

3: Finite Fields

Some Mathematical Foundations You Need to Remember

Goals:

- Recall basic algebraic structures
- Focus on finite fields of the form $\text{GF}(2^n)$
- Arithmetic over $\text{GF}(2^n)$
- Including the Gray-Code “trick” used in PMAC

Semi-Groups and Groups

We define:

- A non-empty set S
- An operation $'+'$: For all $a, b \in S : a + b \in S$
- $(S, +)$ is a **semi-group** iff it is **associative**:

$$\text{For all } a, b, c \in S : \quad a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c.$$

- A semi-group $(S, +)$ is a **monoid** iff there exists a **neutral element** $z \in S$:

$$\text{For all } a \in S : \quad a + z = z + a = a.$$

- A monoid $(S, +)$ is a **group** iff there exists an **inverse element**:

$$\text{For all } a \in S, \text{ there exists } \bar{a} \in S : \quad a + \bar{a} = z.$$

- A (semi-)group $(S, +)$ is **commutative** iff it holds:

$$\text{For all } a, b \in S : \quad a + b = b + a.$$

Semi-Groups and Groups: Examples

- $(\mathbb{Z}, -)$: No semi-group (not associative)
- $(\mathbb{N}, +)$: Only semi-group (no 0)
- $(\mathbb{N}_0, +)$: Only monoid (no inverse elements)
- $(\mathbb{Z}, *)$: Only monoid (no inverse elements)
- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$: Group
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$: Group
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, *)$: Only monoid (no inverse element for 0)
- In general: $(\mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\}, *)$ is a group $\Leftrightarrow n$ is prime

Rings and Fields

(S a non-empty set with two operations “+” and “*”)

- $(S, +, *)$ is a **ring** iff
 - $(S, +)$ is a commutative group,
 - $(S, *)$ is a semi-group, and
 - the **distributive law** holds: $\forall a, b, c \in S :$

$$a * (b + c) = a * b + a * c, \quad \text{and} \quad (a + b) * c = (a * c) + (b * c)$$

- A ring $(S, +, *)$ is a **field** iff $(S \setminus \{0\}, *)$ is a group

Examples:

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$: Ring, but no field.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, *)$: (Finite) Ring.
- $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +, *)$: (Finite) Field \Leftrightarrow (n is prime).

(If $n = pq$, then $a = kp$ is a “zero-divisor”, since $aq = kn \equiv 0$.)

Polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_2

- Unknown “ x ”
- Powers of x
- Coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_2 ; can be respresented as 0 or 1
- Examples:
 - 0
 - 1
 - x
 - $x + 1$
 - x^6
 - $x^6 + x + 1 = 1x^6 + 0x^5 + 0x^4 + 0x^3 + 0x^2 + 1x^1 + 1x^0$

Polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_2 (2)

- Examples: $0, 1, x, x + 1, x^6, x^6 + x + 1, \dots$
- **Addition of coefficients is mod 2:**

$$0 + 0 = 1 + 1 = 0$$

$$0 + 1 = 1 + 0 = 1$$

- **Subtraction: same as addition**
- Both **addition** and **subtraction** are the same as the **logical xor**
(We could replace both “+” and “-” by XOR: “ \oplus ”)
- **Multiplication** of coefficients is the same as the **logical and**:

$$(a * b = 1) \Leftrightarrow (a = b = 1)$$

- Ring of polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_2 , with the following operations:
 - Polynomial addition, e.g., $(x + 1) + x = 2x + 1 = 1$
 - Polynomial multiplication, e.g., $(x + 1) * x = x^2 + x$

Modular Polynomial Arithmetic

- First choose irreducible polynomial over \mathbb{Z}_2 , e.g, $P = x^3 + x + 1$
- Consider all polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_2 , modulo P
- Example $(x^2 + x + 1) * (x^2 + 1) \pmod{P}$:

$$\begin{aligned}(x^2 + x + 1) * (x^2 + 1) &\equiv (x^4 + x^3 + x^2) + (x^2 + x + 1) \\ &\equiv x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ &\equiv x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 - xP \\ &\equiv x^3 + x^2 + 1 \\ &\equiv x^3 + x^2 + 1 - P \\ &\equiv \underline{\underline{x^2 + x}}\end{aligned}$$

Natural Representation

The set of polynomials mod $P = x^3 + x + 1$ can be represented by the following **eight** polynomials, which are distinct (mod P):

- 0
- 1
- x
- $x + 1$
- x^2
- $x^2 + 1$
- $x^2 + x$
- $x^2 + x + 1$

We refer to this as $\text{GF}(2^3)$. This is a field with eight elements.

The Field $\text{GF}(2^3)$

- $\text{GF}(2^3)$ is a field.
- Consider the equation

$$ab + c = d$$

- Given a , b , and c , there is a unique solution for d .
- Given a , b , and d , there is a unique solution for c :

$$c = d - ab$$

- Given c , d and nonzero a or nonzero b , there is a unique solution for b resp a :

$$a = \frac{d - c}{b}, \quad b = \frac{d - c}{a}.$$

- If a or b are nonzero, their multiplicative inverse is well-defined. I.e., we can actually divide by a nonzero a or b .

The Ring \mathbb{Z}_8

- Just like \mathbb{Z}_8 has eight distinct elements, which can be represented by $\{0, 1, \dots, 7\}$.
- But consider the following equations:

$$a * 2 + 0 = 1, \quad a * 2 + 0 = 2, \quad a * 4 + 0 = 2.$$

The first has no solutions, the second two: ($a = 3$ and $a = 7$), and the third has four solutions ($a \in \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$).

- The multiplicative inverse of 2 (or any even number) in \mathbb{Z}_2 is undefined.
- $\implies \mathbb{Z}_8$ is not a field.
- \mathbb{Z}_8 is still a ring.

On the Choice of the Modulus P

- Apart from P , there exists another irreducible degree-3 polynomial over $GF(2)$: $P' = x^3 + x^2 + 1$.
- Polynomial arithmetic modulo P' forms a field, as well.
- Nevertheless, mathematicians consider both as forming *the same field*, since both fields are *isomorphic*.
- This “single” field is denoted $GF(2^3)$.

On the Choice of the Modulus P (2)

- Consider another polynomial, say $P'' = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$.
- P'' is reducible: $P'' = (x^2 + 1)(x + 1)$.
- The factors $x + 1$ and $x^2 + 1$ of P'' are zero-divisors mod P'' .
- Zero-divisors don't have multiplicative inverses. Consider $a, b \neq 0$ with $a * b = 0$ and assume inverses a^{-1} and b^{-1} :

$$a * a^{-1} * b * b^{-1} = 1 * 1 = 1,$$

but $a * a^{-1} * b * b^{-1} =$

$$a * b * a^{-1} * b^{-1} = 0 * a^{-1} * b^{-1} = 0.$$

- Thus, polynomial arithmetic modulo a reducible P'' does not form a field.

Representing Polynomials as Binary-Code Words

Recall the eight distinct polynomials in $\text{GF}(2^3)$, and think of each x^i (including x^0) as the place-holder for one bit.

You can represent the polynomials as 3-bit strings:

- $000 = 0$
- $001 = 1$
- $010 = x$
- $011 = x + 1$
- $100 = x^2$
- $101 = x^2 + 1$
- $110 = x^2 + x$
- $111 = x^2 + x + 1$

Known Results from Mathematics

- For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a field $\text{GF}(2^n)$ exists.
- $\text{GF}(2^n)$ has distinct 2^n elements, which can be represented
 - by the polynomials of degree $n - 1$ or smaller, or
 - by bit-strings of length n .
- Arithmetic over $\text{GF}(2^n)$ is determined by an irreducible polynomial of degree n .
- Regardless of the polynomial, all instances of $\text{GF}(2^n)$ are *isomorphic* (for fixed n , i.e., from the mathematical point of view, there exists exactly one field $\text{GF}(2^n)$).
- These results generalize: For every prime p , up to isomorphism, there exists exactly one field $\text{GF}(p^n)$ with p^n distinct elements.

Polynomial Addition

- In general, adding polynomials is done by adding the individual coefficients, e.g. $(x^2 + 1) + (x^2 + x) = 2x^2 + x + 1$.
- For polynomials over $\text{GF}(2^n)$, the coefficients are in \mathbb{Z}_2 , e.g., $(x^2 + 1) + (x^2 + x) = x + 1$.
- Thus, polynomial addition and subtraction of polynomials of (max.) degree $n - 1$ are the same as the bit-wise xor of n -bit strings, e.g. $101 \oplus 110 = 011$.

Multiply a Polynomial by a Monomial

Compute $p * x^i$

- A monomial is an expression of the form x^i .
- Each nonzero polynomial is the sum of one or more monomials.
- The multiplication $p * x^i$ of a polynomial p with a monomial x^i is the same as replacing each monomial x^ℓ in p by $x^{i+\ell}$. Example:

$$(x^2 + 1) * x = x^3 + x.$$

- This is the same as shifting p to the left by i times (or as “multiplying” p by 2^i). Examples:

$$101 * 001 = 101,$$

$$101 * 010 = 1010,$$

$$101 * 100 = 10100.$$

Multiply a Polynomial by Another Polynomial

compute $p * q$

- If $q = 0$, then $p * q = 0$.
- Otherwise, the polynomial q is the sum of one or more monomials, e.g., $q = x^i + x^j + x^k$, and then

$$p * q = p * (x^i + x^j + x^k) = p * x^i + p * x^j + p * x^k$$

(thanks to the distributive law).

- Thus, to compute the product $p * q$ of two polynomials in general
 - sum := 0
 - for all monomials x^i of q :
 - sum := sum + $p * x^i$
 - return sum

- Example:

$$101 * 111 = 10100 + 1010 + 101 = 11011.$$

Efficient Computations mod p

- Let p be a polynomial of degree n .
- Efficiently compute $(a + b) \bmod p$:
 - If a and b are natural representants, i.e., are of degree $\leq n - 1$, then $a + b$ is also of degree $\leq n - 1$.
- Efficiently compute $(a * b) \bmod p$:
 - Consider multiplication by 2:

$$T := \begin{cases} T * 2 & \text{if } T*2 \text{ is of degree } \leq n - 1 \\ T * 2 - p & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Thus, T will always have degree $\leq n - 1$.
- Example: $(x^2 + 1) * (x^2 + x + 1) \bmod P$, for $P = x^3 + x + 1 = 1011$:

$$\begin{aligned} 101 * 111 &\equiv 101 * 4 + 101 * 2 + 101 \\ &\equiv (1010 \bmod P) * 2 + (1010 \bmod P) + 101 \\ &\equiv (1010 - 1011) * 2 + (1010 - 1011) + 1 \\ &\equiv 001 * 2 + 001 + 101 \\ &\equiv 010 + 001 + 101 = 110 = x^2 + x^1 \end{aligned}$$

The Gray-Code Trick

- Recall that the hamming difference between g_{i-1} and g_i is exactly one, i.e., there exists some x_j , such that $g_{i-1} \oplus g_i = x_j$.
- Then, given $g_{i-1} * L$, it is easy to compute

$$\begin{aligned}g_i * L &= g_{i-1} * L \oplus x^i * L \\ &= g_{i-1} * L \oplus L * 2^i.\end{aligned}$$

- Thus, if we precompute $L, L * 2, L * 4, \dots$, going from $g_{i-1} * L$ to $g_i * L$ costs a single addition over $\text{GF}(2^n)$ (i.e., one n -bit xor).