Scheduling Small Packets in IPSec Multi-accelerator Based Systems

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Abstract-IPSec is a suite of protocols that adds security to communications at the IP level. Protocols within the IPSec suite make extensive use of cryptographic algorithms. Since these algorithms are computationally very intensive, some hardware acceleration is needed to support high throughput. IPSec accelerator performance may heavily depend on the dimension of the packets to be processed. In fact, when packets are small, the time needed to transfer data and to set up the accelerators may exceed the one to process (e.g. to encrypt) the packets by software. In this paper we present a packet scheduling algorithm that tackles this problem. Packets belonging to the same Security Association are grouped before the transfer to the accelerators. Thus, the transfer and the initialization time have a lower influence on the total processing time of the packets. This algorithm also provides the capability of scheduling grouped packets over multiple cryptographic accelerators. High-level simulations of the scheduling algorithm have been performed and the results for a one-accelerator and for a two-accelerator system are also shown in this paper.

Index Terms—Cryptographic accelerators, packet scheduling algorithm, IPSec, small packets.

I. INTRODUCTION

IPSec is a suite of protocols that adds security to communications at the IP level. This suite of protocols is becoming more and more important as it is included as a mandatory security mechanism in IPv6. IPSec is mainly composed of two protocols: Authentication Header (AH) and Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP). The former allows authentication of each IP datagram's selected header fields or – depending on the operational mode that has been selected – of the entire IP datagram. The latter allows encryption (and optionally authentication) of the entire IP datagram or of the IP payload, depending on the operational mode that has been selected, namely the transport and the tunnel modes. The former was designed for use in host machines, the latter for secure gateways. In tunnel mode, the entire original IP datagram is processed;

the result becoming the data payload of a new IP datagram with a new IP header. In transport mode, only parts of the original IP datagram are processed (e.g., the data payload for the ESP protocol) and the original IP header is kept with some small modifications. Through encryption, authentication, and other security mechanisms included in IPSec (e.g., anti-reply), data confidentiality, data authentication, and the peer's identity authentication can be provided [1]–[3]. The concept of Security Association (SA) is fundamental to IPSec. A Security Association is a simplex "connection" that supplies security services to the traffic carried by it. To secure typical bi-directional communication between two peers, two SAs (one in each direction) are required. Security services are afforded to a SA by the use of AH, or ESP, but not both. Security association establishment can be performed through a protocol named Internet Key Exchange (IKE) [4].

IPSec is gaining importance as it is often used to create Virtual Private Networks (VPNs). A VPN is an extension of a private network on a public network (e.g., the Internet) [5], [6].

IPSec has been proven to be very computationally intensive [7]–[9]. Thus, some hardware acceleration is needed to support large network bandwidths, as may be required even in small secure gateways. The use of mixed hardware-software solutions for this, especially in low-end systems, has become a common practice in the last few years [10], [11], since it provides flexibility and performance.

It is also known that the encryption process might be inefficient for small IP packets. Some performance measurements for small packet processing are shown in [7]. This problem cannot be neglected; as matter of fact, according to an analysis of Cooperatives Association for Internet Data Analysis (CAIDA), the most probable size of Internet packets is around 40 bytes [12].

This work is based on [13] and [14]. The former presents a scheduling algorithm allowing distributing packet processing over multiple crypto-accelerators and the CPU (running a software implementation of the same cryptographic algorithms). The latter extends the scheduler to support quality of service (QoS). In these papers,

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Fig. 1. Model used in simulations.

no specific solutions for the small packets problem is presented.

In this work, we investigate the effects of small packets on system performance and we propose a solution to improve overall system efficiency. Our scheduler bundles small packets belonging to the same SAs to form bigger packets. This allows avoiding performance loss due to the transfer of small packets between memory and processors.

Section II describes the architecture of the considered system. Section III describes the scheduling algorithm. Finally, section IV presents the model for the simulations and the obtained results.

II. SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

The system considered here is composed of a host computer and a cryptographic accelerator connected to the normal system bus; a PCI bus (32bit, 66MHz) [15] is adopted here as an example. CPU-memory communication is performed on a faster bus, as in most modern personal computers. The network card is also connected to the faster CPU bus. Only cryptography-related operations are offloaded to the accelerator. This means that all IPSec header processing is done by the CPU. Pieces of data to be processed are stored in main memory and each processor loads them in its local memory by using DMA.

This is only a sample architecture we use to test the properties of our scheduling algorithm. Higher throughput systems should use different system architectures.

III. THE SLIDING WINDOW SCHEDULING Algorithm

In the envisioned architecture, each processor (CPU or hardware accelerator) can support different sets of algorithms and different processing speeds. A common interface (i.e., an API) is therefore required to allow uniform access to all the cryptographic devices. This common interface should also allow access to the software implementations of the cryptographic algorithms. The scheduler runs on the CPU.

In this section, we present the assumptions on which our scheduling algorithm is based and their motivations, the scheduling algorithm, and some limitations of our approach.

A. Assumptions

Our algorithm is based on two fundamental characteristics. The first one is that the processing time for



Fig. 2. Sliding Window schema

packets is known (at least approximately) in advance. This is true for symmetric-key cryptographic algorithms which are normally used within the IPSec context: their processing time only depends on the number of data blocks to be processed. The only exception is for software implementations of these algorithms: in this case the computation time may vary depending on the current CPU load. The second characteristic is that each packet can be processed independently from the others (i.e., there are no data dependencies between different packets). This comes from IPSec specifications: each packet must carry any data required for its processing [3]. How to obtain data independency among packets for AES is shown in [16].

B. Description of the Algorithm

Our algorithm is based on two ideas: to allocate the packets to be processed on the processor (the CPU or the accelerator) that can provide the shortest processing time, and to bundle together packets belonging to the same SAs. These bundles are sent to the selected processors, thus avoiding multiple DMA setups and algorithm initialization phases.

One key concept of this algorithm is the use of a *sliding window* over the incoming data. As shown in Figure 2, the sliding window provides a way to observe a specific-size part of the input data stream. This allows to group packets into *multi-packets* thus providing the possibility to send them to the processors in a single transfer. The sliding window allows to analyze the packets by comparing their SA identifiers:

- 1) the SA identifier of the first packet in the window is taken as a reference;
- 2) the SA identifiers of the incoming packets are compared with the reference one:
 - a) the packets having the same identifier as the reference one are grouped together to form a *multi-packet*;
 - b) if no packets with the same identifier as the reference one are found, the multi-packet is composed of the the first packet only;
- once the window is full or a certain timeout expires, the multi-packet is sent for processing;
- 4) when multi-packets are formed and sent, the related single packets are removed from the queue; packets remaining in the queue are then rearranged (arrival order is preserved) and re-processed through the mechanism described in the previous points.

From an implementation stand point, the sliding window is just a modification of the scheduler's input queue. A new system parameter needs to be considered: the sliding window size, W. This parameter needs to be tuned depending on the considered system and on network traffic characteristics. The scheduler processes each multipacket as follows:

- the *finishing time* for each of these processors is computed; the *finishing time* is defined as the sum of the *waiting time* and of the *processing time* of the packet scheduled on the considered processor;
- the packet is scheduled to the processor with the lowest finishing time. When all of the queues are empty, new tasks are scheduled to the first fastest accelerator. Each accelerator processes the assigned packets in FIFO order.

The equation to compute the *finishing time* for each processor i (where i = 0 is the CPU and i = 1 is the accelerator) is as follows:

$$f_i = w_i + p_i, \quad i = \{0, 1\} \tag{1}$$

where w_i is the waiting time and the p_i is the processing time of the examined packet. $p_i = p_i (b_{data})$ is a function of the packet dimension. The *waiting time* is defined as the sum of the processing time of all the packets contained in the related queue, the *time in queue*, q_i , and of the *residual processing time*, r_i , of the packet being processed at that time by the processor:

$$w_i = w_i(t) = q_i(t) + r_i(t)$$
 (2)

In detail, we have the *time in queue* expressed by:

$$q_i = q_i\left(t\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} c_{in} \tag{3}$$

that is the sum of the computation time c_{in} , at time t, for the related queue i of dimension N. The q_i value can be efficiently updated each time a datagram goes in or out of a queue by a simple addition or subtraction, respectively.

The residual processing time r_i represents the residual computation time to complete the packet that is currently being processed. r_i can be computed as follows:

$$r_{i} = r_{i}^{j}(t) = c_{i}^{j} - \left(t - t_{i}^{j}\right)$$
(4)

Where c_i^j is the overall computation time required by the packet j, and t_i^j is the time at which the computation has started.

Once the cryptographic algorithms to be applied to a packet are known, the *processing time* for this packet can be computed by using formulas corresponding to the considered cryptographic algorithm; formula parameters depend on the characteristics of each processor. These characteristics can be provided by the manufacturer, or determined through simple speed tests. An example of a formula used to compute processing time is provided in Section IV-A.

1) Algorithm Limitations: As stated earlier, this algorithm has been designed to process IPSec packets only with the assumptions given in Section III-A. For a heterogeneous protocol environment our algorithm may have to be modified. This would be the case if, for example, the TLS protocol [17] also needed to be supported. In fact different TLS packets may exhibit data interdependency. Since our target system is a secure gateway, the situation in which IPSec and TLS are required to coexist should not be very common. TLS works above TCP and it would not make much sense having it on a gateway.

The sliding window mechanism proposed is strongly connected with network traffic characteristics and may increase processing latency of the packets. In applications where latency is important (e.g., real time network streams) the W parameter needs to be tuned in a proper way (typically small values need to be selected for these applications). In addition other mechanisms such as a timeout on the sliding window might be applied.

The algorithm presented above cannot guarantee the processing order of the packets. This is not a problem for IPSec per se.

IV. SIMULATIONS

To validate our algorithm and evaluate its performance, we developed a queue-based model. Model simulations and results are now presented. The SystemC language [18] was selected to describe our model as it allows for specification of hardware-software systems. Delays associated with the performed operations can be easily modeled with this language.

A. Description of the Model

The SystemC model used to describe our algorithm represents the queues of the cryptographic architecture and the flow of cryptographic requests related to IPSec packets. We are therefore not interested in specific operations performed on data, but only on their delays. A representation of the model is shown in Figure 1.

Among all possible conflicts and delays due to communication between the architectural components, we only considered bus contention. RAM contention and other necessary communications between the CPU and the accelerator have been ignored. Providing a highly accurate performance estimation of the considered system is in fact beyond the scope of this work; our main goal is to prove that our algorithm works as desired. Ignoring RAM contention should not introduce a too coarse approximation, since in the system considered, the RAM access is much faster than the access to system bus.

A bus contention mechanism, simplified with respect to the PCI standard, has been modeled here. Access to the bus is given to each of the processors which have requested it, one at a time, in the same order as it has been requested. Bus transfer time (that is also the bus lock time) is computed as:

$$t_{bus} = t_{bus\ cycle} (c_{address} + \lceil l_{data}/b \rceil) \tag{5}$$

where: t_{bus_cycle} is the bus cycle period (i.e., $10^{-6}/66$); $c_{address}$ is the time needed to assert the address (1 bus cycle for PCI in DMA mode); l_{data} is the length of the piece of data to be transferred (measured in bytes) and b is the number of bytes that are transferred in each cycle (here we consider b = 4).

In our model, we decided to use AES encryption as the only available operation both in hardware and in software. Time for decryption, depending on the selected algorithm, may differ; for AES, encryption and decryption time can be very similar, depending on the implementation. To compute the delays of the AES encryption operation, we considered a formula that can be applied to all cipherblock algorithms working on 16-byte blocks:

$$t_{enc} = t_{init} + t_{block} \times \lceil b_{data} / 16 \rceil \tag{6}$$

where: t_{init} is the algorithm initialization time and t_{block} is the time needed to encrypt a 16-byte data block.

In our model, we considered a modified version of Equation 6 allowing for CPU processing rate variability. Here follows the modified version of the equation:

$$t_{enc} = T_{init-ratio} * t_{init} + T_{enc-ratio} * t_{block} \times \lceil b_{data}/16 \rceil$$
(7)

where: $T_{init-ratio}$ is the ratio between the encryption/decryption initialization time of the CPU and the one of the accelerator; $T_{enc-ratio}$ is the ratio between the encryption/decryption processing time of the CPU and the one of the accelerator. These two parameters allow defining the CPU processing rate relative to the accelerator one. Both $T_{init-ratio}$ and $T_{enc-ratio}$ are 1 for the reference accelerator.

Mainly, the sliding window modifies the average packet dimension in the system datapath. The number of times it creates merged packets highly depends on network traffic characteristics. Information about packets inter departure/arrival time was neglected as we considered the worst possible case, i.e., no delay between arrival of the packets. We therefore simulated a nominal network rate of 1 Gbit/s. Moreover, we focused only on the distribution of the dimension of the packets and their SA parameters.

In order to study the effects of the dimension of the packets on our model, we adopted seven different traffic patterns, each one composed of 500,000 samples. Two patterns are based on exponential and uniform statistic distributions; another four patterns are of data payload fixed dimension: 0, 24, 472, and 984 bytes. Inside these patterns a random distribution of 100 SAs were considered. Besides these patterns, we also used a real network trace file provided on the Internet Traffic Archive [19] website. Files provided by ITA contain long traces obtained by using the *tcpdump* tool [20] on various networks. We considered a trace taken from a 2Mbit/s gateway and containing about 3 million TCP packets. For our simulations, we decided to use only 500,000 of these packets to avoid having overly long simulations. The only parameter we took from the considered tracefile was packet dimension, ignoring timestamps. Table I shows the parameters of this trace and of the exponential and

TABLE I PATTERN PARAMETERS IN BYTES.

		TT 10	
	Exponential	Uniform	Trace
range:	[20-7,065]	[0-1,960]	[0-1,460]
average:	471	976	256
median:	326	-	162
std. dev.:	470	565	259

uniform patterns. In this case, SAs were associated to the destination IP address. This could be considered a kind of worst case estimation for gateway machines.

As our target is a gateway-like machine, in our simulation we processed the packets as if ESP in tunnel mode was being used. We incremented the packet size read from the tracefiles by 40 (40 bytes is the size of a normal TCP/IPv4 packet header) since the sizes contained both in ITA and in artificially generated files are the ones of data payloads only.

We chose to have accelerators capable of processing a data traffic of roughly 230Mbit/s each. The processing capability of the CPU was varied from 32Mbit/s to 230Mbit/s, being the first value similar to the one that can be obtained on a Pentium III [9]. Even if a more powerful CPU is used, it also has to execute, among other operations, IPSec header processing and TCP/IP packet processing, and to run the packet scheduler. Thus only a fraction of the overall computational capacity can be dedicated to running cryptographic algorithms. We should also remember that multi-GHz Pentium class CPUs are not able to process normal TCP/IP multi-Gbit/s traffic by themselves [21]. Therefore other form of hardware acceleration may be needed in large bandwidth systems.

B. Simulation Results

In this section, we show the results obtained and compare them with the ones obtained by considering a system where the basic scheduling algorithm shown in [13] is adopted. Considered sliding window dimensions (W) are of 10 and 30. Both the results related to a system equipped with one accelerator and with two accelerators are shown in this section.

1) System With One Accelerator: The average number of multi-packets per window that have been obtained for W = 30 is 2.57 for the real trace and 1.33 for all other patterns. The latter has been obtained by considering 100 equiprobable SAs.

The relative number of packets processed by the CPU for a system with a sliding window dimension (W) of 30 is shown in Figure 3. This figure shows the results obtained by considering the $T_{enc-ratio}$ parameter of the CPU to be 1, 3, 5, and 7; $T_{init-ratio}$ was instead fixed to 3. CPU usage decreases for increasing values of $T_{enc-ratio}$ and it does it faster for fix dimension patterns.

Figure 4 shows the average size of the packets processed by the CPU, the average size of the packets processed by the accelerator, and the average size of the packets that are scheduled for processing. Multipackets are included in this computation. As shown by



Fig. 3. Percentage of packets processed by the CPU; W = 30.



Fig. 4. Comparison of the average length of the packets processed by the accelerator with the average length of the ones processed by the CPU and average length of the packets that are scheduled (i.e. of the multi-packets).

this figure, the scheduler always tries to assign multipackets to the accelerator. Small packets are usually sent to the CPU, especially when it is considerably slower than the accelerator. In the same graph, the variation of the mean value is also shown. This variation is bigger on the accelerator than on the CPU. Thus, the accelerator processes packets of very different lengths, but big ones are preferred over the smaller ones.

Figure 5 shows the relative number of packets allotted to the CPU with W = 10 and W = 30; considered reference case is the one without the sliding window mechanism.

The sliding window system improves the overall system throughput as shown in Figure 6. The results obtained prove the efficiency of our algorithm to reduce the effects of small packet processing. The greater throughput increment is for small packets. We have to consider that with bigger patterns, processing capacity of the processors are saturated. This is due to the fact that an overloaded system is considered (network rate is 1Gbit/s, while processing capability is of 500Mbit/s). In any case, throughput decreases for increasing values of the $T_{enc-ratio}$; this is due to the fact that the processing capability of the CPU is decreasing accordingly.



Fig. 5. Relative number of packets processed by the CPU. CPU parameters: $T_{init-ratio} = 3$; $T_{enc-ratio} = 3$.



Fig. 6. Relative throughput. CPU parameters: $T_{init-ratio} = 3$; $T_{enc-ratio} = 3$.

Average processing latency represents the average time elapsing between when a packet is scheduled and when its processing is completed. In opposition with throughput, the latency does not grow with increasing values of $T_{enc-ratio}$. This is again because we have considered an overloaded system. Results obtained by considering the sliding window mechanism are shown in Figure 7. Average processing latency increases due to the time that is needed to fill the sliding window. The bad influence of the sliding window on this parameter is higher when traces with big average sizes of the packets are considered. The problem with latency increase can be solved by introducing an upper bound on time or on total number of bytes for the sliding window.

The not very large performance improvement is due to the fact that in average very few packets were identified to be related to the same SAs inside the sliding windows.

2) System With Two Accelerators: In this subsection we show the results obtained by considering a system equipped with two cryptographic accelerators. The architecture of the system is very similar to the one shown in Figure 1. The only modification is the addition of another accelerator connected to the PCI bus. Here we only show the results related to Accelerator 1. Results for Accelerator 2 are not shown, being very similar to them.

Figures 8 and 9 show the the percentage of processed packets for all the patterns when a window of length 30 (W = 30) is considered for the CPU and for the *Accelerator 1*, respectively. As expected, the percentage of packets processed by the CPU lowers when the encoder time ratio is increased. *Accelerator 1* usage increases with increasing values for the encoder time ratio.



Fig. 7. Relative average latency. CPU parameters: $T_{init-ratio} = 3$; $T_{enc-ratio} = 3$.



Fig. 8. Percentage of packets processed by the CPU in a system with 2 accelerators. W = 30.

Figure 10 shows the average length of the packets processed by the CPU when a window of 30 elements is considered. The results related to all the previously described patterns are also shown in Figure 10. The length of the processed packets decreases for all the encoder time ratios smaller than 3. For almost all the patterns it also continues to decrease for higher values of this ratio, but with a lower slope. On the opposite, the average length of the packets processed by *Accelerator 1* increases with increasing values of the encoder time ratio, as shown in Figure 11.

Figure 12 shows the throughput of the system when all patterns and a window length of 30 are considered. The system throughput, which is to some extent the sum of the throughput of the two accelerators and of the CPU, decreases for increasing values of the encoder time ratio. This is due to the fact that, by increasing this ratio, the processing capabilities of the CPU are decreased.

Figure 13 shows a comparison of the average processing latency obtained for a real trace when a window size of 1 and 30 are considered. The average processing latency increases for increasing values of the encoder time ratio in both cases. It is always lower for W = 30 than for W = 1 (for the values of the encoder time ratio that have been considered). Throughput decreases for increasing values of the encoder time ratio and it is higher when W = 30 for all the values of the ratio that have been considered. Therefore, we can conclude that by using the sliding window mechanism (W = 1 disables the sliding window mechanism) we improve the system performance



Fig. 9. Percentage of packets processed by the Accelerator 1 in a system with 2 accelerators. W = 30.



Fig. 10. Average length of packets for the CPU in a system with 2 accelerators. W = 30.

also when a system with two accelerators is considered. The average processing latency is, as expected, lower when two accelerators are used instead of one. When two accelerators are considered this parameter is decreased to 0.2-0.5ms. Similar behaviors as the ones shown here have been obtained for the other input patterns.

Figure 14 and Figure 15 show the average length of the packets processed by the CPU and by Accelerator 1, respectively. The average length of the packets processed by the CPU and by the accelerators is higher for W = 30. This means that the use of the sliding window mechanism allows to compose multi-packets which are to be sent to the accelerators. This mechanism also allows to increase the size of the packets processed by the CPU, as many smaller packets are bundled and sent to the accelerators.

The number of bus conflicts has also been observed: when two accelerators are used, this parameter remains below 17% of the total bus accesses. Finding a way to reduce the number of conflicts, could help in further improving the efficiency of the system. A solution to this problem might be to use the prefetch and write buffering mechanisms proposed in [13, Section 4.3].

V. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We have provided a solution to the "small packets" problem. The sliding window mechanism was applied to



Fig. 11. Average length of packets for the accelerator 1 in a system with 2 accelerators. W = 30.



Fig. 12. Throughput of accelerator 1 in a system with 2 accelerators. W = 30.

bundle together packets belonging to the same SAs in order to avoid multiple DMA setups and cryptography algorithm initialization.

We have also provided some high-level simulations to prove that our algorithm works as desired and that it can provide an overall performance enhancement, especially when the system is overloaded. Simulations have been conducted with both 1-accelerator and 2-accelerator systems. This allowed studying the behavior of the algorithm in a number of different situations.

A practical, real life implementation and test of our algorithm is ongoing. The algorithm described in [13] has been implemented as a patch for the *OpenBSD Cryptographic Framework* (OCF) [22] and is being functionally tested. The OCF is a cryptographic framework which is also available for BSD and Linux. Some performance tests with a cryptographic accelerator will be conducted. The algorithm described in this paper will then be implemented and tested in the same way.

Future research should address QoS support. A timeout mechanism and a limit on number of bytes contained in the sliding window will also be studied to improve performance of the algorithm in terms of latency. A dynamic parameter tuning mechanism will also be studied to adapt the algorithm to the incoming flows of data.



Fig. 13. Average latency comparison for the real trace among W = 1 and W = 30.



Fig. 14. Comparison of the average length of the packets processed by the CPU for the real trace among W = 1 and W = 30.

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