



Implementation of Reliable CRC Error Detection for Versatile and Scalable Digit Serial Finite Field Multipliers for Cryptography Applications

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ABSTRACT

Finite field multiplication has gotten a lot of attention in the scientific community because of its applicability in encryption and error detection codes. This cryptography arithmetic technique, which really is sophisticated, expensive, and time-consuming, necessitates the use of millions of gates. This research proposes an effective hardware framework based on low-density parity check (CRC) as an error detection technique for all cryptographic applications in this case study of cryptographic algorithms. The construction designed for numeral successive increase in finite fields GF with cryptography applications is presented in this work (2m). In the suggested approach, which employs polynomial base representation, the multiplication and degree reduction phases are interleaved. An M-bit multiplier can multiply any irreducible polynomial and any binary field of order. Therefore, utilising $GF(2^3) = 8\text{-Bit}$ and $GF(2^5) = 32\text{-Bit}$, the Finite Field Versatile then Ascendable Digit Serial/Parallel Multiplier Building will be mutual with the Dependable CRC application to grow CRC Error detection. In this project, which has been written in Verilog HDL and emulated in a Vertex-5 FPGA, all parameters were compared based on area, latency, and power.

KEYWORDS: Cyclic redundancy check (CRC), fault detection, field-programmable gate array (FPGA), finite-field multiplication.

1. INTRODUCTION

Finite-field operations are required in several current, complex applications and organizations, with finite-field multiplication getting exact attention. Increasing under an irreducible polynomial essential to define the limited field is what finite-field multipliers do. Finite-field multipliers can appeal millions of logic entrances, while post quantum cryptography (PQC) stresses a high number of inputs. As a result, designing

systems that are immune to both natural and intentional faults is a tough undertaking; therefore, research has been focused on ways for reducing errors and improving reliability while reducing cost. Furthermore, earlier work has been done on fault [1] attacks and ensuring PQC dependability. To discover both permanent and transitory defects, Sarker et al. used number theoretic transform (NTT) error-detection techniques. Fault detection for stateless hash-based

PQC signatures was done by Mozaffari-Kermani et al. In addition, error-detection hash trees for stateless hash-based signatures are being developed in order to improve the robustness of such schemes against both natural and intentional faults. This effort deliberates algorithm-oblivious projects by exchanged cipher text then additional genuine blocks, which can be used in Galois counter mode (GCM) architectures using various finite-field multipliers in GF (2-128.). He advanced to the second round of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) standardization competition.

We employ error control check (CRC) error-detection algorithms to ensure that our recommended hardware configurations are overhead-aware and have high error coverage. The following is a summary of our responses to the brief.

- 1) The GF(2-m) bounded multiplier used in the Luov encryption method with $m > 1$ are offered as error-detection approaches. In these error-detection architectures, CRC-5 is employed. In addition, the profitability of primitive and conventional generator coefficients for CRC-5 is investigated and compared.
- 2) We derive fresh formulations for the error-detection approaches in Luov's algorithm, as well as time to implement for verification. It's worth noting that this type of derivation can be used for a various applications and security settings. The recommended schemes, on the other hand, are not limited to specific case studies.

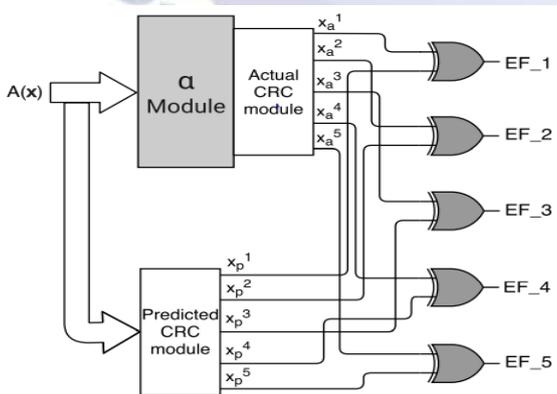


Figure.1. Proposed error-detection constructions for a module

2. Proposed Methodology:

Finite field multiplication has gotten a lot of attention in the scientific community because of its applicability in encryption and error detection codes. The usage of

millions of gates is required for this cryptography arithmetic technique, which is complex, expensive, and time-consuming. In this case study of cryptographic algorithm, this research gives an intelligent hardware framework based on low - density parity check (CRC) as an error detection algorithm for all cryptographic applications. This paper offerings an building for digit serial repetition in finite fields GF (2-m.) [2], which has cryptographic applications. The increased and degree discount steps are inserted in the future approach, which uses polynomial base representation. Any multivariate polynomial and any binary field of order can be multiplied with an M-bit multiplier. The Versatile and Scalable Digit Set was born as a result.

The Finite Field Multiplier Architecture will be used in collaboration with Reliable CRC creation and implementation, as well as GF (25) = 32-Bit based CRC Error detection. All of the characteristics were compared in terms of speed and power in this study, which was done in Verilog HDL and Vertex-5 FPGA.

3. Bit-Serial Multiplication in GF (2^M):

The polynomial base picture binary method for multiplication in GF (2m) is simply summarized below. We'll begin by reviewing several of the footnotes that will be utilized throughout this and following sections. GF attitudes for binary postponement field (2m). Any component of GF (2m) might be branded as a degree m1 cubic a(t) with constants inGF(2-m.), i.e., some element of GF(2m) can be regarded as a degree m1 cylinder a(t) with coefficients inGF(2-m.)

$$a(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i \cdot t^i = a_{m-1} \cdot t^{m-1} + \dots + a_2 \cdot t^2 + a_1 \cdot t + a_0$$

Using the $a_i \in \{0,1\}$ We container furthermore stipulate the field component a(t) in bit-string [3] if any coefficient a_i is either 0 or 1.

$$x(t) = a(t) \cdot b(t) \text{ mod } p(t) = \left(a(t) \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b_i \cdot t^i \right) \text{ mod } p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a(t) \cdot b_i \cdot t^i \text{ mod } p(t) \quad (1)$$

$$x(t) = [a(t) \cdot b_{m-1} \cdot t^{m-1} + a(t) \cdot b_{m-2} \cdot t^{m-2} + \dots + a(t) \cdot b_1 \cdot t + a(t) \cdot b_0] \text{ mod } p(t) \quad (2)$$

$$x(t) = a(t) \cdot b_{m-1} \cdot t^{m-1} \text{ mod } p(t) + a(t) \cdot b_{m-2} \cdot t^{m-2} \text{ mod } p(t) + \dots + a(t) \cdot b_1 \cdot t \text{ mod } p(t) + a(t) \cdot b_0 \quad (3)$$

$$[\dots [a(t).b_{m-1}].t \text{ mod } p(t) + a(t).b_{m-2}].t \text{ mod } p(t) + \dots + a(t).b_1].t \text{ mod } p(t) + a(t).b_0 \quad (4)$$

($a_{m-1}, \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0$) is a notation. The increase of field rudiments $a(t), b(t)$ while using polynomial source representation (2^m) is performed modulo an irreducible polynomial $p(t)$ of degree m over $GF(2)$

$$p(t) = t^m + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i = t^m + p_{m-1} \cdot t^{m-1} + \dots + p_1 \cdot t + p_0$$

Equations (1)-(4) illustrate the binary (bit-serial) multiplication in $GF(2^m)$. The summation of partial-products and the mod $p(t)$ operation are associative and hence they can be carried out in any order. As a result, we can distinguish between two general methods to compute $a(t) \cdot b(t) \text{ mod } p(t)$. In the first approach, the reduction mod $p(t)$ is carried out after the summation is finished. Consequently, a polynomial of degree $2m-2$ has to be temporarily stored. In the second approach, the addition and reduction steps are interleaved, which means that the partial products $a(t) \cdot b_i \cdot t^i$ are reduced modulo $p(t)$ before they are summed up. The interleaved method is detailed by Equation (3). We can also write this equation in a recursive fashion, resulting in Equation (4). Equation (4) leads to two different types of realizations, depending on the order in which the coefficients b_i of the multiplier polynomial $b(t)$ are processed. On the one hand, there is the least significant bit (LSB) first scheme where a multiplication starts with coefficient b_0 . But it is also possible to start the multiplication at coefficient b_{m-1} and proceed the multiplier polynomial $b(t)$ in opposite direction, which is called the most significant bit (MSB) first scheme. analyzes and compares hardware requirements, latency and critical path length [5] of LSB-first and MSB-first multiplier architectures for $GF(2^m)$. In this paper we concentrate on iterative MSB-first schemes.

When the multiplier polynomial $b(t)$ is processed bit by bit, multiplication and reduction are steps also interleaved at the bit level. The MSB-first multiplication in $GF(2^M)$ is specified by the following recursion equation:

$$\begin{aligned} r(t)^{(0)} &= 0 \\ r(t)^{(k)} &= r(t)^{(k-1)} \cdot t \text{ mod } p(t) + a(t) \cdot b_{m-k} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

for $k = 1 \dots m$. The superscript (k) indicates the iteration step, and a subscript i denotes the index of a coefficient. After m iteration steps, we get $r(t)^{(m)}$ as the final result of $a(t) \cdot b(t) \text{ mod } p(t)$.

Polynomial $s(t)^{(k)}$ denotes the intermediate sum at the k -th iteration step (before reduction) and is computed by adding the current partial-product $a(t) \cdot b_{m-k}$ to $r(t)^{(k-1)} \cdot t$. It turns out that at any iteration step two basic operations have to be performed: Computation [6] of the intermediate sum $s(t)^{(k)}$ and reduction of $s(t)^{(k)}$ modulo the irreducible polynomial $p(t)$. [10-12] The intermediate sum $s(t)^{(k)}$ has a degree of (at most) m before it is reduced, because

$$\begin{aligned} s(t)^{(k)} &= \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} r_i^{(k-1)} \cdot t^i \right) \cdot t + \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i \cdot t^i \right) \cdot b_{m-k} \\ s(t)^{(k)} &= r_{m-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot t^m + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} r_i^{(k-1)} \cdot t^i + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i \cdot t^i \cdot b_{m-k} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

To figure $r(t)^{(k)} = s(t)^{(k)} \text{ mod } p(t)$, the power t^m modulo p should be diminished (t). On a basic level, math modulo $p(t)$ is equivalent to supplanting all examples of $p(t)$ with 0. In other words, $p(t) \equiv 0 \text{ mod } p(t)$ over $GF(2^m)$,

and since the irreducible polynomial is given by $p(t) = t^m + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i$, the following equation holds.

$$\begin{aligned} t^m + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i &\equiv 0 \text{ mod } p(t) \rightarrow t^m \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i \text{ mod } p(t) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Equation can be used to reduce $t \cdot m$ modulo $p(t)$ to a polynomial of degree less than m :

$$t^m \text{ mod } p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i$$

When substituting $t^m \text{ mod } p(t)$ by $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_i \cdot t^i$ in Equation (8), we reduce the intermediate sum $s(t)^{(k)}$ to a polynomial of degree $m-1$, i.e., we obtain $r(t)^{(k)}$.

$$\begin{aligned} r(t)^{(k)} &= \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} r_{m-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot p_i \cdot t^i + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} r_{i-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot t^i \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i \cdot t^i \cdot b_{m-k} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Since the addition of coefficients is performed in $GF(2)$, we can also write the previous equation as

$$s(t)^{(k)} = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} (r_{m-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot p_i \oplus r_{i-1}^{(k-1)} \oplus a_i \cdot b_{m-k}) \cdot t^i \quad (9)$$

with $r_{-1} = 0$. The coefficients r_i of the result-polynomial $r(t)$ after iteration step k ($k > 0$) are

$$r_0^{(k)} = r_{m-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot p_0 \otimes a_0 \cdot b_{m-k}$$

$$r_1^{(k)} = r_{m-1}^{(k-1)} \cdot p_0 \otimes r_{i-1}^{(k-1)} \otimes a_i \cdot b_{m-k} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i < m \quad (10)$$

For the limited field GF, Equation ten indicates the usefulness of a 1-digit cell that can be utilized in a MSB-first piece chronic multiplier, as displayed in Figure 2. (,2-4.). A piece chronic multiplier for GF (,2-m.) comprises of 2m 2-information AND entryways and 2m 2-input XOR doors and consumes m clock cycles for a solitary augmentation..

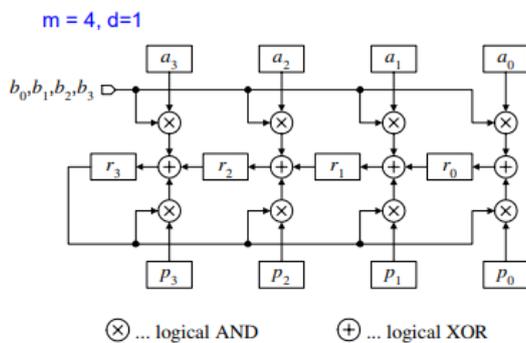


Figure. 2. Bit-serial multiplier for GF(2⁴)

Cyclic Redundancy Check:

The algorithm for detecting errors Ethernet, PCIe, and other [10-12] transmission technologies all use Cyclic Redundancy Check. In high-performance settings, the existing FPGA-based implementation method runs into the problem of excessive resource consumption. In this proposed technique, the current cyclic redundancy check's zero-passing difficulty is decreased, and a shifting check is introduced..[13-14].

3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND ANALYSIS:

We employ the Xilinx FPGA family's Vertex-5 device, using Verilog as the hardware languages and Xilinx ISE as the assistance provided. This work was written in Verilog HDL and reconstituted in a Xilinx Vertex-5 FPGA, and it performed flawlessly in terms of latency and power. When CRC signatures are applied to the original design with enhanced error coverage, as shown

in Table I, the cost in terms of latency and power increases, which is the main disadvantage.

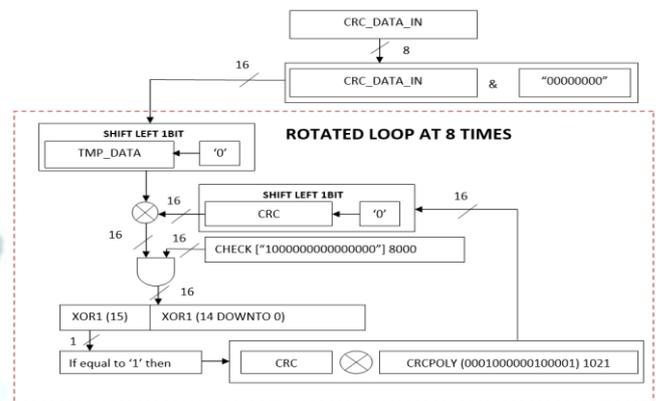


Figure.3. Polynomial Architecture for Cyclic Redundancy Check

Using an XORed based technique with polynomial security codes, it will improve security and critical path delay in all signal transmission applications. As a result, in data lengths of 8 bits, 16 bits, and 32 bits, the proposed [9] cyclic redundancy implementation shows better resource use. Finally, all delay and power performance were demonstrated using Verilog HDL and synthesised on a Xilinx Vertex-5 FPGA. As a result, Figure 3 shows the resources required to build general-purpose combinational and sequential circuits. The Timing Constraints Wizard function in Xilinx ISE is used to read in and determine the delay. The total on-chip power is also reported, which is calculated by summing device static power and design power and indicates the power consumed internally by the FPGA.

4. RESULTS:

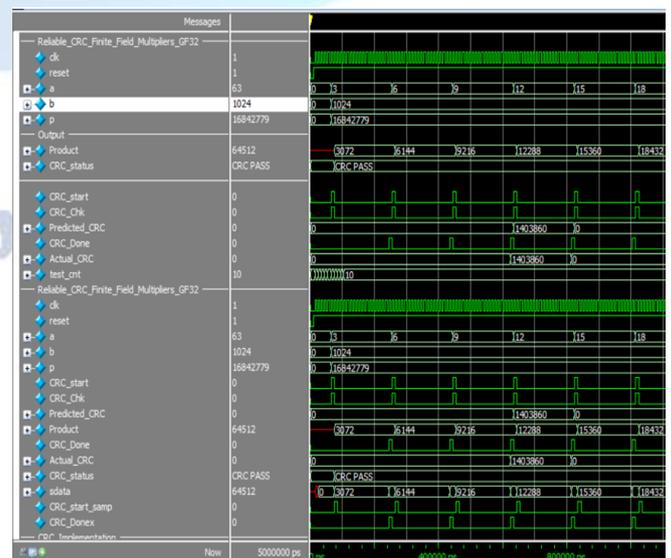


Figure.4. Reliable CRC Finite Field Multiplier GF(2⁴)

A GF (2-m) multiplier is deemed flexible if it can function on a wide range of finite fields, e.g., a multiplier intended for M-bit data path precision should also work on lower-order fields.

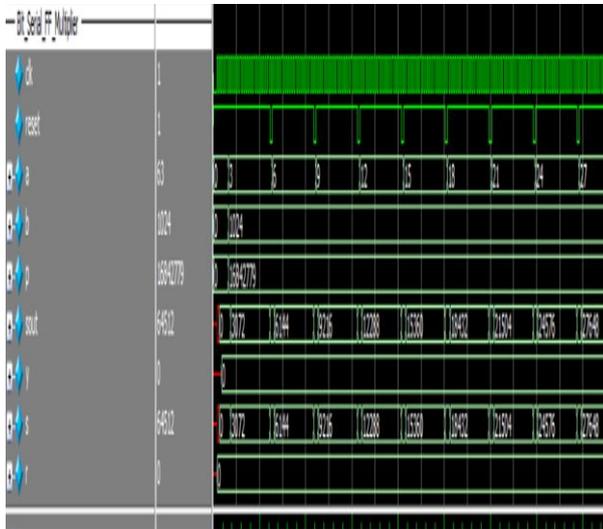


Figure.5. BitSerial Multiplier

The field-order has an impact on the number of points in the elliptic curve group and the difficulty of the discrete logarithm problem that goes with it. According to the essential security criteria, the field's degree m can be set using a versatile multiplier for GF (2-m).

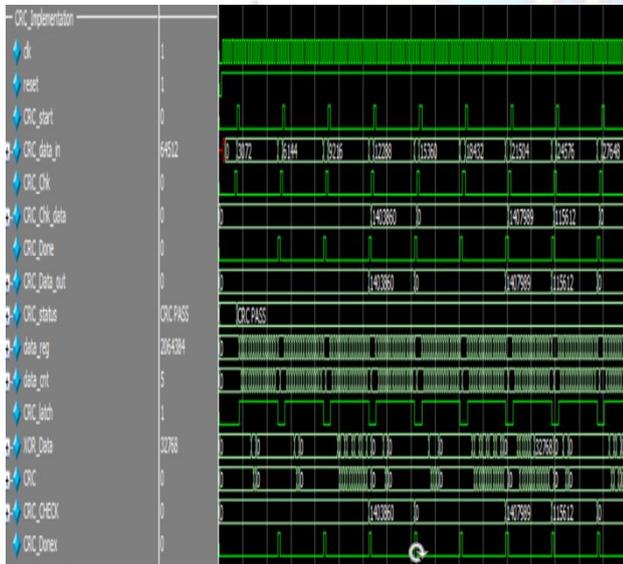


Figure.6. CRC Implementation

A digit serial multiplier has an area complexity of O(dm) and computes a multiplication in GF (2-m) in m d clock cycles. Since the critical path of the mod p(t) operation is linearly dependent on the digit-size d, the

reduction modulo the irreducible polynomial p(t) provides a performance hurdle for large digit-sizes d.

Table: 1. Comparison between different methodologies.

	Comparisons of Reliable CRC-Based Error Detection Constructions for Finite Field Multipliers	
	GF16- CRC	GF32 CRC
Delay (ns)	4.041	3.665
Power (W)	3.296	3.300

The results of the Xilinx ISE, where we used a table to differentiate the values in terms of latency and power.

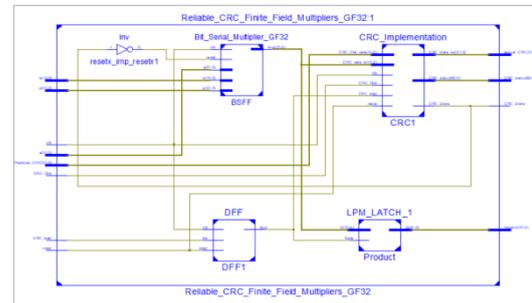


Figure.8. RTL of Reliable CRC Finite Field Multiplier GF32

The Xilinx ISE application was used to construct the Register Transfer Level Diagram, as well as a graph using the same software's values.

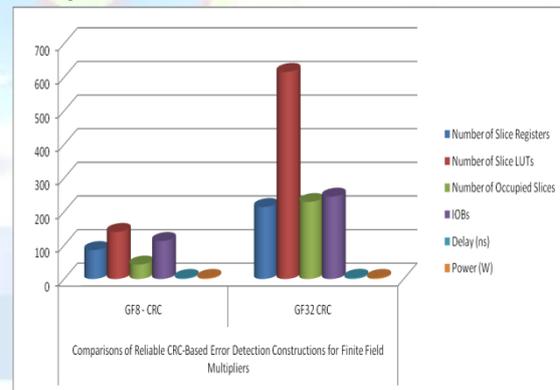


Figure.9. Comparisons of Reliable CRC-Based Error Detection Constructions for Finite Field Multipliers

5. CONCLUSION: -

We provide error-detection approaches for finite-field multipliers used in postquantum cryptographic algorithms like Bit serial Multiplier in this research, highlighting that the estimate schemes can be adjusted for different application areas and encryption methods that need finite-field multiplications. In binary extension fields GF, we developed a modular and

scalable solution for digit-serial multiplication (2-m). In a single clock cycle, the multiplier combines many bits of the operand, starting with the most significant bit. To attain numerous trade-offs among speed, area, and power consumption, the digit-size d can be scaled from 1 to the whole length of the operand. The multiplier is intended to be multipurpose, with no limits on the complex polynomial's structure. By bringing into line the operands through the port border of the records, a multiplier created for M bits can be used for arenas of lower order. The proposed error-detection methods have been included into traditional finite-field multipliers, resulting in improved error coverage and little overhead.

Conflict of interest statement

Authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

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