

Chapter 4

Mathematics of Cryptography

Part II: Algebraic Structures

- ❑ To review the concept of algebraic structures
- ❑ To define and give some examples of groups
- ❑ To define and give some examples of rings
- ❑ To define and give some examples of fields
- ❑ To emphasize the finite fields of type $\text{GF}(2^n)$ that make it possible to perform operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division on n -bit words in modern block ciphers

4-1 ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURES

*Cryptography requires sets of integers and specific operations that are defined for those sets. The combination of the set and the operations that are applied to the elements of the set is called an **algebraic structure**. In this chapter, we will define three common algebraic structures: **groups**, **rings**, and **fields**.*

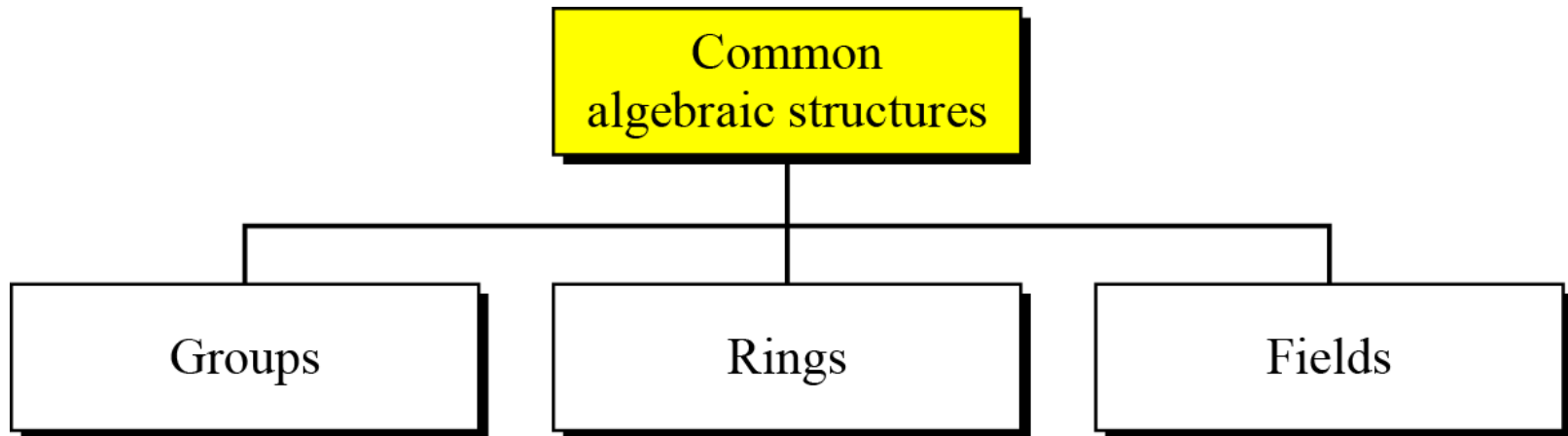
Topics discussed in this section:

4.1.1 Groups

4.1.2 Rings

4.1.3 Fields

Figure 4.1 *Common algebraic structure*





4.1.1 Groups

A group (**G**) is a set of elements with a binary operation (**•**) that satisfies four properties (or axioms). A **commutative group** satisfies an extra property, **commutativity**:

- ❑ Closure:
- ❑ Associativity:
- ❑ Commutativity:
- ❑ Existence of identity:
- ❑ Existence of inverse:

4.1.1 Continued

Figure 4.2 *Group*

Properties

1. Closure
2. Associativity
3. Commutativity (See note)
4. Existence of identity
5. Existence of inverse

Note:
The third property needs
to be satisfied only for a
commutative group.

$\{a, b, c, \dots\}$

Set



Operation

Group



4.1.1 *Continued*

Application

Although a group involves a single operation, the properties imposed on the operation allow the use of a pair of operations as long as they are inverses of each other.

Example 4.1

The set of residue integers with the addition operator,

$$G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_n, + \rangle,$$

is a commutative group. We can perform addition and subtraction on the elements of this set without moving out of the set.

4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.2

The set Z_n^* with the multiplication operator, $G = \langle Z_n^*, \times \rangle$, is also an abelian group.

Example 4.3

Let us define a set $G = \langle \{a, b, c, d\}, \bullet \rangle$ and the operation as shown in Table 4.1.

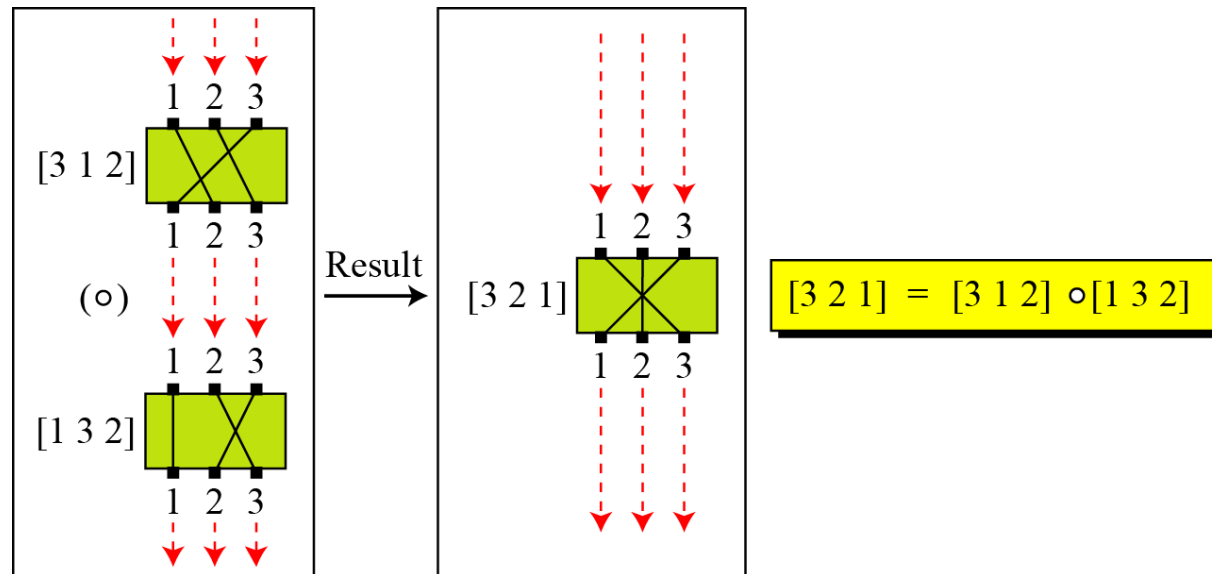
\bullet	a	b	c	d
a	a	b	c	d
b	b	c	d	a
c	c	d	a	b
d	d	a	b	c

4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.4

A very interesting group is the permutation group. The set is the set of all permutations, and the operation is composition: applying one permutation after another.

Figure 4.3 *Composition of permutation (Exercise 4.4)*



4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.4 Continued

Table 4.2 *Operation table for permutation group*

\circ	[1 2 3]	[1 3 2]	[2 1 3]	[2 3 1]	[3 1 2]	[3 2 1]
[1 2 3]	[1 2 3]	[1 3 2]	[2 1 3]	[2 3 1]	[3 1 2]	[3 2 1]
[1 3 2]	[1 3 2]	[1 2 3]	[2 3 1]	[2 1 3]	[3 2 1]	[3 1 2]
[2 1 3]	[2 1 3]	[3 1 2]	[1 2 3]	[3 2 1]	[1 3 2]	[2 3 1]
[2 3 1]	[2 3 1]	[3 2 1]	[1 3 2]	[3 1 2]	[1 2 3]	[2 1 3]
[3 1 2]	[3 1 2]	[2 1 3]	[3 2 1]	[1 2 3]	[2 3 1]	[1 3 2]
[3 2 1]	[3 2 1]	[2 3 1]	[3 1 2]	[1 3 2]	[2 1 3]	[1 2 3]



4.1.1 *Continued*

Example 4.5

In the previous example, we showed that a set of permutations with the composition operation is a group. This implies that using two permutations one after another **cannot strengthen** the security of a cipher, because we can always find a permutation that can do the same job because of the closure property.

4.1.1 Continued

☐ Finite Group

A group is called a **finite group** if the set has a **finite number** of element.

☐ Order of a Group

The order of a group, $|G|$, is the number of elements in the group.

☐ Subgroups

A subset **H** of a group **G** is a subgroup of **G**, if **H** itself is a group with respect to the operation on **G**.

In the other words, if $G = \langle S, \bullet \rangle$ is a group, $H = \langle T, \bullet \rangle$ is a group under the same operation, and **T** is a nonempty subset of **S**, then **H** is a subgroup of **G**.

4.1.1 *Continued*

Example 4.6

Is the group $H = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{10}, + \rangle$ a subgroup of the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{12}, + \rangle$?

Solution

The answer is no. Although H is a subset of G , the operations defined for these two groups are different. The operation in H is addition modulo 10; the operation in G is addition modulo 12.

4.1.1 Continued

Cyclic Subgroups

If a subgroup of a group can be generated using the power of an element, the subgroup is called the **cyclic subgroup**.

$$a^n \rightarrow a \bullet a \bullet \dots \bullet a \quad (n \text{ times})$$

Note that the term **power** here means repeatedly applying the **group operation** to the element.

4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.7

Four cyclic subgroups can be made from the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_6, + \rangle$. They are $H_1 = \langle \{0\}, + \rangle$, $H_2 = \langle \{0, 2, 4\}, + \rangle$, $H_3 = \langle \{0, 3\}, + \rangle$, and $H_4 = G$.

$$0^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$1^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$1^1 \bmod 6 = 1$$

$$1^2 \bmod 6 = (1 + 1) \bmod 6 = 2$$

$$1^3 \bmod 6 = (1 + 1 + 1) \bmod 6 = 3$$

$$1^4 \bmod 6 = (1 + 1 + 1 + 1) \bmod 6 = 4$$

$$1^5 \bmod 6 = (1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1) \bmod 6 = 5$$

$$2^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$2^1 \bmod 6 = 2$$

$$2^2 \bmod 6 = (2 + 2) \bmod 6 = 4$$

$$3^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$3^1 \bmod 6 = 3$$

$$4^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$4^1 \bmod 6 = 4$$

$$4^2 \bmod 6 = (4 + 4) \bmod 6 = 2$$

$$5^0 \bmod 6 = 0$$

$$5^1 \bmod 6 = 5$$

$$5^2 \bmod 6 = 4$$

$$5^3 \bmod 6 = 3$$

$$5^4 \bmod 6 = 2$$

$$5^5 \bmod 6 = 1$$

4.1.1 *Continued*

Example 4.8

Three cyclic subgroups can be made from the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{10}^*, \times \rangle$. G has only four elements: 1, 3, 7, and 9. The cyclic subgroups are $H_1 = \langle \{1\}, \times \rangle$, $H_2 = \langle \{1, 9\}, \times \rangle$, and $H_3 = G$.

$$1^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$3^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$3^1 \bmod 10 = 3$$

$$3^2 \bmod 10 = 9$$

$$3^3 \bmod 10 = 7$$

$$7^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$7^1 \bmod 10 = 7$$

$$7^2 \bmod 10 = 9$$

$$7^3 \bmod 10 = 3$$

$$9^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$9^1 \bmod 10 = 9$$

Cyclic Groups

A **cyclic group** is a group that is its **own cyclic subgroup**.
The **element** that generates the **cyclic subgroup** can
also generate the **group** itself.

This element is referred to as a **generator**.

If **g** is a generator, the elements in a **finite cyclic group** can be
written as:

$$\{e, g, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}, \text{ where } g^n = e$$

4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.9

Three cyclic subgroups can be made from the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{10}^*, \times \rangle$. G has only four elements: 1, 3, 7, and 9. The cyclic subgroups are $H_1 = \langle \{1\}, \times \rangle$, $H_2 = \langle \{1, 9\}, \times \rangle$, and $H_3 = G$.

- a. The group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_6, + \rangle$ is a cyclic group with two generators, $g = 1$ and $g = 5$.
- b. The group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{10}^*, \times \rangle$ is a cyclic group with two generators, $g = 3$ and $g = 7$.

$$\begin{aligned} 3^0 \bmod 10 &= 1 \\ 3^1 \bmod 10 &= 3 \\ 3^2 \bmod 10 &= 9 \\ 3^3 \bmod 10 &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 7^0 \bmod 10 &= 1 \\ 7^1 \bmod 10 &= 7 \\ 7^2 \bmod 10 &= 9 \\ 7^3 \bmod 10 &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Lagrange's Theorem

Assume that G is a group, and H is a subgroup of G . If the order of G and H are $|G|$ and $|H|$, respectively, then, based on this theorem, **$|H|$ divides $|G|$** .

Order of an Element

The order of an element **a** in a group, $\text{ord}(a)$, is the smallest integer **n** such that **$a^n = e$** .

The order of an **element** is the order of the **cyclic group** it generates (i.e. the No. of elements in the group).

4.1.1 Continued

Example 4.10

- a. In the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_6, + \rangle$, the orders of the elements are:
 $\text{ord}(0) = 1$, $\text{ord}(1) = 6$, $\text{ord}(2) = 3$, $\text{ord}(3) = 2$, $\text{ord}(4) = 3$,
 $\text{ord}(5) = 6$.
- b. In the group $G = \langle \mathbb{Z}_{10}^*, \times \rangle$, the orders of the elements are:
 $\text{ord}(1) = 1$, $\text{ord}(3) = 4$, $\text{ord}(7) = 4$, $\text{ord}(9) = 2$.

$$1^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$3^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$3^1 \bmod 10 = 3$$

$$3^2 \bmod 10 = 9$$

$$3^3 \bmod 10 = 7$$

$$3^4 = 81 \pmod{10} = 1 = e$$

$$7^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$7^1 \bmod 10 = 7$$

$$7^2 \bmod 10 = 9$$

$$7^3 \bmod 10 = 3$$

$$7^4 = 2401 \pmod{10} \\ = 1 = e$$

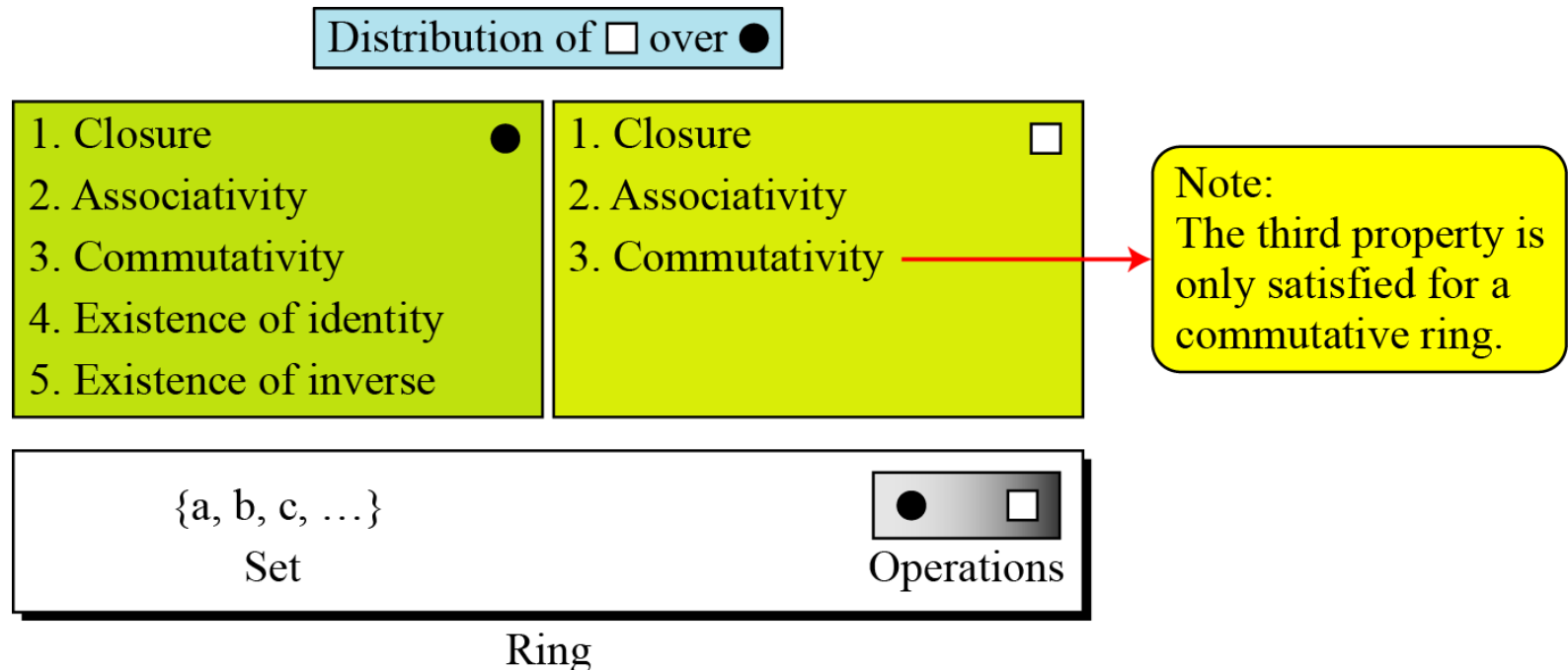
$$9^0 \bmod 10 = 1$$

$$9^1 \bmod 10 = 9$$

4.1.2 *Ring*

A ring, $R = \langle \{...\}, \bullet, \boxdot \rangle$, is an algebraic structure with two operations.

Figure 4.4 *Ring*



4.1.2 *Continued*

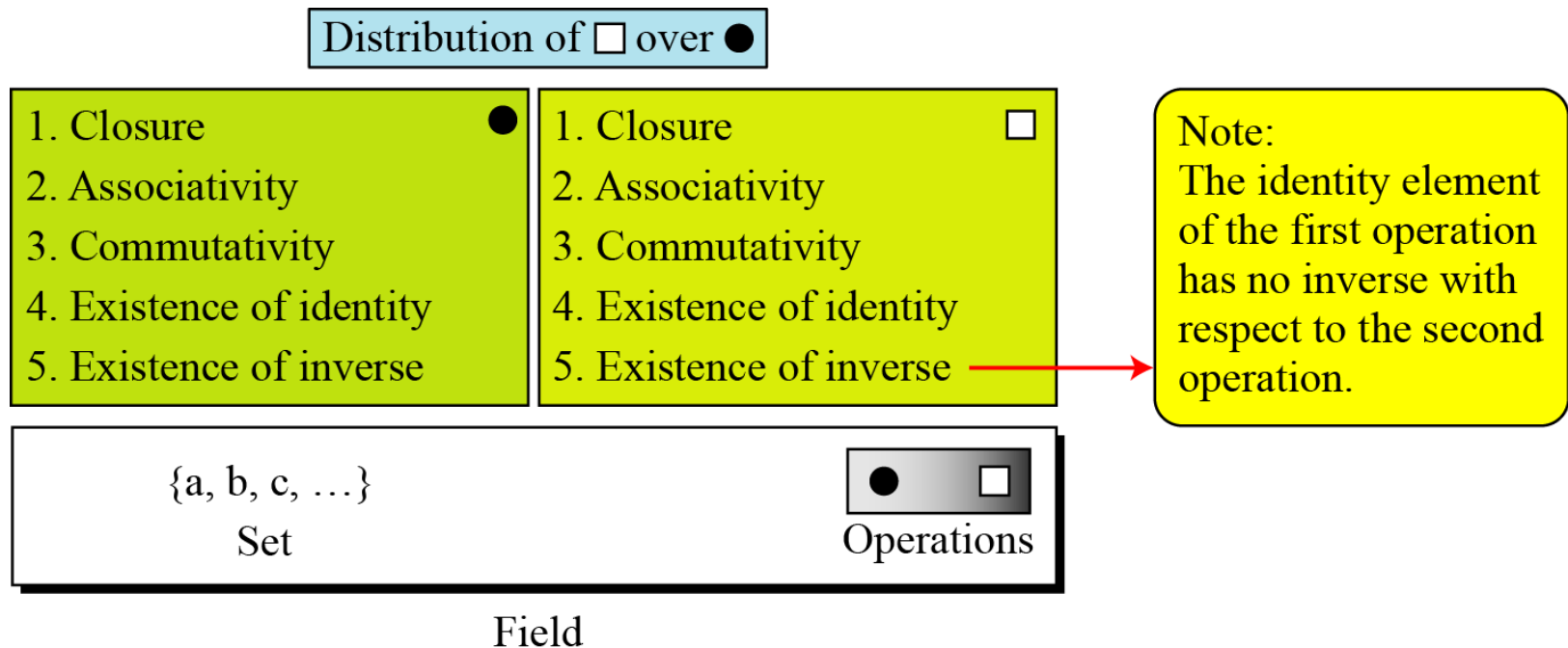
Example 4.11

The set \mathbf{Z} with two operations, addition and multiplication, is a commutative ring. We show it by $\mathbf{R} = \langle \mathbf{Z}, +, \times \rangle$. Addition satisfies all of the five properties; multiplication satisfies only three properties.

4.1.3 Field

A field, denoted by $F = \langle \{...\}, \bullet, \square \rangle$ is a commutative ring in which the second operation satisfies all five properties defined for the first operation except that the identity of the first operation has no inverse.

Figure 4.5 Field



4.1.3 *Continued*

Finite Fields

Galois showed that for a field to be finite, the number of elements should be p^n , where p is a prime and n is a positive integer.

Note

A Galois field, $\text{GF}(p^n)$, is a finite field with p^n elements.



4.1.3 *Continued*

GF(p) Fields

When $n = 1$, we have GF(p) field. This field can be the set \mathbb{Z}_p , $\{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$, with two arithmetic operations.

4.1.2 Continued

Example 4.12

A very common field in this category is $GF(2)$ with the set $\{0, 1\}$ and two operations, addition and multiplication, as shown in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 $GF(2)$ field

$GF(2)$

$\{0, 1\}$	$+$	\times
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$+$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

Addition

\times	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Multiplication

a	0	1
$-a$	0	1

a	0	1
a^{-1}	—	1

Inverses

4.1.2 Continued

Example 4.13

We can define $GF(5)$ on the set Z_5 (5 is a prime) with addition and multiplication operators as shown in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7 $GF(5)$ field

$GF(5)$

$\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ $+$ \times

+	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

Addition

\times	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

Multiplication

Additive inverse

a	0	1	2	3	4
-a	0	4	3	2	1

a	0	1	2	3	4
a^{-1}	—	1	3	2	4

Multiplicative inverse



4.1.3 *Continued*

Summary

Table 4.3 Summary

<i>Algebraic Structure</i>	<i>Supported Typical Operations</i>	<i>Supported Typical Sets of Integers</i>
Group	$(+ \ -)$ or $(\times \ \div)$	\mathbf{Z}_n or \mathbf{Z}_n^*
Ring	$(+ \ -)$ and (\times)	\mathbf{Z}
Field	$(+ \ -)$ and $(\times \ \div)$	\mathbf{Z}_p

4-2 GF(2^n) FIELDS

*In **cryptology**, we often need to use four operations (**addition**, **subtraction**, **multiplication**, and **division**). In other words, we need to use fields. We can work in GF(2^n) and uses a set of 2^n elements. The elements in this set are n -bit words.*

Topics discussed in this section:

4.2.1 Polynomials

4.2.2 Using A Generator

4.2.3 Summary

4.2 Continued

Example 4.14

Let us define a $GF(2^2)$ field in which the set has four 2-bit words: $\{00, 01, 10, 11\}$. We can redefine addition and multiplication for this field in such a way that all properties of these operations are satisfied, as shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8 *An example of $GF(2^2)$ field*

Modulus: $x^2 + x + 1$

Addition					Multiplication				
\oplus	00	01	10	11	\otimes	00	01	10	11
00	00	01	10	11	00	00	00	00	00
01	01	00	11	10	01	00	01	10	11
10	10	11	00	01	10	00	10	11	01
11	11	10	01	00	11	00	11	01	10
Identity: 00					Identity: 01				



4.2.1 *Polynomials*

A polynomial of **degree $n - 1$** is an expression of the form

$$f(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1x^1 + a_0x^0$$

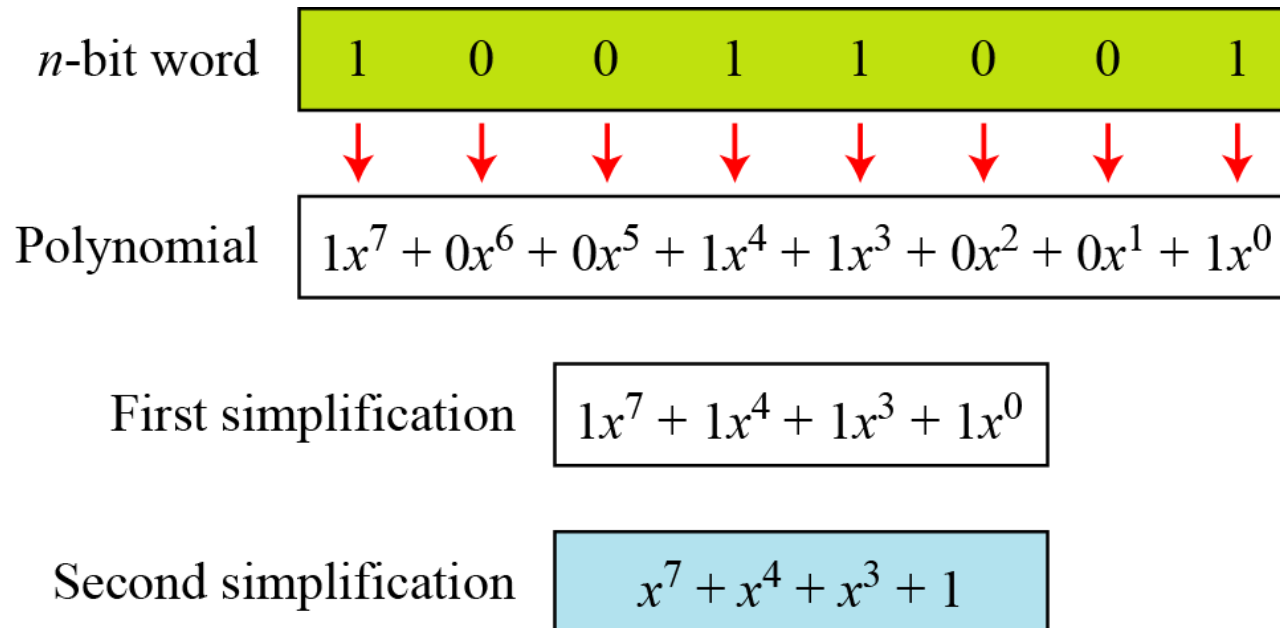
where x^i is called the i th term and a_i is called coefficient of the i th term.

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.15

Figure 4.9 show how we can represent the 8-bit word (10011001) using a polynomials.

Figure 4.9 *Representation of an 8-bit word by a polynomial*



4.2.1 *Continued*

Example 4.16

To find the 8-bit word related to the polynomial $x^5 + x^2 + x$, we first supply the omitted terms. Since $n = 8$, it means the polynomial is of degree 7. The expanded polynomial is

$$0x^7 + 0x^6 + 1x^5 + 0x^4 + 0x^3 + 1x^2 + 1x^1 + 0x^0$$

This is related to the 8-bit word **00100110**.

4.2.1 *Continued*

GF(2^n) Fields

Note

**Polynomials representing n -bit words
use two fields: GF(2) and GF(2^n).**

4.2.1 Continued

Modulus

For the sets of polynomials in $\text{GF}(2^n)$, a group of polynomials of degree n is defined as the modulus. Such polynomials are referred to as **irreducible polynomials**.

Table 4.9 *List of irreducible polynomials*

<i>Degree</i>	<i>Irreducible Polynomials</i>
1	$(x + 1), (x)$
2	$(x^2 + x + 1)$
3	$(x^3 + x^2 + 1), (x^3 + x + 1)$
4	$(x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1), (x^4 + x^3 + 1), (x^4 + x + 1)$
5	$(x^5 + x^2 + 1), (x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1), (x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1),$ $(x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1), (x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1)$

4.2.1 *Continued*

Addition

Note

Addition and subtraction operations on polynomials are the same operation.

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.17

Let us do $(x^5 + x^2 + x) \oplus (x^3 + x^2 + 1)$ in $GF(2^8)$. We use the symbol \oplus to show that we mean polynomial addition. The following shows the procedure:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0x^7 + 0x^6 + 1x^5 + 0x^4 + 0x^3 + 1x^2 + 1x^1 + 0x^0 & \oplus & \\ 0x^7 + 0x^6 + 0x^5 + 0x^4 + 1x^3 + 1x^2 + 0x^1 + 1x^0 & & \\ \hline 0x^7 + 0x^6 + 1x^5 + 0x^4 + 1x^3 + 0x^2 + 1x^1 + 1x^0 & \rightarrow & x^5 + x^3 + x + 1 \end{array}$$

4.2.1 *Continued*

Example 4.18

There is also another short cut. Because the addition in GF(2) means the exclusive-or (XOR) operation. So we can exclusive-or the two words, bits by bits, to get the result. In the previous example, $x^5 + x^2 + x$ is 00100110 and $x^3 + x^2 + 1$ is 00001101. The result is 00101011 or in polynomial notation $x^5 + x^3 + x + 1$.



4.2.1 *Continued*

Multiplication

1. The coefficient multiplication is done in GF(2).
2. The multiplying x^i by x^j results in x^{i+j} .
3. The multiplication may create terms with **degree more than $n - 1$** , which means the result needs to be reduced using a **modulus polynomial**.

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.19

Find the result of $(x^5 + x^2 + x) \otimes (x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x)$ in $\text{GF}(2^8)$ with irreducible polynomial $(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$. Note that we use the symbol \otimes to show the multiplication of two polynomials.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 \otimes P_2 &= x^5(x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x) + x^2(x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x) + x(x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x) \\ P_1 \otimes P_2 &= x^{12} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^9 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^8 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 \\ P_1 \otimes P_2 &= (x^{12} + x^7 + x^2) \bmod (x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1) = x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \end{aligned}$$

To find the final result, divide the polynomial of degree 12 by the polynomial of degree 8 (the modulus) and keep only the remainder. Figure 4.10 shows the process of division.

4.2.1 Continued

Figure 4.10 *Polynomial division with coefficients in $GF(2)$*

$$\begin{array}{r} x^4 + 1 \overline{) x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1} \\ \underline{x^{12} + x^7 + x^2} \\ x^{12} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 \\ \underline{\phantom{x^{12} + } x^8 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2} \\ \phantom{x^{12} + } x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ \underline{\phantom{x^{12} + } x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1} \\ \text{Remainder } \boxed{x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1} \end{array}$$

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.20

In $\text{GF}(2^4)$, find the inverse of $(x^2 + 1)$ modulo $(x^4 + x + 1)$.

Solution

The answer is $(x^3 + x + 1)$ as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 *Euclidean algorithm for Exercise 4.20*

q	r_1	r_2	r	t_1	t_2	t
$(x^2 + 1)$	$(x^4 + x + 1)$	$(x^2 + 1)$	(x)	(0)	(1)	$(x^2 + 1)$
(x)	$(x^2 + 1)$	(x)	(1)	(1)	$(x^2 + 1)$	$(x^3 + x + 1)$
(x)	(x)	(1)	(0)	$(x^2 + 1)$	$(x^3 + x + 1)$	(0)
	(1)	(0)		$(x^3 + x + 1)$	(0)	

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.21

In $\text{GF}(2^8)$, find the inverse of (x^5) modulo $(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$.

Solution

The answer is $(x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x)$ as shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 *Euclidean algorithm for Exercise 4.21*

q	r_1	r_2	r	t_1	t_2	t
(x^3)	$(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$	(x^5)	$(x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$	(0)	(1)	(x^3)
$(x + 1)$	(x^5)	$(x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$	$(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$	(1)	(x^3)	$(x^4 + x^3 + 1)$
(x)	$(x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$	$(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$	(1)	(x^3)	$(x^4 + x^3 + 1)$	$(x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x)$
$(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$	$(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$	(1)	(0)	$(x^4 + x^3 + 1)$	$(x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x)$	(0)
	(1)	(0)		$(x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x)$	(0)	



4.2.1 *Continued*

Multiplication Using Computer

The computer implementation uses a better algorithm, repeatedly multiplying a reduced polynomial by x .

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.22

Find the result of multiplying $P_1 = (x^5 + x^2 + x)$ by $P_2 = (x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x)$ in $GF(2^8)$ with irreducible polynomial $(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$ using the algorithm described above.

Solution

The process is shown in Table 4.7. We first find the partial result of multiplying x^0 , x^1 , x^2 , x^3 , x^4 , and x^5 by P_2 . Note that although only three terms are needed, the product of $x^m \otimes P_2$ for m from 0 to 5 because each calculation depends on the previous result.

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.22 Continued

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = (x^5 + x^2 + x) \times \mathbf{P}_2 = (x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x) \text{ in GF}(2^8)$$

Table 4.7 *An efficient algorithm (Example 4.22)*

<i>Powers</i>	<i>Operation</i>	<i>New Result</i>	<i>Reduction</i>
$x^0 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$		$x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x$	No
$x^1 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$	$x \otimes (x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x)$	$x^5 + x^2 + x + 1$	Yes
$x^2 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$	$x \otimes (x^5 + x^2 + x + 1)$	$x^6 + x^3 + x^2 + x$	No
$x^3 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$	$x \otimes (x^6 + x^3 + x^2 + x)$	$x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2$	No
$x^4 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$	$x \otimes (x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2)$	$x^5 + x + 1$	Yes
$x^5 \otimes \mathbf{P}_2$	$x \otimes (x^5 + x + 1)$	$x^6 + x^2 + x$	No
$\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2 = (x^6 + x^2 + x) + (x^6 + x^3 + x^2 + x) + (x^5 + x^2 + x + 1) = x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$			

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.23

Repeat Example 4.22 using bit patterns of size 8.

Solution

We have $P_1 = 000100110$, $P_2 = 10011110$, modulus = 100011010 (nine bits). We show the exclusive or operation by \oplus .

Table 4.8 *An efficient algorithm for multiplication using n -bit words*

<i>Powers</i>	<i>Shift-Left Operation</i>	<i>Exclusive-Or</i>
$x^0 \otimes P_2$		10011110
$x^1 \otimes P_2$	00111100	$(00111100) \oplus (00011010) = \underline{00100111}$
$x^2 \otimes P_2$	01001110	<u>01001110</u>
$x^3 \otimes P_2$	10011100	10011100
$x^4 \otimes P_2$	00111000	$(00111000) \oplus (00011010) = 00100011$
$x^5 \otimes P_2$	01000110	<u>01000110</u>
$P_1 \otimes P_2 = (00100111) \oplus (01001110) \oplus (01000110) = 00101111$		

4.2.1 *Continued*

Example 4.24

The $\text{GF}(2^3)$ field has 8 elements. We use the irreducible polynomial $(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$ and show the addition and multiplication tables for this field. We show both 3-bit words and the polynomials. Note that there are two irreducible polynomials for degree 3. The other one, $(x^3 + x + 1)$, yields a totally different table for multiplication.

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.24 Continued

Table 4.9 Addition table for $GF(2^3)$

\oplus	000 (0)	001 (1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	100 (x ²)	101 x ² + 1	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)
000 (0)	000 (0)	001 (1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)
001 (1)	001 (1)	000 (0)	011 (x + 1)	010 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	100 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)
010 (x)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	000 (0)	001 (1)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	100 (x ² + x)	101 (x ² + 1)
011 (x + 1)	011 (x + 1)	010 (x)	001 (1)	000 (0)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	101 (x ² + 1)	100 (x ²)
100 (x ²)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	000 (0)	001 (1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)
101 (x ² + 1)	101 (x ² + 1)	100 (x ²)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	001 (1)	000 (0)	011 (x + 1)	010 (x)
110 (x ² + x)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	000 (0)	001 (1)
111 (x ² + x + 1)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	101 (x ² + 1)	100 (x ²)	011 (x + 1)	010 (x)	001 (1)	000 (0)

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.24 Continued

Table 4.10 *Multiplication table for $GF(2^3)$*

\otimes	000 (0)	001 (1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)
000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)	000 (0)
001 (1)	000 (0)	001 (1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)
010 (x)	000 (0)	010 (x)	100 (x)	110 (x ² + x)	101 (x ² + 1)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	001 (1)	011 (x + 1)
011 (x + 1)	000 (0)	011 (x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	101 (x ² + 1)	001 (1)	010 (x)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	100 (x)
100 (x ²)	000 (0)	100 (x ²)	101 (x ² + 1)	001 (1)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	011 (x + 1)	010 (x)	110 (x ² + x)
101 (x ² + 1)	000 (0)	101 (x ² + 1)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	010 (x)	011 (x + 1)	110 (x ² + x)	100 (x ²)	001 (1)
110 (x ² + x)	000 (0)	110 (x ² + x)	001 (1)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	010 (x)	100 (x ²)	011 (x + 1)	101 (x ² + 1)
111 (x ² + x + 1)	000 (0)	111 (x ² + x + 1)	011 (x + 1)	100 (x ²)	110 (x ² + x)	001 (1)	101 (x ² + 1)	010 (x)



4.2.2 *Using a Generator*

Sometimes it is easier to define the elements of the $\text{GF}(2^n)$ field using a generator.

$$\{0, g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^N\}, \text{ where } N = 2^n - 2$$

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.25

Generate the elements of the field $\text{GF}(2^4)$ using the irreducible polynomial $f(x) = x^4 + x + 1$.

Solution

The elements 0 , g^0 , g^1 , g^2 , and g^3 can be easily generated, because they are the 4-bit representations of 0 , 1 , x^2 , and x^3 . Elements g^4 through g^{14} , which represent x^4 through x^{14} need to be divided by the irreducible polynomial. To avoid the polynomial division, the relation $f(g) = g^4 + g + 1 = 0$ can be used therefore $g^4 = g + 1$.

(See next slide)

4.2.1 Continued

Example 4.25 Continued

0	$= 0$	$= 0$	$= 0$	\longrightarrow	0	$= (0000)$
g^0	$= g^0$	$= g^0$	$= g^0$	\longrightarrow	g^0	$= (0001)$
g^1	$= g^1$	$= g^1$	$= g^1$	\longrightarrow	g^1	$= (0010)$
g^2	$= g^2$	$= g^2$	$= g^2$	\longrightarrow	g^2	$= (0100)$
g^3	$= g^3$	$= g^3$	$= g^3$	\longrightarrow	g^3	$= (1000)$
g^4	$= g^4$	$= g^4$	$= g + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^4	$= (0011)$
g^5	$= g(g^4)$	$= g(g + 1)$	$= g^2 + g$	\longrightarrow	g^5	$= (0110)$
g^6	$= g(g^5)$	$= g(g^2 + g)$	$= g^3 + g^2$	\longrightarrow	g^6	$= (1100)$
g^7	$= g(g^6)$	$= g(g^3 + g)$	$= g^3 + g + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^7	$= (1011)$
g^8	$= g(g^7)$	$= g(g^3 + g + 1)$	$= g^2 + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^8	$= (0101)$
g^9	$= g(g^8)$	$= g(g^2 + 1)$	$= g^3 + g$	\longrightarrow	g^9	$= (1010)$
g^{10}	$= g(g^9)$	$= g(g^3 + g)$	$= g^2 + g + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^{10}	$= (0111)$
g^{11}	$= g(g^{10})$	$= g(g^2 + g + 1)$	$= g^3 + g^2 + g$	\longrightarrow	g^{11}	$= (1110)$
g^{12}	$= g(g^{11})$	$= g(g^3 + g^2 + g)$	$= g^3 + g^2 + g + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^{12}	$= (1111)$
g^{13}	$= g(g^{12})$	$= g(g^3 + g^2 + g + 1)$	$= g^3 + g^2 + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^{13}	$= (1101)$
g^{14}	$= g(g^{13})$	$= g(g^3 + g^2 + 1)$	$= g^3 + 1$	\longrightarrow	g^{14}	$= (1001)$

4.2.1 *Continued*

Example 4.26

The following show the results of addition and subtraction operations:

a. $g^3 + g^{12} + g^7 = g^3 + (g^3 + g^2 + g + 1) + (g^3 + g + 1) = g^3 + g^2 \rightarrow (1100)$

b. $g^3 - g^6 = g^3 + g^6 = g^3 + (g^3 + g^2) = g^2 \rightarrow (0100)$

4.2.1 *Continued*

Example 4.27

The following show the result of multiplication and division operations:.

a. $g^9 \times g^{11} = g^{20} = g^{20 \bmod 15} = g^5 = g^2 + g \rightarrow (0110)$

b. $g^3 / g^8 = g^3 \times g^7 = g^{10} = g^2 + g + 1 \rightarrow (0111)$



4.2.3 *Summary*

The finite field $\text{GF}(2^n)$ can be used to define four operations of **addition**, **subtraction**, **multiplication** and **division** over n -bit words. The only restriction is that division by zero is not defined.