Using Random Digit Representation for Elliptic Curve Scalar Multiplication

by

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Abstract

Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC) was introduced independently by Miller and Koblitz in 1986. Compared to the integer factorization based Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (RSA) cryptosystem, ECC provides shorter key length with the same security level. Therefore, it has advantages in terms of storage requirements, communication bandwidth and computation time. The core and the most time-consuming operation of ECC is scalar multiplication, where the scalar is an integer of several hundred bits long.

Many algorithms and methodologies have been proposed to speed up the scalar multiplication operation. For example, non-adjacent form (NAF), window-based NAF (wNAF), double bases form, multi-base non-adjacent form and so on. The random digit representation (RDR) scheme can represent any scalar using a set that contains random odd digits including the digit 1. The RDR scheme is efficient in terms of the average number of non-zeros and it also provides resistance to power analysis attacks.

In this thesis, we propose a variant of the RDR scheme. The proposed variant, referred to as implementation-friendly recoding algorithm (IFRA), is advantageous over RDR in hardware implementation for two reasons. First, IFRA uses simple operations such as scan, match, and shift. Second, it requires no long adder to update the scalar. In this thesis we also investigate the average density of non-zero digits of IFRA. It is shown that the average density of the variant is close to the average density of RDR. Moreover, a hardware implementation of the variant scheme is presented using pre-computed values stored in one dual-port memory. A performance comparison for different recoding schemes is presented by demonstrating the run-time efficiency of IFRA compared to other recoding schemes. Finally, the IFRA is applied to scalar multiplication on ECC and we compare its computation time against those based on NAF, wNAF, and RDR.

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Dedication

This is dedicated to my parents, Sayed Omar Mostafa and Maha Ahmed, and my brothers, Gehad, Shehab, and Baher, for their endless support and love that motivated me to achieve this milestone. I love you all.

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List of Acronyms

*w***NAF** Window Non-Adjacent Form 3

AES Advanced Encryption Standard 1

DBNS Double Base Number System 15

DPA Differential Power Analysis 3

ECC Elliptic Curve Cryptography 1

ECDH Elliptic Curve Diffie Hellman 1

ECDSA Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm 1

FPGAs Field Programmable Gate Arrays 4

IFRA Implementation-friendly Recoding Algorithm 27

NAF Non-Adjacent Form 4

NIST National Institute of Standards and Technology 1

RDR Random Digit Representation 23

RSA Rivest–Shamir–Adleman 1

Chapter 1

Introduction

Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC) was proposed independently by Koblitz [18] and Miller [24] in 1985. ECC uses smaller key sizes compared to the integer factorization based Rivest–Shamir–Adleman (RSA) [31] for the same security level. For instance, according to National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), to achieve a 128-bit Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) security level, it's recommended to use ECC with key sizes of 256 bits. However, to achieve the same level of security in RSA, a key size of 3072 bits is needed. In the past, a lot of research has been done to speed up and improve ECC, *e.g.,* [33], [30], [13], and [9].

Elliptic curve scalar multiplication is a fundamental operation in many elliptic curve based protocols such as Elliptic Curve Diffie Hellman (ECDH) and Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA). The speed of scalar multiplication determines the efficiency of these algorithms and the system where these algorithms are implemented, for example smart cards, cellphones, and RFID tags. An extensive research has been done in the recent years to reduce the execution time and memory requirements of scalar multiplication in order to efficiently implement ECC on different devices.

Scalar multiplication involves three basic operations: finite field arithmetic, point or group operations (i.e., point doubling and adding), and scalar recoding. Significant work has been done in each of these areas in order to improve the efficiency and performance of scalar multiplication.

There exist many strategies to enhance the performance of scalar multiplication. Firstly, efficient group arithmetic has been used in order to improve the performance of scalar multiplication. For example, the usage of Jacobi coordinates in point addition and doubling eliminates the need of costly inversion operations over the underlying finite field. Secondly, various representations, such as non-adjacent form, of the scalar k are used in order to reduce the number of nonzero digits and therefore, reduce the number of additions in scalar multiplication. A number of approaches have been proposed to use pre-computed values which can improve the speed of scalar multiplication operation. Other schemes that improve the scalar multiplication include sliding window method, comb method and Montgomery ladder [26].

1.1 Motivation

Improving the performance of scalar multiplication on elliptic curve has been the goal of many researchers. Their efforts include not only speeding up the computation of scalar multiplication but also protecting this operation from side-channel attacks based on timing [20], power [19], electromagnetic emanation [29], and faults [2].

One of the countermeasures to protect the scalar multiplication operation against Differential Power Analysis (DPA) attacks is randomization. To this end, several approaches have been proposed. For example, references [27] and [13] proposed to insert a random decision in the process of generating the binary signed representation of k. Reference [15] inserts random signed digits in a complex radix representation of the scalar as a way to improve resistance to power analysis attacks against a class of high performance elliptic curve cryptosystem. Analysis of the singed binary and complex radix representation of an integer can be found in [10] and [11].

Recently, the authors of [22] have proposed a random integer algorithm that generalizes the fractional Window Non-Adjacent Form (wNAF) by allowing random digits to be chosen as the base for the scalar k. In this work, we focus on the usage of random digit representation. In particular, we give an implementation friendly version of the random digit representation algorithm introduced in [22].

The use of random digit representation provides resistance against power analysis attacks. The proposed variant inherits countermeasures against such attacks from the original algorithm. Firstly, it does not allow traditional attacks to be mounted since the digit set is randomly chosen. Secondly, any scalar k can have many different representations for a given digit set.

1.2 Thesis Organization

The organization of this thesis is as follows.

Chapter 2 provides a background on elliptic curve cryptography. It explains basic concepts of point doubling and point addition. Furthermore, it provides a brief summary of different scalar multiplication algorithms related to this work, such as Non-Adjacent Form (NAF), window method, and double base number system.

In Chapter 3, we review random digit representation of integers. Preliminaries are provided to understand this scheme. Average density of this scheme along with its precomputation phase is explained. We end the chapter by explaining how this scheme is resistant to differential and simple power attacks.

In Chapter 4, we present an implementation friendly version of the random digit representation algorithm of [22]. The new variant is referred to as implementation-friendly recoding algorithm (IFRA). A prototype implementation of IFRA using Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) is provided. We also provide a comparison of IFRA with similar other algorithms. Finally, we end the chapter by applying the IFRA to scalar multiplication.

Chapter 5 summarizes our contributions and provides suggestions for future work.

Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter, we provide a brief overview of elliptic curve cryptography (ECC). We present the core operations of point arithmetic such as point doubling and point addition which are essential concepts to understand elliptic curve scalar multiplication. Furthermore, we summarize a number of algorithms commonly used to improve the efficiency of computing the scalar multiplication. These algorithms are based on non-adjacent form, wNAF, and double base number systems.

2.1 Elliptic Curve Cryptography

An elliptic curve E over a field K is defined, according to [14], by an equation of the following form:

$$E\colon\ y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6 \tag{2.1}$$

where a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, $a_6 \in K$.

If L is any extension field of K, then the set of L-rational points on E is

$$E(L) = \{(x, y) \in L \times L : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y - x^3 - a_2x^2 - a_4x - a_6\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\} \tag{2.2}$$

where $\mathcal{O}$ is the point at infinity.

In this thesis, we work over prime fields denoted by $\mathbb{F}_p$. If $K = \mathbb{F}_p$, and $p > 3$ is a prime, Equation. 2.1 can be simplified to the following equation:

$$E\colon\ y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \tag{2.3}$$

where a, $b \in \mathbb{F}_p$.

Then, using Equation 2.3, we can represent the set of points in Equation 2.2 for ECC over prime fields as follows:

$$E(\mathbb{F}_p) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p \times \mathbb{F}_p : y^2 - x^3 - ax - b = 0\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\} \tag{2.4}$$

In the following section, a brief introduction to point arithmetic of elliptic curve is presented.

2.1.1 Point Arithmetic Over Prime Field

Different forms of elliptic curve points have been explored to improve the speed of point doubling and point addition. In this section, we review three different forms that will help in building up necessary background to understand the rest of this chapter.

Some general characteristics of elliptic curves over a finite field are the following [14]:

1. Identity: $P + \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O} + P = P$ for $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

2. Negatives: if $P = (x, y) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, then $(x, y) + (x, -y) = \mathcal{O}$, where the point $(x, -y)$ is denoted by $-P$ and is called the negative of P.

3. Point addition: Let $P = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, where $P \neq \pm Q$. Then $P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$, where:

$$x_3 = \left(\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}\right)^2 - x_1 - x_2 \text{ and } y_3 = \left(\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}\right)(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \tag{2.5}$$

4. Point doubling: Let $P = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, where $P \neq -P$. Then $2P = (x_3, y_3)$, where

$$x_3 = \left(\frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}\right)^2 - 2x_1 \text{ and } y_3 = \left(\frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}\right)(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \tag{2.6}$$

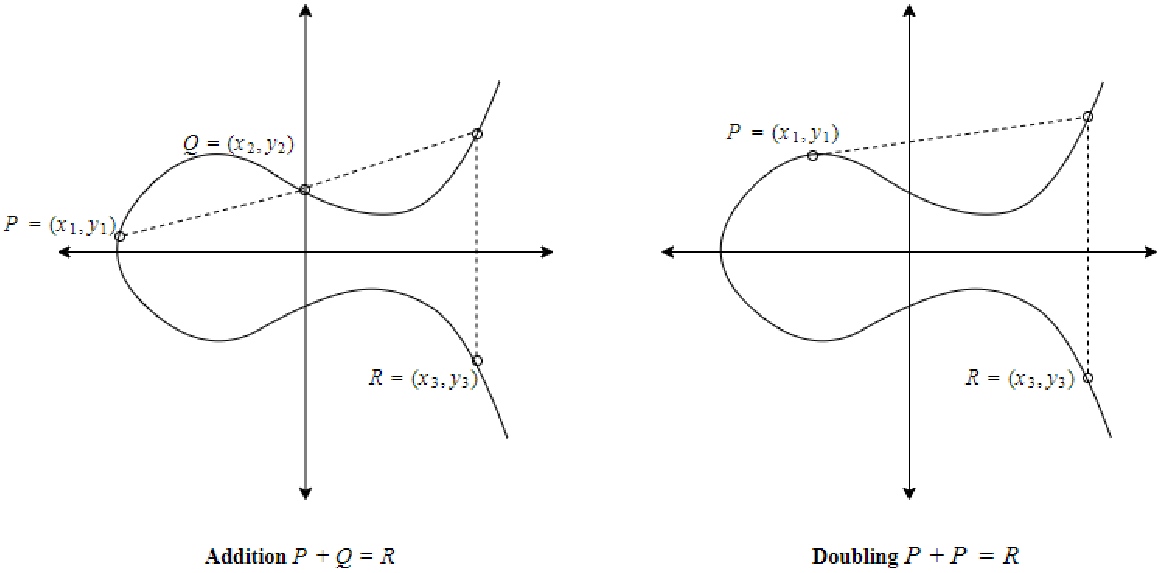
A graphical example of point doubling and point addition on elliptic curve can be seen in Figure 2.1.

Affine point representation $P = (x, y)$ can be replaced by different coordinate systems in order to improve point arithmetic in terms of field operation. The following coordinate systems are the most popular ones and have been researched extensively:

- Standard Projective Coordinates: The affine point (x, y) corresponds to the projective point $(x, y, 1)$. To generalize, a projective point can be represented as $(X : Y : Z)$

where $Z \neq 0$ and it corresponds to the affine point $(X/Z, Y/Z)$. The infinity point $\mathcal{O}$ in the projective coordinate is represented as $(0:1:0)$ and the negative point of $(X:Y:Z)$ is $(X:-Y:Z)$.

- Jacobian Projective Coordinates: These are similar to the standard projective coordinates in terms of the negative point and the infinity point. However, the corresponding affine representation of a Jacobian point is different. Given a Jacobian projective coordinate in the form $(X:Y:Z)$, the corresponding affine form is $(X/Z^2, Y/Z^2)$



Addition $P + Q = R$

Doubling $P + P = R$

Figure 2.1: Addition and doubling of elliptic curve points [14]

2.2 Scalar Multiplication over Elliptic Curves

Scalar multiplication is the fundamental operation in elliptic curve cryptographic systems. It is analogous to exponentiation in the multiplicative group of integers modulo a fixed integer. Scalar multiplication results in adding the point P to itself k times, i.e.,

$$kP = P + \cdots + P + P$$

The order of a point P is the smallest integer u such that $uP = \mathcal{O}$.

The number of points on a curve $E(F_p)$ is denoted by $\#E(F_p)$ and represents the order of a curve E over the underlying finite field $\mathbf{F}_p$. Hesse's theorem [14] states that

$$\#E(F_p) \approx p$$

In this thesis, whenever we mention the scalar k, we always assume k is a n-bit integer.

In the next section, a brief overview of different scalar multiplication algorithms is represented to help the reader understand the necessary background for this work.

2.2.1 Double-and-Add

One of the easiest and most straightforward methods to compute scalar multiplication is *double-and-add*. Scalar multiplication on elliptic curve is analogous to the *square-and-multiply* algorithms which is used in exponentiation-based cryptosystems [14]. Scalar multiplication, denoted as kP can be computed as follows:

Let k be an n-bit scalar where its binary representation is $k = (k_{n-1}, k_{n-2}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)_2$, $k_i \in \{0, 1\}$ for $0 \leq i \leq n-1$. Then, one can write

$$\begin{aligned} kP &= \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} k_i 2^i \right) P \\ &= 2(2(\cdots 2(2(k_{n-1}P) + k_{n-2}P) + \cdots) + k_1 P) + k_0 P && (2.7) \\ &= (k_{n-1} 2^{n-1} P) + \cdots + (k_1 2^1 P) + k_0 P && (2.8) \end{aligned}$$

The above equations lead to two algorithms that can be used to compute the scalar multiplication: left-to-right double-and-add which corresponds to Equation. 2.7 and right-to-left double-and-add which corresponds to Equation. 2.8. These two algorithms are presented below.

Algorithm 1 Left-to-right binary double-and-add algorithm [30]

```
Require: $P \in E(\mathbf{F}_p), k = (k_{n-1}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)_2$
Ensure: $Q = kP$
$R_0 \leftarrow k_{n-1}P$; $R_1 \leftarrow P$
for $i = n - 2$ down to $0$ do
    $R_0 \leftarrow 2R_0$
    if $k_i = 1$ then
        $R_0 \leftarrow R_0 + R_1$
    end if
end for
return $R_0$
```

Both binary double-and-add algorithms require n doubling and about $\frac{n}{2}$ additions on average. The expected number of operations (addition (A) and doubling (D)) to compute

Algorithm 2 Right-to-left binary double-and-add algorithm [30]

```
Require: $P \in E(\mathbf{F}_p), k = (k_{n-1}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)_2$
Ensure: $Q = kP$
$R_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{O}$; $R_1 \leftarrow P$
for $i = 0$ to $n - 1$ do
    if $k_i = 1$ then
        $R_0 \leftarrow R_0 + R_1$
    end if
    $R_1 \leftarrow 2R_1$
end for
return $R_0$
```

kP using *double-and-add* is

$$\frac{n}{2}A + (n-1)D$$

Even though both algorithms require the same number of operations, Algorithm 1 has an advantage over Algorithm 2 by using a fixed register which contains the value P during the computation. On the other hand, Algorithm 2 can lead to a shorter critical path for its loop since R_0 and R_1 can be updated in parallel when implemented in hardware.

2.2.2 Non-Adjacent Form (NAF)

Let $P = (x, y) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, then $-P = (x, -y)$. Thus, point subtraction operation on elliptic curve is as efficient as addition. This motivates using signed digit representation, such as Let $k' = (k'_n, k'_{n-1}, \cdots, k'_1, k'_0)_2$, where $k' \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$. Non-adjacent form (NAF) [33] is a signed digit representation which has the following properties [14]:

- No two adjacent digits are non-zeros.

- NAF(k) is unique.
- The length of NAF(k) is at most one digit longer than the binary representation of k.
- Given n-bit k integer, the average density of non-zero digits in NAF(k) is $\frac{1}{3}$.

Algorithm 3 shows how NAF(k) can be found efficiently. Once NAF(k) is computed, kP can be computed using a slightly modified algorithm from left-to-right double-and-add algorithm (Algorithm 1). A scalar multiplication algorithm using NAF is given in Algorithm 4. If the length of NAF(k) is l, the expected running time of Algorithm 4 is

$$\frac{l}{3}A + lD$$

Algorithm 3 Computing NAF(k)[14]

```
Require: A positive integer $k$
Ensure: NAF($k$)
$i \leftarrow 0$
while $k \geq 0$ do
    if $k$ is even then
        $k_i \leftarrow 0$
    else
        $k_i \leftarrow 2 - (k \mod 4)$
        $k = k - k_i$
    end if
    $k \leftarrow k/2$
    $i = i + 1$
end while
return $(k_{i-1}, k_{i-2}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)$
```

Algorithm 4 Scalar multiplication using binary NAF method [14]

```
Require: $P \in E(\mathbf{F}_p), k = (k_{l-1}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)_2$ in NAF representation
Ensure: $Q = kP$
$Q \leftarrow \mathcal{O}$
for $i = l - 1$ down to $0$ do
    $Q \leftarrow 2Q$
    if $k_i = 1$ then
        $Q \leftarrow Q + P$
    end if
    if $k_i = -1$ then
        $Q \leftarrow Q - P$
    end if
end for
return $Q$
```

2.2.3 Window Method (wNAF)

The running time of Algorithm 4 can be reduced if extra memory is available and by using a window method where w digits of k are processed at a time. Different variants have been introduced for the window method in [33] and [25]. Window NAF is an expansion of NAF where it uses pre-computed values to process w digits at once and allows to execute several point operations on these digits. Therefore, it reduces the density of nonzero terms.

Each digit k has a unique representation of wNAF which can be denoted as $\mathrm{NAF}_w(k)$. If a window is chosen to be of size w, the number of pre-computed points will be up to $(2^{w-2} - 1)$ and the average density of wNAF is $\frac{1}{w+1}$ [21].

Algorithm 5 shows how to find $NAF_w(k)$ for a positive integer k and a window width of size w. Computing $NAF_w(k)$ is similar to Algorithm 3. The main difference is in Step 6, where k_i is chosen to be in the range $[-2^{w-1}, 2^{w-1} - 1]$.

Algorithm 5 Computing NAF$_w(k)$[14]

```
Require: A positive integer $k$, window width $w$
Ensure: $NAF_w(k)$
$i \leftarrow 0$
while $k \geq 0$ do
    if $k$ is even then
        $k_i \leftarrow 0$
    else
        $k_i \leftarrow k \mod 2^w$
        $k = k - k_i$
    end if
    $k \leftarrow k/2$
    $i = i + 1$
end while
return $(k_{i-1}, k_{i-2}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)$
```

Computing the scalar multiplication using $NAF_w(k)$ instead of NAF(k) is shown in Algorithm 5. The expected running time of Algorithm 5, if the length of wNAF is l, is as follows [14]

$$\left[1D + (2^{w-2} - 1A)\right] + \left[\frac{l}{w+1}A + lD\right]$$

Algorithm 5 applies a window of width w where it moves from right to left skipping consecutive zeroes. Moreover, a *sliding window* can be applied on NAF of k (Algorithm 3) where it skips 0s after a digit k_i is processed so it ensures the value within the window is odd. The use of sliding window decreases the number of additions and reduces the number of precomputed points to almost one half.

Algorithm 6 Scalar multiplication using wNAF method [14]

```
Require: $P \in E(\mathbf{F}_p), k = (k_{l-1}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)_2$ in $w$NAF representation, Window width $w$
Ensure: $Q = kP$
Compute $P_i = i$ for $i \in 1, 3, 5, \cdots, 2^{w-1} - 1$
$Q \leftarrow \mathcal{O}$
for $i = l - 1$ down to $0$ do
    $Q \leftarrow 2Q$
    if $k_i \neq 0$ then
        if $k_i > 0$ then
            $Q \leftarrow Q + P_{k_i}$
        else
            $Q \leftarrow Q - P_{-k_i}$
        end if
    end if
end for
return $Q$
```

2.2.4 Double Base Number System

Double Base Number System (DBNS) was first introduced by Dimitrov, Jullien and C. Miller [8] in 1999 and later used in the context of elliptic curve cryptography [6]. DBNS is very redundant recoding algorithm where a digit can be represented in many different forms of DBNS. DBNS is an alternative for other recoding algorithms like NAF, wNAF, and window method. DBNS represents an integer as a product of 2 and 3 or their powers. Let k be an integer. Then the DBNS representation of k can be defined as follows:

$$k = \sum_{i=0}^{n} s_i 2^{a_i} 3^{b_i} \text{ where } s_i \in \{-1, 1\}, \text{ and } a_i, b_i \geq 0 \tag{2.9}$$

Using the aforementioned equation, any integer k can be represented in DBNS using the greedy algorithm. Algorithm 7 shows how to find DBNS expansion for an integer

$k \in \mathbf{N}$. The algorithm finds the closest t (an integer in the form 2^a3^b) where $k - t$ is minimal. Then, it sets $k = k - t$. The algorithm keeps repeating this process until $k = 0$. It is proved in [7] that for any positive integer k, finding DBNS expansion using the greedy algorithm (Algorithm 7) takes at most $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\log k}{\log \log k}\right)$ iterations.

Algorithm 7 Greedy algorithm to compute DBNS expansion

```
Require: $k \in \mathbf{N}$
Ensure: $(a_i, b_i)_i$ such that $k = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2^{a_i}3^{b_i}$
$i \leftarrow 0$
while $k > 0$ do
    Compute $t = 2^a3^b$ which is the largest 2-3 integer smaller than $k$
    $a_i \leftarrow a$
    $b_i \leftarrow b$
    $i \leftarrow i + 1$
    $k \leftarrow k - t$
end while
return $(a_i, b_i)_i$
```

After finding the DBNS expansion of an integer k, we need to precompute max a_i doubling and max b_i tripling to compute kP. However, using the greedy algorithm (Algorithm 7) to generate DBNS expansion of an integer k, it is hard to find the two lower bounds a_i and b_i [9]. Therefore, *double-base chain* has been introduced in [6] to allow the use of DBNS with generic elliptic curves. The idea presented is mainly the same as Algorithm 7 but with an additional condition $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq a_3 \cdots \geq a_n$ and $b_1 \geq b_2 \geq b_3 \cdots \geq b_n$. Adding this property to Algorithm 7 allows computing kP from right-to-left using DBNS.

To give an example of how *double base chain* can affect DBNS representation of an integer k, we provide the following example (which is similar to the example in [9]) to find double base representation of integer $n = 841232$ using the greedy algorithm (Algorithm

7) and using the condition of *double base chain*:

- Greedy algorithm:

$$841232 = 2^7 3^8 + 1424$$

$$1424 = 2^1 3^6 - 34$$

$$34 = 2^2 3^2 - 2$$

  which results in, $841232 = 2^7 3^8 + 2^1 3^6 - 2^2 3^2 + 2^1$

- Double base chain:

$$841232 = 2^7 3^8 + 1424$$

$$1424 = 2^1 3^6 - 34$$

$$34 = 2^0 3^3 + 7$$

$$7 = 2^0 3^2 - 2$$

$$2 = 2^0 3^1 - 1$$

  So, $841232 = 2^7 3^8 + 2^1 3^6 - 2^0 3^3 - 2^0 3^2 + 2^0 3^1 - 1$

As we can see from the above example that double base chain representation is strictly larger than greedy algorithm representation. However, with double base chain we can compute $[841232]P$ trivially. We can obtain kP as follows:

$$841232P = [3]([3]([3]([2^1 3^3]([2^6 3^2] + P) - P) - P) + P) - P$$

which requires only 5 addition, 7 doubling, and 8 tripling operations.

2.3 Power Analysis Attacks

Different side channel analysis attacks are used to recover the secret key. In this section, Simple Power Analysis (SPA) and Differential Power Attack (DPA) are briefly presented.

2.3.1 Simple Power Analysis Attack

Simple Power Analysis (SPA) interprets power consumption collected during different cryptographic operations which can reveal some information about the key [19]. SPA can yield information about how a cryptographic device operates and obtain knowledge about secret key using a single power trace. A trace can be defined as the set of power consumption measurements taken across a cryptographic operation.

SPA trace can distinguish different operations, such as addition from doubling in ECC operations, and therefore allows the attacker to gain information to recover the secret key. In order to resist such an attack, the computation of different arithmetic operations should be as regular as possible. So, an attacker will not be able to distinguish between different arithmetic operations being computed. This can be done on the algorithm level, such as the Montgomery ladder [26], or at the group algorithmic level, such as using block atomicity [4].

2.3.2 Differential Power Attack

Differential power attack uses the analysis of different power traces of a large number of executions of the same computation to reveal information about the secret key [19]. One approach to resist differential power attack is randomization [19]. However, some recent works have proved that differential power attack can defeat a certain type of randomization, such as binary signed digit randomization [12]. Even though these algorithms provide a variety of recoding, it just provides only a small amount of randomness to the representation, in particular, a randomized algorithm will fail if it doesn't provide a sufficiently large number of possible local internal states and transitions from that state, which will make these algorithms vulnerable to collision attacks.

Furthermore, if an algorithm uses a digit set, such as wNAF, differential power analysis works if the set is known in advance where the attacker makes a direct use of the knowledge of the digit set to produce the probabilistic state machines used in cryptoanalysis [16].

2.4 Summary

In this chapter, a brief background to elliptic curve cryptography has been provided. Different scalar multiplications algorithms have been reviewed. Double-and-add is the easiest and the most straightforward form to compute scalar multiplication. However, in order to speed up the computation of scalar multiplication, the scalar can be recoded so that the number of non-zero digits in its representation is reduced. To this end, a number of recoding schemes have been presented, such as non-adjacent form, window method, and double base number system. DBNS allows to represent a scalar k as a sum of products of 2 and 3 or their powers. However, computing DBNS expansion is not as efficient as other recoding schemes, such as window method (wNAF). Finally, a brief background to power analysis attacks has been provided.

Chapter 3

Random Digit Representation

There are different recoding algorithms that improve the performance of scalar multiplication operation in elliptic curves. As mentioned in Chapter 2, NAF, wNAF and double base system are some of these algorithms. Fractional wNAF is a method that uses a digit set up to m of the form $\{1, 3, 5, \ldots, m\}$. A new recoding algorithm presented in [22] is a generalized form of frac-wNAF. One advantage of the random recoding algorithm is the very large (asymptotically infinite) number of digit sets.

This chapter provides an overview of the recoding for random digit representation. It also discusses how such a representation can increase resistance against power analysis attacks.

3.1 Recoding for Random Digit Representation

Let $\mathcal{D}^+ = \{d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_t\}$ be a set of odd random integers. Let $\mathcal{D}^- = \{-d_1, -d_2, \cdots, -d_t\}$ and

$$\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}^+ \cup \mathcal{D}^- \cup \{0\}$$

. We define $N(\mathcal{D})$ as the set of all integers that can be represented using $\mathcal{D}$. In order to represent any integer using the set $\mathcal{D}$, $N(\mathcal{D})$ must be equal to $\mathbf{Z}$. Since $\gcd(\mathbf{Z}) = 1$, $\gcd(\mathcal{D})$ should also be equal to 1. In order to ensure $\gcd(\mathcal{D}) = 1$, the set $\mathcal{D}$ must contain the digit 1. In the rest of this chapter, we will only consider the set $\mathcal{D}$ that includes 1 as following $\mathcal{D}^+ = \{1, d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_t\}$.

In order to present the recoding algorithm, we define some notations. Let w be an integer, where $w > 0$. Then, for any integer x, we define $p_w(x) = x \mod 2^w$. We now form two sets as follows: $\mathcal{D}^+_w = p_w(\mathcal{D}^+)$ and $\mathcal{D}^-_w = \{2^w - d : d \in \mathcal{D}^+_w\}$. In addition, we define $W = \lfloor \log_2(max(\mathcal{D}^+)) \rfloor$. Then, we define $h(k)$, where k is an odd integer, as the largest integer $h \leq W + 2$ such that there exists a digit $d \in \mathcal{D}$ that satisfies the following two conditions:

- $d < k$
- $p_h(k) \in \mathcal{D}$

Finally, we can define the mapping map $digit_D$: $\mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ as follows:

- If k is even: $digit_D(k) = 0$

- if k is odd:
  - $h = h(k)$.
  - If $p_h(k) \in \mathcal{D}_h$, then $digit_D(k) = d$ for which $p_h(k) = p_h(d)$
  - if $2^h - p_h(k) \in \mathcal{D}_h$, $digit_D(k) = -d$ for which $p_h(d) = 2^h - p_h(k)$.

This map is well defined which means $digit_d(k)$ exists for any integer k.

Algorithm 8 $digit_D(k)$ function [22]

```
Require: $k \in \mathbf{N}$, digit set $\mathcal{D}$
Ensure: 0 or $d$ such that $d \in \mathcal{D}$
if $k$ is even then
    return 0
else
    $h$ is the largest integer $h \leq W + 2$ such that $p_h(k) \in \mathcal{D}$
    if $p_h(k) \in \mathcal{D}_h^+$ then
        if $p_h(k) = p_h(d)$ and $d < k$ then
            return $d$
        end if
    else
        if $p_h(k) = 2^h - p_h(d)$ and $d < k$ then
            return $-d$
        end if
    end if
end if
```

Algorithm 8 summarizes how the map of $digit_D$ is implemented. Now, we can define the Random Digit Representation (RDR) algorithm that uses $digit_D$ which is defined in Algorithm 9.

Finally, after we have the $\mathcal{D}$-representation of an integer k, we can compute the scalar multiplication using Algorithm 10.

Algorithm 9 Random Digit Representation of an Integer k [22]

```
Require: $k \in \mathbf{N}$, digit set $\mathcal{D}^{+} = \{1, d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_l\}$
Ensure: $k = (k_{i-1}k_{i-2}\cdots k_0)_2$ such that $k_i \in \mathcal{D}$
$i = 0$
while $k \neq 0$ do
    $k_i = digit_D(k)$
    $k = \frac{k-k_i}{2}$
    $i = i + 1$
end while
return $(k_{i-1}k_{i-2}\cdots k_0)_2$
```

Algorithm 10 Scalar Multiplication using RDR (Algorithm 9)

```
Require: An integer $k = (k_{l-1}k_{l-2}\cdots k_0)_2$, a point $P$ and digit set $\mathcal{D}$
Ensure: $Q = kP$
$R_0 \leftarrow P$;
for $d \in \mathcal{D}$ do
    $T_d = dP$
end for
for $i = n - 1$ down to $0$ do
    $R_0 \leftarrow 2R_0$
    if $k_i \neq 0$ then
        $R_0 \leftarrow R_0 + T_{k_i}$
    end if
end for
return $R_0$
```

3.2 Average Density

Average density of non-zero terms of a recoding algorithm is an important parameter that is taken into account when we measure the performance of a specific recoding algorithm. The smaller the average density is, the faster scalar multiplication operation will be.

Let k be an integer and $\mathcal{D}^+ = \{1, d_1, d_2, \cdots, d_n\}$ is a set of random digits. Then, for all $w > 2$ we define $\mathbb{D}(w) = \frac{\#\mathcal{D}_w}{2^{w-1}}$. In [18], it has been proven that the average density of non-zero terms achieved by the random digit representation (RDR) is $\frac{1}{a_D+1}$ where

$$a_D = 2\mathbb{D}(W+2) + \sum_{w=2}^{W+1} \mathbb{D}(w) \tag{3.1}$$

3.3 Resistance to Power Analysis Attacks

One of the main countermeasures to side channel attacks is randomization. Randomization of the digit set can provide an added resistance to differential and simple power analysis attacks. Below we briefly discuss the security of the RDR based scalar multiplication against simple and differential power analysis attacks.

To resist SPA, the computation of different arithmetic operations, such as doubling and addition in ECC, should be as regular as possible so that an attacker will not be able to identify any operation (e.g., point addition) whose execution depends on one or more bits of the secret key. In Algorithm 10, the point addition does depend on the secret (i.e., k_i in the i-th iteration); however, k_i is from a set of digits chosen randomly to represent the scalar. Hence, it is claimed in [22] that when there is enough randomness in the digit set, Algorithm 10 is resistant to simple power analysis attack.

Furthermore, [22] argues that Algorithm 10 provides resistance to differential power attacks for two reasons. First, since the digit sets are not known in advance, the attacker cannot mount the attack similar to the one mentioned in [16]. Second, a given digit set can have many different recoding since the algorithm itself provides randomness [22].

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, we have reviewed the random digit recoding presented in [22] which is a generalization of wNAF. The algorithm allows an integer to be represented using any digit set as long as the digit set has 1 in it. The algorithm provides resistance against simple and differential power analysis attacks.

Chapter 4

Implementation Friendly Recoding for RDR

In this chapter, we provide an Implementation-friendly Recoding Algorithm (IFRA) for random digit representation. We then present a hardware implementation of IFRA on FPGA. We also apply our IFRA to scalar multiplication and compare its timing results with those obtained using NAF, wNAF and RDR recoding.

4.1 IFRA Description

The algorithm presented in Chapter 3 (Algorithm 9) generalizes fractional wNAF recoding. However, previous research has not investigated any hardware implementation for Algorithm 9. Also, the $digit_D(k)$ function in step 3 of the algorithm poses quite a bit of challenge for efficient implementation in hardware due to its variable window sizes (h) and modular reduction operations which may require quite a bit of area in hardware if not designed in an efficient manner. Therefore, we propose a new hardware friendly recoding algorithm for RDR that is adopted from Algorithm 8 and 9.

The following are some important notations used in the algorithm being proposed. Let $\mathcal{D}$ be the random digit set and $W = \lfloor \log_2(\max(\mathcal{D})) \rfloor$ and $1 \leq w \leq W + 1$. We then set $\mathcal{D}_w^- = 2^w - d$ for all $d \in \mathcal{D}$ and $d < 2^w$. Note that $W + 1$ corresponds to the number of bits in the largest digit in $\mathcal{D}$. Therefore, a window can be as big as the maximum number of bits in a digit set $\mathcal{D}$ and as small as one bit. Once we have all $\mathcal{D}_w^-$ of the digit set $\mathcal{D}$ for all w such that $1 \leq w \leq W + 1$, we can scan k from right to left to determine its recoding.

Our recoding algorithm is sequential and works from the least significant end of the scalar k. In a given iteration, if k is even, then the corresponding recoded digit is simply 0 and k is shifted one position right. The updated k is used in the next iteration. When k is odd, the recoding involves a number of steps. The main idea behind these steps is that we replace the least significant w bits of k with either the w-tuple $(\underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1 \text{ zeros}}, d)$ or the $(w + 1)$-tuple $(1, \underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1 \text{ zeros}}, -d)$. While doing the replacement, we ensure that the value of k remains unchanged. The value of w is set to $W + 1$ initially and it is reduced by 1 if there is no appropriate tuple for a given w. Since the digit set contains 1, we are guaranteed to find a replacement tuple that does not change the value of k. We note that the $(w + 1)$-tuple creates a '*carry*' that needs to be added to k at bit position w. Below we summarize the steps for dealing with odd k.

1. The window size w is set to $W + 1 = \lfloor \log_2 \max(\mathcal{D}) \rfloor + 1$.

2. A window of w bits is extracted from integer k into a variable k_{temp}.

3. Compare k_{temp} to d where $d \in \mathcal{D}$. If there is a digit d equals to k_{temp}, the least significant w bits of k are replaced by $(\underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1}, d)$. Then, we update k by shifting it right by w bits, skip the following steps and start recoding the updated k.

4. We compare k_{temp} to d such that $d = 2^w - d \; \forall d \in D_w$ and $d < 2^w$. If such a digit d is found, we replace the least significant w bits of k by $(\underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1}, -d)$. Then, we shift k to the right by w bits, and add 1 (i.e., a carry) to k. Then, we skip the following step and start recoding the updated k.

5. We subtract 1 from w and the algorithm continues from Step 2.

In the worst case, the addition in step 4 above may cause the carry to propagate all the way to the most significant bit of k, requiring an adder of size close to n bits. For ECC scalar multiplication, the value of n can be several hundreds. In order to avoid a long adder, we do not explicitly add the carry; rather we store it separately. At the end of an iteration of the recoding algorithm, the shifted k (refer to step 4) as well as the carry are passed to the next iteration. Below we explain how it works.

We write the scalar as $k = k' + c$, where c is a carry which is either 0 or 1. We note that if the least significant bit of k' (LSB(k')) and c are the same, then it corresponds to an even k, and shifting k by one position to right is equivalent to simply shifting k' by one position right and making no changes to c. On the other hand, LSB(k') and c being different corresponds to an odd k, which can be obtained simply forcing its LSB to be 1 and copying other bits from k'. This scheme completely avoids the use of an n-bit adder to add the carry to k in our recoding algorithm.

We note that unlike Algorithm 9, we do not use $\mathcal{D}_w^+$. This is to avoid generating any negative carry.

The steps mentioned above are put together in algorithm format below (Algorithm 11). The worst case of Algorithm 11 is $\mathcal{O}((l \cdot (W-2) \cdot n)$ where n is the number of bits in an integer k, and l is the number of digits in the digit set $\mathcal{D}$.

The new variant of the recoding algorithm can be advantageous for hardware implementation over the original one. This is mainly because Algorithm 11 requires simple operations such as scan, match and shift that are easy to implement. Moreover, unlike Algorithm 9, the new variant does not require an adder of size of n.

Algorithm 11 Implementation-Friendly Recoding Algorithm (IFRA)

```
Require: $k = (k_{n-1}, \cdots, k_1, k_0)$, digit set $D$
Ensure: Representation of $k$ using digits in set $D$
$W = \lfloor \log_2(max(D)) \rfloor$
$rdr = []$                                  ▷ Initialization of rdr to store the result
$k' \leftarrow k$, $c \leftarrow 0$
while $k' \neq 0$ or $c \neq 0$ do
    if LSB($k'$) $\oplus$ c = 0 then
        append 0 to rdr and shift right $k'$ by 1 bit.
    else
        LSB($k'$) $\leftarrow 1$            ▷ Bits other than LSB remain unchanged for $k'$
        $c \leftarrow 0$
        for $w = W + 1$ to 1 do
            extract $w$ bits and store it in $k\_temp$
            for $d$ in $D$ do
                if $d =$ $k\_temp$ then
                    append $(\underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1}, d)$ to rdr
                    shift $k'$ to the right by $w$ bits
                    $flag = 1$      ▷ This flag is set to break from the outer (for) loop
                    break
                else if $d < 2^w$ and $2^w - d =$ $k\_temp$ then
                    append $(\underbrace{0, 0, \cdots, 0}_{w-1}, -d)$ to rdr
                    shift $k'$ to the right by $w$ bits
                    $c \leftarrow 1$
                    $flag = 1$
                    break
                end if
            end for
        end for
    end if
    if $flag = 1$ then
        $flag = 0$          ▷ if a value $d$ is found, break from the loop to check $k$
        break
    end if
end while
return rdr
```

Correctness of Algorithm 11 is ensured because IFRA only substitutes a window of size w by an equal value from the digit set $\mathcal{D}$ or the negative of a value from $\mathcal{D}$ and a carry. Therefore, the value of k never changes and Algorithm 11 always results in a correct representation of an integer k. Furthermore, Algorithm 11 is guaranteed to terminate because the absolute value of k monotonically decreases each iteration until the value of k reaches 0.

Example 1

Below is an example of Algorithm 11 in details:

Let $k = 31415$. Then, the binary representation of k is $(111101010110111)_2$. Let the digit set $\mathcal{D}$ be as following $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$, where the binary form of the set $\mathcal{D}$ is

$$\mathcal{D} = \{1, 11, 10111, 11011\}$$

We compute $W = \lfloor \log_2(27) \rfloor = 4$. Then, we find all $\mathcal{D}_w^-$ such that $\mathcal{D}_w^- = 2^w - d : d \in \mathcal{D}$ and $d < 2^w$ for $1 \leq w \leq W + 1$. We end up with the following sets:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{D}_2^- &= \{1, 3\} && =\{01, 11\} \\
\mathcal{D}_3^- &= \{1, 5, 7\} && =\{001, 101, 111\} \\
\mathcal{D}_4^- &= \{5, 9, 13, 15\} && =\{0101, 1001, 1101, 1111\} \\
\mathcal{D}_5^- &= \{5, 9, 29, 31\} && =\{00101, 01001, 11101, 11111\}
\end{aligned}$$

Note that D_1^- is not mentioned above because it only contains one element which is $D_1^- = \{1\}$.

Now, let's apply the steps mentioned above on the example given where $k = (111101010110111)_2$. First, we initialize $k' = k = (111101010110111)_2$ and $c = 0$. Since $w = \lfloor \log_2(27) \rfloor + 1 = 5$, we scan the first 5 bits of k'.

$$k' = (1111010101\,\underset{k\_temp}{\overbrace{10111}})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 0$$

Since $k\_temp = (10111)_2$ which equals to $23 = (10111)_2$, we would have the following $rdr = (0, 0, 0, 0, 23)$. Then, k' is shifted to the right by $w = 5$ bits $k' = (1111010101)_2$ and w is set to $w = W + 1 = 5$.

We repeat the algorithm again since $k' \neq 0$. So, we scan the first 5 bits of k'.

$$k' = (11110\,\underset{x}{\overbrace{10101}})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 0$$

Since there is no $d \in \mathcal{D}$ such that $d = x$ or $2^5 - d = k\_temp$ where $d < 2^5$, we reduce w by 1 and we will have the following:

$$k' = (111101\,\underset{k\_temp}{\overbrace{0101}})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 0$$

Also there is no d that equals to k_temp or $2^4 - d = x$, where $d < 2^4$. Therefore, we reduce w by 1 and continue as follows:

$$k' = (1111010\underbrace{\overbrace{101}}_{k\_temp})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 0$$

Here, $2^3 - 3 = 5 = (101)_2$ matches x. Therefore, the result would be $rdr = (0, 0, -3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 23)$ and k' is shifted right by w bits and $c = 1$. Then, we will have

$$k' = (11\underbrace{\overbrace{11010}}_{k\_temp})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 1$$

Since $k' \oplus c = 1$, we set LSB(k) to 1 and we reset c to 0. Then, we extract w bits as follows

$$k' = (11\underbrace{\overbrace{11011}}_{k\_temp})_2$$

Since $k\_temp = (11011)_2$ which equals to $27 = (11011)_2$, we would have the following $rdr = (0, 0, 0, 0, 27, 0, 0, -3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 23)$. Then, k' is shifted to the right by $w = 5$ bits $k' = (11)_2$ and w is set to $w = W + 1 = 5$.

Finally

$$k' = (\underbrace{\overbrace{11}}_{k\_temp})_2 \quad \text{and} \quad c = 0$$

Here, we can find $d \in \mathcal{D}$ which equals to k_temp. Therefore, we would have $rdr = (0, 3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 27, 0, 0, -3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 23)$ and k' is shifted right by 2 bits.

In the end, we will have $k' = 0$ and the IFRA of the integer k using the random digit set $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$ is

$$rdr = (3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 27, 0, 0, -3, 0, 0, 0, 0, 23)_2 \tag{4.1}$$

4.2 Average Density

The average density of the original RDR algorithm [22] is $\frac{1}{a_D+1}$, where a_D is computed using Equation. 3.1. The proposed IFRA is functionally similar to the RDR algorithm except that the former does not use $\mathcal{D}_w^+$. To compare the average densities of the two algorithms, we have randomly selected some digit sets and performed recoding exhaustively in software. In this experiment, several 192-bit numbers were recoded using RDR and IFRA. Then, the average density of the output of each algorithm is found using exhaustive search on non-zero digits. The average density that was calculated is for digit sets of the size between 5 to 30, where the random digit is in the range of $[1, 300)$. Results of our experiment are shown in Table 4.1. As can be seen in the table, the average density of non-zero digits for IFRA is almost always higher than that of the original RDR algorithm, but the difference is small.

Table 4.1: Comparison between average density of RDR and IFRA

# elements in $\mathcal{D}$	RDR	IFRA
5	0.2132	0.2305
6	0.1915	0.1915
7	0.1924	0.2083
8	0.1728	0.1763
9	0.1778	0.1964
10	0.1781	0.1853
11	0.1647	0.1826
12	0.1650	0.1720
13	0.1639	0.1703
14	0.1617	0.1698
15	0.1654	0.1688
16	0.1584	0.1726
17	0.1508	0.1604
18	0.1526	0.1546
19	0.1509	0.1591
20	0.1525	0.1575
21	0.1537	0.1617
22	0.1515	0.1575
23	0.1511	0.1545
24	0.1445	0.1615
25	0.1450	0.1587
26	0.1503	0.1705
27	0.1452	0.1486
28	0.1371	0.1577
29	0.1410	0.1531
30	0.1474	0.1555

4.3 Hardware Implementation

There are many research papers presenting hardware implementation of crypto processors for ECC. However, it is usually assumed that the scalar k is already recoded and stored in memory. So, a hardware implementation of a recoding algorithm is not usually provided in a crypto processor. In this section, we present a hardware implementation for IFRA (Algorithm 11). The hardware design consists of the following units:

- Dual port memory.
- Address Computation unit.
- Shift register.
- Control Unit.

Figure 4.1 shows a block diagram of our design. It also shows the system's different components and the connection between blocks.

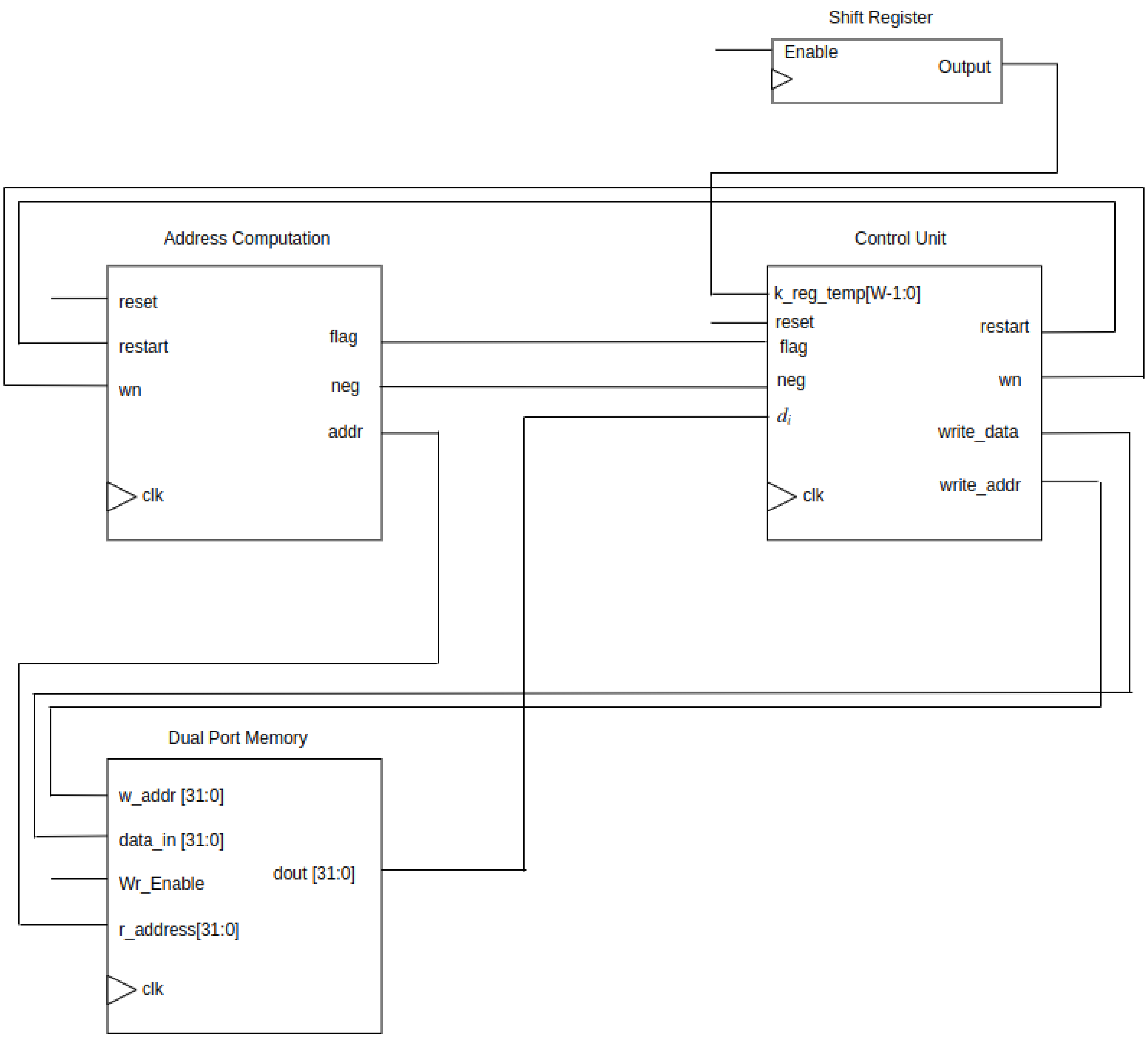


Figure 4.1: A block diagram of the suggested hardware design for Algorithm 11

4.3.1 Dual Port Memory Module

In this design, we use a dual port memory to store and write the results. The advantage of using dual port memory is the ability of reading and writing to two different memory locations at the same time. In our implementation, we assume that all sets $\mathcal{D}_w^-$ are already computed and stored in the memory. However, these values need to be stored in a way that is easy to access without taking lot of space or repeating any values. First, we compute $W = \lfloor \log_2 max(\mathcal{D}) \rfloor$ and # of elements in $\mathcal{D}$ is L. Then, precomputed values are stored in the memory as follows:

- Store all elements of $\mathcal{D}$ into the first L locations of memory.
- For each subsequent L locations, we store $\mathcal{D}_2^-$, $\mathcal{D}_3^- \cdots \mathcal{D}_{W+1}^-$, where each set takes L locations. If there is a value d such that $2^w - d < 0$, we store 0 in the correspondent memory location. This will make accessing the variable easier and the algorithm will not consider these values.

The writing address starts from a preset offset and is incremented by 4 every time an entry is added. If we consider Example 1 mentioned in Section 4.1 where the digit set $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$, the precomputed sets of $\mathcal{D}$ are presented in Table 4.2. Moreover, the output we got in Example 1 (4.1) is stored back in the same memory as shown in Table 4.3.

Figure 4.2 shows the dual port memory block with its accompanied inputs and outputs.

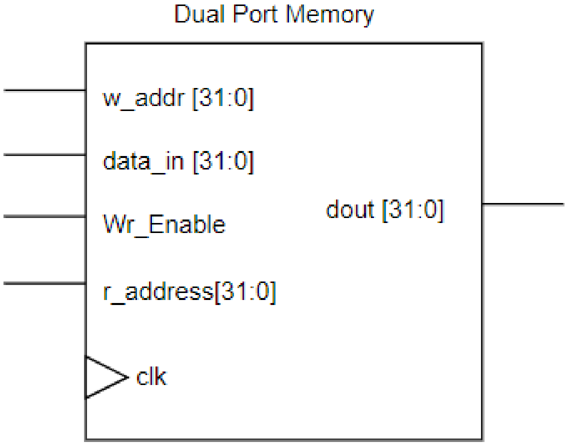


Figure 4.2: A block diagram of Read Only Memory

An example of memory structure for precomputed values of $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$ is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Memory structure for the example mentioned in Section 4.1, where the random digit set is $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$

$\mathcal{D}_w$	Address	Memory content
$\mathcal{D}$	0	1
	4	3
	8	23
	12	27
$\mathcal{D}_2^-$	16	$2^2 - 1$
	20	$2^2 - 3$
	24	0
	28	0
$\mathcal{D}_3^-$	32	$2^3 - 1$
	36	$2^3 - 3$
	40	0
	44	0
$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$
$\mathcal{D}_5^-$	64	$2^5 - 1$
	68	$2^5 - 3$
	72	$2^5 - 23$
	76	$2^5 - 27$

Table 4.3: The output of recoding Algorithm 11 stored in a memory. The output shown is for $k = 31415$ and $\mathcal{D} = \{1, 3, 23, 27\}$.

Address	Memory content
offset + 0	23
offset + 4	0
offset + 8	0
offset + 12	0
offset + 16	0
offset + 20	-3
offset + 24	0
offset + 28	0
offset + 32	27
offset + 36	0
offset + 40	0
offset + 44	0
offset + 48	0
offset + 52	3

4.3.2 Address Computation Module

This module computes the next address that will be read from the dual port memory. It always starts reading from the beginning and if no match is found with the temporary register, it starts checking $2^w - d \ \forall \ d \in \mathcal{D}$. If no match is found in the latter set, the control unit reduces the value of w by 1.

There is a counter in address computation module that tracks how many entries the module has checked. So, when the module checks L values, where L is the size of $\mathcal{D}$, the next address will be the first location of $\mathcal{D}_w$ for some value $1 \leq w \leq W + 1$.

The following equation shows how a next address is computed if we have checked all elements in $\mathcal{D}$ and no value satisfies the temporary register content.

$$address = address + 4 * L * (w - 2) + 4 \tag{4.2}$$

To give an example of Equation. 4.2 assume that we have the addresses as shown in Table 4.2. Let $w = 5$. Then as we reach address 3 and no value is matching the register, we need to check all elements of $\mathcal{D}_5$. Therefore, the next address will be

$$12 + 4 * (5 - 2) * 4 + 4 = 64$$

which equals to the first address of digit set $\mathcal{D}_5$. Figure 4.3 shows the address computation module with its accompanied inputs and outputs.

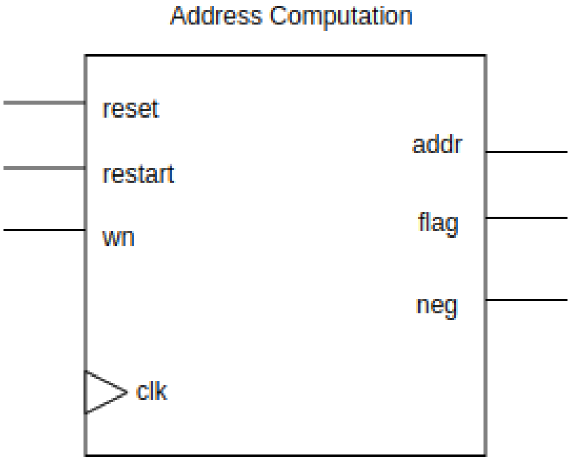


Figure 4.3: Block diagram of Address Computation Module

4.3.3 Control Unit Module

Control unit module is the main unit in the system which controls all other modules. The main operations of control unit are the following:

- Reset address computation when a value is found.
- Reduce the value of w if the flag signal from address computation module is set.
- Enable the write memory module to store results.
- Shift the register when a value is found.
- Remove the most significant bit (MSB) of temporary register if no value is found. Then, it resets address computation and reduce w by 1.

The control unit has a *done* signal, which is set when the value of shift register, which stores k, becomes 0. Moreover, since we need to find the location of most significant bit that is set to 1, a simple decoder is designed to return the location of MSB set of the input. Figure 4.4 shows the control unit module with its accompanied inputs and outputs.

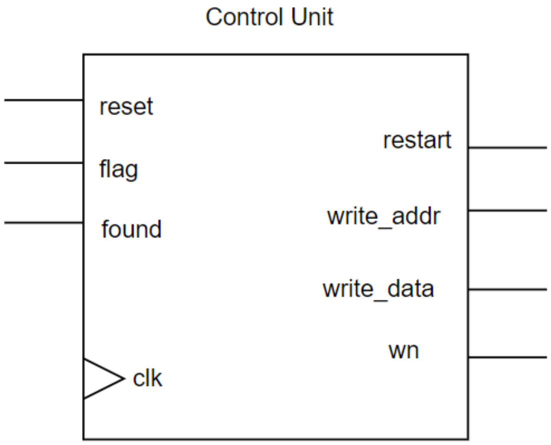


Figure 4.4: Block diagram of Control Unit Module

4.3.4 Hardware Implementation Results

Verilog has been used to describe the hardware design. Then, the code has been synthesized on Artix-7 FPGA (7a200tsbv484-1). The hardware utilization of our implementation of Algorithm 11 is as follows. The number of LUTs used is 1196 out of 134600 (0.89% utilization). Only, 0.5 block RAM has been used out of 365 (0.14% utilization). Finally, 428 registers have been used in the design out of 269200 on the FPGA (0.16% utilization).

4.4 Comparison Results

In this section, we present a comparison between the runtime of IFRA, RDR, and wNAF using software implementation. In order to have a fair comparison, we have implemented wNAF, RDR, and IFRA using Python. The average results have been recorded after running each algorithm 1000 times on a 64-bit processor. The specs of the machine is Intel Core i7-6500U CPU @ 2.50GHz. The processor has 2 cores, and a cache size of 4096 KB.

Table 4.4 shows the comparison between the time it takes to recode NIST scalars using IFRA, RDR, and wNAF recoding algorithms. The time is recorded using the time library provided in Python. Figure 4.5 shows the runtime comparison between IFRA, RDR, and wNAF for $w = 7$. As shown in Table 4.4, IFRA recodes faster than RDR because of simple operations used in the algorithm.

Table 4.4: Time (in seconds) needed to find the recoding representation of IFRA, RDR, and wNAF recoding algorithms

Window (w)	5			7			9		
Algorithm	IFRA	RDR	wNAF	IFRA	RDR	wNAF	IFRA	RDR	wNAF
p192	0.00058	0.001871	0.00011	0.00138	0.0032	0.000124	0.005669	0.01458	0.000121
p224	0.000676	0.003024	0.0001355	0.002253	0.00337	0.000151	0.007788	0.01302	0.000153
p256	0.000687	0.003038	0.000150	0.001248	0.00371	0.000187	0.005504	0.01059	0.000174
p384	0.000878	0.004361	0.000243	0.002413	0.00603	0.000303	0.013053	0.02022	0.000289
p521	0.001586	0.005875	0.000361	0.007366	0.00867	0.000459	0.012109	0.0309	0.000449

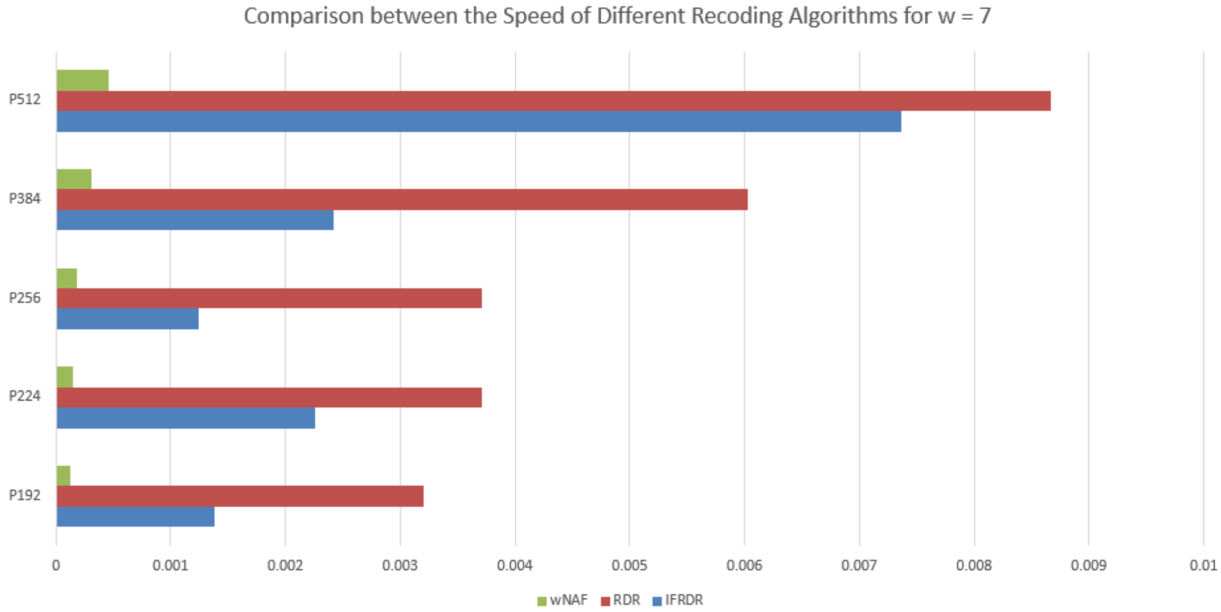


Figure 4.5: Recoding speed comparison of IFRA, RDR, and wNAF for NIST curves ($w = 7$)

4.5 Application to Scalar Multiplication

Different recoding schemes are used to speed up or improve various aspects of scalar multiplication, such as its resistance to side-channel analysis attacks. In this section, we present the timing results of implementing IFRA (Algorithm 11) in Python within a scalar multiplication implementation. Python is used for its ease of implementation and its data structure libraries that help in speeding up the development time. In this work, scalar multiplication on elliptic curve is implemented using double-and-add in order to compare different recoding algorithms, namely NAF, binary and wNAF, to IFRA. Python code for IFRA software implementation is given in Appendix A.

4.5.1 Precomputation

Algorithm 11 and wNAF require pre-computing some points. Once we have all pre-computed points, we use Algorithm 10 to find the scalar multiplication of an integer to a point on elliptic curve.

In case of wNAF, we can use an addition chain in the form of $\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, \ldots, 2^{w-1} - 1\}$ where w is the window size. However, if the same chain is used for IFRA, $m/2$ integers would be computed when only $m/4$ might be needed in the best case where $m = 2^{w-1} - 1$ [22].

There are different algorithms that use addition chains or sequence of powers to compute exponentiation such as Yao's algorithm [36], Brauer's algorithm [3], and Pippenger's algorithm [28]. In this work, we have a specific case where we need to compute all points $d \in \mathcal{D}$ and we know the following:

- d is odd for all $d \in \mathcal{D}$.
- The digit set $\mathcal{D}$ consists of relatively small digits. So, we need to compute dP for small values.

Therefore, since our case is limited by odd numbers, we can use a simple approach to pre-compute dP for all $d \in \mathcal{D}$ as follows:

1. Create an empty lookup table and add first element which is $(1, P)$.
2. If the current value is less than half of the next value in the digit set, the current point is doubled and added to $1P$.

3. If the current value is greater than half of the next value in the digit set, the current point is added to $2P$.

4. If the current value equals to the next element of the digit set, a new entry is added to the lookup table (d, dP).

5. Continue until the current element is equal to maximum element in $\mathcal{D}$.

Table 4.5 shows the time required to precompute the points for wNAF and IFRA where $w = 7$. It is clear that IFRA precomputation is faster than wNAF, this is because of the addition chain which is used to pre-compute the points of wNAF. Even though the window sizes of both schemes are equal, the number of digits in the digit set of IFRA is either less or equal to wNAF. As a result, IFRA precomputation takes less time than wNAF precomputation.

Table 4.5: Precomputation time comparison (in seconds) between wNAF and IFRA

NIST Curves	IFRA	wNAF
P192	0.012841	0.0176587
P224	0.015954	0.0180136
P256	0.012965	0.023257
P384	0.038869	0.074197
P512	0.116408	0.117022

4.5.2 Scalar Multiplication Comparison

In order to give a better view of how IFRA algorithm is compared to RDR, NAF, and wNAF recoding schemes, we have evaluated the time it takes to compute the scalar multiplication using recommended NIST curves [17]. To do so, we have evaluated the scalar multiplication for each curve by running each test for 1000 iterations and then we take the average of all executions. Table 4.6 shows the comparison of using different recoding algorithms for scalar multiplication. We assume all pre-computed points are already stored in a lookup table where it can be accessed in $\mathcal{O}(1)$.

Table 4.6: Scalar multiplication computing time (in seconds) using the double-and-add algorithm for IFRA, RDR, wNAF, and NAF recoding on NIST curves

NIST Curves	NAF	wNAF	IFRA	RDR
P192	0.017478	0.013137	0.013933	0.014713
P224	0.023361	0.018014	0.018817	0.018048
P256	0.029005	0.024489	0.025174	0.025781
P384	0.070487	0.057359	0.056305	0.057604
P512	0.148497	0.116373	0.116408	0.118699

It is clear from Table 4.6 that wNAF, RDR, and IFRA take almost the same amount of time to compute the scalar multiplication. Also, Figure 4.6 shows a graphical representation of the speed comparisons from Table 4.6.

Table 4.7: NIST Suggested Values for ECC on Prime Fields [17]

Curve	Values
P-192	$p = 6277101735386680763835789423207666416083908700390324961279$ $b = 64210519e59c80e70fa7e9ab72243049feb8deecc146b9b1$ $x = 188da80eb03090f67cbf20eb43a18800f4ff0afd82ff1012$ $y = 07192b95ffc8da78631011ed6b24cdd573f977a11e794811$ $r = 6277101735386680763835789423176059013767194773182842284081$ $k = 6510567709060150760568107634563585671901001566956156656592$
P-224	$p = 26959946667150639794667015087019630673557916260026308143510066298881$ $b = 0xb4050a850c04b3abf54132565044b0b7d7bfd8ba270b39432355ffb4$ $x = 0xb70e0cbd6bb4bf7f321390b94a03c1d356c21122343280d6115c1d21$ $y = 0xbd376388b5f723fb4c22dfe6cd4375a05a07476444d5819985007e34$ $r = 26959946667150639794667015087019625940457807714424391721682722368061$ $k = 26959956671506397946670150870196259404578077144243917216827123680 51$
P-256	$p = 115792089210356248762697446949407573530086143415290314195533631308867097853951$ $b = 0x5ac635d8aa3a93e7b3ebbd55769886bc651d06b0cc53b0f63bce3c3e27d2604b$ $x = 0x6b17d1f2e12c4247f8bce6e563a440f277037d812deb33a0f4a13945d898c296$ $y = 0x4fe342e2fe1a7f9b8ee7eb4a7c0f9e162bce33576b315ececbb6406837bf51f5$ $r = 115792089210356248762697446949407573529996955224135760342422259061068512044369$ $k = 115792089210351248362697456949407573528996955234135760342422159061068512044339$
P-384	$p = 39402006196394479212279040100143613805079739270465446667948293404245721771496870329047266088258938001861606973112319$ $b = 0xb3312fa7e23ee7e4988e056be3f82d19181d9c6efe8141120314088f5013875ac656398d8a2ed19d2a85c8edd3ec2aef$ $x = 0xaa87ca22be8b05378eb1c71ef320ad746e1d3b628ba79b9859f741e082542a385502f25dbf55296c3a545e3872760ab7$ $y = 0x3617de4a96262c6f5d9e98bf9292dc29f8f41dbd289a147ce9da3113b5f0b8c00a60b1ce1d7e819d7a431d7c90ea0e5f$ $r = 39402006196394479212279040100143613805079739270465446667946905279627659399113263569398956308152294913554433653942643$ $k = 26959956671506397946670150870196259404578077144243917216827126959956671506397946670150870196259404578077144243917216$
P-384	$p = 6864797660130609714981900799081393217269435300143305409394463459185543183397656052122559640661454554977296311391480858037121987999716643812574028291115057151$ $b = 0x051953eb9618e1c9a1f929a21a0b68540eea2da725b99b315f3b8b489918ef109e156193951ec7e937b1652c0bd3bb1bf073573df883d2c34f1ef451fd46b503f00$ $x = 0xc6858e06b70404e9cd9e3ecb662395b4429c648139053fb521f828af606b4d3dbaa14b5e77efe75928fe1dc127a2ffa8de3348b3c1856a429bf97e7e31c2e5bd66$ $y = 0x11839296a789a3bc0045c8a5fb42c7d1bd998f54449579b446817afbd17273e662c97ee72995ef42640c550b9013fad0761353c7086a272c24088be94769fd16650$ $r = 6864797660130609714981900799081393217269435300143305409394463459185543183397655394245057746333217197532963996371363321113864768612440380340372808892707005449$ $k = 2695995667150639794667015087019625940457807714424391721682712368058238947189273490172349807129834790127349087129834623486127461012630462184628923461201280461$

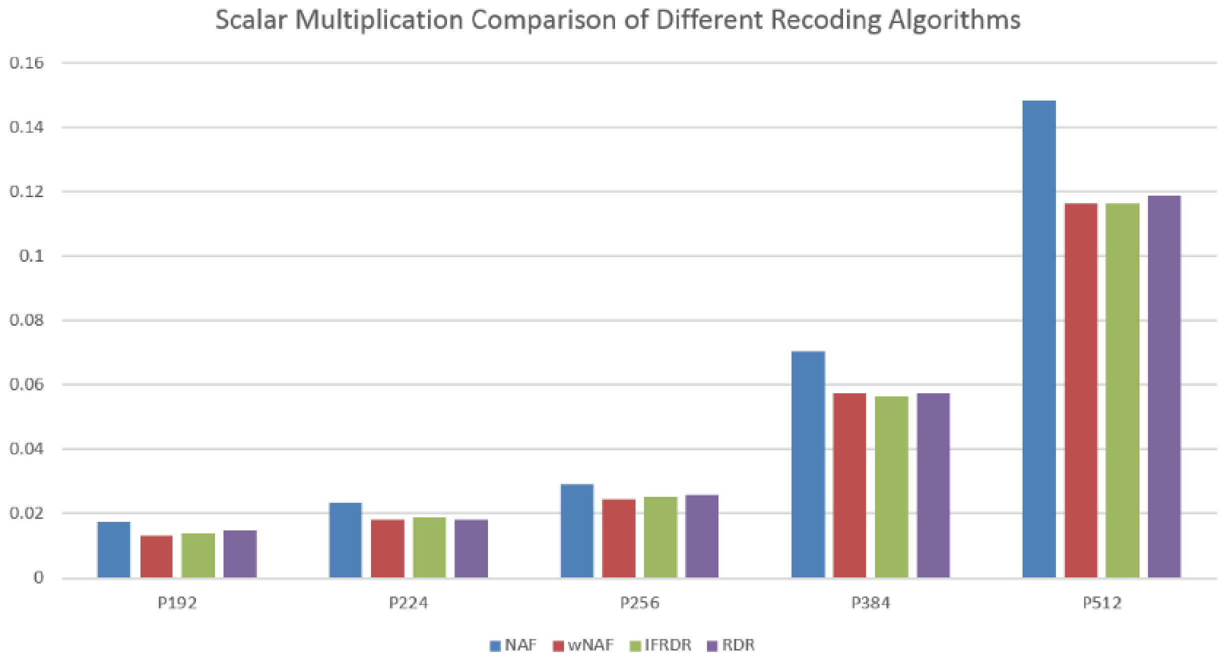


Figure 4.6: A graphical representation of Table 4.6 to show the speed of computing scalar multiplication using NAF, wNAF, RDR, and IFRA

4.6 Summary

In this chapter, we have introduced a variant (IFRA) of Algorithm 9. Then, the average density of IFRA has been investigated and compared to that of Algorithm 9. Furthermore, a hardware implementation of IFRA has been proposed. This hardware design consists of a dual port memory, address computation, shift register, and control unit where precomputed points are stored in the memory. Only one dual port memory is used in order to reduce the amount of block RAMs and LUTs usage on FPGA. Additionally, a comparison between the runtime of IFRA, RDR, and wNAF has been presented. Finally, an application to scalar multiplication using IFRA has been provided where a pre-computation comparison between wNAF and IFRA is shown along with a software performance comparison among NAF, wNAF, RDR, and IFRA. Since IFRA is similar to RDR in the sense that both use random digits, they are expected to provide similar resistance to side-channel analysis.

Chapter 5

Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, a summary of the thesis is presented. In addition, potential future work is briefly discussed.

5.1 Summary

In this thesis, we have investigated the random digit representation (RDR) algorithm [22] and proposed a variant (namely IFRA) to make it hardware friendly. Furthermore, we have presented a hardware implementation of IFRA. The hardware has been synthesized using Xilinx tools and the results of the FPGA resource utilization have been presented. Moreover, a python script has been developed to compare the time it takes to recode an integer using different algorithms, namely NAF, wNAF, and IFRA. Then, a comparison of their precomputation time has been presented. The result shows that the precomputation of IFRA is faster than wNAF. This is due to the size of IFRA digit set which is smaller than or equal to wNAF for the same w. Finally, IFRA is used in scalar multiplication application to compare its performance against NAF, wNAF, and RDR. The scalar multiplication time is almost the same as in wNAF and IFRA. However, IFRA and RDR provide resistance to side-channel analysis, such as SPA and DPA, which is an important advantage over wNAF.

5.2 Future Work

In this work, we have only worked with affine coordinates. However, projective coordinates and Jacobi coordinates could be used instead of affine coordinates. As a result, a different hardware implementation is required if coordinates are different.

Furthermore, we assumed pre-computed points are already stored in the memory, which might not be the case in a real-world scenario. Therefore, finding a way to speed up the computation of

$$2^w - d, \text{ where } d \in \mathcal{D} \text{ and } 1 \leq w \leq \lfloor \log_2 max(\mathcal{D}) \rfloor + 1$$

will improve the overall design and make it more practical. In addition, many crypto co-processor designs have been published, such as [1], [34], [32], and [5]. Integrating Algorithm 11 into an ECC crypto processor could be considered to improve the overall performance. Finally, the current design does not support parallelism. So, there is a good opportunity to exploit parallelism by improving the hardware design suggested in Chapter 4. A simple method of parallelism can be reading multiple entries from memory and comparing all of them with the temporary register at once. This will save a lot of clock cycles that results from reading the memory and updating the address and w variables.

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Appendix A

APPENDICES

A.1 Implementation Friendly Random Algorithm (IFRA) - Software Implementation

```
def RDR_algorithm(D, k):
rdr = []

# Change integer to binary
bin_k = bin(k)[2:]

# get number of bits
Wn = get_Wn(D)
flag_d = 0
c = 0
```

```
# global carry
while bin_k != ’’ or c > 0:
if bin_k == ’’: # carry is 1
rdr.insert(0, 1)
c = 0
continue

# if LSB(k) xor c = 0, zero is appened to rdr and k is shifted right 1 bit
if (bin_k[len(bin_k)-1] == ’0’ and c == 0 ) or (bin_k[len(bin_k)-1] == ’1’ and c
    == 1):
rdr.insert(0, 0)
bin_k = bin_k[:len(bin_k)-1]
continue

# if LSB(k) xor c = 1, we extract w bit
# convert bin_k to an array to allow change of one bit easily
bin_s = list(bin_k)
bin_s[len(bin_k)-1] = ’1’
bin_k = "".join(bin_s)
c = 0

for w in range(Wn + 1, 0, -1):
# if the window is bigger than the length of k, we need to have smaller windwo
```

```
if (w > len(bin_k)):

continue

# extract w bits from bin_k

k_reg = bin_k[len(bin_k) - w:]

for d in D:

# we check every d in the digit set D

bin_d = bin(d)[2:] # get the binary representation of d

# d cannot be chosen unless the value is less than the extracted window.

if d <= k_reg:

if int(bin_d, 2) ^ int(k_reg, 2) == 0:

rdr.insert(0, d)

# inserting w-1 zeros

for j in range(0, w-1):

rdr.insert(0, 0)

# update k by shifting it right w bits

bin_k = bin_k[:len(bin_k) - w]

# set flag_d to 1 to set the window to Wn+1

flag_d = 1

break

if flag_d == 1:

flag_d = 0

break


for d in D:
```

```
# we check every d in the digit set D
bin_d = bin(d)[2:] # get the binary representation of d
# compute the negative residue of d, if neg_d is negative, it is ignored by setting it to 0.
neg_d = 2**w - d
while neg_d < 0:
neg_d = 0
neg_bin_d = bin(neg_d)[2:] # get the binary representation of neg_d
if int(neg_bin_d, 2) ^ int(k_reg, 2) == 0 and neg_d != 1:
rdr.insert(0, -d)
# Inserting zeros
for j in range(0, w-1):
rdr.insert(0, 0)
# update k by shifting it right w bits
bin_k = bin_k[:len(bin_k) - w]
c = 1
# update k after adding a carry to LSB
# set flag_d to 1 to set the window to Wn+1
flag_d = 1
break
# break out of the for loop to check if we finished k or not
if flag_d == 1:
flag_d = 0
break
```

```
# In the end, there might be some leading zeros which are not needed,

# this while loop removes the leading zeros and update k accordingly

while (rdr[0] == 0):

rdr = rdr[1:]

# return the result, and length of result

return rdr
```

A.2 Implementation Friendly Random Algorithm (IFRA) - Hardware Implementation

```
module rdr #(parameter n = 231) (clk, reset, addr_out,k, di_out, done);
input clk;
input [n-1:0] k;
input reset;
output [31:0] addr_out;
output [31:0] di_out;
output done;

parameter mem_offset = 25;

reg [n-1:0] k_reg;

// Function to get the MSP bit
function [31:0] MSB_position;
input [31:0] select;
reg  [31:0] out;
begin
casex(select)
32'b00000000000000000000000000000001: out = 32'h0;
```

```
32'b0000000000000000000000000000001x: out = 32'h1;
32'b000000000000000000000000000001xx: out = 32'h2;
32'b00000000000000000000000000001xxx: out = 32'h3;
32'b0000000000000000000000000001xxxx: out = 32'h4;
32'b000000000000000000000000001xxxxx: out = 32'h5;
32'b00000000000000000000000001xxxxxx: out = 32'h6;
32'b0000000000000000000000001xxxxxxx: out = 32'h7;
32'b000000000000000000000001xxxxxxxx: out = 32'h8;
32'b00000000000000000000001xxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h9;
32'b0000000000000000000001xxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'ha;
32'b000000000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'hb;
32'b00000000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'hc;
32'b0000000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'hd;
32'b000000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'he;
32'b00000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'hf;
32'b0000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h10;
32'b000000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h11;
32'b00000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h12;
32'b0000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h13;
32'b000000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h14;
32'b00000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h15;
32'b0000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h16;
32'b000000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h17;
32'b00000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h18;
```

```
32'b0000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h19;
32'b000001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1a;
32'b00001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1b;
32'b0001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1c;
32'b001xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1d;
32'b01xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1e;
32'b1xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx: out = 32'h1f;
default: out = 0;
endcase
MSB_position = out;
end
endfunction

reg [31:0] addr;
wire [31:0] data_out;

logic [31:0] addr_write, data_in_write;

assign addr_out = addr;
assign di_out = data_out;

logic [5:0] wn_wire;
wire stop_reading;
```

```
logic restart;

logic flag;

logic neg;

logic [5:0] count;

logic [31:0] r_addr;

reg write_en;


compute_address com_add(.clk(clk), .stop_reading(stop_reading), .reset(reset), .
   restart(restart), .Wn(wn_wire), .address(addr), .flag(flag), .neg(neg), .
   count(count));


ram rw_mem(.rclk(clk), .reset(flag), .wclk(clk), .d_in(data_in_write), .w_addr(
   addr_write), .r_addr(r_addr), .write_en(write_en), .d_out(data_out));


parameter Wn = 6;

parameter size = 4;


reg [Wn-1:0] shiftRegister;

reg found;

reg found1;

reg [31:0] write_reg;

reg reset_wn;
```

```
assign done = (k_reg == 0) & (write_reg == 0)? 1 : 0;

// change r_addr if the value is negative to get the negative value of the digit
assign r_addr = !(found && neg) ? addr : (count == 0) ? size-1 : count-1;

always @* begin
if (reset | reset_wn) begin
stop_reading <= 0;
end
else begin
if (data_out == shiftRegister) begin
if (data_out == shiftRegister) begin
found = 1;
stop_reading = 1
else
found = 0;
end
end
end
end

// This block for updating Wn values.
always @(posedge clk or posedge reset or posedge reset_wn) begin
if(reset_wn | reset) begin
```

```
restart <=1;

wn_wire <= Wn;

reset_wn <= 0;

end

else begin

restart <= 0;

if (flag && wn_wire != 2) begin

wn_wire <= wn_wire - 1;

restart <= 1;

end

end

end


reg [Wn-1:0] mask;

reg carry;

reg check_carry;

wire stop_writing = (write_en && mask == 1) ? 1 : 0;


always @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin

if (reset) begin

carry <= 0;

check_carry <= 0;

end

else begin
```

```
if (check_carry) begin
// stop checking carry and k_reg
end
else begin
if ((k_reg[0] ^ carry) == 0) begin
write_reg <= 0;
write_en <= 1;
k_reg <= k_reg >> 1;
mask <= 1;
end
else begin
check_carry <= 1;
write_en <= 0;
shiftRegister <= k_reg[Wn-1:0] + carry;
carry <= 0;
mask <= {Wn-1{1'b1}};
end
end
end
end


always @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin
if (reset) begin
```

```
mask <= {Wn-1{1'b1}};
end
else begin
if (write_en && mask != 1) begin
mask <= mask >> 1;
end
else if (write_en && mask == 1) begin
write_en <= 0;
check_carry <= 0;
reset_wn <= 1;
mask <= {Wn-1{1'b1}};
end
end
end

// always clk or reset or reset_wn
always @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin
if (reset) begin
k_reg <= k; // initalize k_reg
shiftRegister <= k[Wn-1:0]; // initalize the shift register
mask <= {Wn-1{1'b1}};
end
else begin
if (check_carry) begin
```

```
// remove MSB(k)

if (~found && flag) begin

// if not found, keep cheecking the register

shiftRegister <= shiftRegister & mask;

mask <= mask >> 1;

end

else if (found & neg) begin

// if we found the negative value of a digit

write_reg <= -data_out;

carry <= 1;

write_en <= 1;

mask <= mask | (1 << (MSB_position(mask)+1));

k_reg <= k_reg >> MSB_position(mask) + 2;

end

else if (found) begin

write_en <= 1;

write_reg <= data_out;

k_reg <= k_reg >> MSB_position(mask) + 2;

mask <= {Wn-1{1'b1}};

end

end

end

end
```

```
// Write result to write memory

always @(posedge clk or posedge reset) begin

if (reset) begin

addr_write <= mem_offset*4 + 1;

write_en <= 0;

end

else begin

if (write_en) begin

data_in_write <= write_reg;

// Reset the write reg

write_reg <= 0;

addr_write <= addr_write + 1;

end

end

end


endmodule
```

```
module ram #(parameter addr_width = 9, data_width = 32) (d_in, reset, write_en,
   w_addr, r_addr, wclk, rclk, d_out);
input [addr_width-1:0] w_addr, r_addr;
input reset;
input [data_width-1:0] d_in;
input write_en, rclk, wclk;
output reg [data_width-1:0] d_out;

reg [data_width-1:0] mem [(1 << addr_width)-1:0];

parameter mem_file = "precomputation.x";

initial $readmemh(mem_file, mem);

// read memory
always @(posedge rclk or posedge reset) begin
if (reset) begin
d_out <= 0;
end
else begin
d_out <= mem[r_addr];
end
end
```

```
// write memory

always @(posedge wclk) begin

if (write_en)

mem[w_addr] <= d_in;

end

endmodule
```

```
/*
* This module computes the address to read next from read_mem
* It starts reading always from the beginning of the memory.
* However, if the number is not found, we check 2^(Wn-1) - Di
* Therefore, the address looks for the address of 2^(Wn-1) - D1
*/

module compute_address #(parameter n = 5, size = 4, offset = 'h80020000) (clk,
   reset, stop_reading, restart, Wn, address, flag, neg, count);
input clk;
input reset;
input restart;
input stop_reading;
input [n-1:0] Wn;
output reg [31:0] address;
output flag;
output reg neg;
output reg [5:0] count;


// This flag is for the control unit to change Wn value. It's set when all
   values for a specific Wn is checked
assign flag = restart == 1 ? 0 : (count == size-1 && neg) ? 1 : 0;
```

```
always @(posedge clk or posedge restart) begin
if (restart) begin
count <= 0;
end
else begin
// If flag is set, that means Wn needs to be updated
if(flag) count <= 0;
else count <= count + 1;
end
end

always @(posedge clk or posedge restart) begin
if (reset || restart) begin
count <= 0;
address <= 0;
neg <= 0;
end
if (stop_reading) begin
address <= address;
end
else begin
/*
* If we checked all D values, and we didnt’ check the neg values of the D values
    ,
* update the address to read the negative values of D

*/

if (count == size-1 && ~neg) begin

address <= address + size*(Wn-2) + 1;

count <= 0;

neg <= 1;

end

else begin

address <= address + 1;

// count <= count + 1;

end

end

end


endmodule
```