

An RSA Encryption Hardware Algorithm using a Single DSP Block and a Single Block RAM on the FPGA

Song Bo, Kensuke Kawakami, Koji Nakano, Yasuaki Ito

Department of Information Engineering
School of Engineering, Hiroshima University
1-4-1 Kagamiyama, Higashi-Hiroshima, Hiroshima, 739-8527, JAPAN

Received: January 31, 2011

Revised: May 20, 2011

Accepted: June 20, 2011

Communicated by Sayaka Kamei

Abstract

The main contribution of this paper is to present an efficient hardware algorithm for RSA encryption/decryption based on Montgomery multiplication. Modern FPGAs have a number of embedded DSP blocks (DSP48E1) and embedded memory blocks (BRAM). Our hardware algorithm supporting 2048-bit RSA encryption/decryption is designed to be implemented using one DSP48E1, one BRAM and few logic blocks (slices) in the Xilinx Virtex-6 family FPGA. The implementation results showed that our RSA module for 2048-bit RSA encryption/decryption runs in 277.26ms. Quite surprisingly, the multiplier in DSP48E1 used to compute Montgomery multiplication works in more than 97% clock cycles over all clock cycles. Hence, our implementation is close to optimal in the sense that it has only less than 3% overhead in multiplication and no further improvement is possible as long as Montgomery multiplication based algorithm is used. Also, since our circuit uses only one DSP48E1 block and one Block RAM, we can implement a number of RSA modules in an FPGA that can work in parallel to attain high throughput RSA encryption/decryption.

Keywords: Modular exponentiation, Montgomery multiplication, FPGA, RSA, DSP

1 Introduction

RSA [9] is one of the most widely used public key cryptography, which can be done by computing modulo exponentiation such as $C = P^E \bmod M$. The security of the RSA cryptosystem is based on the problem of factoring large numbers problem. An RSA operation is a modular exponentiation, which requires repeated modular multiplications. For security reasons, greater than 1024-bit length of keys are suggested recently, which leads to a huge time consumption. Therefore, Montgomery Modular Multiplication algorithm [7] is proposed as the most efficient modular multiplication algorithm available. Most of literatures have reported to implement RSA by Montgomery Multiplication such as [2, 3, 11]. With Montgomery Multiplication algorithm, trial division can be replaced by the modulus with a series of additions and shift operations.

An FPGA is a programmable logic device designed to be configured by the customer or designer by hardware description language after manufacturing. Since FPGA chip maintains relative lower price and programmable features, it is widely used in those fields which need to update architecture

or functions frequently such as communication and education. The most common FPGA architecture consists of an array of logic blocks, I/O pads, Block RAMs and routing channels. Recent FPGAs have embedded microprocessors to broaden a growing range of other areas. A recent trend has been to take the coarse-grained architectural approach by combining the logic blocks and interconnects of them. Furthermore, embedded DSP blocks have integrated into an FPGA that makes a higher performance and a broader application.

The main contribution of this paper is to present an efficient hardware algorithm of modular exponentiation, maximized making use of the DSP blocks in our target FPGA, Xilinx Virtex-6 family. Our hardware algorithm requires only one DSP block, as well as one Block RAM with a small quantity of logic blocks. A multiplier in the DSP block works in more than 90% over all the clock cycles. From 64-bit, up to 2048-bit RSA encryption/decryption can be applied in the same architecture without any modification.

Our modular exponentiation algorithm implemented in Xilinx Virtex-6 family FPGA XC6VLX240T-1 uses only one DSP48E1 Block, one Block RAM, and few logic blocks (slices). The implementation results showed that our RSA module for 2048-bit RSA encryption/decryption runs in 447.027MHz using 123940864 clock cycles, that is, in 277.26ms. Quite surprisingly, Montgomery multiplication based RSA encryption/decryption needs 120434688 times of 17-bit multiplication, and thus, a multiplier in DSP48E1 is used in more than 97% clock cycles over all clock cycles. Hence our implementation is close to optimal in the sense that it has only less than 3% overhead and no further improvement is possible as long as Montgomery multiplication based algorithm is used. For the comparison purpose, our circuit also implemented in obsolete generation Xilinx Virtex-5 and Virtex-4 FPGA. Also, since our circuit uses only one DSP48E1 block and one Block RAM, we can implement a number of RSA modules in an FPGA that work in parallel to attain high throughput RSA encryption/decryption. Actually, we have implemented 128 RSA encryption/decryption circuits to improve the throughput greatly.

The remaining contents of this paper are organized as follows. Section 2 introduces modular exponentiation and Montgomery modular multiplication algorithm and its relative researches. Section 3 describes our proposed hardware algorithm and its architecture. Section 4 gives the experimental result, its analysis and comparisons with relative literatures. Finally, Section 5 is a brief conclusion.

2 Modular Exponentiation

In the RSA encryption/decryption, the modular exponentiation $C = P^E \bmod M$ or $P = C^D \bmod M$ are computed, where P and C are plain and cypher text, and (E, M) and (D, M) are encryption and decryption keys. Usually, the bit length in P , D , and M is 512 or larger. Also, the modulo exponentiation is repeatedly computed for fixed E , D , and M , and various P and C . Since modulo operation is very costly in terms of the computing time and hardware resources, *Montgomery modular multiplication* [7] is used, which does not directly compute modulo operation.

2.1 Montgomery Modular Multiplication

Montgomery multiplication [7], introduced in 1985 by Peter Montgomery, is an optimal method to calculate modular exponentiation. Three R -bit numbers X , Y , and M are given, and $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M$ is computed, where an integer q is selected such that the least significant R bits of $X \cdot Y + q \cdot M$ are zero. The value of q can be computed as follows. Let $(-M^{-1})$ denote the minimum non-negative number such that $(-M^{-1}) \cdot M \equiv -1 \pmod{2^R}$. Since M is odd, then $(-M^{-1}) < 2^R$ always holds. We can select q such that $q = ((X \cdot Y) \cdot (-M^{-1})) \ll R$. For such q , $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \ll R$ are zero. For the reader's benefit, we will confirm this fact using an example. Suppose $X = 10010011(147)$, $Y = 01011100(92)$, $M = 11111011(251)$, and $R = 8$. We have the product $X \cdot Y = 011010011010100(13524)$. Next, we need to select an integer q such that the least significant R bits of $X \cdot Y + q \cdot M$ are zero. In this case, $(-M^{-1}) = 11001101(205)$, because $(-M^{-1}) \cdot M \equiv 1100100011111111(51455) \equiv -1 \pmod{2^8}$. Thus $q = (X \cdot Y) \ll R \cdot (-M^{-1}) = 11000100(196)$ is selected. Then the product $q \cdot M = 1100000000101100(49196)$ and the sum $X \cdot Y + q \cdot M = 1111010100000000(62720)$ could be obtained. Now, we have $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \ll R = 00000000$

and $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R} = (X \cdot Y + q \cdot M)[2R - 1, R] = 11110101(245)$. Since $0 \leq X, Y < M < 2^R$ and $0 \leq q < 2^R$, it is guaranteed that $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R} < 2M$. Therefore, by subtracting M from $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R}$, we can obtain $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M$ if it is not less than M .

Radix- 2^r Montgomery multiplication is shown in Algorithm 1. In Algorithm 1, $d = \lceil R/r \rceil$ presents the number of digits in radix- 2^r operands. The multiplier Y is partitioned by each r -bit and Y_i represents the i -th digit of Y . Therefore, Y could be given by $Y = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{ir} \cdot Y_i$. After d loops, R -bit Montgomery multiplication can be computed. As far as now, Montgomery multiplication could be computed by multiplication, addition and shift operations without modulo operations. The later is time cost and resource cost.

- Algorithm 1: radix- 2^r Montgomery Multiplication -

radix- 2^r , $d = \lceil R/r \rceil$, $X, Y, M \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^R - 1\}$,

$Y = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{ir} \cdot Y_i$, $Y_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^r - 1\}$

$(-M^{-1}) \cdot M \equiv -1 \pmod{2^r}$, $-M^{-1} \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^r - 1\}$

Input: $X, Y, M, -M^{-1}$

Output: $S_d = X \cdot Y \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$

1. $S_0 \leftarrow 0$
2. **for** $i = 0$ **to** $d - 1$ **do**
3. $q_i \leftarrow ((S_i + X \cdot Y_i) \cdot (-M^{-1})) \bmod 2^r$
4. $S_{i+1} \leftarrow (X \cdot Y_i + q_i \cdot M + S_i) / 2^r$
5. **end for**
6. **if** $(M \leq S_d)$ **then** $S_d \leftarrow S_d - M$

Since $X \cdot Y + q \cdot M \equiv X \cdot Y \pmod{M}$, we write $(X \cdot Y + q \cdot M) \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M = X \cdot Y \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M$. Let us see how Montgomery modular multiplication is used to compute $C = P^E \bmod M$. Suppose we need to compute $C = P^E \bmod M$. For simplicity, we assume that E is a power of two. Since R and M are fixed, we can assume that $2^{2R} \bmod M$ is computed beforehand. We first compute $P \cdot (2^{2R} \bmod M) \cdot 2^R \bmod M = P \cdot 2^R \bmod M$ using the Montgomery modular multiplication. We then compute the square $(P \cdot 2^R \bmod M) \cdot (P \cdot 2^R \bmod M) \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M = P^2 \cdot 2^R \bmod M$. It should be clear that, by repeating the square computation using the Montgomery modular multiplication, we have $P^E \cdot 2^R \bmod M$. After that, we multiply 1, that is $(P^E \cdot 2^R \bmod M) \cdot 1 \cdot 2^{-R} \bmod M = P^E \bmod M$ is computed. In this way, cypher text C could be obtained.

Algorithm 2 shows the modular exponentiation using Montgomery multiplication of Algorithm 1. In Algorithm 2, E_b represents the size of E . Inputs $2^{2dr} \bmod M$ and $-M^{-1}$ are given. To use Montgomery modular multiplication, C and P are converted from 1 and P in the 1st line and the 2nd line, respectively. The portion underlined in Algorithm 2 can be computed using Montgomery multiplication of Algorithm 1.

- Algorithm 2: Modular Exponentiation -

$0 \leq E \leq 2^{E_b} - 1$, $E = \sum_{i=0}^{E_b-1} 2^i \cdot E_i$, $E_i \in \{0, 1\}$

Input: $P, E, M, -M^{-1}, 2^{2dr} \bmod M$

Output: $C = P^E \bmod M$

1. $C \leftarrow (2^{2dr} \bmod M) \cdot 1 \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$;
2. $P \leftarrow (2^{2dr} \bmod M) \cdot P \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$;
3. **for** $i = E_b - 1$ **downto** 0 **do**
4. $C \leftarrow C \cdot C \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$;
5. **if** $E_i = 1$ **then** $C \leftarrow C \cdot P \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$;
6. **end for**
7. $C \leftarrow C \cdot 1 \cdot 2^{-dr} \bmod M$;

2.2 Related Researches

There are several researches reported to implement modular exponentiation by Montgomery multiplication algorithm. In [4], the number of multiplications and additions, the times of memory access,

and the size of memory necessary to compute Montgomery modular multiplication are evaluated by software implementation. McIvor *et al.* implemented and evaluated three algorithms shown in [4] on FPGAs [6]. Blum and Paar proposed a modular exponentiation hardware algorithm with a radix-2 Montgomery multiplication using systolic array [2]. Also, a radix-2⁴ modular exponentiation circuit that is an extended method of the radix-2 circuit is proposed [3]. The circuits above are fixed for the size of operands. However, the following methods that are independent of the size of operands were proposed. Tenca *et al.* presented a radix-2 scalable Montgomery multiplication architecture [11]. This architecture uses fixed processing elements to deal with variable bit length of operands. Nakano *et al.* presented a radix-2¹⁶ Montgomery multiplier and an RSA encryption hardware algorithm using embedded Block RAMs of an FPGA efficiently [8]. In the algorithm, they use a method to prevent a long carry delay in huge integer addition with redundant number system. Mazzeo *et al.* proposed a small RSA encryption circuit [5]. They compute Montgomery multiplication in Digit-Serial way using Radix-2. Suzuki proposed a high speed modular exponentiation circuit featuring a Xilinx FPGA which contains DSP blocks with radix-2¹⁷ [10]. Several DSP blocks are used to achieve a high operation frequency. Alho *et al.* implemented the modular exponentiation using Altera FPGA with a single DSP block in radix-2¹⁸ [1]. The performance issues of above works will be discussed in Section 4 .

Above literatures introduce methods to implement modular exponentiation in FPGA using Montgomery multiplication featuring radix, device and scalability. In this work, we propose an efficient method to implement modular exponentiation using Xilinx FPGA in radix-2¹⁷. The radix-2¹⁷ is decided by the feature of embedded DSP blocks in our target device.

3 Modular Exponentiation Algorithm with Single DSP Block and Single Block RAM

In our hardware algorithm, we use an embedded DSP block and a Block RAM in Xilinx FPGA. This section mainly shows a Montgomery modular multiplication circuit and a modular exponentiation circuit with it.

3.1 FPGA architecture

Our proposed algorithm is implemented in a Xilinx Virtex-6 family FPGA which is a low-power-cost and high speed device [15]. In this section, features of Virtex-6 are briefly described necessary to explain our hardware algorithm. However, our algorithm can be implemented to other families of Xilinx FPGA; Xilinx Virtex-5 [13] and Virtex-4 [12]. The implementation results will be discussed in Section 4.

The schematic diagram of Virtex-6 FPGA is shown as Figure 1. An FPGA chip is composed by CLBs (Configurable Logic Blocks), which are the basic programmable logic blocks, configurable inner connections and input/output blocks (I/O Blocks). To compensate for processing speed insufficiency of CLBs, Virtex-6 FPGAs have a DSP48E1 block that is a DSP block with a multiplier and an adder, which can perform multiply-accumulate operation in high clock frequency. Also, Virtex-6 FPGAs have a Block RAM to compensate for memory insufficiency of CLBs. In our proposed algorithm, these blocks are used efficiently.

The CLB in Virtex-6 consists of 2 sub-logic blocks called Slice. With the components LUT (Look Up Table) and Flip-Flop in the slice, various combinatorial circuits and sequential circuits can be implemented.

The DSP48E1 block has a two-input multiplier followed by multiplexers and a three-input adder/subtractor/accumulator. The DSP48E1 multiplier has an 18-bit and a 25-bit two's complement operands and produces one 48-bit two's complement operand. Programmable pipelining of input operands, intermediate products, and accumulator outputs enhances throughput and improves the frequency. Our algorithm utilizes a DSP48E1 block using multiply accumulate (MACC) of 17-bit operands. Among the operators of the DSP48E1, since the pipeline registers are used, its latency has been increased. This latency is absorbed by always performing the multiplier in our algorithm.

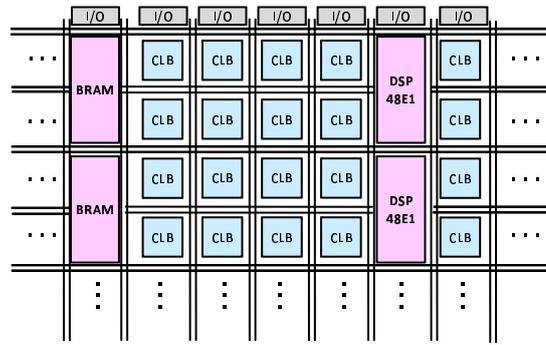


Figure 1: Internal Configuration of Virtex-6 FPGA

The Block RAM is a synchronized write and read embedded memory. In Virtex-6 FPGA, it can be configured as a 36k-bit dual-port Block RAMs, FIFOs, or two 18k-bit dual-port RAMs. In our architecture, it is used as a 1k×18-bit dual-port RAM.

3.2 Montgomery Modular Multiplication Algorithm with Single DSP Block and Single Block RAM

Algorithm 3 shows our proposed algorithm of Montgomery multiplication. Let $\{A : B\}$ denote a concatenation of A and B . For example, if $A = (FF)_{16}$ and $B = (EC)_{16}$, $\{A : B\} = (FFEC)_{16}$. Algorithm 3 is an improved algorithm from Algorithm 1 introduced in Section 2.1. Considering the features of our target Virtex 6 FPGA, radix- 2^{17} is selected. Let R denote the size of Montgomery multiplier operands X , Y , and M . Also, $d = \lceil R/17 \rceil$ is the number of digits of the operands on radix- 2^{17} . In the algorithm, we introduce the condition $17d \geq R + 3$ to ignore the subtraction shown in the 6th line of Algorithm 1. If the condition is satisfied, we can guarantee that at least 3-bit 0 is padded to the most significant bits of the most significant digit as the redundancy. Due to the stringent page limitation, the proof is omitted. However, we can say that $M \geq C$ is always satisfied in the modular exponentiation shown in Algorithm 2. Further, in practical RSA encryption, the size of operands is radix-2 numbers such as 512-bit, 1024-bit, 2048-bit, and 4096-bit. For radix- 2^{17} system, the condition $17d \geq R + 3$ is satisfied. If the condition is not satisfied, we just need to append one redundant digit at the most significant digit.

Algorithm 3 is a radix- 2^{17} digit serial Montgomery algorithm from Algorithm 1. In other words, each 17-bit, as 1 digit, is processed every clock cycle. For this reason, the operands X , Y , M , and S_i are split into 17-bit digits X_j , Y_j , M_j , and $S_{(i,j)}$, respectively. The loop from the 2nd to 11th lines of Algorithm 3 corresponds to the 2nd to 5th lines of Algorithm 1. Comparing the two algorithms, $S_{i+1} \leftarrow (X \cdot Y_i + q_i \cdot M + S_i) / 2^r$ of the 4th line of Algorithm 1 corresponds to the digit serial processing by 4th to 10th lines of Algorithm 3. In Algorithm 3, C_α , C_β , C_γ , and C_S are carries and they are added at the next loop. In the algorithm, C_α, C_β are 17-bit carries for 17-bit MACC, and C_γ, C_S are 1-bit carries for 17-bit addition. For example, at the 6th line a product of X_j and Y_i , and an addition of the product and C_α are computed. The resulting upper 17-bit denotes a carry C_α which can be added at next loop. The lower 17-bit of result is α which is used at the 8th and 9th lines. These carries in our algorithm appear in both the 17-bit MACC and the 17-bit adder to prevent a long carry chain that causes circuit delay.

- Algorithm 3: Our Montgomery Algorithm -
 radix- 2^{17} , $d = \lceil R/17 \rceil, 17d \geq R + 3$,
 $X, Y, M, S_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^R - 1\}$,
 $-M^{-1}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma, C_\alpha, C_\beta \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{17} - 1\}, C_\gamma, C_S \in \{0, 1\}$,
 $X = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{17i} \cdot X_i, X_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{17} - 1\}, X_d = 0$
 $Y = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{17i} \cdot Y_i, Y_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{17} - 1\}$

Table 1: Data Flow of Our Montgomery Multiplier

T(clock)	Multiplier(DSP48E1)	Adder(DSP48E1)	Adder(CLB)
...
k	$X_0 \cdot Y_i$	$\{C_\beta : \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_d + C_\beta$	$\{C_S : S_{(i,d-2)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i-1,d-1)} + C_S$
$k+1$		$X_0 \cdot Y_i + S_{(i,0)}$	$\{C_\gamma : \gamma\} \leftarrow \alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$
$k+2$			$\{C_S : S_{(i,d-1)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i-1,d)} + C_S$
$k+3$	$q \leftarrow (X_0 \cdot Y_i + S_{(i,0)}) \cdot (-M^{-1})$		
$k+4$			
$k+5$			
$k+6$	$X_0 \cdot Y_i$		
$k+7$	$q \cdot M_0$	$\{C_\alpha : \alpha\} \leftarrow X_0 \cdot Y_i + C_\alpha$	
$k+8$	$X_1 \cdot Y_i$	$\{C_\beta : \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_0 + C_\beta$	
$k+9$	$q \cdot M_1$	$\{C_\alpha : \alpha\} \leftarrow X_1 \cdot Y_i + C_\alpha$	$\{C_\gamma : \gamma\} \leftarrow \alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$
$k+10$	$X_2 \cdot Y_i$	$\{C_\beta, \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_1 + C_\beta$	$\{C_S : S_{(i+1,-1)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i,0)} + C_S$
...
$k+2d+6$	$X_d \cdot Y_i$	$\{C_\beta : \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_{(d-1)} + C_\beta$	$\{C_S : S_{(i+1,d-3)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i,d-2)} + C_S$
$k+2d+7$	$q \cdot M_d$	$\{C_\alpha : \alpha\} \leftarrow X_d \cdot Y_i + C_\alpha$	$\{C_\gamma : \gamma\} \leftarrow \alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$
$k+2d+8$	$X_0 \cdot Y_{i+1}$	$\{C_\beta : \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_d + C_\beta$	$\{C_S : S_{(i+1,d-2)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i,d-1)} + C_S$
$k+2d+9$		$X_0 \cdot Y_{i+1} + S_{(i+1,0)}$	$\{C_\gamma : \gamma\} \leftarrow \alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$
$k+2d+10$			$\{C_S : S_{(i+1,d-1)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i,d)} + C_S$
$k+2d+11$	$q \leftarrow (X_0 \cdot Y_{i+1} + S_{(i+1,0)}) \cdot (-M^{-1})$		
$k+2d+12$			
$k+2d+13$			
$k+2d+14$	$X_0 \cdot Y_{i+1}$		
...

$$M = \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 2^{17i} \cdot M_i, M_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{17} - 1\}, M_d = 0$$

$$S_i = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} 2^{17j} \cdot S_{(i,j)}, S_{(i,j)} \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{17} - 1\}, S_d = 0$$

Input: $X, Y, M, -M^{-1}$

Output: $S_d = X \cdot Y \cdot 2^{-17d} \pmod{M}$

1. $S_0 \leftarrow 0$
2. **for** $i = 0$ **to** $d - 1$ **do**
3. $q \leftarrow ((X_0 \cdot Y_i + S_{(i,0)}) \cdot (-M^{-1})) \pmod{2^{17}}$
4. $C_\alpha, C_\beta, C_\gamma, C_S \leftarrow 0$
5. **for** $j = 0$ **to** d **do**
6. $\{C_\alpha : \alpha\} \leftarrow X_j \cdot Y_i + C_\alpha$
7. $\{C_\beta : \beta\} \leftarrow q \cdot M_j + C_\beta$
8. $\{C_\gamma : \gamma\} \leftarrow \alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$
9. $\{C_S : S_{(i+1,j-1)}\} \leftarrow \gamma + S_{(i,j)} + C_S$
10. **end for**
11. **end for**

3.2.1 Architecture of Montgomery Multiplier with Single DSP Block and Single Block RAM

Figure 2 shows the architecture of Montgomery multiplier using Algorithm 3. The inputs of Montgomery multiplier are supplied from a Block RAM and registers of modular exponentiation circuit. Given the inputs, the operations of Algorithm 3 are executed by the MACC composed with one DSP48E1 and one adder composed with CLBs. The data flow of these operations is shown in Table 1.

The computations of the 3rd, 6th and 7th lines are executed with the DSP48E1. In order to obtain q in the 3rd line, $X_0 \cdot Y_0 + S_{(i,0)}$ is obtained first. After that, $(X_0 \cdot Y_i + S_{(i,0)}) \cdot (-M^{-1})$ is computed. According to Table 1, 6 clock cycles are necessary to compute q . In the 6th line, 17-bit multiplication $X_j \cdot Y_i$ is computed and the carry C_α for the digit is added at the same time. The production and the addition are computed using the DSP48E1. After that, the lower 17-bit of the result will be added in the following adder composed by CLB. On the other hand, the upper 17-bit of the result is stored as a carry into the pipeline register and added at the next clock. The 7th line

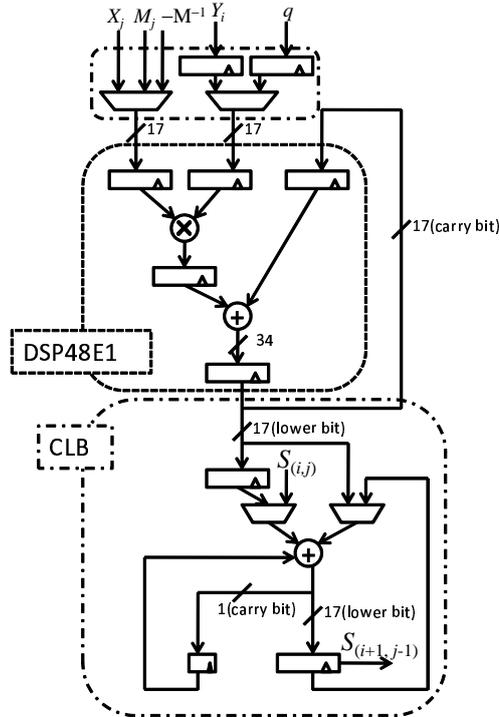


Figure 2: Structure of our Montgomery multiplier

$q \cdot M_j + C_\beta$ is computed as the same as the 6th line using DSP48E1. As shown in Table 1, the sums of products of the 6th and 7th lines in Algorithm 3 are computed by alternate inputs of X_j, Y_i and M_j, q . Since the carries are stored to the pipeline register in the DSP48E1, our circuit is able to be performed efficiently.

The adder, that is composed by CLBs, following the DSP48E1 computes $\alpha + \beta + C_\gamma, \gamma + S_{(i,j)} + C_S$ of the 8th and 9th lines in the Algorithm 3. Since C_γ and C_S are 1-bit carry, they can be computed by a two-input 17-bit adder. The operands $S_{(i,j)}$ comes from the Block RAM, α, β come from DSP48E1 and γ is feedback of $\alpha + \beta + C_\gamma$. The most significant bit of the output is feedback to the adder as carries C_S and C_γ . Also, the lower 17-bit of the output is feedback to the adder, while at the same time $S_{(i+1, j-1)}$ is stored into the Block RAM. These can be computed using registers and multiplexers as shown in Figure 2.

3.2.2 Necessary Clock Cycles

In our algorithm, based on the radix- 2^{17} number system, R -bit operands are split into $d = \lceil R/17 \rceil$ blocks. Let MM_{mul} denote the number of clock cycles to compute the Montgomery multiplication. In [4], the number is computed by the following equation;

$$MM_{mul} = 2d^2 + d \quad (1)$$

The equation means that d^2 multiplications are necessary to compute $X \cdot Y$ and $q \cdot M$, and d multiplications are needed to obtain q .

On the other hand, the number of clock cycles MM_{clk} of our Montgomery algorithm is computed by Equation 2.

$$MM_{clk} = ((d + 1) \cdot 2 + 6) \cdot d + 4 = 2d^2 + 8d + 4 \quad (2)$$

It shows that from the 5th to 10th lines of Algorithm 3, $(d + 1) \cdot 2 + 6$ cycles are necessary for the loop, and d cycles are needed for loop from 2nd to 11th lines. Also, in order to complete the

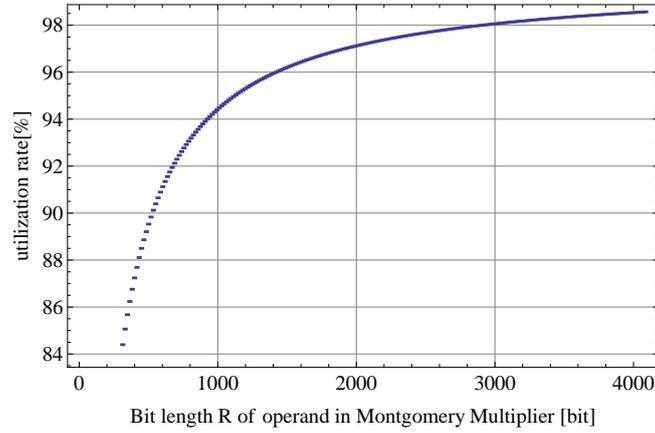


Figure 3: Embedded multiplier utilization rate of our Montgomery multiplier(MM_{mul}/MM_{clk})

computation of operands of the modular exponentiation Montgomery circuit shown in Section 3.3, another 4 cycles are necessary.

Figure 3 shows the utilization rate of the multiplier in our proposed algorithm. From this figure, when the size of operands R is larger than 500-bit, the utilization rate is more than 90%. Also, if the size of operands is 2048-bit, the utilization rate is more than 97%. Since the size of operands should be large in practice, our proposed algorithm is optimal for a single DSP48E1 slice.

3.3 Modular Exponentiation Circuit with Single DSP Block and Single Block RAM

In our modular exponentiation circuit, the modular multiplication shown in Algorithm 2 is applied. In the algorithm, the modular exponentiation $C = P^E \bmod M$ can be computed by iterations of the Montgomery multiplication. The block diagram of our modular exponentiation circuit is shown in Figure 4. The internal configuration of Block RAM is shown in Figure 5. The modular exponentiation circuit consists of MM control circuit and ModExp control circuit. The data flow shown in Table 1 is controlled by MM control circuit, and it supplies the inputs of the multiplier inside of the Montgomery processor. Also, the number of shift for E to decide the inputs of the Montgomery block by ModExp.

The inputs of modular exponentiation are R -bit integers $P, E, M, 2^{2dr} \bmod M$ and 17-bit $-M^{-1}$. The output is R -bit integer C . Also, R -bit S is used to store the interim results of Montgomery multiplier. The storage architecture of a $1k \times 18$ -bit Block RAM is shown as Figure 5. According to the figure, six R -bit memory spaces and one 17-bit memory space are necessary. In our work, in order to simplify the control circuit, 1k address space is used and split into 8 portions as shown in Figure 5. Furthermore, a flag bit is appended as MSB to every 17-bit block to find the end of each data. Considering the condition $d = \lceil R/17 \rceil$ of Algorithm 3, when only one Block RAM is used, the maximum size of operands is $R = 128 \cdot 17 - 3 = 2173$ -bit.

The number of clock cycles necessary to perform modular exponentiation using Algorithm 2 and Montgomery multiplier shown in Section 4 can be calculated by Equation 3 and Equation 4. Equation 3 represents the maximum number of cycles when all the bits of E are 1. Actually it could not happen in practice since E is a prime number, then, the average number of cycles are computed as Equation 4 which represents the condition that $E_b/2$ -bit of E is 1.

$$ME_{clk,max} = (2d^2 + 8d + 4) \cdot (2E_b + 3) \quad (3)$$

$$ME_{clk,avr} = (2d^2 + 8d + 4) \cdot (1.5E_b + 3) \quad (4)$$

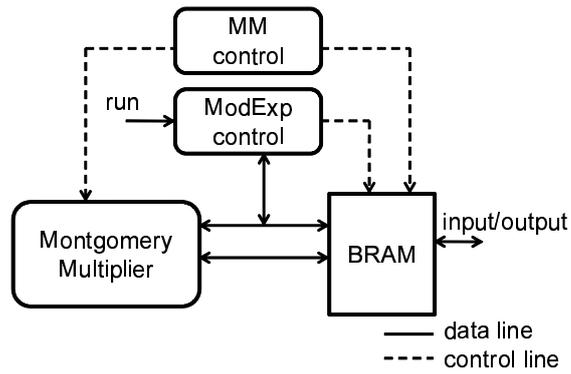


Figure 4: Structure of our modular exponentiator

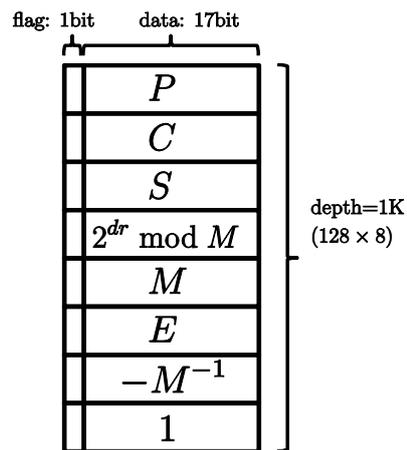


Figure 5: Internal configuration of Block RAM in our modular exponentiator

Table 2: Experimental result of our modular exponentiator using Virtex-6 FPGA

	Virtex-6
Number of occupied Slices	180/301440
Number of 36k-bit BRAMs	1/416
Number of DSP48E1s	1/768
Maximum Frequency[MHz]	447.027

Table 3: Worst-case execution time of our modular exponentiator using Virtex-6 FPGA

Bit length R	64	128	256	512	1024	2048
Blocks d	4	8	16	31	61	121
Frequency[MHz]	447.027	447.027	447.027	447.027	447.027	447.027
Clock cycles	9344	51456	332288	2231296	16259072	123940864
Execution time[ms]	0.02	0.12	0.74	4.99	36.37	277.26

4 Experimental Results and Discussions

The proposed modular exponentiation circuit is implemented and evaluate on Xilinx Virtex-6 FPGA XC6VLX240T-1, programmed by hardware description language Verilog HDL and synthesized with Xilinx ISE Foundation 11.4.

Table 2 shows the synthesized result for the Virtex-6 FPGA. As shown in Section 3.1, Table 2 lists the resource costs. According to the table, the size of our circuit is quite small. Also, since the maximum clock frequency of DSP48E1 is 600MHz, an extremely high frequency can be obtained by our algorithm. Table 3 shows the worst execution time of modular exponentiation based on Equation 3 and Table 2. Any bit length of operands of Modular exponentiation less than 2173-bit can be executed in the same circuit without any modification.

For comparison, our proposed algorithm is also implemented on Xilinx Virtex-5 FPGA XC5VSX50T-1 and Xilinx Virtex-4 FPGA XC4VSX35-10. Virtex-5 FPGA and Virtex-4 FPGA are the previous generations FPGA produced by Xilinx. Comparing with Virtex-6 FPGA, although there are some differences on the programmable logic and DSP block, proposed algorithm can be implemented in these devices using almost the same Verilog code. However, the description for the DSP block should be modified. For Virtex-5 and Virtex-4 FPGAs, their pipeline registers and MACC are also contained in the DSP block, as shown in Figure 6. Thus proposed algorithm can be applied with the same configuration. Table 4 and 5 show the synthesized results. Although it is difficult to compare their performances because of the different structures of these devices, it is obviously shown that our proposed architecture is compatible to all kinds of FPGAs.

There are a number of literatures reported to implement modular exponentiation using FPGAs as described in Section 2.2. Performances such as the device, circuit size, frequency, execution time and scalability of 1024-bit modular exponentiation circuit are compared in Table 6. In the RSA encryption/decryption, the modular exponentiation $C = P^E \bmod M$ is computed, where C and P are cypher/plain text and plain/cypher text, respectively, and (E, M) is an encryption/decryption key. In typical 1024-bit RSA encryption/decryption, the bit length of E and M is approximately 1024. Also, as shown in Equations (3) and (4), execution time depends on the size of E and the number of 1's in E . Execution time denotes the worst case when all the 1024-bit of E are 1. Average case evaluates the execution time corresponding to the average case that a half (512-bit) of 1024-bit of E is 1. Blum *et al.* [3] implemented a high speed modular exponentiation circuit based on radix-2⁴ using Montgomery multiplication. Comparing with proposed algorithm, it is not scalable and too many logic blocks are used without memory blocks or DSP blocks. Nakano *et al.* [8] implemented a modular exponentiation circuit by the redundant number system and LUTs. The scale of the circuit is huge and scalability is not supported. However, the authors have used the embedded Block RAMs and embedded Multipliers to achieve a high speed circuit.

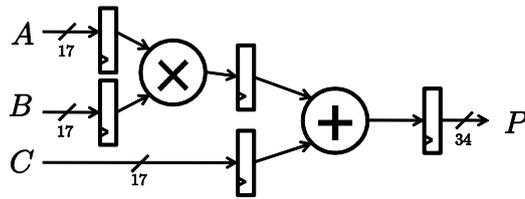


Figure 6: Internal Configuration of DSP48E1 in Our Architecture

Table 4: Experimental result of our modular exponentiator using Virtex-5 FPGA

	Virtex-5
Number of occupied Slices	128/8160
Number of 18k-bit BRAMs	1/132
Number of DSP48Es	1/288
Maximum Frequency[MHz]	362.5

Table 5: Experimental result of our modular exponentiator using Virtex-4 FPGA

	Virtex-4
Number of occupied Slices	251/15360
Number of RAMB16s	1/192
Number of DSP48s	1/192
Maximum Frequency[MHz]	291.4

Suzuki implemented a circuit on Xilinx Virtex-4 FPGA with DSP blocks which is scalable and extremely fast [10]. However, the amount of circuit resources is comparatively larger than in our method: 17 times more DSPs and 21 times larger logic blocks. In order to increase the clock frequency, Suzuki used a pipeline structure whose registers are composed by logic blocks. Mazzeo et al. have shown that radix-2 based Montgomery multiplier can run in Digit-Serial way without memory blocks or DSP blocks [5]. Their circuit has a small scale, however nevertheless about 6 times larger than our circuit. They evaluated the performance using $E = 2^{17} + 1$ (see Table 6), which means that the size of E is only 18 bits long, and that there are only two bits in E set to 1 (the most significant and the least significant ones). Such a small bit length is reasonable for encryption, but safe decryption typically requires lengths around 1024 bits. Under the same $E = 2^{17} + 1$, our method outperforms Mazzeo et al.'s by a factor of 33 times (0.12ms against 3.86ms). Similar to the proposed architecture, Alho et al. implemented modular exponentiation using one DSP block in Digit Serial way [1]. However, their DSP block requires two multipliers, while only one is necessary in our solution. If we had used 2 multipliers, the two multiplications listed in the Algorithm 3 (lines 6 and 7) could have been computed in parallel, thus reducing the computation time. Our method is also faster in the average case, although a direct comparison is difficult due to the fact that Alho et al. used a different FPGA.

Since DSP48E1s and Block RAMs are efficiently used in our circuit, the size of our modular exponentiation circuit is very small. Also, the DSP48E1 works almost all the clock cycles shown in Section 3.2.2. Therefore we have achieved a quality performance with high execution frequency and our architecture could be said most optimal when only 1 multiplier is used.

According to the above results, we have implemented a multi-processors system that has 128 processors in a Virtex-6 family FPGA XC6VLX240T-1. In the system, each processor is our RSA implementation as shown in the above sections. Table 7 shows the result of synthesis of our multi-processors system. From the table, 64 Block RAMs are used in our multi-processor circuit. Further, since the Block RAM in the Virtex-6 FPGA is dual port, that is, it has two address ports and can be read the data of two addresses, which can be distinct, in the same time [14]. Hence, two

Table 6: Comparison with previous 1024-bit modular exponentiator algorithms

	Blum [3]	Nakano [8]	Suzuki [10]
Device	Xilinx XC40250XV	Xilinx XC2VP30-6	Xilinx XC4VFX12-10
Logic block	6633 CLBs	11589 Slices	3937 Slices
Memory block	-	29 BRAMs	7 BRAMs
DSP block	-	64 18× 18-bit multipliers	17 DSP48s
Frequency[MHz]	45.6	52.9	400, 200
Execution time[ms]	11.95(worst case)	2.52(worst case)	1.71(worst case)
Scalable	no	no	yes

	Mazzeo [5]	Alho [1]	This work
Device	Xilinx Virtex-E2000-8	Altera Stratix EP1S40	Xilinx XC6VLX240T-1
Logic block	1188 Slices	341 LEs	180 Slices
Memory block	-	13604-bit	1 BRAM
DSP block	-	1 DSP	1 DSP48E1
Frequency[MHz]	86.2	198	447.027
Execution time[ms]	$3.86(E = 2^{17} + 1)$	28(average case)	36.37(worst case)
Scalable	no	yes	yes

processors can share the one 36k-bit Block RAMs as two $2k \times 18k$ -bit Block RAMs. Therefore, in the multi-processor system, the number of used Block RAMs is equivalent to the half number of processors. Also, the timing analysis reported that our implementation runs in 447.027MHz. Because the frequency is the same as that of the single processor implementation as shown in Table 2, each processor can work without decreasing performance for the increase of the circuit elements.

Table 7: Experimental results of our 128-processor system

	Virtex-6
Number of occupied Slices	23040/301440
Number of 36k-bit BRAMs	64/416
Number of DSP48E1s	128/768
Maximum Frequency[MHz]	447.027

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we have proposed a hardware algorithm for modular exponentiation using minimum logic units with maximized use of a DSP block. Our hardware algorithm is close to optimal in the sense that running clock cycles is close to the lower bound of the number of multiplications involved in Montgomery multiplication. In other words, a multiplier in a DSP block works during almost all the processing clocks. Our algorithm is evaluated in the latest Xilinx Virtex-6 family FPGA. Experimental results show that our implementation runs very fast given the tiny amount of circuit resources required. Also, our algorithm can be executed in parallel to attain high throughput RSA encryption/decryption.

References

- [1] Timo Alho, Panu Hämäläinen, Marko Hännikäinen, and Timo D. Hämäläinen. Compact modular exponentiation accelerator for modern FPGA devices. *Computers and Electrical Engineering*,

33(5-6):383–391, 2007.

- [2] Thomas Blum and Christof Paar. Montgomery modular exponentiation on reconfigurable hardware. In *Proceedings of the 14th IEEE Symposium on Computer Arithmetic*, pages 70–77, 1999.
- [3] Thomas Blum and Christof Paar. High-radix Montgomery modular exponentiation on reconfigurable hardware. *IEEE Transactions on Computers*, 50(7):759–764, 2001.
- [4] Çetin Kaya Koç, Tolga Acar, and Burton S. Kaliski Jr. Analyzing and comparing Montgomery multiplication algorithms. *IEEE Micro*, 16(3):26–33, 1996.
- [5] Antonino Mazzeo, Luigi Romano, Giacinto Paolo Saggese, and Nicola Mazzocca. FPGA-based implementation of a serial RSA processor. In *Proceedings of Design, Automation and Test in Europe Conference and Exhibition*, pages 10582–10589, 2003.
- [6] Ciaran McIvor, Máire McLoone, and John V. McCanny. FPGA Montgomery multiplier architectures - a comparison. In *Proceedings of Annual IEEE Symposium on Field-Programmable Custom Computing Machines*, pages 279–282, 2004.
- [7] Peter L. Montgomery. Modular multiplication without trial division. *Mathematics of Computation*, 44(170):519–521, 1985.
- [8] Koji Nakano, Kensuke Kawakami, and Koji Shigemoto. RSA encryption and decryption using the redundant number system on the FPGA. *Proceedings of the 2009 IEEE International Symposium on Parallel & Distributed Processing*, pages 1–8, 2009.
- [9] Ronald L. Rivest, Adi Shamir, and Leonard M. Adleman. A method for obtaining digital signatures and public-key cryptosystems. *Communications of the ACM*, 21(2):120–126, 1978.
- [10] Daisuke Suzuki. How to maximize the potential of FPGA resources for modular exponentiation. In *Proceedings of the 9th international workshop on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*, pages 272–288, 2007.
- [11] Alexandre F. Tenca and Çetin Kaya Koç. A scalable architecture for Montgomery multiplication. In *Proceedings of the First International Workshop on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems*, pages 94–108, 1999.
- [12] Xilinx Inc. Virtex-4 FPGA User Guide(v2.6), 2008.
- [13] Xilinx Inc. Virtex-5 FPGA User Guide(v5.2), 2009.
- [14] Xilinx Inc. Virtex-6 FPGA Memory Resources(v1.5), 2010.
- [15] Xilinx Inc. Virtex 6 ML605 Hardware User Guide(v1.2.1), 2010.