

# File-based Race Condition Attacks on Multiprocessors Are Practical Threat

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## Abstract

TOCTTOU (Time-of-Check-to-Time-of-Use) attacks exploit race conditions in file systems. Although TOCTTOU attacks have been known for 30 years, they have been considered “low risk” due to their typically low probability of success, which depends on fortuitous interleaving between the attacker and victim processes. For example, recent discovery of TOCTTOU vulnerability in *vi* showed a success rate in low single digit percentages for files smaller than 1MB size. In this paper, we show that in a multiprocessor the uncertainties due to scheduling are reduced, and the success probability of *vi* attack increases to almost 100% for files of 1 byte size. Similarly, another recently discovered vulnerability in *gedit*, which had almost zero probability of success, changes to 83% success rate on a multiprocessor. The main reason for the increased success rate to almost certainty is the speed up of attacker process when running on a dedicated processor. These case studies show the sharply increased risks represented by file-based race condition attacks such as TOCTTOU on the next generation multiprocessors, e.g., those with multi-core processors.

## Categories and Subject Descriptors

D.4.3: File Systems Management – *Access methods*; D.4.5: Reliability –*verification*; D.4.6: Security and Protection – *Access controls*.

## General Terms

Reliability, Experimentation, Security.

## Keywords

Race condition.

## 1 Introduction

Emerging multiprocessors such as SMP (Symmetric Multiprocessing) with multi-core processors expected to dominate the next generation PC and server markets. These multiprocessors offer significant performance and power consumption advantages, making them potentially more secure. For example, additional processors can be dedicated to computationally intensive deep packet inspection in IDS, IPS (Intrusion Detection and Prevention), and anti-virus scanners [16]. However, the use of the additional processing power by attackers to exploit known or new vulnerabilities has received less attention. This paper demonstrates that a concrete class of exploits (file-based race conditions called TOCTTOU) will see the success rate of attacks increase sharply from negligible to almost certainty.

TOCTTOU (Time-of-Check-to-Time-of-Use) is a security problem known for more than 30 years [1][2][3]. An illustrative example is *sendmail*, which used to check for a specific attribute of a mailbox file (e.g., it is not a symbolic link) before appending new messages. However, the checking and appending file system operations are not executed in an atomic transaction. Consequently, if an attacker (the mailbox owner) is able to replace his/her mailbox file with a symbolic link to */etc/passwd* between the checking and appending steps by *sendmail*, then *sendmail* may be tricked into appending emails to */etc/passwd* (assuming that *sendmail* runs as *setuid root*). If successful, an attack message containing a syntactically correct */etc/passwd* entry would give the attacker root access. TOCTTOU vulnerabilities are widespread and cause serious consequences [24].

The check and use file system calls in the victim process of a TOCTTOU vulnerability are called *TOCTTOU pairs* [24][25]. The time between the two file system calls of a TOCTTOU pair is the *window of vulnerability* of the TOCTTOU vulnerability. To succeed, an attacker process must complete the attack steps within the window of vulnerability of the victim process. The success rate of a TOCTTOU attack thus depends on the scheduling events surrounding and during the window of vulnerability, making it a race condition between the victim and attacker processes. Some attempts have been made to slow down the victim and increase the probability of success, examples include: (1) using slow storage devices (e.g. floppy disks); (2) using extremely long pathnames (e.g. file system mazes [14]); (3) using large files. This paper studies one method to make the attacker faster and reduce scheduling uncertainty by exploiting additional CPU resources available in multiprocessors.

This paper offers two technical contributions. The first is a probability model for estimating TOCTTOU attack success rate, both for uniprocessors and multiprocessors. By comparing their different capabilities, the model shows that multiprocessors give an attacker more opportunities in winning the race. The second contribution is an experimental study and detailed event analysis of multiprocessor attacks on two recently found TOCTTOU vulnerabilities against popular applications: *vi* and *gedit*. Both attacks have very low success rate on uniprocessors and almost certain success on a multiprocessor (nearly 100% for *vi* and up to 83% for *gedit*). The *gedit* experiments demonstrate that when the vulnerability window is extremely small, the race condition moves to a lower level and the implementation of the attacker program becomes crucial. These analyses give a better understanding of the TOCTTOU attacks on multiprocessors. The main conclusion of the paper is the confirmation of sharply increased risks represented by TOCTTOU attacks.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly introduces the TOCTTOU errors with *vi* and *gedit* which are the target of the attacks discussed in this paper. Section 3 introduces a probability model for TOCTTOU attack success rate. Section 4 summarizes our previous TOCTTOU attack experiments on uniprocessors as a baseline for comparison. Section 5 describes TOCTTOU attacks against *vi* on a SMP. Section 6 discusses TOCTTOU attacks against *gedit* on both a SMP and a multi-core. Section 7 describes an implementation technique that leverages parallelism opportunities provided by multi-cores to significantly speedup the attack program. Section 8 summaries the related work and Section 9 concludes the paper.

## 2 Background: TOCTTOU Vulnerabilities in Unix-Style File Systems

### 2.1 Concrete Examples of TOCTTOU Vulnerabilities

Recently, several new TOCTTOU vulnerabilities have been found in often-used utility programs such as *vi*, *rpm*, *emacs* and *gedit* [24]. A summary of these vulnerabilities are shown in Table 1. For each vulnerability, Table 1 shows its TOCTTOU pair, where the first (check) call is used to establish some invariant about a file object (e.g. the file exists), and the second (use) call is an operation on that same file assuming that the invariant is still valid.

**Table 1: Potential TOCTTOU Vulnerabilities [24]**

Application	TOCTTOU errors	Possible exploit
<i>vi</i>	<open, chown>	Changing the owner of /etc/passwd to an ordinary user
<i>rpm</i>	<open, open>	Running arbitrary command
<i>emacs</i>	<open, chmod>	Making /etc/shadow readable by an ordinary user
<i>gedit</i>	<rename, chown>	Changing the owner of /etc/passwd to an ordinary user

## 2.2 The vi Vulnerability and Attack Scheme

The Unix “visual editor” *vi* is a widely used text editor in many UNIX-style environments. For example, Red Hat Linux distribution includes *vi* 6.1. We found that if *vi* is run by root to edit a file owned by a normal user, then the normal user may become the owner of sensitive files such as `/etc/passwd`. The problem can be summarized as follows. When *vi* saves the file (*wfname*) being edited, it first renames the original file to a backup (*f'*), then creates a new file under the original name (*wfname*). The new file is closed after all the content in the edit buffer has been written to it. Because this new file is created by root (*vi* runs as root), its initial user is set to root, so *vi* needs to change its owner back to the original user (the normal user). This forms a <**open, chown**> window of vulnerability every time *vi* saves the file (Figure 1). During this window, if the normal user (also the attacker) could replace *wfname* with a symbolic link to `/etc/passwd`, *vi* can be tricked into changing the owner of `/etc/passwd` to the normal user. A typical attack of this vulnerability is to constantly check the ownership of file *wfname*, and replace *wfname* when its owner becomes root (Figure 2).

<pre>while ((fd = mch_open((char *)wfname, ...) ..... <b>chown</b>((char *)wfname, st_old.st_uid, st_old.st_gid);</pre>	<pre>1 while (!finish){ 2   if (stat(wfname, &amp;stbuf) == 0){ 3     if ((stbuf.st_uid == 0) &amp;&amp; (stbuf.st_gid == 0)) 4       { 5         unlink(wfname); 6         symlink("/etc/passwd", wfname); 7         finish = 1; 8       } 9   } 10 }</pre>
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Figure 1: *vi* 6.1 TOCTTOU Vulnerability (fileio.c)

Figure 2: A Program to Attack *vi*

## 2.3 The gedit Vulnerability and Attack Scheme

*gedit* [15] is a text editor for the GNOME desktop environment. We find that *gedit* 2.8.3 (the current distribution in Debian and Redhat Linux) has a <**rename, chown**> TOCTTOU vulnerability (See Figure 3). This happens when *gedit* is run by root to edit a file (*real\_filename*) owned by a normal user (also the attacker), and *gedit* saves the file. What happens is *gedit* first saves the current buffer content to a temporary scratch file (*temp\_filename*), then renames the scratch file to the original file *real\_filename* (after backing up the original file properly). Because the scratch file is created by root, the owner of the just saved file (*real\_filename*) is root, so *gedit* needs to change its owner back to the original user. This forms a <**rename, chown**> vulnerability window whenever *gedit* saves the file being edited. A typical attack against this vulnerability constantly checks the ownership of *real\_filename* and when it becomes root, the attacker replaces *real\_filename* with a symbolic link to `/etc/passwd` (Figure 4). This attack is essentially the same as the attack against *vi* in Section 2.2.

<pre>if (<b>rename</b> (temp_filename, real_filename) != 0){ ... } <b>chmod</b> (real_filename, st.st_mode); <b>chown</b> (real_filename, st.st_uid, st.st_gid);</pre>	<pre>1 while (!finish){ 2   if (stat(real_filename, &amp;stbuf) == 0){ 3     if ((stbuf.st_uid == 0) &amp;&amp; (stbuf.st_gid == 0)) 4       { 5         unlink(real_filename); 6         symlink("/etc/passwd", real_filename); 7         finish = 1; 8       } 9   } 10 }</pre>
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Figure 3: *gedit* 2.8.3 TOCTTOU Vulnerability (gedit-document.c)

Figure 4: *gedit* Attack Program Version 1

### 3 A Probabilistic Model for Estimating TOCTTOU Attack Success Rate

#### 3.1 The Basic General Model

Unless explicitly stated otherwise, the TOCTTOU vulnerabilities studied in this paper are of a specific type called TOCTTOU binding flaws [2]. Concretely, a TOCTTOU attack succeeds when the attacker is able to modify the mapping from file name to disk block within the vulnerability window. One of the critical issues (in a uniprocessor) is whether the victim is suspended within the vulnerability window, since the suspension increases substantially the attack success rate.

The model also divides the attacker program into two parts: (1) a detection part that finds the beginning of the vulnerability window, and (2) an attack part that modifies the file mapping. Based on the law of total probability, the attack success rate:

$$P(\text{attack succeeds}) = P(\text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack succeeds} | \text{victim suspended}) + P(\text{victim not suspended}) * P(\text{attack succeeds} | \text{victim not suspended}), \text{ where}$$

$$P(\text{attack succeeds} | \text{victim suspended}) = P(\text{attack scheduled} \bullet \text{attack finished} | \text{victim suspended}) \\ = P(\text{attack scheduled} | \text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack finished} | \text{victim suspended})$$

and,

$$P(\text{attack succeeds} | \text{victim not suspended}) = P(\text{attack scheduled} \bullet \text{attack finished} | \text{victim not suspended}) \\ = P(\text{attack scheduled} | \text{victim not suspended}) * P(\text{attack finished} | \text{victim not suspended})$$

We can put these together and get the probability in Equation 1.

#### Equation 1: The Probability of a Successful TOCTTOU Attack

$P(\text{attack succeeds}) = P(\text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack scheduled}   \text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack finished}   \text{victim suspended}) + P(\text{victim not suspended}) * P(\text{attack scheduled}   \text{victim not suspended}) * P(\text{attack finished}   \text{victim not suspended})$
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In Equation 1, all the events are under the context of the victim vulnerability window. e.g. ‘attack finished’ means ‘attack finished within the vulnerability window’.

#### 3.2 Attack Success Rate on a Uniprocessor

On a uniprocessor,  $P(\text{attack scheduled} | \text{victim not suspended}) = 0$  since it is impossible to schedule the attacker when the victim is running. Therefore on a uniprocessor the second part of Equation 1 contributes nothing to the success rate. Therefore,

$$P(\text{attack succeeds}) = P(\text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack scheduled} | \text{victim suspended}) * P(\text{attack finished} | \text{victim suspended})$$

Several observations can be made about  $P(\text{attack succeeds})$  on a uniprocessor:

- $P(\text{attack succeeds}) \leq P(\text{victim suspended})$ . The probability that the victim is suspended within its vulnerability window gives an upper bound for the attack success rate. If the victim is always suspended (e.g. *rpm* in [24]), the attacker can achieve a success rate as high as 100%. In contrast, if the victim is rarely suspended (e.g. *gedit* in Section 2.3), the attack success rate can be near zero.
- $P(\text{attack scheduled} | \text{victim suspended})$  is the probability that the attacker process gets scheduled when the victim relinquishes CPU. This value depends on several factors such as the readiness of the attacker, the system load (if round-robin scheduling is used), or the priority of the attacker (if priority-based scheduling is used). Typically in a lightly loaded environment this value can be nearly 100% if the attacker program uses an infinite loop actively looking for the exploit opportunity.
- $P(\text{attack finished} | \text{victim suspended})$  is the probability that the attacker successfully modifies the file mapping while the victim is suspended. Since there is only one CPU, as long as the attack part is not interrupted, this probability can be 100%. Typically this is the case because modifying the file mapping requires very short processing time and needs not block on I/O.

Based on the above analysis, the attack success rate is mainly determined by  $P(\text{victim suspended})$  on a uniprocessor system, and the implementation of the attack part is relatively less critical.

### 3.3 Attack Success Rate on Multiprocessors

On multiprocessors, the attacker can run on a different processor than the victim when the victim is running within its vulnerability window. This makes the second part of Equation 1 non-zero, i.e.,  $P(\text{attack scheduled} \mid \text{victim not suspended}) > 0$ . This fact increases the success rate of TOCTTOU attacks on multiprocessors as compared to uniprocessors. If  $P(\text{victim suspended})$  is relatively large, then the success rate on multiprocessors may not increase significantly. However, if  $P(\text{victim suspended})$  is very small (approaching 0), then  $P(\text{victim not suspended})$  approaches 1, and the gain due to the second part of  $P(\text{attack succeeds})$  may become very significant.

Therefore for an attacker, the benefit of having multiprocessors is maximized when the victim is rarely suspended in the vulnerability window. An analysis similar to the second part of Equation 1 shows that:

- $P(\text{attack scheduled} \mid \text{victim not suspended})$  is similar to  $P(\text{attack scheduled} \mid \text{victim suspended})$  discussed in Section 3.2. The conclusion is that it can be as high as 100%.
- $P(\text{attack finished} \mid \text{victim not suspended})$  is the probability that the attack is finished within the vulnerability window. Since the victim is running concurrently with the attacker, the result of the attack depends on the relative speed of the attacker and the victim, a more detailed analysis is needed (next Section).

### 3.4 Probabilistic Analysis of $P(\text{attack finished} \mid \text{victim not suspended})$

In order to estimate the  $P(\text{attack finished} \mid \text{victim not suspended})$  in more detail, we analyze the race condition at different levels: the first level is CPU, which is the main contention in uniprocessor attacks; the next level is file object, because the file system already has a synchronization mechanism to regulate shared accesses. In Unix-style file systems, the modifications to an inode are synchronized by a semaphore. Since the operations of the victim and the attacker on the shared file modify the same inode, they both need to acquire the same semaphore. In this case, the race is reduced to the competition for the semaphore and we can model the success rate of the attack in the following way.

In this model, we assume that the attacker runs in a tight loop (the detection part), waiting for the vulnerability window of the victim to appear. Let  $D$  be the time consumed by each iteration of detection part, and let  $t_1$  be the earliest start time for a successful detection and  $t_2$  be the latest start time for a successful detection followed by a successful attack (e.g. the attacker acquires the semaphore first).  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are determined by the victim process. Some observations can be made as follow (Figure 5):

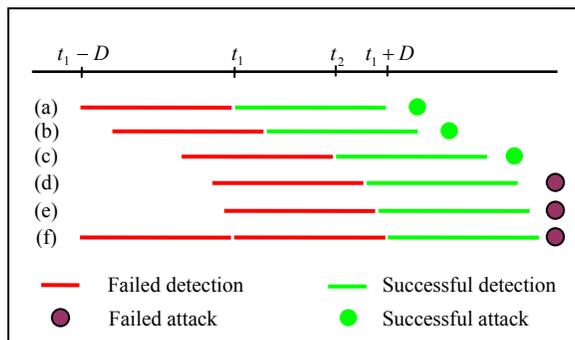


Figure 5: Different Attack Scheduling on a multiprocessor

A successful attack starts with a successful detection as its precondition. This successful detection may start as early as  $t_1$  (Figure 5, case (a)), and as late as  $t_1 + D$  (Figure 5, case (f)). Then the interval  $[t_1, t_1 + D)$  is our sample space. Out of this interval  $[t_1, t_1 + D)$ , if the detection is started before  $t_2$ , the attack succeeds (Figure 5, cases (a) through (c)); otherwise the attack fails (Figure 5, cases (d) through (f)),

because the attack is launched too late). Let's assume a uniform distribution for the start time of the detection part, the success rate is thus  $\frac{t_2 - t_1}{D}$ .

In Figure 5 we assume that  $t_2 \in [t_1, t_1 + D)$ . Two other cases are:

- If  $t_2 < t_1$ , then the success rate is 0;
- If  $t_2 \geq t_1 + D$ , then the success rate is 1.

In summary,

$$\text{The success rate} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (t_2 < t_1) \\ \frac{t_2 - t_1}{D}, & \text{if } (t_1 \leq t_2 < t_1 + D) \\ 1, & \text{if } (t_2 \geq t_1 + D) \end{cases}$$

Let  $L = t_2 - t_1$ , then L measures the laxity of the successful attacks. We can rewrite the above equation as:

$$\text{The success rate} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } (L < 0) \\ L/D, & \text{if } (0 \leq L < D) \\ 1, & \text{if } (L \geq D) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

In formula (1), L is a characterization of the victim: the larger L, the more vulnerable the victim. D is a characterization of the detection part of the attacker: the smaller D, the faster the attacker, and the higher success rate. So L/D gives a very useful measurement of the relative speed of the victim and the attacker.

It should be noted that L and D in formula (1) are not strictly constant, because the executions of the victim as well as the attacker are interleaved with other events (e.g. kernel timers) in the system. That is, the running environment imposes variance on these parameters. So formula (1) only offers a statistical guidance about the attack success rate.

## 4 Baseline Measurements of TOCTTOU Attacks on Uniprocessors

For comparison purposes, in this section we summarize the measured success rates of *vi* and *gedit* TOCTTOU attacks on uniprocessors from [24].

### 4.1 *vi* Attack Experiments on Uniprocessors

Since the *vi* vulnerability window includes the writing of a whole file, the size of the window naturally depends on the file size. The measured success rates for file sizes ranging from 20KB to 10MB are the following:

- When the file size is small (from 100KB to 1MB), there is a rough correlation between attack success rate and file size, as shown in Figure 6. However, the correlation disappears for file sizes between 2MB to 3MB (Figure 7), showing that file size alone does not determine the success rate completely.
- Besides file size, we studied other factors (e.g., I/O operation, CPU slicing, and preemption by higher priority kernel threads) that corroborate the non-deterministic nature of TOCTTOU attacks on a uniprocessor [24].

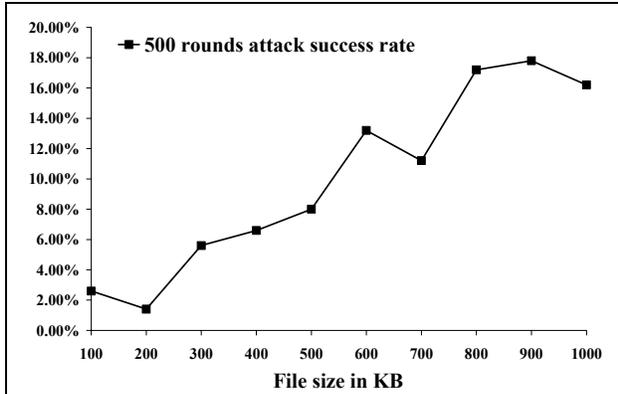


Figure 6: Success Rate of Attacking vi (small files) on a Uniprocessor

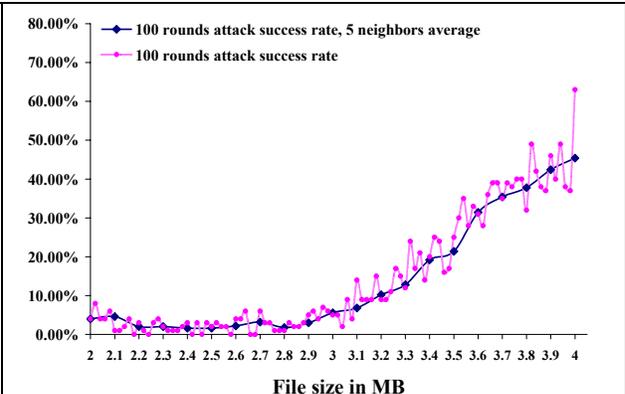


Figure 7: Success Rates of Attacking vi (large files) on a Uniprocessor

From Figure 6 we can see that for normal file sizes (Using vi to edit a 2MB text file is considered rare in real life), the success rate can be as low as 1.5% and as high as 18%. Furthermore, when the file size approaches 0, the success rate also approaches 0.

#### 4.2 gedit Attack Experiment on Uniprocessors

The experiments in which a TOCTTOU attack was carried out against the gedit vulnerability saw no successes. This is because the gedit vulnerability window (Figure 3) does not include the writing of the new file as in vi, so it is much shorter and bears no relationship to the file size. These factors reduced the success rate for gedit attacks to essentially zero on a uniprocessor.

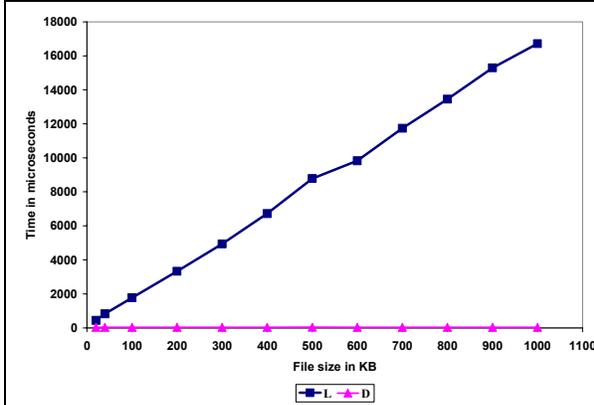
### 5 vi Attack Experiments on SMP

We repeated the vi attack experiments described in Section 4.1 on a SMP machine (2 Intel Xeon 1.7GHz CPUs, 512MB main memory, and 18.2GB SCSI disk with ext3 file system).

First we tried different file sizes ranging from 20KB to 1MB with a stepping size of 20KB, and observed the success rate of 100% for all file sizes. This confirms the probabilistic estimations and shows that a multiprocessor greatly increases the attacker’s chance of success compared to a uniprocessor (Figure 6 in Section 4.1). We did a detailed event analysis to confirm the attacker and victim processes ran on separate CPUs during the vulnerability window. We also eliminated the possibility that the attack success is due to the victim being blocked on I/O operations (which would have made the attack easier). Consequently, we conclude that the attack success is due to the length of vi vulnerability window being much larger than the time it takes the attacker to finish the attack steps (file name redirection).

Figure 8 shows the L and D values (Section 3.4) for the vi attack experiments that we conducted on the SMP. We can see that  $L \gg D$  when the file is large (e.g. 1MB); and the difference  $(L - D)$  decreases as the file size decreases. But  $(L - D)$  is always positive, even when the file size becomes very small. Therefore we can say with almost certainty that for vi attack experiments,  $L > D$ . By formula (1) we know that the success rate of vi attacks is almost 100% all the time.

One thing to notice from Figure 8 is that as the file size approaches 0, the difference  $(L - D)$  also approaches 0. Is it possible that L becomes smaller than D? Then according to formula (1) the attack success rate will be smaller than 100%.



**Figure 8: The L and D Values for  $v_i$  SMP Attack Experiments**

**Table 2: The Average L and D Values (in microseconds) for  $v_i$  SMP Attack Experiments (File Size = 1 byte)**

	Average	Stdev
L	61.6	3.78
D	41.1	2.73

To see this we run the experiment again with the smallest files (only 1 byte each). And the success rate we get is around 96% to 100%. Again we did a detailed event analysis of this experiment. We measure the average L and D values and put them in Table 2. We can see that although  $L > D$  in these attacks, they have become very close. If we consider the fact that the values for L and D are not strictly constant due to the environmental influence, we realize that whether  $L > D$  all the time becomes questionable when they are close enough (When  $L \gg D$  the inaccuracy introduced by the environment does not change the relationship). This helps to explain why the success rate can not be 100% when the file contains only 1 byte.

Another point is that so far we actually treat  $P(\text{attack finished} \mid \text{victim not suspended})$  as the sole basis for predicting the success rate, which is not always accurate (Equation 1). The justification is that when the  $v_i$  vulnerability window is large enough, the effect of other factors in Equation 1 is negligible. For example,  $P(\text{attack scheduled} \mid \text{victim not suspended}) < 100\%$  in general which means that the attacker may not be scheduled during sometime in the vulnerability window. However, if the vulnerability window is very large, the attacker is still within it when he/she is scheduled eventually. That is, the temporary suspension does not affect the result of the attack. However, when the vulnerability window becomes small enough (e.g. L and D become close enough), the suspension may cause the attacker to miss the vulnerability window. In such a case the attack fails, thus the suspension changes the attack result.

In several of the failed 1-byte  $v_i$  experiments, we find that some other processes prevents the attacker from being scheduled on another CPU during the  $v_i$  vulnerability window.

This analysis tells us that although using a multiprocessor can greatly increase the attack's chance of success, the success is still not guaranteed: the attack is still influenced by other environmental factors such as kernel activities and system load. However, 96% is more than enough for an attacker.

## 6 *gedit* Attack Experiments on Multiprocessors

### 6.1 *gedit* SMP Attack Event Analysis

As mentioned in Section 4.2, our attack experiments against *gedit* on uniprocessors saw no successes. However, when we try this attack on a SMP (the same machine as in Section 5), we get roughly 83%, a surprisingly high success rate. A detailed event analysis is thus conducted to understand this result.

For the *gedit* attack, we have observed that if the attacker's **unlink** is invoked before *gedit*'s **chmod** (Figure 3 and Figure 4), then attack succeeds. This is because these two system calls compete for the same semaphore, so if **unlink** wins, **chmod** as well as the following **chown** will be delayed. As a result the attacker's **unlink** and **symlink** can have enough time to finish before *gedit*'s **chown**. On the other hand, if **unlink** loses, **unlink** and the following **symlink** of the attacker will be delayed, so the attack will fail. So there is an interesting cascading effect in *gedit* attack experiment. Therefore, for *gedit* attacks,  $t_1$

is somewhere near the end of **rename**,  $D$  is the interval between the start of **stat** and the start of **unlink**. Let  $t_3$  be the start of **chmod**, then  $t_2 = t_3 - D$ , and  $L = t_2 - t_1 = t_3 - D - t_1$ . We experimentally get the  $L$  and  $D$  values as in Table 3.

**Table 3: L and D Values for *gedit* Attacks on a SMP (in microseconds)**

	Average	Stdev
L	11.6	3.89
D	32.7	2.83

The calculation of  $L$  here is not accurate because the estimation of  $t_1$  is not accurate. Currently  $t_1$  is established as the earliest observed start time of **stat** which indicates a vulnerability window. So it may not be optimal. An earlier (thus smaller)  $t_1$  will result in a larger  $L$ . So the success rate indicated by Table 3 (35%) may be overly conservative compared to the observed success rate.

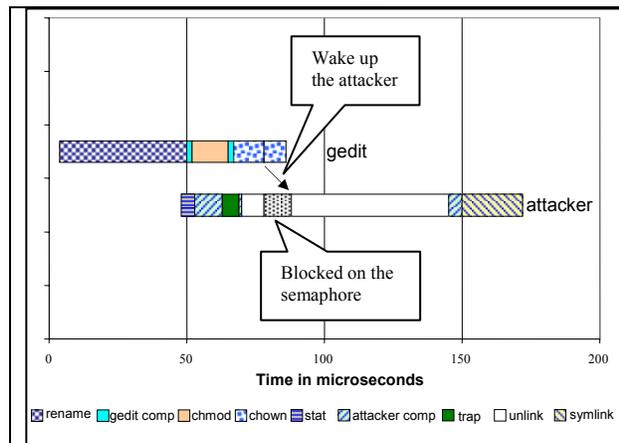
An important contributing factor to  $L$  is the computation time between the end of **rename** and the start of **chmod**. The average length of this computation is 43 microseconds. As we will see in Section 6.2, this factor is very important for the high success rate of *gedit* attack on the SMP.

There is another contributing factor. Usually when *gedit*'s **chmod** is blocked, the Linux kernel will try to schedule something else to run (e.g. internal kernel events such as soft IRQs, kernel timers and tasklets), which further lengthens *gedit* vulnerability window (but this contributes just a little to the delay compared with that due to the semaphore).

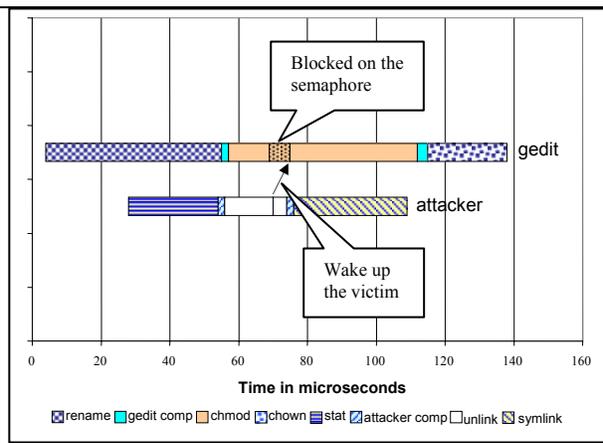
## 6.2 *gedit* Multicore Attack Experiment

### 6.2.1 Attack One

We repeat the *gedit* attack (Figure 4) on a multi-core (Dell Precision 380 with 2 Intel Pentium D 3.2 GHz dual-core and Hyper-Threading CPUs, 4GB main memory, and 80GB SCSI disk with ext3 file system). We get very different result: now we see almost no success in the same attack experiment. The main change in the situation is that the victim spends much less time between **rename** and **chmod** (3 microseconds vs. 43 microseconds), so **chmod** happens before **unlink** of the attacker, but on the SMP experiment (Section 6.1) situation is the opposite.



**Figure 9: Failed *gedit* Attack (Program 1) on a Multi-core**



**Figure 10: Successful *gedit* Attack (Program 2) on a Multi-core**

Figure 9 shows the important system events during one failed attack on the multi-core. The upper bar corresponds to the execution of *gedit* (**rename**, **chmod**, **chown**) and the lower bar corresponds to that of the attacker (**stat**, **unlink**, **symlink**). Notice that the gap (the computation) between **rename** and **chmod** of *gedit* is only 3 microseconds, but the gap between **stat** and **unlink** of the attacker is 17 microseconds.

It is because of this relatively larger gap that the attacker's **unlink** is called later than the victim's **chmod**. Actually we can see that **unlink** is called later than **chown** and as a result **unlink** has to wait on the semaphore during its execution. The 17 microsecond gap of the attacker includes 11 microseconds of computation and 6 microseconds of system trap processing (page fault). Speaking in terms of  $D$ , these 17 microseconds are counted so  $D$  is around 22. On the other hand  $L$  is around  $3 - D = -19$ , so according to formula (1) the attack success rate is probably 0. Putting this in another way, the victim is now much faster than the attacker, so it is very difficult for the attacker to win the race.

### 6.2.2 Attack Two

We think that the 17 microsecond gap in Figure 9 is mainly responsible for the low success rate. If we could reduce the length of this gap then the situation may change. A source code analysis tells us that before the vulnerability window the true branch of statement 3 in Figure 4 (statements 5 to 7) is never taken. Once the vulnerability window starts, the true branch of statement 3 is taken, and then statement 5 (**unlink**) is about to be executed. Right at this point the attacker program encounters a trap (page fault). We figure out that this effect is due to the memory management for shared libraries in Linux. Specifically, in Linux all system calls are through *libc*, which is a dynamic library shared among user-level applications. To save physical memory, Linux kernel keeps only one copy of *libc* in physical memory, and its virtual memory mechanism maps the pages of this copy to the address space of an application on demand. For example, the physical page containing the wrapper for **unlink** is mapped into an application's address space when this application first invokes **unlink**. This mapping is preceded by a trap (page fault) and the corresponding handler routine carries out the mapping. This is exactly what happens in Figure 4, where **unlink** is first invoked when the true branch of statement 3 is taken. As a consequence, if we intentionally invoke **unlink** (and **symlink** although it seems to be on the same page as **unlink**) before the true branch of statement 3 is taken, we may remove the trap (page fault).

So we re-implement the attacker program as shown in Figure 11. Now **unlink** and **symlink** are called no matter the vulnerability window appears or not. The only trick is to switch in the correct file name when it does appear.

Then we perform the *gedit* attack experiment again using the program in Figure 11. And we begin to see many successes!

```

1  while (!finish){ /* argv[1] holds real_filename */
2  if (stat(argv[1], &stbuf) == 0){
3  if ((stbuf.st_uid == 0) && (stbuf.st_gid == 0))
4  {
5  fname = argv[1];
6  finish = 1;
7  }
8  else
9  fname = dummy;
10
11  unlink(fname);
12  symlink("/etc/passwd", fname);
13  } //if stat(argv[1] ..
14 } //while

```

Figure 11: *gedit* Attack Program Version 2

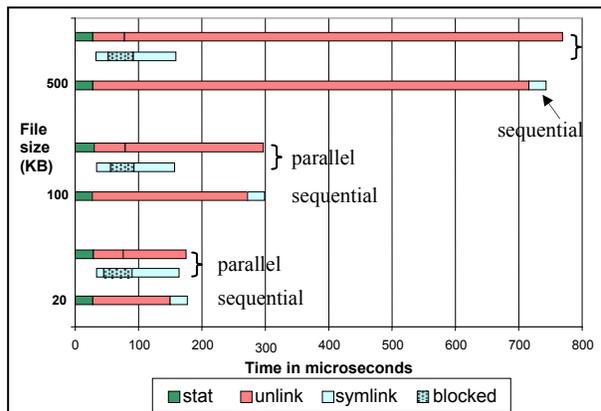


Figure 12: The Effect of Parallelizing the Attack Program

We plot the important system events during one successful *gedit* attack in Figure 10, similar to Figure 9. We can see that now the gap between **stat** and **unlink** of the attacker has decreased to 2 microseconds: the trap has disappeared. On the other hand, the gap between **rename** and **chmod** of *gedit* is 2 microseconds. So the attacker has a very narrow chance of winning the race. In this particular case, the attacker wins because his/her **stat** starts well before the end of **rename**, so he/she identifies the vulnerability win-

dow at the first moment, and invokes **unlink** ahead of **chmod**. Has the attacker been 2 microseconds later, the attack would fail.

Notice that during this attack the running time of **stat** has been lengthened to 26 microseconds (typically it needs 4 microseconds), probably due to some other more complicated race condition (For example the contention for directory entries along the path name). We are not quite clear about the reason but this does not change the applicability of formula (1) because now we have a much earlier  $t_1$  (27 microseconds into **rename**), which makes a L value of at least 1 microseconds.

This experience tells us that on multiprocessors the implementation of the attacker program can be very critical in determining the attack success rate, especially when the vulnerability window is very narrow.

## 7 Pipelining Attacker Program

The multi-core *gedit* experiment highlights the importance of the implementation of the attacker program. Concretely, we found that among the three steps of the attack (**stat**, **unlink**, **symlink**), **unlink** is the most time-consuming. A closer look shows that actually **symlink** needs not wait on the completion of **unlink**. Instead **symlink** can begin once the inode has been detached from the directory by **unlink**, which happens relatively early. (The main part of **unlink** is spent physically truncating the file.) This observation shows that on a multiprocessor, the attacker can distribute its attack steps to multiple CPUs to speed up the attack part and increase its success rate.

To confirm this hypothesis, we implemented a multithreaded *gedit* attack program with two threads: the first thread carries out the **stat**, **unlink** steps and the second thread carries out the **symlink** step asynchronously. Figure 12 shows the effect of parallelizing the attack program for three different file sizes. For each file size (e.g. 500KB), there are three bars: the first two bars correspond to the execution of the two threads in a parallelized attack program, and the third bar corresponds to the execution of the normal sequential attack program. In the parallelized attack, **symlink** can finish (and so does the attack) well before the end of **unlink**. This is in contrast to the sequential attack, where **symlink** has to wait until **unlink** finishes. The comparison between the end times of **symlink** shows that leveraging on the parallelism provided by a multiprocessor can greatly reduce the amount of time needed for a successful attack. This is especially important when the vulnerability window is very narrow so the attacker needs to be very fast. This experiment shows one feasible way of doing it.

## 8 Related Work

TOCTTOU is one example of race condition problem. In general, every shared resource has the potential for such problems [17]. Percival [18] shows that shared access to memory caches in Hyper-Threading technology allows a malicious thread to steal RSA keys. Similar attacks have also been reported on AES [19]. While carrying out such attacks do not rely on multiprocessors, it would be interesting to see if they become easier on multiprocessors.

Timing attacks have long been used to infer secret keys in cryptosystems [20][21][22]. This kind of attacks share a common attribute with TOCTTOU attacks - both try to infer something about the victim. The difference between them is that the former only read (steal) information from the victim to violate its *confidentiality* but the latter modify the information used by the victim to violate its *integrity*.

This paper studies the impact of new architectures on existing vulnerabilities and security mechanisms. Similarly, Gershon Kedem [23] has shown that the traditional UNIX password scheme is not secure enough against brute force attacks using SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data) machines. With the capability provided by SIMD machines, they were able to break a large fraction of passwords used in practice in 2-3 days of computation.

TOCTTOU vulnerabilities can be detected in two ways: static analysis or dynamic analysis. The first approach analyzes the application source code to find TOCTTOU pairs. One such tool is MOPS [4] which uses model checking and is able to find 41 TOCTTOU bugs in an entire Linux distribution [5].

Other potentially useful techniques include compiler extensions [8][9]. The main difficulty with these static tools is high false positive rate. The second approach to detect TOCTTOU vulnerabilities is dynamic monitoring and analysis. These tools can be further classified into dynamic online detection tools such as [11] and [12] and post mortem analysis tools such as [10] and [24]. Compared to static analysis, dynamic analysis has lower false positive rate, but it suffers from false negatives because the search space is incomplete.

The high success rate of exploiting TOCTTOU vulnerabilities calls for effective defense against such attacks. There have been specialized mechanisms such as RaceGuard [6] and a probabilistic approach [7] which protect particular TOCTTOU pairs. Pseudo-transaction [13] is a more generic mechanism to protect some classes of TOCTTOU vulnerabilities. We have proposed a complete defense against TOCTTOU attacks in [25].

## 9 Conclusion

TOCTTOU (Time-of-Check-to-Time-of-Use) is a file-based race condition that can cause serious consequences. However, traditionally TOCTTOU vulnerabilities have been considered “low risk” because the success rate of exploits appears to be low and results non-deterministic. This paper shows that in multiprocessor environments, some TOCTTOU attacks can have very high success rates. Thus TOCTTOU attacks on multiprocessors are practical security threats.

The first contribution of this paper is a probability model for TOCTTOU attack success rate. It estimates the probability of success of a TOCTTOU attack. It provides a basic guideline for modeling TOCTTOU attacks and performing experiments, showing higher success rates on a multiprocessor compared to a uniprocessor. This model can be applied to many race condition attacks, not just TOCTTOU.

The second contribution of this paper is a set of attack experiments against two concrete and well known applications: *vi* and *gedit*. The *vi* experiments show that even for the smallest files involved in the vulnerability window, the attacker can achieve nearly 100% success rate on a multiprocessor, compared to low single digit percentages on uniprocessors. The *gedit* experiments demonstrate that when the vulnerability window is extremely small, the race moves to a lower level and the implementation of the attacker program becomes very important. The *gedit* experiments show a success rate of up to 83% compared to essentially zero on uniprocessors.

Our main conclusion is that an attacker can exploit the parallelism provided by multiprocessors to achieve more effective and more efficient attacks. Concretely, the increased risk of TOCTTOU vulnerabilities demands more researcher attention to the problem. More generally, these experiments show that multiprocessors can potentially increase overall system vulnerability, so we should re-evaluate the risks of known vulnerabilities and effectiveness of security mechanisms in multiprocessor environments.

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