# Distributed Worm Simulation with a Realistic Internet Model

Songjie Wei, Jelena Mirkovic, Martin Swany

Computer & Information Sciences University of Delaware Newark, DE 19716 (weis, sunshine, swany@cis.udel.edu)

#### **Abstract**

Internet worm spread is a phenomenon involving millions of hosts, who interact in complex and diverse environment. Scanning speed of each infected host depends on its resources and the defenses at work in its network. Aggressive worms further interact with the underlying Internet topology – the dynamics of the spread is constrained by the limited bandwidth of network links, and high-volume scan traffic leads to BGP router failure thus affecting global routing. Worm traffic also interacts with legitimate background traffic competing for (and often winning) the limited bandwidth resources. To faithfully simulate worm spread and other Internet-wide events such as DDoS, flash crowds and spam we need a detailed Internet model, a packet-level simulation of relevant event features, and a realistic model of background traffic on the whole Internet. The memory and CPU requirements of such simulation exceed a single machine's resources, creating a need for distributed simulation. We propose a design and present implementation of a distributed worm simulator, called PAWS. PAWS runs on Emulab testbed, which facilitates its use by other researchers. We validate PAWS in a variety of scenarios, and evaluate costs and benefits of distributed worm simulation.

# 1. Introduction

First step in designing early detection and response techniques for Internet worms must be the understanding of this threat. We need high-fidelity simulators that faithfully replicate each worm copy's behavior and reproduce all the elements interacting with the spreading worm. A simulator's fidelity has to be three-fold:

- (1) Internet-level fidelity. Worm spread dynamics depend on the underlying Internet fabric such as Autonomous System (AS) and router topology, link bandwidth and routing table information. Worms also affect global Internet by causing router failure under heavy scan traffic and thus introducing routing changes.
- (2) Packet-level fidelity. Worm spread is affected by the host diversity (infected hosts will spread the worm with different speed based on their hardware and OS specifics), network diversity (networks will have different ratios of live and vulnerable hosts), scanning techniques and presence of worm defenses. To capture all these effects we must simulate worm spread at the packet level.
- (3) Background-traffic fidelity. Both the worm traffic and the worm defenses interfere with legitimate background traffic. We need to simulate realistic

background traffic to gauge the damage of the worm spread, and evaluate the benefit and collateral damage of any proposed defense. Recent work on measuring the available bandwidth of inter-AS links [8] offers starting data for estimating legitimate traffic load on those links, and simulating legitimate traffic at an aggregate level. It is currently unclear if packet-level simulation of background traffic is necessary for accurate worm spread simulation, but it may be needed for detailed evaluation of worm defenses. Some substantial work will be needed to develop background traffic's connection-level models which are representative of Internet traffic patterns, and incorporate them in packet-level worm simulators.

Mathematical models of worm propagation [14, 15, 17] are built upon epidemiological equations that describe spread of real-world diseases. These models offer valuable insight into the infection dynamics and can be simulated efficiently, but they cannot capture effects of different scanning and infection techniques, and the interactions of the worm with the Internet topology, protocols, and security mechanisms. Mathematical models that are easily applicable to random scanning techniques require considerable work and multiple approximations to be extended to sophisticated scanning techniques, such as subnet scanning [18].

Single-node worm spread simulators [10, 11, 12, 13] require a set of simplifications and approximations, to be able to run at a reasonable speed on a single machine. They ignore or simplify the specifics of the Internet topology, congestion created by the worm spread, and the diversity of network fabric. These simplifications are necessary to reduce simulation's memory requirements and accommodate them at a single-machine. Further, packet-level simulation of worm scans requires a large number of CPU cycles, making simulation length prohibitive. Current single-machine worm simulators avoid packet-level simulation of worm scans, instead simulating most or all worm scans at a fluid-level using mathematical models of the worm spread.

Some notable success was achieved with distributed worm simulation [9]. Using PDNS (a distributed version of NS-2 simulator) and GTNetS, Perumalla et al. simulated worm propagation among 1.28 million vulnerable nodes at a dedicated 128-CPU cluster. In another paper on distributed simulation of Internet events [26] the authors note that PDNS and GTNetS can simulate about 95K packet transmissions per wall-clock second (PTS) at a single machine and 5.5M packet transmissions on a

dedicated 136-CPU cluster. This is an excellent result, given that both PDNS and GTNetS simulate connection-level behavior such as TCP 3-way handshake and congestion control mechanism, and thus must keep and update connection state for each packet transmission.

We note two main problems with the approach used in [9] for worm spread simulation:

- (1) To achieve reasonable simulation speed (5.5M PTS) one needs a powerful 100+ node cluster. Not every researcher has access to such a cluster, yet many researchers work in the worm detection and response field and need a high-fidelity worm simulator that can run in reasonable time on multiple common PCs to validate their ideas.
- (2) Packet-level simulation in [9] generates a network message for each packet sent to a different simulation node which incurs huge overhead when simulating worm scans. Instead, these transmissions can be aggregated and sent in a single network message at the end of a simulated time unit.

We further note that work in [9] does not replicate a realistic Internet topology or background traffic and thus cannot faithfully evaluate congestion effects caused by the spreading worm.

In this paper we present a design and implementation of a distributed worm simulator called PAWS. Our simulator runs on multiple common PCs that synchronize over a TCP/IP network. We replicate a realistic Internet topology at the Autonomous System level, and the background traffic at the aggregate, inter-AS link level. Link bandwidth and background traffic values are inferred using Pathneck [8] measurements of Internet bottlenecks as a starting point for estimation. PAWS is implemented in the Emulab testbed [1] which facilitates its use by other researchers, and is extensible to support different scanning techniques and host and network diversity.

PAWS is a dedicated worm spread simulator - it simplifies certain worm spread behavior to achieve higher simulation speed. Worm scans are simulated as single packet transmissions, without connection-level semantics. While this is a correct model for UDP worms, TCP worms need several packet transmissions for successful infection and will perform TCP SYN retransmissions in case of dropped scans. We believe that TCP connection establishment and payload transmission only influence the speed of worm scan generation in case of successful and unsuccessful infection. These features can be modeled by setting two per-host parameters and avoiding TCP stack simulation for each scan. TCP SYN retransmissions will increase a number of scans in the Internet but should not increase congestion effects due to very small size of TCP SYN packets (20 Bytes). PAWS currently does not replicate TCP SYN retransmission behavior but will be extended to do so as a part of our future work. PAWS further deploys time-discrete packet-level simulation - worm scans that need to be transmitted from one simulation node to another over the network, during one time unit, are grouped together and sent in a single network message. This minimizes network traffic and overhead of network communication, while having a very small effect on fidelity. PAWS replicates AS level Internet topology using Routeviews data [3] and simulates background traffic at an aggregate, inter-AS link level. Routing path of each worm scan through ASes is replicated and bandwidth consumption on inter-AS links is simulated to capture congestion effects.

PAWS can currently simulate propagation of a random scanning worm in a 10M vulnerable population using 8 Emulab machines and achieving 4.7M packet transmissions per wall-clock second. Note that PAWS simulates 8 times more vulnerable nodes than work presented in [9], with comparable performance, using 8 common PCs. PAWS simulation of Code Red v2-like worm propagating with a 10M vulnerable population is shown in Figure 1.

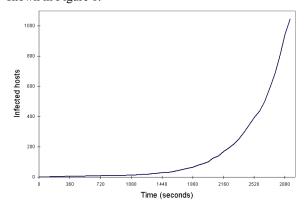


Figure 1: Code Red v2 worm propagating in 10M vulnerable population

# 2. Related Work

The closest work to PAWS is described in [9], and the differences between PAWS and [9] are given in the introduction. We here briefly survey other work on worm simulation and modeling.

Worm models: Staniford et al. [14] use SIR epidemiological model of worm spread to evaluate effectiveness of various worm scanning techniques. Zou et al. [15] present a "two-factor" model that extends SIR epidemiological model to capture the effects of human countermeasures and the congestion due to the worm spread. Shen et al. [16] provide a discrete-time worm model that considers patching and cleaning effect and can model worms with local scanning techniques. All these approaches abstract specifics of the Internet topology, change in the size of vulnerable population as the worm spreads, and the effect of the individual host and network defenses (except for patching, in case of [16]) on the spread.

Single-machine simulation with AS-level topology: Savage et al. [13] model Internet topology at the AS level, along with epidemiological worm spread model, to measure the effectiveness of different containment strategies and deployment patterns. Wagner et al. [12] model delay and bandwidth differences between vulnerable hosts by

dividing all Internet hosts into four groups, then modeling interactions between and within groups. This approach achieves better Internet-level fidelity than prior simulators but the division of hosts into four same-bandwidth samelatency groups heavily approximates the underlying Internet topology. The simulation cannot model individual host or network actions, congestion at routers and the scan traffic received by a given host or a network. Liljenstam et al. [10, 11] describe an add-on worm propagation model for SSFNet simulator. This model adds simulation of countermeasures at router level to the simple epidemiological model, and simulates those actions assuming a single router per AS. A realistic AS topology from Route Views project [3] is used in a scaled-down form, due to single-machine memory constraints. Worm scans are simulated using hybrid packet/fluid level simulation. Riley et al. [25] developed a packet-level worm simulator GTNetS that captures connection-level semantics of TCP worm propagation, and can simulate worms with different payload size, infection delay, scanning rate, number of parallel scanning threads, etc. GTNetS captures congestion effects due to worm spread but uses a simple Internet topology replicating only the bandwidth of first-hop links that connect to "the core". [25] experiments do not model background traffic, and cannot simulate more than several thousands of vulnerable hosts.

### 3. PAWS Design

We next explain various models deployed in PAWS.

## 3.1. Internet Topology and Routing Model

Worm spread features depend heavily on the underlying Internet characteristics such as connectivity, topology, bandwidth, link utilization, etc. It is necessary to faithfully model the Internet to achieve high-fidelity worm spread simulation. On the other hand, because of the Internet's heterogeneity and rapid change [2], there will be a limit on the number and level of Internet details we can replicate in a simulation.

PAWS currently models the Internet on the Autonomous System (AS) level. We obtain global connectivity data from Route Views[3] project, which provides BGP table snapshots of a small number of participating ASes. AS\_PATH information from these snapshots can be used to infer peering relationships between ASes and the ownership of IP addresses and build an AS-connectivity map. We note here that this map is the subset of the real AS topology as some peering relationships will not be reflected in Route Views data if neither of the peers participates in Route Views.

To faithfully model Internet routing, one could attempt to discover and then simulate all the routers in the Internet, loading the corresponding routing tables obtained from the real routers into the simulation. This approach is not reasonable, because (i) it is impossible to discover router-

level topology of the whole Internet<sup>1</sup>, (ii) very few routing tables are publicly accessible and (iii) routing table information changes dynamically. PAWS currently applies the Dijkstra's algorithm on the AS map to compute the shortest routing paths between ASes, assuming the constant cost per AS hop. In the future work we plan to improve this model by (i) using the available BGP data from Route Views to partially populate BGP tables, and (ii) inferring the remaining routing information by using AS customer-provider-peer relationships and rules for sharing BGP information as described in [22, 23].

To take the most advantage of parallel simulation, nodes have to evenly divide the processing and communication load. For simple worm spread scenarios that include uniform distribution of vulnerable hosts and defenses, a node's processing load depends on the size of IP address space assigned to it. We develop a heuristic to split IP address space evenly among simulation nodes, which results in uneven distribution of ASes among nodes due to high variance of AS IP size.

PAWS models hop-by-hop Internet routing to account for inter-AS bandwidth consumption. A scan sent from an infectious to a susceptible host traverses all the intermediate ASes. To minimize a node's network communication load our heuristic assigns neighboring ASes to the same simulation node, up to a node's IP size limit. This means that most of the ASes assigned to a simulation node form a connected graph, which minimizes the number of network messages generated by scans. Grouping all worm scans sent from one simulation node to another within a time unit in a single network message further reduces communication cost.

We distribute routing information across simulation nodes; each node only stores routing tables of the ASes it simulates. When a worm scan is generated, the simulation node determines the destination AS for the given IP address using shared data which maps IP ranges to ASes. The node then uses its view of routing tables to calculate the path to the destination AS and the bandwidth consumption on this path. Scans to invulnerable hosts will increase bandwidth consumption but will be dropped at source simulation node. Successful scans will be either be delivered to another simulation node via a network message (if the AS path traverses more than one simulation node) or will generate a function call on the same simulation node.

Worm spread events produce huge volume of probes, which frequently lead to serious network congestion. To simulate this phenomenon, we need to model the limited bandwidth of each inter-AS link in our map. We also should take into account the portion of this bandwidth consumed by legitimate user traffic and the interaction of

Proceedings of the Workshop on Principles of Advanced and Distributed Simulation (PADS'05) 1087-4097/05 \$20.00 © 2005 **IEEE** 

\_

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There are some published router-level topologies of large ASes [21] and there are several Internet mapping efforts [5, 20]. Authors of [24] build a detailed router-level map of US backbone ISPs along with inferred bandwidth and delay information. However, a large portion of the Internet is still not mapped.

this traffic with the worm traffic. There is currently no available data on AS-to-AS link bandwidth and there is scarce data on bandwidth utilization provided by Pathneck [8] project for a small number of inter-AS links.

Following a philosophy that large ASes will have bigger links than small ASes, and that AS size is proportional to its connection degree, we classify ASes into three categories by their connection degree, and then attempt to infer link bandwidth values for each category using bottleneck information obtained by Pathneck project as a starting point. Some ASes, like AS 1 and AS 701, have thousands of peers and contain huge portions of the IP address space. These ASes are part of the Internet backbone and they likely have high-bandwidth links to other large ASes, to route high-volume transit traffic. On the other end of the AS connectivity chart, ASes like 14364 and 14369 have a single connection to a betterconnected AS. These ASes are stub networks whose links only carry their customers' traffic and thus have small bandwidth.

According to the discussion in [4, 6], there is a power-law distribution pattern on AS vertex degree. We first classify the ASes into three categories based on the connection degree: *small* ASes with less than 3 peers, *medium* ASes with 4–300 peers, and *large* ASes with more than 300 peers. We next determine likely bandwidth values for links between any two AS categories. Since we have three different categories of ASes, there are six link categories and thus six bandwidth values used in PAWS Internet model.

We use the data from Pathneck [8] project to aid our choice of bandwidth values. Pathneck project provides measurements of an upper bound on the available bandwidth on bottleneck links between ASes. This bound is measured by sending a train of packets on a path, and measuring packet interarrival times at routers along the path. The measurements provide only an instantaneous sample of the upper bound of the available bandwidth. The real available bandwidth fluctuates as traffic patterns change, and so does the upper bound. Pathneck tool can further provide an accurate available bandwidth measurement only for links preceding a bottleneck, as only those links can be filled with measurement traffic. After the packet train passes through a bottleneck, it is slowed down and only partially fills the remaining links. Pathneck provides a lower bound on the available bandwidth for links following the bottleneck link. Note that some links will have no records in Pathneck data as they have not been traversed by a measurement train, while other links may have multiple records since they have been traversed by multiple measurement trains.

We divide Pathneck-supplied data into 6 bins, based on the category of the ASes on a link's endpoints. We further select the maximum value x from a bin, and choose a bandwidth limit y, where y is the smallest value from the list of possible link bandwidths (OC1, OC3, etc), that satisfies  $y \ge x$  requirement. Table 1 shows the chosen bandwidth values for different link categories:

Category	BW1 (Mbps)	Type1	BW2 (Mbps)	Type2	BW3 (Mbps)	Type3
1-1	155.52	OC3	32.064	Ј3	100.00	Fast Ethernet
1-2, 2-1	622.08	OC12	34.368	E3	155.52	OC3
1-3, 3-1	622.08	OC12	34.368	E3	466.56	OC9
2-2	1866.24	OC36	89.472	DS3-C	466.56	OC9
2-3, 3-2	1866.24	OC36	89.472	DS3-C	622.08	OC12
3-3	9953.28	OC192	9953.28	OC192	9953.28	OC192

Table 1: Selected bandwidth values for inter-AS links

In this paper we have examined two approaches to modeling the background traffic on inter-AS links, starting from the information provided by Pathneck data. The first approach averages the available bandwidth samples for a given AS-to-AS link, calculating value  $x_i$ . We then assume that the legitimate user traffic occupies the remaining bandwidth on this link:  $z_i = y - x_i$ , where y is our bandwidth limit estimate for this link's category. The second approach models the legitimate traffic amount on a link as an exponentially distributed random variable, whose parameters are obtained from the bins for a given link's category. We chose an exponential model since bin samples appear to be heavy tailed, following an exponential-like distribution.

# 3.2. Congestion Model

With the above Internet model, we simulate the bandwidth saturation and traffic congestion, which occur at aggressive worm propagation. If  $y_j$  is bandwidth of a link j,  $z_j$  is the legitimate traffic on this link, and  $w_j$  is the worm scan traffic on this link, then for each individual worm packet: (i) if  $y_j \ge z_j + w_j$  the worm packet can pass through the link, and if  $y_j < z_j + w_j$  the worm packet passes through the link with probability of  $y_j/(z_j + w_j)$ . A worm packet reaches the destination if and only if it is not dropped on any link along the routing path between two ASes.

## 3.3. Vulnerable Host Model

Each AS "owns" a set of IP ranges and each IP from these ranges may correspond to a physical host. PAWS uses per-AS ratio of "live" hosts, and generates a data structure to store both the basic information and the runtime status of each live host. This information specifies host features that may affect worm propagation, such as the type of OS and applications running on this host, how much resources it has (CPU speed, memory, bandwidth), whether this host has vulnerabilities that may be attacked by the worm, etc. The run-time status of a host includes its status (vulnerable, infected, patched, etc.) how many times it has been scanned and if infected, how many scans it has sent out and how many new hosts it has infected.

#### 3.4. Worm Model

PAWS builds a worm description file for each specific worm, containing the following customizable parameters: (1) vulnerable ratio, (2) scanning rate, (3) infection delay which defines time between receipt of a worm probe by a vulnerable host, and the first scan sent from this host, (4) worm scan size and (5) scanning strategy. PAWS currently implements random and subnet scanning, but due to its modular design it can be easily extended with new scanning strategies.

#### 3.5. Worm Scan Model

The simulation of worm spread on PAWS is a time-discrete procedure. Every time unit, each infected host produces a list of target IP addresses to scan. The target addresses are generated based on both the scanning strategy of that specific worm and the features (hardware, network connection, bandwidth) of the infected hosts. Each worm scan is time-stamped and buffered as an event. At the end of a time unit, those events are carried out together. To enhance simulation performance, scans to invulnerable IP addresses are sent to other simulation nodes individually, but their effects (the used bandwidth and the possible congestion caused) are simulated and the congestion information is exchanged between simulation nodes.

### 4. PAWS Implementation

Emulab testbed [1] at the University of Utah provides publicly available resources for real-machine testing, simulation and emulation. Emulab real-machine testbed features 212 PCs that can be interconnected and configured using a user-friendly, web-based interface and ns-compatible scripts or Java GUI. We chose to implement PAWS on Emulab testbed [1] to make it easily accessible to other researchers. While simulation code will run on any machine with a C compiler, our scripts are specifically tailored to Emulab environment.

Emulab PCs come in different CPU speeds. To maximize the simulation speed we use only PCs with 850MHz CPU (pc850). The hardware and software information of pc850 machine is shown in Table 2. One machine is a master node that synchronizes the simulation and the remaining machines are slaves that carry out the simulation. All the nodes are connected on a 100M LAN. Both the latency and the loss rate of this LAN are set to zero.

Type:	pc850		
Processor:	PIII		
Speed:	850 MHZ		
RAM:	256 MB		
Disk Size:	39.00 GB		
os:	RHL-STD		

Table 2: Emulab node hardware specification

#### 4.1. Inter-Node Communication

In Emulab PAWS implementation, simulation nodes communicate and exchange data in two ways. First communication method is via a shared project directory which is NFS-mounted. This provides easy means of sharing data needed by all the slave nodes. This data is stored in the following files:

- Per-AS information file containing per-AS IP range list
- Inter-AS routing file containing inter-AS routing paths.
- Worm description file containing the information described in worm model section.
- Vulnerable host list file containing IPs of all the vulnerable hosts simulated on a specific simulation node.
- PAWS configuration file containing all the other simulation-related information, such as a number of simulation nodes, their names, distribution of the AS map and simulation tasks among the nodes, etc..

Another method for inter-node communication in PAWS is through stream sockets. During the initialization stage, each node sets up a stream socket and connects to all other simulation nodes. During the simulation, TCP packets are used for worm scan propagation and status reports exchange among the nodes.

## 4.2. Dynamic Update Interval (Time Unit Scaling)

A significant portion of the simulation time is used for inter-node communication, mostly for worm scan propagation and for the broadcasting IPs of newly infected hosts. An obvious design approach is that at the end of each time unit, all the simulator nodes communicate and synchronize with each other, so that they reach a consistent view of the simulated network. However, some time units will contain very few events of interest (for instance in the early stage of the worm spread, or when the worm reaches saturation) and do not warrant heavy message exchange. PAWS optimizes communication by exchanging inter-node messages at specific intervals whose size is a multiple of simulation time units and is dynamically adjusted using time-unit scaling, according to the formula

$$i = \left\lceil \frac{N}{c \cdot m} \right\rceil$$

where i is the new value of update interval, N is size of the vulnerable population, m is the number of newly infected hosts in the previous time unit, and c is a constant. For example, if c equals to 1000, and during the last time unit, 0.01% of the vulnerable population became infected, next update interval will occur after 10 time units.

#### 5. Experiments

To validate correctness of PAWS, we simulate two well-known worm spread events: Code Red v2 (July 19<sup>th</sup>, 2001) [27] and SQL Slammer (January 25<sup>th</sup>, 2003) [7].

# 5.1. Simulation of CodeRed v2

During the outbreak of CodeRed v2 worm, more that 359,000 infected hosts were observed by CAIDA [8]. In our simulation, we set the Code Red vulnerable population

N=360,000. Each infected host tries to infect a different list of randomly generated IP addresses at an observed peak rate of roughly 6 probes per second. Initially there are 2 infected hosts at time 0. We reproduce AS-level map from July 19<sup>th</sup>, 2001, 10am UTC in this simulation.

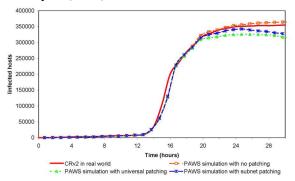


Figure 2: Simulation of CRv2

Figure 2 shows simulated number of infected hosts (lines with marks) compared with the measured number during worm propagation (line without marks) published in [8]. We simulate three worm spread events:

- CRv2 propagation without patching: worm propagates without any defenses applied. Once a vulnerable host is infected, it starts to probe others with a constant speed.
- CRv2 propagation with universal patching: Patching is a good defense to fight slow-propagating worms. In this experiment we set the initial patching rate of a host at 32/100,000 per second. AS the worm spread progresses, the user awareness increases and the patching rate increases linearly. Patching starts 16 hours after the worm breakout. The initial patching rate, speed of the linear increase and start time for patching are estimated from the graph depicting measured host deactivation after Code Red v2 spread [27]
- *CRv2* propagation with subnet patching: This experiment simulates an organized patching of all the machines in a subnet administered by a single organization. We use a constant patching rate of 1/100,000 per second per subnet and define the subnet as an IP range belonging to an AS, no greater than 2<sup>16</sup> hosts. All the machines inside a selected subnet are patched within the same time unit. For subnets larger than 2<sup>16</sup> addresses, PAWS patches a randomly selected portion of 2<sup>16</sup> hosts. Patching starts 16 hours after the worm breakout.

From Figure 2, we see that "no-patching" case generates the best match with the real worm. Further, two patching scenarios, especially subnet patching, generate the decline in the number of infected hosts after the worm reaches its peak which resembles the effect measured at one Internet subnetwork during CRv2 re-emergence and shown in [7].

#### 5.2. Simulation of SQL Slammer

SQL Slammer [7] propagated on January 25, 2003, starting from 05:30am UTC and infected more than 90%

of vulnerable hosts within 10 minutes. Total of 75,000 infected hosts are observed. In the simulation, we use 75,000 as the vulnerable population size, and the average scan rate of is 4,000 probes per second. We replicate routing at the worm spread start using Route Views data.

Figure 3 shows Slammer simulation results. In addition to congestion-constrained worm spread (line with cross marks), we also simulate the occurrence of router failures due to large volume of scan traffic (line with square marks), assuming a single router per AS peer. When the traffic on an inter-AS link is two times bigger than its bandwidth value, PAWS simulates router failure by removing this inter-AS link. In both simulation runs congestion builds up as the worm spreads, causing dropped scans and slowing down propagation. For comparison, we show the worm propagation with unlimited bandwidth (line without marks). We note here that the propagation can be "slowed down" more by choosing smaller bandwidth values and thus increasing congestion effects. The simulation with three different bandwidth value assignments in Table 1 is shown in Figure 4. We note that the worm propagation is slowed by about 5 minutes by using significantly lower bandwidth values than in Figure 3.

Figure 3 also shows the number of scans in the Internet for worm propagation with and without the router failure. We note that we drop around 18 million scans due to router failures when the network is fully congested. The curve with network failure reaches 80 million of scans around 300 seconds which matches the measured Slammer scan activity in [7].

Among the three bandwidth assignments shown in Table 1, we believe the values in column 6 are most reasonable and nearest to the real applications of current Internet. Many small ASes are owned by universities or institutes, who normally use 100Mbps Fast Ethernet network, while major ISPs with medium size ASes tend to provide OC-9/OC-12 services. OC-192 techniques are used for backbone network with 10Gbps data rate.

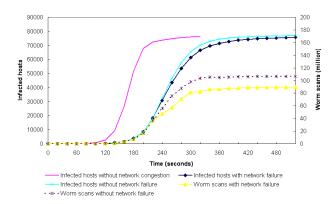


Figure 3: Simulation of Slammer

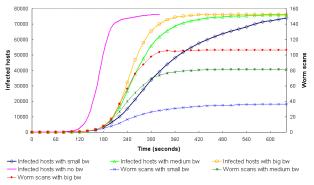


Figure 4: Simulation with different bandwidth values assignments in Table 1

Zou et al [28] analyzed the effect of dynamic quarantine as a worm defense. To demonstrate PAWS ability to provide accurate evaluation of defense system performance, we have also implemented dynamic quarantine approach. We further replicate the experiment from [28] where the quarantine rate of infectious hosts is  $\lambda_1=0.2$  per second and the quarantine rate of susceptible hosts is  $\lambda_2=0.2$  per second. The quarantine time T is 10 seconds. In figure 5, we show the simulation result with and without network congestion. We note that our simulation result without considering bandwidth and congestion match the result in [28]. With bandwidth consideration, the dynamic quarantine significantly slows down the worm. The bandwidth values in Table 1 column 6 are used for this experiment.

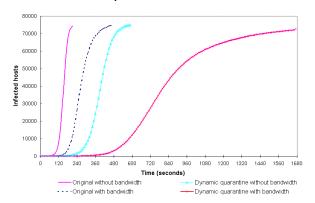


Figure 5 Simulation of Slammer with dynamic quarantine defense

## 5.3. Effect of Time-Unit Scaling

We measure the loss of simulation fidelity due to time-unit scaling, and show the results in Figure 6 depicting the number of infected hosts by Slammer with and without time-unit scaling. In these simulations we used bandwidth values from Table 1, column 4. Time-unit scaling slows slightly worm propagation in the early stage, but the propagation "catches up" with the no-scaling curve (solid lines) during the exponential stage of the spread. The difference between curves is very small, while the gain in simulation time is almost 30%. Figure 7 shows the value

of the scaled interval (dashed line) as simulation progresses.

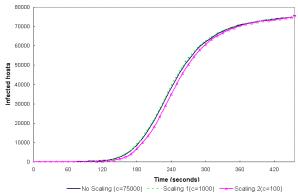


Figure 6: Time-unit scaling effect on simulation fidelity

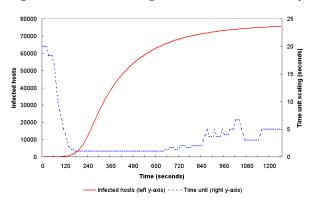


Figure 7: Value of the scaled interval

Slammer in case of constant and random traffic assignment. Simulations use the link bandwidth values from Table 1, column 4. Two curves are identical, which indicates that the worm spread is not very sensitive to the amount of the background traffic present in the Internet. We attribute that to the fact that Slammer was very aggressive UDP worm which easily prevailed over the small amount of well-behaved background traffic. Aggressive TCP worms may exhibit greater sensitivity to background traffic values.

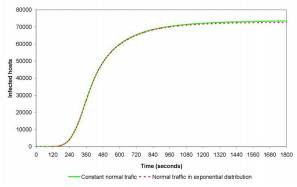


Figure 8: Slammer propagation with constant and random assignment of background traffic values

### 6. PAWS Performance

Two major PAWS' activities during worm propagation are processing and transmitting of worm scans. Worm scan processing encompasses the operation of sending a worm scan from each infected host and receiving and processing this scan on the target host. This is the major task of a worm simulator and consumes most of the CPU time. As there are more infected machines in the simulation, PAWS scan processing overhead grows. Higher distribution degree reduces the processing overhead on individual simulation nodes and thus decreases scan processing time for the simulation.

Transmission activity encompasses the transfer of a worm scan from the source (an infected host) to the destination (the targeted host). Most of the time, source and destination hosts are not collocated on the same simulation node, and transferring worm scans leads to network communication that produces additional simulation delay. As there are more scans in the simulation, transmission overhead grows as the scan message must be split into several network packets. Higher distribution degree also increases communication among simulation nodes and the overall scan transmission time.

These two opposite factors influence the overall simulation time. In Figure 9 we show the simulation time and the CPU utilization for a varying number of simulation nodes, simulating the first twenty hours of CodeRed v2 propagation. Figure 10 shows the exact time used for communication and processing on single node with different number of simulation nodes. The volume of inter-node traffic increases with the number of simulation nodes, which is shown in Figure 11.

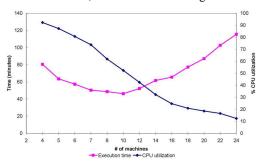


Figure 9: Simulation time and CPU load

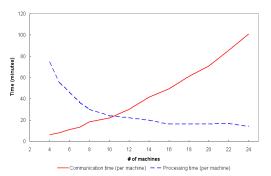


Figure 10: Communication and processing time

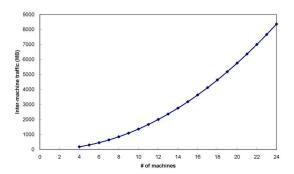


Figure 11: Inter-node traffic

Execution time is smallest with 10 nodes for this simulation (first twenty hours of CodeRed v2 propagation), and benefits of using multiple simulation machines balance the cost of inter-node communication. As we use more than 10 nodes, the inter-node communication increases yielding higher execution time. When using less than 10 nodes, per-node processing load is the key overhead factor. Please note that the scanning strategy used by CodeRed v2 is a simplest one (random scan), and no monitoring or defense is simulated. For more complex experiments or sophisticated worm simulations, the scan processing time should increase, shifting the minimum shown in Figure 9 to the right and to higher values. The CPU utilization decreases as the number of simulation nodes grows, because a large portion of the CPU time is spent initiating and waiting for inter-node communication. In the future work, we will investigate approaches to reduce and simplify the inter-node communication and thus get better usage of CPU resources.

## 7. Conclusion

We present a design and implementation of a distributed worm simulator, PAWS, that runs on common PCs and achieves largest packet-level simulation of worm spread to date. PAWS simulates a realistic Internet model and background traffic load, enabling investigation of congestion effects of the worm spread and its interactions with the background traffic. PAWS further supports a variety of user-customizable parameters that enable testing of various host and network diversity models, worm scanning strategies and Internet topologies. PAWS' modular design, variety of features, high-fidelity and Emulab-based implementation make it a useful tool for worm researchers.

# References

[1] B. White, J. Lepreau, L. Stoller, R. Ricci, S. Guruprasad, M. Newbold, M. Hibler, C. Barb, and A. Joglekar, "An Integrated Experimental Environment for Distributed Systems and Networks," OSDI 2002.

[2] S. Floyd and V. Paxson, "Difficulties in Simulating the Internet," IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, Vol.9, No.4, pp. 392-403, August, 2001.

- [3] University of Oregon Route Views Project, <a href="http://www.Route-Views.org">http://www.Route-Views.org</a>
- [4] H. Chang, S. Jamin, W. Willinger, "On Inferring ASlevel connectivity from BGP Routing Tables," Proceedings of SPIE ITCom 2001.
- [5] B. Cheswick and H. Burch, "The Internet Mapping Project," <a href="http://research.lumeta.com/ches/map/">http://research.lumeta.com/ches/map/</a>
- [6] H. Tangmunarunkit, R. Govindan, S. Jamin, S. Shenker, W. Willinger, "Network Topology Generator: Degree-Based vs. Structural, Proceedings of SIGCOMM 2002.
- [7] D. Moore, V. Paxson, S. Savage, C. Shannon, S. Staniford, N. Weaver, "Inside the Slammer Worm," *Security and Privacy*, 1(4):33-39, July 2003.
- [8] Ningning Hu, Li Erran Li, Zhuoqing Morley Mao, Peter Steenkiste, Jia Wang, "Locating Internet Bottlenecks: Algorithms, Measurements, and Implications," Proceedings of SIGCOMM 2004.
- [9] K.S. Perumalla, S. Sundaragopalan, "High-Fidelity Modeling of Computer Network Worms," Annual Computer Security Applications Conference (ACSAC), December 2004.
- [10] M. Liljenstam, Y. Yuan, B. J. Premore, "A Mixed Abstraction Level Simulation Model of Large-scale Internet Worm Infestations," International Symposium on Modeling, Analysis and Simulation of Computer and Telecommunication Systems (MASCOTS 2002).
- [11] M. Liljenstam, D. Nicol, V. Berk, and R. Gray, "Simulating Realistic Network Worm Traffic for Worm Warning System Design and Testing," Proceedings of the 2003 ACM Workshop on Rapid Malcode (WORM 2003).
- [12] A. Wagner, T. Dübendorfer, B. Plattner and R. Hiestand, "Experiences with Worm Propagation Simulations," In Proceedings of the 2003 ACM Workshop on Rapid Malcode, 2003.
- [13] D. Moore, C. Shannon, G. M. Voelker and S. Savage, "Internet Quarantine: Requirements for Containing Self-Propagating Code," INFOCOM, 2003.
- [14] S. Staniford, V. Paxson and N. Weaver, "How to 0wn the Internet in Your Spare Time," Proceedings of the 11th USENIX Security Symposium, 2002.
- [15] C. C. Zou, W. Gong and D. Towsley, "Code Red Worm Propagation Modeling and Analysis," In Proceedings of the 9th ACM conference on Computer and communications security, 2002.

- [16] Z. Shen, L. Gao and K. Kwiat, "Modeling the Spread of Active Worms," In Proceedings of INFOCOM 2003.
- [17] J.O. Kephart and S.R. White, "Measuring and Modeling Computer Virus Prevalence," Proceedings of the 1993 IEEE Symposium on Research in Security and Privacy, Oakland, CA, May 1993.
- [18] C. C. Zou, W. Gong, D. Towsley and L. Gao, "Monitoring and Early Detection for Internet Worms," In Proceedings of 10th ACM Conference on Computer and Communication Security, 2003.
- [19] S. Floyd and E. Kohler, "Internet Research Needs Better Models," Proceedings of Hotnets-I. October 2002.
- [20] M. Dodge, "An Atlas of Cyberspaces," <a href="http://www.cybergeography.org/atlas/more">http://www.cybergeography.org/atlas/more</a> isp maps.html.
- [21] R. Haynal, "Major Internet Backbone MAPs," <a href="http://navigators.com/isp.html">http://navigators.com/isp.html</a>.
- [22] F. Wang and L. Gao, "Inferring and Characterizing Internet Routing Policies," ACM SIGCOMM Internet Measurement Conference 2003
- [23] L. Gao, "On Inferring Autonomous System Relationships in the Internet," IEEE Global Internet, Nov 2000.
- [24] M. Liljenstam, J. Liu, and D. Nicol, "Development of an Internet Backbone Topology for Large-Scale Network Simulations," Proceedings of 2003 Winter Simulation Conference.
- [25] G. F. Riley, M. I. Sharif and W. Lee, "Simulating Internet Worms," Proceedings of the 12th Annual Meeting of the IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Modeling, Analysis, and Simulation of Computer and Telecommunication Systems (MASCOTS), 2004.
- [26] R. Fujimoto, K. Perumalla, A. Park, H. Wu, M. Ammar and G. Riley, "Large-Scale Network Simulation How Big? How Fast?," IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Modeling, Analysis and Simulation of Computer Telecommunication Systems (MASCOTS), October 2003.
- [27] D. Moore, C. Shannon, J. Brown, "Code-Red: a Case Stud On the Spread and Victims of an Internet Worm," Proceedings of the Internet Measurement Workshop, 2002.
- [28] C.C. Zou, W. Gong, D. Towsley, "Worm Propagation Modeling and Analysis under Dynamic quarantine defense," Proceeding of ACM CSS Workshop on Rapid Malcode (WORM'03), October 2003.