

3 Open access • Journal Article • DOI:10.1007/S11265-007-0136-8

Power Signature Watermarking of IP Cores for FPGAs — Source link <a> ☑

Daniel Ziener, Jürgen Teich

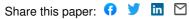
Institutions: Fraunhofer Society, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg

Published on: 01 Apr 2008 - Signal Processing Systems

Topics: Watermark and Digital watermarking

Related papers:

- Fingerprinting techniques for field-programmable gate array intellectual property protection
- IPP@HDL: Efficient Intellectual Property Protection Scheme for IP Cores
- Differential Power Analysis
- Signature hiding techniques for FPGA intellectual property protection
- · Watermarking techniques for intellectual property protection









Power Signature Watermarking of IP Cores for FPGAs

Daniel Ziener #1, Jürgen Teich *2

#Fraunhofer Institute for Integrated Circuits IIS Am Wolfsmantel 33, 91058 Erlangen, Germany

¹znr@iis.fraunhofer.de

*Department of Computer Science 12, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg Am Weichselgarten 3, 91058 Erlangen, Germany

²teich@cs.fau.de

Abstract-In this paper, we introduce a new method for watermarking of IP cores for FPGA architectures where the signature (watermark) is detected at the power supply pins of the FPGA. This is the first watermarking method where the signature is extracted in this way. We are able to sign IP cores at the netlist as well as the bitfile level, so a wide spectrum of cores can be protected. In principle, the proposed power watermarking method works for all kinds of FPGAs. For Xilinx FPGAs, we demonstrate in detail that we can integrate the watermarking algorithms and the signature into the functionality of the watermarked core. So it is very hard to remove the watermark without destroying the core. Furthermore, we introduce a detection algorithm which can decode the signature from a voltage trace with high reliability. Additionally, two enhanced robustness algorithms are introduced which improve the detection probability in case of considerable noise sources. Using these techniques, it is possible to decode the signature even if other cores operate on the same device at the same time.

I. Introduction

In the 1970s, only basic functions like discrete logical gates were implemented on integrated circuits. With improvements in chip manufacturing, the size of the transistors was drastically reduced and the maximum size of a die was increased as well. Now, it is possible to integrate one billion transistors [1] on one chip. On the other hand, the market requires shorter product cycles. The only solution is to reuse cores, which have been written for other projects or were purchased from other companies. The number of companies that just produce cores constantly increases. The advantages of reuse of IP cores (Intellectual Property cores) are enormous. E.g., they offer a modular concept and fast development cycles.

IP cores are licensed and distributed like software. One problem of the distribution of IP cores, however, is the lack of protection against unlicensed usage. The cores can be easily copied. Some core suppliers encrypt their cores and deliver special development tools which can handle encrypted cores. The disadvantage is that common tools cannot handle encrypted cores and that the shipped tools can be cracked that unlicensed cores can also be processed.

Journal of Signal Processing Systems, Volume 51, Number 1, April 2008, pages 123-136, © Springer New York, Available at http://www.springerlink.com/content/u63810741m470174/

Another approach is to hide a signature into the core, a so called watermark, which can be used as a proof of the original ownership. There exist many concepts and approaches on the issue of implementing a watermark into a core. But most of these concepts are not applicable due to the lack of verification capabilities. A good verification strategy satisfies that the signature (watermark) can be read out only using the bought product. So no extra files or information must be obtained from the accused company.

Here, we present a strategy to verify a watermark by measuring the core supply voltage of an FPGA. The voltage can be sampled with a standard oscilloscope, analyzed and decoded with an algorithm developed to run on a PC. The decoded signature can be compared with the original signature, and thus, the watermark can be verified. This method is not destructive and can be applied using only the given product (see Fig. 1).

This work is organized as follows. In Section I, a short introduction and motivation of watermarking is given. In Section II, a short overview of related work for IP-Watermarking is provided. Section III describes the analysis of the core voltage. Section IV presents the implementation, and Section V the process of embedding the watermark. In Section VI and VII, the detection algorithms are described. Section VIII presents experimental results and Section IX concludes the paper.

II. RELATED WORK

Hiding a unique signature into user data such as pictures, video, audio, text, program code, or IP cores is called watermarking. Embedding a watermark into multimedia data is achieved by altering the data slightly at points where human sense organs have lower perception sensitivity. For example, one can remove frequencies which cannot be perceived by the human ear by coding an audio sequence into an MP3 file. Now, it is possible to hide a signature into these frequencies without decreasing quality of the coded audio sequence [2].

The watermarking of IP cores is different from multimedia watermarking, because the user data which represents the circuit must not be altered, since functional correctness must be preserved. Watermarking procedures can be categorized into two groups of methods: *additive methods* and *constraint-based methods*.

1

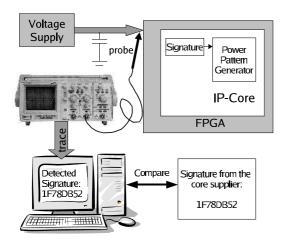


Fig. 1. Watermark verification using power signature analysis: From a signature (watermark), a power pattern inside the core will be generated that can be probed at the voltage supply pins of the FPGA. From the trace, a detection algorithm verifies the existence of the watermark.

In additive methods, the signature is added to the functional core, for example, by using unused lookup-tables in an FPGA [3]. The constraint-based methods were originally introduced by [4] and restrict the solution space of an optimization algorithm by setting additional constraints which are used to encode the signature.

Some methods for constraint-based watermarking in FPGAs

- exploit the scan-chain [5],
- preserve nets during logic synthesis [6],
- place constraints for CLBs in odd/even rows [7], or
- route constraints with unusual routing resources [7].

The major drawback of these approaches are the limitations of the verification possibilities of the watermarked core. With a good watermarking strategy, the verification can be done only with the given product and without additional information from the producer. The bitfile of an FPGA can be extracted by wire tapping the communication between the PROM and the FPGA. Unfortunately only the approaches presented in [3] and [8] have the possibility to detect the watermark from these bitfiles.

The approach in [8] is using the content of the lookup tables in an FPGA for identification of a core. From the FPGA bitfile, all lookup table contents and positions are extracted and compared with the lookup table contents of the netlist IP core. Then, a covering is calculated to show that the core is included in the FPGA design or not. But some FPGA suppliers provide an option to encrypt the bitstream. The bitfile is stored in the PROM in encrypted form and will be decrypted inside the FPGA. Monitoring the communication between PROM and FPGA in this case is useless, because only the encrypted file will be transmitted. In this case, only the verification over a scan chain is possible [5]. An overview and evaluation of existing watermark techniques is given in [9].

Also, the approaches at the HDL- and netlist-levels turn out not to be applicable due to the lack of verification possibilities. The only exceptions are [8] and the scan chain approach [5], but a scan chain is very unusual in FPGA designs. However,

many cores are delivered in HDL or at the netlist level, so more watermarking strategies for these cores would be very useful.

The problem of applying watermarking techniques to FPGA designs is not the coding and insertion of a watermark, rather the verification with an FPGA embedded in a system. Hence our methods concentrate on the verification of watermarks. There are four potential sources of information:.

- Bitfile,
- Ports.
- Power [10], and
- Electromagnetic (EM) radiation [11].

The basic idea behind our approach is to extract the core signature from the FPGAs power consumption pattern. This idea is new and differs from [10] and [11] where the goal of using power analysis techniques is not watermarking and intellectual property protection, but the detection of cryptographic keys and their security issues.

There is no way to measure the power consumption of an FPGA directly, only through measuring the voltage or the current. We decide to measure the voltage of the core close to the voltage supply pins, so the smoothing from the plane and block capacities are minimal and so no shunt is required. Most FPGAs have ball grid array (BGA) packages and the majority of them have vias to the back of the printed circuit board (PCB) for the supply voltage pins. So, it is easy to measure the voltage with an oscilloscope on the rear side of the PCB.

III. CONCEPT OF POWER WATERMARKING

The consumed power of an FPGA can be divided into two parts, namely the static and the dynamic power. The static power consumption is founded in the leakage current from CMOS transistors and does not change over time if the temperature is not changed. The dynamic power consists of the power of the short circuit current and the power of reloading the capacities of the transistors and the wires. The short circuit current occurs, if both transistors, the PMOS and the NMOS, are conducting for a short time during the switching activity. Both parts of the dynamic power consumption depend on the switching frequency [12]. As shown in [13], the main part of the FPGA's dynamic power results from capacity reloading.

So, what happens to the core voltage, if many switching activities occur at the same time, such on the rising edge of a clock signal? The core supply voltage drops and rises (see Fig. 2). The real behavior of the core voltage depends on the individual FPGA, the individual printed circuit board and the individual voltage supply circuits.

In the frequency domain, the clock frequency with harmonics and even integer divisions of the clock frequency is present (see Fig. 3).

In the following, we present two methods to encode a watermark into the core voltage characteristics. First, we vary the frequency and second, we change the amplitude.

In the first case, a watermark can be identified if we produce another frequency line in the spectrum of the core voltage, which is not an integral multiple or a rational fraction of the clock frequency. For achieving this, we need a circuit that

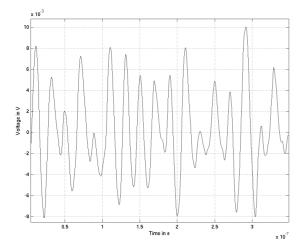


Fig. 2. A measured voltage signal from the voltage supply pin of an FPGA. The core supply voltage drops and rises.

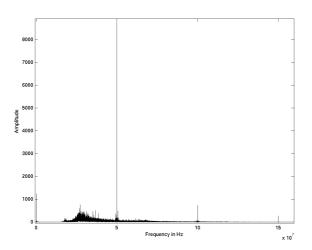


Fig. 3. The spectrum of the measured signal in Fig. 2. The clock frequency of 50 MHz and harmonics can be seen. Also, a peak at the half of the clock frequency is visible which is caused by switching activities from the logic.

consumes a considerable amount of power and generates a signature-specific power pattern, and a clock which can be identified in the spectrum. The power consumer can be, for example, an additional shift register. If we would derive the clock source from the operational clock, we would not be able to distinguish the frequency line in the spectrum from operational logic. Another opportunity is to generate a clock using combinatorial logic. This clock could be identified as a watermark, but the jitter of a combinatorial clock source might be very high, and no clean frequency line could be seen in the spectrum. This means that we need a higher additional power consumption to make the watermark readable. Another drawback is that we have only limited possibilities to encode a signature reliably in these frequency lines.

In our approach, we therefore alter the amplitude of the interferences in the core voltage. The basic idea is to add a power pattern generator (e.g., shift registers), and clock them with the operational clock or an integer division of

the operational clock. Further, we control these power pattern generator according to the characteristic watermark. A logical '1' lets the power consumer operate one cycle (e.g., perform a shift), a zero '0' leads to no operation. In the voltage profile over time, we detect higher amplitudes corresponding to the ones and smaller amplitudes according to the zeros. Note that the amplitude for the no operation state is not zero, because the operational logic and the clock tree is still active.

The advantage of power watermarking methods is that the signature can easily be read out from a given device. Only the core voltage of the FPGA must be measured and recorded. No bitfile is required which needs to be reverse-engineered. Also, these methods work for encrypted bitfiles whereas methods where the signature is extracted from the bitfile fail. Moreover, we are able to sign netlist cores, because our watermarking algorithm does not need any placement information. So, also cores at this level can be protected.

IV. THE METHOD

Our power watermarking method uses two shift registers, a large one for causing a recognizable signature-dependent power consumption pattern, and a shift register storing the signature itself (see Fig. 1). The signature shift register is clocked by the operational clock and the output bit enables the power pattern generator. If the output bit is a '1', the power pattern register will be shifted at the next rising edge of the operational clock. At a '0', no shift is done. To avoid interference from the operational logic in the measured voltage, the signature is only generated during the reset phase of the core.

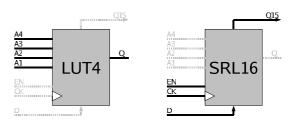


Fig. 4. In the Xilinx Virtex architecture, a lookup table (LUT4) can also be configured as a 16 Bit shift register (SRL16).

In some FPGA architectures (e.g., Xilinx Virtex), the lookup tables (LUTs) can also be used as a shift register [14]. A 4 Bit lookup table can also be used as a 16 Bit shift register (see Fig. 4). And, also for the Xilinx Virtex architecture, the content of such a shift register can be addressed by the LUT input ports. So, the shift register can be also used as a lookup table. This allows us to use functional logic for implementing the power pattern generator. The core operates in two modes, the functional mode and the reset mode. In the functional mode, the shift is disabled and the shift register operates as a normal lookup table. In the reset mode, the content is shifted according to the signature bits and consumes power which can be measured outside of the FPGA. To prevent the loss of the content of the lookup table, the output of the shift register is fed back to the input, so the content is shifted circularly. When the core changes to the functional mode, the content must be

shifted to the proper position to have a functional lookup table for the core.

The amplitude of the generated power signature depends on the number and content of the converted lookup tables. It will be assumed that the transitions between zeros and ones in the bit pattern of the lookup table contents are enough to produce a recognizable pattern on the supply voltage.

Also, it is possible to initialize the content of the power consumption shift register shifted, which are also part of the functional logic. Only during the reset state, when the signature is generated can the functional logic can be initialized correctly. So, normal core operation cannot start before the signature was generated. The advantage is that the core is only able to work after "sending" the signature. Also, to avoid a too short reset time in which the watermark cannot be exactly detected, the right functionality will only be established if the reset state is longer than a predefined time. This prevents the user from leaving out or shorten the reset state with the result that the signature cannot be properly detected.

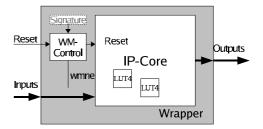
The signature itself can be implemented as part of the functional logic in the same way. Some lookup tables are connected together and the content, the function of the LUTs, represents the signature. This principle makes it almost impossible for an attacker to change the content of the signature shift register. Altering the signature would also affect the functional core, thus resulting in a corrupt core.

The advantages of using the functional logic of the core also as a shift register are the reduced resource overhead for watermarking and the robustness of this method, because these shift registers are embedded in the functional design, and it is hard if not impossible to remove shift registers without destroying the functional core. Also, our watermarking procedure is difficult to be detected in a netlist file, because the main part of the required logic for signature creation depends on the functional logic for the proper core. Another benefit is that our watermark cannot be removed by an optimization step during the mapping into CLBs (Configurable Logic Blocks). Nevertheless, if an attacker had special knowledge of the watermarking method and of the EDIF netlist format, he may reverse engineer the alternation of the embedding algorithm and remove or disable the sending method. This can be avoided by initializing the power pattern register with shifted lookup table contents (see above). If sending of the signature is prevented, the core will not function properly.

V. EMBEDDING OF THE WATERMARK

In this section, we describe the procedure of watermarking a core. The watermarking procedure is easy to use and consists of only two steps. First, the core must be embedded in a wrapper, which contains the control logic for emitting the signature. This step is done at the HDL-level and before synthesis. The second step is at the netlist level after synthesis. A program converts suitable four input lookup tables (LUT4) into shift registers for the generation of the power pattern generator and attaches the corresponding control signal from the control logic in the wrapper (see Fig. 5).

The wrapper contains the control logic for emitting the watermark and the shift register, holding the signature. If func-



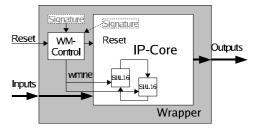


Fig. 5. The core and the wrapper before (above) and after (below) the netlist alternation step. The signal "wmne" is an enable signal for shifting the power pattern generator shift register.

tional lookup tables are used for implementing the signature shift register, we add or convert this shift register in the second step so that the wrapper contains only the control logic. Some control signals have no sink yet, because the sink will be added in the second step (e.g., the power pattern generator shift register). So we must use synthesis constraints to prevent the synthesis tool from optimizing these signals away. The ports of the wrapper are the same for the core, so we can easily integrate this wrapper into the hierarchy. The control logic shifts the signature shift register, while the core is in reset state. Also, the power pattern shift register is shifted corresponding to the output of the signature shift register. If the reset input of the wrapper gets inactive, the function of the core cannot start at the same cycle, because the positions of the content in the shift register are not in the correct state. The control logic shifts the register content into the correct position and leaves the reset state to start the normal operation mode.

The translation of four input lookup tables (LUT4) of the functional logic into 16 Bit shift registers (SRL16) is done at the netlist level. The usage of a LUT4 as a SRL16 is only possible if the LUT4 is not part of a multiplexer logic. This is not possible, because the additional shift logic and the multiplexer share common resources in a slice. Also, if the lookup table is a part of an adder, the mapping tool splits the lookup table and the carry chain. In these two cases, additional slices would be required, so we do not convert these lookup tables into shift registers.

The above conversion is done by a program which reads an EDIF-netlist and also writes a modified EDIF-netlist. First, the program reads all LUT4 instances, checks if the following logic is not a "MUXF5" or a "MUXCY" or a "XORCY". Then, the instances are converted to a shift register (SRL16), if required, initialized with the shifted value and connected to the clock and the watermark enable (wmne) signal to these shift registers. Always two shift registers are connected together to

rotate their contents. Finally, the modified netlist is written.

VI. BASIC DETECTION ALGORITHMS

The measured voltage will be probed, digitized and decoded by a signature detection algorithm (see Fig. 6). To decode the digitalized voltage signal, the sampling rate, the clock frequency of the shifted signature and the bit length of the signature is needed. The clock frequency can be extracted from the Fast Fourier Transformation of the measured signal. Our detection algorithm consists of five steps: down sampling, differential step, accumulation, phase detection and quantization (see Fig. 6). After the quantization step, the decoded signature can be simply compared with the signature from the core supplier bit by bit.

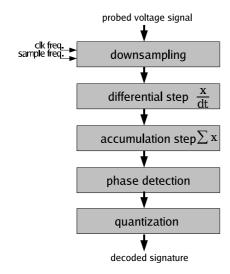


Fig. 6. The different steps of the detection algorithms.

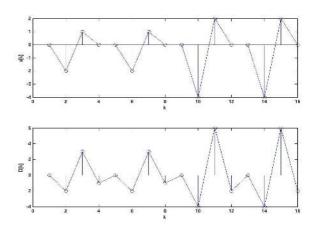
As mentioned before, the main characteristic caused by a switching event is the drop of the voltage followed by a subsequent overshoot. This results in extreme slopes. Our detection algorithm can find each rising edge as follows:

First, the measured signal will be down sampled from the recorded sample rate to the quadruple of the clock frequency, so each signature bit is represented by four samples. Then, the discrete derivative of the signal will be calculated. This transforms the rising edges of the switching events into peaks. The easiest way to calculate the discrete derivative is to take the difference of two subsequent samples over time (see Fig. 7).

$$D(k) = s(k) - s(k-1), (1)$$

where s is the sampled probed voltage signal and D the discrete derivative and k denotes the sample index.

Since the signature is repeated many times during the reset state, the signal can be accumulated and averaged to reduce the level of noise. To accumulate the coherent pattern, we need to know the bit length of the signature. If we record a longer signal sequence, we can accumulate more patterns and reduce noise and also switching events which do not belong to the



An example voltage signal which represents the signature "0011" (above). The example voltage signal after the differential step (below).

power consumption register of the watermarking algorithm, for example from other cores on the chip. The disadvantage is that we would need a longer time for the reset phase.

After this third step, we have a signal where each signature bit is represented by four samples. But only one sample has the information of the rising edge. Since the measurement is not synchronized with the FPGA clock, the phase (position) of the relevant sample of a bit is unknown. We divide the signal into four new signals, where one signature bit is represented in one sample. The four signals have a phase shift of 90° to each other. Let

$$S[k],$$
 $k = 0, 1, ..., 4n - 1$ (2)

denote the sampled voltage signal after the accumulation step where n is the length of the signature. Then, we obtain the four following phase shifted signals

$$S_0 = S[4k],$$
 $k = 0, 1, ..., n - 1$ (3)
 $S_{--} = S[4k + 1]$ "

$$S_{90} = S[4k+1], " (4)$$

$$S_{180} = S[4k+2], (5)$$

$$S_{270} = S[4k+3], (6)$$

where S is the accumulated signal and S_0 , S_{90} , S_{180} and S_{270} are the phase signals (see Fig. 8).

We are able to extract the right phase of the signal if we calculate the mean value of each phase-shifted signal. The maximal mean value corresponds to the correct phase, because the switching event should cause the greatest rising edge in the signal.

Now, we have a signal in which each sample is represented by the accumulated switching activities on one bit of the signature. The decision if the sample corresponds to a signature bit '1' or '0' can be done by comparing the sample value with the mean value of the signal. If the sample value is higher than the mean value, the algorithm decides a '1', in the other case a '0'.

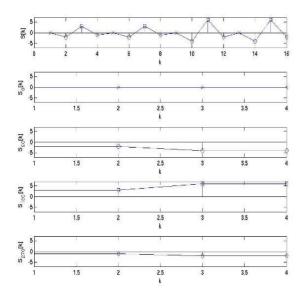


Fig. 8. The example voltage signal after the accumulation step (above) and the four phase shifted signal (below). Here, S_{180} corresponds to the right phasing.

VII. ENHANCEMENTS

A. Enhanced Robustness Encoding Method

Experimental results (see Section VIII) have shown that the decoding of the signature with the basic method works well, but on some targets, problems occur in the decoding of signatures with long runs of '1' followed by many zeros, like "1111111100000000". For the first 8 bits, we see a huge amplitude. Then, a phase in where the amplitude is faded out is observed (see Fig. 9). The phase can be many clock cycles long and could lead to a wrong detection result of the following bits.

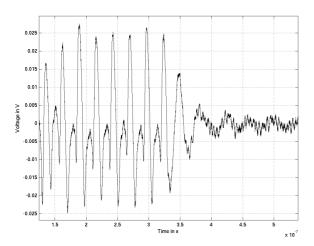


Fig. 9. Measured voltage supply signal when sending "FFFF0000" with a large power pattern generator shift register.

This fading out amplitude belongs to an overlaid frequency which might be produced by a resonance circuit which consists of the capacitances and resistance from the power supply plane and its blocking capacitances. This behavior is dependent on the printed circuit board and the power supply circuit.

To avoid such a false detection, the transmission time of one signature bit is extended over the time for the swing out of the printed circuit board. The repetition rate for each signature bit is m clock cycles. If we connect two SRL16 together, one cycle for this shift register needs 32 steps. If the reset phase ends and we have finished sending one bit, the content in the shift register which also represents a part of the logic of the core, is in the correct position.

The detection algorithm differs for this method. First, the signal will be down sampled and the approximate derivation will be calculated as in the original method (see Section VI).

Now, we average the signal to suppress the noise. But here, the length of one signature word is the length of the signature (n) multiplied by the number of times each bit is sent (m). As defined before, this is the square of the length of the signature.

$$D[k], k = 0, 1, ..., K - 1 (7)$$

$$N = \left\lfloor \frac{K}{4m \cdot n} \right\rfloor,\tag{8}$$

$$S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r=0}^{N-1} D[4m \cdot n \cdot r, ..., 4m \cdot n \cdot r + 4m \cdot n - 1], \quad (9)$$

where D is the voltage signal after the differential step with index k and N being the number of repetitions of the pattern in D.

The phase detection of the shift clock is the same as in the original method (see Section VI), but we also need the position p where a new signature bit starts. This is done in a loop to detect this position. In the beginning, we assume that the starting position is the beginning of our trace (p=0). First, we accumulate m successive values, where m is the repetition of one bit:

$$A_p[q] = \sum_{u=0}^{m-1} S_{\phi}[u+p+mq], \quad q = 0, 1, ..., n-1 \quad (10)$$

where S_{ϕ} is the signal after the phase detection step. Now, we subtract the mean value and generate the absolute value and calculate the sum of it.

$$F_p = \sum_{q=0}^{n-1} \left| A_p[q] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} A_p[a] \right|$$
 (11)

 F_p identifies how good our signature bit starting position p fits to the real position. Now, we shift our trace one value (p=1) and calculate the fitting value again, and so on. This is done m times. The starting position with the best fitting value will be used.

The decoding of the watermark signature is done like in the basic method (see Section VI) by comparing the sample values with the mean value of the samples.

B. BPSK Detection Method

The enhanced robustness method works well, but if other cores with the same clock frequency have a very high toggle rate in the reset phase of our core, the quality of decoding suffers. In the worst case, the decoding is not possible, because our signal is too weak according to the interferences with the same frequency generated of the high toggle rate of the other cores (see in experimental results Table II case C Arithmetic Coder Core).

To enhance the robustness of decoding in case of interferences with the same frequency of our transmit signal, we combine a new sending scheme with a new detection algorithm. The base idea is to shift the carrier frequency of our watermarking signal away from the clock frequency of the chip, where we expect most of the interferences.

We introduce a new binary signal S_c with the frequency f_c , where the signature bits are modulated with Binary Phase Shift Keying (*BPSK*) modulation. Using *BPSK* modulation, each value of a signature bit $\{0,1\}$ is represented by a phase (usually 0° and 180°). Practically, by sending a '0', the carrier signal is not altered, and is inverted by sending a '1' (see Fig. 10).

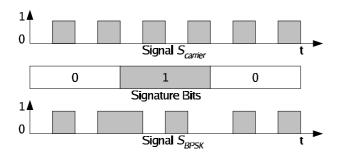


Fig. 10. This figure shows a carrier signal $S_{carrier}$ and the *BPSK* modulated signal S_{BPSK} . The signature bit value '0' is decoded with 0° and the value '1' is decoded with 180° .

We generate the new frequency f_c by an on-off keying (OOK) modulation, a binary amplitude modulation (AM), of the clock frequency f_{clk} . So, the frequency f_c must be a rational fraction of the the clock frequency f_{clk} . But, interferences from working cores have also an impact here, because these frequencies could also be produced by working cores with different toggle rates. Frequencies $f = \frac{f_{clk}}{2^n}$ have high interference from working cores whereas other frequencies have lower interference. The interferences decrease as well at lower derived frequencies. In the following, we choose $f_c = \frac{f_{clk}}{10}$ as our carrier frequency.

To generate the new watermark signal, the power pattern generator is driven by the signal S_c , and performs the OOK modulation. To send one period of the signal S_c , we first send five ones (the power pattern shift register is shifted five times) and then five zeros (the power pattern shift register is not shifted) in the case of the signature bit is '1'. If the signature bit is '0', first five zeros and then five ones are sent (see Fig. 11). For each signature bit, we repeat this period 32 times to ensure that the content of the power pattern shift register, which are also functional lookup tables, are in the

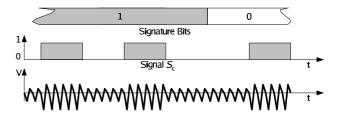


Fig. 11. The signal S_c is the *BPSK* modulated signal from the signature above. The signal below is the voltage signal, which is the OOK modulated signal from S_c . This figure also illustrate the different frequencies.

correct positions after sending one signature bit. Repetition also allows to detect the signature with a higher probability. The decreased bit rate results in a smaller bandwidth for our watermarking signal. Using this method, we need a longer time than the previously presented method to send the signature. The signature bit rate f_{wm} is:

$$f_{wm} = \frac{f_c}{32} = \frac{f_{clk}}{10 * 32} = \frac{f_{clk}}{320}$$
 (12)

The watermark control inside the wrapper (see Section V) is altered to control the power pattern generator in this way. Only few additional resources are used for the enhanced watermark control.

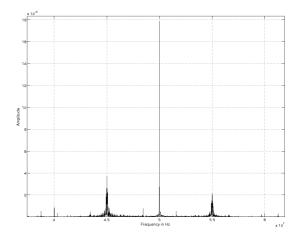


Fig. 12. The spectrum of a measured signal. The clock frequency of 50 MHz and the two side bands of the modulated signal S_c are shown at 45 MHz and 55 MHz.

If we look at the spectrum of the recorded signal (see Fig. 12), we see the clock frequency f_{clk} and two side bands from the OOK modulation $f_{clk} - f_c$ and $f_{clk} + f_c$.

The detection algorithm for this method is different than from the other methods. Only the first (down sampling) and the last step (quantization) are identical (see Fig. 13). After down sampling, the two side bands of carrier signal are mixed down into the base band (S_{c1} and S_{c2}) and are combined (S_{cc})

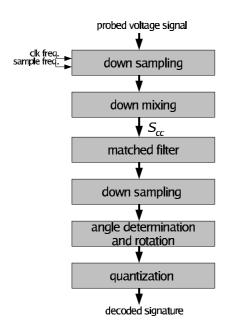


Fig. 13. The different steps of the BPSK detection algorithm.

as follows:

$$s[k],$$
 $k = 0, 1, ..., K - 1$ (13)

$$S_{c1}[k] = s[k] \cdot e^{-j2\pi \cdot (\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{40}) \cdot k}, \tag{14}$$

$$S_{c2}[k] = s[k] \cdot e^{-j2\pi \cdot (\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{40}) \cdot k}, \tag{15}$$

$$S_{cc}[k] = S_{c1} + S_{c2}, (16)$$

where s is the voltage signal after down sampling with index k. The clock frequency is $f_{clk} = \frac{1}{4} \cdot f_{sample}$, and the frequency $f_c = \frac{1}{10} \cdot f_{clk} = \frac{1}{40} \cdot f_{sample}$. The sample frequency of the recorded voltage signal is f_{sample} . After low pass filtering of S_{cc} , we get the complex carrier signal S_c (see Fig. 14).

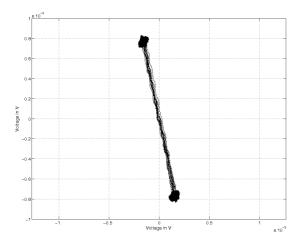


Fig. 14. The constellation diagram of the down mixed complex signal S_c . Here, the two different BPSK constellation points for the signature bit '1' and '0' are shown.

 S_{cc} is filtered with a matched filter to obtain the limits of one signature bit and the correct sample point. All samples of S_c which belong to one signature bit are summed up into

this sample point by the matched filter. At the down sampling step, only these points are used to represent the signature bits. Now, the angle of the signal is calculated from the signature bit with the highest amplitude, and the signal is rotated into the real plane. From the real signal, the value of the bits and the quality of the signal are determined similar to the other detection algorithms (see Section VI).

The advantage of the *BPSK* method is its the robustness with respect to interferences which are coupled with the clock frequency. The disadvantages are the longer reset phase and the fact that we can only detect bit value changes and not the signature bit value directly due to the *BPSK* modulation. Using proper encoding methods and preambles, the bit values can be reconstructed.

VIII. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In the following experiments, we used two FPGA-boards, the Digilent Spartan-3 Starter Board [15], and a board equipped with a Xilinx Virtex II XC2V250 FPGA. On the second board, many other components, such as an ARM micro controller and interface chips are integrated to demonstrate that the algorithm is also working on multi-chip boards. The Spartan-3 board operates with a clock frequency of 50 MHz, the Virtex II board at 74.25 MHz.

On both boards, the voltage is measured on the back of the printed circuit board directly on the via which connects the FPGA with the power plane of the printed circuit board. We used a 50 Ohm wire with a 50 Ohm terminating resistor. This wire is directly soldered on the vias. We have used a DC block element and a 25 MHz high pass filter to filter the DC component and the interferences of the switching voltage controller. We used a LeCroy Wavepro 7300 oscilloscope with 20 Giga Samples per second to measure the voltage. The voltage amplitude of the measured switch peak is very small, so we used a digital enhanced resolution filter to improve the dynamics, at the cost of a decrease in bandwidth. The signal of the length of $200~\mu s$ is recorded on the internal hard disc of the oscilloscope. This signal file is transferred to a personal computer and analyzed there.

The functionality of our proposed watermark detection methods is evaluated for a DES Core with 56 Bit from opencores.org [16] and an arithmetic coder core. Arithmetic coders are used within JPEG2000 [17]. Research within the European Union project "WorldScreen" focuses on hardware implementation of JPEG2000 encoders.

After the synthesis step, only 16 out of 715 lookup tables from the DES56 core have been transformed into SRL16 and a n=32 Bit signature has been added. Also, for the arithmetic coder core, 92 out of 1332 lookup tables have been transformed into SRL16. Both core inputs were stimulated using a pseudo random sequence generated by a linear feedback shift register to simulate input data.

The decoded sequence was compared with the encoded signature from the core to evaluate the bit error rate. Further from the signal, where the bit decision is done, two quality indicators were calculated. One is the *signal to noise ratio* (SNR) of these signals. Because we make a threshold decision,

SNR values under 4 dB are difficult to decode. We also calculate the SNR from the decoded sequence, so bit errors falsified our SNR. In these cases, the real SNR is lower than the calculated SNR. The second indicator called *bit gain* is the difference from the mean level of the bits and the threshold level. This indicator shows how big the difference of the voltage swing between ones and zeros of the signature is. Also, the root mean square (RMS) from the recorded signal without the DC part is measured. Figure 15 shows a signal of good quality before the bit decisions with an SNR value of 37 dB. The signal shown in Figure 16 is of lower quality and has a SNR of 9 dB.

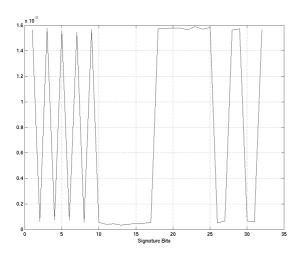


Fig. 15. A signal of good quality for the bit decisions with an SNR value of 37 dB.

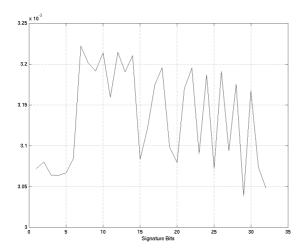


Fig. 16. A signal of lower quality with a SNR of 9 dB, but without bit errors.

First, the basic method described in Section VI is evaluated (see Table I). We decoded the signature with both boards and the DES56 core where only 16 lookup tables are transformed into SRL16. We have evaluated two cases, one where only the watermarked core is implemented (case *A*) and one where the watermarked core and the original core is implemented to

 $\label{eq:TABLE I} \textbf{Results of the basic method}$

| Case | Board | Bit Error Rate | Signal RMS | SNR | Bit Gain | | |
|-----------------|------------|----------------|------------|-------|----------|--|--|
| | | in % | in mV | in dB | | | |
| Signature S_1 | | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 0 | | 0.376 | 8.5 | 0.126 | | |
| B | Spartan3 | 9.4 | 0.511 | 4 | 0.112 | | |
| A | VirtexII | 21.9 | 0.821 | 4 | 0.277 | | |
| B | VirtexII | 31.2 | 1.047 | 4 | 0.263 | | |
| Signature S_2 | | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.374 | 8.5 | 0.147 | | |
| B | Spartan3 | 3.1 | 0.513 | 4.5 | 0.137 | | |
| A | VirtexII | 6.2 | 0.859 | 4 | 0.561 | | |
| B | VirtexII | 0 | 1.063 | 8.5 | 0.632 | | |
| Signature S_3 | | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 6.2 | 0.380 | 4 | 0.111 | | |
| B | Spartan3 | 12.5 | 0.516 | 3 | 0.122 | | |
| A | VirtexII | na | 0.841 | 3.5 | 0.368 | | |
| B | VirtexII | 9.4 | 1.073 | 3.5 | 0.381 | | |

check the functionality of the watermarked core (case B). This is done by connecting both cores to the same pseudo random input data and compare the output when the cores are not in the reset state. We embedded three signatures (S_1 , S_2 , S_3) in the core. The Signature S_1 is "5C918CBA" and represents a realistic random signature. Signature S_2 is "3333333333" and signature S_3 is "FF335500". With these signatures, we can evaluate the decoding method with different bit toggle rates.

Table I shows that decoding does not always work without bit errors, but here, we have transformed only 16 lookup tables into SRL16.

In case A, the detection works better than in case B. In case B, more logic is used, but this logic is in the reset state. Nevertheless, the clock tree is still active which can be seen in the higher signal RMS value. The signature S_3 is difficult to decode, because there are many equal bits lumped together and so the printed circuit board works as a resonator (see Section VII-A).

To evaluate the enhanced robustness method described in Section VII-A, we use the same test cases and implement only the signature S_3 , which is harder to decode (see Table II). Also, we define two additional test cases. In C, the unwatermarked core has an inverted reset, so the core is working when the watermark is sending the signature. In D, two cores are working, while the signature is emitted. Not all combinations in D are possible because the FPGA is too small to implement all three cores. Additionally, we have evaluated this method with the arithmetic coder core.

Table II shows that the detection of the watermarked signature works much better than with the basic method. The decoding for the DES56 core works fine even if one or two of the same DES56 cores operate at the same time the signature is emitted. Also here, we use only 16 SRL16 in the DES56 core. For the arithmetic coder core, we use more lookup tables, and if no other core operates, the decoding results are better than for the DES56 core. But if another arithmetic coder core is active, the decoding fails. The signal RMS indicates that

TABLE II
RESULTS OF THE ENHANCED METHOD

 $\label{eq:table_interpolation} \text{TABLE IV}$ Results of the BPSK method

| Case | Board | Bit Error Rate | Signal RMS | SNR | Bit Gain | | |
|-----------------------|-------------|----------------|------------|-------|----------|--|--|
| | | in % | in mV | in dB | | | |
| | DES 56 Core | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.384 | 22 | 0.087 | | |
| B | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.508 | 23 | 0.110 | | |
| C | Spartan3 | 0 | 1.21 | 22 | 0.109 | | |
| D | Spartan3 | 0 | 2.15 | 10.5 | 0.0539 | | |
| A | VirtexII | 0 | 0.794 | 18 | 0.067 | | |
| B | VirtexII | 0 | 1.022 | 22.5 | 0.191 | | |
| C | VirtexII | 0 | 2.698 | 12 | 0.067 | | |
| Arithmetic Coder Core | | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.618 | 37 | 0.758 | | |
| B | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.617 | 38 | 0.720 | | |
| C | Spartan3 | na | 4.488 | 3 | 0.216 | | |
| A | VirtexII | 0 | 1.347 | 37.5 | 1.248 | | |
| B | VirtexII | 0 | 1.343 | 37 | 1.191 | | |

| Case | Board | Bit Error Rate | Signal RMS | SNR | Bit Gain | |
|-----------------------|----------|----------------|------------|-------|----------|--|
| | | in % | in mV | in dB | | |
| DES 56 Core | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.431 | 22 | 0.091 | |
| B | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.530 | 22.5 | 0.086 | |
| C | Spartan3 | 0 | 1.410 | 25.5 | 0.093 | |
| D | Spartan3 | 0 | 1.432 | 20 | 0.044 | |
| A | VirtexII | 0 | 1.003 | 19 | 0.152 | |
| B | VirtexII | 0 | 1.353 | 19 | 0.073 | |
| C | VirtexII | 0 | 3.030 | 23 | 0.178 | |
| Arithmetic Coder Core | | | | | | |
| A | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.593 | 23.5 | 0.322 | |
| B | Spartan3 | 0 | 0.703 | 29.5 | 0.438 | |
| C | Spartan3 | 0 | 4.207 | 14 | 0.188 | |
| A | VirtexII | 0 | 0.340 | 27 | 0.654 | |
| B | VirtexII | 0 | 0.510 | 19 | 0.239 | |

TABLE III
RESULTS WITH DECREASED RECORD TIME

| | 200 μs | | 100 μs | | 50 μs | |
|------|--------|----------|--------|----------|-------|----------|
| Case | SNR | Bit Gain | SNR | Bit Gain | SNR | Bit Gain |
| | in dB | | in dB | | in dB | |
| A | 22 | 0.087 | 21.5 | 0.091 | 16 | 0.090 |
| B | 23 | 0.110 | 19.5 | 0.110 | 16.5 | 0.111 |
| C | 22 | 0.109 | 18 | 0.107 | 18.5 | 0.107 |
| D | 10.5 | 0.054 | 10 | 0.057 | 9.5 | 0.061 |

the arithmetic coder core has a very high toggle rate.

In Table III, we decreased the recording length to see the impact of the quality of our results. This is done using the DES56 core in all four cases. The quality degenerates but with the recording length of 50 μ s, it is still possible to detect the watermark without bit errors in case D even if two other cores are simultaneously active.

Finally, the evaluation of the *BPSK* detection algorithm, described in Section VII-B, is done using the same test cases as for the enhanced robustness method (see Table IV). Also, the number of lookup tables which are converted into shift registers is the same. The results show that error-free decoding is possible in all test cases, also in the critical test case for the arithmetic coder C with the Spartan3 FPGA, where decoding is not possible with the enhanced robustness method. This shows that the *BPSK* method can deal better with test cases, which have high interferences on the clock frequency like other working cores with a high toggle rate.

IX. CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a new watermark technique for IP cores implemented on FPGA targets where the signature is easily extracted over the power pins of the chip. So, it is possible to read out the watermark only with the given device without further information from the vendor of the product, and to decide with high reliability, whether an IP core of a certain vendor is present on th FPGA or not. We have shown how the

watermark is easily integrated into a core. For Xilinx FPGAs, it is possible to integrate the watermark algorithm and the signature into the functionality of the core, so it is hard to remove the watermark, and only very few additional resources were required for control. In Section VI, we also introduced a basic algorithms to detect a signature over the power trace of the FPGA, and experimental results have shown that the functionality of the core is not altered. Also, we introduced an enhanced robustness technique for the basic method, and a new decoding method based on BPSK (Binary Phase Shift Keying) modulation, which improves the decoding quality of the signature even further. With these enhanced decoding methods, we are able to decode a signature even if other cores are simultaneously active on the same hardware device. We also introduced quality indicators to evaluate the result of the decoded signature. With these indicators, we have proven the reliability of our techniques.

The experimental results have shown that decoding is possible in all test cases, but we can further improve the quality of the results if we transform more lookup tables into shift registers or if we extend the recording time. Additionally, the signature width might be increased to insert error codes or cyclic redundancy check (CRC) values.

If an FPGA design includes multiple watermarked cores, mutual interference between different signatures may occur, lowering the detection probability. Our transmission scheme is prepared for these constraints by having different repetition periods, but further enhancement could incorporate a sending scheme which addresses better the sending of multiple signatures. Further research on this topic is envisaged.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Part of this work was funded under the sixth Framework Programme (FP6) of the EU within the project "WorldScreen - Layered Compression Technologies for Digital Cinematography and Cross Media Conversion" Project No. 511333, http://www.worldscreen.org

REFERENCES

- [1] Xilinx, Inc. Next-Generation Virtex Family From Xilinx to top one Billion Transistor Mark. 03131_nextgen.htm. [Online]. Available: www.xilinx.com/prs_rls/silicon_vir/
- [2] L. Boney, A. H. Tewfik, and K. N. Hamdy, "Digital watermarks for audio signals," in *International Conference on Multimedia Computing and Systems*, 1996, pp. 473–480. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/boney96digital.html
- [3] J. Lach, W. H. Mangione-Smith, and M. Potkonjak, "Signature hiding techniques for FPGA intellectual property protection," in *proceedings of ICCAD*, 1998, pp. 186–189. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/lach98signature.html
- [4] Kahng, Lach, Mangione-Smith, Mantik, Markov, Potkonjak, Tucker, Wang, and Wolfe, "Constraint-based watermarking techniques for design IP protection," *IEEETCAD: IEEE Transactions on Computer-Aided Design of Integrated Circuits and Systems*, vol. 20, 2001. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/kahng01constraintbased.html
- [5] D. Kirovski and M. Potkonjak, "Intellectual property protection using watermarking partial scan chains for sequential logic test generation," in *ICCAD*, 1998. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/218548.html
- [6] D. Kirovski, Y.-Y. Hwang, M. Potkonjak, and J. Cong, "Intellectual property protection by watermarking combinational logic synthesis solutions," in *proceedings of ICCAD*, 1998, pp. 194–198. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/article/kirovski98intellectual.html
- [7] A. B. Kahng, S. Mantik, I. L. Markov, M. Potkonjak, P. Tucker, H. Wang, and G. Wolfe, "Robust IP watermarking methodologies for physical design," in *Design Automation Conference*, 1998, pp. 782–787. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/kahng98robust.html
- [8] D. Ziener, S. Aßmus, and J. Teich, "Identifying FPGA IP-Cores based on Lookup Table Content Analysis," in *Proceedings of 16th International Conference on Field Programmable Logic and Applications*, Madrid, Spain, Aug. 2006, pp. 481–486.
- [9] D. Ziener and J. Teich, "Evaluation of Watermarking methods for FPGA-based IP-cores," University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Department of CS 12, Hardware-Software-Co-Design, Am Weichselgarten 3, D-91058 Erlangen, Germany, Tech. Rep. 01-2006, Mar. 2006.
- [10] P. Kocher, J. Jaffe, and B. Jun, "Differential power analysis," *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, vol. 1666, pp. 388–397, 1999. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/kocher99differential.html
- [11] D. Agrawal, B. Archambeault, J. R. Rao, and P. Rohatgi, "The em side-channel(s)," in CHES '02: Revised Papers from the 4th International Workshop on Cryptographic Hardware and Embedded Systems. London, UK: Springer-Verlag, 2003, pp. 29–45.
- [12] A. Chandrakasan, S. Sheng, and R. Brodersen, "Low-Power CMOS Digital Design," 1992. [Online]. Available: citeseer.ist.psu.edu/chandrakasan95low.html
- [13] L. Shang, A. S. Kaviani, and K. Bathala, "Dynamic power consumption in Virtex-II FPGA family," in FPGA '02: Proceedings of the 2002 ACM/SIGDA tenth international symposium on Field-programmable gate arrays. New York, NY, USA: ACM Press, 2002, pp. 157–164.
- [14] Xilinx, Inc. Virtex-ii platform fpgas: Complete data sheet. ds031.pdf. [Online]. Available: direct.xilinx.com/bvdocs/publications
- [15] Digilent, Inc. Spartan-3 board. S3BOARD.cfm. [Online]. Available: www.digilentinc.com/info
- [16] Opencores.org. Basic des crypto core: Overview. overview. [Online]. Available: www.opencores.org/projects.cgi/web/basicdes
- [17] D. S. Taubman and M. W. Marcellin, JPEG 2000: Image Compression Fundamentals, Standards and Practice. Norwell, MA, USA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001.



Daniel Ziener received his diploma degree (Dipl.-Ing. (FH)) in Electrical Engineering from University of Applied Science Aschaffenburg, Germany, in August 2002. In 2003 he joined the Fraunhofer Institute of Integrated Circuits (IIS) in Erlangen, Germany as a research staff in electronic imaging group, and the Department of Hardware-Software-Co-Design at the University of Erlangen-Nuremberg headed by Prof. Jürgen Teich as Ph.D. student. His main research interests are IP core watermarking, the efficient usage of the FPGA structures, design

of signal processing FPGA cores, and reliable and fault tolerant processors.



Jürgen Teich received his masters degree (Dipl.-Ing.) in 1989 from the University of Kaiserslautern (with honors). From 1989 to 1993, he was PhD student at the University of Saarland, Saarbrücken, Germany from where he received his PhD degree (summa cum laude). His PhD thesis entitled 'A Compiler for Application-Specific Processor Arrays' summarizes his work on extending techniques for mapping computation intensive algorithms onto dedicated VLSI processor arrays. In 1994, Dr. Teich joined the DSP design group of Prof. E. A. Lee

and D.G. Messerschmitt in the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences (EECS) at UC Berkeley where he was working in the Ptolemy project (PostDoc). From 1995-1998, he held a position at Institute of Computer Engineering and Communications Networks Laboratory (TIK) at ETH Zürich, Switzlerland, finishing his Habilitation entitled *Synthesis and Optimization of Digital Hardware/ Software Systems* in 1996. From 1998-2002, he was full professor in the Electrical Engineering and Information Technology department of the University of Paderborn, Germany, holding a chair in Computer Engineering. In Paderborn, he also worked in two Collaborative Research Centers sponsored by the German Science Foundation (DFG). Since 2003, he is appointed full professor in the Computer Science Institute of the University Erlangen-Nuremberg, holding the new Hardware-Software-Co-Design chair.

Mr. Teich has been a member of multiple program committees of well-known conferences such as the DATE (Design, Automation, and Test in Europe) as well as editor of several books. Furthermore, he has started a successful German research initiative on reconfigurable systems in May 2003. Since 2004, Prof. Teich is also elected reviewer of the German Science Foundation (DFG) for the area of Computer Architectures and Embedded Systems. He is member of the IEEE and author of a textbook on hardware/software codesign edited by Springer in 2007. His special interests are massive parallelism, embedded systems, hardware/software codesign, and computer architecture.