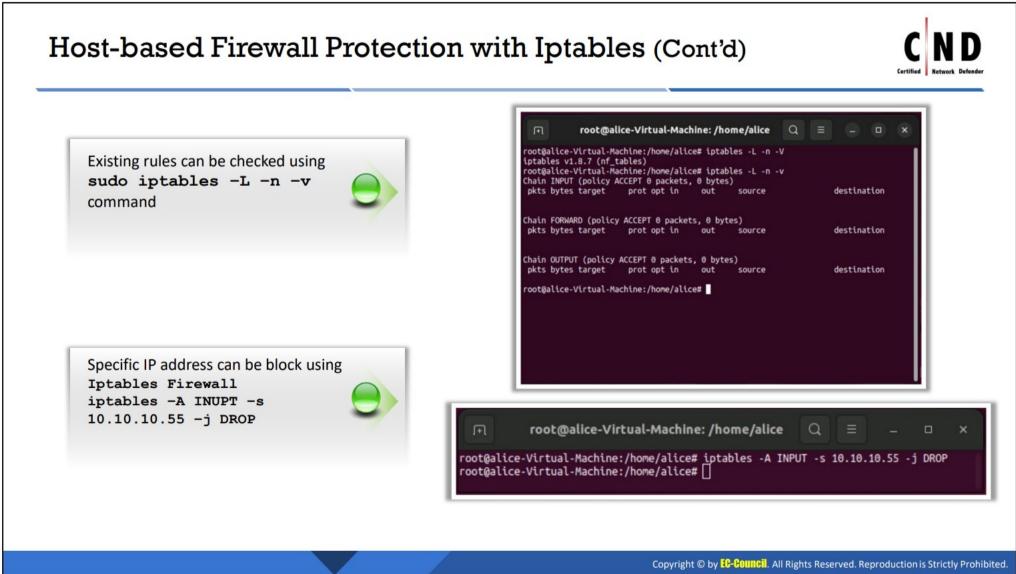


Figure 6.52: Sample /etc/sysctl.conf for Linux Server Hardening





Host-based Firewall Protection with Iptables

Host-based firewalls provide enhanced security against threats. Linux systems support a kernel-based packet filter that is suitable for using host-based firewalls.

The advantages of host-based firewalls are listed below:

- It protects against firewall failure. Adding another firewall can be helpful if the primary firewall fails because the attack that causes the primary firewall failure cannot affect the host-based firewall.
- It is simple to configure a host-based firewall because the host requires support for just a few protocols to function. Simplicity makes verification of the ruleset simpler.
- It can help secure against the threats originating within a corporate network and reduce the risks of misconfigured software on a host.
- It can be configured to support a single set of applications and to block everything.

Iptables

Iptables is a command-line firewall utility that can allow or deny traffic. Iptables is preinstalled in a Linux system. In order to update or install iptables, the user needs to regain the iptables package using the command:

```
sudo apt-get install iptables
```

Every packet traversing through the filter system is assigned to an appropriate table depending on the tasks performed by the packet. The table contains chains that display the details of the destination of the packet. The tables can be used to create rules and the user has the facility to create their own chains and link them from the built-in chains. This facilitates the ability to create complex rules. However, the user needs to be extra alert while using the <code>iptables</code> command as any small error in the command can lock the system and may require the user to fix the error manually.

There are three different types of chains:

- Input: The input chain verifies the incoming connections and its behavior. Iptables compares the IP address and port of the incoming connection to a rule in the chain.
- Forward: The forward chain mainly forwards the incoming connections to its destination. The command iptables -L -v verifies whether an incoming connection needs a forward chain.
- Output: The output chain is used for output connections, wherein the chain checks for the output chain and decides whether to allow or deny the output request.

Example iptables firewall rules:

■ Check the existing rules using the sudo iptables -L -n -v command.

```
ਜ਼ ≡ − □
                          root@alice-Virtual-Machine: /home/alice
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# iptables -L -n -v
Chain INPUT (policy ACCEPT 97 packets, 7270 bytes)
pkts bytes target
                      prot opt in
                                                                  destination
Chain FORWARD (policy ACCEPT 0 packets, 0 bytes)
pkts bytes target
                      prot opt in
                                                                  destination
                                     out
                                             source
Chain OUTPUT (policy ACCEPT 0 packets, 0 bytes)
pkts bytes target
                      prot opt in
                                                                  destination
                                     out
                                             source
         0 DROP
                      all -- *
                                           0.0.0.0/0
                                                                  0.0.0.0/0
   owner UID match 1001
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice#
```

Figure 6.53: iptables firewall rules

- Check the rules for a specific table using the command # iptables -t nat -L -v -n.
- Block the specified IP address using iptables firewall.

```
Iptables -A INUPT -s 10.10.10.55 -j DROP
```



Figure 6.54: Blocking specific IP address

- Block specific port on iptables firewall using the command # iptables -A OUTPUT p tcp --dport xxx -j DROP.
- Block Facebook on Iptables firewall using the command # iptables -A OUTPUT -p tcp -d 66.220.144.0/20 -j DROP.

<u> </u>		
Task	Iptables Commands	
Filtering non-TCP packets	iptables -A INPUT -p tcp !syn -m statestate NEW -j DROP	
Blocking XMAS scan attack	iptables -A INPUT -p tcptcp-flags ALL ALL -j DROP	
Drop any NULL packets	iptables -A INPUT -f -j DROP	
Drop any fragmented packets	iptables -A INPUT -f -j DROP	
Block network flood on Apache port	iptables -A INPUT -p tcpdport 80 -m limitlimit 100/minutelimit-burst 200 -j ACCEPT	

Block incoming ping requests	# iptables -A INPUT -p icmp -i eth0 -j DROP
Block access to a specific MAC address	iptables -A INPUT -m macmac-source 00:00:00:00:00:00 -j DROP
Block connection on network interface	iptables -A INPUT -i eth0 -s xxx.xxx.xxx -j DROP
Disable outgoing mails	iptables -A OUTPUT -p tcpdports 25,465,587 -j REJECT

Table 6.5: Other iptables commands for various tasks

UFW

UFW (uncomplicated firewall) is an interface to iptables. For beginners, it is difficult to use iptables for configuring a firewall. UFW can help them by simplifying the process of configuring a firewall to make the system secure in the network. Enable UFW to protect unusual traffic

Steps to Set Up a Firewall with UFW

Install UFW using the sudo apt-get install ufw command.

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$ sudo apt-get install ufw Reading package lists... Done Building dependency tree Reading state information... Done ufw is already the newest version (0.36-1ubuntu3). 0 upgraded, 0 newly installed, 0 to remove and 30 not upgraded. alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.55: Installing UFW

Check the status of UFW using the sudo ufw status verbose command. The output will be active or inactive. The default status of UFW is disabled.

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop Q ≡ − □  alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$ sudo ufw status verbose Status: inactive alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.56: Checking status of UFW

■ Enable UFW using the sudo ufw enable command.

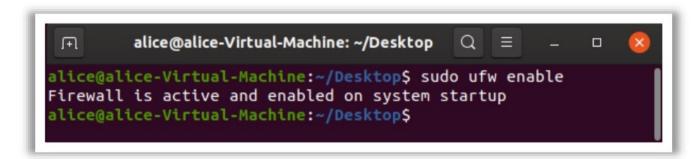


Figure 6.57: Enabling UFW

Set default policies using the following commands.

```
sudo ufw default deny incoming
sudo ufw default allow outgoing
```

Add UFW Rules

There are two ways to add rules: denoting the port number and using the service name.

A few examples and corresponding commands are discussed below.

• Allow both incoming and outcoming connections on port 22 for SSH.

```
sudo ufw allow ssh
```

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine:~/Desktop$ sudo ufw allow ssh Rule added Rule added (v6) alice@alice-Virtual-Machine:~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.58: Adding UFW rules

(or)

sudo ufw allow 2000

Figure 6.59: Adding UFW rules

Deny traffic on a specific port.

```
sudo ufw deny 22.
```

Allow packets based on TCP or UDP.

```
sudo ufw allow 80/tcp
sudo ufw allow http/tcp
sudo ufw allow 1725/udp
```

Allow connections from an IP address.

sudo ufw allow from 10.10.10.25

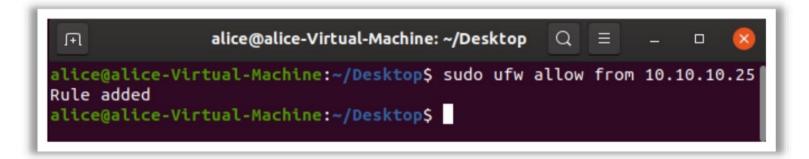


Figure 6.60: Allowing connections

Deny connections from an IP address

Sudo ufw deny from 10.10.10.24.

```
alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop Q ≡ − □  alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$ sudo ufw deny from 10.10.10.24 Rule added alice@alice-Virtual-Machine: ~/Desktop$
```

Figure 6.61: Denying connections

Allow connections from a specific subnet.

```
sudo ufw allow from 198.51.100.0/24
```

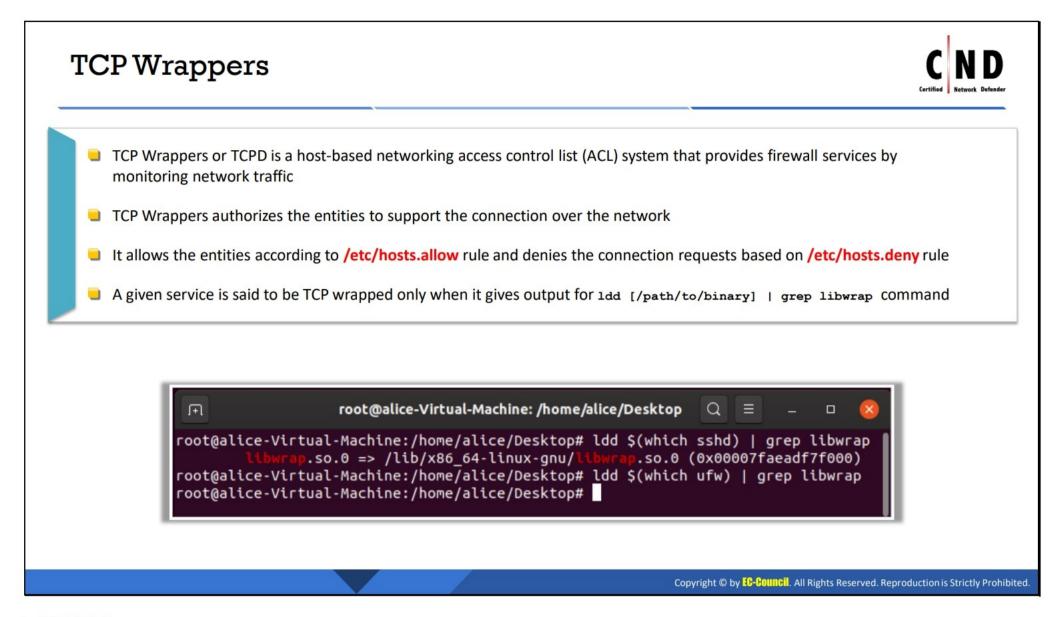
Allow a specific IP address/port combination.

```
sudo ufw allow from 198.51.100.0 to any port 22 proto tcp
```

- When more advanced or specific rules need to be added/removed:
 - o Add the rules to the /etc/ufw/before.rules (before6.rules for IPv6) file to execute the rules.
 - o There exists after.rule and an after6.rule files to add any rules that would need to be added after UFW runs the command-line-added rules.
 - An additional configuration file that is located at /etc/default/ufw allows the user to disable or enable IPv6, to set default rules, and set UFW to manage built-in firewall chains.

Remove UFW Rules

Delete rules using port number or service name. Use delete in the command while removing a rule. For example, the command to delete allowing HTTP traffic from port number 80 is sudo ufw delete allow 80.



TCP Wrappers

TCP Wrappers or TCPD is a host-based access control list that provides firewall services for UNIX servers by monitoring incoming packets. It is not an alternate to a properly configured pf firewall or netfilter as the firewall cannot check encrypted connections. However, TCPD provides additional security. It checks and allows data packets to pass through only when the external system or host has the authorization to connect to the network. It supports common services POP3, FTP, SSHD, telnet and R services.

Advantages

- TCPD has been widely deployed for host-level security, ensuring good IP addresses are allowed (whitelisted) or are bad ones are blocked (blacklisted).
- The connections monitored by TCPD are reported by the syslog feature (logging).
- It supports a simple form of access control that is based on pattern matching. When a pattern matches, you can execute shell commands or scripts.
- It works at the application Layer (Layer 7), allowing filters to be applied even when encryption is used (e.g., HTTPS).
- It protects against spoofing.

Note:

- Use both firewall and TCPD to fight against attackers.
- Do not configure TCPD on the firewall host.
- Keep TCPD on all UNIX/Linux/BSD workstations.

- Do not use NIS (YP) netgroups in TCPD rules.
- Keep TCPD Wrappers behind a firewall system.

hosts.allow and hosts.deny

When a network request reaches the server, TCPD uses hosts.allow and hosts.deny to decide whether the client should be allowed to use the given service. By default, both files are empty. Therefore, everything is allowed through the TCPD layer, and the system relies on the firewall for full protection. But ensure both the files exist by entering the command # ls -1 /etc/hosts.allow /etc/hosts.deny. Only the first rule will be considered if two rules apply to the same service.

Not all network services support the use of TCPD. To know whether a given service supports TCPD, user the #ldd /path/to/binary | grep libwrap command. If any output is received, the service can be TCP-Wrapped. For example, sshd and vsftpd.

Steps to use TCPD to restrict access to services are listed below:

- Ensure you add a new line by pressing Enter after the last non-empty line in /etc/hosts.allow and /etc/hosts.deny.
- To allow SSH and FTP access only to 192.168.0.201 and localhost and deny all others, add the flowing lines in /etc/hosts.deny.

```
sshd, vsftpd : ALL ALL : ALL
```

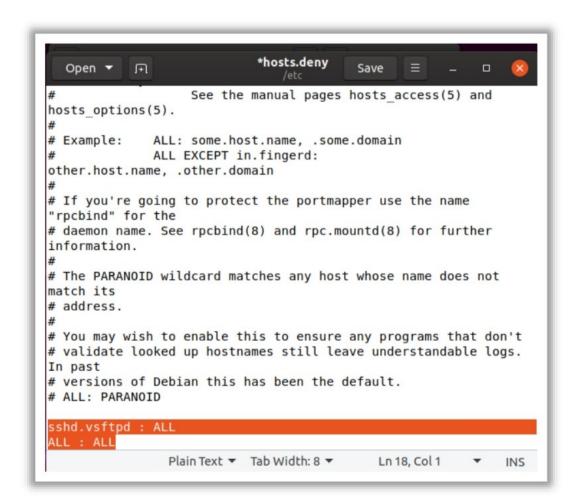


Figure 6.62: Adding in /etc/hosts.deny

Add the following line in /etc/hosts.allow.

```
sshd, vsftpd: 192.168.0.102, LOCAL
```

```
# /etc/hosts.allow: list of hosts that are allowed to access the
system.
# See the manual pages hosts_access(5) and
hosts_options(5).
#
# Example: ALL: LOCAL @some_netgroup
# ALL: .foobar.edu EXCEPT terminalserver.foobar.edu
#
# If you're going to protect the portmapper use the name "rpcbind"
for the
# daemon name. See rpcbind(8) and rpc.mountd(8) for further
information.
#
sshd,vsftpd : 192.168.0.201,LOCAL
PlainText ▼ Tab Width: 8 ▼ Ln 10, Col 34 ▼ INS
```

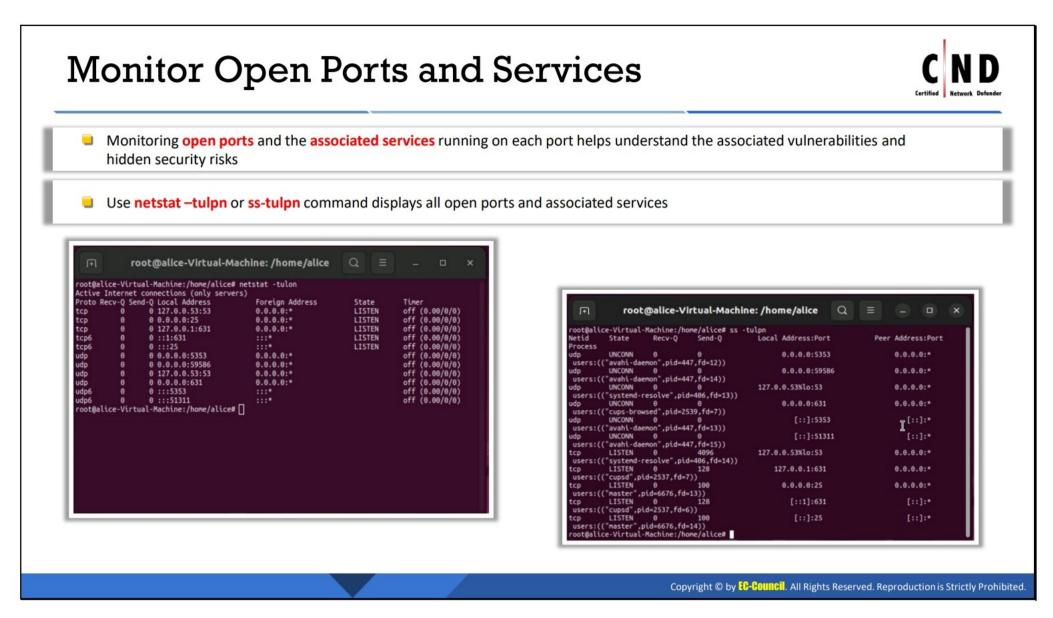
Figure 6.63: Adding in /etc/hosts.allow

- The changes take effect immediately without a restart.
- See the effect of removing the word LOCAL from the last line: the FTP server will become unavailable for the localhost.
- To allow all services to host where the name is example.com, add the following line in hosts.allow.

```
ALL : .example.com
```

■ To deny access to vsftpd to machines on 10.0.1.0/24, add the following line in hosts.deny.

```
Vsftpd : 10.0.1.
```



Monitor Open Ports and Services

Monitoring open ports and the associated services running on each port help understand the related vulnerabilities and hidden security risks. Use the following commands to display all open ports and related services.

Monitoring open ports using the netstat command (for Ubuntu):

- Install netstat using the sudo apt install net-tools command.
- List all ports available on a server using the netstat -tulpn command.

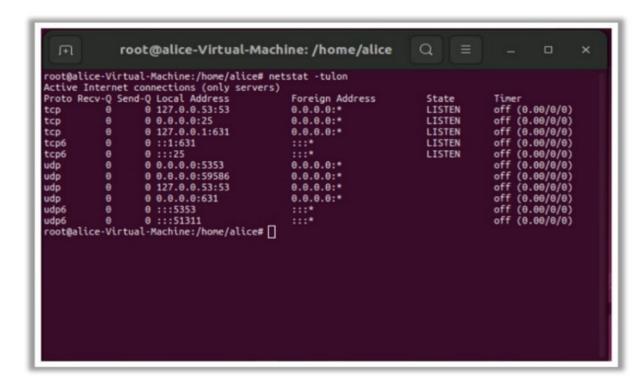


Figure 6.64: netstat -tulpn command

- For detail command options, use the list below:
 - o -t to show TCP ports

- o -u to show UDP ports
- o -n to show numerical addresses instead of resolving hosts
- -1 to show only listening ports
- o −p to show the PID and name of the listener's process

Monitoring open ports using the ss command (for Linux):

Run the ss -tulpn command.

```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine: /home/alice
oot@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# ss -tulpn
                                              Local Address:Port
                                                                            Peer Address:Port
                                                    0.0.0.0:5353
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
        "avahi-daemon",pid=447,fd=12))
                                                    0.0.0.0:59586
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
                                              127.0.0.53%lo:53
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
        "systemd-resolve",pid=406,fd=13))
                                                    0.0.0.0:631
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
     :(("cups-browsed",pid=2539,fd=7))
                                                                                  I [::]:*
                                                       [::]:5353
         avahi-daemon",pid=447,fd=13))
                                                       [::]:51311
        "avahi-daemon",pid=447,fd=15))
                                              127.0.0.53%lo:53
        systemd-resolve",pid=406,fd=14))
                                                  127.0.0.1:631
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
                                                    0.0.0.0:25
                                                                                 0.0.0.0:*
        "master",pid=6676,fd=13))
                                                      [::1]:631
                                                                                    [::]:*
     :(("cupsd",pid=2537,fd=6))
        LISTEN 0 10
"master",pid=6676,fd=14))
                                                       [::]:25
```

Figure 6.65: ss -tulpn command

Use the same command options the netstat command uses.

Monitoring open ports using the lsof command:

Run the lsof command with the options sudo lsof -nP -iTCP -sTCP:LISTEN.

Monitoring open ports using the Nmap utility:

Run the below command to scan for open TCP ports.

```
nmap -sT -0 localhost
```

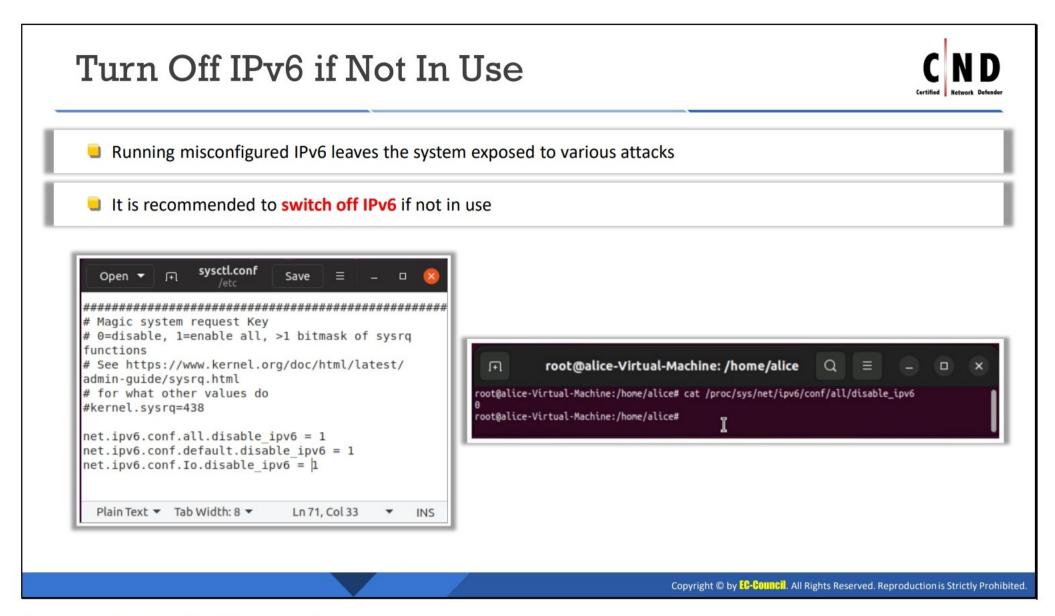
```
root@alice-Virtual-Machine: /home/alice
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice# nmap -sT -0 localhost
Starting Nmap 7.70 ( https://nmap.org ) at 2020-03-12 10:42 IST
Nmap scan report for localhost (127.0.0.1)
Host is up (0.000045s latency).
Not shown: 998 closed ports
       STATE SERVICE
PORT
25/tcp open smtp
631/tcp open ipp
Device type: general purpose
Running: Linux 2.6.X
OS CPE: cpe:/o:linux:linux_kernel:2.6.32
OS details: Linux 2.6.32
Network Distance: 0 hops
OS detection performed. Please report any incorrect results at https://nmap.org/
Nmap done: 1 IP address (1 host up) scanned in 2.25 seconds
root@alice-Virtual-Machine:/home/alice#
```

Figure 6.66: TCP port scan

Run the below command to scan for open UDP ports.

nmap -sU localhost

Figure 6.67: UDP port scan



Turn Off IPv6 if Not In Use

Although IPv6 incorporates some security improvements over IPv4, running misconfigured IPv6 leaves the system exposed to various attacks. If IPv6 is enabled by default, ensure it is turned off until properly configured or when it is not in use.

Steps to disable IPv6 protocol on a Debian-based system are listed below:

- Enter the command sudo nano /etc/sysctl.conf in the terminal.
- Add the following lines at the bottom of the file.

```
net.ipv6.conf.all.disable_ipv6 = 1
net.ipv6.conf.default.disable_ipv6 = 1
net.ipv6.conf.lo.disable_ipv6 = 1
```

Save and close the file and restart the system.

Steps to disable IPv6 using GRUB are listed below:

Edit /etc/default/grub to configure the GRUB to pass kernel parameters at boot time.

```
Save ≡ _ □
  # If you change this file, run 'update-grub' afterwards to update
# /boot/grub/grub.cfg.
# For full documentation of the options in this file, see:
  info -f grub -n 'Simple configuration'
GRUB DEFAULT=0
GRUB TIMEOUT STYLE=hidden
GRUB TIMEOUT=0
GRUB DISTRIBUTOR=`lsb release -i -s 2> /dev/null || echo Debian`
GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX_DEFAULT="quiet splash ipv6.disable=1"
GRUB CMDLINE LINUX=" security=selinux"
# Uncomment to enable BadRAM filtering, modify to suit your needs
# This works with Linux (no patch required) and with any kernel that obtains
# the memory map information from GRUB (GNU Mach, kernel of FreeBSD ...)
#GRUB_BADRAM="0x01234567,0xfefefefe,0x89abcdef,0xefefefef"
# Uncomment to disable graphical terminal (grub-pc only)
#GRUB TERMINAL=console
# The resolution used on graphical terminal
# note that you can use only modes which your graphic card supports via VBE
# you can see them in real GRUB with the command `vbeinfo'
#GRUB GFXMODE=640x480
# Uncomment if you don't want GRUB to pass "root=UUID=xxx" parameter to Linux
#GRUB DISABLE LINUX UUID=true
# Uncomment to disable generation of recovery mode menu entries
#GRUB_DISABLE_RECOVERY="true"
# Uncomment to get a beep at grub start
#GRUB INIT TUNE="480 440 1"
```

Figure 6.68: Editing /etc/default/grub

Modify GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX_DEFAULT and GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX to disable IPv6
on boot.

```
GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX_DEFAULT="quiet splash ipv6.disable=1"
GRUB CMDLINE LINUX="ipv6.disable=1"
```

Save the file and run the update-grub command.

```
sudo update-grub
```

Reboot the system.

Steps to disable the IPv6 protocol on a Red Hat-based system are listed below:

Enter the following commands.

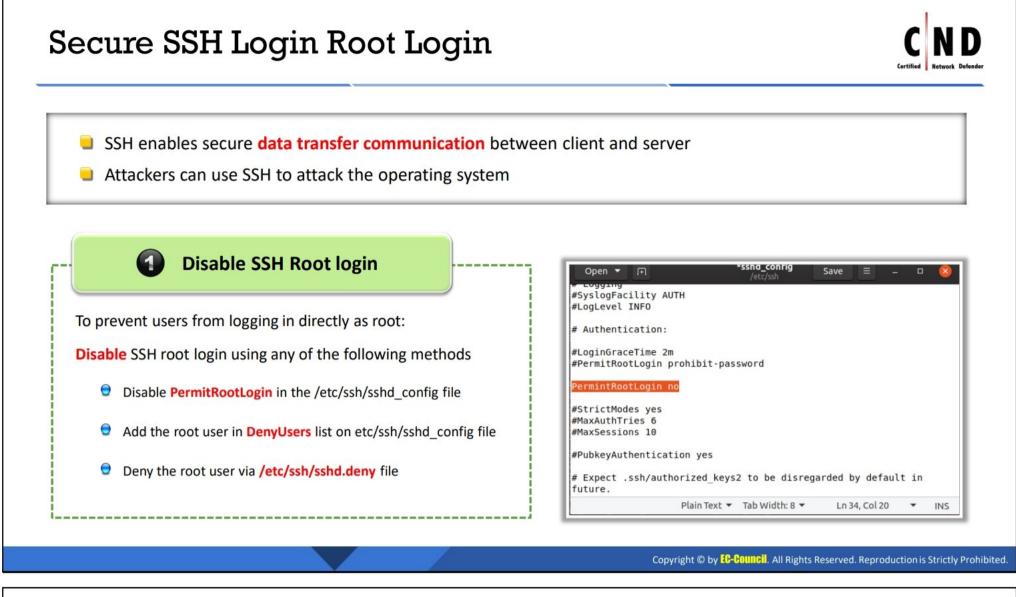
```
sysctl -w net.ipv6.conf.all.disable_ipv6=1
sysctl -w net.ipv6.conf.default.disable_ipv6=1
```

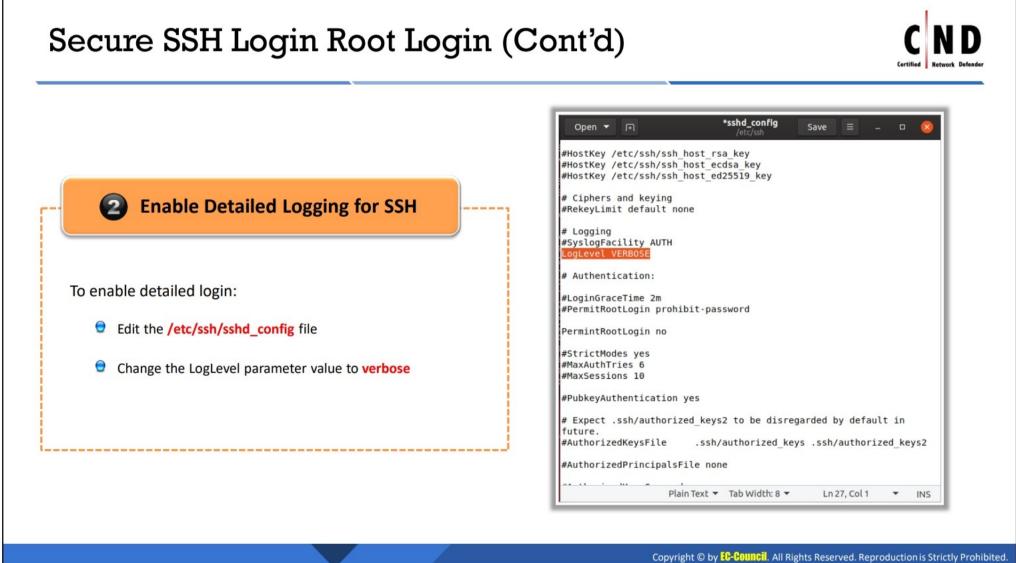
Note:

- When using X Forwarding through ssh, disabling IPv6 can break the system. To fix this, follow the steps listed below:
 - o Open the /etc/ssh/sshd config file.
 - o Change the #AddressFamily any to AddressFamily inet.

- o Save that file and restart sshd.
- When using postfix, you may encounter issues in starting the service. To fix this, follow the steps listed below:
 - Use an IPv4 loopback.
 - o Open the /etc/postfix/main.cf file.
 - Comment out the localhost line, and add the IPv4 loopback.

```
#inet_interfaces = localhost
inet_interfaces = 127.0.0.1
```





Secure SSH Login Root Login

By default, Linux systems permit remote access using the highly privileged root user account. Hackers can try to brute-force user password and access the system by using the enabled ssh root access. To protect against this, disable root login through SSH. Before doing that, create a separate user account (use adduser command) for regular use of the system and ensure that

the new account is included in sudoers, allowing it to execute commands just as the super user (root account) when using the sudo command.

Steps to disable SSH root login are listed below:

- Open the main ssh configuration file /etc/ssh/sshd config.
 - # gedit /etc/ssh/sshd config
- Search for the line in the file #PermitRootLogin no
- Remove the '#' from the beginning of the line.

PermitRootLogin no



Figure 6.69: Disabling SSH root login

- Restart the SSH daemon service by using one of the below commands.
 - # /etc/init.d/sshd restart
 - # systemctl restart sshd
 - # service sshd restart
- Try to login with the root user. "Permission Denied" error will be shown.

Secure SSH configuration settings in /etc/ssh/sshd config:

- o PermitRootLogin no
- o AllowUsers [username]
- o IgnoreRhosts yes
- o HostbasedAuthentication no
- o PermitEmptyPasswords no
- o X11Forwarding no
- o MaxAuthTries 5
- o Ciphers aes128-ctr, aes192-ctr, aes256-ctr
- o UsePAM yes

- o ClientAliveInterval 900
- o ClientAliveCountMax 0
- Save the file and Exit.

Steps to Enable Detailed Logging for SSH

- Edit the /etc/ssh/sshd_config file
- Change the LogLevel parameter value to verbose

Setup Chroot SFTP



- By default, SFTP logged in users can browse other user's directories like SCP, SSH etc.
- You should create a **chroot directory** to avoid access to their SFTP home directory:
 - To create a chroot directory, execute sudo mkdir /sftp/(name) command and to give root user rights to it, Use sudo chown root:root /sftp/ command
 - Create sftponly group by executing sudo groupadd sftponly command and add users using sudo useradd -g sftponly -d /(name) -s /sbin/nologin (new user)
 - Create a password for that account sudo passwd (user)
 - Execute the following commands to restrict the rights to access the home directory sudo chown senthil:sftponly /sftp/ostechnix sudo chmod 700 /sftp/ostechnix/
 - Edit /etc/ssh/sshd_config file by commenting out the following line by adding hash (#) in front of it:

#Subsystem sftp /usr/lib/openssh/sftp-server

Add Subsystem sftp internal-sftp, Match group sftponly, ChrootDirectory, /sftp/ X11Forwarding no, AllowTcpForwarding no, ForceCommand internal-sftp at the end of the file

Copyright © by **EC-Council**. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited

Setup Chroot SFTP

SFTP (SSH File Transfer Protocol or Secure File Transfer Protocol) provides file access, file transfer, and file management feature over any reliable data stream. By default, the users that can log in to the system through SSH, SFTP, and SCP can browse the entire file system, including the other user's directories. Configuring SFTP in the chroot environment can limit the users to access their home directory and adds an extra layer of security especially on systems with multiple users.

Steps to setup SFTP chroot jail environment that work for any modern Linux distribution are listed below:

- Create chrooted directory using the command \$ sudo mkdir /sftp.
 - o Apply root privileges to the created directory using the command \$ sudo chown root:root /sftp/.
 - O Create separate directories for each user under the created directory. For example, /sftp/user1, /sftp/user2, /sftp/user3, etc.
 - \$ sudo mkdir /sftp/ostechnix
 - Users can save their data in this directory (\$HOME directory) but cannot go beyond this directory.
- Create sftp group sftponly.

\$sudo groupadd sftponly

O Create SFTP users to access the sftponly chrooted directory and assign them to the group sftponly, setup their home directory as /sftp/ostechnix and the default shell as /sbin/nologin.

- \$ sudo useradd -g sftponly -d /ostechnix -s /sbin/nologin Alex
- o Set a password for the new user using the \$ sudo passwd Alex command.
- Assign required permissions to the SFTP users to access their HOME directory chrooted directory
 - \$ sudo chown alex:sftponly /sftp/ostechnix
 \$ sudo chmod 700 /sftp/ostechnix/
 - Other SFTP users cannot access this directory. Assign required permissions to all the other SFTP users.
- Configure Chrooted SFTP.
 - o Edit /etc/ssh/sshd config file:

```
$ sudo vi /etc/ssh/sshd config
```

Find and comment out the following lines (i.e., add # in-front of them).

```
#Subsystem sftp /usr/libexec/openssh/sftp-server
```

o In Ubuntu 19.04, find and comment the following line:

```
#Subsystem sftp /usr/lib/openssh/sftp-server
```

Add the following lines at the end of the file:

```
Subsystem sftp internal-sftp

Match group sftponly

ChrootDirectory /sftp/

X11Forwarding no

AllowTcpForwarding no

ForceCommand internal-sftp
```

- Save and exit the file.
- Restart the ssh service to update the changes.

```
$ sudo systemctl restart sshd
```

 Try to SSH to this system from any other system on the network using the sftp user (i.e., Alex in our case).

```
$ ssh alex@192.168.55.1
```

The reply will be the following error message.

```
alex@192.168.55.1's password:
This service allows sftp connections only.
Connection to 192.168.55.1 closed.
```

Here, 192.168.43.2 is the remote system's IP address where the SFTP is configured. You can only access the remote system using sftp.

```
$ sftp alex@192.168.55.1
alex@192.168.55.1's password:
Connected to 192.168.55.1.
sftp>
```

- o Add Subsystem sftp internal-sftp, Match group sftponly, ChrootDirectory, /sftp/ X11Forwarding no, AllowTcpForwarding no, ForceCommand internal-sftp at the end of the file.
- Testing the Configuration.
 - o Log in to the remote machine via SFTP using the credentials of the chrooted user.
 - Open an SFTP connection using the sftp command followed by the remote server username and the server IP address or domain name:

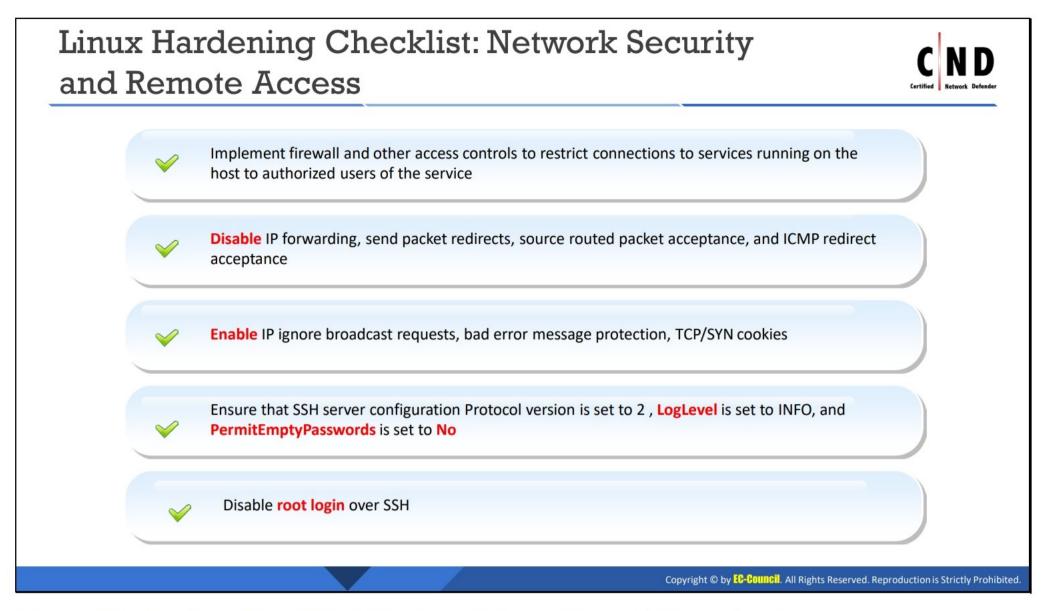
```
Sftp alex@192.168.55.1
```

o Enter the password and remote server will show a confirmation message and the sftp> prompt:

```
alex@192.168.55.1's password:
sftp>
```

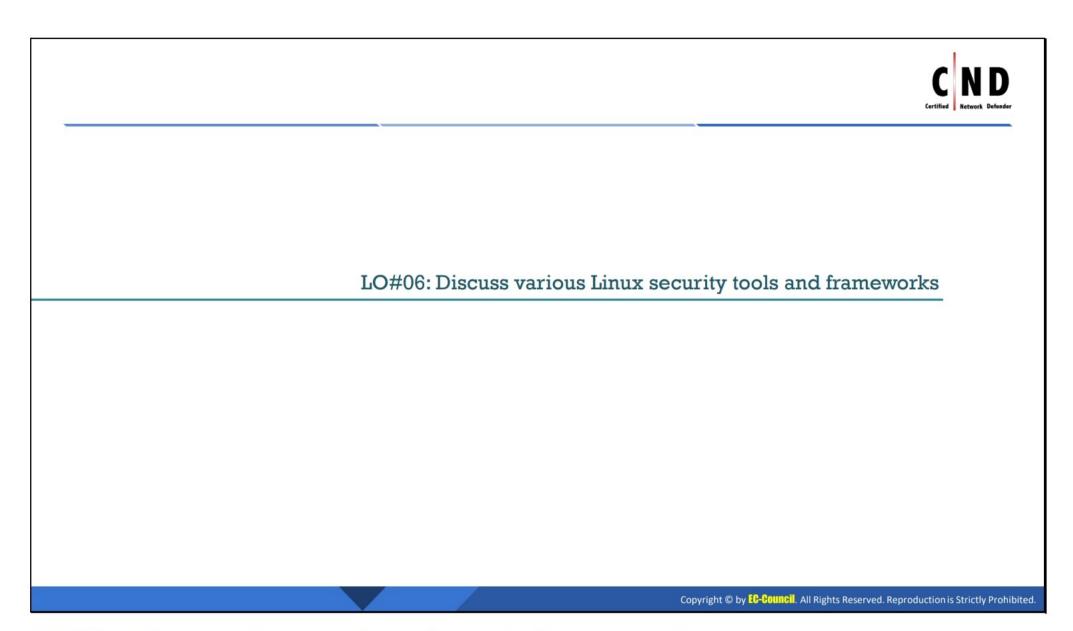
o Run the pwd command to know everything is working fine (it will return '/').

```
sftp> pwd
Remote working directory: /
```



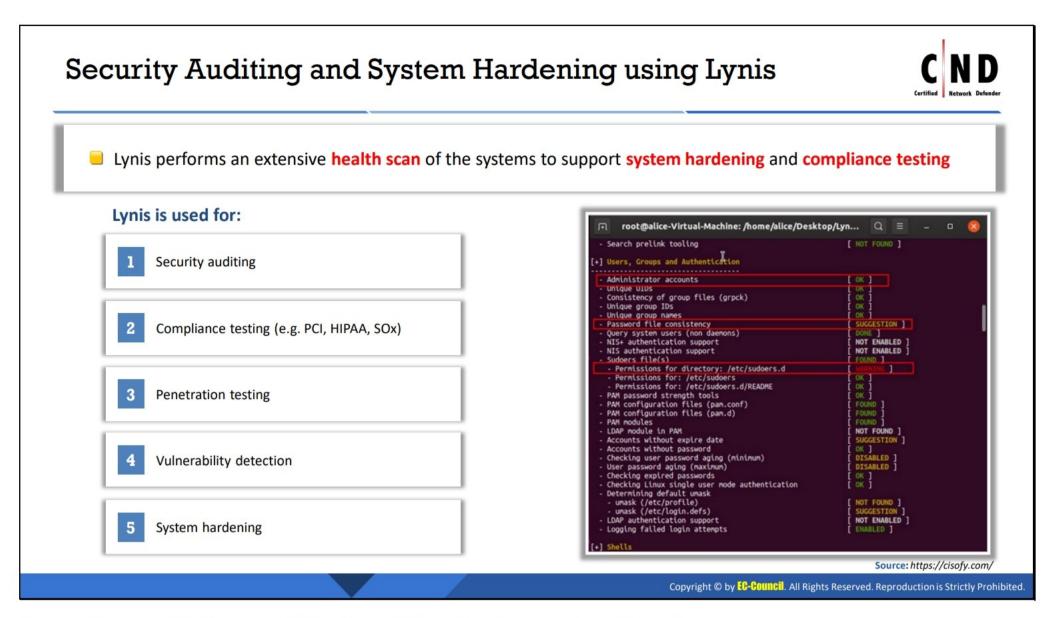
Linux Hardening Checklist: Network Security and Remote Access

- Restrict connections to the services running on the host to authorized users of the service using firewalls (for example, iptables) and other access control techniques.
- Set the following kernel parameters in /etc/sysctl.conf:
 - Disable: IP forwarding, send packet redirects, source-routed packet acceptance, and ICMP redirect acceptance.
 - Enable: Ignore broadcast requests, bad error message protection, and TCP/SYN cookies.
- Ensure whether SSH server configuration is set by default (Protocol version=2, LogLevel=INFO, and PermitEmptyPasswords=No) as setting them to other values impacts the SSH server's security.
- Disable root login over SSH. Instead, the users should authenticate with their account and use su or sudo command when required.
- Deploy an intrusion prevention system (IPS) to block remote systems generating authentication failures and to combat brute-force password attempts.



LO#06: Discuss Various Linux Security Tools and Frameworks

The objective of this section is to help you understand the various Linux security tools and frameworks.



Security Auditing and System Hardening using Lynis

Lynis

Source: www.cisofy.com

A reliable and effective open-source (GPL license) security tool, Lynis can perform an extensive health scan of systems to support system hardening and compliance testing.

Lynis' scanning is modular and opportunistic in which it only uses and tests the components (system tools and its libraries) that it can find, requiring no installation of other tools. Therefore, it can keep the system clean.

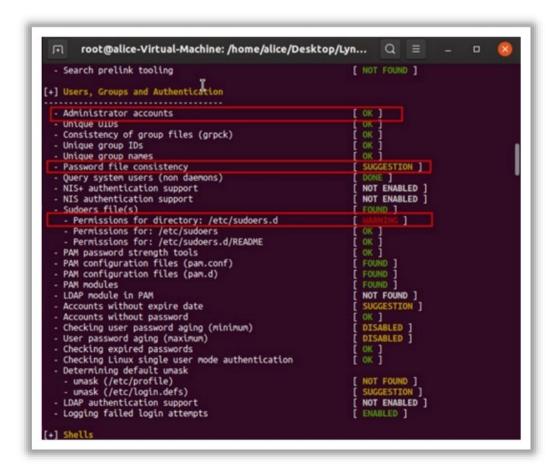
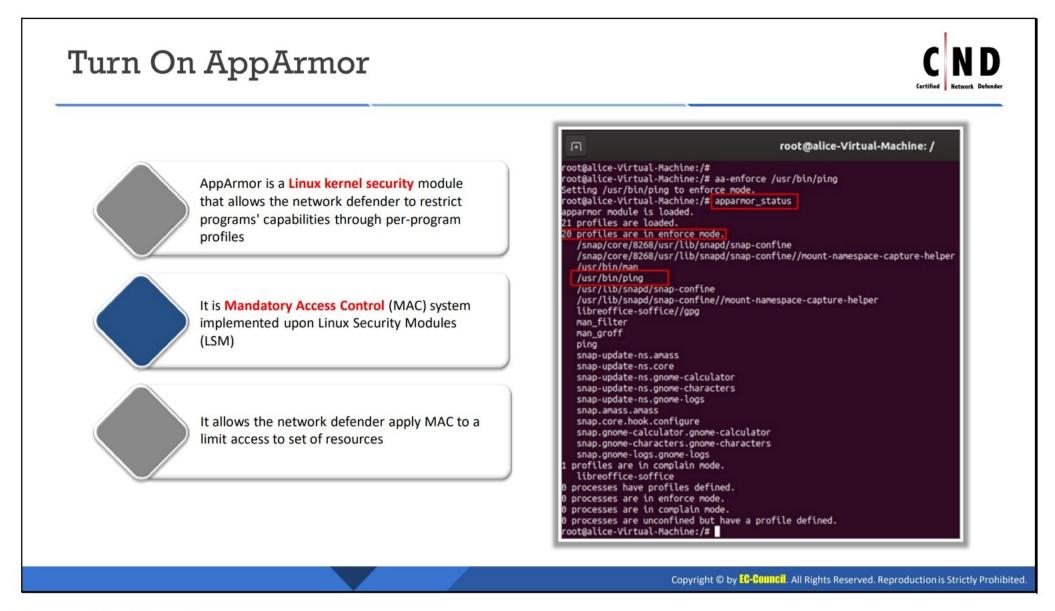


Figure 6.70: Security scan with Lynis



Turn On AppArmor

AppArmor is a mandatory access control (MAC) system that is considered to be an enhancement to the Linux Security Modules (LSM) kernel. It is utilized by the network defender to restrict programs to a limited set of resources. AppArmor provides fine-grained permission and safeguards the OS and applications against internal and external threats.

If there is any security threat in the Linux kernel, AppArmor prevents access to the vulnerable critical paths. There are various default security policies in AppArmor. The security policies of AppArmor regulate application access to the system resources.

AppArmor uses the profiles of applications, which are the text files located in /etc/apparmor.d/. Few packages installed their profiles and the rest of the profiles are found in apparmor-profiles package.

The user can install apparmor-profiles package using the following command:

```
sudo apt install apparmor-profiles
```

If AppArmor security module is not enabled, then the user can enable it by executing the following command:

```
security=apparmor
```

Turn On Security-Enhanced Linux (SELinux) SELinux (security-enhanced Linux) is a kernel level MAC (Mandatory Access Control) implementation for de from config file: from config file: mode1 ~]# cat /etc/se sestatus.conf It uses the LSM framework to implement MAC sestatus.conf restorecond user.conf semanage.conf Protects against damages caused by unknown or unpatched exploits file controls the state of SELinux on the system enforcing - SELinux security policy is enforced. permissive - SELinux prints warnings instead of enforcing. disabled - No SELinux policy is loaded. Enables fine-grained access control in the system INVA=enforcing SELINUXTYPE= can take one of these two values: targeted - Targeted processes are protected, nls - Multi Level Security protection. INUXTYPE=targeted Allows implementation of a customized level of security root@node1 ~]# Copyright © by EG-GOUNCII. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited.

Turn On Security-Enhanced Linux (SELinux)

The open-source application SELinux (security-enhanced Linux) is a MAC module that resides at the kernel level in Linux systems. It decides which process can access which files, directories, and ports; it provides an additional layer of system security.

SELinux uses Linux Security Modules (LSM), which is a framework of components used to implement MAC modules without requiring any change in the kernel source code.

SELinux security policy is implemented using the following:

- Type enforcement (TE), which assigns every object a type on the system. The network defender then defines policies. These policies state what access is allowed between pairs of types. TE allows applying fine-grained permissions on files and processes.
- RBAC (role-based access controls), which applies a specific set of roles to the user to allow or restrict specific actions to control system activity. The network defender can allow the user some of the access priveledges of the root account using RBAC (without granting full control of the system). For example, the network defender can allow access to a server for interacting with web application—related activity without allowing full root access.
- Multi-level security (MLS), which allows users to share classified information at different security clearance levels. MLS is helpful for governments that possess classified information.

Steps for using SELinux on Linux Distribution are listed below:

 Ubuntu already contains "AppArmor." Disable it before installing SELinux to avoid unnecessary conflicts using the following commands.

sudo /etc/init.d/apparmor stop

apt-get update && upgrade -yuf

- Enter the command apt-get install selinux in the terminal.
- Open the configuration file using the following command after finishing the installation of SELinux.

nano /etc/selinux/config

- SELinux provides two global level management rules/modes that help apply policies as per the need of the network defender:
 - o Permissive logs the violated rules.
 - o Enforcing denies access to a particular request sent by a process.

Here, set parameter values as permissive and default.

```
SELINUX=permissive
SELINUXTYPE=default
```

```
# This file controls the state of SELinux on the system.

# SELINUX= can take one of these three values:

# enforcing - SELinux security policy is enforced.

# permissive - SELinux prints warnings instead of enforcing.

# disabled - No SELinux policy is loaded.

SELINUX=permissive

# SELINUXTYPE= can take one of these two values:

# default - equivalent to the old strict and targeted policies

# mls - Multi-Level Security (for military and educational use)

# src - Custom policy built from source

SELINUXTYPE=default

# SETLOCALDEFS= Check local definition changes

SETLOCALDEFS=0
```

Figure 6.71: Setting parameter values as permissive and default

- Save and close the file.
- Reboot the system.

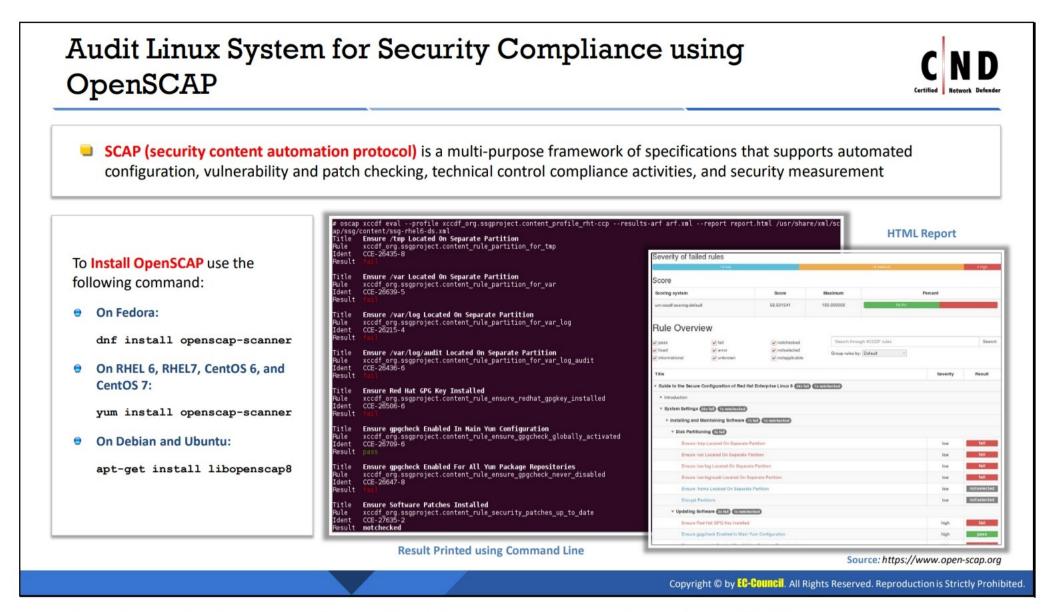
Note: If SELinux is not properly configured before rebooting the system, it will make the entire OS unbootable.

 Once the system starts, enter the command sestatus to check the status of the running status of SELinux.

```
root@_____, ___, __t# sestatus
                                enabled
SELinux status:
SELinuxfs mount:
                                /sys/fs/selinux
SELinux root directory:
                                /etc/selinux
Loaded policy name:
                                default
Current mode:
                                permissive
Mode from config file:
                                permissive
Policy MLS status:
                                enabled
Policy deny_unknown status:
                                allowed
Max kernel policy version:
                                30
```

Figure 6.72: sestatus command

This command shows basic details of SELinux. The default mode, enforcing, blocks all the requests. However, for the convenience of a normal user, it is set to the permissive mode, which allows the request but logs any violated rule set by the administrator. The logs can be checked in the audit.log file located in /var/log/audit.



Audit Linux System for Security Compliance using OpenSCAP OpenSCAP

Source: https://www.open-scap.org

SCAP (security content automation protocol), pronounced "S Cap or SCAP," is a standard security specification maintained by National Institute of Standard and Technology (NIST). It can handle multiple security issues on the host machine. SCAP supports various activities for host safety such as patch checking, vulnerability checking, technical control and compliance activities, and security measurement. NIST recommends SCAP for security automation and policy compliance activities.

The OpenSCAP project provides a useful set of open-source tools for implementing SCAP.

SCAP is a suite of selected open standards, which performs the following functions:

- Lists flaws in software, configuration issues in security, and product names.
- Measures systems to decide the existence of the vulnerability.
- Provides ranking the results of the measurements to evaluate the impact of the discovered security issues.

SCAP Components

SCAP standard family comprises of multiple component standards. The components are designed to work together toward a common goal. For each component the standard defines a document format with syntax and semantics of the internal data structures. All the component standards are based on extensible markup language (XML) and each component standard defines its own

XML namespace. Different versions of the same component standard (language) may also be distinguished by different XML namespaces.

SCAP standard consists of these components:

- Common Vulnerabilities and Exposures (CVE)
- Common Configuration Enumeration (CCE) (prior website at Mitre)
- Common Platform Enumeration (CPE)
- Common Vulnerability Scoring System (CVSS)
- Extensible Configuration Checklist Description Format (XCCDF)
- Open Vulnerability and Assessment Language (OVAL)
- Open Checklist Interactive Language (OCIL) Version 2.0
- Asset Identification (AID)
- Asset Reporting Format (ARF)
- Common Configuration Scoring System (CCSS)
- Trust Model for Security Automation Data (TMSAD)

Audit Linux System for Security Compliance with OpenSCAP

OpenSCAP helps to implement SCAP and supports features for implementing security policies. It is a standardized compliance checking solution and a line of specifications maintained by NIST for maintaining system security.

Advantages

- Provides automatic vulnerability checking
- Customizes polices
- Allows easy implementation
- Prevents attacks on the host

Key Features

- Security compliance ensures that the applied security policy is in line with the system.
- Vulnerability assessment allows classification of vulnerabilities and scans the system.
 OpenSCAP defines what new vulnerabilities exist.

OpenSCAP Tools

- OpenSCAP Base: This command-line tool allows different SCAP capabilities such as:
 - Showing information about specific security contents
 - Vulnerability and configuration scanning
 - Converting between different SCAP formats

- OpenSCAP Daemon
- SCAP Workbench: The GUI SCAP Workbench allows user to tailor SCAP content easily, perform local or remote scans, and export results.
- SCAPTimony
- OSCAP Anaconda add-on

To use OpenSCAP in Ubuntu, follow the steps outlined below:

- Enter the following command sudo apt-get install libopenscap8 in the terminal.
- Enter the following command to get the OVAL file.

wget https://people.canonical.com/~ubuntusecurity/oval/com.ubuntu.xenial.cve.oval.xml

Run OpenSCAP using the following command.

oscap oval eval --results /tmp/results-xenial.xml --report /tmp/report-xenial.html com.ubuntu.xenial.cve.oval.xml

See the results by accessing Firefox /tmp/report-xenial.html.

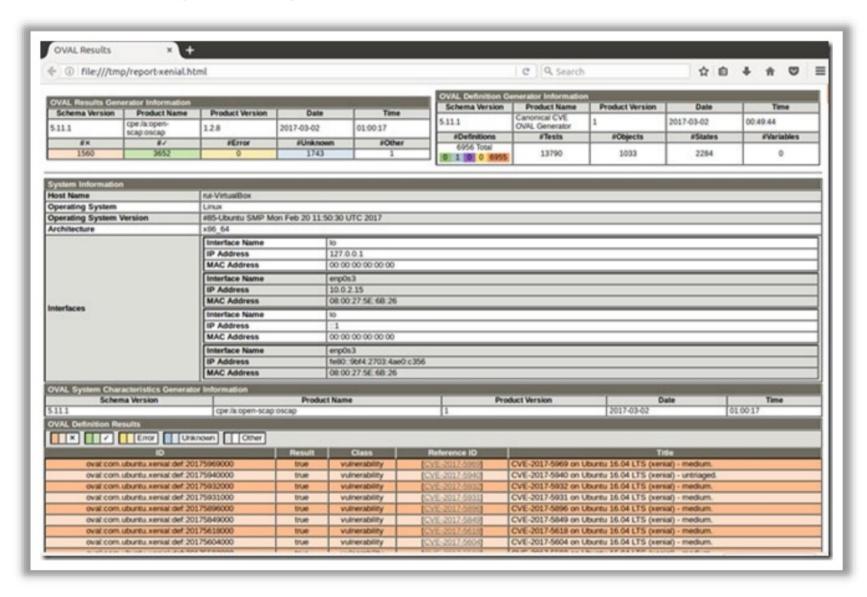


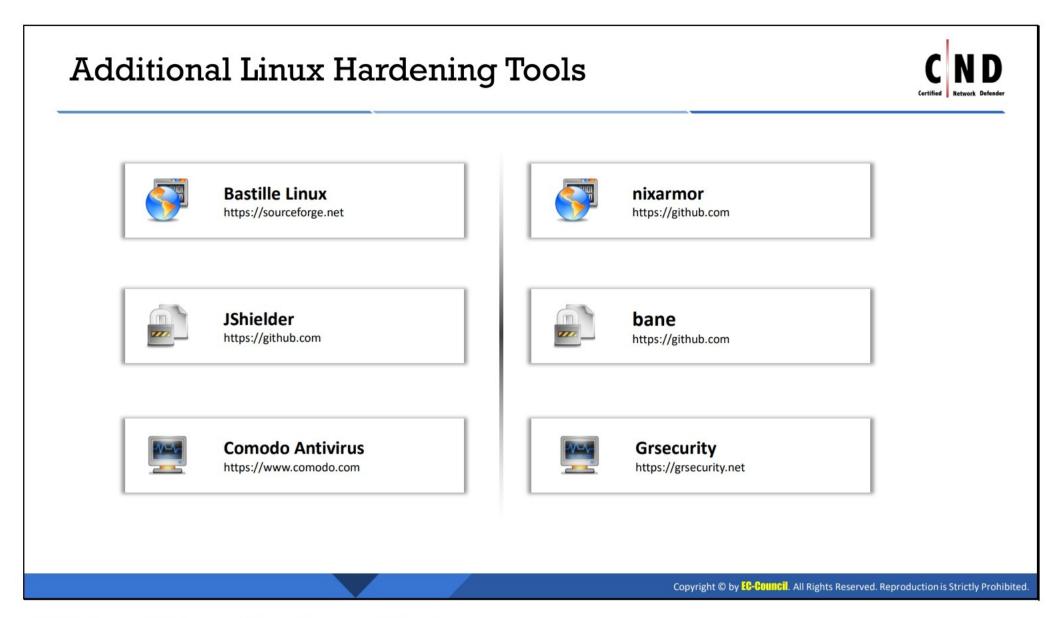
Figure 6.73: OpenSCAP

To install OpenSCAP on Fedora, execute the following command:

Dnf install openscap-scanner

To install OpenSCAP on RHEL 6, RHEL 7, CentOS 6, and CentOS 7, use the following command:

Yum install openscap-scanner



Additional Linux Hardening Tools

Bastille Linux

Source: www.sourceforge.net

Bastille Linux hardens a Linux OS—based system through its default hardening mode. It builds a policy- based on the interaction with the user and applies the policy to the system. During assessment, it builds a report to explain the user about the security settings and let the user know which settings are tightened.

JShielder

Source: www.github.com

JShielder automates the process of installing the required packages to harden a Linux server after interaction with the user.

nixarmor

Source: www.github.com

This Linux project allows security professionals and network defenders to automate system hardening.

bane

Source: www.github.com

Bane is an AppArmor profile generator for docker containers. It protects applications by setting restrictions on the resources they access or modify. It is used for security monitoring, system hardening, and application security.

Grsecuity

Source: www.grsecurity.net

An extensive security enhancement to the Linux kernel, Grsecurity can defend against security threats using its intelligent access control, memory corruption-based exploit prevention, and a host of another system hardening that generally requires no configuration.

Module Summary



- Linux is an open-source OS widely used across enterprises and government bodies
- Linux security is becoming a concern as hackers have exploited many of its vulnerabilities in the recent past
- The use of latest version for installing the OS help you prevent from many attacks
- Removing or disabling unnecessary services and software packages helps you reduce the attack surface
- Appropriate user access permission and strong password management policies discourages any unauthorized access

Copyright © by EG-COUNCIL. All Rights Reserved. Reproduction is Strictly Prohibited

Module Summary

This module described various security features of Linux that should be implemented to secure a Linux system. The key highlighted points in this module are listed below:

- Linux is an open-source operating system widely used across enterprises and government bodies.
- Linux security is becoming a concern as hackers have been exploited its vulnerabilities in the recent past.
- The use of latest version for installing the OS helps prevent many types of attacks.
- Removing or disabling unnecessary services and software packages helps reduce the attack surface.
- Appropriate user access permission and strong password management policies discourages any unauthorized access.
- AppArmor is a Linux kernel security module that allows the network defenders to restrict programs' capabilities through per-program profiles.
- SELinux (security-enhanced Linux) is a kernel-level MAC implementation for Linux.