EC500

Design of Secure and Reliable Hardware

Lecture 9

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1 Arithmetical Codes

1.1 Detection and Correction of errors in arithmetical channels (adders, multipliers, etc)

Let $S = \{0,1,\cdots,2^n-1\}$ and C be a subset of S. We will call C an arithmetical code.

For any $a, b \in S$, we denote the **arithmetical distance** between a and b as $d_A(a, b)$, where $d_A(a, b)$ is a minimal number of $\pm 2^i$ terms in representation of |a - b|, for i < n. Norm of a, $|a| = d_A(0, a)$. For the rest of this lecture note, we will denote $d_A(a, b)$ as just d(a, b) for simplicity. As an example, for n = 4, we have d(2,9) = 2 since $9 - 2 = 7 = 2^3 - 2^0$, or |7| = 2. The arithmetical distance d(C) of a code C is the minimal distance between any two different codewords of the code.

If y is distorted into $\tilde{y} = y + e$, then the multiplicity of the error e is |e|. A code C is capable of detecting l errors iff $d(C) \ge l + 1$, and correcting l errors iff $d(C) \ge 2l + 1$.

1.2 AN-Codes

 $C = \{0, A, 2A, \dots, (K-1)A\}$ where $(K-1)A \le 2^n - 1$. For any $v \in C$, the residue of v modulo A, res_A v, is equal to 0. (res_A v = 0 is comparable to Hv = 0 for linear codes where H is the check matrix for the code).

Error detection: verify that the output \tilde{v} of the arithmetical device (AD) belongs to C. (verify that $\operatorname{res}_A \tilde{v} = 0$).

Error correction: for an output \tilde{v} , find the nearest (in terms of arithmetical distance) codeword v.

1.2.1 Single Error Detecting Arithmetical codes with distance 2

A=3 since $\operatorname{res}_3\pm 2^i$ is <u>not</u> equal to 0. The number of codewords is less than or equal to $\frac{(2^n-1)}{2}+1$.

1.2.2 Single Error Correcting (SEC) Arithmetical codes with distance 3

Any single error e is in the form $\pm 2^i$ for $i=0,1,\cdots,n-1$. To correct single errors by AN-code, we need that the syndromes $\operatorname{res}_A e$ should all be different and not equal to 0.

Example

$$n = 11, A = 23$$

$$\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^0 = 1$$
, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^0 = 22$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^1 = 2$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^1 = 21$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^2 = 4$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^2 = 19$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^3 = 8$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^3 = 15$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^4 = 16$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^4 = 7$, \cdots , $\operatorname{res}_{11} 2^{10} = 12$, $\operatorname{res}_{11} - 2^{10} = 11$ (mod 23).

All numbers $\pm 2^i$ for $i=0,1,2,3,4,\cdots,11$ are different modulo 23 and we have a 23N single error correcting code $C=\{0,23,46,\cdots,2047\}$.

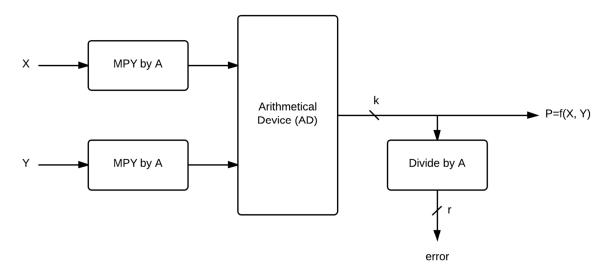
1.3 Hamming Bound

Let $V_A(n,l)$ be the volume of an **arithmetical ball with radius** l. (number of errors with multiplicity l for $S = \{0,1,\cdots,2^n-1\}$). Since for error correction by AN code, any 2 errors e_1 and e_2 should have different syndromes ($\operatorname{res}_A e_1 \neq \operatorname{res}_A e_2$), we have $A \geq V_A(n,l)$. Compare to $2^{n-k} = 2^r \geq V_H(n,l)$ where $V_H(n,l)$ is the volume of the Hamming ball of radius l for linear codes.

We say the code is **perfect** iff $A = V_A(n, l)$. For single errors $(l = 1, d = 3), V_A(n, 1) = 2n + 1$. SEC code is **perfect** iff A = 2n + 1. The 23N code shown in the previous example is perfect.

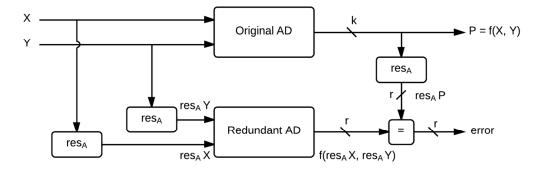
Theorem. AN codes are prefect SEC codes iff 2 is primitive modulo A.

1.4 Hardware Implementations of Nonsystematic Arithmetical Codes



1.5 Hardware Implementations of Systematic Arithmetical Codes

Codewords in the form $(P, \operatorname{res}_A P)$ $(P \text{ is } k \text{ bits, } \operatorname{res}_A P \text{ is } r = \log_2 A \text{ bits})$



1.6 Low Cost AN Codes

Division is **not required** to compute $res_A X$.

Denote q=A+1, represent X with radix q. $X=\sum_{i=0}^m X_iq^i$ where X_i belongs to $\{0,1,\cdots,q-1\}$. Then, $\operatorname{res}_A X=\operatorname{res}_A X_0+\operatorname{res}_A X_1+\cdots+\operatorname{res}_A X_m=X_0+X_1+\cdots+X_m$ since $\operatorname{res}_A X_i=X_i$.

Or, denote q=A-1, represent X with radix q. $X=\sum_{i=0}^m X_i q^i$ where v_i belongs to $\{0,1,\cdots,q-1\}$. Then, $\operatorname{res}_A X=\operatorname{res}_A X_0-\operatorname{res}_A X_1+\operatorname{res}_A X_2-\operatorname{res}_A X_3+\cdots+\operatorname{res}_A X_m=X_0-X_1+X_2-X_3\cdots+X_m$, where $\operatorname{res}_A X_i=X_i$ if $X_i< q-1$ and $\operatorname{res}_A X_i=0$ if $X_i=q-1$.

For $q = 2^s$, $A = 2^s + 1$ or $A = 2^s - 1$. If $A = 2^s + 1$, then $\text{res}_A(2^s) = 1$ and if $A = 2^s - 1$, then $\text{res}_A(2^s) = -1$.

Example 1

$$A = 31, s = 5, q = 32, n = 15$$

 $\text{Let } X = \sum_{i=0}^{14} x_i 2^i = \sum_{i=0}^4 x_i 2^i + 2^5 \sum_{i=5}^9 x_{i+5} 2^i + 2^{10} \sum_{i=10}^{14} x_{i+10} 2^i = X_0 + 2^5 X_1 + 2^{10} X_2, \text{ where } X_0, X_1, X_2 \text{ belong to } \{0,1,\cdots,31\}. \text{ Then, } \operatorname{res}_{31} X = \operatorname{res}_{31} X_0 + \operatorname{res}_{31} X_1 + \operatorname{res}_{31} X_2 \pmod{31}. \operatorname{res}_{31} X_i = X_i \text{ if } X_i < 32, \text{ and } \operatorname{res}_{31} X_i = 0 \text{ if } X_i = 31.$

Example 2

$$A = 33$$
, $s = 5$, $q = 32$, $n = 15$

 $\text{Let} \quad X = \sum_{i=0}^{14} x_i 2^i = \sum_{i=0}^4 x_i 2^i + 2^5 \sum_{i=5}^9 x_i 2^i + 2^{10} \sum_{i=10}^{14} x_i 2^i = X_0 + 2^5 X_1 + 2^{10} X_2 \quad , \quad \text{where} \quad X_0, X_1, X_2 \\ \text{belong to } \{0,1,\cdots,31\}. \text{ Then, } \operatorname{res}_{33} X = \operatorname{res}_{33} X_0 - \operatorname{res}_{33} X_1 + \operatorname{res}_{33} X_2 = X_0 - X_1 + X_2 \pmod{33}.$

2 Cyclic Hamming Codes

Let $n=2^r-1$ and consider $GF(2^r)$. Let α be primitive in $GF(2^r)$. $\alpha^i\neq\alpha^j$, $i\neq j$, $i,j=0,1,\cdots,2^r-2$. Take $H=\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 & \cdots & \alpha^{2^r-2} \end{bmatrix}$, + since $\alpha^i\neq\alpha^j$, H is a check matrix for a $(2^r-1,2^r-r-1,3)$ Hamming code.

For r=3, $v\in V$ iff $v_0+\alpha v_1+\alpha^2 v_2+\cdots+\alpha^6 v_6=0$. Let $v(x)=v_0+v_1x+v_2x^2+\cdots+v_6x^6$ polynomial representation of v, then $v\in V$ iff $v(\alpha)=0$, α is a root of v(x). For $v=(v_0,v_1,\cdots,v_6)$, denote $y=\mathrm{Rot}\,v=(v_6,v_0,\cdots,v_5)$. Then in the polynomial form, $y(x)=v_6+v_0x+v_1x^2+\cdots+v_5x^6=v(x)\cdot x$ since $x^7=x^0=1$.

There are no simple procedures to decide whether a polynomial p(x) is primitive over Z (irreducibility is a <u>necessary</u> condition for primitivity). For $GF(2^r)$, there are good tables of primitive polynomials.

Example

$$Z = Z_2 = \{0,1\}, n = 3$$

Binary			Polynomial	Exponential
0	0	0	0	-
0	0	1	x^2	α^2
0	1	0	x	α^1
0	1	1	$x + x^2$	α^4
1	0	0	1	α^0
1	0	1	$1 + x^2$	α^6
1	1	0	1 + x	α^3
1	1	1	$1 + x + x^2$	α^5
1	α	α^2		

¹ α α^2

$$\begin{split} p(x) &= x^3 + x + 1 \to x^3 = x + 1 \\ \alpha^4 &= \alpha^2 + \alpha, \, \alpha^5 = \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 = \alpha^2 + \alpha + 1, \, \alpha^6 = \alpha^3 + \alpha^2 + \alpha = \alpha + 1 + \alpha^2 + \alpha = \alpha^2 + 1 \\ \alpha^7 &= \alpha^{2^{n}-1} = \alpha^3 + \alpha = 1, \, |GF(2^r)| = 8 \end{split}$$

$$(101)(110) = \alpha^6 \cdot \alpha^3 = \alpha^9 = \alpha^2 = 001$$

$${}^{111}/_{110} = \alpha^2 = 001, \, {}^{110}/_{101} = \alpha^{-3} = \alpha^4 = 011$$

Thus, if y = Rot v, then y(x) = xv(x). If $v(\alpha) = 0 \leftrightarrow v \in V$, $y(x) = xv(x) \leftrightarrow y(\alpha) = 0 \leftrightarrow \text{Rot } v \in V$. Our code is closed for circular shifts \rightarrow cyclic code.

3 Binary Hamming Codes (cont'd)

 $n=2^r-1$. Consider $GF(2^r)$ generated by p(x) where $\deg P(x)=r$. Let α be the root of p(x), $p(\alpha)=0$. Take $H=\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha^3 & \cdots & \alpha^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \} r$, $v\in C$ (Hamming code) iff Hv=0, $v(\alpha)=0$. If $v\in C\leftrightarrow v(\alpha)=0$. Consider $Q(x)=v(x)\omega(x)$ for any $\omega(x)$, then $Q(\alpha)=v(\alpha)\omega(\alpha)=0 \to Q\in C$. If v is a codeword, all multiples of v are codewords. Since $p(\alpha)=0$, code C consists of all multiples of p(x).

For example, for n=3, one can take $p(x)=x^3+x+1$ (primitive). Then $p(x)\in C\to (1101000)\in C$ and code consists of all multiples of $p(x)=x^3+x+1$.

Example

$$(x^3 + x + 1)(x^2 + 1) = x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x^3 + x + 1 = x^5 + x^2 + x + 1 \to 1110010 \in C$$

Remark: Shortened Hamming codes with $n < 2^r - 1$ are <u>not</u> cyclic.

3.1 Generating Matrices for Binary Hamming Codes

Let p(x) be used to construct $GF(2^r)$ deg p(x)=r. p(x) is primitive and $p(\alpha)=0$, $p\in C$. Then $xp(x)\in C$ since $xp(x)=\mathrm{Rot}\,p(x)$. $x^2p(x)\in C$, $x^3p(x)\in C$ and the generating matrix G can be taken as

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} p(x) \\ xp(x) \\ x^2p(x) \\ \vdots \\ x^{k-1}p(x) \end{bmatrix}, \text{ where } k = n - r = 2^r - 1 - r.$$

Example

$$n = 2^{3} - 1 = 7, r = 3, k = 4$$

$$p(x) = x^{3} + x + 1 \rightarrow p = (1101000) \in C$$

$$xp(x) = x^{4} + x^{2} + x \text{ or in binary } 0110100$$

$$x^{2}p(x) = x^{5} + x^{3} + x^{2} \text{ or } 0011010$$

$$x^{3}p(x) = x^{6} + x^{4} + x^{3} \text{ or } 0001101$$

$$\operatorname{And}\,G = \overbrace{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} }^{n=7} k = 4 \text{ (not in standard form)}$$

Example

$$\begin{split} r &= 3, \, x^3 + x + 1 \to \alpha^3 + \alpha + 1 = 0 \\ H &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \, \begin{array}{c} \alpha^2 \\ \alpha &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha^3 & \alpha^4 & \alpha^5 & \alpha^6 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{array}{c} 5 & \alpha^5 \end{array} \end{split}$$

(7,4,3) Hamming code V. Let $v=(v_0,v_1,\cdots,v_6)\in V$, then Hv=0.