A Very Compact Rijndael S-box

by

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### A Very Compact Rijndael S-box

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The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES), or Rijndael, algorithm is called the "S-box", the only nonlinear step in each round of encryption/decryption. A wide variety of implementations of AES have been proposed, for various desiderata, that effect the S-box in various ways. In particular, the most compact implementation to date of Satoh et al. performs the 8-bit Galois field inversion of the S-box using subfields of 4 bits and of 2 bits. This work describes a refinement of this approach that minimizes the circuitry, and hence the chip area, required for the S-box. While Satoh used polynomial bases at each level, we consider also normal bases, with arithmetic optimizations; altogether, 432 different cases were considered. The isomorphism bit matrices are fully optimized, improving on the "greedy algorithm." The best case reduces the number of gates in the S-box by 16%. This decrease in chip area could be important for area-limited hardware implementations, e.g., smart cards. And for applications using larger chips, this approach could allow more copies of the S-box, for parallelism and/or pipelining in non-feedback modes of AES.

### Subject Terms

cryptography, encryption, AES, Rijndael, Galois fields, FPGA, ASIC

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A Very Compact Rijndael S-box

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Abstract

One key step in the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES), or Rijndael, algorithm is called the “S-box”, the only nonlinear step in each round of encryption/decryption. A wide variety of implementations of AES have been proposed, for various desiderata, that affect the S-box in various ways. In particular, the most compact implementation to date of Satoh et al. [12] performs the 8-bit Galois field inversion of the S-box using subfields of 4 bits and of 2 bits. This work describes a refinement of this approach that minimizes the circuitry, and hence the chip area, required for the S-box. While Satoh [12] used polynomial bases at each level, we consider also normal bases, with arithmetic optimizations; altogether, 432 different cases were considered. The isomorphism bit matrices are fully optimized, improving on the “greedy algorithm.” The best case reduces the number of gates in the S-box by 16%. This decrease in chip area could be important for area-limited hardware implementations, e.g., smart cards. And for applications using larger chips, this approach could allow more copies of the S-box, for parallelism and/or pipelining in non-feedback modes of AES.

1 Introduction

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) was specified in 2001 by the National Institute of Standards and Technology [9]. The purpose is to provide a standard algorithm for encryption, strong enough to keep U.S. government documents secure for at least the next 20 years. The earlier Data Encryption Standard (DES) had been rendered insecure by advances in computing power, and was effectively replaced by triple-DES. Now AES will largely replace triple-DES for government use, and will likely become widely adopted for a variety of encryption needs, such as secure transactions via the Internet. As Secretary of Commerce Norman Y. Mineta put it in announcing AES, “...this standard will serve as a critical computer security tool supporting the rapid growth of electronic commerce. This is a very significant step toward creating a more secure digital economy. It will allow e-commerce and e-government to flourish safely, creating new opportunities for all Americans.” [7]

A wide variety of approaches to implementing AES have appeared, to satisfy the varying criteria of different applications. Some approaches seek to maximize throughput, e.g., [5], [14]
and [2]; others minimize power consumption, e.g., [6]; and yet others minimize circuitry, e.g., [11], [12], [15], and [1]. For the latter goal, Rijmen [10] suggested using subfield arithmetic in the crucial step of computing an inverse in the Galois Field of 256 elements—essentially expressing an 8-bit calculation in terms of 4-bit ones. This idea was further extended by Satoh et al. [12], breaking up the 4-bit calculations into 2-bit ones, which resulted in the smallest AES circuit to date.

The current work improves on the compact implementation of [12] in the following ways. Many (432) choices of representation (isomorphisms) were compared, and the most compact turns out to use a normal basis for each subfield ([12] uses a polynomial basis for each subfield). And while [12] used the “greedy algorithm” to reduce the number of gates in the bit matrices required in changing representations, here each bit matrix is fully optimized, resulting in the minimum number of gates. These various refinements result in an S-box circuit that is 16% smaller, a significant improvement.

The AES algorithm, also called the Rijndael algorithm, is a symmetric encryption algorithm, meaning encryption and decryption are performed by essentially the same steps. It is a block cipher, where the data is encrypted/decrypted in blocks of 128 bits. (The original Rijndael algorithm allows other block sizes, but the Standard only permits 128-bit blocks.) Each data block is modified by several “rounds” of processing, where each round involves four steps. Three different key sizes are allowed: 128 bits, 192 bits, or 256 bits, and the corresponding number of rounds for each is 10 rounds, 12 rounds, or 14 rounds, respectively. From the original key, a different “round key” is computed for each of these rounds. For simplicity, the discussion below will use a key length of 128 bits and hence 10 rounds.

There are several different modes in which AES can be used [8]. For some of these, such as Cipher Block Chaining (CBC), the result of encrypting one block is used in encrypting the next. These are called feedback modes, and the feedback effectively precludes pipelining (simultaneous processing of several blocks in the “pipeline”). Other modes, such as the “Electronic Code Book” mode or “Counter” modes, do not require feedback. These non-feedback modes may be pipelined for greater throughput.

The four steps in each round of encryption, in order, are called SubBytes (byte substitution), ShiftRows, MixColumns, and AddRoundKey. Before the first round, the input block is processed by AddRoundKey; one could consider this round number zero. Also, the last round, number ten, skips the MixColumns step. Otherwise, all rounds are the same, except each uses a different round key, and the output of one round becomes the input for the next. (For decryption, the mathematical inverse of each step is used, in reverse order; certain manipulations allow this to appear like the same steps as encryption with certain constants changed.)

Of these four steps, three of them (ShiftRows, MixColumns, and AddRoundKey) are linear, in the sense that the output 128-bit block for such steps is just the linear combination (bitwise, modulo 2) of the outputs for each separate input bit. These three steps are all easy to implement by direct calculation in software or hardware.

The single nonlinear step is the SubBytes (byte substitution) step, where each byte (8 bits) of the input is replaced by the result of applying the “S-box” function to that byte. This nonlinear function involves finding the inverse of the 8-bit number, considered as an element of the Galois field $GF(2^8)$. This is not a simple calculation, and so many current implementations use a table of the S-box function output; the input byte is an index into
the table to find the output. This table look-up method is fast and easy to implement.

But for hardware implementations of AES, there is one drawback of the table look-up approach to the S-box function: each copy of the table requires 256 bytes of storage, along with the circuitry to address the table and fetch the results. Each of the 16 bytes in a block can go through the S-box function independently, and so could be processed in parallel for the byte substitution step. This then effectively requires 16 copies of the S-box table for one round. To fully pipeline the encryption would entail “unrolling” the loop of 10 rounds into 10 sequential copies of the round calculation. This would require 160 copies of the S-box table, a significant allocation of hardware resources.

In contrast, this work describes a direct calculation of the S-box function using sub-field arithmetic, similar to [12]. While the calculation is complicated to describe, the advantage is that the circuitry required to implement this in hardware is relatively simple, in terms of the number of logic gates required. This type of S-box implementation is significantly smaller (less area) than the table it replaces, especially with the optimizations in this work. Furthermore, when chip area is limited, this compact implementation may allow parallelism in each round and/or unrolling of the round loop, for a significant gain in speed.

The rest of the paper describes the algorithm in detail. Section 2 describes some basics of Galois field arithmetic and representations, essential to the algorithm. The basic idea of the algorithm is explained in Section 3. Section 4 discusses ways to optimize the calculation, Section 5 describes the choices of representation, and Section 6 gives the detailed formulas of the algorithm. Finally, Section 7 summarizes the work.

2 Galois Fields $GF(2^n)$

Finite fields, or Galois fields, are important in many applications, such as error-correcting codes[4], and have been studied extensively (one good reference is [3]). Here we give only a brief, informal introduction to the properties necessary for the AES algorithm.

A field is a set $F$ of elements with two binary operations, say $\oplus$ and $\otimes$. We will call these addition and multiplication, and will sometimes use the standard notation $a + b$ and $ab$ instead of $a \oplus b$ and $a \otimes b$, for simplicity. These operations must satisfy certain properties (here $a, b, c$ represent arbitrary elements of $F$):

1. the set is closed with respect to both operations:
   
   (a) $a \oplus b \in F$
   
   (b) $a \otimes b \in F$

2. both operations are associative:
   
   (a) $(a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c)$
   
   (b) $(a \otimes b) \otimes c = a \otimes (b \otimes c)$

3. both operations are commutative:
   
   (a) $a \oplus b = b \oplus a$
(b) \( a \otimes b = b \otimes a \)

4. the operations obey the distributive law: \((a \oplus b) \otimes c = (a \otimes c) \oplus (b \otimes c)\)

5. each operation has an identity (call the identities 0 and 1):
   (a) \( a \oplus 0 = a \)
   (b) \( a \otimes 1 = a \)

6. each element \( a \) has an additive inverse (say \( q \)): \( a \oplus q = 0 \) (this defines subtraction; the standard notation for the additive inverse of \( a \) is \( -a \))

7. each nonzero element \( a \neq 0 \) has a multiplicative inverse (say \( r \)): \( a \otimes r = 1 \) (this defines division; the standard notation for the multiplicative inverse of \( a \) is \( a^{-1} \))

Familiar examples are the field of rational numbers, the field of real numbers, and the field of complex numbers. If a subset of a field is itself a field, using the same operations, then it is called a subfield. For example, the rational numbers is a subfield of the real numbers.

If a field has only a finite number of elements, it is a finite field. But given some finite set, it is not always possible to define two operations with the above properties; it is only possible if the number of elements in the set is of the form \( p^n \) where \( p \) is a prime number and \( n \) is a positive integer. Then \( p^n \) is called the order of the field and \( p \) is called the characteristic of the field. So there is no field of 6 elements, for example, but there is a field of 7 elements and a field of 8 (= \( 2^3 \)) elements. Given a set of \( p^n \) elements there may be more than one way to define the operations to produce a field, but these different ways give fields that are isomorphic: by changing the names we can change one field into the other—the structure remains the same. So in this sense there is only one finite field for a given number of elements \( p^n \); we call this the Galois Field \( GF(p^n) \). (We will also use the notation of [3] for this field: \( \mathbb{F}_k \), where \( k = p^n \).) If a positive integer \( m \) is a factor of \( n \), then \( GF(p^m) \) is a subfield of \( GF(p^n) \).

The simplest example is \( GF(2) = \{0, 1\} \) with the usual addition and multiplication except \( 1 + 1 = 0 \); this is also called arithmetic modulo 2. Note that in this field, each element is its own additive inverse, so subtraction is the same as addition. This is true for all fields \( GF(2^k) \) of characteristic 2.

Another example that will be important later is \( GF(2^2) \), whose elements will be labeled \( \{0, 1, \Omega, \Psi\} \). The operations are defined by the tables below:

\[
\begin{array}{c|cccc}
\oplus & 0 & 1 & \Omega & \Psi \\
\hline
0 & 0 & 1 & \Omega & \Psi \\
1 & 1 & 0 & \Omega & \Psi \\
\Omega & \Omega & \Psi & 0 & 1 \\
\Psi & \Psi & \Omega & 1 & 0 \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c|cccc}
\otimes & 0 & 1 & \Omega & \Psi \\
\hline
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & \Omega & \Psi \\
\Omega & 0 & \Omega & \Psi & 1 \\
\Psi & 0 & \Psi & 1 & \Omega \\
\end{array}
\]

Note that if we swap the names \( \Omega \) and \( \Psi \) everywhere, we get exactly the same operations, i.e., the same field. Also note that \( GF(2^2) \) contains the subfield \( GF(2) = \{0, 1\} \).

There are several different ways to look at a Galois field. An element \( a \) of \( GF(p^n) \) is called primitive if all its powers are different: \( a^0 \neq a^1 \neq a^2 \neq \cdots \neq a^{p^n-2} \). (For any nonzero
element \(b\) then \(b^{p^n-1} = 1\); for any element \(b\) then \(b^{p^n} = b\).) Hence the powers of a primitive element give all the nonzero elements of \(GF(p^n)\). Every finite field has at least one primitive element, so one way to look at the field is in terms of powers of that element. For example, in \(GF(2^2)\), \(\Omega\) is a primitive element: \(1 = \Omega^0, \Omega = \Omega^1, \Psi = \Omega^2\). This viewpoint makes multiplication easy: add the exponents modulo \(p^n - 1\). But then addition is less obvious.

Another viewpoint involves polynomials, in some variable \(x\), with coefficients in \(GF(p)\); these are called polynomials over \(GF(p)\). Each element of \(GF(p^n)\) can be considered a polynomial over \(GF(p)\), of degree less than \(n\). Then addition just means adding the coefficients modulo \(p\). Multiplication must be done modulo some specified polynomial \(q(x)\), of degree \(n\), with leading coefficient equal to 1; also \(q(x)\) must be irreducible, which means it is not the product of two polynomials of lower order.

For example, in \(GF(2^2)\) the only choice for \(q(x)\) is \(x^2 + x + 1\) (because the others factor: \(x^2 = x*x, x^2 + x = x*(x + 1), x^2 + 1 = (x + 1)*(x + 1);\) remember the coefficient arithmetic is modulo 2). Then we could think of \(GF(2^2)\) as \(\{0, 1, x, x + 1\}\) where \(x \odot x = (x^2 \mod q) = x^2 \oplus (x^2 + x + 1) = x + 1\), and similarly \(x \odot (x + 1) = (x^2 + x) \oplus (x^2 + x + 1) = 1\) and \((x + 1) \odot (x + 1) = (x^2 + 1) \oplus (x^2 + x + 1) = x\).

This polynomial viewpoint makes more sense if we think of the variable \(x\) as being a root of the polynomial, so \(q(x) = 0\). Then adding or subtracting multiples of \(q(x)\) is just adding zero. In the first representation of \(GF(2^2)\), note that \(\Omega^2 \oplus (\Omega + 1) = \Psi \oplus \Psi = 0\), so we could identify \(x = \Omega\). Alternatively, we could identify \(x = \Psi\) (switching the names as before), the other root.

Another viewpoint is that the field \(GF(p^n)\) is a vector space of dimension \(n\), with vector addition \(\oplus\) and multiplication by scalars in \(GF(p)\) (i.e., modulo \(p\)). (The vector viewpoint is convenient for choosing a representation, but does not fully reflect the multiplication operation \(\otimes\).) Then any \(n\) linearly independent elements \(\{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n\}\) of \(GF(p^n)\) gives a basis, and we can indicate any element \(a\) by its list of coefficients with respect to this basis: if \(a = c_1 \otimes b_1 \oplus c_2 \otimes b_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus c_n \otimes b_n\) (with each \(c_i \in GF(p)\) then \(a\) is represented by the list of numbers \([c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n]\). For small \(p\) this list commonly is written as digits in positional notation: \(c_1 c_2 \ldots c_n\).

For example, the polynomial viewpoint for \(GF(2^2)\), with \(x = \Omega\), corresponds to using the ordered basis \([\Omega^1, \Omega^0]\); this is called a polynomial basis. Using this basis: \(0 = 0\Omega^1 + 0\Omega^0 \equiv 00, 1 = 0\Omega^1 + 1\Omega^0 \equiv 01, \Omega = 1\Omega^1 + 0\Omega^0 \equiv 10, \Psi = 1\Omega^1 + 1\Omega^0 \equiv 11\). This defines a field of 2-bit binary numbers (where \(\oplus\) is bitwise exclusive-or), where for example \(11 \otimes 11 = 10\).

But different choices of basis are also possible. Another type of basis with convenient properties is called a normal basis, of the form \(\{b^0, b^p, \ldots, b^{p^n-1}\}\), where the element \(b\) of \(GF(p^n)\) must be chosen to make that set of powers linearly independent. (One nice property is that an isomorphism [name change] on the field has the same effect as rotating this list of basis elements.)

Using the ordered normal basis \([\Omega^{21}, \Omega^{20}] = [\Psi, \Omega]\) for \(GF(2^2)\) gives the correspondence \(0 = 0\Psi + 0\Omega \equiv 00, 1 = 1\Psi + 1\Omega \equiv 11, \Omega = 0\Psi + 1\Omega \equiv 01, \Psi = 1\Psi + 0\Omega \equiv 10\). This gives a different 2-bit representation of \(GF(2^2)\); addition \(\oplus\) is still bitwise exclusive-or, but now for example \(11 \otimes 11 = 11\). So in one sense this is a different field, but it has exactly the same structure as the previous version, only the names have been changed to confuse the innocent.

The polynomial representation idea can be generalized. For any finite field \(F\) (of char-
characteristic $p$) containing a subfield $S$, where $S$ is of order $r = p^j$ and $F$ is of order $r^k = p^{jk}$, then the elements of $F$ can be represented as polynomials of degree less than $k$, with coefficients in $S$ (i.e., polynomials over $S$). We note this view of the field as $F/S$ (read as $F$ “over” $S$). Again, addition just means adding the coefficients in $S$, and multiplication is done modulo some polynomial $q(x)$, of degree $k$. The coefficients of $q(x)$ also belong to $S$, with the leading coefficient equal to 1, and $q(x)$ must be irreducible over $S$ (no element of $S$ is a root). For example, the elements of $GF(5^6)$ can be represented as polynomials of the form $c_2x^2 + c_1x + c_0$, with all the $c_i \in GF(5^2)$, modulo the polynomial $q(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x + 3$, which is irreducible over $GF(5^2)$.

Since the names of the elements of $GF(p^n)$ change with choice of representation, we might wonder if the elements have certain properties that are independent of representation, a sort of identification. One such property is the minimal polynomial (over $GF(p)$) of a given element $a$. This is the irreducible polynomial of smallest degree, with coefficients in $GF(p)$ and leading coefficient $= 1$, having $a$ as a root. The degree $m$ of the minimal polynomial is always $\leq n$, and that minimal polynomial has $m$ distinct roots in $GF(p^n)$. Elements with the same minimal polynomial are called conjugates; if one of them is $a$ then the $m$ conjugates are \{a, a^p, a^{p^2}, \ldots, a^{p^{m-1}}\}. Each isomorphism of $GF(p^n)$ corresponds to replacing each element $b$ by $b^p$ (for some integer $k$), and so in effect rotates each set of conjugates. For any primitive element, the minimal polynomial is called a primitive polynomial and has degree $n$. (Note that a normal basis is a set of $n$ distinct conjugates.) In $GF(2^2)$ for example, the minimal polynomial for $0$ is $x$, that for $1$ is $x + 1$, and the one for $\Omega$ and $\Psi$ is $x^2 + x + 1$ (they are conjugate primitive elements).

Again, these ideas can be extended to elements of $F = GF(p^n)$ as polynomials over any subfield $S$ of order $r = p^j$, where $n = jk$ for some $k$, so $F$ is of order $r^k$. Then each element $a$ of $F$ has a minimal polynomial over $S$, of degree $m \leq k$, with $m$ distinct roots in $F$, and the $m$ conjugates of $a$ over $S$ are \{a, a^r, a^{r^2}, \ldots, a^{r^{m-1}}\}. Also $F/S$ is a vector space of dimension $k$ over $S$, and a normal basis is a set of $k$ distinct conjugates.

The trace of $a$ over $S$ is then defined as

$$\text{Tr}_{F/S}(a) \equiv a + a^r + a^{r^2} + \ldots + a^{r^{k-1}}$$

and the norm is defined as

$$N_{F/S}(a) \equiv a \cdot a^r \cdot a^{r^2} \cdot \ldots \cdot a^{r^{k-1}}$$

(If the minimal polynomial of $a$ is of degree $k$, then the trace is the sum of the conjugates and the norm is the product of the conjugates.) It turns out that both the trace and the norm are always elements of the subfield $S$. For example, in $GF(2^2)/GF(2)$, both the trace and the norm of $\Omega$ are 1.

This brief introduction to Galois fields only covers the points relevant to the algorithm below. A nice, succinct introduction is given in [4]; for more depth and rigor, see [3].

### 3 S-box Algorithm

The S-box function of an input byte $a$ is defined by two substeps:
1. **Inverse:** Let \( c = a^{-1} \), the multiplicative inverse in \( GF(2^8) \) (except if \( a = 0 \) then \( c = 0 \)).

2. **Affine Transformation:** Then the output is \( s = Mc \oplus b \), where \( M \) is a specified \( 8 \times 8 \) matrix of bits, \( b \) is a specified byte, and the bytes \( c, b, s \) are treated as vectors of bits. More explicitly:

   \[
   \begin{pmatrix}
   s_7 \\
   s_6 \\
   s_5 \\
   s_4 \\
   s_3 \\
   s_2 \\
   s_1 \\
   s_0
   \end{pmatrix}
   =
   \begin{pmatrix}
   1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
   0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
   0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
   0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
   1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
   1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
   1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
   1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0
   \end{pmatrix}
   \begin{pmatrix}
   c_7 \\
   c_6 \\
   c_5 \\
   c_4 \\
   c_3 \\
   c_2 \\
   c_1 \\
   c_0
   \end{pmatrix}
   \oplus
   \begin{pmatrix}
   0 \\
   1 \\
   1 \\
   0 \\
   0 \\
   0 \\
   1 \\
   1
   \end{pmatrix}
   \]

   where bit \#7 is the most significant and all bit operations are modulo 2.

The second substep is affine (linear plus a constant) and easy to implement; the algorithm for the first substep, finding the inverse, is described below.

The AES algorithm uses the particular Galois field of 8-bit bytes where the bits are coefficients of a polynomial (i.e., a polynomial basis), and multiplication is modulo the irreducible polynomial \( q(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \). (A 9-bit binary representation is \( q(x) = 100011011 \); this is the “smallest” irreducible polynomial of degree 8 over \( GF(2) \), in the sense of comparing the binary number representations.) Let \( A \) be one root of \( q(x) \); we will think of the polynomial basis as \([A^7, A^6, A^5, A^4, A^3, A^2, A, 1]\). It turns out that \( A = 00000010 \) is not a primitive element, but \( A + 1 = 00000011 \) is; we call it \( B \). (\( B \) is a root of the second smallest irreducible polynomial: \( 100011101 \); see Table D.3 for more details.) Some implementations of AES use logarithm and antilogarithm tables, base \( B \) (as shown in Appendix D), for finding inverses and products in \( GF(2^8) \). In particular, \( A = B^{25} \). (Note: we will use Roman letters for specific elements of \( GF(2^8) \), lowercase Greek letters for elements of \( GF(2^4) \), and uppercase Greek letters for \( GF(2^2) \); the naming scheme is summarized in Table D.3.)

Direct calculation of the inverse (modulo an eighth-degree polynomial) of a seventh-degree polynomial is not easy. But calculation of the inverse (modulo a second-degree polynomial) of a first-degree polynomial is relatively easy, as pointed out by Rijmen [10]. This suggests the following changes of representation.

First, we use the isomorphism between \( GF(2^8) \) and \( GF(2^8)/GF(2^4) \) to represent a general element \( g \) of \( GF(2^8) \) as a polynomial (in \( y \)) over \( GF(2^4) \), of degree 1 or less, as \( g = \gamma_1 y + \gamma_0 \), with multiplication modulo an irreducible polynomial \( r(y) = y^2 + \tau y + \nu \). Here, all the coefficients are in \( GF(2^4) \). Then the pair \([\gamma_1, \gamma_0]\) represents \( g \) in terms of a polynomial basis \([Y, 1]\) where \( Y \) is one root of \( r(y) \). Of course, we are free to use any basis for this representation, for example the normal basis \([Y^{16}, Y]\). Note that

\[
r(y) = y^2 + \tau y + \nu = (y + Y)(y + Y^{16})
\]

so \( \tau = \text{Tr}_{F_{256}/F_{16}}(Y) \) is the trace and \( \nu = \text{N}_{F_{256}/F_{16}}(Y) \) is the norm of \( Y \).

Second, using \( GF(2^4)/GF(2^2) \) we can similarly represent \( GF(2^4) \) as linear polynomials (in \( z \)) over \( GF(2^2) \), as \( \gamma = \Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0 \), with multiplication modulo an irreducible polynomial
Addition in $GF(2^2)$ uses a polynomial basis $[Z, 1]$ for $GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$, where $Z$ is one root of $s(z)$. We could use any basis, such as the normal basis $[Z^4, Z]$. And for the same reasons above, $T = \text{Tr}_{\mathbb{F}_{16}/\mathbb{F}_4}(Y)$ is the trace and $N = N_{\mathbb{F}_{16}/\mathbb{F}_4}(Y)$ is the norm of $Z$ (considering $T$ and $N$ as uppercase Greek for $\tau$ and $\nu$).

Third we use $GF(2^2)/GF(2)$ to represent $GF(2^2)$ as linear polynomials (in $w$) over $GF(2)$, as $\Gamma = g_1w + g_0$, with multiplication modulo $t(w) = w^2 + w + 1$, where $g_1, g_0 \in \{0, 1\}$. This uses a polynomial basis $[W, 1]$, where $W$ is either $\Omega$ or $\Psi$; a normal basis would be $[W^2, W]$.

(Note that the trace and norm of $\Omega$ and $\Psi$ are 1.)

This allows operations in $GF(2^8)$ to be expressed in terms of simpler operations in $GF(2^4)$, which in turn are expressed in the simple operations of $GF(2^2)$. In particular, we want to find the inverse in $GF(2^8)$. Say the inverse of $g = \gamma_1 y + \gamma_0$ is $d = \delta_1 y + \delta_0$. Then (recalling subtraction is the same as addition in $GF(2^n)$)

$$gd = (\gamma_1 y + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 y + \delta_0) \mod (y^2 + \tau y + \nu)$$

$$= [(\gamma_1 \delta_1)y^2 + (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1)y + (\gamma_0 \delta_0)] \mod (y^2 + \tau y + \nu)$$

$$= [(\gamma_1 \delta_1)y^2 + (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1)y + (\gamma_0 \delta_0)] + (\gamma_1 \delta_1)(y^2 + \tau y + \nu)$$

$$= (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1 + \gamma_1 \delta_1)y + (\gamma_0 \delta_0 + \gamma_1 \delta_1 \nu)$$

$$= 1 = 0y + 1$$

Solving the two equations

$$0 = \gamma_1 \delta_0 + (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \tau)\delta_1$$

$$1 = \gamma_0 \delta_0 + (\gamma_1 \nu)\delta_1$$

by

$$0 = \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \delta_0 + (\gamma_0^2 + \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \tau)\delta_1$$

$$\gamma_1 = \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \delta_0 + (\gamma_0^2 \nu)\delta_1$$

gives

$$\gamma_1 = (\gamma_1^2 \nu + \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \tau + \gamma_0^2)\delta_1$$

$$\gamma_1 \delta_0 = (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \tau)\delta_1$$

so that

$$\delta_1 = (\gamma_1^2 \nu + \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \tau + \gamma_0^2)^{-1} \gamma_1$$

$$\delta_0 = (\gamma_1^2 \nu + \gamma_1 \gamma_0 \tau + \gamma_0^2)^{-1} (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 \tau)$$

So finding an inverse in $GF(2^8)$ involves an inverse and several multiplications in $GF(2^4)$. (Addition in $GF(2^4)$ as 4-bit elements, using any basis, is just bitwise exclusive-or.)

Similarly, to find the inverse in $GF(2^4)$ of $\gamma = \Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0$ as $\delta = \Delta_1 z + \Delta_0$, then

$$\gamma \delta = (\Gamma_1 \Delta_0 + \Gamma_0 \Delta_1 + \Gamma_1 \Delta_1 T)z + (\Gamma_0 \Delta_0 + \Gamma_1 \Delta_1 N)$$
Solving the two equations so since both coefficients (trace and norm) in the polynomial $t(w)$ are 1. This can be further simplified because for $g \in GF(2^k), g^2 = g^{-1} = g$, so

\[ d_1 = (g_1 + g_1g_0 + g_0) g_1 = (g_1 + g_1g_0 + g_1g_0) = g_1 \]

\[ d_0 = (g_1 + g_1g_0 + g_0) (g_0 + g_1) = (g_1g_0 + g_1 + g_1g_0 + g_1g_0 + g_0 + g_1g_0) = g_1 + g_0 \]

Note that if the above inversion formulas are applied to a zero input then the output will also be zero, so that special case is handled automatically.

How do these calculations change if we use normal bases at each level? In $GF(2^k)$, to find the inverse of $g = \gamma_1 Y^{16} + \gamma_0 Y$ as $d = \delta_1 Y^{16} + \delta_0 Y$, we use the fact that both $Y$ and $Y^{16}$ satisfy $y^2 + \tau y + \nu = 0$ where $\tau = Y^{16} + Y$ and $\nu = (Y^{16})Y$. Then $1 = \tau^{-1}(Y^{16} + Y)$, so:

\[ gd = (\gamma_1 Y^{16} + \gamma_0 Y)(\delta_1 Y^{16} + \delta_0 Y) \]
\[ = (\gamma_1 \delta_1)(Y^{16})^2 + (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1)(Y^{16})Y + (\gamma_0 \delta_0)Y^2 \]
\[ = (\gamma_1 \delta_1)(\tau Y^{16} + \nu) + (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1)\nu + (\gamma_0 \delta_0)(\tau Y + \nu) \]
\[ = (\gamma_1 \delta_1 \tau)Y^{16} + (\gamma_0 \delta_0 \nu)Y + [(\gamma_1 \delta_1)\nu + (\gamma_1 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1)\nu + (\gamma_0 \delta_0)\nu] \]
\[ = (\gamma_1 \delta_1 \tau)Y^{16} + (\gamma_0 \delta_0 \nu)Y + [(\gamma_1 + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 + \delta_0)\nu]\tau^{-1}(Y^{16} + Y) \]
\[ = [\gamma_1 \delta_1 \tau + (\gamma_1 + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 + \delta_0)\nu\tau^{-1}]Y^{16} + [\gamma_0 \delta_0 \tau + (\gamma_1 + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 + \delta_0)\nu\tau^{-1}]Y \]

Solving the two equations

\[ \tau^{-1} = \gamma_1 \delta_1 \tau + (\gamma_1 + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 + \delta_0)\nu\tau^{-1} \]
\[ \tau^{-1} = \gamma_0 \delta_0 \tau + (\gamma_1 + \gamma_0)(\delta_1 + \delta_0)\nu\tau^{-1} \]
gives

\[
\begin{align*}
0 &= \gamma \delta_1 + \gamma_0 \delta_0 \\
1 &= \gamma \delta_1 \tau^2 + (\gamma_0 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1) \nu \\
\gamma_0 &= \gamma \gamma_0 \delta_1 \tau^2 + (\gamma_1 \gamma_0 \delta_0 + \gamma_0 \delta_1) \nu \\
    &= \gamma \gamma_0 \delta_1 \tau^2 + (\gamma_1^2 \delta_1 + \gamma_0^2 \delta_1) \nu \\
    &= [\gamma \gamma_0 \tau^2 + (\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_0^2) \nu] \delta_1
\end{align*}
\]

so that

\[
\begin{align*}
\delta_1 &= [\gamma \gamma_0 \tau^2 + (\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_0^2) \nu]^{-1} \gamma_0 \\
\delta_0 &= [\gamma \gamma_0 \tau^2 + (\gamma_1^2 + \gamma_0^2) \nu]^{-1} \gamma_1
\end{align*}
\]

Again, finding an inverse in \(GF(2^8)\) involves an inverse and several multiplications in \(GF(2^4)\).

Analogously, to find the inverse in \(GF(2^4)\) of \(\gamma = \Gamma_1 Z^4 + \Gamma_0 Z\) as \(\delta = \Delta_1 Z^4 + \Delta_0 Z\), then

\[
\begin{align*}
\gamma \delta &= [\Gamma_1 \Delta_1 T + (\Gamma_1 + \Gamma_0)(\Delta_1 + \Delta_0) N T^{-1}] Z^4 + [\Gamma_0 \Delta_0 T + (\Gamma_1 + \Gamma_0)(\Delta_1 + \Delta_0) N T^{-1}] Z
\end{align*}
\]

so

\[
\begin{align*}
\Delta_1 &= [\Gamma_1 \Gamma_0 T^2 + (\Gamma_1^2 + \Gamma_0^2) N]^{-1} \Gamma_0 \\
\Delta_0 &= [\Gamma_1 \Gamma_0 T^2 + (\Gamma_1^2 + \Gamma_0^2) N]^{-1} \Gamma_1
\end{align*}
\]

And to find the inverse in \(GF(2^2)\) of \(\Gamma = g_1 W^2 + g_0 W\) as \(\Delta = d_1 W^2 + d_0 W\), then

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma \Delta &= [g_1 d_1 + (g_1 + g_0)(d_1 + d_0)] W^2 + [g_0 d_0 + (g_1 + g_0)(d_1 + d_0)] W
\end{align*}
\]

so

\[
\begin{align*}
d_1 &= [g_1 g_0 + g_1 + g_0] g_0 \\
    &= g_0 \\
d_0 &= [g_1 g_0 + g_1 + g_0] g_1 \\
    &= g_1
\end{align*}
\]

using the same simplifications as before in \(GF(2)\).

This shows how we break one problem (the 8-bit inverse in \(GF(2^8)\)) down into simpler problems (4-bit operations in \(GF(2^4)\)), which can further be broken down to still simpler problems (2-bit operations in \(GF(2^2)\) and bit operations in \(GF(2)\)).

### 4 Optimizations

There are several ways to reorganize the calculations above in order to reduce the total operation count and hence minimize the circuitry required. Additionally, there is some freedom in the choice of the coefficients in the minimal polynomials \(r(y)\) and \(s(z)\) to give convenient multipliers.
The inverse formulas in $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$ would simplify considerably if we could choose $\tau = 0$ or $\nu = 0$, but neither choice gives an irreducible polynomial. We can find irreducible polynomials with $\tau = 1$, which is also convenient. This is better than choosing $\nu = 1$, since $\tau$ appears in two products in the inverse (in the polynomial basis, but even for the normal basis $\tau = 1$ turns out to be preferable). We can’t choose both $\nu = \tau = 1$ since then we get the minimal polynomial of $\Omega$ and $\Psi$ in $GF(2^2)$, a subfield of $GF(2^4)$. So from here on we let $\tau = 1$ and similarly let $T = 1$.

### 4.1 Polynomial Basis Optimizations

First we consider optimizations using polynomial bases. In $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$ the only operation required is the inverse. Satoh et al.[12] indicate the following steps in inverting $g = \gamma_1 y + \gamma_0$, where we return to the $\oplus, \otimes$ notation, and give names to intermediate results, to clarify the subfield operations needed:

$$\begin{align*}
\phi &= \gamma_1 \oplus \gamma_0 \\
\theta &= [(\nu \otimes \gamma_2^2) \oplus (\phi \otimes \gamma_0)]^{-1} \\
g^{-1} &= [\theta \otimes \gamma_1] y + [\theta \otimes \phi]
\end{align*}$$

(Note: in the notation of [12], our $\nu$ becomes $\lambda$ and our $N$ becomes $\phi$.) The operations required in the subfield $GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$ include an inverter, multipliers, and adders (bitwise XOR).

The subfield inversions can be performed similarly, as suggested by [12]. So to invert $\gamma = \Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0$ in $GF(2^4)$:

$$\begin{align*}
\Phi &= \Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0 \\
\Theta &= [(N \otimes \Gamma_2^2) \oplus (\Phi \otimes \Gamma_0)]^{-1} \\
\gamma^{-1} &= [\Theta \otimes \Gamma_1] z + [\Theta \otimes \Phi]
\end{align*}$$

And in $GF(2^2)$ the inverse of $\Gamma = g_1 w + g_0$ is simply:

$$\Gamma^{-1} = [g_1] w + [g_1 \oplus g_0]$$

The multiplier in $GF(2^4)$ given by [12] finds the product $\gamma \delta = (\Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0)(\Delta_1 z + \Delta_0)$ by the steps

$$\begin{align*}
\Phi &= \Gamma_0 \otimes \Delta_0 \\
\gamma \delta &= [\Phi \oplus (\Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0) \otimes (\Delta_1 \oplus \Delta_0)] z + [\Phi \oplus (N \otimes \Gamma_1 \otimes \Delta_1)]
\end{align*}$$

Similarly in $GF(2^2)$, the product $\Gamma \Delta = (g_1 w + g_0)(d_1 w + d_0)$ can be found by

$$\begin{align*}
f &= g_0 \otimes d_0 \\
\Gamma \Delta &= [f \oplus (g_1 \oplus g_0) \otimes (d_1 \oplus d_0)] w + [f \oplus (g_1 \otimes d_1)]
\end{align*}$$

(where in $GF(2)$, $\otimes$ means AND).
For further efficiency, multiplication by a known constant (e.g. $\nu$ above), which we will call “scaling,” should use a specialized circuit instead of a generic multiplier, and the same is true for squaring.

Scaling $\gamma = \Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0$ in $GF(2^4)$ by $\nu = \Delta_1 z + \Delta_0$ becomes simpler for special choices of $\nu$, for example, if $\Delta_0 = 0$. (It is not possible to choose $\Delta_1 = 0$, because then $r(y)$ is reducible.) Then

$$\nu \gamma = [\Delta_1 \otimes (\Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0)] z + [(N \Delta_1) \otimes \Gamma_1]$$

And choosing $N = \Delta_1^{-1}$ makes scaling by $\nu$ even simpler:

$$\nu \gamma = [(N^{-1}) \otimes (\Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0)] z + [\Gamma_1]$$

In $GF(2^2)$, since $N \neq 0, 1$ (so that $s(z) = z^2 + z + N$ is irreducible over $GF(2^2)$), then both $N$ and $N + 1$ are roots of $t(w) = w^2 + w + 1$, and $N^{-1} = N^2 = N + 1$. Depending on which root we choose for the polynomial basis $[w, 1]$, then either $N = w$ or $N^2 = w$. In either case, since we need scalers for both $N$ and $N^2$, this corresponds to scalers for both $w$ and $w^2$, and scaling becomes

$$(w) \otimes (g_1 w + g_0) = [g_1 \oplus g_0] w + [g_1]$$

$$\quad (w^2) \otimes (g_1 w + g_0) = [g_0] w + [g_0 + g_1]$$

Squaring $\gamma = \Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0$ in $GF(2^4)$ corresponds to

$$\Phi = \Gamma_1^2$$
$$\gamma^2 = [\Phi] z + [\Gamma_0^2 \oplus N \otimes \Phi]$$

Of course, squaring $\Gamma = g_1 w + g_0$ in the subfield $GF(2^2)$ can be done similarly, using further simplifications in $GF(2)$:

$$\Gamma^2 = [g_1] w + [g_0 + g_1]$$

Note that, in $GF(2^2)$, every nonzero element $\Gamma$ satisfies $\Gamma^3 = 1$, so $\Gamma^{-1} = \Gamma^2$, i.e., the $GF(2^2)$ inverter is the same as the squarer.

Another improvement comes from combining the square in $GF(2^4)$ with the scaling by $\nu$, since it is only this combination that is required in the $GF(2^8)$ inverter. Then for the choice of $\nu$ above

$$\nu \otimes \gamma^2 = \nu \otimes (\Gamma_1 z + \Gamma_0)^2$$
$$\quad = \nu \otimes ([\Gamma_1^2] z + [\Gamma_0^2 \oplus N \otimes \Gamma_1^2])$$
$$\quad = [N^2 \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \oplus (\Gamma_0^2 \oplus N \otimes \Gamma_1^2))] z + [\Gamma_1^2]$$
$$\quad = [(N^2 + 1) \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus N^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2] z + [\Gamma_1^2]$$
$$\quad = [N \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus N^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2] z + [\Gamma_1^2]$$

In the subfield $GF(2^2)$, combining squaring with scaling by $w$ gives

$$(w) \otimes \Gamma^2 = (w) \otimes (g_1 w + g_0)^2$$
$$\quad = (w) \otimes ([g_1] w + [g_0 + g_1])$$
$$\quad = [g_1 \oplus (g_0 + g_1)] w + [g_1]$$
$$\quad = [g_0] w + [g_1]$$

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so this combination is free (being just a swap of two bits)! This suggests that if we choose 

\[ w = N, \]

then

\[ \nu \otimes \gamma^2 = (\{N \otimes \Gamma_1^2\} \otimes N \otimes \{N \otimes \Gamma_0^2\})z + [N^2 \otimes \{N \otimes \Gamma_0^2\}] \]

performs this combined operation with one addition and two scalings in the subfield, since the operations in \{\} are free. Or, if instead we choose \( w = N^2 \)

\[ \nu \otimes \gamma^2 = [N^2 \otimes \{N \otimes \Gamma_1^2\}] \otimes \{N \otimes \Gamma_0^2\}z + [N \otimes \{N^2 \otimes \Gamma_1^2\}] \]

again requiring only one addition and two scalings.

Also, combining the multiplication in \( GF(2^2) \) with scaling by \( N \) gives a small improvement; this combination appears in the \( GF(2^4) \) multiplier. If \( N = w \), for example, the scaled product \( N \Gamma \Delta = w(g_1w + g_0)(d_1w + d_0) \) becomes

\[ f = (g_1 \oplus g_0) \otimes (d_1 \oplus d_0) \]

\[ N \Gamma \Delta = [f \oplus (g_1 \otimes d_1)]w + [f \oplus (g_0 \otimes d_0)] \]

so the scaling is “free.”

### 4.2 Normal Basis Optimizations

Analogous optimizations are available using normal bases, although the details change. For instance, in \( GF(2^2) \) with a normal basis \([W^2, W] \) the squaring operation is free:

\[ (g_1W^2 + g_0W)^2 = g_0W^2 + g_1W \]

And while it is still convenient to choose \( \tau = 1 \) and \( T = 1 \), different choices for \( \nu \) and \( N \) can make the combination of squaring and scaling in \( GF(2^4) \) efficient. Here scaling the square of \( \gamma = \Gamma_1Z^4 + \Gamma_0Z \) by \( \nu = \Delta_1Z^4 + \Delta_0Z \) gives

\[ \nu \otimes \gamma^2 = \nu \otimes \{(\Gamma_1^2 \oplus N \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2))Z^4 + [\Gamma_0^2 \oplus N \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2)]Z\} \]

\[ = [\Delta_1 \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \oplus N \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2)) + N(\Delta_1 + \Delta_0) \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2)]Z^4 \]

\[ + [\Delta_0 \otimes \Gamma_0^2 \oplus N \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2)] + N(\Delta_1 + \Delta_0) \otimes (\Gamma_1^2 \otimes \Gamma_0^2)]Z \]

\[ = [(\Delta_1 + N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus (N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z^4 + [(N\Delta_1) \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus (\Delta_0 + N\Delta_1) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z \]

This can be made more efficient by choosing, for example, \( \Delta_1 = N\Delta_0 \), giving

\[ \nu \otimes \gamma^2 = [(N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z^4 + [(N\Delta_1) \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus (\Delta_0 + N\Delta_1) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z \]

\[ = [(N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z^4 + [(N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z \]

\[ = [(N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z^4 + [(N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_1^2 \oplus (N\Delta_0) \otimes \Gamma_0^2]Z \]

which again requires only two scalings and an addition (note the common sub-expression), since squaring is free. Also, it is possible to choose \( \Delta_0 = N^{-1} \) to save one scaling.

The top level inversion, of \( g = \gamma_1^2Y^{16} + \gamma_0Y \) in \( GF(2^8) \), can be done by

\[ \theta = [\{\nu \otimes (\gamma_1 \oplus \gamma_0)^2\} \oplus (\gamma_1 \otimes \gamma_0)]^{-1} \]

\[ g^{-1} = [\theta \otimes \gamma_0]Y^{16} + [\theta \otimes \gamma_1]Y \]
Similarly, $\gamma = \Gamma_1 Z^4 + \Gamma_0 Z$ in $GF(2^4)$ is inverted by

$$\Theta = [N \otimes (\Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0)^2 \oplus (\Gamma_1 \otimes \Gamma_0)]^{-1}$$

$$\gamma^{-1} = [\Theta \otimes \Gamma_0]Z^4 + [\Theta \otimes \Gamma_1]Z$$

where in $GF(2^2)$ inversion is the same as squaring, which is free.

In $GF(2^4)$ the product $\gamma \delta = (\Gamma_1 Z^4 + \Gamma_0 Z)(\Delta_1 Z^4 + \Delta_0 Z)$ is found by

$$\Phi = N \otimes (\Gamma_1 \oplus \Gamma_0) \otimes (\Delta_1 \oplus \Delta_0)$$

$$\gamma \delta = [\Phi \oplus (\Gamma_1 \otimes \Delta_1)]Z^4 + [\Phi \oplus (\Gamma_0 \otimes \Delta_0)]Z$$

And in $GF(2^2)$, the product $\Gamma \Delta = (g_1 W^2 + g_0 W)(d_1 W^2 + d_0 W)$ corresponds to

$$f = (g_1 \oplus g_0) \otimes (d_1 \oplus d_0)$$

$$\Gamma \Delta = [f \oplus (g_1 \otimes d_1)]W^2 + [f \oplus (g_0 \otimes d_0)]W$$

Scaling in $GF(2^2)$ is accomplished by

$$(W) \otimes (g_1 W^2 + g_0 W) = [g_1 \oplus g_0]W^2 + [g_1]W$$

$$(W^2) \otimes (g_1 W^2 + g_0 W) = [g_0]W^2 + [g_0 \oplus g_1]W$$

At this level of optimization, the smallest $GF(2^8)$ inverter using normal bases turns out to use exactly the same number of gates as the smallest polynomial version. However, this does not account for further optimizations from common subexpressions (discussed below), nor for the change in representation (basis) required on entering and leaving the S-box.

### 4.3 Mixing Basis Types

There is no reason why the three bases, for $GF(2^8)$, $GF(2^4)$, and $GF(2^2)$, should all be polynomial bases or all be normal bases; one is free to choose either type of basis at each level. (Of course, one could choose other types of basis at each level, but both polynomial and normal bases have structure that leads to efficient calculation, which is lacking in other bases.) We have seen that the inverters in $GF(2^8)$ for both types of basis require the same number and type of operations in $GF(2^4)$, and similarly for the inverters in $GF(2^4)$. The multipliers also use the same operations for both types of bases; the same is true for the scalers in $GF(2^2)$.

In $GF(2^2)$, squaring is free with a normal basis, while the combination $w \otimes \Gamma^2$ is free with a polynomial basis. Since the $GF(2^4)$ inverter needs one $GF(2^2)$ inverter (same as squaring) and one combo $N \otimes \Gamma^2$, then as long as $N = w$ this gives no preference for either type of basis.

The main differences then are in the combined squaring-scaling operation required by the $GF(2^8)$ inverters: $\nu \otimes \gamma^2$. The details vary for the calculations this operation requires in $GF(2^2)$, depending on the basis types and the relations between $\nu$, $N$, $z$, and $w$. The tables below summarize all the different cases.
The first table is for a polynomial basis in $GF(2^4)$; the second is for a normal basis. The first two columns show the coefficients of $\nu$ in terms of $N$, which depends on the bases for $GF(2^4)$ and $GF(2^2)$. (All eight possibilities are shown for both tables, although, due to the symmetry of normal bases, the second table essentially has only four cases, each shown two ways.) The next two columns show the coefficients of $\nu \otimes \gamma^2$ that need to be calculated; each is expressed in a form to suggest a compact calculation. The last three columns show the total number of XOR gates required for: a polynomial basis for $GF(2^2)$ with $w = N$; a polynomial basis for $GF(2^2)$ with $w = N^2$; or a normal basis for $GF(2^2)$. Note that addition in $GF(2^2)$ uses two XOR’s while scaling uses one. These numbers incorporate taking advantage of whichever calculation is free in the particular $GF(2^2)$ basis, and include this adjustment: for a polynomial basis in $GF(2^2)$ with $w = N^2$, add one since the $N \otimes \Gamma^2$ in the inverter requires a scaling.

Altogether, 85 XOR’s and 36 AND’s are needed for the rest of the calculation, so the inverter could include from 88 to 92 XOR’s (excluding common subexpression optimizations below), depending on basis choice. This does not account for the gates needed to change between representations (bases) on entering and exiting the S-box. Since there is only a difference of 4 XOR’s between the smallest and largest inverter that incorporate the above optimizations, the change of basis can play an important role.
4.4 Common Subexpressions

A further level of optimization comes from finding subexpressions that appear more than once in the above hierarchical view of the inverter. Each of these common subexpressions need only be computed once, thus reducing the size of the inverter.

As [12] mentions, one place this occurs is when the same factor is input to two different multipliers. Each multiplier needs the sum of the high and low halves of each factor, so a shared factor saves one addition in the subfield. For example, a 2-bit factor shared by two $GF(2^2)$ multipliers saves one XOR. Moreover, since each $GF(2^4)$ multiplier includes three $GF(2^2)$ multipliers, then a shared 4-bit factor implies three corresponding shared 2-bit factors. So each shared 4-bit factor saves five XOR’s (one 2-bit addition and three 1-bit additions).

The polynomial-basis inverters for $GF(2^8)$ and $GF(2^4)$ each have two different factors that are each shared between two multipliers (which appeared as $\phi$ and $\theta$ in $GF(2^4)$, $\Phi$ and $\Theta$ in $GF(2^2)$). However, each of the corresponding normal-basis inverters share all three factors among the three multipliers (called $\theta$, $\gamma_1$ and $\gamma_0$ in $GF(2^4)$, and $\Theta$, $\Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_0$ in $GF(2^2)$). This gives a significant advantage to using a normal basis in $GF(2^8)$, since the additional shared factor in the $GF(2^8)$ inverter saves five more XOR’s.

Another place to look is in the $GF(2^4)$ square-scale combination. It turns out that, of the 36 variations in the tables (page 15), a repeated sum of two bits can be found in 10 cases (all with polynomial $GF(2^4)$ bases), saving one XOR.

A more subtle saving occurs in the $GF(2^4)$ inverter. There are essentially 6 versions, depending on the types of basis for $GF(2^4)$ and $GF(2^2)$, and for a polynomial $GF(2^2)$ basis whether $N = w$ or $N = w^2$. Each case can be improved by at least one XOR, and in two cases, by two XOR’s. These improvements all involve bit sums computed for common factors being combined with some other operations, but the details vary from case to case. For example, with both bases polynomial, combining the $GF(2^2)$ inverter with finding the sum of its output bits (it’s a shared factor) saves one XOR. Or for both normal bases, combining the sum of the high and low inputs and the following square-scale operation with the bit sums of the high and low inputs (shared factors) again saves one XOR.

The last optimization occurs in the $GF(2^8)$ inverter, combining the bit sums for shared input factors with parts of the square-scale operation. Again the details vary with the specifics of the basis choices. All 36 versions with a normal $GF(2^8)$ basis were examined (the others have a 5 XOR handicap), and also the all-polynomial version corresponding to the bases in [12], for comparison. The resulting improvement ranges from three to five XOR’s: for most cases (23) it was three, for a dozen cases it was four, and it was five in only two cases.

While all these additional optimizations apply differently to the various basis choices, they tend to make the various versions more similar in size, with one exception: the extra shared factor in the normal $GF(2^8)$ inverter gives an advantage of five XOR’s. Hence those cases using a polynomial basis for $GF(2^8)$ are effectively uncompetitive. The smallest (prior to these optimizations) inverter saves 15 + 3 XOR’s in shared factors, 1 more in the $GF(2^4)$ inverter, and 3 more in the $GF(2^8)$ inverter, giving a total size of 66 XOR’s and 36 AND’s. (The bases of [12] give an inverter with 73 XOR’s.)

The following tables show the size of the inverter when all of these optimizations have
been applied; in addition to the number of XOR’s shown, each inverter includes 36 AND’s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pol.</th>
<th>XOR Gates</th>
<th>Pol.</th>
<th>XOR Gates</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\nu = \alpha z + D$</td>
<td>$\nu = \beta z^4 + Dz$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$w = N$</td>
<td>$w = N^2$</td>
<td>$GF(2^4)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N$</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
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<tr>
<td>$N^2$</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The first table is for a polynomial $GF(2^4)$ basis, the second for a normal $GF(2^4)$ basis; both tables assume a normal basis for $GF(2^8)$, for the extra shared 4-bit factor. It is apparent that these low-level optimizations tend to even out the differences expected from the square-scale operation (compare with the tables on page 15). Using a polynomial $GF(2^4)$ basis costs at least one XOR (one less shared 2-bit factor), and a few cases cost one more. Because the variation in the inverter size is so small, the cost of changing between the standard representation and the S-box basis will be decisive.

5 Choices of Representation

This algorithm involves several related representations, or isomorphisms, of Galois Fields. First, $GF(2^8)$ is considered as the set of bytes with the polynomial basis implied by the irreducible polynomial $q(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$. Then $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$ is also considered as polynomials with coefficients in $GF(2^4)$, based on the irreducible polynomial $r(y) = y^2 + y + \nu$. Similarly, $GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$ uses a basis implied by the irreducible polynomial $s(z) = z^2 + z + N$, and $GF(2^2)/GF(2)$ uses a root of $t(w) = w^2 + w + 1$. So each byte of information has two forms: the standard AES form (polynomial basis in 8 powers of $A$), and the subfield form in $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$ as a pair of 4-bit coefficients, each being (in $GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$) a pair of two-bit coefficients, which in turn are coefficients in the basis for $GF(2^2)$.

One approach to using these two forms, as suggested by [11], is to convert each byte of the input block once, and do all of the AES algorithm in the new form, only converting back at the end of all the rounds. Since all the arithmetic in the AES algorithm is Galois arithmetic, this would work fine, provided the key was appropriately converted as well. However, the MixColumns step involves multiplying by constants that are simple in the standard basis (2 and 3, or $A$ and $A + 1$), but this simplicity is lost in the subfield basis. For example, scaling by 2 in the standard basis takes only 3 XOR’s; the most efficient normal-basis version of this scaling requires 18 XOR’s. Similar concerns arise in the inverse of MixColumns, used in decryption. This extra complication more than offsets the savings from delaying the basis change back to standard. Then, as in [12], the affine transformation can be combined with the basis change (see below). For these reasons, it is most efficient to change into the subfield basis on entering the S-box and to change back again on leaving it.
Each change of basis is in effect multiplication by an $8 \times 8$ bit matrix. Letting $X$ refer to the matrix that converts from the subfield basis to the standard basis, then to compute the S-box function of a given byte, first we do a bit-matrix multiply by $X^{-1}$ to change into the subfield basis, then calculate the Galois inverse by subfield arithmetic, then change basis back again by another bit-matrix multiply, by $X$. But this is followed directly by the affine transformation (substep 2), which includes another bit-matrix multiply, by the constant matrix $M$. (This can be regarded another change of basis, since $M$ is invertible.) So we can combine the matrices into the product $MX$ to save one bit-matrix multiply, as pointed out by [12]. Then adding the constant $b$ completes the S-box function.

The inverse S-box function is similar, except the XOR with constant $b$ comes first, followed by multiplication by the bit matrix $(MX)^{-1}$. Then after finding the inverse, we convert back to the standard basis through multiplication by the matrix $X$.

For each such constant-matrix multiply, the gate count can be reduced by “factoring out” combinations of input bits that are shared between different output bits (rows). One way to do this is known as the “greedy algorithm,” where at each stage one picks the combination of two input bits that is shared by the most output bits; that combination is then pre-computed in a single (XOR) gate, which output effectively becomes a new input to the remaining matrix multiply. The greedy algorithm is straightforward to implement, and generally gives good results.

But the greedy algorithm may not find the best result. We used a brute-force “tree search” approach to finding the optimal factoring. At each stage, each possible choice for factoring out a bit combination was tried, and the next stage examined recursively. Actually, some “pruning” of the tree is possible, when the bit-pair choice in the current stage is independent of that in the calling stage and had been checked previously. Appendix C gives the C program.

This method is guaranteed to find the minimal number of gates; the drawback is that one cannot tell how long it will take, due to the combinatorial complexity of the algorithm. For example, running on an Intel Xeon processor under Linux (without “pruning”), one particular $8 \times 8$ matrix took over 2 weeks, while many others took a fraction of a microsecond. (However, many of the matrices that took very long times had already been ruled poor candidates by the greedy algorithm, and could have been skipped.)

Using the “merged” S-box and inverse S-box of [12] complicates this picture, but reduces the hardware required overall when both encryption and decryption are needed. There, a block containing a single $GF(2^8)$ inverter can be used to compute either the S-box function or its inverse, depending on a selector signal. Given an input byte $a$, both $X^{-1}a$ and $(MX)^{-1}(a+b)$ are computed, with the first selected for encryption, the second for decryption. That selection is input into the inverter, and from the output byte $c$, both $(MX)c+b$ and $Xc$ are computed; again the first is selected for encryption, the second for decryption.

With this merged approach, these basis-change matrix pairs can be optimized together, considering $X^{-1}$ and $(MX)^{-1}$ together as a $16 \times 8$ matrix, and similarly $(MX)$ and $X$, each pair taking one byte as input and giving two bytes as output. (Then $(MX)^{-1}(a+b)$ must be computed as $(MX)^{-1}a + [(MX)^{-1}b].$) Combining in this way allows more commonality among rows (16 instead of 8) and so yields a more compact “factored” form. Of course, this also means the “tree search” optimizer has a much bigger task and longer run time. (Note: this is what actually induced our development of the “pruning” strategy, which typically
gives a speedup factor of 10 to 20 times faster, enough to make full optimization feasible.)

The additive constant $b$ of the affine transformation (or $(MX)^{-1}b$ for decryption), being an exclusive-OR with a known constant, just requires negating specific bits of the output of the basis change. (Actually, since the multiplexors we use are themselves negating, it is the bits other than those in $b$ that need negating first.) In most cases, this can be done by replacing an XOR by an XNOR (not-exclusive-or, which really should be called NXOR) in the basis change, which is “free” since both XOR and XNOR are the same size in the CMOS library we consider. But in some cases, such as when an output bit is given by a single input bit, the negation must be done explicitly with a NOT gate.

At this time, not all of the matrices for all of the cases considered below have been fully optimized, but the data so far indicate how full optimization can improve on the greedy algorithm. For the architecture with separate encryptor and decryptor, the top 25% of cases (based on greedy algorithm estimates) have been fully optimized: of 952 matrices $(8 \times 8)$ optimized, 346 (36%) were improved by at least one XOR, and of those, 45 (13% of improved ones) were improved by two XOR’s, and 2 (0.6% of improved ones) were improved by three XOR’s. For the merged architecture, the top 14 cases have been optimized: of 36 matrices $(16 \times 8)$ optimized, 17 (47%) were improved by one XOR, 6 (17%) were improved by two XOR’s, and 5 (14%) were improved by three XOR’s, so altogether 78% were improved.

We considered all of the subfield polynomial and normal bases that had a trace of unity. Over $GF(2^4)$, there are eight choices for $\nu$ that make $r(y) = y^2 + y + \nu$ irreducible, namely the four elements with the minimal polynomial (over $GF(2)$) $x^4 + x^3 + 1$, and the four elements with the minimal polynomial $x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$. There are only two choices for $N$ that make the polynomial $s(z) = z^2 + z + N$ irreducible over $GF(2^3)$, namely the two roots of $t(w) = w^2 + w + 1$. Each of these polynomials $r(y)$, $s(z)$, and $t(w)$ has two distinct roots, and for a polynomial basis we may choose either, or for a normal basis we use both. So including the choices for $\nu$ and $N$ and the type of basis at each level, there are $(8 \times 3) \times (2 \times 3) \times (1 \times 3) = 432$ possible cases. (Note: the basis used in [12] corresponds to case number 252 in Appendix E.)

The most compact case was judged to be the one giving the least number of gates for the merged S-box architecture of [12], where a single inverter is shared for both encryption and decryption, using merged bit matrices $X^{-1}$ and $(MX)^{-1}$ before the inverter, and $(MX)$ and $X$ after. The total gates include the two optimized $16 \times 8$ matrices, the two additions of the constant $b$, one inverter, and also the multiplexors. As it happens, the case giving the most compact circuit for this architecture also gives the most compact separate encryptor (with just $X^{-1}$, inverter, $(MX)$, and $b$), and gives a separate decryptor that is one XOR bigger than the smallest.

(The envelope, please...)

The winner is case number 4 in the Appendix E table of all the cases. Here we will specify the relevant Galois elements in three forms: by our naming convention summarized in table D.3, by decimal and by hexadecimal numbers (in $C$ notation), which refer to the representation in the standard basis (in powers of $A$). This case uses normal bases for all subfields. For $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$, the norm $\nu = \beta^8 = 236 = 0xEC$, and $y = d = 255 = 0xFF$, so the basis is $[d_{16}, d] = [0xFE, 0xFF]$ (recall that for each of the normal bases, the sum of the two elements is the trace, which is unity). For $GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$, $N = \Omega^2 = 188 = 0xBC$ and $z = \alpha^2 = 92 = 0x5C$, so the basis is $[\alpha^8, \alpha^2] = [0x5D, 0x5C]$. And for $GF(2^2)$, $w = \Omega =
189 = 0xBD, so the basis is $[\Omega, \Omega] = [0xBC, 0xBD]$. For this case, $\nu = N^2 z$, i.e., $C = 0$ and $D = N^2$ in the table above, so this inverter is the smallest, consisting of 66 XOR’s and 36 NAND’s. (Note: because each AND output bit is combined with another AND output in a following XOR, then the AND gates can be replaced by NAND gates, which are smaller in the library considered.) The optimized versions of the merged basis change matrices have the following numbers of XOR’s/XNOR’s: $[X^{-1} \& (MX)^{-1}] = 20$, $[(MX) \& X] = 18$. Also, the additive constants of the affine transformation require 2 NOT’s. For separate encryptor and decryptor, the optimized matrices have these sizes: $X^{-1} = 13$, $MX = 11$, $X = 13$, $(MX)^{-1} = 12$ (no NOT’s required).

So the complete merged S-box and inverse, including inverter, transformation matrices, additive constant $b$, and multiplexors, totals 104 XOR/XNOR’s + 36 NAND’s + 2 NOT’s + 16 MUX21I’s (where MUX21I is a 2:1 selector and inverter [13]). Using the equivalencies 1 XOR/XNOR = $\frac{7}{4}$ NAND gates, 1 NOT = $\frac{3}{4}$ NAND gates, and 1 MUX21I = $\frac{7}{4}$ NAND gates [13], this S-box is equivalent in size to 247 $\frac{1}{2}$ NAND’s, an improvement of 16% over the merged S-Box of [12] at 294 NAND’s.

If separate encryptors and decryptors are preferable, then the S-box includes the bit matrices $X^{-1}$ and $MX$ and inverter, totaling 90 XOR’s + 36 NAND’s, with equivalent size 193 $\frac{1}{4}$ NAND’s; the inverse S-box uses $(MX)^{-1}$ and $X$ and inverter, giving 91 XOR’s + 36 NAND’s, of size 195 $\frac{1}{4}$ NAND’s. (If only a decryptor is needed, then one could use one of the bases 43, 113, or 125, to get an inverse S-box of 90 XOR’s + 36 NAND’s.)

Since we have not yet fully optimized the matrices for all of the 432 possible cases, it is conceivable that one of the other cases could turn out to be better than case 4. We have optimized all cases whose estimated size, based on the greedy algorithm, was within 8 XOR’s of the actual size of case 4 (104 XOR’s). So far, the best improvement in a single $16 \times 8$ matrix is 3 XOR’s, and the best improvement in the pair of matrices for a single case is 4 XOR’s. For some other case to be best, full optimization must improve a matrix pair, beyond what the greedy algorithm found, by at least 9 XOR’s. We consider this highly unlikely, and so are confident that case 4 is indeed the best of all 432 cases.

## 6 Implementation Details

For the change of basis matrix, we want to change an element $g$ of $GF(2^8)$, the standard AES representation as a byte of 8 bits $g_i \in GF(2)$, namely $g_7g_6g_5g_4g_3g_2g_1g_0$, meaning $g_7A^7 + g_6A^6 + g_5A^5 + g_4A^4 + g_3A^3 + g_2A^2 + g_1A + g_0$, into the new basis. Then in $GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)$, $g = \gamma y^16 + \gamma_0y$, where for each element $\gamma \in GF(2^4)/GF(2^2)$, we have $\gamma = \Gamma_1z^4 + \Gamma_0z$, and each element $\Gamma \in GF(2^2)$ is considered a pair of bits $b_1b_0$, meaning $b_1w^2 + b_0w$. So the new byte representation $b_7b_6b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1b_0$ is related to the old by

$$
g_7A^7 + g_6A^6 + g_5A^5 + g_4A^4 + g_3A^3 + g_2A^2 + g_1A + g_0
= [(b_7w^2 + b_0w)z^4 + (b_5w^2 + b_4w)z]y^16 + [(b_3w^2 + b_2w)z^4 + (b_1w^2 + b_0w)z]y
= b_7w^2z^4y^16 + b_6wz^4y^16 + b_5w^2zy^16 + b_4wyzy^16 + b_3w^2z^4y + b_2wz^4y + b_1w^2zy + b_0wzy
$$

The relevant arithmetic in $GF(2^8)$ (see Appendix D), using the standard $A$ polynomial basis and logarithms base $B$, is: $y = 0xFF = B^7$, $z = 0x5C = B^{34}$, $w = 0xBD = B^{85}$,
\[ y^{16} = B^{112} = 0xFE, \quad z^4 = B^{136} = 0x5D, \quad w^2 = B^{170} = 0xBC, \quad w^2z^4y^{16} = B^{418} = B^{163} = 0x64, \]
\[ wz^4y^{16} = B^{333} = B^{78} = 0x78, \quad w^2zy^{16} = B^{316} = B^{61} = 0x6E, \quad wzy^{16} = B^{231} = 0x8C, \]
\[ w^2z^4y = B^{313} = B^{58} = 0x68, \quad wz^4y = B^{228} = 0x29, \quad w^2zy = B^{211} = 0xDE, \quad wzy = B^{126} = 0x60, \]
so these become the columns of the basis change matrix \( X \):

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
g_7 \\
g_6 \\
g_5 \\
g_4 \\
g_3 \\
g_2 \\
g_1 \\
g_0 
\end{pmatrix}
= 
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
b_7 \\
b_6 \\
b_5 \\
b_4 \\
b_3 \\
b_2 \\
b_1 \\
b_0 
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Then the reverse change of basis is given by \( X^{-1} \) (modulo 2):

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
b_7 \\
b_6 \\
b_5 \\
b_4 \\
b_3 \\
b_2 \\
b_1 \\
b_0 
\end{pmatrix}
= 
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
g_7 \\
g_6 \\
g_5 \\
g_4 \\
g_3 \\
g_2 \\
g_1 \\
g_0 
\end{pmatrix}
\]

So to compute the S-box function of a given byte, first we do a bit-matrix multiply (by \( X^{-1} \)) to change into the basis for \( GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)/GF(2^2) \), then calculate the inverse. Then change basis back again and perform the affine transformation, through another bit-matrix multiply by \( MX \):

\[
MX = 
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 
\end{pmatrix}
\]

and addition of the constant \( b \).

The inverse S-box function is similar, except the XOR with constant \( b \) comes first. Then
comes multiplication by the bit matrix

\[(MX)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{pmatrix}\]

And after finding the inverse, we convert back to the polynomial basis through multiplication by the matrix \(X\).

The optimized versions of these matrices can be shown in product form to indicate the factoring out of common bit combinations, as follows:

\[
\left( X^{-1} \right) = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
I \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
I \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
I \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]

where a horizontal line divides each matrix into two blocks, and \( I \) means an identity matrix of appropriate size. For each matrix row, the number of 1’s, less one, is the number of two-input XOR gates needed for that row.

The implementation of the Galois inverter has mostly been given in Section 4.2 above, since normal bases are used at each level. There can be found the top-level inverter, the \( GF(2^4) \) inverter and multiplier, the \( GF(2^2) \) inverter (square, i.e., bit swap), multiplier, and scalers for both \( N = w^2 \) and \( N^2 = w \). The combination of multiplication with scaling by \( N = w^2 \) in \( GF(2^2) \) is given by

\[
f = g_0 \otimes d_0 \\
NT\Delta = [f \oplus ((g_1 \oplus g_0) \otimes (d_1 \oplus d_0))]w^2 + [f \oplus (g_1 \otimes d_1)]w
\]

The only other operation required is the square-scale operator in the normal basis \( GF(2^4) \), as shown on page 15 for \( C = 0 \) and \( D = N^2 \), which is

\[
\nu(Az^4 + Bz)^2 = [(A \oplus B)^2]z^4 + [N^2 \otimes B^2]z
\]

where the squaring is free.

Appendix A gives a C program that implements the S-box function (and its inverse) to illustrate the algorithm. This shows the hierarchical structure of the subfield approach, but does not include the low-level optimizations of Section 4.4. The output is a table that can be compared with the reference version in the file boxes-ref.dat, included in the “Reference code in ANSI C v2.2.” link from The Rijndael Page: http://www.esat.kuleuven.ac.be/~rijmen/rijndael/

Appendix B gives our compact implementation of the merged S-box and inverse as a Verilog module. All the low-level optimizations of Section 4.4 are shown. These include: pre-computing sums of high and low parts of common factors for multipliers; in the \( GF(2^8) \) inverter, using the bit sums of common factors to replace some terms in the scaled square of the sum of high and low inputs; similarly in the \( GF(2^4) \) inverter; and using NAND’s instead of AND’s.

We successfully tested this implementation using an FPGA (though our approach is really more appropriate for ASIC’s). Specifically, we used an SRC-6E Reconfigurable Computer, which includes two Intel processors and two Virtex II FPGA’s. As implemented on one FPGA, the function evaluation takes just one tick of the 100 MHz clock, the same amount of time needed for the table look-up approach.

We also implemented a complete AES encryptor/decryptor on this same system, using our S-box. Certain constraints (block RAM access) of this particular system prevent using table lookup for a fully unrolled pipelined version; 160 copies of the table (16 bytes/round \( \times \) 10 rounds) would not fit. So for this system, our compact S-box allowed us to implement a fully pipelined encryptor/decryptor, where in the FPGA, effectively one block is processed for each clock tick.
7 Conclusion

The goal of this work is an algorithm to compute the S-box function of AES, that can be implemented in hardware with a minimal amount of circuitry. This should save a significant amount of chip area in ASIC hardware versions of AES. Moreover, this area savings could allow many copies of the S-box circuit to fit on a chip, enough to “unroll” the loop of 10 rounds. This in turn would allow the AES process to be fully pipelined, increasing the rate of throughput significantly (for non-feedback modes of encryption), on smaller chips.

This algorithm employs the multi-level representation of arithmetic in $GF(2^8)$, similar to the previous compact implementation of Satoh et al[12]. Our work shows how this approach leads to a whole family of 432 implementations, depending on the particular isomorphism (basis) chosen, from which we found the best one. And in factoring the transformation (basis change) matrices for compactness, rather than rely on the greedy algorithm as in prior work, we fully optimized the matrices, using our tree search algorithm with pruning of redundant cases. This gave an improvement over the greedy algorithm in 78% of the $(16 \times 8)$ matrices that we optimized. Also new is the detailed description of this nested-subfield algorithm, including specification of all constants for each choice of representation.

Our best compact implementation gives an S-box that is 16% smaller than the previously most compact version of [12]. We have shown that none of the other 431 versions possible with this subfield approach is as small. This compact S-box could be useful for many future hardware implementations of AES, for a variety of security applications.

Acknowledgements

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References


A S-box Algorithm in C

/* sbox.c
 *
 * by: David Canright
 *
 * illustrates compact implementation of AES S-box via subfield operations
 * case # 4 : [d^16, d], [alpha^-8, alpha^-2], [Omega^-2, Omega]
 * nu = beta^-8 = N^-2*alpha^-2, N = w^-2
 */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <sys/types.h>

/* to convert between polynomial (A^-7...1) basis A & normal basis X */
/* or to basis S which incorporates bit matrix of Sbox */
static int
  A2X[8] = {0x98, 0xF3, 0xF2, 0x48, 0x09, 0x81, 0xA9, 0xFF},
  X2A[8] = {0x64, 0x78, 0x6E, 0x8C, 0x68, 0x29, 0xDE, 0x60},
  X2S[8] = {0x58, 0x2D, 0x9E, 0x0B, 0xDC, 0x04, 0x03, 0x24},
  S2X[8] = {0x8C, 0x79, 0x05, 0xEB, 0x12, 0x04, 0x51, 0x53};

/* multiply in GF(2^2), using normal basis (Omega^-2,Omega) */
int G4_mul(int x, int y) {
    int a, b, c, d, e, p, q;

    a = (x & 0x2) >> 1; b = (x & 0x1);
    c = (y & 0x2) >> 1; d = (y & 0x1);
    e = (a ^ b) & (c ^ d);
    p = (a & c) ^ e;
    q = (b & d) ^ e;
    return ( (p<<1) | q );
}

/* scale by N = Omega^-2 in GF(2^2), using normal basis (Omega^-2,Omega) */
int G4_scl_N(int x) {
    int a, b, p, q;

    a = (x & 0x2) >> 1; b = (x & 0x1);
    p = b;
    q = a ^ b;
    return ( (p<<1) | q );
}

/* scale by N^-2 = Omega in GF(2^2), using normal basis (Omega^-2,Omega) */
int G4_scl_N2( int x ) {
    int a, b, p, q;
    a = (x & 0x2) >> 1; b = (x & 0x1);
    p = a ^ b;
    q = a;
    return ( (p<<1) | q );
}

/* square in GF(2^2), using normal basis (Omega^2,Omega) */
/* NOTE: inverse is identical */
int G4_sq( int x ) {
    int a, b;
    a = (x & 0x2) >> 1; b = (x & 0x1);
    return ( (b<<1) | a );
}

/* multiply in GF(2^4), using normal basis (alpha^8,alpha^2) */
int G16_mul( int x, int y ) {
    int a, b, c, d, e, p, q;
    a = (x & 0xC) >> 2; b = (x & 0x3);
    c = (y & 0xC) >> 2; d = (y & 0x3);
    e = G4_mul( a ^ b, c ^ d);
    e = G4_scl_N(e);
    p = G4_mul( a, c ) ^ e;
    q = G4_mul( b, d ) ^ e;
    return ( (p<<2) | q );
}

/* square & scale by nu in GF(2^4)/GF(2^2), normal basis (alpha^8,alpha^2) */
/* nu = beta^8 = N^2*alpha^2, N = w^2 */
int G16_sq_scl( int x ) {
    int a, b, p, q;
    a = (x & 0xC) >> 2; b = (x & 0x3);
    p = G4_sq(a ^ b);
    q = G4_scl_N2(G4_sq(b));
    return ( (p<<2) | q );
}

/* inverse in GF(2^4), using normal basis (alpha^8,alpha^2) */
int G16_inv( int x ) {
    int a, b, c, d, e, p, q;
a = (x & 0xC) >> 2; b = (x & 0x3);
c = G4_scl_N( G4_sq( a ^ b ) );
d = G4_mul( a, b );
e = G4_sq( c ^ d );  // really inverse, but same as square
p = G4_mul( e, b );
q = G4_mul( e, a );
return ( (p<<2) | q );
}

/* inverse in GF(2^8), using normal basis (d^16,d) */
int G256_inv( int x ) {

  int a, b, c, d, e, p, q;

  a = (x & 0xF0) >> 4; b = (x & 0x0F);
c = G16_sq_scl( a ^ b );
d = G16_mul( a, b );
e = G16_inv( c ^ d );
p = G16_mul( e, b );
q = G16_mul( e, a );
return ( (p<<4) | q );
}

/* convert to new basis in GF(2^8) */
/* i.e., bit matrix multiply */
int G256_newbasis( int x, int b[] ) {

  int i, y = 0;

  for ( i=7; i >= 0; i-- ) {
    if ( x & 1 ) y ^= b[i];
x >>= 1;
  }
  return ( y );
}

/* find Sbox of n in GF(2^8) mod POLY */
int Sbox( int n ) {

  int t;

  t = G256_newbasis( n, A2X );
t = G256_inv( t );
t = G256_newbasis( t, X2S );
return ( t ^ 0x63 );
}
/* find inverse Sbox of n in GF(2^8) mod POLY */
int iSbox( int n ) {
    int t;

    t = G256_newbasis( n ^ 0x63, S2X );
    t = G256_inv( t );
    t = G256_newbasis( t, X2A );
    return ( t );
}

/* compute tables of Sbox & its inverse; print ’em out */
int main() {
    int Sbox_tbl[256], iSbox_tbl[256], i, j;

    for (i = 0; i < 256; i++) {
        Sbox_tbl[i] = Sbox(i);
        iSbox_tbl[i] = iSbox(i);
    }
    printf ("char S[256] = {\n);
    for (i = 0; i < 16; i++) {
        for (j = 0; j < 16; j++) {
            printf("%3d, ", Sbox_tbl[i*16+j]);
        }
        printf("\n");
    }
    printf("};\n\n");
    printf("char Si[256] = {\n");
    for (i = 0; i < 16; i++) {
        for (j = 0; j < 16; j++) {
            printf("%3d, ", iSbox_tbl[i*16+j]);
        }
        printf("\n");
    }
    printf("};\n\n");
    return(0);
}
S-box Algorithm in Verilog

/* S-box using all normal bases */
/* case # 4 : [d^16, d], [alpha^8, alpha^2], [Omega^2, Omega] */
/* beta^8 = N^2*alpha^2, N = w^2 */

/* square in GF(2^2), using normal basis [Omega^2, Omega] */
/* inverse is the same as square in GF(2^2), using any normal basis */
module GF_SQ_2 ( A, Q );
    input [1:0] A;
    output [1:0] Q;
    assign Q = { A[0], A[1] };
endmodule

/* scale by w = Omega in GF(2^2), using normal basis [Omega^2, Omega] */
module GF_SCLW_2 ( A, Q );
    input [1:0] A;
    output [1:0] Q;
endmodule

/* scale by w^2 = Omega^2 in GF(2^2), using normal basis [Omega^2, Omega] */
module GF_SCLW2_2 ( A, Q );
    input [1:0] A;
    output [1:0] Q;
    assign Q = { A[0], (A[1] ^ A[0]) };
endmodule

/* multiply in GF(2^2), shared factors, using normal basis [Omega^2, Omega] */
module GF_MULS_2 ( A, ab, B, cd, Q );
    input [1:0] A;
    input ab;
    input [1:0] B;
    input cd;
    output [1:0] Q;
    wire m0, m1, ms;

    nand n0(m0, A[0], B[0]);
    nand n1(m1, A[1], B[1]);
    nand ns(ms, ab, cd);
    assign Q = { m1 ^ ms, m0 ^ ms };
endmodule
/* multiply & scale by N in GF(2^2), shared factors, basis [Omega^2, Omega] */
module GF_MULS_SCL_2 ( A, ab, B, cd, Q );
  input [1:0] A;
  input ab;
  input [1:0] B;
  input cd;
  output [1:0] Q;
  wire m0, m1, ms;
  nand n0(m0, A[0], B[0]);
  nand n1(m1, A[1], B[1]);
  nand ns(ms, ab, cd);
  assign Q = { ms ^ m0, m1 ^ m0 }; endmodule

/* inverse in GF(2^4)/GF(2^2), using normal basis [alpha^8, alpha^2] */
module GF_INV_4 ( A, Q );
  input [3:0] A;
  output [3:0] Q;
  wire [1:0] a, b, ab, ab2N, d, p, q;
  wire sa, sb, sd; /* for shared factors in multipliers */
  assign a = A[3:2];
  assign b = A[1:0];
  assign sa = a[1] ^ a[0];
  assign sb = b[1] ^ b[0];
  GF_MULS_2 abmul(a, sa, b, sb, ab);
  assign ab2N = { a[1] ^ b[1], sa ^ sb }; /* end of optimization */
  GF_SQ_2 dinv( (ab ^ ab2N), d);
  assign sd = d[1] ^ d[0];
  GF_MULS_2 pmul(d, sd, b, sb, p);
  GF_MULS_2 qmul(d, sd, a, sa, q);
  assign Q = { p, q }; endmodule

/* square & scale by nu in GF(2^4)/GF(2^2), normal basis [alpha^8, alpha^2] */
/* nu = beta^8 = N^2*alpha^2, N = w^2 */
module GF_SQ_SCL_4 ( A, Q );
  input [3:0] A;
output [3:0] Q;
wire [1:0] a, b, ab2, b2, b2N2;

assign a = A[3:2];
assign b = A[1:0];
GF_SQ_2 absq(a ^ b,ab2);
GF_SQ_2 bsq(b,b2);
GF_SCLW_2 bmulN2(b2,b2N2);
assign Q = { ab2, b2N2 };
endmodule

/* multiply in GF(2^4)/GF(2^2), shared factors, basis [alpha^8, alpha^2] */
module GF_MULS_4 ( A, a, Al, Ah, aa, B, b, Bl, Bh, bb, Q );
input [3:0] A;
input [1:0] a;
input Al;
inpuAh;
inpuAA;
inpu[3:0] B;
inpu[1:0] b;
inpuBl;
inpuBh;
inpubb;
output [3:0] Q;
wire [1:0] ph, pl, ps, p;
wire t;

GF_MULS_2 himul(A[3:2], Ah, B[3:2], Bh, ph);
GF_MULS_2 lomul(A[1:0], Al, B[1:0], Bl, pl);
GF_MULS_SCL_2 summul( a, aa, b, bb, p);
assign Q = { (ph ^ p), (pl ^ p) };
endmodule

/* inverse in GF(2^8)/GF(2^4), using normal basis [d^16, d] */
module GF_INV_8 ( A, Q );
input [7:0] A;
output [7:0] Q;
wire [3:0] a, b, ab, ab2, d, p, q;
wire [1:0] sa, sb, sd, t;  /* for shared factors in multipliers */
wire al, ah, aa, bl, bh, bb, dl, dh, dd;  /* for shared factors */

assign a = A[7:4];
assign b = A[3:0];
assign sa = a[3:2] ^ a[1:0];
assign sb = b[3:2] ^ b[1:0];
assign al = a[1] ^ a[0];
assign ah = a[3] ^ a[2];
assign aa = sa[1] ^ sa[0];
assign bl = b[1] ^ b[0];
assign bh = b[3] ^ b[2];
assign bb = sb[1] ^ sb[0];
GF_MULS_4 abmul(a, sa, al, ah, aa, b, sb, bl, bh, bb, ab);

/* optimize this section as shown below */
GF_SQ_SCL_4 absq( (a ^ b), ab2);

/* end of optimization */
assign t = sa ^ sb;
assign ab2 = { t[0], t[1], al ^ bl, a[0] ^ b[0] };
GF_INV_4 dinv( (ab ^ ab2), d);
assign sd = d[3:2] ^ d[1:0];
assign dl = d[1] ^ d[0];
assign dh = d[3] ^ d[2];
assign dd = sd[1] ^ sd[0];
GF_MULS_4 pmul(d, sd, dl, dh, dd, b, sb, bl, bh, bb, p);
GF_MULS_4 qmul(d, sd, dl, dh, dd, a, sa, al, ah, aa, q);
assign Q = { p, q };
endmodule

/* MUX21I is an inverting 2:1 multiplexor */
module MUX21I ( A, B, s, Q );
  input A;
  input B;
  input s;
  output Q;
  assign Q = ~ ( s ? A : B ); /* mock-up for FPGA implementation */
endmodule

/* select and invert (NOT) byte, using MUX21I */
module SELECT_NOT_8 ( A, B, s, Q );
  input [7:0] A;
  input [7:0] B;
  input s;
  output [7:0] Q;
  MUX21I m7(A[7],B[7],s,Q[7]);
  MUX21I m6(A[6],B[6],s,Q[6]);
  MUX21I m5(A[5],B[5],s,Q[5]);
  MUX21I m4(A[4],B[4],s,Q[4]);
  MUX21I m3(A[3],B[3],s,Q[3]);
  MUX21I m2(A[2],B[2],s,Q[2]);
  MUX21I m1(A[1],B[1],s,Q[1]);
MUX21I m0(A[0], B[0], s, Q[0]);
endmodule

/* find either Sbox or its inverse in GF(2^8), by Canright Algorithm */
module bSbox ( A, encrypt, Q );
  input [7:0] A;
  input encrypt; /* 1 for Sbox, 0 for inverse Sbox */
  output [7:0] Q;
  wire [7:0] B, C, D, X, Y, Z;
  wire R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R6, R7, R8, R9;
  wire T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10;

/* change basis from GF(2^8) to GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)/GF(2^2) */
/* combine with bit inverse matrix multiply of Sbox */
assign R8 = A[1] ^ R3;
assign B[7] = R7 ^ R8;
assign B[4] = R1 ^ R3;
assign B[1] = R4;
assign Y[7] = R2;
assign Y[4] = R9;
assign Y[2] = R7;
  SELECT_NOT_8 sel_in( B, Y, encrypt, Z );
  GF_INV_8 inv( Z, C );
/* change basis back from GF(2^8)/GF(2^4)/GF(2^2) to GF(2^8) */
assign T1 = C[7] ^ C[3];
assign T2 = C[6] ^ C[4];
assign T3 = C[6] ^ C[0];
assign T5 = C[5] ^ T1 ;
assign T7 = C[4] ^ T6 ;
assign T8 = C[2] ^ T4 ;
assign T9 = C[1] ^ T2 ;
assign T10 = T3 ^ T5 ;
assign D[7] = T4 ;
assign D[6] = T1 ;
assign D[5] = T3 ;
assign D[4] = T5 ;
assign D[3] = T2 ^ T5 ;
assign D[2] = T3 ^ T8 ;
assign D[1] = T7 ;
assign D[0] = T9 ;
assign X[3] = T8 ^ T9 ;
assign X[1] = T6 ;
assign X[0] = ~ C[2] ;

SELECT_NOT_8 sel_out( D, X, encrypt, Q );
endmodule

/* test program: put Sbox output into register */
module Sbox_r ( A, S, Si, CLK );
    input [7:0] A;
    output [7:0] S;
    output [7:0] Si;
    input CLK /* synthesis syn_noclockbuf=1 */ ;
    reg [7:0] S;
    reg [7:0] Si;
    wire [7:0] s;
    wire [7:0] si;

    bSbox sbe(A,1,s);
    bSbox sbd(A,0,si);
    always @ (posedge CLK) begin
        S <= s;
        Si <= si;
    end
endmodule
C  Bit-Matrix Optimizer in C

/* bestboth.c
 *
 * by: David Canright
 *
 * for each input basis, and each of 4 transformation matrices,
 * takes bit matrix and finds equivalent with minimum # of gates
 * combining both input matrices, and both output matrices
 * NOTE: matrix input order is: [A2X, X2A, X2S, S2X]
 *
 * input should have lines of the form:
 * hexstring num
 * where hexstring contains all 4 matrices, num is an ID#, e.g.: 98F3F2480981A9FF64786E8C6829DE60582D9E0BDC0403248C7905EB12045153 4
 * for which the output should be:
 * basis # 4:
 * A2X: 98F3F2480981A9FF  S2X: 8C6829DE60582D9E0BDC0403248C7905EB12045153
 * ncols = 8, gates = 42
 * A2Xb: 000000000001280410081022400088008001
 * S2Xb: 0028006200000100008800000010204010
 * [0,2], [0,3], [1,7], [2,10], [3,11], [4,7], [5,8], [6,10], [4,15],
 * ncols = 17, gates = 20
 * X2S: 582D9E0BDC040324  X2A: 64786E8C6829DE60
 * ncols = 8, gates = 38
 * X2Sb: 00000000000000000000000000002480180002040100
 * X2Ab: 0410008000021D00000000000000204080860
 * [0,4], [1,3], [1,7], [2,4], [2,8], [2,6], [3,13], [5,11], [6,9], [10,12],
 * ncols = 18, gates = 18
 ***bestgates 4 = 38 = 20 + 18
 * which, for each matrix pair, shows the original versions (8 columns),
 * the optimized versions, and a list of index pairs for precomputed XORs,
 * which correspond to new columns. Also shown: # XOR gates required.
 * Note: a "quick" test case is:
 * F1261450CA86D330C502A8BF412B3590352582D03974323C65C4836C69953380 0
 * uses pruning algorithm to eliminate redundant cases; minimal memory copying
 */

#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#define N 8

/* gatematrix is a structure with an array of 16-bit columns,
 list of indices (used in pairs), number of columns, and number of gates*/
typedef struct gatematrix
   { unsigned int mat[128]; char ind[256]; int n; int g; } GateMat;

static unsigned int share[65536];
static GateMat test;

/* blockPrint prints columns and index pairs for matrix pair */
void blockPrint (GateMat *p, const char *tag1, const char *tag2)
{
   int i;

   printf ("%6s: ", tag1);
   for (i = 0; i < p->n; i++)
       printf ("%02X", (p->mat[i]) & 0XFF );
   if ((p->n) > N) printf ("\n");
   printf ("%6s: ", tag2);
   for (i = 0; i < p->n; i++)
       printf ("%02X", ((p->mat[i]) & 0XFF00) >> 8 );
   if ((p->n) > N) printf ("\n");
   for (i = 0; i < (p->n)-N; i++)
       printf (" [%1d,%1d], ", p->ind[2*i], p->ind[2*i+1]);
   printf (" ncols = %2d, gates = %2d\n", p->n, p->g);
} /* end blockPrint */

/* copyMat copies from one to another*/
void copyMat (GateMat *p, GateMat *q)
{
   int i, n;

   n = q->n = p->n;
   q->g = p->g;
   memcpy( q->mat, p->mat, n * sizeof(unsigned int));
   memcpy( q->ind, p->ind, (n - N)*2);
} /* end copyMat */

/*
* bestgates is recursive:
* takes current matrix, tries all possibilities of adding a gate
* returns best # of gates
* p points to test matrix on input, and used to store output.
* tree search is pruned if this set of columns previously tried
*/
void bestgates ()
{
char indb[256];
int gb, nb, ci, cj;
int i, j, n, c, g, io, jo;
int nm, np, n2, n2p, t;

gb = 1024; /* best # gates, start high */
n = test.n; g = test.g;
nm=n-1; np=n+1; n2=2*(n-N); n2p=n2+1;
if (n==N) io = jo = 0; /* if orig matrix, no "old" index pair */
else { io = (test.ind[n2-2]); jo = (test.ind[n2-1]); }
for (i=0;i<nm;i++) /* for each pair of columns */
for (j=i+1;j<n;j++) {
    c = (test.mat[i]) & (test.mat[j]);
    if (t=share[c]) { /* if can share a gate */
        if (i<io && j!=io && j!=jo && j<nm) /* if prior, indep. pair */
            continue; /* then been there, done that; skip to next j */
        test.n = np;
        test.g = g - t;
        ci = test.mat[i]; /* save current columns */
        cj = test.mat[j];
        test.mat[i] ^= c; /* update to new columns */
        test.mat[j] ^= c;
        test.mat[n] = c;
        test.ind[n2] = i;
        test.ind[n2p] = j;
        bestgates(); /* recurse with new matrix */
        test.mat[i] = ci; /* restore current columns */
        test.mat[j] = cj;
        if ( test.g < gb ) { /* if best yet, save data */
            memcpy( indb, test.ind+n2, (test.n - n)*2);
            nb = test.n;
            gb = test.g;
        }
    }
} /* end columns loop */
if (gb < 1024) { /* if improved, return best data */
    memcpy( test.ind+n2, indb, (nb - n)*2);
    test.n = nb;
    test.g = gb;
}
/* else {printf("%3d [%2d]",n,g); flush(stdout);} */
} /* end bestgates */

/* bestmat reconstructs best matrix */
void bestmat (GateMat *p)
{
    int i, j, n, c;
    int nm, np, n2, n2p, t;
    GateMat best;

    n = test.n;
    p->g = test.g;
    for (i=0;i<N;i++) test.mat[i] = p->mat[i];
    for (n=0;n<(test.n-N);n++) {
        i = test.ind[n*2];
        j = test.ind[n*2+1];
        c = (test.mat[i]) & (test.mat[j]);
        test.mat[i] ^= c;
        test.mat[j] ^= c;
        test.mat[n+N] = c;
    }
} /* end bestmat */

/* main */
int main( int argc, char *argv[] ){
    char line[256];
    char bname[4][5] = {"A2Xb", "X2Sb", "S2Xb", "X2Ab", };
    long int i, j, k, n, nid, gt;
    unsigned u;
    int InitMat[32];
    GateMat orig[2];

    /* share[i] is initialized to 0 if # bits < 2 */
    share[0] = 0;
    for (i=1;i<65536;i++) {
        k=0;
        for (j=i&0xFFFF; j; j >>=1) k += j&1;
        share[i] = k-1;
    }

    while ( fgets( line, 256, stdin ) == line ) {
        for ( i=0; i < 32; i++ ) { /* read matrices, ID number */
            sscanf( line+2*i, "%02X", &u );
            InitMat[i] = u;
        }
        sscanf( line+65, "%d", &nid );
        printf("\nbasis #%3d:\n", nid);
    }
/* NOTE: matrix input order is: [A2X, X2A, X2S, S2X] */
for (i=0;i<8;i++) { /* combine input pair; combine output pair */
  (orig[0]).mat[i] = InitMat[8*0+i] | (InitMat[8*3+i] <<8) ;
  (orig[1]).mat[i] = InitMat[8*2+i] | (InitMat[8*1+i] <<8) ;
}

gt = 0;
for (k=0;k<2;k++) { /* for each matrix pair */
  (orig[k]).n = 8; /* initialize # columns, # gates */
  for (i=j=0; i<8; i++) j += share[ (orig[k]).mat[i] ];
  (orig[k]).g = j - 8;
  blockPrint (&(orig[k]), name[k], name[k+2]);
  fflush(stdout);

  copyMat(&(orig[k]), &test);
  bestgates(); /* optimize */
  bestmat(&(orig[k]));

  blockPrint (&test, bname[k], bname[k+2]);
  fflush(stdout);
  gt += test.g; /* total # gates */
}

printf("***bestgates %3d = %5d =%5d +%5d\n",
    nid, gt, (orig[0]).g, (orig[1]).g);
  fflush(stdout);
}

return(0);
} /* end main */
## D Tables for $GF(2^8)$

### D.1 Logarithm Table

For each number in decimal, hexadecimal, and binary, gives the logarithm base $B$ in $GF(2^8)$, using the polynomial basis from the root $A$ of $q(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$, where $B = A + 1$. (See Table D.3 for an explanation of the names.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dec</th>
<th>hex</th>
<th>binary</th>
<th>log$_B$</th>
<th>name</th>
<th>dec</th>
<th>hex</th>
<th>binary</th>
<th>log$_B$</th>
<th>name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>000000000</td>
<td>$-\infty$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>00100000</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>$R_{128}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>000000001</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>00100001</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>$s_{64}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>000000100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>$A$</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>00100010</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>$j_{32}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>000000011</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>00100011</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>$h^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>000001000</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>$A^2$</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>00100100</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>$k^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>000001010</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>$B^2$</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>00100110</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>$d_{64}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>000001100</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>$C^2$</td>
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### D.3 Polynomial Table

Each minimal polynomial over $GF(2)$ is listed as a bit string of coefficients, e.g., $100011011 = q(x)$. Reversing the bit string corresponds to inverting the roots; the ordering is in such pairs. The conjugate roots are given in terms of $\log_B$; the first listed is given the name shown. The “order” is in the multiplicative subgroup, e.g., $\gamma^5 = 1$.

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All Possible Bases

The following table shows all 432 possible combinations of bases for $GF(2^8)$, $GF(2^4)$, and $GF(2^2)$ for which the trace is unity ($\tau = T = 1$). Each subfield basis is given as an ordered pair; if the second entry is 1 then it is a polynomial basis, otherwise a normal basis. The $GF(2^8)$ basis uses roots of $r(y) = y^2 + y + \nu$, the $GF(2^4)$ basis uses roots of $s(z) = z^2 + z + N$, where $\nu$ and $N$ are the respective norms, and the $GF(2^3)$ basis uses roots of $t(w) = w^2 + w + 1$.

The basis and norm entries use the naming convention summarized in Table D.3. Explicitly, in terms of the standard AES basis: in subfield $GF(2^2)$, $\Omega = 189 = 0xBD$; in subfield $GF(2^4)$, $\alpha = 225 = 0xE1$, $\beta = 13 = 0xD$, and $\gamma = 12 = 0xC$; in the main field, $d = 255 = 0xFF$ and $L = 162 = 0xA2$.

The coefficients $C$ and $D$ of $\nu$ with respect to the $GF(2^4)$ basis are given in terms of $N$, as is the root $w$, as on page 15.

Under “XOR Gates,” the first column shows the number of XOR gates for the inverter; each also includes 36 AND’s. For bases 1–144, this number includes all of the low-level optimizations given in Section 4.4; bases 145 and beyond use a polynomial basis for $GF(2^8)$, and for those cases the inverter number is an estimate (except for 8 cases where these optimizations were explicitly included: 159, 177, 191, 209, 234, 252, 260, and 278). The last three columns show the XOR’s for a complete S-box, an inverse S-box, and a merged combination of both with a shared inverter (excluding multiplexors); each would also have 36 AND’s and possibly a few NOT’s (for the affine transformation). A superscript * means the basis change matrices ($8 \times 8$ for the separate architecture, $16 \times 8$ for the merged architecture) were fully optimized by the tree-search algorithm; otherwise they were factored by the greedy algorithm.
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° fully optimized results
| Case # | Gf(2^8) | Gf(2^9) | Gf(2^10) | v | N | C | D | w | inv. | S-box | S-box^-1 | Both |
|-------|---------|----------|----------|---|---|---|---|---|-----|-------|--------|----------|------|
| 217   | d^4,1   | a^4,a   | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω | 1  | N^2 | N | 72 | 100° | 100°  | 123    | 123    |
| 218   | d^4,1   | a^4,a   | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | 1  | N^2 | N | 72 | 101° | 99°   | 121    | 121    |
| 219   | d^4,1   | a^4,a   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | 1  | N^2 | N^2 | 72 | 100° | 98°   | 120    | 120    |
| 220   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 72 | 98°  | 99°   | 123    | 123    |
| 221   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 72 | 102  | 102   | 120    | 120    |
| 222   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N | 72 | 98°  | 101°  | 122    | 122    |
| 223   | d^4,1   | α,1     | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 100  | 100   | 122    | 122    |
| 224   | d^4,1   | α,a     | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 97°  | 98°   | 114°   | 114°   |
| 225   | d^4,1   | α,1     | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 100° | 101°  | 118    | 118    |
| 226   | d^4,1   | α^2,1   | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω N^2 | N  | N  | 73 | 99°  | 101°  | 122    | 122    |
| 227   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | N  | N^2 | N^2 | 74 | 103  | 104   | 124    | 124    |
| 228   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | N  | N^2 | N^2 | 74 | 106  | 102   | 123    | 123    |
| 229   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N^2 | 73 | 100  | 101   | 126    | 126    |
| 230   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N^2 | 73 | 98   | 102   | 120    | 120    |
| 231   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N  | 73 | 98°  | 100°  | 124    | 124    |
| 232   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 73 | 100° | 98°   | 120    | 120    |
| 233   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 73 | 97°  | 98°   | 122    | 122    |
| 234   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N | 73 | 102° | 100°  | 124    | 124    |
| 235   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω | N^2 | N | 72 | 100  | 100   | 118    | 118    |
| 236   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N^2 | 72 | 100  | 99°   | 118    | 118    |
| 237   | d^4,1   | a^4,1   | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N^2 | 72 | 99   | 99°   | 123    | 123    |
| 238   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 72 | 100  | 100   | 122    | 122    |
| 239   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 72 | 96°  | 99°   | 117    | 117    |
| 240   | d^4,1   | a^8,α^2 | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N | 72 | 99   | 100   | 123    | 123    |
| 241   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 96°  | 96°   | 116    | 116    |
| 242   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 98°  | 96°   | 116    | 116    |
| 243   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | N  | 1  | N | 73 | 97°  | 98°   | 119    | 119    |
| 244   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω | N^2 | N | 73 | 103  | 101   | 120    | 120    |
| 245   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω | N  | N^2 | N | 74 | 100° | 102°  | 121    | 121    |
| 246   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω | N  | N^2 | N^2 | 74 | 102  | 102   | 119    | 119    |
| 247   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N^2 | 73 | 101  | 100   | 124    | 124    |
| 248   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N^2 | 73 | 97°  | 97°   | 116    | 116    |
| 249   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | N^2 | N | 73 | 98°  | 100°  | 121    | 121    |
| 250   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,Ω    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 73 | 98°  | 98°   | 120    | 120    |
| 251   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω,1      | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N^2 | 73 | 97°  | 97°   | 116    | 116    |
| 252   | d^4,1   | a,1     | Ω^2,1    | β^2 Ω^2 | N^2 | 0  | N | 73 | 99°  | 99°   | 115°   | 115°   |

*Fully optimized results*
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*fully optimized results
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