國立交通大學

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碩士論文

利用 Coprocessor 介面在 32 位元嵌入式系統上 實現加解密加速器

AES Accelerator using Coprocessor Interface on 32-bit Embedded System

研究生:葉博元

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中華民國九十六年八月

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由於 AES 是屬於高速的加解密系統,但是硬體在和 CPU 系統平台整合後會造成效能降低,因此提高生產率是很重要的。在本論文中,提出利用凌陽科技公司的產品『S'Core』之系統平台,使用『S'Core』中所提供指令集擴充的功能 Coprocessor 介面來加速 AES 加解密系統,支援鑰匙長度為 128 位元,192 位元 和 256 位元。我們所提供的鑰匙產生單元可以即時產生加密所需的鑰匙,另外我 們提出一套適合用於 Coprocessor 介面的加速硬體單元。我們所提出來的架構基 於 0.18 微米聯華電子(UMC)互補式金氧半導體製程,我們的硬體設計需要包含 47500 個邏輯開,產能可達到 1.82Gbps。

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AES crypto system needs high-throughput, and hardware implementation for embedded system will make the performance worse. How to increase the throughput is very important. In this thesis, we propose instruction-like architecture using coprocessor interface for AES acceleration on 32-bit embedded system "S⁺Core". The cycle count is reduced from 3329 to 206. Our AES core can operate in 128, 192, and 256 bit key, and the round key is on-the-fly generated. The total gate count is about 47.5K gates, and maximal throughput is about 1.82Gbps with UMC 0.18 μ m process.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

The rapidly growth of internet and wireless communication has led to more requirement on security device to protect the data communication over open channels. If the hacker gets the message without protection, the message is not secret. Cryptography [1] is knowledge to research how to avoid that the hacker gets the real message. The concept of crypto-system illustrated in Fig. 1.1 is used to protect message transmitted over public channel. Every message is encrypted to cipher text with Key1 by Host A before transmitted, and decrypted to plain text with Key2 after received by Host B. According to the Key, two type of crypto-system are classified, such as symmetric-key or private-Key, and asymmetric-key or public-Key crypto-system. The symmetric-key crypto-system uses identical key for encryption and decryption, i.e., Key1 is equal to Key2 or we can get Key2 easily from Key1. DES, 3DES, and AES are symmetric-key algorithms use in symmetric-key crypto-system. The asymmetric-key crypto-system uses different key when encryption and decryption, i.e., Key1 is not equal to Key2. RSA and Elliptic Curve are asymmetric-key algorithms used in symmetric-key crypto-system. All secret-key crypto-systems are based on substitution and transposition. Substitution means mapping from one field to another

and transposition means replacing the element of the message. Because of that the hardware of substitution and transposition is very easy, so secret-key crypto-system is much faster than public-key crypto-system in general. Tab. 1.1 shows each different parameter size with the same level of security strengths compared with given cryptography [2]. The f and k are key length of ECC and RSA.



Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) [3] is a symmetric block cipher proposed by National Institute Standard Technology (NIST) of United States. In January, 1997, the NIST announced the start of an initiative to develop a new encryption standard: the AES. The algorithm should be a symmetric-key block cipher, and support block size under 128 bits and key sizes under 128, 192, and 256 bits. The new encryption standard was to become a Federal Information Processing Standard (FIPS), replacing the old Data Encryption Standard (DES) and triple-DES. Then the first Advanced Encryption Standard Candidate conference (AES1) was held in Ventura, California, August, 1998. Fifteen AES algorithms submitted by members of the cryptographic community around the world were announced in AES1. Five algorithms, MARS, RC6, Rijndael, Serpent, and Twofish, were selected as the finalist in the Second Advanced Encryption Standard Candidate conference (AES2), held in Rome, Italy. Until April, 2000, the Third Advanced Encryption Standard Candidate conference (AES3), held in New York, invited the submitters in finalist to attend and described their algorithm. Finally, NIST selected that Rijndael as the AES algorithm in October, 2000. The AES algorithm has broad applications, including smart cards and cellular phones, WWW servers and automated teller machines (ATMs), and digital video recorders. [4]

1.2 Motivation



 takes a lot of time to exchange the data and perform finite field computation. We can use hardware to solve this problem. In the design, We make use of $\[\ S^+Core \]$ to finish a cryptographic system, flexibility is the advantage. Because the development of $\[\ S^+Core \]$ is quite complete, it is convenient in replacing the circuit to make use of development platform to realize the hardware. Because $\[\ S^+Core \]$ has good user's interface, We devote us to designing the cryptographic systems to work with higher speed, alleviate other burdens.



Figure 1.2 AES instructions of S⁺Core

1.3 Organization of this thesis

This thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2, we present the AES algorithm. It contains AES basic operations. Chapter 3 shows the proposed architecture of the encryption of AES design. In addition, we also introduce the S⁺Core Platform. The

verification method and simulation result will be shown in Chapter 4. We make a brief conclusion and future work in the last chapter.



Chapter 2 Algorithm Specification

In this chapter, the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) algorithm is described.

2.1 Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

Specification



The input and output of AES specification is described follow in Table 2.1. For the AES algorithm, the length of the input block and the output block is 128 bits, and the different key length will execute different iteration count. For key length 128 bits, 10 iteration is execute, and 12 iteration for 192 bits, 14 iteration for 256 bits.

Fable 2.1AE	S specification	relations
-------------	-----------------	-----------

	In/Output Block Size	Key Length	Number of Rounds
AES-128	128 bits	128 bits	10
AES-192	128 bits	192 bits	12
AES-256	128 bits	256 bits	14

The input – the array of bytes in0, in1, ... in15 – is copied into the State array as illustrated in Fig. 2.1. The Cipher or Inverse Cipher operations are then conducted on this State array, after which its final value is copied to the output – the array of bytes

out0, out1, ... out15. Roughly, there are 4 kinds of transformation:

- 1. Non-linear byte substitution, so called *SubBytes()*.
- Cyclic shift on each row of the State array by different offsets, so called ShiftRows().
- Mixing the data within each column of the State array, so called MixColumns().
- 4. Adding the round key with the State, so called AddRoundKey().

inO	in4	in8	in12		s0	s4	s8	s12		out0	out4	out8	out12
in1	in5	in9	in13		s1	s5	s9	s13		out1	out5	out9	out13
in2	in6	in10	in14	7	s2	s6	s10	s14		out2	out6	out10	out14
in3	in7	in11	in15	/	s3	s7	s11	s15	/	out3	out7	out11	out15



The basic unit for processing in the AES algorithm is byte, and most operation in AES round function is based on $GF(2^8)$ arithmetic addition and multiplication. The addition in $GF(2^8)$ is defined as XOR operation, but the multiplication between 8 bit vector will produce a vector longer than 8 bits which in $GF(2^8)$. Therefore, the finite field multiplication always performs a modular multiplication, that modulo with irreducible polynomial after multiplication. For AES, the irreducible polynomial is

1896

$$m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$$
(2.1)

2.1.2 Composite Field Arithmetic

Composite filed arithmetic can be employed to reduce the hardware complexity.

We call two pairs

$$GF(2^{n}), Q(y) = y^{n} + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q_{i} y^{i}, q_{i} \in GF(2)$$
(2.2)

and

$$GF((2^{n})^{m}), P(x) = x^{m} + \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} p_{i} x^{i}, p_{i} \in GF(2^{n})$$
(2.3)

a composite field [5] if

- $GF(2^n)$ is constructed from GF(2) by Q(y);
- $GF((2^n)^m)$ is constructed from $GF(2^n)$ by P(x).

Composite fields will be denoted by $GF((2^n)^m)$, and a composite field $GF((2^n)^m)$ is isomorphic to the field $GF(2^k)$ for k = nm. Additionally, composite fields can be built iteratively from lower order fields. For example, the composite field of $GF(2^8)$ can be built iteratively from GF(2) using the following irreducible polynomials [6]:

$$\begin{cases} GF(2) \Rightarrow GF(2^{2}) \dots P_{0}(x) = x^{2} + x + 1 \\ GF(2^{2}) \Rightarrow GF((2^{2})^{2}) \dots P_{1}(x) = x^{2} + x + \phi \\ GF((2^{2})^{2}) \Rightarrow GF(((2^{2})^{2})^{2}) \dots P_{2}(x) = x^{2} + x + \lambda \end{cases}$$

$$(2.4)$$

Where $\phi = \{10\}_2$ and $\lambda = \{1100\}_2$. Meanwhile, an isomorphic mapping function

 $f(x) = \delta \times x$ and its inverse need to be applied to map the representation of an element in GF(2⁸) to its composite field and *vice versa*. The 8×8 binary matrix δ are decided by the field polynomials of GF(2⁸) and its composite fields. Such a matrix can be found by the exhaustive-search-based algorithm in [5]. The δ matrix corresponding to $p(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ and the field polynomials in (2.4) can be found as below:

$$\delta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2 Encryption and Decryption Procedure

The encryption and decryption procedure are shown in Fig. 2.2. At the beginning of encryption procedure, the plain block is XORed with initial round key, by *AddRoundKey()* procedure. After an initial Round Key addition, the State array is applied to *SubBytes()*, *ShiftRows()*, *MixColumns()*, and *AddRoundKey()* for 10, 12, or 14 times (depending on the key length), with the final round differing slightly from the first Nr-1 rounds. The State is only applied to *SubBytes()*, *ShiftRows()*, and *AddRoundKey()*, then the cipher block is outputted. Similar to the encryption procedure, the decryption is applied to the reverse direction.

(2.5)



Figure 2.2 The Procedure of Encryption and Decryption

```
Cipher(byte in[4*Nb], byte out[4*Nb], word w[Nb*(Nr+1)])
begin
  byte state[4,Nb]
  state = in
  AddRoundKey(state, w[0, Nb-1])
                                 // See Sec. 2.2.4
  for round = 1 step 1 to Nr-1
     SubBytes(state)
                                        // See Sec. 2.2.1
     ShiftRows(state)
                                        // See Sec. 2.2.2
     MixColumns(state)
                                         // See Sec. 2.2.3
     AddRoundKey(state, w[round*Nb, (round+1)*Nb-1])
  end for
  SubBytes(state)
  ShiftRows(state)
  AddRoundKey(state, w[Nr*Nb, (Nr+1)*Nb-1])
  out = state
end
```



```
InvCipher(byte in[4*Nb], byte out[4*Nb], word w[Nb*(Nr+1)])
                         1896
begin
  byte state[4,Nb]
  state = in
  AddRoundKey(state, w[Nr*Nb, (Nr+1)Nb-1])
  for round = Nr-1 step -1 downto 1
     InvShiftRows (state)
     InvSubBytes (state)
     AddRoundKey(state, w[round*Nb, (round+1)*Nb-1])
     InvMixColumns(state)
  end for
  InvShiftRows (state)
  InvSubBytes (state)
  AddRoundKey(state, w[0, Nb-1])
  out = state
end
```

Figure 2.4 Pseudo Code for the Inverse Cipher

The Cipher is described in the pseudo code in Fig. 2.3, and the inverse cipher is described in the pseudo code in Fig. 2.4.

2.2.1 SubBytes() and InvSubBytes() Transformation

The *SubBytes()* transformation is a non-linear byte substitution that operates independently on each byte of the State using a substitution table (S-box). The S-box is invertible and consists of two transformations:

- 1. Take the multiplicative inverse in the finite field $GF(2^8)$, the element $\{00\}$ is mapped to itself. Tab. 2.2 shows the multiplicative inverse of $\{xy\}_{16}$ using Equ. 2.1 as the irreducible polynomial.
- 2. Apply the following affine transformation (over GF(2)):

$$b'_{i} = b_{i} \oplus b_{(i+4)mod8} \oplus b_{(i+5)mod8} \oplus b_{(i+6)mod8} \oplus b_{(i+7)mod8} \oplus c_{i}$$
(2.6)

for $0 \le i < 8$, where b_i is the ith bit of the byte b, and c_i is the ith bit of the byte c with the value $\{63\}_{16}$ or $\{01100011\}_2$.

In matrix form, the affine transformation element of the S-box can be expressed as:

$$\begin{split} \dot{b}_{0}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{1}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{2}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{3}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{4}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{5}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{6}^{'} \\ \dot{b}_{7}^{'} \\ \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{0} \\ b_{2} \\ b_{3} \\ b_{4} \\ b_{5} \\ b_{6} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \\ b_{7} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ b_{7} \\ b_{$$

Fig. 2.5 illustrates the effect of the *SubBytes()* transformation on the State. The S-Box used in the *SubBytes()* transformation is presented in hexadecimal form in Tab.

2.3. For example, if $s_{1,1} = \{53\}$, then the substitution value would be determined by the intersection of the row with index '5' and the column with index '3' in Tab. 2.3. This would result in s'_{1,1} having a value of {ed}.

										y							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	a	b	c	d	e	f
	0	00	01	8d	f6	cb	52	7b	d1	e8	4f	29	c0	b0	e1	e5	c7
	1	74	b4	aa	4b	99	2b	60	5f	58	3f	fd	cc	ff	40	ee	b2
	2	3a	6e	5a	f1	55	4d	a8	c9	c1	0a	98	15	30	44	a2	c2
	3	2c	45	92	6c	f3	39	66	42	f2	35	20	6f	77	bb	59	19
	4	1d	fd	37	67	2d	31	f5	69	a7	64	ab	13	54	25	e9	09
	5	ed	5c	05	ca	4c	24	87	bf	18	3f	22	f0	51	ec	61	17
	6	16	5e	af	d3	49	a6	36	43	f4	47	91	df	33	93	21	3b
v	7	79	b7	97	85	10	b5	ba	3v	b6	70	d0	06	a1	fa	81	82
Λ	8	83	7e	7f	80	96	73	be	56	9b	9e	95	d9	f7	02	b9	a4
	9	de	6a	32	6d	d8	8a	84	72	2a	14	9f	88	f9	dc	89	9a
	a	fb	7c	2e	c3	8f	b8	65	48	26	c 8	12	4a	ce	e7	d2	62
	b	0c	e0	1f	ef	11	75	78	71	a5	8e	76	3d	bd	bc	86	57
	с	0b	28	8f	a3	da	d4	e4	0f	a9	27	53	04	1b	fc	ac	e6
	d	7a	07	ae	63	c5	db	e2	ea	94	8 b	c4	d5	9d	f8	90	6b
	e	b1	0d	d6	eb	c6	0e	cf	ad	08	4e	d7	e3	5d	50	1e	b3
	f	5b	23	38	34	68	46	03	8c	dd	9c	7d	a0	cd	1a	41	1c

Table 2.2Multiplicative Inverse table for the byte {xy}16



Figure 2.5 SubBytes() applies the S-Box to each byte of the State array

										у							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	a	b	с	d	e	f
	0	63	7c	77	7b	f2	6b	6f	c5	30	01	67	2b	fe	d7	ab	76
	1	ca	82	c9	7d	fa	59	47	f0	ad	d4	a2	af	9c	a4	72	c0
	2	b7	fd	93	26	36	3f	f7	сс	34	a5	e5	f1	71	d8	31	15
	3	04	c7	23	c3	18	96	05	9a	07	12	80	e2	eb	27	d2	75
	4	09	83	2c	1a	1b	6e	5a	a0	52	3b	d6	b3	29	e3	2f	84
	5	53	d1	00	ed	20	fc	b1	5b	6a	cb	be	39	4a	4c	58	cf
	6	d0	ef	aa	fb	43	4d	33	85	45	f9	02	7f	50	3c	9f	a8
v	7	51	a3	40	8f	92	9d	38	f5	bc	b6	da	21	10	ff	f3	d2
х	8	cd	0c	13	ec	5f	97	44	17	c4	a7	7e	3d	64	5d	19	73
	9	60	81	4f	dc	22	2a	90	88	46	ee	b8	14	de	5e	0b	db
	а	e0	32	3a	0a	49	06	24	5c	c2	d3	ac	62	91	95	e4	79
	b	e7	c8	37	6d	8d	d5	4e	a9	6c	56	f4	ea	65	7a	ae	08
	с	ba	78	25	2e	1c	aб	b4	c6	e8	dd	74	1f	4b	bd	8b	8a
	d	70	3e	b5	66	48	03	f6	0e	61	35	57	b9	86	c1	1d	9e
	e	e1	f8	98	11	69	d9	8e	94	9b	1e	87	e9	ce	55	28	df
	f	8c	a1	89	0d	bf	e6	42	68	41	99	2d	0f	b0	54	bb	1c

Table 2.3S-Box, a substitution table for the byte $\{xy\}_{16}$

InvSubBytes() is the inverse of the byte substitution transformation, in which the inverse S-box is applied to each byte of the State. This is obtained by applying the inverse of the affine transformation (2.4) followed by taking the multiplicative inverse in $GF(2^8)$.

Number of the second

The inverse S-box used in the *InvSubBytes()* transformation is presented in Tab. 2.4.

										y							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	а	b	с	d	e	f
	0	52	09	6a	d5	30	36	a5	38	bf	40	a3	9e	81	f3	d7	fb
	1	7c	e3	39	82	9b	2f	ff	87	34	8e	43	44	c4	de	e9	cb
	2	54	7b	94	32	a6	c2	23	3d	ee	4c	95	0b	42	fa	c3	4e
	3	08	2e	a1	66	28	d9	24	b2	76	5b	a2	49	6d	8b	d1	25
	4	72	f8	f6	64	86	68	98	16	d4	a4	5c	сс	5d	65	b6	92
	5	6c	70	48	50	fd	eb	b9	da	5e	15	46	57	a7	8d	9d	84
	6	90	d8	ab	00	8c	bc	d3	0a	f7	e4	58	05	b8	b3	45	06
v	7	d0	2c	1e	8f	ca	3f	0f	02	c1	af	bd	03	01	13	8a	6b
х	8	3a	91	11	41	4f	67	dc	ea	97	f2	cf	ce	f0	b4	e6	73
	9	96	ac	74	22	e7	ad	35	85	e2	f9	37	e8	1c	75	df	6e
	а	47	f1	1a	71	1d	29	c5	89	6f	b7	62	0e	aa	18	be	1b
	b	fc	56	3e	4b	c6	d2	79	20	9a	db	c0	fe	78	cd	5a	f4
	c	1f	dd	a8	33	88	07	c7	31	b1	12	10	59	27	80	ec	5f
	d	60	51	7f	a9	19	b5	4a	0d	2d	e5	7a	9f	93	c9	9c	ef
	e	a0	e0	3b	4d	ae	2a	f5	b0	c8	eb	bb	3c	83	53	99	61
	f	17	2b	04	7e	ba	77	d6	26	e1	69	14	63	55	21	0c	7d

Table 2.4Inverse S-Box, a substitution table for the byte $\{xy\}_{16}$

2.2.2 ShiftRows() and InvShiftRows() Transformation

In the *ShiftRows()* transformation, the bytes in the last three rows of the State are cyclically shifted over different numbers of bytes(offsets). The first row, r = 0, is not shifted.

Specifically, the *ShiftRows()* transformation proceeds as follows:

$$S'_{r,c} = S_{r,(c+shift(r,Nb)) \mod Nb}$$
 for $0 < r < 4$ and $0 \le c < 4$ (2.8)

Where the shift value *shift(r, Nb)* depends on the row number, r, as follows:

$$shift(1,4) = 1$$
 $shift(2,4) = 2$ $shift(3,4) = 3$ (2.9)

Fig. 2.6 illustrates the *ShiftRows()* transformation.

s _{0,0}	s _{0,1}	s _{0,2}	s _{0,3}	s _{0,0}	s _{0,1}	s _{0,2}	s _{0,3}
s _{1,0}	s _{1,1}	s _{1,2}	s _{1,3}	s _{1,1}	s _{1,2}	s _{1,3}	s _{1,0}
s _{2,0}	s _{2,1}	s _{2,2}	s _{2,3}	s _{2,2}	s _{2,3}	s _{2,0}	s _{2,1}
s _{3,0}	s _{3,1}	s _{3,2}	\$ _{3,3}	\$ _{3,3}	s _{3,0}	s _{3,1}	s _{3,2}

Figure 2.6 *ShiftRows()* operates on the row of the State

The InvShiftRows() transformation proceeds as follows:

 $S'_{r,(c+shift(r,Nb)) \mod Nb} = S'_{r,c}$ for 0 < r < 4 and $0 \le c < 4$ (2.10)

Fig. 2.7 illustrates the *InvShiftRows()* transformation.

S _{0,0}	s _{0,1}	s _{0,2}	s _{0,3}	J HIGH	S _{0,0}	s _{0,1}	s _{0,2}	s _{0,3}
s _{1,0}	s _{1,1}	s _{1,2}	s _{1,3}		\$ _{1,3}	s _{1,0}	s _{1,1}	s _{1,2}
s _{2,0}	s _{2,1}	s _{2,2}	s _{2,3}		s _{2,2}	s _{2,3}	s _{2,0}	s _{2,1}
s _{3,0}	s _{3,1}	s _{3,2}	s _{3,3}		s _{3,1}	s _{3,2}	s _{3,3}	s _{3,0}

Figure 2.7 InvShiftRows() operates on the row of the State

2.2.3 MixColumns() and InvMixColumns()

Transformation

The *MixColumns()* transformation takes a linear operation on each column – 32-bit word of the State. The linear operation treats the column of the State as a four-degree polynomial over $GF(2^8)$ and multiplies the column with a fixed polynomial a(x) modulo $x^4 + 1$. The polynomial a(x) is given by

$$a(x) = \{03\} x^3 + \{01\} x^2 + \{01\} x + \{02\}$$
(2.11)

The polynomial is co-prime to $x^4 + 1$ and therefore is invertible. This operation can also be written as a matrix multiplication. Let $S'(x) = a(x) \otimes s(x)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} s'_{0,c} \\ s'_{1,c} \\ s'_{2,c} \\ s'_{3,c} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 02 & 03 & 01 & 01 \\ 01 & 02 & 03 & 01 \\ 01 & 01 & 02 & 03 \\ 03 & 01 & 01 & 02 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_{0,c} \\ s_{1,c} \\ s_{2,c} \\ s_{3,c} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.12)

Fig. 2.8 describes the effect of the MixColumns() transformation on the State. The elements in column 1 are processed at the same time. After the operation, a(x), the results are generated in column 1.



Figure 2.8 *MixColumns()* operates on each column of the State

The *InvMixColumns()* multiplies with the inverse matrix of *MixColumns()* as follow

$$\begin{bmatrix} s'_{0,c} \\ s'_{1,c} \\ s'_{2,c} \\ s'_{3,c} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0e & 0b & 0d & 09 \\ 09 & 0e & 0b & 0d \\ 0d & 09 & 0e & 0b \\ 0b & 0d & 09 & 0e \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_{0,c} \\ s_{1,c} \\ s_{2,c} \\ s_{3,c} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.13)

2.2.4 AddRoundKey() Transformation

In the *AddRoundKey()* transformation, a Round Key is added to the State by a simple bitwise XOR operation. Each Round Key consists of Nb words from the key schedule (described in Sec. 2.3). Those Nb words are each added into the columns of the State, such that

$$[S_{0,c}, S_{1,c}, S_{2,c}, S_{3,c}] = [S_{0,c}, S_{1,c}, S_{2,c}, S_{3,c}] \oplus [W_{round*Nb+c}] \quad \text{for } 0 \le c < Nb \quad (2.14)$$

Where $[w_i]$ are the key schedule words described in Sec. 2.3, and round is a value in the range $0 \le round \le Nr$. In the Cipher, the initial Round Key addition occurs when round = 0. The application of the *AddRoundKey()* transformation to the Nr rounds of the Cipher occurs when $1 \le round \le Nr$.

The action of this transformation is illustrated in Fig. 2.9, where l = round * Nb.



Figure 2.9 AddRoundKey() XORs each column of the State with a word

2.3 Key Expansion

The AES algorithm takes the key K, and performs a Key Expansion routine to generate a key schedule. The Key Expansion generates a total of Nb(Nr+1) words: the algorithm requires an initial set of Nb words, and each of the Nr rounds requires Nb words of Key data. The expansion of the input key into the key schedule proceeds according to the pseudo code in Fig. 2.10. As the pseudo code goes, there are different operations to be performed depending on i. *Subword()* is a operation, consists of 4 *SubBytes()* operations. *RotWord()* just performs a cyclic shift, word [a₀, a₁, a₂, a₃] will be shifted as [a₁, a₂, a₃, a₀]. The *Rcon[i]* array, consists of [xⁱ⁻¹, {00}, {00}, {00}], where the xⁱ⁻¹ is power of x, with irreducible polynomial m(x)=x⁸+x⁴+x³+x+1 in GF(2⁸). The following word, w[i], is derived from the XOR of the preview word, w[i-1], with the word w[i-Nk], which is Nk positions earlier, where Nk means the key length in word. For words in positions that are a multiple of Nk, a transformation, followed by an XOR with the round constant, *Rcon[i]*, is applied to w[i] prior to the XOR with the word w[i-Nk]. This transformation consists of *RotWord()* and *SubWord()*.

The Key Expansion routine will produce a key array like upper of Fig. 2.11. Whenever the *AddRoundKey()* routine is invoked, the current index i will increased 4, and the four key after index i are used as input of *AddRoundKey()*, just as illustrated in lower of Fig. 2.11.

```
KeyExpansion(byte key[4*Nk], word w[Nb*(Nr+1)], Nk)
begin
   word temp
   i = 0
   while (i < Nk)
     w[i] = word(key[4*i], key[4*i+1], key[4*i+2], key[4*i+3])
     i = i+1
   end while
   i = Nk
   while (i < Nb * (Nr+1)]
       temp = w[i-1]
      if (i mod Nk = 0)
           temp = SubWord(RotWord(temp)) xor Rcon[i/Nk]
       else if (Nk > 6 and i mod Nk = 4)
           temp = SubWord(temp)
       end if
       w[i] = w[i-Nk] xor temp
                                         1124
      i = i + 1
   end while
end
                                          1896
```

Figure 2.10 The pseudo Code of the Key Expansion



Figure 2.11 Round Key Select in 192 bit and 256 bit Key Length

Chapter 3 AES Design

In this chapter, we will propose the AES architecture. AES was announced since 2001. Until now, lots of research had shown their AES implementations in hardware or software. In this chapter, we will introduce what is S⁺Core and how to realize our AES architecture.

This chapter is organized as follows. In section 3.1, consider the system requirement, we modify the AES architecture to match the system request, then new architecture will be given. In section 3.2, we introduce the overview of S^+ Core, and what is Coprocessor interface (CI). In section 3.3, we present the architecture of the AES.

3.1 AES System Architecture

At the beginning, we use $S^+Core's$ simulator to process the AES encryption procedure, and we find the $S^+Core's$ compiler compile the program inefficient. Because the instruction set of S^+Core is limited. So, we can use Coprocessor Interface to solve this problem. The coprocessor is like we plus an accelerator on the system. We will introduce what is S^+Core and its Coprocessor Interface in Sec. 3.2. The Coprocessor Interface is the I/O device of our AES design. Our core gets the data from S^+Core and starts to encrypt and decrypt the data through the Coprocessor Interface. Fig. 3.1 shows the block diagram of our AES architecture by Coprocessor Interface.

The coprocessor's general registers receive or transmit data from S⁺Core only when MTC or LDC instruction is executed, and S⁺Core gets data from the coprocessor's general registers when MFC or STC instruction is executed. Take AES-128 for example: First, we give eight MTC or LDC instructions for data and key transmitting from CPU's general registers or memory unit. We will discuss these instructions in detail in Sec. 3.2.1.And then we start the AES coprocessor when the start signal is assert. Because AES-128 needs 10 cycles to generate the correct cipher, we need Freeze signal to stall the CPU, or the cipher will be wrong. When the Ready signal is assert which means current data is valid, we can transfer the correct 128-bit cipher to coprocessor's output registers. Finally, we need 4 MFC or STC instructions for transmitting the 128 bits cipher to CPU. Fig. 3.2 shows the waveform of AES-128 encryption.



Figure 3.1 Block diagram of AES architecture by CI



Figure 3.2 Waveform of AES-128 encryption

Because of speed consideration, we insert a pipeline register in the core of AES, and Fig. 3.3 shows the block diagram of the core.

Figure 3.3 Pipelined AES core

3.2 Overview of S⁺Core Platform

The S^+Core^{TM} [12] is Taiwan's first self-defined 32-bit RISC CPU with Sunplus-owned instruction set architecture (ISA). The ISA has 32/16-bit hybrid instruction mode and parallel conditional execution for high code density, high performance and versatile application. The micro-architecture includes AMBA bus for SoC integration, coprocessor and custom engine interface for function flexibility, and SJTAG for efficient debugging and In-Circuit Emulation (ICE).

The user friendly development environment including S^+ Core IDE, simulator, optimization GNU C/C++ compiler and GDB enable users to develop the high quality application in fast time.

The most important feature of S^+ Core is that it has Optional customer-defined coprocessors. That means we can define a new instruction for some dedicated function. Because of that, we can improve the performance of S^+ Core by customer-defined coprocessors. We will introduce how to use Coprocessor Interface in next section.

3.2.1 Coprocessor Interface (CI)

The S⁺Core can plug coprocessor $1\sim3$ for some dedicated function; for example, floating pointer device, DSP device. Coprocessor device can plug into S⁺Core by "Coprocessor Interface". Up to three Coprocessors may be employed on one design. In this section, we only discuss the coprocessor interface and coprocessor instruction for coprocessor.

S⁺Core will issue the instruction to coprocessor by CI in first stage. Coprocessor will determine the instruction that belongs to them or not first. And then coprocessor will execute the instruction in it. A coprocessor may contain up to 32 general registers. Each of these registers is up to 32 bits wide. Typically, programs use the general register for loading and storing data on which the coprocessor operates. Data is moved to the coprocessor's general register from the processor's general registers with the

MTCz instruction. Data is moved from the coprocessor's general register to the processor's general register with the MFCz instruction. Main memory data is loaded into or stored from the coprocessor's general register with the LDCz and STCz instructions. Fig. 3.4 shows the interaction of S^+ Core CPU and coprocessor.

All coprocessor instructions share one main opcode encoding. There are three types of coprocessor instruction: coprocessor register transfer instructions, coprocessor data transfer instructions and coprocessor operation instructions. The Sub-OP field distinguishes different coprocessor instructions while CP# specifies the coprocessor number. Coprocessor register transfer instructions are MTC# (move to coprocessor) and MFC# (move from coprocessor). Coprocessor data processing instruction are LDC# (coprocessor load) and STC# (coprocessor store). And Fig. 3.5 shows the coprocessor instructions format.



Figure 3.4 Coprocessor Interface

mtc/mfc	OP	rD	CrA		0	CP#	Sub-OP
ldc/stc	OP	rD	CrA	im	m10	CP#	Sub-OP
сор	OP	CrD	CrA	CrB	Cop-Code	CP#	Sub-OP



3.3 Proposed AES Architecture

Fig. 3.6 shows the architecture of our AES core design. The core is composed of three parts, Main function unit, Key Unit, and Control Unit. The Control Unit count the different number of count for different key length. And it generates data ready signal and busy signal to control the AES architecture. The detail components of the Main function Unit will be discussed in Sec. 3.3.1. In our AES design, encryption can run in different key length, such as 128, 192, 256-bit key, and we will discuss how the Key Unit works in Sec. 3.3.2.



Figure 3.6 Block diagram of the AES

3.3.1 Efficient implementation of the Function Unit

Because of speed consideration, we process the 128-bit block message in each cycle. The basic architecture unrolls only one full cipher round, and iteratively loops

data through this round until the entire encryption is completed. The basic component is shown in Fig. 3.7.



Figure 3.7 Main function Unit for encryption

SubBytes and InvSubBytes Transformation [4]

The multiplicative inversion in $GF(2^8)$ involved in the *SubBytes* is a hardware demanding operation, it takes at least 620 gates to implement by repeat multiplications in $GF(2^8)$ [7]. However, the gate count can be reduced greatly by using composite field arithmetic. In the *SubBytes* transformation, using substructure sharing, the isomorphic mapping function can be implemented by 12 XOR gates with 4 XOR gates in the critical path. Meanwhile, the combined inverse isomorphic mapping and the affine transformation can be implemented by 19 XOR gates, and the critical path consists of 4 XOR gates also. In the composite field $GF((2^4)^2)$, an element can be expressed as $s_hx + s_l$, where $s_h, s_l \in GF(2^4)$ and x is a root of $P_2(x)$. Using Extended Euclidean algorithm, the multiplicative inverse of $s_hx + s_l$ modulo $P_2(x)$ can be computed as in (3.1)

$$\left(s_{h}x+s_{l}\right)^{-1}=s_{h}\Theta x+\left(s_{h}x+s_{l}\right)\Theta$$
(3.1)

where $\Theta = \left(s_h^2 \lambda + s_h s_l + s_l^2\right)^{-1}$. The proof of this equation is as follow:

Proof: The problem of finding the inverse of $S(x) = s_h x + s_l$ module

 $P_2(x) = x^2 + x + \lambda$ is equivalent to finding polynomials A(x) and B(x) satisfying the following equation:

$$A(x)P_{2}(x) + B(x)S(x) = 1$$
(3.2)

The B(*x*) in (3.2) is the inverse of S(x) module $P_2(x)$. Such A(x) and B(x) can be found by using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm for one iteration. First, we need to rewrite $P_2(x)$ in the form of

$$P_{2}(x) = Q(x)S(x) + R(x)$$
(3.3)

where Q(x) and R(x) are the quotient and remainder polynomials of dividing $P_2(x)$ by S(x), respectively. By long division, it can be derived that

$$Q(x) = s_h^{-1} x + (1 + s_h^{-1} s_l) s_h^{-1}$$
(3.4)

$$R(x) = \lambda + (1 + s_h^{-1} s_l) s_h^{-1} s_l$$
(3.5)

Substituting (3.4) and (3.5) into (3.3) and multiplying s_h^2 to both sides of the equation, it follow that

equation, it follow that

$$s_{h}^{2}P_{2}(x) = (s_{h}x + (s_{h} + s_{l}))S(x) + (s_{h}^{2}\lambda + s_{h}s_{l} + s_{l}^{2})$$
(3.6)

Multiplying $\Theta = \left(s_h^2 \lambda + s_h s_l + s_l^2\right)^{-1}$ to both side of (3.6), we get

$$\Theta s_h^2 P_2(x) = \Theta \left(s_h x + \left(s_h + s_l \right) \right) S(x) + 1$$
(3.7)

Since addition and subtraction are the same in the extended field of GF(2), the first term on the right side of (3.7) can be moved to the left side. Comparing (3.2) and (3.7), it can be observed that

$$S^{-1}(x) = s_h \Theta x + (s_h + s_l) \Theta$$
(3.8)

According to (3.1), the multiplicative inversion in $GF(2^8)$ can be carried out in $GF((2^4)^2)$ by the architecture illustrated in Fig. 3.8.



Figure 3.8 Implementation of the SubBytes Transformation

The *SubBytes* can be described by

$$S_{i,j} = MS_{i,j}^{-1} + C$$
 (3.9)

where M is an 8*8 binary matrix, and C is an 8-bit binary vector with only 4 nonzero bits. The *InvSubBytes* performs the following operation on each byte of the State

.....

$$S_{i,j}^{'} = \left(M^{-1}\left(S_{i,j} + C\right)\right)^{-1}$$
(3.10)

From (3.10), the *InvSubBytes* transformation can be implemented according to the block diagram illustrated in Fig. 3.9.



Figure 3.9 Block diagram of the InvSubBytes transformation

MixColumns and InvMixColumns Transformation

Various architectures have been proposed for the implementation of the *MixColumns* transformation [6], [8], [9], [10], [11]. Applying substructure sharing both to the computation of a byte and between the computation of the four bytes in a column of the State, an efficient *MixColumns* implementation architecture can be derived. Particularly, (2.10) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{cases} S_{0,c}^{'} = \{02\}_{16}(S_{0,c} + S_{1,c}) + (S_{2,c} + S_{3,c}) + S_{1,c} \\ S_{1,c}^{'} = \{02\}_{16}(S_{1,c} + S_{2,c}) + (S_{3,c} + S_{0,c}) + S_{2,c} \\ S_{2,c}^{'} = \{02\}_{16}(S_{2,c} + S_{3,c}) + (S_{0,c} + S_{1,c}) + S_{3,c} \\ S_{3,c}^{'} = \{02\}_{16}(S_{3,c} + S_{0,c}) + (S_{1,c} + S_{2,c}) + S_{0,c} \end{cases}$$
(3.11)

According to (3.11), the *MixColumns* transformation can be implemented by the architecture shown in Fig. 3.10. The function of the block "XTime" is to compute constant multiplication by $\{02\}_{16}$. An element of $GF(2^8)$ can be expressed in polynomial form as $S = s_7 x^7 + s_6 x^6 + s_5 x^5 + s_4 x^4 + s_3 x^3 + s_2 x^2 + s_1 x + s_0$, where $s_0, s_1, \dots, s_7 \in GF(2)$, and x is a root of the field polynomial p(x). Then $\{02\}_{16} S = xS = s_7 x^8 + s_6 x^7 + s_5 x^6 + s_4 x^5 + s_3 x^4 + s_2 x^3 + s_1 x^2 + s_0 x \mod p(x)$ $= s_6 x^7 + s_5 x^6 + s_4 x^5 + (s_3 + s_7) x^4 + (s_2 + s_7) x^3 + s_1 x^2 + (s_0 + s_7) x + (s_7)$

Therefore, the "XTime" block can be implemented by 3 XOR gates with only one XOR gate in the critical path. As illustrated in Fig. 3.5, the total number of XOR gates for computing one column of the State is 108, and the critical path is 3 XOR gates. The *InvMixColumns* multiplies the input polynomial by constant polynomial:

$$d(x) = c^{-1}(x) = \{0b\} x^3 + \{0d\} x^2 + \{09\} x + \{0e\}$$
(3.12)

The *InvMixColumns* is far more complex and occupies larger area. A. Satoh et al. [6] proposed an implantation based idea. This implementation yields logic optimizations since *InvMixColumns* shares logic resources with *MixColumns*. We propose a different method for exploring resource sharing. Recall (2.9) and (3.12). $a(x) \bullet d(x) = \{01\}$. If we multiply both sides of the equation by d(x) we obtain $a(x) \bullet d^2(x) = d(x)$, where $d^2(x) = \{04\}x^2 + \{05\}$. Note that two of the coefficients of the $d^2(x)$ are equal to $\{00\}$. The *MixColumns* and *InvMixColumns* can be implemented using shared logic resources as shown in Fig. 3.11.



Figure 3.10 Implementation of the MixColumns Transformation



Fig. 3.12 shows our Key Unit, it is composed of two part, control logic and Key-Generator. The KeyGenerator generate the round key for AES encryption every round. The counter count 10 rounds for 128-bit key, 12 rounds for 192-bit key and 14 rounds for 256-bit key. But we only need 128-bit key in every round, so we use registers to store the round key for next round when 192-bit key and 256-bit key scheduling. The SBox in KeyGenerator is the same as that in Main Function Unit. And the control logic chooses the correct round key for *AddRoundKey* transformation of Main Function Unit in every round.



Figure 3.12 Block diagram of Key Unit for Encryption

The Key Unit for decryption is different with from that for encryption. At first, we generate all keys for each round and stored in the STACK. When all key we need for decryption is ready, we start to decrypt the cipher. The Fig. 3.13 shows our Key Unit for decryption.



Figure 3.13 Block diagram of Key Unit for Decryption

Chapter 4 Simulation and FPGA Verification

AES arithmetic in hardware and design for embedded system are given in this work. This chapter shows the hardware implantation results. The hardware implementation results and design flow are described in Sec. 4.1. The RTL synthesizer uses Synopsys¹ Design Compiler for ASIC. The FPGA verification will discuss in Sec.



Fig. 4.1 illustrates the entire ASIC design and testing flow with various CAD (Computer Aided Design) tools. The design is done by pre-layout gate-level simulation but the pre-layout simulation can not calculate the circuit speed precisely. The results for post-layout gate-level simulation will be worse than the results shown in former.

Tab. 4.1 compares our design with other proposed paper. [14] implements the SBox using Look-up-Table. [13] uses composite field arithmetic to implement the SBox. Our design is 2-stage pipelined. The throughput in 128 bit-key length is 1.82Gbps.



Figure 4.1 ASIC design flow

	Kuo [14]	Lai [15]	Horng [13]	Ours
Technology	0.18	0.25	0.18	0.18
Clock rate (MHz)	154	125	125	150
Gate count	173K	80K	67.9K	47.5K
Throughput (Gbps	1.6	1.454	1.6	1.82
Pipeline stage	1	6	1	2
Key Size	All	128	All	All
Function	Е	E/D	E/D	Е

And Tab. 4.2 compares S⁺Core with AES-128 encryption accelerator and S⁺Core

without AES-128 encryption accelerator. Tab. 4.2 shows the time we need to encrypt the first data. We don't need to spend so much time calculating data as before did.

S ⁺ Core (without accelerator)	3329 cycles
S ⁺ Core (with accelerator)	206 cycles

Table 4.2The comparison of S^+ Core with accelerator and not

4.2 FPGA Verification

Figure 4.2 illustrates the FPGA design and testing flow in contrast to the ASIC design flow. Besides the RTL simulation, we also verified our design by using Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA). Our design is implemented in S⁺Core, and the operation clock rate is about 33MHz. Tab. 4.3 shows the hardware utilization of our design.



Figure 4.2 FPGA design flow

Table 4.3The hardware utilization on S+Core

Device	S ⁺ Core
Number of Slice Flip-Flops	20801/93184 (22%)
Number of 4 Input LUT	62400/93184 (66%)
clcok rate	33MHz

Chapter 5 Conclusions

First, we have proposed an efficient AES design supported 128, 192, and 256 bits key length. Because of our real time variable KeyGenerator, we don't need to store all round keys. We only need 10% storage area than others. Second, by implementing the multiplicative inverter in composite field, the area cost can be smaller then that in Look-up-table (LUT). The whole design area can be also reduced by sharing the hardware for encryption and decryption. We also proposed an AES accelerator for 32-bit Embedded Processors. Third, we extend the instruction set of the processor. Because of that, we only need less than 300 cycle count. The processor without accelerator needs over 3000 cycle count to process AES encryption. We speed up 10 times by our design. Besides, from the analysis of various instruction schedules, the 2-stage pipelined architecture is suitable and efficient for most schedules. The total gate count is about 47.5K gates, and maximal throughput is about 1.82Gbps with UMC 0.18 μ m process.

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