## COMMUNICATION

# LOW COMPLEXITY NORMAL BASES FOR $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}^{m n}}$ 

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#### Abstract

If $C(r)$ denotes the minimum complexity of a normal basis for $F_{2^{r}}$, we show that if $m>1$, $n>1$ are two relatively prime integers, then $F_{7} m$ has a normal basis of complexity $C(m) C(n)$. Such a normal basis leads to a Massey-Omura multiplier for $F_{2^{m n}}$ which uses $C(m) C(n) X O R$ gates and $C(m) C(n)+1 A N D$ gates per dimension.


## 1. Introduction

In recent years there has been an interest in developing algorithms for multiplying in finite fields whose structure is amenable to VLSI implementation. Typically, such an algorithm is given the multiplicands as $r$-tuple and must produce the $r$-tuple which represents their product. The first successful algorithm is that due to Massey and Omura $[3,6]$ in which the basic idea is to represent the field elements with respect to a normal basis. However, the complexity of the Massey-Omura algorithm depends on which normal basis is used. The problem of finding normal bases of minimal complexity was studied by Mullin, Onyszchuk, Vanstone and Wilson [4]. In particular, they showed that the minimal complexity (the complexity of a normal basis corresponds to the number of $X O R$ gates per dimension that a Massey-Omura multiplier requires) of a normal basis for $F_{p^{\prime}}$ is at least $2 r-1$ and they gave sufficient (and apparently necessary) conditions for the existence of a normal basis of complexity $2 r-1$. This problem was further studied by Ash, Blake and Vanstone [1] who gave specific constructions of low complexity normal bases.
In this paper, we study multiplication in fields of the form $F_{2^{m n}}, m>1, n>1$ and where $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$. These fields are, at the moment, of no great interest in cryptography because of the result of Pohlig and Hellman [5]. Nevertheless, they may certainly be of interest in coding theory and perhaps, in future cryptographic schemes which do not rely on exponentiation. Specifically, we show that normal

[^0]bases of $F_{2^{m}}$ and $F_{2^{n}}$ of respective complexities $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ can be combined to give a normal basis for $F_{2^{m n}}$ of complexity $C C^{\prime}$.

## 2. Massey-Omura multipier for $\boldsymbol{F}_{2^{m n}}$

In this section, we show how to obtain a Massey-Omura multiplier for the field $F_{2^{m n}}, m>1, n>1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$. The key to this result is the following simple lemma:

Lemma 1. Let $m>1, n>1$ be two relatively prime integers. Let $B_{1}=\left\{\alpha_{i} \mid 0 \leq i \leq\right.$ $m-1\}$ and $B_{2}=\left\{\beta_{j} \mid 0 \leq j \leq n-1\right\}$ be bases, respectively, for $F_{2^{m}}$ and $F_{2^{n}}$ over $F_{2}$. Then $B=\left\{\alpha_{i} \beta_{j} \mid 0 \leq i \leq m-1,0 \leq j \leq n-1\right\}$ is a basis for $F_{2^{m n}}$ over $F_{2}$. Moreover, if $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ are normal bases, then so is $B$.

Proof. Let $A=\left\{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i j} \alpha_{i} \beta_{j} \mid a_{i j} \in F_{2}\right\}$, then $A$ is a subring of $F_{2^{m n}}$, hence automatically a subfield, say $F_{2^{k}}$. Since $F_{2^{m}} \subset F_{2^{k}}$ and $F_{2^{n}} \subset F_{2^{k}}$, it follows that $m \mid k$ and $n \mid k$, hence $m n \mid k$ and so $k=m n$. Since the dimension of $F_{2^{m n}}$ over $F_{2}$ is $m n$, the result follows. Next suppose $\alpha_{i}=\alpha^{2^{i}}, 0 \leq i \leq m-1$ and $\beta_{j}=\beta^{2^{j}}, 0 \leq j \leq n-1$, then $(\alpha \beta)^{2^{k}}=\alpha^{2^{k}} \beta^{2^{k}}$ where $k$ in $\alpha^{2^{k}}$ may be reduced modulo $m$ and $k$ in $\beta^{2^{k}}$ may be
 To complete the proof, we need only show that the smallest positive integer $k$ for which $(\alpha \beta)^{2^{k}}=\alpha \beta$ is $m n$. If $(\alpha \beta)^{2^{k}}=\alpha \beta$, then $\alpha^{2^{k}-1}=\left(\beta^{-1} 2^{2^{k}-1} \in F_{2}\right.$ since $F_{2^{m}} \cap F_{2^{n}}=$ $F_{2}$. Hence $\alpha^{2^{k}-1}=\beta^{2^{k}-1},\left(\left(\beta^{-1}\right)^{2^{k}-1}=1\right.$ implies that $\left.\beta^{2^{k}-1}=1\right)$, and so if $M$ is the order of $\alpha$, then $M \mid 2^{k}-1$. But the smallest positive integer $l$ such that $M \mid 2^{l}-1$ is $m$ and so $m \mid k$. Similarly, we conclude that $n \mid k$ and so $m n \mid k$ and we are done.

Suppose $\gamma^{2 j}, 0 \leq j \leq r-1$ is a normal basis for $F_{2^{r}}$ and that

$$
\gamma^{2^{i}} \gamma^{2^{j}}=\sum_{i} \lambda_{i, j}^{(l)} \gamma^{2^{l}}, \quad \lambda_{i, j}^{(l)} \in F_{2},
$$

then the Hamming weight of the $r \times r$ matrix

$$
\Lambda_{l}=\left(\lambda_{i, j}^{(l)}\right)
$$

is independent of $l$ (see Mullin et al. [4]) and is called the complexity of the normal basis generated by $\gamma$ and denoted $C_{r}(\gamma)$. We shall call the minimum of the $C_{r}(\gamma)$ computed over all normal bases for $F_{2^{r}}$, the complexity of $F_{2^{r}}$ and denote it $C(r)$. It is known [4] that $C(r) \geq 2 r-1$ and if $C(r)=2 r-1$, then $F_{2^{r}}$ has an optimal normal basis.

If we represent the elements of $F_{2^{r}}$ in the normal basis $\alpha^{2^{j}}, 0 \leq j \leq r-1$, then the Massey-Omura multiplier uses $C_{r}(\alpha) X O R$ gates and $C_{r}(\alpha)+1 A N D$ gates $[3,6]$. The following corollary to Lemma 1 shows that $C(m n) \leq C(m) C(n)$ if $m n>1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$ (we set $C(1)=1)$.

Corollary. Let $m n>1, \operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1,\left\{\alpha^{2^{i}} \mid 0 \leq i \leq m-1\right\},\left\{\beta^{2^{j}} \mid 0 \leq j \leq n-1\right\}$ normal bases, respectively, for $F_{2^{m}}$ and $F_{2^{n}}$. Then $\alpha \beta$ generates a normal basis for $F_{2^{m n}}$ with complexity $C_{m n}(\alpha \beta)=C_{m}(\alpha) C_{n}(\beta)$. In particular, $C(m n) \leq C(m) C(n)$.

Proof. The only thing to prove is that $C_{m n}(\alpha \beta)=C_{m}(\alpha) C_{n}(\beta)$. To this end, let

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha^{2^{i}} \alpha^{2^{i}}=\sum_{k} \lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \alpha^{2^{k}}, & \lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \in F_{2}, \\
\beta^{2^{\prime}} \beta^{2^{s}}=\sum_{l} \gamma_{r, s}^{(l)} \beta^{2^{l}}, & \gamma_{r, s}^{(l)} \in F_{2}, \tag{2}
\end{array}
$$

and let $\Lambda_{k}=\left(\lambda_{i, j}^{(k)}\right), \Gamma_{l}=\left(\gamma_{r, s}^{(l)}\right)$. Multiplying the left-hand sides of (1) and (2) and equating it to the product of the right-hand sides, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
(\alpha \beta)^{\mu^{(i, r)}}(\alpha \beta)^{2^{(i, s)}} & =\alpha^{2^{i}} \beta^{2^{r}} \alpha^{2^{j}} \beta^{2^{s}}=\sum_{k} \sum_{l} \lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \gamma_{r, s}^{(l)} \alpha^{2^{k}} \beta^{2^{l}} \\
& =\sum_{k} \sum_{l} \lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \gamma_{r, s}^{(l)}(\alpha \beta)^{2^{c k, l)}} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

where in (3) $(\alpha \beta)^{2^{\mu(i, r)}}=\alpha^{2^{i}} \beta^{2^{r}}$ etc. Actually, we can give an explicit expression for $u(i, r), v(j, s)$ etc. by invoking the chinese remainder theorem; but such explicit knowledge is not required for our purposes. Looking at (3) it becomes apparent that $C_{m n}(\alpha \beta)$ is the number of 1 's that occur in $\lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \gamma_{r, j}^{(t)}$ as $i, r$ run over $0,1, \ldots, m-1$ and $j, s$ run over $0,1, \ldots, n-1$. But this is clearly the product of the weights of the matrices $\Lambda_{k}$ and $\Gamma_{i}$, hence $C_{m n}(\alpha \beta)=C_{m}(\alpha) C_{n}(\beta)$. In fact, the elements $\lambda_{i, j}^{(k)} \gamma_{r, s}^{(l)}$ define an $m n \times m n$ matrix, which if properly organized, is the usual tensor product of $\Lambda_{k}$ and $\Gamma_{l}$.

We remark that sometimes $C(m n)=C(m) C(n)$. Consulting the table of $C(r)$ given in Mullin et al. [4], we find, for example, that $C(15)=C(3) C(5), C(20)=C(4) C(5)$, $C(21)=C(3) C(7), C(22)=C(2) C(11)$ and $C(24)=C(3) C(8)$. A slight extension of the above arguments shows that if $n=n_{1} n_{2} \cdots n_{s}, \operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{i}, n_{j}\right)=1$ for every $i$ and $j$, if $i \neq j$, then

$$
C(n) \leq \prod_{1}^{s} C\left(n_{i}\right)
$$

When using $\alpha \beta$ to generate a normal basis for $F_{2^{m n}}$ as described above, we may represent the elements of $F_{2^{m n}}$ either as

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{m n-1} a_{i}(\alpha \beta)^{z^{i}} \text { or } \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{i, j} \alpha^{2^{i}} \beta^{2^{j}} .
$$

This will not affect the complexity of the Massey-Omura multiplier; but cyclic shifting in the second of these representations takes the following form:

$$
\left(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i, j} \alpha^{2^{i}} \beta^{2^{j}}\right)^{2}=\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i, j} \alpha^{2^{i+1}} \beta^{2 j+1}=\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{i-1, j-1} \alpha^{2^{i}} \beta^{j^{j}},
$$

i.e.,

$$
\left(a_{i, j}\right) \rightarrow\left(a_{i-1, j-1}\right)
$$

instead of

$$
\left(a_{i}\right) \rightarrow\left(a_{i-1}\right)
$$

We have therefore shown that we can construct a Massey-Omura multiplier for $F_{2^{m n}}$ which uses $C(m) C(n) X O R$ gates per dimension and $C(m) C(n)+1 A N D$ gates per dimension. If $F_{2^{m}}$ and $F_{2^{n}}$ have optimal normal bases, then these numbers become:

$$
4 m n-2(m+n)+1 \quad X O R \text { gates per dimension }
$$

and

$$
4 m n-2(m+n)+2 \quad A N D \text { gates per dimension. }
$$

## 3. Conclusions

In this paper we have shown that if $m>1, n>1$ are relatively prime, then $F_{2^{n n}}$ has a normal basis of complexity $C(m) C(n)$ where $C(r)$ is the complexity of $F_{2^{r}}$. In particular, $C(m n) \leq C(m) C(n)$. This poses the interesting problem of determining the integers $n$ for which $C(n)=\prod_{i=1}^{k} C\left(n_{i}\right)$ for some factorization $n=n_{1} n_{2} \cdots n_{k}$ of $n$ with $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{i}, n_{j}\right)=1$ for every $i, j, i \neq j$.

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[^0]:    * This work was supported in part by grant 0GP306288 from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada held by the author at the École Polytechnique de Montréal.

