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Hunting for Persistence in Linux (Part 2): Account Creation and Manipulation

Nov 23, 2021 • Pepe Berba ☑ in 😱 🛚 🔊



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Introduction

In the previous blog post, we've discussed how to setup auditd and sysmon so that we can start hunting for persistence techniques in linux hosts. Specifically, we discussed some ways we can detect the creation and the use of web shells in a web server.

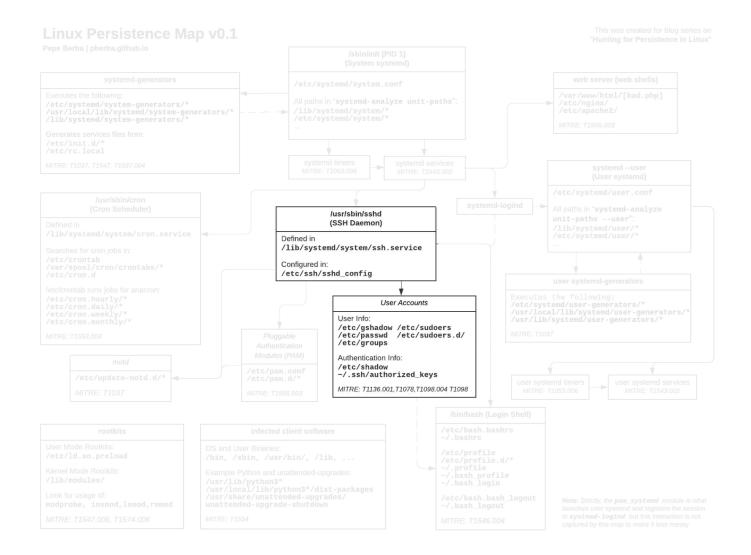
In this blog post, we will discuss the following:

- Create Account: Local Account
- Valid Accounts: Local Accounts
- Account Manipulation: SSH Authorized Keys

We will give some example commands on how to implement these persistence techinques and some alerts you can use to detect these.

If you need help how to setup auditd, sysmon and/or auditbeats, you can try following the instructions in the appendix in part 1.

Here is a diagram of the things we will cover in this blog post:



Links to the full version [image] [pdf]

This is part 2 of a series on persistence in linux:

- Hunting for Persistence in Linux (Part 1): Auditing, Logging and Webshells
 - 1 Server Software Component: Web Shell
- Hunting for Persistence in Linux (Part 2): Account Creation and Manipulation
 - 2 Create Account: Local Account
 - 3 Valid Accounts: Local Accounts
 - 4 Account Manipulation: SSH Authorized Keys
- Hunting for Persistence in Linux (Part 3): Systemd, Timers, and Cron
 - o 5 Create or Modify System Process: Systemd Service
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- Hunting for Persistence in Linux (Part 4): Initialization Scripts and Shell Configuration
 - 8 Boot or Logon Initialization Scripts: RC Scripts
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 - Hijack Execution Flow: Dynamic Linker Hijacking

2 Create Account: Local Account

2.1 Creating account to maintain persistence

MITRE: https://attack.mitre.org/techniques/T1136/001/

Adversaries may create a local account to maintain access to victim systems without any need for additional tools. Rather than configure a backdoor web shell, let's just create a user!

We run the following commands

```
sudo adduser --shell /bin/bash --home /var/www/ nginx
sudo usermod -aG sudo nginx
```

This creates a user named nginx and add this to the sudo group. (Maybe this will trick a junior analyst who might think nginx is a legitimate user of the nginx service)

We can set a password for this or if you want to have public key ssh then you might do additional actions.

```
mkdir /var/www/.ssh
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " > /var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
```

With that, we can now use | nginx@<pwned_host> | to gain root access to the host.

Often, when you create a local account, you would have to give the account additional permissions for it to be useful. That is why you will see that our detection includes both account creation and modification.

2.2 Detection: User add in auditbeat's system module

Using the default config auditheat, we can see that the event.module: system logs process_started events. One of those we would be able to see

But on top of that, we are also able to see the following event.action:

- user_added: Adding user to passwd and shadow
- password_changed : Setting user's password
- user_changes: Adding user to sudo group

```
        Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:18.606
        password_changed
        system
        Password changed for user nginx (UID: 1002, Groups: nginx)

        Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:16 ⊕ process_started
        system
        Process chfn (PID: 13587) by user root STARTED

        Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:08.606
        user_added
        system

        New user nginx (UID: 1002, Groups: nginx)

        Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:06.835
        process_started
        system

        Process adduser (PID: 13573) by user root STARTED
```

2.3 Detection: Changes in /etc/shadow, /etc/passwd, and /etc/group

Behind the scenes, commands such as passwd and adduser modify the followings files:

- /etc/gshadow
- /etc/shadow
- /etc/passwd
- /etc/group

Modifications to these files can create valid users even without running the adduser command.

190 hits			
/ 1107 20, 2021 0 00.77.10.000	oreacea	rate_ancegracy	/ c cc/ passina . zock
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:18.058	deleted	file_integrity	/etc/passwd.13587
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:18.058	updated, attributes_modified	file_integrity	/etc/passwd-
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.687	updated, attributes_modified	file_integrity	/etc/shadow
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.685	moved	file_integrity	/etc/nshadow
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.682	updated, attributes_modified	file_integrity	/etc/nshadow
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.681	attributes_modified	file_integrity	/etc/nshadow
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.681	attributes_modified	file_integrity	/etc/nshadow
> Nov 23, 2021 @ 00:47:14.680	created	file_integrity	/etc/nshadow

You might notice the creation of /etc/nshadow, /etc/passwd.lock/ and other files. These are byproducts of passwd and usermod command.

Monitoring modifications of these critical files can help detect these kinds of persistence techniques.

2.4 Detection: Using auditd to detect user creation

If we want to natively find these in auditd, we can use the following rules:

```
-w /etc/group -p wa -k etcgroup
-w /etc/passwd -p wa -k etcpasswd
-w /etc/gshadow -k etcgroup
-w /etc/shadow -k etcpasswd
-w /usr/sbin/useradd -p x -k user_modification
-w /usr/sbin/adduser -p x -k user_modification
-w /usr/bin/passwd -p x -k passwd_modification
```

And if we want to add auxilarly actions like adding the user to groups, etc:

```
-w /etc/sudoers -p rw -k priv_esc
-w /etc/sudoers.d -p rw -k priv_esc
-w /usr/sbin/usermod -p x -k user_modification
-w /usr/sbin/userdel -p x -k user_modification
-w /usr/sbin/groupadd -p x -k group_modification
```

```
-w /usr/sbin/groupmod -p x -k group_modification
-w /usr/sbin/addgroup -p x -k group_modification
```

This will look for:

- Any read/write of the sudoers dir
- Any write or update of the /etc/group or /etc/passwd
- Any action on /etc/gshadow and /etc/shadow
- If specific commands like useradd and usermod are executed

Here is a raw auditd log for etcpasswd

type=SYSCALL msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): arch=c000003e syscall=82 success=yes exit=0 a0=7ffeb8ffa160 a1=564262d92020 a2=7ffeb8ffa0d0 a3=2 items=5 ppid=13573 pid=13578 auid=1000 uid=0 gid=0 euid=0 suid=0 fsuid=0 egid=0 sgid=0 fsgid=0 tty=pts0 ses=19 comm="useradd" exe="/usr/sbin/useradd" subj=unconfined key="etcpasswd", type=PATH msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): item=0 name="/etc/" inode=131075 dev=08:01 mode=040755 ouid=0 ogid=0 rdev=00:00 nametype=PARENT cap_fp=0000000000000000 cap_fi=000000000000000000 cap_fe=0 cap_fver=0, type=PATH msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): item=1 <u>name="/etc/"</u> inode=131075 dev=08:01 cap_fi=0000000000000000 cap_fe=0 cap_fver=0, type=PATH msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): item=2 name="/etc/shadow+" inode=131557 dev=08:01 mode=0100640 ouid=0 ogid=42 rdev=00:00 nametype=DELETE cap_fp=0000000000000000 cap_fi=000000000000000000 cap_fe=0 cap_fver=0, type=PATH msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): item=3 name="/etc/shadow" inode=144749 dev=08:01 mode=0100640 ouid=0 ogid=42 rdev=00:00 nametype=DELETE cap_fp=000000000000000 cap_fi=00000000000000000 cap_fe=0 cap_fver=0, type=PATH msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): item=4 name="/etc/shadow" inode=131557 dev=08:01 mode=0100640 ouid=0 ogid=42 rdev=00:00 nametype=CREATE cap_fp=0000000000000000 cap_fi=0000000000000000 cap_fe=0 cap_fver=0, type=PROCTITLE msg=audit(1637599618.765:11426): proctitle=2F7362696E2F75736572616464002D64002F7661722F7777772F002D67006E67696E780

From here we can see the following:

- comm="useradd" exe="/usr/sbin/useradd" executable being run
- name="/etc/shadow" file being modified
- key="etcpasswd" tag or key from the auditd rule

• proctitle=2F7362 ... which is the hex encoded title of the process which decods into /sbin/useradd -d /var/www/ -g nginx -s /bin/bash -u 1002 nginx

2.4.1 Note on UID of users

If we look at /etc/passwd we will see this newly created user | nginx | will have a large UID | 100X

```
messagebus:x:104:105::/nonexistent:/usr/sbin/nologin
sshd:x:105:65534::/run/sshd:/usr/sbin/nologin
_chrony:x:106:112:Chrony daemon,,,:/var/lib/chrony:/usr/sbin/nologin
systemd-coredump:x:999:999:systemd Core Dumper:/:/usr/sbin/nologin
user:x:1000:1001::/home/user:/bin/bash
nginx:x:1002:1003:,,,:/var/www/:/bin/bash
```

Although it is true that Linux systems will assign high UIDs to new users, this is only by convention and an attacker can easily modify this so that newly created accounts can appear as system accounts because they have low UIDs.

2.5 Detection: Using sysmon to detect user creation

We have to potential rules available in MSTIC's config:

- T1136.001 CreateLocalAccount Commands.xml
- T1087.001 LocalAccount Commands.xml

This will:

- Look for any command that has /etc/passwd in it. This might catch commands that read or write to /etc/passwd
- Look for any commands that us useradd or adduser

This is a good starting point, however, note that we have already discussed that an attacker can effectively create a user without using useradd/adduser.

Also notice, that the T1087.001 only looks for commands that contain the string /etc/passwd. If we can modify /etc/passwd without directly referencing it in the command, then we can bypass that alert as well.

For example, we go do the following commands as root.

```
echo "nginx:x:0:0::/home/nginx:/bin/bash" >> /etc//passwd
passwd nginx
```

This will allow us to create a root user and set it's password without triggering the 2 alerts above. We didn't need to use useradd and we were able to reference /etc//passwd and this will not trigger the check for the string /etc/passwd because of the extra / we've put.

What we want is something similar

```
-w /etc/passwd -p wa -k etcpasswd
```

Because there are many ways to modify /etc/passwd , /etc/shadow/ , etc directly and indirectly, we should have an extra rule to detect any changes to these files. As far as I know, the closest thing we have in sysmon for this is.

Unfortunately, Sysmon Event ID 11, FileCreate is only triggered when a file is created or overwritten. At the time of writing this blog post, if a file is modified in place, then no event is not triggered.

The rules above will be able to detect modifications done by

```
vi /etc/passwd
useradd
```

(This is mainly because of temporary files that these commands make such as /etc/shadow+ but not modifications of /etc/shadow directly)

But not triggered by the following

```
echo "<TEXT>" >> /etc/passwd
sed -i 's/BEFORE/AFTER/g' /etc/passwd
```

Worse, even if we are explicitly trying to watch at /etc/shadow, the rule above doesn't seem to be triggered by the simple

```
passwd user
```

This shows that as it is, sysmon will not be completely reliable for file integrity monitoring. In the next blog post, we will show how rules such as T1543.002_CreateModSystemProcess_Systemd.xml might fail to detect installation of systemd services

I would also expand alerting to other user and group modification commands, similar to auditd

```
</Rule>
</ProcessCreate>
</RuleGroup>
```

3 Valid Accounts Manipulation: Local Accounts

MITRE: https://attack.mitre.org/techniques/T1098/ and https://attack.mitre.org/techniques/T1078/

3.1 Abusing Legitimate Accounts

3.1.1 Modfying existing accounts

Adversaries may obtain credentials or modify the configuration of existing accounts to maintain persistence. Because these accounts have legitimate purpose, the defenders might have them whitelisted in their alerts or be cautious in doing any significant remediation if they are not familiar with the baseline configuration of the accounts.

In this example, we'll add a backdoor to the www-data account. We add a password and let wwww-data be a sudo-er

```
sudo passwd www-data
sudo usermod -aG sudo www-data
```

We modify /etc/passwd to allow us to SSH as www-data from

```
www-data:x:33:33:www-data:/var/www:/usr/sbin/nologin
```

to

```
www-data:x:33:33:www-data:/var/www:/bin/bash
```

In some server configurations, password authentications might be disabled. We might need to modify /etc/ssh/sshd_config to enable passwords.

```
PasswordAuthentication yes
```

And restart service.

```
sudo service ssh restart
```

This will now allow an attacker to SSH as www-data and run as sudo.

3.2.2 Other ways of abusing local accounts

Sometimes an attacker might not even need to manipulate an account. Maybe he can just:

- Dump /etc/shadow and crack hashes
- Get private keys in a users .ssh folders
- Downloading CLI service account keys and tokens (GCP and AWS)
- Looking for hardcoded credentials in config files

These might provide more covert ways of maintaining persistence and these are less likely to be detected since they are legitimately used by users.

3.3 Detection: Similar as create account

Similar to creating an account, this might require us to modify files such as /etc/passwd and /etc/shadow so previous detection rules for account creation will also catch this.

Dumping of /etc/shadow will be detected by the auditd rules

```
-w /etc/shadow -k etcpasswd
```

For the change in sshd configuration, you can use the following auditd rules

```
## SSH configuration
-w /etc/ssh/sshd_config -k sshd
-w /etc/ssh/sshd_config.d -k sshd
```

3.4 Detection: Hunting for created or manipulated accounts with osquery

3.4.1 Looking for logged in users

You can query your fleet to found active sessions. There might be a persistence session there you don't know about.

Query

```
SELECT type, user, host
FROM logged_in_users
```

```
WHERE type = 'user';
```

Result

3.4.2 Look for account with active passwords

When you have secure images that disable password logins by default (like cloud VMs), then you should not see active passwords.

```
SELECT password_status, username, last_change
FROM shadow
WHERE password_status = 'active';
```

3.4.3 Look for accounts in special groups

Look for accounts with special permissions that can be used for privesc. Each user should be accounted for.

```
SELECT uid, username, groupname
FROM user_groups
JOIN users
USING(uid)
JOIN groups
ON user_groups.gid=groups.gid
WHERE
  (groupname = 'sudo'
```

3.4.4 Look for users that have shells set

It's possible to login as these users. If system accounts have /bin/bash set then this might be a backdoor.

```
SELECT uid, username, directory, shell
FROM users
WHERE shell ≠ "/usr/sbin/nologin";
```

```
uid
       username
                   directory
                                 shell
                                 /bin/bash
0
       root
                   /root
                                 /bin/sync
                  /bin
4
       sync
33
       www-data
                  /var/www
                                 /bin/bash
                   /home/user
1000
                                 /bin/bash
       user
                                 /bin/bash
1001
       legit
                   /home/legit
                   /var/www/
                                 /bin/bash
1002
       nginx
```

3.4.5 Look for commands related to account creation or manipulation

Similar to what we've been setting up in auditd and sysmon. In case the attacker did not clean up the bash history, then we might be able to find traces of bad activities.

This also includes checking for authorized_keys

```
SELECT uid, username, command
FROM users
JOIN shell_history
```

```
USING(uid)
WHERE regex match(command,
'useradd|adduser|passwd|usermod|groupmod|addgroup|groupadd|authorized_keys', 0)
IS NOT NULL;
                    command
  uid
       username
                    passwd www-data
  0
         root
                    vi /etc/passwd
  0
        root
                   cat /etc/passwd
  0
         root
                    echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> .ssh/authorized_keys
  0
         root
                   echo "ssh-ed25519 ... " >> authorized_keys
  1000
       luser
                    usermod -aG sudo legit
  1000 | user
                    sudo usermod -aG sudo legit
  1000
       luser
                    sudo vi authorized_keys
  1001
        legit
```

3.5 Manual Comands

3.5.1 lastlog

We can use the lastlog to see which users were loggedin recently

```
>> lastlog | grep -v Never
Username
                 Port
                          From
                                           Latest
                          1.2.3.4 Wed Nov 24 11:17:46 +0000 2021
www-data
                 pts/1
                 pts/0
                          1.2.3.4 Wed Nov 24 11:41:22 +0000 2021
user
                                    Sun Jul 11 16:18:58 +0000 2021
                 pts/1
                          1.2.3.4
legit
                          1.2.3.4 Mon Nov 22 16:59:47 +0000 2021
nginx
                 pts/1
```

3.5.2 /var/log/auth.log

Or we can look at recent authentication logs and see which users where used in SSH sessions.

```
>> cat /var/log/auth.log | grep sshd | grep -i Accepted
Nov 22 16:36:05 test-auditd sshd[13413]: Accepted publickey for user from
1.2.3.4 port 17629 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...
Nov 22 16:38:42 test-auditd sshd[13446]: Accepted publickey for user from
1.2.3.4 port 18131 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...
Nov 22 16:54:55 test-auditd sshd[13634]: Accepted publickey for nginx from
```

```
1.2.3.4 port 21020 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...

Nov 22 16:59:46 test-auditd sshd[13683]: Accepted publickey for nginx from 1.2.3.4 port 17676 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...

Nov 24 10:37:40 test-auditd sshd[11981]: Accepted publickey for user from 1.2.3.4 port 18970 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...

Nov 24 11:17:45 test-auditd sshd[15854]: Accepted password for www-data from 1.2.3.4 port 18669 ssh2

Nov 24 11:41:21 test-auditd sshd[16566]: Accepted publickey for user from 1.2.3.4 port 17873 ssh2: ED25519 SHA256:AA...
```

4 Account Manipulation: SSH Authorized Keys

MITRE: https://attack.mitre.org/techniques/T1098/004/

4.1 Adding SSH Authorized Keys

Adding SSH keys is one simple way that an attacker can maintain persistence. Moreover, the authorized_keys file is often abstracted by platforms such as GCP and AWS so engineers rarely interact with these files manually. So if you are able to insert an SSH key, then it will probably stay there for a long time.

The authorized_keys file can be placed in the <home>/.ssh/ directory of each user in the machine.

If we have the following users

```
root:x:0:0:root:/root:/bin/bash
user:x:1000:1001::/home/user:/bin/bash
nginx:x:0:0:,,,:/var/www/:/bin/bash
```

Then the we would want to add our SSH keys in:

- /var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
- /home/user/.ssh/authorized_key
- /root/.ssh/authorized_keys

Then we can run the following commands

```
# create .ssh directory if it does not exist
mkdir /var/www/.ssh
```

```
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> /var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> /home/user/.ssh/authorized_keys
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> /root/.ssh/authorized_keys
```

4.2 Some notes on SSH keys in authorized_keys

First, to make it a bit more confusing for the defenders, when adding an SSH key copy the usernames in the other SSH keys.

```
ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDI1NTg3f2vasdcascTcwuq8CVppeNDQv85MQ3fsdsa592q86W1 paul@LP-291221 ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDascacasbI1NTE5AAAAIB7q5ZK6GMNO6lTd90yutRohmGPugoCruTL paul@LP-291221
```

The "email address" in SSH keys are simply comments that can be changed to anything. This is much better than having kali in your backdoor SSH keys.

Next, you can add comments to the SSH keys such as

```
# DO NOT REMOVE ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDI1NTg3f2vasdcascTcwuq8CVppeNDQv85MQ3fsdsa592q86W1 security-team ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDascacasbI1NTE5AAAAIB7q5ZK6GMNO6lTd90yutRohmGPugoCruTL paul@LP-291221
```

This might be useful for environments such as Google Cloud Platform.

By default, SSH keys are set project wide and added to all instances in the project with the comment # Added by Google. These SSH keys are "managed" and should be automatically removed when the SSH key is deleted in the project. However, I've found that when we add a few whitespaces at the end, the SSH keys are not removed even if they are not found in the project-wide metadata server.

So we add our SSH key and add # Added by Google

```
# Added by Google
ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDI1NTg3f2vasdcascTcwuq8CVppeNDQv85MQ3fsdsa592q86W1
security-team
# Added by Google
ssh-ed25519 AAAAC3NzaC1lZDascacasbI1NTE5AAAAIB7q5ZK6GMNO6lTd90yutRohmGPugoCruTL
paul@LP-291221
```

This makes these SSH keys more likely to be overlooked by defenders.

4.3 Detection: File Integrity Monitoring

By default auditbeat does not monitor these files. You have to know the users of the machine beforehand to be able to monitor the ssh folder of each user

```
- module: file_integrity

paths:

- /bin

- /usr/bin

- /sbin

- /usr/sbin

- /etc

- /root # ← Add

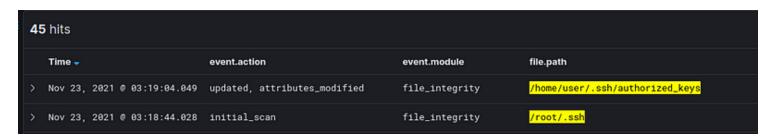
- /home/user/.ssh # ← Add

- module: system

datasets:

- package # Installed, updated, and removed packages
```

This allows us to detect changes to the authorized_keys of existing users. If additional users are added, these will be out of scope but they should hopefully be detected by the "create/modify user" detection rules we previously discussed.



4.4 Detection: Auditd

Similar to the FIM, we need to explicitly put the directory of each user to be able to monitor it.

```
-w /root/.ssh -p wa -k rootkey
-w /home/user/.ssh -p wa -k userkey
```

This looks for write or updates to those /home/user/.ssh/* and /root/.ssh/*

Here is an example output of the raw auditd log

4.5 Detection: Sysmon

If we run the command, and a authorized_keys file does not exist yet this will generate a log

```
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> /var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
```

However, if the authorized_keys file already exists then the rule will not be triggered.

Now an attacker can easily bypass this alert by creating the file output of the ssh folder and not named authorized_keys and renaming it to authorized_keys

```
echo "ssh-ed25519 AA ... " >> /tmp/keys
mv /tmp/keys /var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
```

There might be something wrong with how I define my rules sysmon rules in linux or it might be the version of sysmon installed in my test VM, but this really shows that sysmon is not viable for file integrity monitoring as it is.

This would also be problematic for other rules which I am referencing for this:

- T1543.002_CreateModSystemProcess_Systemd.xml
- T1053.003_Cron_Activity.xml
- T1037_BootLogonInitScripts_CommonDirectories.xml

4.6 Detection: OSQuery

Aside from the previous osquery queries, if you have a fleet then one way you can monitor authorized_keys is by getting snapshots of your fleet's authorized_keys

```
SELECT authorized_keys.*
FROM users
```

	t	+
username	key	key_file
root	ssh-ed25519	/root/.ssh/authorized_keys
root	ssh-ed25519	/root/.ssh/authorized_keys
www-data	ssh-ed25519	/var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
www-data	ssh-ed25519	/var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
user	ssh-ed25519	/home/user/.ssh/authorized_keys
legit	ssh-ed25519	/home/legit/.ssh/authorized_keys
nginx	ssh-ed25519	/var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys
nginx	ssh-ed25519	/var/www/.ssh/authorized_keys

And investigate the diffs. You can look public keys that are not registered in AWS or GCP. Look SSH keys that are uncommon in your fleet, etc.

Conclusions and What's next

We've seen how account creation and manipulation isn't just about looking for the useradd command.

We have to also include alerts for modifications of <code>/etc/passwd</code>, <code>/etc/shadow</code>, <code>/etc/gshadow</code> and <code>/etc/group</code>. We also want to look for modifications to <code>authorized_keys</code>. For these file integrity tasks, I'll stick to <code>auditd</code> and/or <code>auditbeats</code>.

I have yet to find sysmon rules that works well for these scenarios. SysmonForLinux might not be built for this... I'll ask around and update these blog posts when I get a solution for this.

In the next blog post we'll go through installed persistence using Systemd, Timers, and Cron.

Photo by Chris Barbalis on Unsplash



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