

# $O(n)$ -Depth Circuit Algorithm for Modular Exponentiation

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## Abstract

An  $O(n)$ -depth polynomial-size combinational circuit algorithm is proposed for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation, i.e., for the computation of " $x^y \bmod m$ " for arbitrary integers  $x, y$  and  $m$  represented as  $n$ -bit binary integers, within bounds  $2^{n-1} \leq m < 2^n$  and  $0 \leq x, y < m$ . The algorithm is a generalization of the square-and-multiply method. An obvious implementation of the square-and-multiply method yields a circuit of depth  $O(n \log n)$  and size  $O(n^3)$ . In the proposed algorithm, the terms  $x^{2^i} \bmod m$ 's for all  $i$ 's  $\in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  are computed in  $\left\lceil \frac{n-1}{\alpha \log n} \right\rceil$  parallel rounds, each of which computes  $\lceil \alpha \log n \rceil$  consecutive terms, where  $\frac{1}{\log n} \leq \alpha$ . The circuit implementing a round has depth  $O((1+\alpha) \log n)$  and size  $O(n^{2(1+\alpha)})$  yielding a circuit for modular exponentiation of depth  $O(\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha} n)$  and size  $O(\frac{n^{3+2\alpha}}{\alpha \log n})$ .

## 1 Introduction

Modular exponentiation plays important roles in several public key cryptosystems. In the RSA cryptosystem[1], for example, encryption and decryption are performed by means of modular exponentiation. It is important to investigate the smallest circuit depth achievable for this operation.

We define  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation as the computation of " $x^y \bmod m$ " where we assume that  $x, y$  and  $m$  are  $n$ -bit binary integers satisfying the bounds  $2^{n-1} \leq m < 2^n$ ,  $0 \leq x < m$  and  $0 \leq y < m$ . In this paper, we consider its implementation by means of a combinational circuit with the restriction of bounded-fan-in. It is obvious that there exists an  $O(n)$  depth circuit for any  $n$ -variable Boolean function when exponential size is allowed. Our attention, however, is directed to polynomial-size circuits.

Most of the common algorithms for modular exponentiation are based on the "square-and-multiply" method, such as the binary method[2]. In the square-and-multiply method,  $x^{2^i} \bmod m$ 's are computed for  $i$ 's  $\in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  by performing modular multiplication  $O(n)$  times sequentially. We can achieve an  $O(n^2)$  depth  $O(n^3)$  size modular exponentiation circuit by simply cascading modular multipliers based on Brickell's[3] or Montgomery's[4] algorithm. We

can reduce the depth to  $O(n \log n)$  by first computing an approximation of the reciprocal of a modulus for residue calculation. Therefore, the question concerns the existence of polynomial-size circuits for this problem, whose depth is  $o(n \log n)$ .

In this paper, we propose an  $O(n)$ -depth polynomial-size circuit algorithm for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation. The algorithm is also based on multiplication of powers of  $x$  of the form  $\{x^{2^i} \bmod m : i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ . Rather than one at a time (as in the square-and-multiply method), these powers are generated in  $\Theta(\frac{n}{\alpha \log n})$  rounds, for a chosen positive  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$ . The basic building block of the overall circuit is a module of depth  $O((1+\alpha) \log n)$  and size  $O(n^{2(1+\alpha)})$  which computes  $\lceil \alpha \log n \rceil$  consecutive terms of the above set. Cascading  $\Theta(\frac{n}{\alpha \log n})$  such modules, and suitably combining their outputs, yields an overall circuit for modular exponentiation of depth  $O(\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha} n)$  and size  $O(\frac{n^{3+2\alpha}}{\alpha \log n})$ .

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we describe an  $O(\log n)$ -depth module implementing an algorithm for  $n$ -bit powering which is the main component of the proposed algorithm. In Section 3, we describe the overall circuit implementing an algorithm for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation. In Section 4, we show a numerical example of modular exponentiation based on the proposed algorithm. Section 5 concludes the paper.

## 2 A Logarithmic-Depth Circuit for Powering

In the algorithm to be described, we use logarithmic-depth circuits for powering [5][6][7]. We define  $n$ -bit powering as the computation of  $x^l$  in the binary representation for an arbitrary  $n$ -bit integer  $x$  and a given, fixed, positive integer  $l$ . Beame, Cook, and Hoover showed that there exists a logarithmic-depth circuit for computing  $x^l$  using the residue number system if  $l \leq n^{O(1)}$ [5]. Okabe *et al.*[6], and Mehlhorn and Preparata[7] modified the algorithm by Beame *et al.* to reduce the circuit size using table look-ups. We explicitly use the circuits by Okabe *et al.*

Let  $\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_h\}$ , with  $m_j < m_{j+1}$  ( $j =$

$1, \dots, h-1$ ), be the set of the first  $h$  consecutive primes, referred to as moduli. A residue number system based on  $\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_h\}$  represents an integer  $x < M = \prod_{j=1}^h m_j$  as a sequence of residues  $\langle x_1, \dots, x_h \rangle$ , where  $x_j = x \bmod m_j$ . (In general, a residue number system only requires that the moduli be pairwise relatively prime.) As is well-known (see, e.g., [8]), by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we have  $x = \sum_{j=1}^h Q_j x_j \bmod M$ , where  $Q_j = \left(\frac{M}{m_j}\right)^{m_j-1} \bmod M$ .

The algorithm for  $n$ -bit powering using the residue number system and table look-ups is as follows.

#### Algorithm [l-POWER]

( $l$  is a given, fixed, positive integer. Let  $h$  be the smallest integer such that  $2^{nl} \leq \prod_{j=1}^h m_j$ .)

**Input:**  $x$  ( $0 \leq x < 2^n$ , an  $n$ -bit binary integer)

**Output:**  $x^l$  (an  $nl$ -bit binary integer)

- Step 1.** For  $j = 1, 2, \dots, h$ ,  
compute  $x_j = x \bmod m_j$  (in parallel).  
**Step 2.** For  $j = 1, 2, \dots, h$ ,  
compute  $x_j^l \bmod m_j$   
(in parallel by table look-up).  
**Step 3.** Compute  $x^l$  from  $\{x_j^l \bmod m_j : j = 1, \dots, h\}$  using the Chinese Remainder Theorem.  $\square$

$n$ -bit powering, i.e., the computation of  $x^l$ , can be accomplished on the basis of the algorithm [l-POWER] by an  $O(\log(nl))$ -depth  $O(n^2 l^2)$ -size P-uniform circuit [6]. P-uniformity holds when  $l \leq n^{O(1)}$ . P-uniformity means that a circuit for an  $n$ -bit input can be generated in time polynomial in  $n$  by a deterministic Turing machine. Note that P-uniformity is weaker than log-space uniformity which is in common use.

### 3 Circuit for Modular Exponentiation

In this section, we describe a circuit implementing an algorithm for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation  $x^y \bmod m$ . We first give a brief overview and then describe the details.

We first compute  $s(i)$ 's such that  $s(i) \equiv x^{2^i} \bmod m$  and  $0 \leq s(i) < 2m$  for all  $i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ , and then obtain  $x^y \bmod m$  multiplying with modular reduction the terms  $s(i)$ 's for the  $i$ 's such that the  $i$ th bit of  $y$  is 1.

Let  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$  be a constant and let  $k$  denote  $\lceil \alpha \log n \rceil$ . Since  $\alpha$  is a design parameter, it must appear in the evaluation of performance. The computation proceeds in  $\lceil \frac{n-1}{k} \rceil$  rounds. In each round, for an  $n$ -bit input  $z$ , we compute  $\{t(i) : i = 1, \dots, k\}$  such that  $t(i) \equiv z^{2^i} \bmod m$  and  $0 \leq t(i) < 2m$ . Successively,  $z$  assumes the values  $\{s(pk) \text{ (in case } s(pk) < 2^n) \text{ or } s(pk) - m \text{ (otherwise)} : p = 0, 1, \dots, \lceil \frac{n-1}{k} \rceil\}$ . In other words, one of the outputs of a round is supplied, after possible subtracting of  $m$ , as the input to the next round. In the  $p$ th round,  $t(i) = s((p-1)k + i)$  hold

for  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ . The computation of  $\{t(i) : i = 1, \dots, k\}$  is carried out by modular powering. Specifically, we first carry out powering by means of the algorithm described in Section 2, and then perform modular reduction by  $m$ . The modular reduction is achieved multiplying  $z^{2^i}$  by a suitable approximation of the reciprocal of  $m$ . This approximate reciprocal is computed only once.

Finally, letting  $y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i 2^i$  ( $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ ), we have  $x^y \bmod m = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} s(i)^{y_i} \bmod m$ .

Specifically, the whole algorithm for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation is as follows.

#### Algorithm [MODEXP]

Let  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$  be a constant independent of  $n$  and let  $k = \lceil \alpha \log n \rceil$ .

**Input:**  $x, y$  and  $m$

$$\left( \begin{array}{l} n\text{-bit binary integers} \\ 2^{n-1} \leq m < 2^n \\ 0 \leq x, y < m \\ y = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} y_i 2^i \text{ (} y_i \in \{0, 1\} \text{)} \end{array} \right)$$

**Output:**  $w = x^y \bmod m$  (an  $n$ -bit binary integer)

- Step 1.**  $\widetilde{m^{-1}} :=$  approximation of  $\frac{1}{m}$  with  $(2^k n)$ -bit precision;  
**Step 2.**  $z := x$ ;  
for  $p := 1$  to  $\lceil \frac{n-1}{k} \rceil$  do  
begin  
for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  parallel do  
compute  $s((p-1)k + i) \equiv z^{2^i} \bmod m$ ;  
{ \*modular powering\* }  
{  $0 \leq s((p-1)k + i) < 2m$  }  
{  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$  is used in this operation. }  
if  $(s((p-1)k + k) \geq 2^n)$  then  
 $z := s((p-1)k + k) - m$ ;  
else  $z := s((p-1)k + k)$ ;  
end  
**Step 3.**  $w := \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} s(i)^{y_i} \bmod m$ ;  $\square$

Figure 1 illustrates the structure of a modular exponentiation circuit based on the algorithm [MODEXP]. We now analyze the performance of this algorithm.

In Step 1, we compute  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$  by retaining only the  $(2^k n)$  most significant bits of  $\frac{1}{m}$ . Consequently, the following inequalities hold:

$$0 \leq \frac{1}{m} - \widetilde{m^{-1}} < 2^{-2^k n} \quad (1)$$

The reciprocal of  $m$  can be computed using the Newton-Raphson method, which requires two multiplications and one subtraction at each iteration. Starting with a 1-bit initial approximation, since at each iteration the number of exact bits doubles, we have a total of  $O((1 + \alpha) \log n)$  iterations. Therefore, we can perform Step 1 with an  $O((1 + \alpha)^2 \log^2 n)$ -depth  $O(n^{2(1+\alpha)})$ -size circuit (since  $2^k n \simeq n^{1+\alpha}$ ).

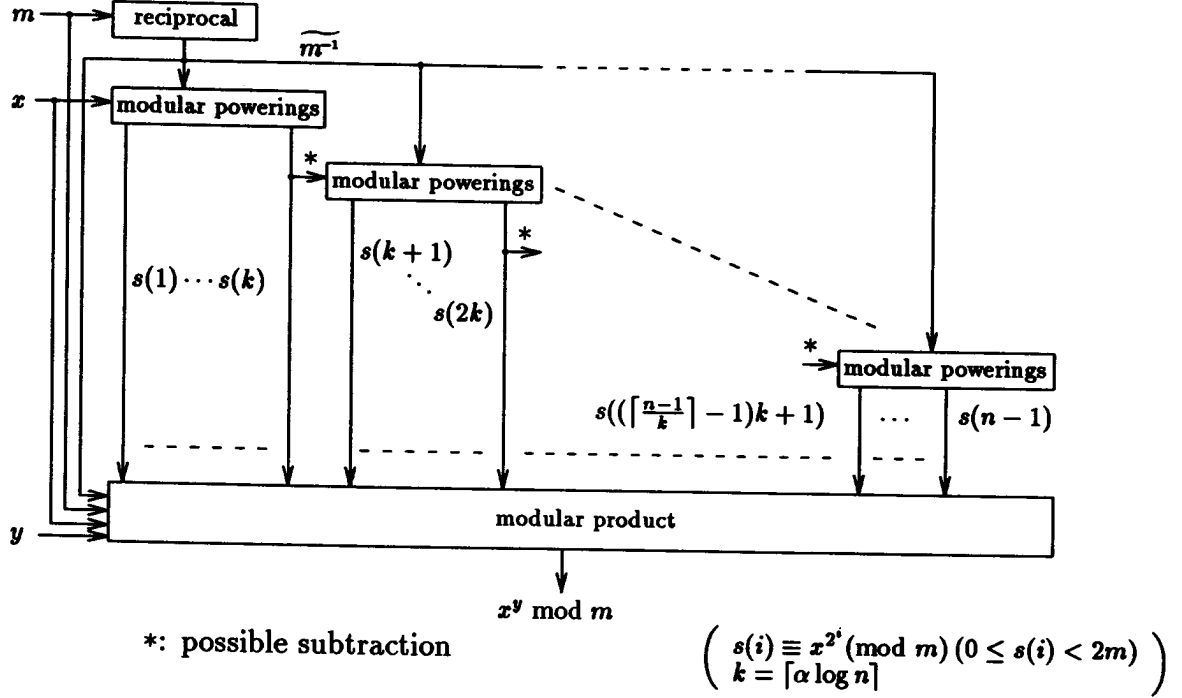


Figure 1: Configuration of a modular exponentiation circuit based on the algorithm [MODEXP]

In Step 2, we calculate the  $s(i)$ 's for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$  by means of modular powerings using  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$ . Specifically, to compute  $z^l$ , we use an  $nl$ -bit approximation  $\widetilde{m^{-1}(l)}$  of  $\frac{1}{m}$  by retaining the  $nl$  most significant bits of  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$ . The following inequalities hold:

$$0 \leq \frac{1}{m} - \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} < 2^{-nl} \quad (2)$$

The algorithm for modular powering, which computes  $Z$  satisfying  $Z \equiv z^l \pmod{m}$  and  $0 \leq Z < 2m$  (referred to here as Algorithm [l-MODPOWER]), is a minor modification of Algorithm [l-POWER], to which the following step is added:

**Step 4.** Compute  $Z = z^l - \lfloor z^l \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} \rfloor m$ .

With regard to the Step 4 of [l-MODPOWER], we observe the following. From inequalities (2), we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left\lfloor \frac{z^l}{m} \right\rfloor &= \lfloor z^l \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} + z^l \left( \frac{1}{m} - \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} \right) \rfloor \\ &= \lfloor z^l \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} \rfloor \quad \text{or} \quad \lfloor z^l \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} \rfloor + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, from inequalities  $0 \leq z^l - \left\lfloor \frac{z^l}{m} \right\rfloor m < m$ , we have:

$$0 \leq z^l - \lfloor z^l \widetilde{m^{-1}(l)} \rfloor m < 2m$$

This modular reduction can be performed by a multiplication with flooring, a multiplication and a subtraction. Since  $z^l$  and  $\widetilde{m^{-1}(l)}$  are  $nl$ -bit numbers and  $m$  is a  $n$ -bit number, a circuit for Step 4 has  $O(\log(nl))$  depth and  $O(n^2 l^2)$  size. Therefore, we can compute [l-MODPOWER] with an  $O(\log(nl))$ -depth  $O(n^2 l^2)$ -size circuit.

In the inner loop of Step 2 of the main algorithm [MODEXP], we compute  $\{t(i) : i = 1, \dots, k\}$  in parallel. Variable  $t(i)$  ( $1 \leq i \leq k$ ) is computed using the algorithm [l-MODPOWER] for  $l = 2^i$ . Hence, we can compute the  $t(i)$ 's, for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , with an  $O((1 + \alpha) \log n)$ -depth and  $\sum_{i=1}^k O(n^2 (2^i)^2) = O(n^{2(1+\alpha)})$ -size circuit. Since the outer loop is sequential, we can perform Step 2 with an  $O(\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha} n)$ -depth  $O(\frac{n^{3+2\alpha}}{\alpha \log n})$ -size circuit.

In Step 3, we compute the modular product  $\prod_{i=0}^{n-1} s(i)^{y_i} \pmod{m}$  from inputs  $s(i)$ 's by connecting  $(n+1)$ -bit modular multiplication circuits according to a binary tree, where  $(n+1)$ -bit modular multiplication means the computation of  $XY \pmod{m}$  for  $(n+1)$ -bit binary integers  $X$  and  $Y$  within bounds  $0 \leq X, Y < 2m$ . We compute  $XY \pmod{m}$  in two steps. The first is multiplication and the second modular reduction. Consequently, we can perform the  $n$ -bit modular multiplication  $XY \pmod{m}$  and the leading

Inputs:  $x = 231$   $n = 8, \alpha = 1$   
 $y = 245$   $k = \lceil \alpha \log n \rceil = 3$   
 $m = 249$   $\text{moduli} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53\}$   
Outputs:  $x^y \bmod m = 189$

Step 1.

$\widetilde{m^{-1}} = 0.01073260A47F7C66$  (hexadecimal)

Step 2.

**Iteration 1:**  $z = s(0) = x = 231$

Binary→RNS:

$\langle 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 10, 10, 3, 1, 28, 14, 9, 26, 16, 43, 19 \rangle$

	$z^{2^1}$	$z^{2^2}$	$z^{2^3}$
Table look-ups:	$\langle 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 9, 15 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 3, 4, 5, 1, 1 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 9, 16, 6, 1, 1, 18, 33, 18, 16, 18, 36 \rangle$
RNS→Binary:	53361	2847396321	8107665808844335041
Modular reduction:	$s(1) = 75$	$s(2) = 147$	$s(3) = 195$
	$(z^{2^i} - \lfloor z^{2^i} \widetilde{m^{-1}} \rfloor m)$		

**Iteration 2:**  $z = s(3) = 195$

Binary→RNS:

$\langle 1, 0, 0, 6, 8, 0, 8, 5, 11, 21, 9, 10, 31, 23, 7, 36 \rangle$

	$z^{2^1}$	$z^{2^2}$	$z^{2^3}$
Table look-ups:	$\langle 1, 0, 0, 1, 9, 0, 13 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 0, 1, 4, 0, 16, 17, 13, 7 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 0, 1, 5, 0, 1, 4, 8, 20, 28, 26, 16, 9, 16, 49 \rangle$
RNS→Binary:	38025	1445900625	2090628617375390625
Modular reduction:	$s(4) = 177$	$s(5) = 204$	$s(6) = 33$
	$(z^{2^i} - \lfloor z^{2^i} \widetilde{m^{-1}} \rfloor m)$		

**Iteration 3:**  $z = s(6) = 33$

Binary→RNS:

$\langle 1, 0, 3, 5, 0, 7, 16, 14, 10, 4, 2, 33, 33, 33, 33, 33 \rangle$

	$z^{2^1}$	$z^{2^2}$	$z^{2^3}$
Table look-ups:	$\langle 1, 0, 4, 4, 0, 10, 1 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 1, 2, 0, 9, 1, 17, 18, 24 \rangle$	$\langle 1, 0, 1, 4, 0, 3, 1, 4, 2, 25, 8, 9, 16, 17, 7, 49 \rangle$
RNS→Binary:	1089	1185921	1406408618241
Modular reduction:	$s(7) = 93$	183	123
	$(z^{2^i} - \lfloor z^{2^i} \widetilde{m^{-1}} \rfloor m)$		

Step 3.

$$\prod_{i=0}^7 s(i)^{y_i} \bmod z = ((231 \times 1 \bmod 249) \times (147 \times 1 \bmod 249) \bmod 249) \times ((177 \times 204 \bmod 249) \times (33 \times 93 \bmod 249) \bmod 249) \bmod 249 = 189$$

(Numbers are described in decimal unless otherwise stated.)

**Figure 2: Example of modular exponentiation**

$(2n+2)$ -bits of  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$  as in Step 4 of [I-MODPOWER] with an  $O(\log n)$ -depth  $O(n^2)$ -size circuit. Therefore, Step 3 can be performed by an  $O(\log^2 n)$ -depth  $O(n^3)$ -size circuit.

It is clear that the circuit based on the algorithm [MODEXP] is P-uniform, because the circuit for powering is P-uniform. We summarize the proposed algorithm into the following theorem.

**Theorem 1**  *$n$ -bit modular exponentiation  $x^y \bmod m$  can be performed with an  $O(\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha}n)$ -depth  $O(\frac{n^{3+2\alpha}}{\alpha \log n})$ -size P-uniform circuit, where  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$  is a positive constant.*

#### 4 Example

We give a numerical example of 8-bit modular exponentiation based on the proposed algorithm [MODEXP]. Figure 2 shows the computation flow of modular exponentiation  $231^{245} \bmod 249$  for  $n = 8$ . We set  $\alpha = 1$ . Therefore, the set of moduli is  $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53\}$ . In Step 1, we compute 64-bit number  $\widetilde{m^{-1}}$ . Step 2 proceeds in  $\lceil \frac{n-1}{k} \rceil = 3$  rounds. In each round, we compute  $k = 3$  numbers in parallel. In Step 3, since  $y = 11110101$  in binary, we compute  $(s(0) \cdot s(2) \cdot s(4) \cdot s(5) \cdot s(6) \cdot s(7)) \bmod m$ .

#### 5 Conclusion

We have proposed an  $O(\frac{1+\alpha}{\alpha}n)$ -depth  $O(\frac{n^{3+2\alpha}}{\alpha \log n})$ -size P-uniform circuit algorithm for  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation with  $\alpha \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$ . Note that for  $\alpha = \frac{1}{\log n}$  we obtain the classical square-and-multiply algorithm.

J. von zur Gathen[9] showed that modular exponentiation can be computed in an  $O(\log n)$ -depth polynomial-size circuit if the modulus  $m$  has only small prime factors  $p \leq n$ , i.e.  $m$  is " $n$ -smooth". In his algorithm, this property of the modulus  $m$  is essential. Therefore, the technique of [9] cannot be applied to modular exponentiation with an arbitrary modulus as assumed in this paper.

Our result indicates that  $n$ -bit modular exponentiation belongs to a complexity class in which operations are executed by an  $O(n)$ -depth polynomial-size circuit. It is an open problem whether there exists a  $\log^{O(1)} n$ -depth circuit for such operations.

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