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## 4.6. Finite Fields Of the Form $\text{GF}(2^n)$

Earlier in this chapter, we mentioned that the order of a finite field must be of the form  $p^n$  where  $p$  is a prime and  $n$  is a positive integer. In [Section 4.4](#), we looked at the special case of finite fields with order  $p$ . We found that, using modular arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , all of the axioms for a field ([Figure 4.1](#)) are satisfied. For polynomials over  $p^n$ , with  $n > 1$ , operations modulo  $p^n$  do not produce a field. In this section, we show what structure satisfies the axioms for a field in a set with  $p^n$  elements, and concentrate on  $\text{GF}(2^n)$ .

### Motivation

Virtually all encryption algorithms, both symmetric and public key, involve arithmetic operations on integers. If one of the operations that is used in the algorithm is division, then we need to work in arithmetic defined over a field. For convenience and for implementation efficiency, we would also like to work with integers that fit exactly into a given number of bits, with no wasted bit patterns. That is, we wish to work with integers in the range 0 through  $2^n - 1$ , which fit into an  $n$ -bit word.

Suppose we wish to define a conventional encryption algorithm that operates on data 8 bits at a time and we wish to perform division. With 8 bits, we can represent integers in the range 0 through 255. However, 256 is not a prime number, so that if arithmetic is performed in  $\mathbb{Z}_{256}$  (arithmetic modulo 256), this set of integers will not be a field. The closest prime number less than 256 is 251. Thus, the set  $\mathbb{Z}_{251}$ , using arithmetic modulo 251, is a field. However, in this case the 8-bit patterns representing the integers 251 through 255 would not be used, resulting in inefficient use of storage.

As the preceding example points out, if all arithmetic operations are to be used, and we wish to represent a full range of integers in  $n$  bits, then arithmetic modulo will not work; equivalently, the set of integers modulo  $2^n$ , for  $n > 1$ , is not a field. Furthermore, even if the encryption algorithm uses only addition and multiplication, but not division, the use of the set  $Z_{2^n}$  is questionable, as the following example illustrates.

Suppose we wish to use 3-bit blocks in our encryption algorithm, and use only the operations of addition and multiplication. Then arithmetic modulo 8 is well defined, as shown in [Table 4.1](#). However, note that in the multiplication table, the nonzero integers do not appear an equal number of times. For example, there are only four occurrences of 3, but twelve occurrences of 4. On the other hand, as was mentioned, there are finite fields of the form  $GF(2^n)$  so there is in particular a finite field of order  $2^3 = 8$ . Arithmetic for this field is shown in [Table 4.5](#). In this case, the number of occurrences of the nonzero integers is uniform for multiplication. To summarize,

Integer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Occurrences in $Z_8$	4	8	4	12	4	8	4
Occurrences in $GF(2^3)$	7	7	7	7	7	7	7

**Table 4.5. Arithmetic in  $GF(2^3)$**   
(This item is displayed on page 121 in the print version)

[\[View full size image\]](#)

		000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
	+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
000	0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
001	1	1	0	3	2	5	4	7	6
010	2	2	3	0	1	6	7	4	5
011	3	3	2	1	0	7	6	5	4
100	4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
101	5	5	4	7	6	1	0	3	2
110	6	6	7	4	5	2	3	0	1
111	7	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

(a) Addition

		000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
	×	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001	1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
010	2	0	2	4	6	3	1	7	5
011	3	0	3	6	5	7	4	1	2
100	4	0	4	3	7	6	2	5	1
101	5	0	5	1	4	2	7	3	6
110	6	0	6	7	1	5	3	2	4
111	7	0	7	5	2	1	6	4	3

(b) Multiplication

$w$	$-w$	$w^{-1}$
0	0	—
1	1	1
2	2	5
3	3	6
4	4	7
5	5	2
6	6	3
7	7	4

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverses

For the moment, let us set aside the question of how the matrices of [Table 4.5](#) were constructed and instead make some observations.

1. The addition and multiplication tables are symmetric about the main diagonal, in conformance to the commutative property of addition and multiplication. This property is also exhibited in [Table 4.1](#), which uses mod 8 arithmetic.
2. All the nonzero elements defined by [Table 4.5](#) have a multiplicative inverse, unlike the case with [Table 4.1](#).
3. The scheme defined by [Table 4.5](#) satisfies all the requirements for a finite field. Thus, we can refer to this scheme as  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ .
4. For convenience, we show the 3-bit assignment used for each of the elements of  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ .

Intuitively, it would seem that an algorithm that maps the integers unevenly onto themselves might be cryptographically weaker than one that provides a uniform mapping. Thus, the finite fields of the form  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  are attractive for cryptographic algorithms.

To summarize, we are looking for a set consisting of  $2^n$  elements, together with a definition of addition and multiplication over the set that define a field. We can assign a unique integer in the range 0 through  $2^n - 1$  to each element of the set. Keep in mind that we will not use modular arithmetic, as we have seen that this does not result in a field. Instead, we will show how polynomial arithmetic provides a means for constructing the desired field.

## Modular Polynomial Arithmetic

Consider the set  $S$  of all polynomials of degree  $n - 1$  or less over the field  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . Thus, each polynomial has the form

$$f(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$$

where each  $a_i$  takes on a value in the set  $\{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$ . There are a total of  $p^n$  different polynomials in  $S$ .

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For  $p = 3$  and  $n = 2$ , the  $3^2 = 9$  polynomials in the set are

0	$x$	$2x$
1	$x + 1$	$2x + 1$
2	$x + 2$	$2x + 2$

For  $p = 2$  and  $n = 3$ , the  $2^3 = 8$  the polynomials in the set are

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

With the appropriate definition of arithmetic operations, each such set  $S$  is a finite field. The definition consists of the following elements:

1. Arithmetic follows the ordinary rules of polynomial arithmetic using the basic rules of algebra, with the following two refinements.
2. Arithmetic on the coefficients is performed modulo  $p$ . That is, we use the rules of arithmetic for the finite field  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

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3. If multiplication results in a polynomial of degree greater than  $n - 1$ , then the polynomial is reduced modulo some irreducible polynomial  $m(x)$  of degree  $n$ . That is, we divide by  $m(x)$  and keep the remainder. For a polynomial  $f(x)$ , the remainder is expressed as  $r(x) = f(x) \bmod m(x)$ .

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) uses arithmetic in the finite field  $\text{GF}(2^8)$ , with the irreducible polynomial  $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ . Consider the two polynomials  $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$  and  $g(x) = x^7 + x + 1$ . Then

$$f(x) + g(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1 + x^7 + x + 1$$

$$f(x) \times g(x) = x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 +$$

$$x^7 + x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x +$$

$$x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$$

$$= x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + 1$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1} \\
 \underline{x^{13} \phantom{+ x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^5} + x^9 + x^8 \phantom{+ x^7 + x^6 + x^5} + x^6 + x^5} \\
 x^{11} \phantom{+ x^9 + x^8} + x^4 + x^3 \\
 \underline{x^{11} \phantom{+ x^9 + x^8} + x^7 + x^6 \phantom{+ x^5} + x^4 + x^3} \\
 x^7 + x^6 \phantom{+ x^5} + 1
 \end{array}$$

Therefore,  $f(x) \times g(x) \bmod m(x) = x^7 + x^6 + 1$ .

As with ordinary modular arithmetic, we have the notion of a set of residues in modular polynomial arithmetic. The set of residues modulo  $m(x)$ , an  $n$ th-degree polynomial, consists of  $p^n$  elements. Each of these elements is represented by one of the  $p^n$  polynomials of degree  $m < n$ .

The residue class  $[x + 1]$ , modulo  $m(x)$ , consists of all polynomials  $a(x)$  such that  $a(x) \in (x + 1) \pmod{m(x)}$ . Equivalently, the residue class  $[x + 1]$  consists of all polynomials  $a(x)$  that satisfy the equality  $a(x) \bmod m(x) = x + 1$ .

It can be shown that the set of all polynomials modulo an irreducible  $n$ th-degree polynomial  $m(x)$  satisfies the axioms in [Figure 4.1](#), and thus forms a finite field. Furthermore, all finite fields of a given order are isomorphic; that is, any two finite-field structures of a given order have the same structure, but the representation, or labels, of the elements may be different.

To construct the finite field  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ , we need to choose an irreducible polynomial of degree 3. There are only two such polynomials:  $(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$  and  $(x^3 + x + 1)$ . Using the latter, [Table 4.6](#) shows the addition and multiplication tables for  $\text{GF}(2^3)$ . Note that this set of

tables has the identical structure to those of [Table 4.5](#). Thus, we have succeeded in finding a way to define a field of order  $2^3$ .

## Table 4.6. Polynomial Arithmetic Modulo $(x^3 + x + 1)$

(This item is displayed on page 124 in the print version)

[\[View full size image\]](#)

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

(a) Addition

		000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
	$\times$	0	1	$x$	$x + 1$	$x^2$	$x^2 + 1$	$x^2 + x$	$x^2 + x + 1$
000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001	1	0	1	$x$	$x + 1$	$x^2$	$x^2 + 1$	$x^2 + x$	$x^2 + x + 1$
010	$x$	0	$x$	$x^2$	$x^2 + x$	$x + 1$	1	$x^2 + x + 1$	$x^2 + 1$
011	$x + 1$	0	$x + 1$	$x^2 + x$	$x^2 + 1$	$x^2 + x + 1$	$x^2$	1	$x$
100	$x^2$	0	$x^2$	$x + 1$	$x^2 + x + 1$	$x^2 + x$	$x$	$x^2 + 1$	1
101	$x^2 + 1$	0	$x^2 + 1$	1	$x^2$	$x$	$x^2 + x + 1$	$x + 1$	$x^2 + x$
110	$x^2 + x$	0	$x^2 + x$	$x^2 + x + 1$	1	$x^2 + 1$	$x + 1$	$x$	$x^2$
111	$x^2 + x + 1$	0	$x^2 + x + 1$	$x^2 + 1$	$x$	1	$x^2 + x$	$x^2$	$x + 1$

(b) Multiplication

## Finding the Multiplicative Inverse

Just as the Euclidean algorithm can be adapted to find the greatest common divisor of two polynomials, the extended Euclidean algorithm can be adapted to find the multiplicative inverse of a polynomial. Specifically, the algorithm will

find the multiplicative inverse of  $b(x)$  modulo  $m(x)$  if the degree of  $b(x)$  is less than the degree of  $m(x)$  and  $\gcd[m(x), b(x)] = 1$ . If  $m(x)$  is an irreducible polynomial, then it has no factor other than itself or 1, so that  $\gcd[m(x), b(x)] = 1$ . The algorithm is as follows:

```

EXTENDED EUCLID[ $m(x)$ ,  $b(x)$ ]
1. [ $A1(x)$ ,  $A2(x)$ ,  $A3(x)$ ]  $\leftarrow$  [ $1$ ,  $0$ ,  $m(x)$ ]; [ $B1(x)$ ,  $B2(x)$ ,
    $B3(x)$ ]  $\leftarrow$  [ $0$ ,  $1$ ,  $b(x)$ ]
2. if  $B3(x) = 0$  return  $A3(x) = \gcd[m(x), b(x)]$ ; no
   inverse
3. if  $B3(x) = 1$  return  $B3(x) = \gcd[m(x), b(x)]$ ;
    $B2(x) = b(x)^{-1} \bmod m(x)$ 
4.  $Q(x) = \text{quotient of } A3(x)/B3(x)$ 
5. [ $T1(x)$ ,  $T2(x)$ ,  $T3(x)$ ]  $\leftarrow$  [ $A1(x) - Q(x)B1(x)$ ,  $A2(x) -$ 
    $Q(x)B2(x)$ ,  $A3(x) - QB3(x)$ ]
6. [ $A1(x)$ ,  $A2(x)$ ,  $A3(x)$ ]  $\leftarrow$  [ $B1(x)$ ,  $B2(x)$ ,  $B3(x)$ ]
7. [ $B1(x)$ ,  $B2(x)$ ,  $B3(x)$ ]  $\leftarrow$  [ $T1(x)$ ,  $T2(x)$ ,  $T3(x)$ ]
8. goto 2

```

Table 4.7 shows the calculation of the multiplicative inverse of  $(x^7 + x + 1) \bmod (x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$ . The result is that  $(x^7 + x + 1)^{-1} = (x^7)$ . That is,  $(x^7 + x + 1)(x^7) \equiv 1 \pmod{(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)}$ .

**Table 4.7. Extended Euclid  $[(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1), (x^7 + x + 1)]$**   
 (This item is displayed on page 125 in the print version)

Initialization	$A1(x) = 1$ ; $A2(x) = 0$ ; $A3(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ $B1(x) = 0$ ; $B2(x) = 1$ ; $B3(x) = x^7 + x + 1$
Iteration 1	$Q(x) = x$ $A1(x) = 0$ ; $A2(x) = 1$ ; $A3(x) = x^7 + x + 1$ $B1(x) = 1$ ; $B2(x) = x$ ; $B3(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$
Iteration 2	$Q(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$ $A1(x) = 1$ ; $A2(x) = x$ ; $A3(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$ $B1(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$ ; $B2(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ ; $B3(x)$



	$= x$
Iteration 3	$Q(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x$ $A1(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1; A2(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x + 1; A3(x) = x$ $B1(x) = x^6 + x^2 + x + 1; B2(x) = x^7; B3(x) = 1$
Iteration 4	$B3(x) = \gcd[(x^7 + x + 1), (x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)] = 1$ $B2(x) = (x^7 + x + 1)^1 \bmod (x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1) = x^7$

## Computational Considerations

A polynomial  $f(x)$  in  $\text{GF}(2^n)$

$$f(x) = a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_{n-2}x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$$

can be uniquely represented by its  $n$  binary coefficients  $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\dots a_0)$ . Thus, every polynomial in  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  can be represented by an  $n$ -bit number.

[Tables 4.5](#) and [4.6](#) show the addition and multiplication tables for  $\text{GF}(2^3)$  modulo  $m(x) = (x^3 + x + 1)$ . [Table 4.5](#) uses the binary representation, and [Table 4.6](#) uses the polynomial representation.

## Addition

We have seen that addition of polynomials is performed by adding corresponding coefficients, and, in the case of polynomials over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  addition is just the XOR operation. So, addition of two polynomials in  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  corresponds to a bitwise XOR operation.

Consider the two polynomials in  $\text{GF}(2^8)$  from our earlier example:  $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$  and  $g(x) = x^7 + x + 1$ .

$$\begin{array}{lll} (x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1) + & = x^7 + x^6 + x^6 + x^4 & \text{(polynomial} \\ (x^7 + x + 1) & + x^2 & \text{notation)} \\ (01010111) \oplus & = (11010100) & \text{(binary notation)} \\ (10000011) & & \\ \{57\} \oplus \{83\} & = \{D4\} & \text{(hexadecimal} \\ & & \text{notation)} \end{array}$$

[7] A basic refresher on number systems (decimal, binary, hexadecimal) can be found at the Computer Science Student Resource Site at [WilliamStallings.com/StudentSupport.html](http://WilliamStallings.com/StudentSupport.html). Here each of two groups of 4 bits in a byte is denoted by a single hexadecimal character, the two characters enclosed in brackets.

## Multiplication

There is no simple XOR operation that will accomplish multiplication in  $\text{GF}(2^n)$

However, a reasonably straightforward, easily implemented technique is available. We will discuss the technique with reference to  $\text{GF}(2^8)$  using  $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ , which is the finite field used in AES. The technique readily generalizes to  $\text{GF}(2^n)$ .

The technique is based on the observation that

### Equation 4-8

$$x^8 \bmod m(x) = [m(x) - x^8] = (x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$$

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A moment's thought should convince you that [Equation \(4.8\)](#) is true; if not, divide it out. In general, in  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  with an  $n$ th-degree polynomial  $p(x)$ , we have  $x^n \bmod p(x) = [p(x) - x^n]$ .

Now, consider a polynomial in  $\text{GF}(2^8)$ , which has the form  $f(x) = b_7x^7 + b_6x^6 + b_5x^5 + b_4x^4 + b_3x^3 + b_2x^2 + b_1x + b_0$ . If we multiply by  $x$ , we have

### Equation 4-9

$$x \times f(x) = (b_7x^8 + b_6x^7 + b_5x^6 + b_4x^5 + b_3x^4 + b_2x^3 + b_1x^2 + b_0x) \bmod m(x)$$

If  $b_7 = 0$ , then the result is a polynomial of degree less than 8, which is already in reduced form, and no further computation is necessary. If  $b_7 = 1$ , then reduction modulo  $m(x)$  is achieved using [Equation \(4.8\)](#):

$$x \times f(x) = (b_6x^7 + b_5x^6 + b_4x^5 + b_3x^4 + b_2x^3 + b_1x^2 + b_0x) + (x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$$

It follows that multiplication by  $x$  (i.e., 00000010) can be implemented as a 1-bit left shift followed by a conditional bitwise XOR with (00011011), which represents  $(x^4 + x^3 + x + 1)$ . To summarize,

## Equation 4-10

$$x \times f(x) = \begin{cases} (b_6b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1b_00) & \text{if } b_7 = 0 \\ (b_6b_5b_4b_3b_2b_1b_00) \oplus (00011011) & \text{if } b_7 = 1 \end{cases}$$

Multiplication by a higher power of  $x$  can be achieved by repeated application of [Equation \(4.10\)](#). By adding intermediate results, multiplication by any constant in  $GF(2^8)$  can be achieved.

In an earlier example, we showed that for  $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$ ,  $g(x) = x^7 + x + 1$ , and  $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ ,  $f(x) \times g(x) \bmod m(x) = x^7 + x^6 + 1$ . Redoing this in binary arithmetic, we need to compute  $(01010111) \times (10000011)$ . First, we determine the results of multiplication by powers of  $x$ :

$$(01010111) \times (00000001) = (10101110)$$

$$(01010111) \times (00000100) = (01011100) \oplus (00011011) = (01000111)$$

$$(01010111) \times (00001000) = (10001110)$$

$$(01010111) \times (00010000) = (00011100) \oplus (00011011) = (00000111)$$

$$(01010111) \times (00100000) = (00001110)$$

$$(01010111) \times (01000000) = (00011100)$$

$$(01010111) \times (10000000) = (00111000)$$

So,

$$(01010111) \times (10000011) = (01010111) \times [(00000001) \times (00000010) \times (10000000)]$$

$$= (01010111) \oplus (10101110) \oplus (00111000) = (11000001)$$

which is equivalent to  $x^7 + x^6 + 1$ .

## Using a Generator

An equivalent technique for defining a finite field of the form  $GF(2^n)$  using the same irreducible polynomial, is sometimes more convenient. To begin, we need two definitions: A **generator**  $g$  of a finite field  $F$  of order  $q$  (contains  $q$  elements) is an element whose first  $q - 1$  powers generate all the nonzero elements of  $F$ . That is, the elements of  $F$  consist of  $0, g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{q-2}$ . Consider a field  $F$  defined by a polynomial  $f(x)$ . An element  $b$  contained in  $F$  is called a **root** of the polynomial if  $f(b) = 0$ . Finally, it can be shown that a root  $g$  of an irreducible polynomial is a generator of the finite field defined on that polynomial.

Let us consider the finite field  $GF(2^3)$ , defined over the irreducible polynomial  $x^3 + x + 1$ , discussed previously. Thus, the generator  $g$  must satisfy  $f(x) = g^3 + g + 1 = 0$ . Keep in mind, as discussed previously, that we need not find a numerical solution to this equality. Rather, we deal with polynomial arithmetic in which arithmetic on the coefficients is performed modulo 2. Therefore, the solution to the preceding equality is  $g^3 = g + 1$ . We now show that  $g$  in fact generates all of the polynomials of degree less than 3. We have the following:

$$g^4 = g(g^3) = g(g + 1) = g^2 + g$$

$$g^5 = g(g^4) = g(g^2 + g) = g^3 + g^2 = g^2 + g + 1$$

$$g^6 = g(g^5) = g(g^2 + g + 1) = g^3 + g^2 + g = g^2 + g + g + 1 = g^2 + 1$$

$$g^7 = g(g^6) = g(g^2 + 1) = g^3 + g = g + g + 1 = 1 = g^0$$

We see that the powers of  $g$  generate all the nonzero polynomials in  $GF(2^3)$ . Also, it should be clear that  $g^k = g^{k \bmod 7}$  for any integer  $k$ . [Table 4.8](#) shows the power representation, as well as the polynomial and binary representations.

**Table 4.8. Generator for GF(2<sup>3</sup>) using  $x^3 + x + 1$**

Power Representation	Polynomial Representation	Binary Representation	Decimal (Hex) Representation
0	0	000	0
$g^0 (= g^7)$	1	001	1
$g^1$	$g$	010	2
$g^2$	$g^2$	100	4
$g^3$	$g + 1$	011	3
$g^4$	$g^2 + g$	110	6
$g^5$	$g^2 + g + 1$	111	7
$g^6$	$g^2 + 1$	101	5

This power representation makes multiplication easy. To multiply in the power notation, add exponents modulo 7. For example,  $g^4 \times g^6 = g^{(10 \bmod 7)} = g^3 = g + 1$ . The same result is achieved using polynomial arithmetic, as follows: we have  $g^4 = g^2 + g$  and  $g^6 = g^2 + 1$ . Then,  $(g^2 + g) \times (g^2 + 1) = g^4 + g^3 + g^2 + 1$ . Next, we need to determine  $(g^4 + g^3 + g^2 + 1) \bmod (g^3 + g + 1)$  by division:

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$$\begin{array}{r}
 g^3 + g^2 + 1 \overline{) g^4 + g^3 + g^2 + g} \\
 \underline{g^4 + \phantom{g^3} + g^2 + g} \phantom{+ 1} \\
 g^3 \phantom{+ g^2 + g} \\
 \underline{g^3 + \phantom{g^2} + g + 1} \\
 g + 1
 \end{array}$$

We get a result of  $g + 1$ , which agrees with the result obtained using the power representation.

[Table 4.9](#) shows the addition and multiplication tables for  $GF(2^3)$  using the power representation. Note that this yields the identical results to the polynomial representation ([Table 4.6](#)) with some of the rows and columns interchanged.

**Table 4.9.  $GF(2^3)$  Arithmetic Using Generator for the Polynomial  $(x^3 + x + 1)$**   
(This item is displayed on page 128 in the print version)

[\[View full size image\]](#)

		000	001	010	100	011	110	111	101
	+	0	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g^3$	$g^4$	$g^5$	$g^6$
000	0	0	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$
001	1	1	0	$g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	$g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2$
010	$g$	$g$	$g + 1$	0	$g^2 + g$	1	$g^2$	$g^2 + 1$	$g^2 + g + 1$
100	$g^2$	$g^2$	$g^2 + 1$	$g^2 + g$	0	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g$	$g + 1$	1
011	$g^3$	$g + 1$	$g$	1	$g^2 + g + 1$	0	$g^2 + 1$	$g^2$	$g^2 + g$
110	$g^4$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2$	$g$	$g^2 + 1$	0	1	$g + 1$
111	$g^5$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + 1$	$g + 1$	$g^2$	1	0	$g$
101	$g^6$	$g^2 + 1$	$g^2$	$g^2 + g + 1$	1	$g^2 + g$	$g + 1$	$g$	0

(a) Addition

		000	001	010	100	011	110	111	101
	$\times$	0	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g^3$	$g^4$	$g^5$	$g^6$
000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001	1	0	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$
010	$g$	0	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	1
100	$g^2$	0	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	1	$g$
011	$g^3$	0	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	1	$g$	$g^2$
110	$g^4$	0	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$
111	$g^5$	0	$g^2 + g + 1$	$g^2 + 1$	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$
101	$g^6$	0	$g^2 + 1$	1	$g$	$g^2$	$g + 1$	$g^2 + g$	$g^2 + g + 1$

(b) Multiplication

In general, for  $GF(2^n)$  with irreducible polynomial  $f(x)$ , determine  $g^n = f(x) g^n$ . Then calculate all of the powers of  $g$  from  $g^{n+1}$  through  $g^{2n-2}$ . The elements of

the field correspond to the powers of  $g$  from through  $g^{2^n-1}$ , plus the value 0. For multiplication of two elements in the field, use the equality  $g^k = g^{k \bmod (2^n-1)}$  for any integer  $k$ .

## Summary

In this section, we have shown how to construct a finite field of order  $2^n$ . Specifically, we defined  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  with the following properties:

1.  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  consists of  $2^n$  elements.
2. The binary operations  $+$  and  $\times$  are defined over the set. The operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division can be performed without leaving the set. Each element of the set other than 0 has a multiplicative inverse.

We have shown that the elements of  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  can be defined as the set of all polynomials of degree  $n-1$  or less with binary coefficients. Each such polynomial can be represented by a unique  $n$ -bit value. Arithmetic is defined as polynomial arithmetic modulo some irreducible polynomial of degree  $n$ . We have also seen that an equivalent definition of a finite field  $\text{GF}(2^n)$  makes use of a generator and that arithmetic is defined using powers of the generator.