# PAPER PAMELA: Pattern Matching Engine with Limited-Time Update for NIDS/NIPS\*

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SUMMARY Several hardware-based pattern matching engines for network intrusion/prevention detection systems (NIDS/NIPSs) can achieve high throughput with less hardware resources. However, their flexibility to update new patterns is limited and still challenging. This paper describes a PAttern Matching Engine with Limited-time updAte (PAMELA) engine using a recently proposed hashing algorithm called Cuckoo Hashing. PAMELA features on-the-fly pattern updates without reconfiguration, more efficient hardware utilization, and higher performance compared with other works. First, we implement the improved parallel exact pattern matching with arbitrary length based on Cuckoo Hashing and linkedlist technique. Second, while PAMELA is being updated with new attack patterns, both stack and FIFO are utilized to bound insertion time due to the drawback of Cuckoo Hashing and to avoid interruption of input data stream. Third, we extend the system for multi-character processing to achieve higher throughput. Our engine can accommodate the latest Snort rule-set, an open source NIDS/NIPS, and achieve the throughput up to 8.8 Gigabit per second while consuming the lowest amount of hardware. Compared to other approaches, ours is far more efficient than any other implemented on Xilinx FPGA architectures.

key words: Cuckoo Hashing, dynamic update, pattern matching, FPGA, NIDS/NIPS

## 1. Introduction

Nowadays, illegal intrusion is one of the most serious threats to network security. Network Intrusion Detection/Prevention Systems (NIDS/NIPSs) are designed to examine not only the headers but also the payload of the packets to match and identify intrusions. Most modern NIDS/NIPSs apply a set of rules that lead to a decision regarding whether an activity is suspicious. For example, Snort [1] is an open source network intrusion detection and prevention system utilizing a rule-driven language. As the number of known attacks grows, the patterns for these attacks are made into Snort signatures (pattern set). The simple rule structure allows flexibility and convenience in configuring Snort. However, checking thousands of patterns to see whether it matches becomes a computationally intensive task as the highest network speed increases to several gigabits per second (Gbps).

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To improve the performance of pattern matching in Snort, various implementations of field programmable gate array (FPGA) systems have been proposed. These systems can simultaneously process thousands of patterns relying on native parallelism of hardware so that their throughput can satisfy current gigabit networks. The drawback of hardware-based systems, however, is the flexibility. With emergence of new worms and viruses, the rule set must be frequently updated. For recently proposed FPGA-based NIDS/NIPSs [2]–[14], adding or subtracting a few rules requires recompilation (synthesizing, placing and routing) and reconfiguration of some parts or the entire design. Although reconfiguration is one of the advantages of SRAM-based FPGA; this process can take several minutes to several hours to complete. Today, such latency may not be acceptable for most networks when new attacks are released frequently. Moreover, the measure of throughput per area should be used in all hardware implementations. It is necessary to build a system that can achieve high-throughput per area with rapid rule set update.

Based on a novel Cuckoo Hashing [15], we implemented an FPGA-based architecture of variable-length pattern matching in our previous paper [16]. Unlike most previous FPGA-based systems, ours [16] can update the static pattern set without reconfiguration thanks to Cuckoo Hashing. In this paper, we propose a system named PAttern Matching Engine with Limited-time updAte (PAMELA) that extends and improves some disadvantages of [16]. Based on our analysis, the main drawback of Cuckoo Hashing is time consuming that can make the rule update time unlimited. We propose to use a stack to prevent rehashing and a FIFO to buffer the incoming data while updating the pattern set. Based on our theoretical analysis and simulation results, the insertion time of a new pattern is limited to 17 microseconds at 200 MHz clock frequency. As a result, a new rule set can be updated to PAMELA on line and on the fly. The power of high throughput processing is addressed in this paper. With the extension for multi-character processing, the current system can sustain higher throughput than the previous one. Moreover, the linked-list method is improved to detect the continuous matches of long patterns; performance analysis, more experimental verification and comparison are carried out. With several improvements, PAMELA can save 30% of the area compared with the best system, and the throughput can achieve up to 8.8 Gbps for 4-character processing.

The rest of our paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, some previous hardware implementations of static pattern

matching and Cuckoo Hashing are presented. Section 3 proposes the architecture of PAMELA engine. Next, performance analysis of PAMELA is discussed in Sect. 4. The extension for multi-character processing is mentioned in Sect. 5 before the experimental results on FPGA are presented in Sect. 6. Finally, future works are suggested in the conclusion.

# 2. Background and Related Works

# 2.1 Pattern Matching on NIDS/NIPS

For a line speed of gigabit network, a variety of FPGA approaches of NIDS/NIPS have been proposed, for example: shift-and-compare; state machine such as Nondeterministic/Deterministic finite automata (NFA/DFA), Aho-Corasick algorithm; and finally hashing. Firstly, some of the shiftand-compare method are [2], [3]. They apply parallel comparators and deep pipelining on different, partially overlapping, positions in the incoming packet. The simplicity of the parallel architecture can achieve high throughput when compared to software approaches. The drawback of these methods is the high area cost. To reduce the area cost and achieve a high clock rate, many improvements are proposed. The work [5] is extended from [2] to share common substrings. Predecoded shift-and-compare architectures ([7], [17]) convert the incoming characters to bit lines to reduce the size of comparators. A variation in tree-based optimization ([8], [9]) divides the pattern set into partitions to share similar characters resulting in excellent area performance.

The next approach exploits state machines (NFAs/ DFAs) [4], [18]. The state machines can be implemented on hardware platform to work all together in parallel. By allowing multiple active states, NFA is used in [18] to convert all the Snort static patterns into a single regular expression. Moscola et al. [4] recognized that most of minimal DFAs content fewer states than NFAs, so their modules can automatically generate the DFAs to search for regular expressions. Like the shift-and-compare implementations, the predecoded method is also used in [6] to improve area performance of NFAs. The main advantage of regular expression format as compared with static pattern one is that a single regular expression can describe a set of static patterns by using meta-characters with special meaning. As a result, recently, a special format of regular expressions such as Perl Compatible Regular Expressions (PCRE) is added in Snort [1] instead of static patterns, and some new works tried to improve on PCRE matching [19], [20]. However, most of these systems suffer scalability problems, i.e. too many states consume too many hardware resources and long reconfiguration time.

Another approach of the state machine method used for static pattern matching is the Aho-Corasick algorithm [21]. By modifying this algorithm on hardware, the implementations in [22]–[24] can get high performance. Aldwairi et al. [22] partitioned the rule set into small ones according to the type of attacks in Snort database. The state machine in [23] is split into smaller FSMs which can run in parallel to improve memory requirements. This bit-split FSM can fit over 12k characters of Snort rule set to 3.2 Mbits memory at 10 Gbps on ASIC implementation and can update new rules in the order of seconds with no interruption. Nonetheless, its FPGA implementation [24] can achieve lower throughput rate while using larger memory.

Finally, hashing approaches [10]-[14] can find a candidate pattern at constant look up time. The authors in [11], [14] use perfect hashing for pattern matching. Although their system memory usage is of high density, the systems require hardware reconfiguration for updates. Papadopoulos et al. proposed a system named HashMem [12] system using simple CRC polynomials hashing implemented with XOR gates that can use efficient area resources than before. For the improvement of memory density and logic gate count, they implemented V-HashMem [13]. Moreover, V-HashMem is extended to support the packet header matching. However, these systems have some drawbacks: 1) To avoid collision, CRC hash functions must be chosen very carefully depending on specific pattern groups; 2) Since the pattern set is dependent, probability of redesigning system and reprogramming the FPGA is very high when the patterns are being updated; 3) By using glue logic gates for simplicity, the long patterns processing is also ineffective for updating.

On the other hand, Dharmapurikar et al. propose to use Bloom Filters to do the deep packet inspection [25]. Unlike other hashing approaches mentioned above, the pattern update process can be done easily without reprogramming FPGA. A Bloom Filter with multiple hash functions up to 35 probes is used to check whether or not a pattern is member of the set. Nevertheless, its main problem is due to false positive matches, which requires extra cost of hardware to confirm the match.

# 2.2 Cuckoo Hashing

Cuckoo Hashing is proposed by Pagh and Rodler [15] as an algorithm for maintaining a dynamic dictionary with constant lookup time in the worst case scenario. The algorithm utilizes two tables,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , of  $m = (1 + \epsilon)n$  cells each, where  $\epsilon$  is some constant ( $\epsilon > 0$ ), n is the number of elements (strings). Cuckoo Hashing does not need perfect hash functions that is very complicated if the set of stored elements dynamically changes under the insertion and deletion. Given two hash functions,  $h_1$  and  $h_2$ , mapping from universe U to [m], a pattern x can be exactly stored in either cell  $T_1[h_1(x)]$  or  $T_2[h_2(x)]$  but not both. So, lookup of x requires at most two positions. Deletion procedure can also run in worst case constant time.

Pagh and Rodler described a procedure to insert a new pattern x in expected constant time. For the first time, x is always placed into cell  $T_1[h_1(x)]$ . If this cell is empty, the insertion is complete; if it is occupied by a pattern y which necessarily satisfies  $h_1(x) = h_1(y)$ , then x is put in cell  $T_1[h_1(x)]$  anyway, and y is kicked out. Then, y is put into



**Fig. 1** Original Cuckoo Hashing [15] a) A pattern x is successfully inserted by moving y and z. b) A pattern x cannot be accommodated and a rehash is required.

the cell  $T_2[h_2(y)]$  of the second table similarly, which is also possibly occupied by another pattern *z* with  $h_2(y) = h_2(z)$ . In this case, *z* is placed in cell  $T_1[h_1(z)]$ , and the process repeats until the pattern can be placed in an empty cell as in Fig. 1 a. However, it can be seen that the "cuckoo process" may not terminate as Fig. 1 b. As a result, the number of iterations is limited by a bound *M* chosen beforehand. In this case every entry must be rehashed with two new hash functions.

# 3. FPGA-Based Pattern Matching Engine in NIDS/ NIPSs Using Cuckoo Hashing

For pattern matching in NIDS/NIPS, the patterns are searched on the incoming data (packets). The matched pattern can occur anywhere as the longest substring. This problem is called multi-pattern matching with a set of patterns  $P = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\}$  and the incoming data *T*. Normally, the pattern set is preprocessed and built in a system. The incoming data is entered into a FIFO to compare with all of patterns. As a result, Cuckoo Hashing is a good candidate for multi-pattern matching with constant lookup time. Furthermore, dynamic update for the pattern set does not affect the performance of lookup. Figure 2 a shows an overview of multi-pattern matching engine using FPGA-based Cuckoo Hashing. Each module named *Cuckoo L<sub>i</sub>* can process patterns of *i* characters long.

In order to process at the network speed in Gbps, we have to construct Cuckoo Hashing module for every pattern length from  $L_{min} = 1$  up to  $L_{max}$  characters. The priority circuit then selects the longest pattern if multi matches happen. However,  $L_{max}$  can grow up to hundreds in most of NIDS/NIPS systems. Thus, we build the Cuckoo Hashing modules for short patterns with the maximum length  $L_{max\_s}$  according to the most distribution of patterns in NIDS/NIPS. In Snort pattern set,  $L_{max\_s}$  gets the best value of 16 characters. For longer patterns, we can break them into shorter segments so that we can insert those segments to the Cuckoo modules of short patterns. We then use simple address linked-lists to combine these segments later. Figure 2 b shows our optimized architecture for pattern matching.

# 3.1 FPGA-Based Cuckoo Hashing Module

In order to increase memory utilization, we build up a hashing module for each pattern length and use indirect stor-



**Fig.2** FPGA-based pattern matching engine in NIDS/NIPSs using Cuckoo Hashing. a) General Model b) Optimized Hardware Model.



**Fig. 3** FPGA-based Cuckoo Hashing module with parallel lookup. Tables  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  store the key indices; Table  $T_3$  stores the keys.

age. Small and sparse hash tables contain indices of patterns which are the addresses of a condensed pattern-stored table. Our approach is also to change the lookup to parallel processing. The insertion can be changed for better selection of the available space in both hash tables. With some improvements in architecture, ours can take full advantages of hardware.

The architecture of a FPGA-based Cuckoo Hashing module as shown in Fig. 3 consists of three tables. Two index tables (hash tables)  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are single-port SRAMs and a pattern-stored table  $T_3$  is a double-port SRAM for concurrent processing. Hash functions can be changed if they are required to rehash. Two registers named *key* and *index* are the pattern to be searched for and the memory address of that pattern in  $T_3$ , respectively. Besides, two multiplexers are used to select addresses of  $T_3$ . Finally, a comparator is used for exact matching of *key* with two candidate patterns from  $T_3$ .

#### 3.1.1 Parallel Lookup of an Incoming Pattern

By using parallel and multi-phase pipeline architecture, PAMELA can look up patterns every clock cycle. Figure 4 is the pseudo-code of parallel Cuckoo lookup function. A pattern x is hashed by two hash functions concurrently. Then, the values of two hash functions are used as the addresses of two index tables. After that, the outputs of two index tables are used as the addresses of  $T_3$ . Finally, to determine the match, the outputs of  $T_3$  are compared with x.

## 3.1.2 Dynamic Pattern Insertion and Deletion

The insertion of a new pattern x can be described in Fig. 5. We have some improvements as compared with the original Cuckoo Hashing. We consider both tables to reduce the insertion time. If one of the outputs of two index tables is empty (NULL), the index of x is inserted into  $T_1$  or  $T_2$  and the insertion is complete. If the outputs of both  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are not NULL, we insert the *index* into the table with less number of patterns. At the same time, the "kicked-out" *index*\_T\_1 (*index*\_T\_2) and its data from  $T_3$  will be written into the *in*-

func	tion lookup(x)	
se	lect index $T_1$ in MUX1 and index $T_2$ in MUX2	2;
	$index_{T_1} = T_1(h_1(x));$ // phase1	+2
	$index_{2} = T_{2}(h_{2}(x));$	
	<pre>doutA = PortA(index_T<sub>1</sub>); // phase3</pre>	3
	doutB = PortB(index_ $T_2$ );	
	return(doutA = x or doutB = x); // phase4	ł
end		

Fig. 4 Pseudo-code of parallel Cuckoo lookup algorithm.

```
procedure insert(x)
    if (lookup(x)) return;
     select index_T<sub>1</sub> in MUX1 and index in MUX2;
     PortB(index) = x;
     if(index_T_1 == NULL) {
         T_1(h_1(x)) = index;
                                  return;}
     else if (index_T<sub>2</sub> == NULL) {
T<sub>2</sub>(h<sub>2</sub>(x)) = index; ret
                                 return;}
     select index_T1 or index_T2 in MUX1
         //depending on balance of hash table
     loop MaxLoop times // "Cuckoo process"
         if (select index_T<sub>1</sub> in MUX1) {
              key = PortA(index_T<sub>1</sub>);
              index = index_T<sub>1</sub>;
              select index_T, in MUX1;}
         else{ // (select index T<sub>2</sub> in MUX1)
              key = PortA(index_T<sub>2</sub>);
              index = index_T<sub>2</sub>;
              select index_T, in MUX1;}
          index_{T_1} = T_1(h_1(x));
         index_{T_{2}} = T_{2}(h_{2}(x));
         if (select index_T<sub>1</sub> in MUX1){
              if(index_T<sub>1</sub> == NULL) return;
               doutA = PortA(index_T_1);}
          else{ // (select index_T<sub>2</sub> in MUX1)
              if(index_T<sub>2</sub> == NULL) return;
              doutA = PortA(index_T<sub>2</sub>);}
     end loop
     rehash(); insert(x);
end
```

Fig. 5 Pseudo-code of parallel Cuckoo insertion algorithm.

dex and key registers to start the hashing process. Then, M,  $[3log_{1+\epsilon}m]$  [15], is decreased and the key value is hashed by hash function  $h_2$  ( $h_1$ ). The output data will be checked for whether the value is NULL. If it is NULL, the process ends with successful insertion. On the other hand, the process is continued by taking in turns hashing from  $h_2$  ( $h_1$ ) to  $h_1$  ( $h_2$ ). The worst case happens when M decreases to zero. Hence, a rehash is required. Two new hash functions  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are issued by a pseudo-random number generator.

For deletion, the algorithm in Fig. 6 is as simple as the lookup process. If the lookup succeeds, MUX1 will select exactly one of the outputs of two index tables to write into the index register. We then write NULL into table  $T_3$  at the address pointed by the index register. After that, we reset the index register to NULL and write it into appropriate  $T_1$  or  $T_2$ . The deletion process results in some "holes" in  $T_3$ . When the number of "holes" is greater than a threshold, the rehash for rearranging of  $T_3$  can be implemented.

#### 3.1.3 Recommended Hash Function

The hash function of choice greatly affects the performance of the system. A fast way of generating a class of universal hash function that is hardware-friendly and tabulation based method [26], is defined as follows:

$$H_t(x) = a_t[0][x_0] \oplus a_t[1][x_1] \oplus \dots \oplus a_t[n-1][x_{n-1}]$$
(1)

A table contains a 2-D array of random numbers in the hashing space. A key x is a string of n characters,  $x_0x_1..x_{n-1}$ , and the hash value is calculated by bit-wise exclusive-or ( $\oplus$ ) a sequence of values  $a_t[i][x_i]$ , which is indexed by each byte value of  $x_i$  and position of i in the string. The drawback is that the size of random table is very large and depends on the key length.

Another class of simple hash function for hashing character strings named *shift-add-xor* (SAX) [27] utilizes only the simple and fast operations of shift, exclusive-or and addition.

$$H_i = H_{i-1} \oplus (S_L(H_{i-1}) + S_R(H_{i-1}) + c_i)$$
(2)

Two operators  $S_L$  and  $S_R$  denote the shift left and right, respectively. The symbol  $c_i$  is the character  $i^{th}$  of string and  $H_i$  is an intermediate hash value after examination of *i* characters. The initial value  $H_0$  can be generated randomly. The main advantage of SAX as compared with random-table is very few hardware resources required. To generate the new

Fig. 6 Pseudo-code of parallel Cuckoo deletion algorithm.

SAX hash function in case of rehashing, we only need to change the value of  $H_0$  by a simple pseudo-random circuit LFSR [28]. Therefore, SAX is a suitable choice for PAMELA.

#### 3.1.4 Hardware Optimization for Cuckoo Module

We can significantly reduce large amount of hardware by exploiting accumulative characteristic of SAX hash function. From Eq. (2), to calculate hash value of an incoming pattern with length *i* characters in the hash module  $i^{th}$ , the requisite inputs are the hash values of i - 1 characters calculated beforehand in the hash module  $(i - 1)^{th}$  and the  $i^{th}$  character. Therefore, the values of previous hash module can be reused for the next hash module. As shown in Fig. 2 b, two hash values  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  of *Cuckoo*  $L_{i-1}$  are fed into *Cuckoo*  $L_i$  ( $2 < i \le L_{max.s}$ ). In addition, the FIFO for the incoming data is also replaced by only a one-character shift register.

Nevertheless, our hardware optimization can increase the probability of rehash on the system. For example, when a rehash by collision happens at Cuckoo module *i*, new functions  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  of module *i* make the inputs of module i + 1changed and the hash values of module i+1 will be incorrect. The process is going on recursively up to module  $L_{max\_s}$ . As a result, the rehash can be forced from Cuckoo module i + 1to module  $L_{max\_s}$ . This thing, however, only affects the insertion process. This trade off is good enough because the first priority is fast lookup with smaller hardware.

#### 3.2 Matching Long (>16-Character) Patterns

We break the longer (> 16-Character) patterns into variablelength segments of 1 to  $L_{max\_s} = 16$  characters. The above Cuckoo Hashing modules can then be used for matching these individual segments. After that, these segments of a long pattern are combined to a chain that can be implemented by simple linked-list technique. The data structure for storing linked-lists is a table named  $T_4$  whose depth is the depth of  $T_3$  multiplied by the number of Cuckoo modules. Each address represents one segment and its content is an address of next segment in the same long pattern.

For more details, we describe the technique using a simple example. We assume that string "abcdefghij" is a long pattern that is broken into smaller segments with proportion 3 : 3 : 2 : 2 as in Fig. 7 a. Segments 1 and 2 are hashed and stored in  $T_3$  of Cuckoo  $L_3$  at address 1FFh and 1*FEh* while segments 3 and 4 are hashed and stored in  $T_3$  of Cuckoo  $L_2$  at address 1A4h and 1A5h. We combine the addresses in  $T_3s$  together with the number of Cuckoo modules to link these individual segments. If the depth of  $T_3$  in every module and the number of Cuckoo modules are 512 and 16 then the bit number is 13 for representing a position of individual segment: 9 least significant bits for representing the address of  $T_3$  and 4 most significant bits for representing the number of Cuckoo modules. The segment addresses of "*abcdefghij*" in  $T_4$  are 7*FFh*, 7*FEh*, 5*A*4*h*, and 5*A*5*h* as shown in Fig. 7 b. The matching process is described as the



**Fig.7** Matching long patterns. a) Example of breaking a long pattern "abcdefghij". b) How to store a long pattern in table  $T_4$  as a linked-list.

following. When we get a match for segment "*abc*", we have address 7*FFh* whose content in  $T_4$  is 7*FEh*. After 3 clock cycles, if the mach segment is "*def*", the process is continued by jumping from 7*FFh* to 7*FEh*. Otherwise, the detective process finishes without match and resets for other patterns. Similarly, from 7*FEh*, if the next match segment after 2 clock cycles is "*gh*", address 5*A*4*h* is considered. Finally, if the last segment "*ij*" is detected 2 next clock cycles later then the content of address 5*A*5*h* is read and the match of this pattern is reported.

Two more bits are added in every entry of  $T_3$  as in Fig. 7 b. They are used to describe a string which can be the short pattern, the first segment of long pattern called *pre-fix segment*, the body of long pattern called *infix segment*, or even the short pattern which is also the prefix segment. In case of the end of long pattern called *suffix segment*, we can determine it by checking the content of its address in  $T_4$  whether it is NULL. However, if a long pattern is a prefix substring of another one then it cannot be detected. For example, a long pattern "*abcdef*" can be the prefix substring of "*abcdefghij*". To improve this case, we add one more bit in table  $T_4$ . When this bit is active, a suffix segment can also be an infix segment of another pattern. In other words, the content of a suffix segment in  $T_4$  can be a pointer to another address.

The above paragraphs describe the method for holding one long pattern per time. Each time, if the system detects one segment with length L, it has to wait for the next segment in L clock cycles. During this time, if other matches happen then the system cannot detect them. For example, the incoming data is "...abcdefghijk..." and we have 2 long patterns "abcdmnpq" and "bcdefghi" in the pattern set. We assume that these patterns are broken into segTo detect all segments of long patterns while matching in every clock cycle, we use  $L_{max_s} = 16$  down counters and registers for storing the match values read from  $T_4$ ; the length of segment and its content in  $T_4$  are stored in an available counter and register, respectively. When a segment match happens and it is a prefix segment, its position in  $T_4$  is considered. If it is an infix or a suffix of current long pattern candidates, it must be simultaneously compared to all registers whose counters are currently zero values to determine the unique address of  $T_4$ . Because the length of segments can reach at  $L_{max_s}$ , the maximum number of current long pattern candidates is  $L_{max_s}$ .

We use an automatic generator to partition the long patterns in pattern set. Figure 8 is the pseudo-code of long pattern insertion. First, we consider long patterns as the incoming strings pass through the engine for lookup. If a short pattern in the engine is the longest prefix of a candidate long pattern then we break the long pattern such that its first segment is the same length as the short pattern. We mark the short pattern which is also the prefix segment to avoid checking again. After that, we break the rest of the long pattern into halves if the length of the rest is greater than  $L_{max,s}$  or the number of patterns in the same table  $T_3$  is greater than a certain threshold Th, somewhat arbitrarily set

```
procedure insert long(x)
   sh: short pattern in table T3;
   prefix(k,x): prefix with length k of x;
   suffix(k,x): suffix with length k of x;
   // lookup the longest prefix of x
   if(lookup(x)) return;
   if (lookup(sh=prefix(k,x)) and sh without "011") {
        //short & prefix segment
        change the end of sh to "011";
        call part(suffix(k(x-sh),x),"010","110");}
    else
        call part(x, "001", "110");
end
procedure part(x,pre_id,suf_id)
   L: length of x;
   #T3(L): #patterns in T3 of length L;
   Th<sub>t</sub>:threshold of length L;
   if(L > L_{max s} \text{ or } \#T3(L) > Th_{L} \text{ or lookup}(x)) 
       part(prefix(L-L/2,x),pred_id,"010");
        part(suffix(L/2,x),"010",suf_id);}
    else{
        if(pre_id=="001")
                               //prefix segment
           insert(x) with the end "001";
        else if(suf id=="110") //suffix segment
           insert(x) with the end "110";
        else
                               //infix segment
            insert(x) with the end "010";}
end
```

Fig. 8 Pseudo-code of long pattern insertion algorithm.

less than the size of hash table, to avoid the high probability of rehash. Otherwise, the rest can be a suffix segment. The partitioning can continue if any segment matches with a string in the engine.

# 4. Performance Evaluation: Theoretical Analysis and Simulation

## 4.1 Theoretical Analysis

In this subsection, we will analyze the time to lookup and insert a pattern. Based on the worst case scenario, we propose a method for bounding insertion time of a new pattern. In addition, two common area metrics of SRAM-based FPGA, memory and logic gate utilization are also explored to show the efficiency of PAMELA engine. To facilitate the theoretical analysis, some main notations are listed in Table 1.

# 4.1.1 Lookup Time and Insertion Time

The time to process a pattern of length *L* (characters or bytes) is a function of the number of cycles needed to calculate the hash values  $T_{hash}$ , and the number of cycles needed to access memory including hash tables  $T_{mem_{1,2}}$  and storage-pattern table  $T_{mem_3}$ . We assume that the time needed to access every memory table is constant and  $T_{mem_{1,2}} = T_{mem_3} = T_{mem}$ . Our engine takes one character per clock cycle, so  $T_{hash} = L$ . The equation for the processing time  $T_{proc_L}$  is expressed as

$$T_{proc_L} = T_{hash} + 2T_{mem} = L + 2T_{mem}$$
(3)

For pattern lookup, we need one more stage to compare the candidate pattern after reading out of table  $T_3$  with the part of the incoming data. With the time of the comparison  $T_{mtch}$ , the equation for the lookup time is calculated as follows.

$$T_{lu_L} = T_{proc_L} + T_{mtch} = L + 2T_{mem} + T_{mtch}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

The insertion time  $T_{in_L}$  of a pattern x with length L can include some shuffles of other patterns in the hash table. Let h

 Table 1
 Summary of main notations used in the performance analysis.

Symbol	Units	Description
L	bytes	The length of a pattern
Thash	cycles	The time to calculate the hash values
T <sub>mem</sub>	cycles	The time to access any memory table
$T_{proc_L}$	cycles	The time to process a pattern of length $L$
$T_{mtch}$	cycles	The time of the comparison
$T_{lu_L}$	cycles	The lookup time of a pattern
$T_{in_L}$	cycles	The insertion time of a pattern
$T_{in_w_L}$	cycles	The worst case insertion time
T <sub>lu_long</sub>	cycles	The time for lookup of a long pattern
Tin_long	cycles	The time for insertion of a long pattern
Ss	bytes	The size of the stack
$T_{in\_u_L}$	cycles	The unsuccessful insertion time
$T_{part_I}$	cycles	The online partitioning time
$S_F$	bytes	The size of the FIFO
U <sub>mem</sub>		The average memory utilization
$R_{LC}$		The ratio logic gates of the general
		architecture and the optimized architecture

denote the number of shuffles then the average time of successful insertion is expressed as:  $T_{in\_avg_L} = (1 + h) \times T_{proc_L}$ . At the best case, successful insertion of a pattern requires no shuffle of other patterns in hash tables,  $T_{in\_best_L} = T_{proc_L}$ .

The worst case can happen as *h* reaches *M* and the rehash occurs. According to [15], probability of this case is  $O(1/n^2)$  when *M* is  $3log_{\epsilon+1}m$ . Before the rehashing process begins, the hash tables have to clear every occupied space. The reset time is  $T_{reset}$ . If  $N_L$  is the number of insertions for all patterns of length *L* until the successful insertion for pattern *x* then the time of rehash is  $N_L \times T_{proc_L}$ . In addition, according to the accumulative characteristic of SAX hash function, the rehashes are also required for patterns of lengths from L+1 to  $L_{max_s}$ . Finally, the worst-case insertion time of a pattern can be calculated as

$$T_{in\_w_L} = M \times T_{proc_L} + \sum_{i=L}^{L_{max,s}} (N_i \times T_{proc_i} + T_{reset})$$
(5)

where  $T_{proc_i}$  denotes the processing time of pattern with length *i* and  $N_i$  denotes the number of insertion time of all patterns with length *i*.

For long patterns, we consider three more parameters: the time to access table  $T_4$ ,  $T_{mem_4} = T_{mem}$ ; the time to compare and connect segments,  $T_{connect}$ ; and the number of segments of a pattern, s. We express the time for lookup and insertion of a long pattern as follows.

$$T_{lu\_long} = (T_{lu\_} + T_{mem} + T_{connect}) \times s \tag{6}$$

$$T_{in\_long} = (T_{in\_} + T_{mem} + T_{connect}) \times s \tag{7}$$

#### 4.1.2 Limited-Time Update

As the analyzed worst case of insertion in Eq. (5), updating time of a pattern can be lengthy. For real-time protection, some practical systems can be vulnerable. To avoid this weakness, the basic solution is that we build the duplicate modules or separate modules for updating only [10], [23]. However, this solution consumes a lot of hardware resources and require re-compiling some parts of the system. We propose a simple and fast method that needs minimum hardware based on the capability of breaking a pattern into segments.

The details of our solution can be described as follows. If the worst case happens as a new pattern is inserted in the system then we report unsuccessful insertion instead of rehashing the hash tables. However, at that time, some positions of the hash tables are modified. Thus, we add a *stack* to trace the insertion process. Every step of insertion process is stored in the stack. If M is reached then we copy the traces from the stack back to the hash tables to restore the system. For illustration, we use a simple example as in Fig. 9. We insert a new element "4" into hash tables that stored "0, 2" at addresses 3, 0 of  $T_1$  and "1, 3" at addresses 4, 0 of  $T_2$ . At every step of collisions, we store the old information of "kick-out" elements in the stack including of the address in



**Fig.9** Example of Limited-time pattern update. A *stack* traces the insertion process, the old information of "kick-out" elements, including of the address in hash table  $Addr_{hash}$ , the content at this address *Content<sub>hash</sub>*, and the order number of hash table  $Id_{hash}$ . A *FIFO* buffers the incoming data as updating patterns.

hash table  $Addr_{hash}$ , the content at this address  $Content_{hash}$ , and the order number of hash table  $Id_{hash}$ . As in Fig. 9, insertion process is infinite. Therefore, we restore steps one by one from the stack to the hash tables until the stack is empty with the last element of unavailable space being "4". We can calculate the size of the stack as follows

$$S_{S} = M \times [Addr_{hash} + Content_{hash} + Id_{hash}]_{byte}$$
(8)

In Eq. (8), the symbol  $[\ldots]_{byte}$  denotes rounding to byte of the bit sum of fields in the stack.

Next, we consider the new pattern as a long pattern and break it into segments to re-insert to the system. This process is recursive until the successful insertion occurs. We can prove that the update process of a string (pattern or segment) is limited by following paragraphs.

After un unsuccessful insertion of string less than or equal  $L_{max\_s}$ , the string must be broken into halves. Note that the partitioning of long patterns greater than  $L_{max\_s}$  is preprocessed off-line before updating. The online partitioning is slightly different from off-line method as mentioned in Sect. 3.2. We do not consider whether the short pattern in the engine can be the prefix segment to save time. So the unsuccessful insertion time and the partitioning time can be calculated as follows.

$$T_{in\_u_L} = M \times T_{proc_L} + M = M(T_{proc_L} + 1)$$
(9)

$$T_{part_L} = 2T_{lu_{L/2}} + 2T_{in_{L/2}} \tag{10}$$

The unsuccessful insertion time equals to the sum of insertion time and back tracking time. The partitioning time includes the lookup and insertion time of two halves. The worst case insertion time can be expressed by the sum of the unsuccessful time and the partitioning time.

$$T_{in\_w_L} = T_{in\_u_L} + T_{part_L}$$
(11)  
=  $T_{in\_u_L} + 2T_{lu_{1/2}} + 2T_{in_{1/2}}$ 

Let us assume that  $L_{max_s} = 2^K$  and the shortest segment is one-character which is always successful, so the insertion time  $T_{in_1} = T_{in_s w_1}$ . **Lemma 1.** The worst case insertion time of a new string of length  $L_{max_s} = 2^K (K \ge 1)$  is limited by the following.

$$T_{in\_w_{2^{K}}} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} 2^{i} (T_{in\_u_{2^{K-i}}} + 2T_{lu_{2^{K-i-1}}}) + 2^{K} T_{in\_w_{1}}$$

*Proof.* The proof is mathematical induction using Eq. (11).

• *Basis*: for K = 1, according to Eq. (11), it is true.

$$T_{in\_w_2} = T_{in\_u_2} + 2T_{lu_2} + 2T_{in_1}$$
  
$$\leq T_{in\_u_2} + 2T_{lu_2} + 2T_{in\_w_2}$$

• *Inductive step*: we assume that the result holds for some unspecified value of *K*.

We must be shown that the result holds for K + 1, that is:

$$\begin{split} I_{in\_w_{2K+1}} &= I_{in\_u_{2K+1}} + 2I_{lu_{2K}} + 2I_{in_{2K}} \\ &\leq T_{in\_u_{2K+1}} + 2T_{lu_{2K}} \\ &+ 2 \bigg[ \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} 2^{i} (T_{in\_u_{2K-i}} + 2T_{lu_{2K-i-1}}) \\ &+ 2^{K} T_{in_{2K/2K}} \bigg] \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^{K} 2^{i} (T_{in\_u_{2K+1-i}} + 2T_{lu_{2K-i}}) \\ &+ 2^{K+1} T_{in\_w_{1}} \end{split}$$

Hence, the proof.

From Eqs. (9), (3) and (4):

$$T_{in\_w_{2K}} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} 2^{i} [M(2^{K-i} + 2T_{mem} + 1) + 2(2^{K-i-1} + 2T_{mem} + T_{mtch})] + 2^{K} T_{in\_w_{1}}$$
(12)

Moreover, for on-the-fly update without interrupting the data stream, we can use a *FIFO* to buffer data stream. While a pattern is being updated, the data stream enters the FIFO. After the successful or unsuccessful update of a pattern, PAMELA will get data from the FIFO. The next update can continue as soon as the FIFO is empty. Because the network load is not 100% at all time, this on-the-fly update process is practical. If the line rate network is one byte per clock cycle, the size in byte of FIFO equals to the upper bound of a string insertion.

We assume that all time parameters in Eq. (12) consuming one clock cycle, K = 4, and M = 30 so we have the maximum successful insertion time of a pattern less than 3440 clock cycles as follows.

$$T_{in_{w_{2K}}} \leq \sum_{i=0}^{K-1} [2^{K}(M+1) + 2^{i}(3M+6)] + 2^{K}$$
(13)  
$$\leq 109M + 170 = 3440 = S_{F}$$

where  $S_F$  is the size of the FIFO.

#### 4.1.3 Hardware Utilization

In the direct storage method, the number of elements per hash table size named *load factor* presents the efficiency of memory utilization. In Cuckoo Hashing, load factor is less than 0.5 to guarantee success of pattern insertion. If we define  $n_{avg}$  as the average number of patterns and  $m_{avg}$  as the average size of hash table in each Cuckoo module, then the average load factor  $\alpha$  is given by the formula  $\alpha = n_{avg}/(2 \times m_{avg})$ 

In our indirect storage method, the hash tables only store the indices of patterns using a few hardware resources, and most of resources are for pattern storage. Therefore, the memory utilization metric of our system has to take into account the condensed table  $T_3$ . If we assume the size in bit of  $T_3$  is equal to the number of bits of pattern storage required, then it is the result of  $n_{avg}$  in a module multiplied by the average number of bits ( $8 \times L_{avg}$ ) per pattern of this module. The number of bits to encode the address of storage table  $T_3$  is  $\lceil log_2n_{avg} \rceil$ , where  $\lceil \rceil$  denotes rounding up. Finally, the average memory utilization  $U_{mem}$  is calculated as

$$U_{mem} = \frac{n_{avg} \times \lceil log_2 n_{avg} \rceil + n_{avg} \times 8 \times L_{avg}}{2 \times m_{avg} \times \lceil log_2 n_{avg} \rceil + n_{avg} \times 8 \times L_{avg}}$$
(14)

In Eq. (14),  $U_{mem}$  is the ratio of the patterns and their indices with the total sizes of  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_3$ . Figure 10 shows the effect of  $U_{mem}$  based on load factor  $\alpha$ . With the maximum value of  $\alpha$  of 0.5,  $U_{mem}$  is approximately 0.88 when  $m_{avg} = 512$ ,  $n_{avg} \approx 500$  and  $L_{avg} \approx 8$ ; we name it *PAMELA-*1. As  $\alpha$  reduces by half to 0.25,  $U_{mem}$  slightly reduces and equals to 0.72 when  $m_{avg} = 1,024$ ; we name it *PAMELA-*2. To consider lower value of load factor, it is not interesting in due to wasting too many memory resources. Therefore, we only select these two systems for further testing. If the balance between the high flexibility of update and the area is the first priority then *PAMELA-2* is selected. Otherwise, hardware-efficient *PAMELA-1* is the choice. Next section will show the practical comparison of two systems.

Besides the memory utilization, the logic gate (logic



**Fig. 10** Memory Utilization vs. Load Factor. *PAMELA-1* has Memory Utilization  $U_{mem}$  of 0.88, *PAMELA-2* has  $U_{mem}$  of 0.72.

cell) utilization is also our interest. We assume that if a character needs  $p_{LC}$  logic gates for implementing hash function as in Fig. 2 a then each pattern with length L needs  $L \times p_{LC}$ logic gates. With  $L_{max_s} = 16$  modules, the number of logic gates is very large for the general architecture. However, as in Fig. 2 b, our optimized architecture only uses  $p_{LC}$  logic gates for each module. The notation  $R_{LC}$  to represent the ratio between logic gates of the general architecture and the optimized architecture is

$$R_{LC} = \frac{\sum_{L=1}^{L_{max,s}} (L \times p_{LC})}{L_{max,s} \times p_{LC}}$$
(15)  
$$= \frac{L_{max,s} (L_{max,s} + 1) \times p_{LC}}{2 \times L_{max,s} \times p_{LC}} = \frac{(L_{max,s} + 1)}{2}$$

If  $L_{max,s}$  is 16 then the saving ratio is over 8 times for implementing the hash functions.

## 4.2 Performance Simulations

### 4.2.1 Off-Line Insertion of Short Patterns

On Dec 15, 2006, there were 4,748 unique patterns with 64,873 characters in Snorts rule set. The distribution of the pattern lengths in Snort database is from 1 up to 109 characters. Fortunately, 65% of total numbers of patterns are up to 16 characters. Therefore, we build the Cuckoo Hashing modules for short patterns which are less than or equal to  $L_{max,s} = 16$  characters according to this fact.

For practical comparison, we implement hash functions with patterns of the lengths from 2 to 16 characters. For pattern length of one character, we directly match the patterns to save the hardware. In all experiments from now on, the number of trials is 1,000. We define a parameter named %*Rehash* as the following equation to determine the possibility of rehash happening in every trial in every pattern length.

$$\% Rehash = \frac{the number of rehashes}{the number of trials} \times 100\%$$
(16)

Figure 11 presents the number of insertions of Cuckoo Hashing with three hash functions: SAX, random table and CRC in which the size of index table is 512. Although CRC is a polynomials function, it is a suitable candidate for testing due to its significantly cheap implementation on hardware [29]. Three names, *SAX\_hard*, *Tab\_hard* and *CRC\_hard*, are the FPGA-based systems whose architectures are changed as in Sect. 3.1 of this paper with patterns inserted in balancing.

The results in Fig. 11 show that the FPGA-based systems have the number of insertions less than the original systems by 20% and the performance of SAX hash function is close to that of random table. The results in Fig. 11 also show that the SAX and random table functions are significantly more efficient than CRC function with very small *%Rehash* of less than 5%. With the index table size of 512,



**Fig. 11** The number of insertions of various hash functions vs. pattern length (characters). Bar graphs are the numbers of patterns. Line graphs are the ratio of numbers of insertions over numbers of patterns. Index (hash) table size is 512. The number of trials is 1,000.



**Fig. 12** The number of insertions and %Rehash after addition of longer patterns vs. pattern lengths (*L*). *PAMELA-1* and *PAMELA-2* have the index table sizes of 512 and 1,024, respectively. Both systems are based on SAX hash function and our improved architecture. The number of trials is 1,000.

the average load factor of index table is about 1/4. The remaining space can be used for fitting the segments of patterns with lengths of over 16 characters.

#### 4.2.2 Off-Line Insertion of Long Patterns

We break 1,643 long patterns of Snort rule set into over 3,500 segments of lengths from 3 to 16 characters as the described technique in Sect. 3.2. By sharing the prefixes with short patterns in the engine, the number of unique segments reduces about 12%. Let *string* denote the short pattern and the segment of long pattern. Totally, there are 6,136 strings of pattern set. Note that the distribution of segments, *Th*, is also considered to make the string number less than 512 in every length. This condition helps reduce the number of block RAMs of FPGA for implementing  $T_3$  as well as  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

The design can be parameterized with different table depths of 512 and 1,024 entries as *PAMELA-1* and *PAMELA-2*, respectively as defined in the previous subsection. These systems are used to evaluate the trade off between hardware utilization and performance of insertion. Both systems are based on SAX hash function and the FPGA-based Cuckoo architecture. Figure 12 shows the



Fig. 13 The average insertion time (clock cycles) for inserting 381 new strings (patterns & segments). *PAMELA-3* is extended from *PAMELA-1* by adding a stack and a FIFO for limited-time and uninterruptible update. The number of trials is 1,000.

number of insertions as well as number of strings in every length after adding segments of long patterns. In every length of string, the number of insertions in *PAMELA-2* is just greater than the number of strings slightly. Unfortunately for *PAMELA-1*, the number of insertions is about 16% greater than the number of strings. *%Rehashes* of both systems are showed in Fig. 12 to explain why the number of insertions increases in *PAMELA-1*. Due to high memory utilization, the collision (*%Rehash*) increases as the number of patterns increases, approximately 12% as compared with 4% of *PAMELA-2*.

# 4.2.3 Dynamic Update for New Patterns

Snort rule database must be updated to handle the new attacks. Normally, the web site of Snort generates new rules every one or two weeks. As a result, PAMELA can also be rapidly and easily updated to avoid vulnerability.

To demonstrate the dynamic update ability of PAMELA, we accumulated the latest Snort pattern set on May 14, 2007 to 5,026 unique patterns and 68,266 characters. Based on the pattern set on Dec 15, 2006, there were 293 unique and new patterns consisting 3,476 characters and 15 unique patterns are searched in the system before inserting. Within these 293 new patterns, 65 patterns are longer than 16 characters. These long patterns are broken off-line into segments as described in Sect. 3.2. Finally, only 381 unique short patterns and segments are inserted.

The average insertion time in number of clock cycles of each PAMELA system is compared in Fig. 13. To determine M, we can assign  $\epsilon = 1$ ,  $m_{avg} = 1,024$  for all systems; thus the result of M is 30. Due to bigger table size of 1,024 entries, *PAMELA-2* takes 5,375 clock cycles to insert without rehashing. In *PAMELA-1*, the numbers of clock cycles at pattern lengths of 6, 11, 12 and 15 characters rapidly increase due to the high penalty of rehashing. With %*Rehash* from 0.6%-2.9%, it takes 12,600 clock cycles to insert that is about 2.5 times as compared with *PAMELA-2*. *PAMELA-3* is extended from *PAMELA-1* by adding a stack and a FIFO for limited-time and uninterruptible up-

System	Clock	Update	Additional hard-
-	Freq. (MHz)	time (µs)	ware requirement
PAMELA-1 (index		0.21	No
table size:512)			
PAMELA-2 (index	200	0.09	No
table size:1,024)	(assumed)		
PAMELA-3		0.17	A stack & FIFO
(extended from			for uninterruptible
PAMELA-1)			update
Bit-split AC [23]	N/A	$\sim 10^{6}$	A temporary
			module
Rom+CoProc [10]	260	$\sim 1/3 \times 10^3$	A co-processor

 Table 2
 Dynamic update comparison for a pattern.

date. According to Eqs. (8) and (13), the sizes of the stack and FIFO are 90 and 3440 bytes, respectively. Some new patterns with lengths of 6, 11, 12 and 15 characters are broken into segments with lengths of 3, 5–8 characters as they are unsuccessfully inserted into the index tables. Then, the segments are inserted into the modules with corresponding lengths. Some segments with length of 6 are continually broken again due to high collision but the total of partitioning times is only 2. Although the number of strings needed for insertion increases up to 390, the number of clock cycles including partitioning time in *PAMELA-3* reduces to 10,048. For 15 deleted patterns, the process is fast with around 100 clock cycles for each system.

We assume that PAMELA-1 to PAMELA-3 are clocked at 200 MHz which is less than our synthesized results shown later and can be achieved on many common Virtex FPGA boards. With 5,475 to 12,700 clock cycles, the update time is about 28 to 64 microseconds ( $\mu$ s). Table 2 shows the comparison of the dynamic update time of some systems. [23] shows that the system can update non-interrupting data stream by using a temporary module for updating only and the duration is less than one second for compiling and updating. [10] uses a co-processor to update with estimated time of 10 milliseconds (ms) for 30 new patterns. Thus we can show the approximate time for one pattern is 1/3 ms. We use no additional hardware in PAMELA-1 and PAMELA-2 of simulation systems. As a result, to add 293 new patterns, the average insertion time for a pattern is 19-43 clock cycles; and with added the delete time, the average time for updating one pattern is only 18-42 clock cycles, about 0.09- $0.21 \,\mu s$  on 200 MHz FPGA systems. If the limited-time and uninterruptible update system is required then PAMELA-3 is used; the insertion time of a new pattern is limited in 3440 clock cycles (~17  $\mu$ s). These results show that PAMELAs are very efficient for updating pattern set without lengthy FPGA reconfiguration time.

#### 5. Extension for Multi-Character Processing

To increase the throughput, PAMELA can be easily extended for multi-character processing. Instead of reading one character per clock cycle, the system shifts N characters into an input buffer every clock cycle The system has Nblocks corresponding to N characters needed to process. Inside the block, each Cuckoo module receives one character from the pre-determined address of input buffer and the hash value from the previous module. Figure 14 is an example of our system to process 4-character per clock cycle. Due to higher addressing complexity, we need to determine the address of input buffer that each Cuckoo Module is connected to. In each block *i*, if the address connected to the previous module is  $A_{i-1,i}$  ( $2 \le i \le L_{max-s}$ ) and contents character  $x_k$ then the address connected to the next module,  $A_{i,j}$ , has to shift N - 1 from  $A_{i-1,j}$  and the next module processes the next character. For example, if the string is "... abcd...", each time we shift N = 4 characters, the previous module consumes the character 'a' at address  $A_{i-1,i}$  then the next module consumes the character 'b' at address  $A_{i-1,j} + (N-1)$ one clock cycle later. In general, the address in the buffer connected to Cuckoo *i* of block *j* is:

$$A_{i,j} = A_{i-1,j} + (N-1) = A_{i-2,j} + 2(N-1)$$

$$= \dots = A_{1,j} + (i-1)(N-1)$$
(17)

From Eq. (17), we can see that when N = 1, the address of any module coincides with the first address. So it is correct with our one-character design. We can also calculate the size of input buffer from Eq. (17). The last address is  $A_{L_{max,s},1}$ when  $i = L_{max,s}$ . If the lowest address is zero then  $A_{1,1}$  is N - 1. The size of the buffer can be calculated as follows.

$$S_{Buffer} = A_{L_{max,s},1} + 1$$
(18)  
=  $A_{1,1} + (L_{max,s} - 1)(N - 1) + 1$   
=  $L_{max,s}(N - 1) + 1$ 

The resources for storing patterns in multi-character processing scheme can be significantly reduced by sharing SRAMs together. If the number of ports of SRAMs are two times of the number of processed characters,  $T_3$  can be shared for Cuckoo modules that process the same pattern length. Moreover, the processing of long pattern can be also carried out only one table  $T_4$  for the whole system.



**Fig. 14** PAMELA for *N*-character processing (N = 4). Cuckoo Modules are connected to the determined addresses of input buffer.

#### 6. FPGA Implementation Results

Our design is developed in Verilog hardware description language and by Xilinx's ISE 8.1i for hardware synthesis, mapping, and placing and routing. The target chips are some major Xilinx FPGA chips such as Virtex2, Virtex-Pro and Virtex-4. To reduce the number of memory blocks in FPGA, we can implement two index tables in the same block RAM;  $T_1$  is in a low addresses part and  $T_2$  is in a high addresses part. The block RAM of Xilinx FPGA can be configured as dual-port mode that can be accessed concurrently.

Based on our parallel pattern matching engine described earlier, we can measure the cost based on the numbers of block RAMs and logic cells in Table 3. With the maximum capacity of 18 kbits, block RAMs can be programmed as  $18K \times 1$  bit to  $512 \times 36$  bits, in various depth and width configurations. Hence, we can configure both tables  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  with size  $1,024 \times 9$  bits for each as PAMELA-2 mentioned above. Since the number of patterns in each Cuckoo module is less than 500, we can set the depth of  $T_3$ as 512. The width of  $T_3$  can be determined by the pattern length added 2 more bits for controlling long patterns. For table  $T_4$ , the width of  $T_4$  is equal to the number of its address bits plus 1 bit for suffix segment of long pattern. For this reason, the size of  $T_4$  is  $2^{13} \times 14$ . For the short patterns of one character, we can directly compare to save hardware resources. The other parts of the system use logic cell of FPGA. While SAX functions use few resources of logic cells, the most consuming parts are the comparators. Totally, we use only 62 block RAMs and 3,220 logic cells to fit 68,266 characters of the entire rule set on the XCV4LX100 FPGA chip. To update without interrupting the incoming data, three more block RAMs are used to implement the stack and FIFO. For multi-character processing, since current Xilinx FPGA chips only have 2-port block RAM, we have to duplicate the pattern in  $T_3$ s. In addition,  $T_4$ s can only process 2 lookups at the same clock cycle. Some components such as the controls, counters, registers, LFSR, etc. are also shared inside the system.

Table 4 shows the comparison of our synthesized systems with other recent FPGA systems. Two metrics, logic

Table 3 Logic and memory cost of components in Virtex-4.

Component	Quan	Block	Logic	Note
_	tity	RAMs	cells	
Tables $T_1 \& T_2$	$15 \times 2$	15	0	2 tables in a BRAM
Table $T_3$	16	39	0	The BRAM numbers
				for lengths
				1 to 4: 1; 5 to 8: 2
				9 to 13: 3; 14 to 16: 4
Table $T_4$	1	8	0	
SAX hashes	$15 \times 2$	0	840	
Multiplexer	$15 \times 2$	0	300	
Comparator	32	0	1,320	16 for long patterns
Counter, Priority,		0	760	
Reg, LFSR, etc.				
Total		62	3,220	

System	Device	bits/	Freq.	No.	No.	Mem	LCs/	Mem per	T-put	PEM
	(Xilinx)	cycle	(MHz)	chars	LCs	(kbits)	char	char (bits)	(Gbps)	
	XC4VLX100	8	285		3,220	1,116	0.047	16.74	2.28	10.29
	XC4VLX100	16	282		6,120	2,070	0.090	31.05	4.51	10.92
	XC4VLX100	32	275	68,266	11,980	4,140	0.175	62.10	8.80	10.70
PAMELA-2	XC2VP20	8	272		3,266	1,116	0.048	16.74	2.18	9.79
	XC2V6000	8	223		3,266	1,116	0.048	16.74	1.78	8.03
	XC2V6000	16	218		6,212	2,070	0.091	31.05	3.49	8.42
PAMELA-2 (with a	XC4VLX100	8	285	68,266	3,233	1,170	0.047	17.55	2.28	9.91
FIFO and a stack)										
V-HashMem [13]	XC2VP30	8	306	33,613	2,084	702	0.060	21.39	2.49	8.60
HashMem [12]	XC2V1000	8	250	18 636	2,570	630	0.140	34.62	2.00	4.01
	XC2V3000	16	232	18,030	5,230	1,188	0.280	65.28	3.71	3.86
PH-Mem [11]	XC2V1000	8	263	20.011	6,272	288	0.300	14.10	2.11	4.71
	XC2V1500	16	260	20,911	10,224	306	0.490	14.98	4.16	6.44
ROM+Coproc [10]	XC4VLX15	8	260	32,384	8,480	276	0.260	8.73	2.08	5.90
Prefix Tree [9]	XC2VP100	8	191	39,278	12,176	0	0.310	0	1.53	4.93
PreD-CAM [7]	XC2V3000	8	372	18 036	19,854	0	1.100	0	2.98	2.70
	XC2V6000	32	303	18,030	64,268	0	3.560	0	9.70	2.72
FPGA-based Bit-Split [24]	XC4FX100	8	200	16,715	4,514	6,000	0.270	184	1.60	0.39
PreD-NFA [6]	XC2V8000	32	219	17,537	54,890	0	3.130	0	7.00	2.24

 Table 4
 Performance comparison of FPGA-based systems for NIDS/NIPS.

cells per character (LCs/char) and SRAM bits per character (bits/char), are used to evaluate the efficiency of FPGA utilization. For state machine approach, we just show some interesting implementations that are commonly used for static pattern matching only. We can see that the hashing systems [10]–[13] are almost better than state machine [6], [24] and compare-and-shift ones [7], [9] in term of hardware utilization. As compared to V-HashMem [13], PAMELAs are 30% fewer in LCs/char and bits/char. Note that V-HashMem supports header matching with less hardware. On the contrary, with 6,500 strings inserted into the system, the storage capacity of synthesized PAMELA can support 1500 more strings without additional hardware resource. As compared to [10], [11], the Block RAM usage of our architecture is 1.22–2.07 times greater than theirs, but our logic cell usage is significantly smaller than theirs by 4.3-5.2 times. In summary, PAMELAs are the most efficient ones in using logic cells of FPGA at a cost of 0.047-0.175 LCs/char. In addition, the memory usage of our architecture is of high density (16.74-62.10 bits/char) and is acceptable as compared to other systems.

For throughput comparison, our throughput (T-put) can vary from 1.78–8.8 Gbps depending on the kinds of FPGA chips and the number of characters processed per clock cycle. Some works can also process multi-character at very high throughput up to 10 Gbps, especially shift-andcompare architectures. However, the area cost is high. Therefore, a Performance Efficiency Metric (PEM) is used as the ratio of throughput in Gbps to the logic cell per each pattern character for performance evaluation.

$$PEM = \frac{Throughput}{\frac{No.Logiccells + \frac{Membytes}{12}}{No.Characters}}$$
(19)

Assuming that the cost of 12 bytes block RAMs is equivalent to a logic cell [30], Eq. (19) takes into account both block RAMs and logic cells area metrics for fair compari-

son [14] between the memory-based systems and the logic gate-based systems. As PEMs in the range of 8.03–10.92, PAMELAs are the best of the FPGA-based hashing systems, far better than the shift-and-compare systems by at least two times, and better than the state machine systems over three times.

# 7. Conclusion

A pattern matching engine based on Cuckoo hashing for NIDS/NIPS named PAMELA is proposed. PAMELA engine can update the new patterns rapidly in the orders of microseconds. PAMELA can also guarantee that the data stream cannot be interrupted during pattern updates by adding both small stack and FIFO. According to the implementation results, the performance of PAMELA is the best when compared with other previous systems and the achievable throughput can be up to 8.8 Gbits/s. The current scheme of PAMELA is also scalable enough to process *N* characters every clock cycle. Since PAMELA requires no reconfiguration at all, this engine can be applied on ASIC at much higher performance than FPGA.

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