

Gnort: High Performance Network Intrusion Detection Using Graphics Processors

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Abstract. The constant increase in link speeds and number of threats poses challenges to network intrusion detection systems (NIDS), which must cope with higher traffic throughput and perform even more complex per-packet processing. In this paper, we present an intrusion detection system based on the Snort open-source NIDS that exploits the underutilized computational power of modern graphics cards to offload the costly pattern matching operations from the CPU, and thus increase the overall processing throughput. Our prototype system, called *Gnort*, achieved a maximum traffic processing throughput of 2.3 Gbit/s using synthetic network traces, while when monitoring real traffic using a commodity Ethernet interface, it outperformed unmodified Snort by a factor of two. The results suggest that modern graphics cards can be used effectively to speed up intrusion detection systems, as well as other systems that involve pattern matching operations.

Key words: GPU, pattern matching, intrusion detection systems, network security, SIMD, parallel programming

1 Introduction

Network security architectures such as firewalls and Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS) attempt to detect break-in attempts by monitoring the incoming and outgoing traffic for suspicious payloads. Most modern network intrusion detection and prevention systems rely on a set of rules that are compared against network packets. Usually, a rule consists of a filter specification based on packet header fields, a string that must be contained in the packet payload, the approximate or absolute location where that string should be present, and an associated action to take if all the conditions of the rule are met.

Signature matching is a highly computationally intensive process, accounting for about 75% of the total CPU processing time of modern NIDSes [2, 7]. This overhead arises from the fact that most of the time, every byte of every packet needs to be processed as part of the string searching algorithm that searches for matches among a large set of strings from all signatures that apply for a particular packet. For example, the rule set of Snort [26], one of the most widely used

open-source NIDS, contains about 10000 strings. Searching every packet for all of these strings requires significant resources, both in terms of the computation capacity needed to process a packet, as well as the amount of memory needed to store the rules.

Several research efforts have explored the use of parallelism for improving the packet processing throughput [25, 8, 14, 4, 37]. Specialized hardware devices can be used to inspect many packets concurrently, and such devices include ASICs and Network Processors. Both are very efficient and perform well, however they are complex to modify and program. Moreover, FPGA-based architectures have poor flexibility since most of the approaches are usually tied to a specific implementation.

As Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) are becoming increasingly powerful and ubiquitous, researchers have begun exploring ways to tap their power for non-graphic or general-purpose (GPGPU) applications. The main reason behind this evolution is that GPUs are specialized for computationally-intensive and highly parallel operations—required for graphics rendering—and therefore are designed such that more transistors are devoted to data processing rather than data caching and flow control [23]. The release of software development kits (SDKs) from big vendors, like NVIDIA¹ and ATI,² has started a trend of using GPUs as a computational unit to offload the CPU.

In addition, many attempts have been made to use graphics processors for security purposes, including cryptography [11], data carving [20] and intrusion detection [17]. Specifically, it has been shown that GPU support can substantially increase the performance of digital forensics software that relies on binary string searches [20]. Jacob and Brodley were the first that tried to use the GPU as a pattern matching engine for NIDS in PixelSnort [17]. They used a simplified version of the Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) algorithm [18], however, their performance results indicated marginal improvement.

In this paper, we explore how GPUs can be used to speed up the processing throughput of intrusion detection systems by offloading the string matching operations to the GPU. We show that single pattern matching algorithms, like KMP, do not perform well when executed on the GPU, especially when using an increased number of patterns. However, porting multi-pattern matching algorithms, like the Aho-Corasick algorithm can boost overall performance by a factor of three. Furthermore, we take advantage of DMA and the asynchronous execution of GPUs to impose concurrency between the operations handled by the CPU and the GPU. We have implemented a prototype intrusion detection system that effectively utilizes GPUs for pattern matching operations in real time.

The paper is organized as follows: In the remainder of the Introduction we will give an overview of the GPU architecture that we used for this research. In Section 2 we will briefly present a survey of related work. Section 3 and 4 presents our prototype architecture and the implementation details respectively.

¹ <http://developer.nvidia.com/object/cuda.html>

² <http://ati.amd.com/technology/streamcomputing/index.html>

In Section 5 we evaluate our implementation and we compare with the previous work. Finally, in Section 6 we present some conclusions as well as some ideas for future work.

1.1 Overview of the GeForce 8 Series Architecture

In this Section we briefly describe the architecture of the NVIDIA GeForce 8 Series (G80) cards, which we have used for this work, as well as the programming capabilities it offers through the Compute Unified Device Architecture (CUDA) SDK. The G80 architecture is based on a set of multiprocessors, each of which contains a set of *stream processors* operating on SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data) programs. When programmed through CUDA, the GPU can be used as a general purpose processor, capable of executing a very high number of threads in parallel.

A unit of work issued by the host computer to the GPU is called a *kernel*, and is executed on the device as many different *threads* organized in *thread blocks*. Each multiprocessor executes one or more thread blocks, with each group organized into *warps*. A warp is a fraction of an *active group*, which is processed by one multiprocessor in one batch. Each of these warps contains the same number of threads, called the *warp size*, and is executed by the multiprocessor in a SIMD fashion. Active warps are time-sliced: A thread scheduler periodically switches from one warp to another to maximize the use of the multiprocessors' computational resources.

Stream processors within a processor share an instruction unit. Any control flow instruction that causes threads of the same warp to follow different execution paths reduces the instruction throughput, because different executions paths have to be serialized. When all the different execution paths have reached a common end, the threads converge back to the same execution path.

A fast *shared memory* is managed explicitly by the programmer among thread blocks. The *global*, *constant*, and *texture memory spaces* can be read from or written to by the host, are persistent across kernel launches by the same application, and are optimized for different memory usages [23]. The constant and texture memory accesses are cached, so a read from them costs much less compared to device memory reads, which are not being cached. The texture memory space is implemented as a read-only region of device memory.

GPGPU programming on G80 series and later is feasible using the CUDA SDK. CUDA consists of a minimal set of extensions to the C language and a runtime library that provides functions to control the GPU from the host, as well as device-specific functions and data types. CUDA exposes several hardware features that are not available via the graphics API. The most important of these features is the read and write access to the shared memory shared among the threads, and the ability to access any memory location in the card's DRAM through the general memory addressing mode it provides. Finally, CUDA also offers highly optimized data transfers to and from the GPU.

2 Related Work

Pattern matching is the most critical operation that affects the performance of network intrusion detection systems. Pattern matching algorithms can be classified into single- and multi-pattern algorithms.

In single pattern matching algorithms, each pattern is searched in a given text individually. This means that if we have k patterns to be searched, the algorithm must be repeated k times. Knuth-Morris-Pratt [18] and Boyer-Moore [6] are some of the most widely used single pattern matching algorithms. Knuth-Morris-Pratt is able to skip characters when a mismatch occurs in the comparison phase using a partial-match table for each pattern. Each table is built by preprocessing every pattern separately. Boyer-Moore is the most widely used single-pattern algorithm. Its execution time can be sublinear if the suffix of the string to be searched for appears infrequently in the input stream, due to the skipping heuristics that it uses.

Multi-pattern string matching algorithms search for a set of patterns in a body of text simultaneously. This is achieved by preprocessing the set of patterns and building an automaton that will be used in the matching phase to scan the text. The automaton can be thought of as a state machine that is represented as a trie, a table or a combination of the two. Each character of the text will be searched only once. Multi-pattern matching scales much better than algorithms that search for each pattern individually. Multi-pattern string matching algorithms include Aho-Corasick [1], Wu-Manber [36] and Commentz-Walter [10].

Most Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS) use finite automata and regular expressions [26, 24, 16] to match patterns. Coit *et al.* [9] improved the performance of Snort by combining the Aho-Corasick keyword trie with the skipping feature of the Boyer-Moore algorithm. Fisk and Vaghese enhance the Boyer-Moore-Horspool algorithm to simultaneously match a set of rules. The new algorithm, called Set-wise Boyer-Moore-Horspool [15], was shown to be faster than both Aho-Corasick and Boyer-Moore for sets with less than 100 patterns. Tuck *et al.* [31] optimized the Aho-Corasick algorithm by applying bitmap node and path compression.

Snort from version 2.6 and onwards uses only flavors of the Aho-Corasick for exact-match pattern detection. Specifically, it contains a variety of implementations that are differentiated by the type of the finite automaton they use (NFA or DFA), and the storage format they use to keep it in memory (full, sparse, banded, trie, *etc.*). It should be mentioned, however, that the best performance is achieved with the full version that uses a deterministic finite automaton (DFA) at the cost of high memory utilization [30].

To speed-up the inspection process, many IDS implementations are based on specialized hardware. By using content addressable memory (CAM), which is suitable to perform parallel comparison for its contents against the input value, they are very well suited for use in intrusion detection systems [37, 38]. However they have a high cost per bit.

Many reconfigurable architectures have been implemented for intrusion detection. Most approaches involve building an automaton for a string to be

searched, generating a specialized hardware circuit using gates and flip-flops for the automaton, and then instantiating multiple such automata in the reconfigurable chip to search the streaming data in parallel. However, the circuit implemented on the FPGA to perform the string matching is designed based on the underlying hardware architecture to adjust to a given specific rule set. To adjust to a new rule set, one must program a new circuit (usually in a hardware description language), which is then compiled down through the use of CAD tools. Any changes in the rule set requires the recompilation, regeneration of the automaton, resynthesis, replacement and routing of the circuits which is a time consuming and difficult procedure.

Sidhu and Prasanna implemented a regular expression matching architecture for FPGAs [28]. Baker *et al.* also investigated efficient pattern matching as a signature based method [4]. In [13], the authors used hardware bloom filters to match multiple patterns against network packets at constant time. Attig *et al.* proposed a framework for packet header processing in combination with payload content scanning on FPGAs [3].

Several approaches attempt to reduce the amount of memory required to economically fit it in on-chip memory [4, 31, 14]. However, the on-chip hardware resource consumption grows linearly with the number of characters to be searched. In [29], the authors convert a string set into many tiny state machines, each of which searches for a portion of the strings and a portion of the bits of each string.

Other approaches involve the cooperation with network processors in order to pipeline the processing stages assigned to each hardware resource [8], as well as the entire implementation of an IDS on a network processor [5, 12]. Computer clusters have also been proposed to offload the workload of a single computer [19, 34, 33, 27]. The cost however remains high, since it requires multiple processors, a distribution network, and a clustered management system.

On the contrary, modern GPUs have low design cost while their increased programmability makes them more flexible than ASICs. Most graphic cards manufacturers provide high-level APIs that offer high programming capabilities and are further ensure forward compatibility for future releases, in contrast with most FPGA implementations that are based on the underlying hardware architecture and need to be reconfigured whenever a change occurs in the rule set. Furthermore, their low design cost, the highly parallel computation and the potential that are usually underutilized, especially in hosts used for intrusion detection purposes, makes them suitable for use as an extra low-cost coprocessor for time-consuming problems, like pattern matching.

The work most related to ours is PixelSnort [17]. It is a port of the Snort IDS that offloads packet matching to an NVIDIA 6800GT. The GPU programming was complicated, since the 6800GT did not support a general purpose programming model for GPUs (as the G80 used in our work). The system encodes Snort rules and packets to textures and performs the string searching using the KMP algorithm on the 16 fragment shaders in parallel. However, PixelSnort *does not* achieve *any* speed-up under normal-load conditions. Furthermore, PixelSnort

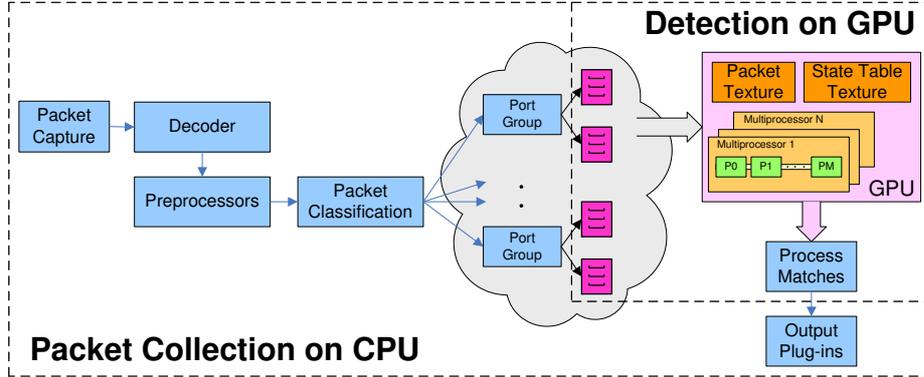


Fig. 1. Overall architecture of Gnort.

did not have any multi-pattern matching algorithms ported to GPU. This is a serious limitation since multi-pattern matching algorithms are the default for Snort. In a more recent work, Marziale *et al.* [20] evaluated the effectiveness of offloading the processing of a file carving tool to the GPU. The system was implemented on the G80 architecture and the results show that GPU support can substantially increase the performance of digital forensics software that relies on binary string search.

3 Architecture

The overall architecture of Gnort, which is based on the Snort NIDS, is shown in Figure 1. We can separate the architecture of our system in three different tasks: the transfer of the packets to the GPU, the pattern matching processing on the GPU, and finally the transfer of the results back to the CPU.

3.1 Transferring Packets to the GPU

The first thing to consider is how the packets will be transferred from the network interface to the memory space of the GPU. The simplest approach would be to transfer each packet directly to the GPU for processing. However, due to the overhead associated with a data transfer operation to the GPU, batching many small transfers into a larger one performs much better than making each transfer separately [23]. Thus, we have chosen to copy the packets to the GPU in batches.

Snort organizes the content signatures in groups, based on the source and destination port numbers of each rule. A separate detection engine instance is used to search for the patterns of a particular rule group. Table 1 shows the number of rules that come with the latest versions of Snort and are enabled by default, as well as the number of groups in which they are organized. We use a

separate buffer for temporarily storing the packets of each group. After a packet has been classified to a specific group, it is copied to the corresponding buffer. Whenever the buffer gets full, all packets are transferred to the GPU in one operation. In case a buffer is not yet full after 100ms, its packets are explicitly transferred to the GPU.

Snort version	# Groups	# Rules
2.6	249	7179
2.7	495	8719
2.8	495	8722

Table 1. Snort Data Structures.

The buffers are allocated as a special type of memory, called page-locked or “pinned down” memory. Page-locked memory is a physical memory area that does not map to the virtual address space, and thus cannot be swapped out to secondary storage. The use of pinned down memory results to higher data transfer throughput between the host and the device [23]. Furthermore, the copy from page-locked memory to the GPU is performed using DMA, without occupying the CPU. Thus, the CPU can continue working and collecting the next batch of packets at the same time the GPU is processing the packets of the previous batch.

To further improve parallelism, we use a double buffering scheme. When the first buffer becomes full, it is copied to a texture bounded array that can be read later by the GPU through the kernel invocation. While the GPU is performing pattern matching on the packets of the first buffer, the CPU will copy newly arrived packets in the second buffer.

3.2 Pattern Matching on the GPU

Once the packets have been transferred to the GPU, the next step is to perform the pattern matching operation. We have ported the Aho-Corasick algorithm [1] to run on the graphics card. The Aho-Corasick algorithm seems to be a perfect candidate for SIMD processors like a GPU. The algorithm iterates through all the bytes of the input stream and moves the current state to the next correct state using a state machine that has been previously constructed during initialization phase. The loop lacks any control flow instructions that would probably lead to thread divergence.

In our GPU implementation, the deterministic finite automaton (DFA) of the state machine is stored as a two-dimensional array. The dimensions of the array are equal to the number of states and the size of the alphabet (256 in our case), respectively, and each cell consists of four bytes. The first two bytes contain the next state to move, while the other two contain an indication whether the state is a final state or not. In case the state is final, the corresponding cell will

contain the unique identification number (*ID*) of the matching pattern, otherwise zero. A drawback of this structure is that state machine tables will be sparsely populated, containing a significant number of zero elements and only a few non-zero elements. However, the use of more efficient storage structures, like those proposed in [22], are much more complex to map in the memory space of a GPU.

During the initialization phase, the state machine table of each rule group is constructed in host memory by the CPU, and is then copied to texture memory that is accessible directly from the GPU. At the searching phase, all state machine tables reside only in GPU memory. The use of GPU texture memory instead of generic GPU memory has the benefit that memory fetches are cached. A cache hit consumes only one cycle, instead of several hundreds in case of transfers from generic device memory. Since the Aho-Corasick algorithm exhibits strong locality of references [12], the use of texture memory for storing the state machine tables boosts GPU execution time about 19%.

We have implemented two different parallelization methods for the Aho-Corasick searching phase. In the first, each packet is splitted into fixed equal parts and each thread searches each portion of the packet in parallel. In the second, each thread is assigned a whole packet to search in parallel. Both techniques have advantages and disadvantages that will be discussed in Section 4.

3.3 Transferring the Results to the CPU

Every time a thread matches a pattern inside a packet, it reports it by appending it in an array that has been previously allocated in the device memory. The reports for each packet will be written in a separate row of the array, following the order they were copied to the texture memory. That means that the array will have the same number of rows as the number of packets contained in the batch. Each report is constituted by the *ID* of the pattern that was matched and the index inside the packet where it was found.

After the pattern matching execution has finished, the array that contains the matching pairs is copied to the host memory. Before raising an alert for each matching pair, the following extra cases should be examined in case they apply:

- *Case-sensitive patterns.* Since Aho-Corasick cannot distinguish between capital and low letters, an extra, case-sensitive, search should be made at the index where the pattern was found.
- *Offset-oriented rules.* Some patterns must be located in specific locations inside the payload of the packet, in order for the rule to be activated. For example, it is possible to look for a specified pattern within the first 5 bytes of the payload. Such ranges are specified in Snort with special keywords, like **offset**, **depth**, **distance**, etc. The index where the match was found is compared against the offset to argue if the match is valid or not.
- *Patterns with common suffix.* It is possible that if two patterns have the same suffix will also share the same final state in the state machine. Thus, for each pattern, we keep an extra list that contains the “suffix-related” *IDs* in the structure that holds its attributes. If this list is not empty for a matching

pattern, the patterns that contained in the list have to be verified to find the actual matching pattern.

4 Implementation

We have implemented Gnort on the GeForce 8 Series architecture using CUDA. NVIDIA states that programs developed for the GeForce 8 series will also work without modification on all future NVIDIA video cards.

To facilitate concurrent execution between the host and the device, we associate GPU execution into streams. A *stream* is a sequence of operations that execute in order. It is created by the host and in our case includes the copying of the packets to the device memory, the kernel launch, and the transfer of the results back to the host memory. While the stream is executing, the CPU is able to collect the next batch of packets. The CPU work includes the execution flow of Snort to capture, decode, and classify the incoming packets, as well as the extra packet copies to the page-locked memory buffer that we have introduced.

The page-locked memory buffers that are used to collect the packets in batches are allocated by the CUDA runtime driver. The driver tracks the relevant virtual memory ranges and automatically accelerates calls to functions that are used to copy data to the device. The copying of the buffers to the device is asynchronous and is associated to the stream. The device memory where the packets are copied is bound to a texture reference of type `unsigned char` and dimensionality 2. Texture fetches are cached using a proprietary 2D caching scheme and cost only one clock cycle when a cache hit occurs; otherwise a fetch can take 400 to 600 clock cycles. The cache size for texture fetches is 8 KB per multiprocessor. Only the packet payloads are copied to the device, and each payload is stored in a separate row of fixed size. The actual length of the payload is stored in the first two bytes of the row.

The state machine tables that are used for each group of rules are stored in a texture reference of type `unsigned short` and dimensionality 2. CUDA does not support dynamic allocation of textures yet. To overcome this limitation, all state table arrays are copied to the device at start-up and each of them is dynamically bound to the texture reference, every time a batch of packets have to be matched against.

Once the packets have been copied to the texture bound array, the kernel is initiated by the host to perform the pattern matching. The 8-Series (G8X)—as well as the 9-Series (G9X) which was recently released—contain many independent multiprocessors, each comprising eight processors that run on a SIMD fashion. However, every multiprocessor has an independent instruction decoder, so they can run different instructions.

The Aho-Corasick algorithm performs multi-pattern search, which means that all patterns of a group are searched concurrently. We have explored two different approaches for parallelizing the searching phase by splitting the computation in two ways: assigning a single packet to each multiprocessor at a time,

and assigning a single packet to each stream processor at a time. The two approaches are illustrated in Figure 2.

4.1 Assigning a Single Packet to each Multiprocessor

In this approach, each packet is processed by a specific thread block, executed by one multiprocessor. The number of threads in the thread block that search the packet payload is fixed and equal to the warp size (currently 32). Even though each multiprocessor consists of eight stream processors, the warp size ensures that the multiprocessor’s computational resources are maximized by hiding arithmetic pipeline and memory delays.

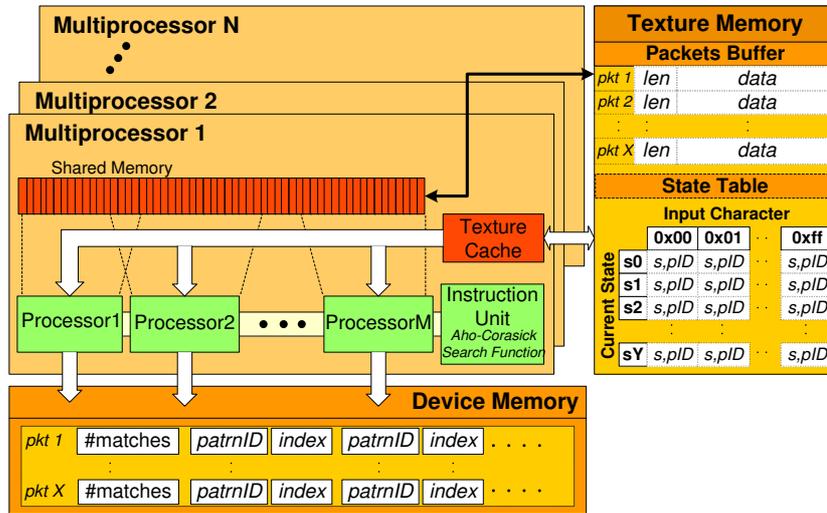
Each thread searches a different part of the packet, and thus the packet is divided in 32 equal chunks. The 32 chunks of the packet are processed by the 32 threads of the wrap in parallel. To correctly handle matching patterns that span consecutive chunks of the packet, each thread searches in additional X bytes after the chunk it was assigned to search, where X is the maximum pattern length in the state table. To reduce further communication costs due to the overlapping computations, each packet is also copied to the shared memory of the multiprocessor (besides the texture memory)—all threads copy a different chunk in parallel, so this additional copy does not add significant overhead.

An advantage of this method is that all threads are assigned the same amount of work, so execution does not diverge, which would hinder the SIMD execution. Moreover, the texture cache is entirely used for the state tables, as shown in Figure 2(a). A drawback of this approach is that extra processing is needed for the chunk overlaps, especially in case of small packets.

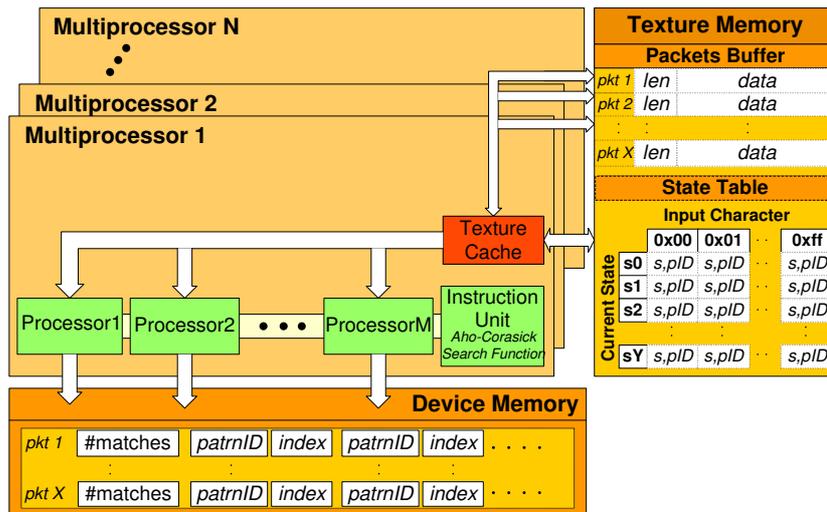
4.2 Assigning a Single Packet to each Stream Processor

In this approach, each packet is processed by a different thread. The number of blocks that are created is equal to the number of multiprocessors the GPU has, so all are working. Each thread block processes X/N packets using an equal number of threads, where X is the number of packets in the batch sent to the GPU, and N is the number of multiprocessors. However, the maximum number of threads that can be created per block is currently 512. So if the number of threads per thread block is greater, more thread blocks are created to keep the number of threads under this limit. The disadvantage of this method is that the amount of work per thread will not be the same since packet sizes will vary. This means that threads of a warp will have to wait until all have finished searching the packet that was assigned to them. However, no additional computation will occur since every packet will be processed in isolation.

Whenever a match occurs, regardless of the implementation used, the corresponding ID of the pattern and the index where the match was found are stored in an array allocated in device memory. Each row of the array contain the matches that were found per packet. We use the first position of each row as a counter to know where to put the next match. Every time a match occurs, the corresponding thread increments the counter and writes the report where



(a) Packet per multiprocessor.



(b) Packet per stream processor.

Fig. 2. Different pattern matching parallelization approaches. In (a), a different packet is processed by each multiprocessor. All stream processors in the multiprocessor search the packet payload concurrently. In (b), a different packet is processed by each stream processor independently of the others.

the counter points to. The increment is performed using an atomic function supplied by CUDA, to overcome possible race conditions for the first parallelization method.

5 Evaluation

In this section, we explore the performance of our implementation. First, we measure the scalability of the various algorithms for different number of patterns and packet sizes, and how they affect overall performance. We then examine how these algorithms perform in a realistic scenario as a function of the traffic load.

In our experiments we used an NVIDIA GeForce 8600GT card, which contains 32 stream processors organized in 4 multiprocessors, operating at 1.2GHz with 512 MB of memory. The CPU in our system was a 3.40 GHz Intel Pentium 4 processor with 2 GB of memory.

In order to directly compare with prior work, we re-implemented the KMP algorithm on the NVIDIA G80 GPU architecture using CUDA. In our implementation, the patterns to be searched, and the partial-match tables that KMP uses, are stored in two 2D texture arrays. Each packet is assigned to a different thread block, while each thread in a block is responsible for searching a specific pattern in the entire packet. This way, each warp of threads performs pattern matching against each packet in parallel, as long as the number of patterns is equal with the number of processors. If the number of patterns is greater than 512, the pattern matching is bundled in groups of 512 patterns each time, due to the limitation of the 512 threads that can be created per block.

We also did a GPU implementation of the Boyer-Moore algorithm, which performs better than KMP. The patterns to be searched, as well as the bad-character shift tables, are stored in two 2D texture arrays similarly to the KMP implementation. Each packet is assigned to a different thread block, while each thread in a block is responsible for searching a specific pattern in the whole packet.

For all experiments conducted, we disregard the time spent in the initialization phase of Snort as well as the logging of the alerts to the disk. Even though it only takes less than just a few seconds to load the patterns and build its internal structures in all cases, there is no practical need to include this time in our graphs. For all experiments we measure the performance of the default Snort using the full Aho-Corasick implementation. We conducted experiments with other implementations as well, however they performed worse in every case. Some information on the different implementations of Aho-Corasick that Snort uses can be found in [30].

5.1 Microbenchmarks

We start by investigating the effect that the size of the batch of packets that are transferred to the GPU has on the overall system performance. We used a synthetic payload trace that contains 1344330 UDP packets with random payload,

Buffer size (# packets)	Transfer time (ms)
4	0.035547
32	0.008218
512	0.004626
1024	0.004472
4096	0.004326
32768	0.004296

Table 2. Transfer times per packet as a function of the buffer size for 800-bytes packets.

each 800 bytes in length. The detection engine was disabled, so no execution would take place on the GPU. This way, we measured the time needed for the packets to be transferred to the device in batches using the double buffer technique described in Section 3. The times include the capture, decode and classification phases performed by Snort as well as the copying of each packet to our buffer. Table 2 shows the time needed for a packet to be copied to the memory of the device for various buffer sizes. We can see that the cost per packet increased as the size of the buffer decreased. For bigger sizes the cost remained somewhat constant. This may be due to the PCI startup overhead of each transaction. As the size of the buffer increases, the number of transactions decreases, resulting in lower startup overheads. For all subsequent experiments we used a buffer of 1024 packets size, which we think is optimal considering the available memory of the host computer we used for the evaluation.

In the next experiment we evaluated how each detection algorithm scales with the number of patterns. We created Snort rules of randomly generated patterns which size varied between 5 and 25 bytes and gave as input to Snort a payload trace that contains UDP packets with random payload, each of 800 bytes in length. All rules are matched against every packet. This is the worst case scenario for a pattern matching engine, as in most cases each packet has to be checked only against a few hundred rules. Figures 3 and 4 show the maximum throughput achieved for single- and multi-pattern matching algorithms respectively, to perform string searches through rule-sets of sizes 10 up to 4000 rules. As shown in Figure 3, single pattern algorithms do not scale as the rule-set size increases. Performance of the CPU implementations of both KMP and BM decreases linearly with the number of patterns. KMP achieves nearly 100 Mbit/s for 10 patterns but its performance for 4000 patterns drops under 1 Mbit/s. BM presents better results but still for a large number of patterns it can only achieve up to 5 Mbit/s. The GPU implementation of these algorithms boosts their performance by up to an order of magnitude. For the case of 50, 100 and 250 patterns we can see that GPU versions of algorithms are an order of magnitude faster than the CPU ones, while for the case of 4000 patterns the improvement reaches a factor of 3.

An interesting observation is that the throughput of the GPU implementations for both KMP and BM remained constant for up to 100 patterns. Even

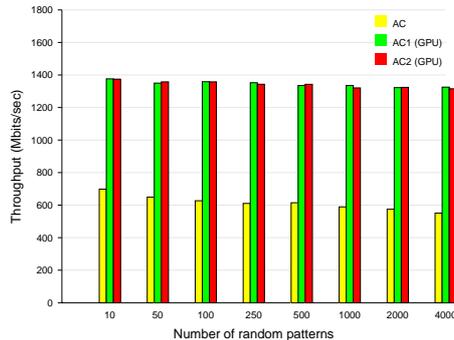
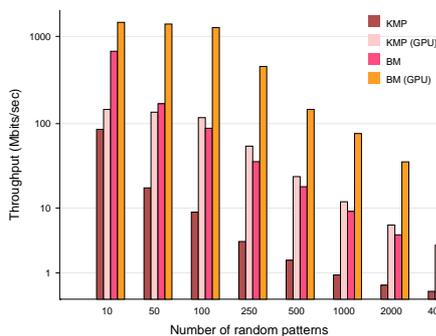


Fig. 3. Throughput sustained for single-pattern matching algorithms.

Fig. 4. Throughput sustained for multiple-pattern matching algorithms.

though there are 32 processors available, the thread scheduler can pipeline threads execution to effectively utilizes available resources. To verify it, we changed the kernels to return immediately performing a null computation and we observed the same behavior. Performance of the system remained constant for up to 100 patterns and then began decreasing linearly.

In the case of Aho-Corasick algorithm, the throughput remains constant independently of the number of patterns, a behavior expected for a multi-pattern approach. The results are shown in Figure 4. For the CPU implementation, Aho-Corasick achieves nearly 600 Mbit/s throughput, while the GPU implementation reaches up to 1.4 Gbit/s, yielding a 2.4 times improvement. Our two different approaches for implementing Aho-Corasick (displayed as AC1 and AC2 in the graph) do not present significant differences in performance.

Figures 5 and 6 show the throughput achieved for various UDP packet sizes. Snort was loaded with 1000 random patterns which size varied between 5 and 25 bytes. Each packet contains random data, a property that favors the BM algorithm as it will skip most of the payload. CPU implementations of KMP and BM presented a stable performance of around 1 and 10 Mbit/s respectively, independently of the packet size. Their GPU implementations yield a speedup from 2 up to 10 times. The throughput of Aho-Corasick reached over 2.3 Gbit/s for 1500-byte packets, giving a total speed-up of 3.2 compared to the respective CPU implementation. It is important to notice that it is worthless to process small packets on GPU. As it can be seen in Figure 6, for small packet sizes (under 100), the CPU implementation performs better than the GPU. However, for sizes larger than 100 bytes, the GPU implementation outperforms the CPU one in all cases.

5.2 Macrobenchmarks

In this section we present the evaluation of our prototype implementation using real rules from the current Snort rule set on real network traffic. Our experimen-

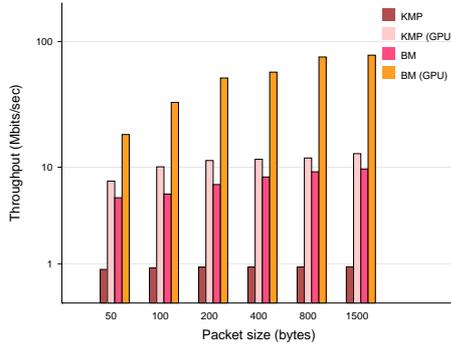


Fig. 5. Throughput sustained for single-

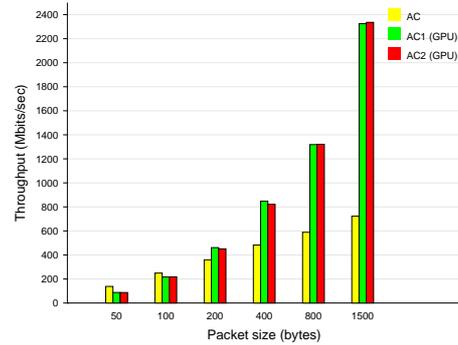


Fig. 6. Throughput sustained for multiple-pattern matching algorithms.

tal environment consists of two PCs connected via a 1 Gbit/s Ethernet switch. The first PC is equipped with a NVIDIA GeForce 8600GT card and runs our modified version of Snort, while the second is used for replaying real network traffic traces using tcpreplay [32]. We used a full payload trace captured at the access link that connects an educational network with thousands of hosts to the Internet. By rewriting the source and destination MAC addresses in all packets, the generated traffic can be sent to the first PC.

We ran Snort with a custom configuration in which preprocessors and regular expression pattern matching were disabled, as both processes are executed only on the CPU. Snort loaded 5467 rules that contain about 7878 content patterns.

Figure 7 shows the packet loss ratio while replaying the trace at different speeds for two versions of pcap: the default one [21] and the pcap-mmap [35]. The pcap-mmap is a modified version of libpcap that implements a shared memory ring buffer to store captured packets. In this fashion user-space applications are able to read them directly, without trapping to kernel mode and copying them to a user buffer. The use of pcap-mmap gave both unmodified Snort and our system an increase of 50 to 100 Mbit/s to the overall performance. We can see that conventional Snort cannot process all packets in rates higher than 300 Mbit/s, so a significant percentage of packets is being lost. On the other hand, our GPU-assisted Snort is twice as fast as the original one. Packet loss for our approach starts at 600 Mbit/s, a 200% improvement to the processing capacity of Snort. The two different GPU implementations of the Aho-Corasick algorithm achieve almost the same performance. For completeness, in Figure 8, we plot the corresponding CPU utilization. Packet loss starts when CPU reaches 100% utilization.

Figure 9 plots the packets dropped by the kernel when CPU was overloaded synthetically. We used a simple program in an infinite tight loop, performing basic math operations to increase CPU usage to 100%. Snort was executing simultaneously. We observe that the performance decreased even when the matching process was executing on GPU. This can be explained by the fact that as the

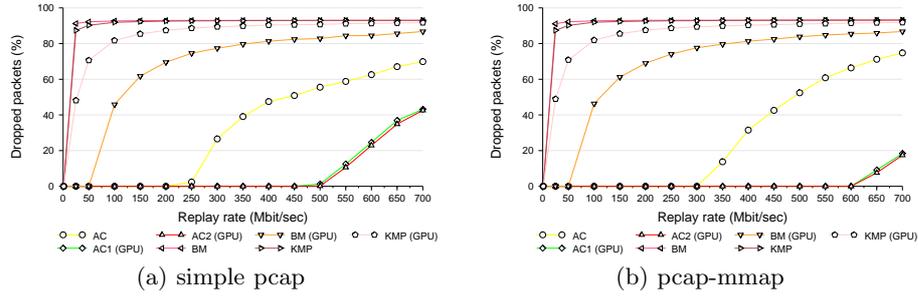


Fig. 7. Packet loss ratio as a function of the traffic speed.

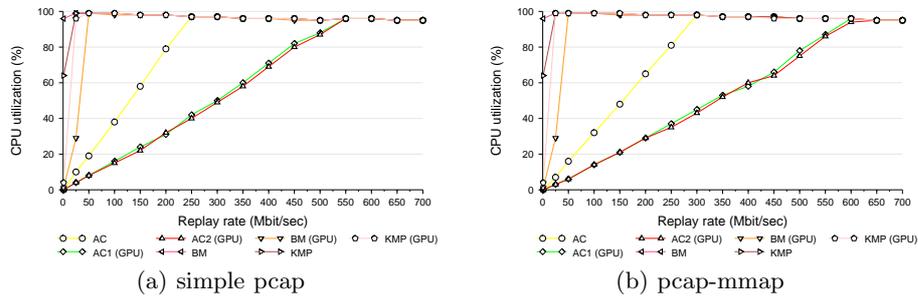


Fig. 8. CPU utilization as a function of the traffic speed.

CPU controls the execution of the GPU, by overloading the former the execution flow is affected directly. However, performance degradation did not converge to that of default Snort, in contrast with [17].

6 Conclusions

In this paper, we presented Gnort, an intrusion detection system that utilizes the GPU to offload pattern matching computation. We ported the classic Aho-Corasick algorithm to run on the GPU exploiting the SIMD instructions. Our prototype system was able to achieve a maximum throughput of 2.3 Gbit/s, while in a real world scenario outperformed conventional Snort by a factor of two.

As future work we plan on eliminating the extra copy we introduced in order to transfer the packets to the GPU in batches. One way to accomplish this, is to transfer the packets directly from the kernel buffer. This would require that the buffer will be allocated from the application and will be shared between the user and kernel spaces. We believe that by modifying the pcap-mmap, that already implements this shared buffer capability, we can benefit from the lack of copies of both from kernel to user space as well as the one to our defined buffer. An even more efficient way would be to DMA directly the packets from the NIC to

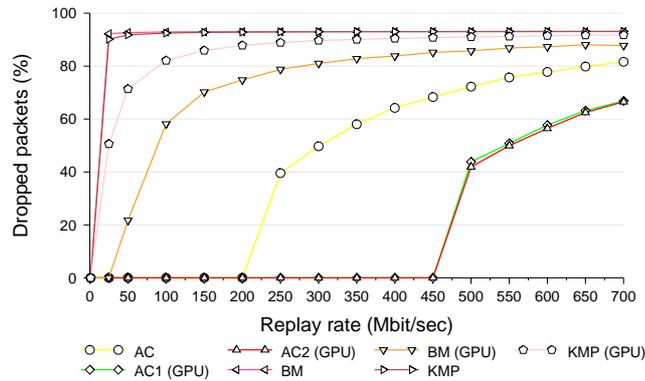


Fig. 9. Packet loss ratio as a function of the traffic speed under heavy CPU load.

the GPU, without occupying the CPU at all. Currently, this is not supported but it may be in the future.

Finally, we plan on utilizing multiple GPUs instead of a single one. Modern motherboards support dual GPUs, and there are PCI Express backplanes that support multiple slots. We believe that building such “clusters” of GPUs will be able to support multiple Gigabit per second Intrusion Detection Systems.

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