High-quality and Low-complexity Polar-coded Radio-wave Encrypted Modulation utilizing Multipurpose Frozen Bits

Keisuke Asano†, Takumi Abe†, Kenta Kato†, Members, Eiji Okamoto†, Fellow, and Tetsuya Yamamoto††, Senior Member

SUMMARY In recent years, physical layer security (PLS), which utilizes the inherent randomness of wireless signals to perform encryption at the physical layer, has attracted attention. We propose chaos modulation as a PLS technique. In addition, a method for encryption using a special encoder of polar codes has been proposed (PLS-polar), in which PLS can be easily achieved by encrypting the frozen bits of a polar code. Previously, we proposed a chaos-modulated polar code transmission method that can achieve high-quality and improved-security transmission using frozen bit encryption in polar codes. However, in principle, chaos modulation requires maximum likelihood sequence estimation (MLSE) for demodulation, and a large number of candidates for MLSE causes characteristic degradation in the low signal-to-noise ratio region in chaos polar transmission. To address this problem, in this study, we propose a versatile frozen bit method for polar codes, in which the frozen bits are also used to reduce the number of MLSE candidates for chaos demodulation. The numerical results show that the proposed method shows a performance improvement by 1.7 dB at a block error rate of $10^{-3}$ with a code length of 512 and a code rate of 0.25 compared with that of conventional methods. We also show that the complexity of demodulation can be reduced to 1/16 of that of the conventional method without degrading computational security. Furthermore, we clarified the effective region of the proposed method when the code length and code rate were varied.

Key words: radio-wave encryption, chaos modulation, physical layer security, polar codes, frozen bits

1. Introduction

In recent years, the number of Internet of things (IoT) applications has been rapidly increasing. IoT is expected to play an important role in several fields, such as medicine, industry, and transportation [1]. IoT can be applied to smart factories and cities, thus transforming industries and people’s lives. Furthermore, IoT is highly compatible with 5G massive machine-type communications [2], and it is expected that IoT networks will be communicating simultaneously in the future. In such cases, wireless networks will transmit significant control signals and personal information [3]. Wireless communication is vulnerable to eavesdropping because messages are transmitted by electromagnetic waves that can be accessed by an unspecified number of receivers [4]. Therefore, the security of transmissions for future wireless communications should be considered, in addition to quality and delay considerations [5].

Encryption is a common method to secure communications. Currently, it is mainly performed in the upper layers, e.g., the Rivest–Shamir–Adleman [6] and advanced encryption standard algorithms [7]. These encryption schemes have guaranteed computational security, as a large amount of computation is required to decrypt the cipher. However, the computing power of devices, such as quantum computers, has been rapidly increasing, and eavesdroppers (Eves) can decrypt ciphers in a shorter time, which may degrade the security of encryption. Furthermore, if safer communication is implemented in the upper layers, more complex and expensive encryption protocols will be required. In particular, IoT devices are inexpensive and resource-limited, and thus, implementing complex encryption using these devices is difficult [8].

To solve this problem, physical layer security (PLS) has attracted considerable attention. PLS takes advantage of the inherent randomness of wireless signals, such as noise or channel state information (CSI), to ensure secure communication in the physical layer [9]. The security of PLS is based on the information theory and is not degraded by eavesdroppers with unlimited computing power [10]. Moreover, PLS is easy to implement and is an effective wireless security technology for several applications, not only IoT [11, 12]. Therefore, the integration of PLS and cryptographic techniques with existing upper layers is a promising approach for future secure wireless networks [13]. In this context, the application of PLS to essential technologies, such as device-to-device communication [14, 15] and full duplex [16, 17], has been studied.

PLS techniques are primarily classified into artificial noise [18], channel coding [19], and symmetric key cryptography using CSI [20]. Among these techniques, CSI-based symmetric key cryptography is known to be effective in 5G IoT networks where key distribution and management are difficult [21]. Furthermore, chaos theory is highly compatible with symmetric key cryptography because of its initial value sensitivities, and is an important way to realize PLS [22, 23]. We also proposed chaos modulation, which encrypts a modulated signal by utilizing a shared key between legitimate users (Alice and Bob) and the initial value sensitivities [24]. Chaos modulation uses a Gaussian-
distributed chaotic signal according to the transmitted bit pattern so that the effect of error correction can be added during modulation. Therefore, it is superior to other chaotic cryptography methods because it can achieve both physical-layer confidentiality and high-quality transmission with a single key [25].

Polar codes are a channel-coding technique proposed by Arikan [26]. They have been rigorously proven to achieve the Shannon limit in binary-input discrete memoryless channels [27]. In encoding, the inputs are the information bits and frozen bits shared by Alice and Bob. The coding gain is obtained by assigning frozen bits to noisy channels. Low-complexity successive cancellation (SC) decoding was proposed in [26]. As an extension of SC decoding, SC list decoding, which preserves the number sequence of lists, was proposed in [28] and achieved higher performance. Furthermore, the application of cyclic redundancy check codes to list decoding [29] can achieve a better performance than the application of low-density parity-check codes for a short coding length. Because of these advantages, polar codes have been adopted in the uplink and downlink control channels of enhanced mobile broadband in the 5G standardization of 3GPP [30].

In addition, the structure of a polar code allows a part of the codeword to be fixed using only frozen bits [31] (“fixed bits”). As the frozen bits are shared between Alice and Bob in advance, the receiver can know part of the codeword. Using this property, a reliable puncture method was proposed in [31]. In [32], a highly efficient channel-estimation method without additional bits was proposed by utilizing fixed bits as pilot symbols. Polar codes have also attracted attention from an encryption perspective owing to their nested structure (PLS-polar) [33, 34]. In [33], the authors showed that the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the Alice–Eve channel can be reduced by taking advantage of channel polarization. Furthermore, an encryption method for frozen bits has been proposed [34], which takes advantage of the fact that the frozen bits are not decryptable unless they are known between the transmitter and the receiver. Previously, we proposed a PLS-polar method [25] with better security and higher reliability by applying chaos modulation to the method proposed in [34]. In [25], a single key was required for the encryption of both the polar encoder and chaos modulator parts, which easily improved the security of the physical layer. Simultaneously, the coding gain of chaos modulation provides better block error rate (BLER) characteristics than linear modulation under good communication conditions. However, in principle, chaos modulation requires maximum likelihood sequence estimation (MLSE) for demodulation, and a large number of candidates for MLSE have led to characteristic degradation in the low-SNR region [25].

To solve this problem, in this study, we propose a versatile frozen bit method for polar codes based on [31, 32], in which the frozen bits are used to reduce the number of MLSE candidates. In the proposed method, fixed bits are generated in a codeword, and a fixed bit pattern is shared between Alice and Bob using a secret key. This makes part of the codeword known to Bob, and frozen bits can be used to reduce the number of MLSE candidates. This method improves the accuracy of MLSE and achieves an improvement of approximately 1.7 dB at a BLER of 10^{-3} for a code length of 512 and a code rate of 0.25, compared with the conventional method [25]. Simultaneously, the number of MLSE operations was reduced to 1/16, resulting in much lower complexity than that in [25]. Furthermore, as the fixed bits are derived from encrypted frozen bits, only Bob can reduce the number of candidates, and the proposed method shows no degradation in terms of computational security. The main contributions of this study are as follows:

- By using the frozen bits to reduce the number of MLSE candidates, the number of MLSE operations can be significantly reduced.
- The proposed method improves the accuracy of MLSE and significantly eliminates degradation in the low-SNR region, which is a limitation of [25].
- We clarify the effective region of the proposed method by evaluating it with different code lengths and rates.
- As fixed bits are generated from the shared key between Alice and Bob, there is no degradation in computational security.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Sections 2 and 3, we briefly review the polar codes and present the system structure of the proposed method, respectively. In Section 4, the effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated through numerical simulations and the effective region of the proposed system is clarified. Finally, conclusions are presented in Section 5.

2. Polar codes with fixed bits

2.1. Polar code structure

Let $\mathbf{x} = [x_0, x_1, ..., x_{N-1}] \in \{0,1\}$ denote the input bit sequence to the polar encoder with code length $N = 2^m (m \in \mathbb{N})$, and $\mathbf{y} = [y_0, y_1, ..., y_{N-1}] \in \{0,1\}$ denote the codeword. $\mathbf{x}$ consists of the information bit sequence $\mathbf{u} = [u_0, u_1, ..., u_{K-1}] \in \{0,1\}$ and the frozen bit sequence $\mathbf{f} = [f_0, f_1, ..., f_{F-1}] \in \{0,1\}$, where $K$ is the information bit length and $F$ is the frozen bit length, satisfying $K + F = N$. Then, the code rate $r$ is expressed as $K/N$. In polar codes, information bits and frozen bits are assigned to channels with high and low capacities, respectively. The reliability of channels in polar codes can be estimated using a simulation-based method [26] and a Gaussian-approximation-based method [35]. Polar encoding is expressed as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{xG}_N,$$

where $\mathbf{G}_N$ denotes the generating matrix. $\mathbf{G}_N$ is defined using $\mathbf{F}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and the bit-reversal permutation matrix $\mathbf{B}_N$ as follows:
As in the regular encoding process described in Section 2.1, (iii) Allocation of information bit and polar encoding
After allocating \( u \) to the remaining indices, \( y \) is generated using (1). The encoding process generates fixed bits in \( y \) at \( p (= N/N_f) \) bit intervals. In Fig. 1, it can be observed that fixed bits exist at intervals of \( p = 8/2 = 4 \) bits. Defining \( N_f \) fixed bits as \( d = [d_0, d_1, \cdots, d_{N_f-1}] \in \{0, 1\}, \)
d can also be calculated according to (1) as \( N = N_f; \)
\[
d = [f_0, f_1, \cdots, f_{N_f-1}] \leftrightarrow G_{N_f} \]  \( (4) \)

Here, the same operation can be performed by shortening the code length of the polar code and inserting known “demodulation-assisting” bits externally. However, the transmission performance of the fixed bits shown in Fig. 1 is superior, as demonstrated in Section 4.2.

2.3 Sharing of fixed bits in the proposed method

It is necessary to share \( f \) between the transmitter and the receiver to make the generated fixed bits known to the receiver. In this study, \( f \) is generated and shared by utilizing a secret key \( c_0 \in \mathbb{C} \) that satisfies the following condition, which is also used in the chaos modulation described in Section 3.1.

\[
0 < \text{Re}[c_0] < 1, \quad 0 < \text{Im}[c_0] < 1 \]  \( (5) \)

Here, \( c_0 \) is generated using a 32-bit precision binary random number that can be handled in the C language. It is also assumed that \( c_0 \) is shared between Alice and Bob in advance through key generation using CSI, as in [36]. Similar to [25], Alice and Bob input \( c_0 \) into a pseudo-random number generator using a logistic map [37] to encrypt \( f \). Then, the fixed bit sequence \( d \) is obtained by encoding \( [f_0, f_1, \cdots, f_{N_f-1}] \) according to (4). As this operation in Bob determines \( d \) in the received signal \( y \) in advance, the number of candidates in the MLSE can be reduced using \( d \), as described in Section 3.2.

3. Proposed method

3.1. Transmitter structure

Fig. 2 shows the transmitter structure of the proposed method, where \( \Pi \) indicates an interleaver. We assume multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) multiplexing transmission with \( N_t \) and \( N_r \) transmitting and receiving antennas, respectively. First, Alice and Bob input \( c_0 \) to a chaotic pseudo-random number generator [25] and encrypt \( f \). Subsequently, \( x \) is constructed according to Section 2.2, and \( y \) is generated by encoding. This generates \( N_t \) fixed bits in \( y \) at \( p \) intervals. Then, \( y \) is separately interleaved with the fixed bits and other bits, as shown in Fig.
3, to obtain the series \( \mathbf{b} = [b_0, b_1, ..., b_{N-1}] \in \{0, 1\} \). This is because such separate interleaving has better characteristics than the random interleaving of all the bits (Appendix A). In modulation, \( \mathbf{b} \) is divided into chaos blocks of length \( N_c = \frac{N}{N_c} \) bits each, and chaos modulation is performed, where \( N_c \) is the MIMO block length and indicates the number of blocks transmitted per transmitting antenna. The bit sequence \( \mathbf{b}_n \in \{0, 1\} \) corresponding to the \( n \) th \((0 \leq n \leq \frac{N}{N_c} - 1)\) block is defined as \( \mathbf{b}_n = [b_{n,0}, b_{n,1}, ..., b_{n,N_c-1}] \). \( \mathbf{b}_n \) is transformed by chaos modulation [38] into a complex signal \( \mathbf{s}_n = [s_{n,0}, s_{n,1}, ..., s_{n,N_c-1}] \in \mathbb{C} \) that follows a Gaussian distribution. Here, there are fixed bits in \( \mathbf{b}_n \), which can also be known at the receiver. If \( N_c N_f \geq N \), then fixed bits exist in all \( \frac{N}{N_c} \) blocks; otherwise, they exist only in some blocks. However, for simplicity, this study assumed that at least one bit exists. That is, the number of fixed bits \( N_c \) in a block is expressed as

\[
N_c = \frac{N_c}{p} = \frac{N}{N_c N_f} \quad (N_c N_f \geq N) \quad (6)
\]

Then, MIMO multiplexing transmission is performed by dividing \( \mathbf{s}_n \) by \( N_c \) bits \( B \) times. The transmission vector \( \mathbf{s}_n(k) \in \mathbb{C} \) at time \( k \) \((0 \leq k \leq N_c - 1)\) is

\[
\mathbf{s}_n(k) = [s_{n,0}(k), s_{n,1}(k), ..., s_{n,N_c-1}(k)]^T
\]

(7)

where \( T \) denotes the transposition. Thus, one MIMO block \( \mathbf{S}_n = [s_{n,0}, s_{n,1}, ..., s_{n,N_c-1}] \in \mathbb{C} \) is transmitted, denoted by

\[
\mathbf{S}_n = [s_{n,0}(0) \vdots s_{n,N_c-1}(0) \vdots s_{n,0}(N_c - 1) \vdots s_{n,N_c-1}(N_c - 1)]
\]

(8)

3.2. Receiver structure

Fig. 4 shows the receiver structure of the proposed method, where \( \Pi^{-1} \) indicates a de-interleaver. The transmitted block passes through the channel, and the received block \( \mathbf{R}_n \in \mathbb{C} \) is given by

\[
\mathbf{R}_n = \mathbf{H}_n \mathbf{S}_n + \mathbf{N}_n
\]

(9)

where \( \mathbf{H}_n, \mathbf{N}_n \in \mathbb{C} \) are the channel matrix and complex Gaussian noise of the \( n \)th block, respectively. If Bob has the same \( c_0 \) as Alice, then Bob can hold the same \( f \) as Alice. Then, using \( f \) and (4), the fixed bit \( \mathbf{d} \) is calculated and \( N_c \) bits in \( \mathbf{R}_n \) are known. In MLSE, the bit sequence \( \mathbf{b}_n = [\hat{b}_{n,0}, \hat{b}_{n,1}, ..., \hat{b}_{n,N_c-1}] \in \{0, 1\} \) is estimated from \( \mathbf{R}_n \) as follows:

\[
\mathbf{b}_n = \arg \min \{\mu(n)\},
\]

(10)

\[
\mu(n) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} ||\mathbf{R}_n - \mathbf{H}_n \mathbf{s}_n'||^2 + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{j=0}^{N_c-1} (1 - 2\hat{b}'_{n,j}) \lambda_{cu}(\hat{b}'_{n,j}),
\]

(11)

where \( 0 \leq j \leq N_c - 1 \). \( ||.|.|| \) is the Frobenius norm, \( \sigma^2 \) is the noise power, and \( \mathbf{s}_n' \in \mathbb{C} \) is a chaos-modulated signal based on \( \mathbf{b}'_{n} \). \( \lambda_{cu}(\hat{b}'_{n,j}) \) is the prior log-likelihood ratio (LLR) of the chaos demodulator, which is zero for the first time. Although \( 2^{N_c} \) candidates must be considered in (10) in the conventional MLSE, in the proposed method, \( N_c \) bits out of \( N_c \) bits are known, and the number of considered candidates can be reduced to \( 2^N \). The posterior \( \lambda_{cp}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) \), which is the input to the concatenated polar decoder, is then calculated using (12). The calculation is performed depending on whether the index of \( (nN_c + j) \) is a fixed bit. If it is a fixed bit, \( \hat{b}_{n,j} \) is known from \( \mathbf{d} \):

\[
\lambda_{cp}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\{(1 - 2\hat{b}_{n,j})\infty \} & \text{(fixed bit)} \\
\ln \left( \frac{\sum_{b_{n,j}=0} \exp(-\mu(n))}{\sum_{b_{n,j}=1} \exp(-\mu(n))} \right) & \text{(other)} 
\end{array} \right.
\]

(12)

The relationship among \( N, N_c, N_f \), and \( p \) is shown in Fig. 5. The proposed method employs the frozen bits for “demodulation assistance,” which improves the accuracy of MLSE estimation and the quality of LLR calculated using (12). Then, the extrinsic LLR \( \lambda_{ce}(\hat{b}'_{n,j}) \) is calculated by subtracting \( \lambda_{cu}(\hat{b}'_{n,j}) \) from \( \lambda_{cp}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) \) as follows:

\[
\lambda_{ce}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) = \lambda_{cp}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) - \lambda_{cu}(\hat{b}_{n,j}).
\]

(13)

Then, \( \lambda_{ce}(\hat{b}_{n,j}) \) passes through the deinterleaver and is input to the polar decoder as the prior LLR \( \lambda_{pu}(\hat{x}_{n,j}) \). In this study, we used soft list decoding (SLD) [39], which is a list decoding method applicable to turbo decoding. The extrinsic LLR \( \lambda_{pu}(\hat{x}_{n,j}) \) is generated by the polar decoder and input as the prior LLR \( \lambda_{cu}(\hat{x}_{n,j}) \) after passing through the interleaver. The MLSE of (10) is then repeated using the
updated $\lambda_{\text{col}}(b^n_{\text{pT}})$. This process is iterated $I$ times. Subsequently, the posteriori LLR obtained from the polar decoder is used to obtain the estimated bit sequence $\hat{\mathbf{u}} = [\hat{u}_0, \hat{u}_1, ..., \hat{u}_{K-1}] \in \{0,1\}$.

4. Numerical results

The transmission characteristics of the proposed method are evaluated using the parameters listed in Table 1. We assume MIMO multiplexing with $N_t = N_r = 2$, one-path symbol i.i.d. quasi-static Rayleigh fading for the communication channel, and perfect channel estimation at the receiver side. Here, this study assumes that the channel interleaving ideally works and that the fading varies independently between symbols to maximize channel gain. Polar codes with $N = 512$ and $r = 0.25$ are used. With these values of $N$ and $r$, $N_c$ can take a value in the range $0 \leq N_c \leq F = 384$, but an $N_c$ value within the range $8 \leq N_c \leq 256$ that is a power of 2 is used to reduce the number of demodulation candidates to some extent. For chaos modulation, $N_c$ is set to $N_c = N_t N_b = 8$, the number of chaos iterations is set to 100, and $c_0$ is assumed to be pre-shared between Alice and Bob. Chaos and binary phase-shift keying (BPSK) demodulation were performed using MLSE and maximum likelihood detection (MLD), respectively. The polar decoding algorithm was SLD with a list size of 8 and maximum likelihood detection (MLD), respectively.

We evaluate the effective region of the proposed method by varying $r$ in Section 4.5.

4.1 Configuration of the number of fixed bits $N_f$

The BLER characteristics were calculated using $N_f$, and the appropriate setting of $N_f$ was clarified. A tradeoff exists between the demodulator and the decoder in designing $N_f$. Although a large $N_f$ enables a significant reduction in the number of demodulation candidates and improves the estimation accuracy of the demodulator, it also decreases the coding gain obtained at the polar decoder. In this study, we investigated $N_f$ with the smallest $E_b/N_0$ that achieved the BLER of $10^{-3}$. Fig. 6 shows the BLER characteristics for the proposed chaos modulation with $8 \leq N_f \leq 256$. The results show that the BLER changes depending on $N_f$ and $N_f = 256$ is optimal. In the proposed method, particularly at low code rates such as 0.25, the transmission efficiency is low and the MLSE estimation accuracy is poor; thus, it is effective to prioritize reducing the number of MLSE candidates. Therefore, the maximum value of $N_f = 256$ exhibits the best characteristics.

Subsequently, the BLER characteristics with a long code length of $N = 2048$ were calculated. As the frozen bit length is $F = 1536$ when $r = 0.25$, $N_f$ is in the range of $8 \leq N_f \leq 1024$. Here, $I = 5$ was used to mitigate the increase in the decoding complexity. Fig. 7 shows the BLER characteristics when $N_f$ was varied, and the other conditions were the same as those in Table 1. As shown in Fig. 6, $N_f = 1024$ is optimal for the proposed method to maximize the reduction of MLSE candidates at $\text{BLER} = 10^{-3}$. Hence, at low code rates, such as $r = 0.25$, $N_f = N/2$, where $N_f$ is the maximum value, is appropriate for the proposed method. These $N_f$ values are used in the following subsection.

Note that for BPSK-MLD, the fixed bits of $N_f > 0$ can also be used to reduce computation and improve MLD performance, and the same $N_f$ optimization for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Proposed</th>
<th>Conventional</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prop.</td>
<td>Chaos</td>
<td>Polar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Chaos</td>
<td>Polar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of antennas</td>
<td>$N_t = N_r = 2$</td>
<td>$N_t = N_r = 2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Channel model</td>
<td>1-path symbol i.i.d. quasi-static Rayleigh fading</td>
<td>1-path symbol i.i.d. quasi-static Rayleigh fading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Channel estimation</td>
<td>Ideal</td>
<td>Ideal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code length</td>
<td>$N = 512$</td>
<td>$N = 512$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code rate</td>
<td>$r = 0.25$</td>
<td>$r = 0.25$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information bit length</td>
<td>$K = 128$</td>
<td>$K = 128$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frozen bit length</td>
<td>$F = 384$</td>
<td>$F = 384$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of fixed bits</td>
<td>$N_f = 6, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256$</td>
<td>$N_f = 6, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIMO block length</td>
<td>$N_b = 4$</td>
<td>$N_b = 4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaos block length</td>
<td>$N_c = N_b = 8$</td>
<td>$N_c = N_b = 8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaos generator</td>
<td>Logistic map</td>
<td>Logistic map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of chaos iterations</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demodulation</td>
<td>MLSE</td>
<td>MLSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLSE</td>
<td>MLSE</td>
<td>MLSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of turbo iterations</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decoder</td>
<td>Soft list decoding (list size 8)</td>
<td>Soft list decoding (list size 8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This is an improvement of approximately 1.7 dB at the BLER of 10^-3 of the conventional chaos polar method. The BLER characteristics were the same as those in Section 4.1, except for the same transmission efficiency. The simulation conditions generated the same known bits as the proposed method with transmitted with a frame length of 512 bits. This method can conduct polar encoding, and subsequently, a "demodulation-assisting" method using pilot extrapolation by 1.5 dB. Therefore, the proposed method is effective for assisting MLSE by generating fixed bits inside polar codewords. Comparing the proposed method with the BPSK polar method, a gain of approximately 0.3 dB is obtained at BLER = 10^-3. This is because chaos modulation has a greater effect on turbo decoding than BPSK, because the coding gain is also obtained during demodulation.

Fig. 9 shows the BLER characteristics with N = 2048 and the same conditions as those in Section 4.1. The results show that the proposed method achieves gains of 0.65 dB and 0.1 dB over the conventional chaos polar and BPSK methods, respectively. The characteristics of the proposed method are better than those of the external pilot method, even with a long length. Therefore, the proposed method is effective, even when the code length is increased. In particular, at low code rates, such as r = 0.25, the conventional chaos polar method with N_f = 0 has significant degradation compared with the BPSK method owing to poor MLSE estimation accuracy. This study solved this problem by extending the purpose of the frozen bit, which is a significant contribution.
Chaos modulation has high computational security because in (5) is quantized and the signal pattern becomes finite. In this study, we focus on computational security and evaluate the security of the proposed method because the number of MLSE candidates can be reduced only for receivers that can obtain $c_0$ and generate a correct fixed-bit pattern $d$. Therefore, Eve, who does not hold $c_0$, cannot reduce the number of MLSE candidates and must perform a full search, which does not degrade security. Consequently, the proposed method improves BLER and reduces the number of demodulation operations without degrading computational security.

### 4.4 Computational security evaluation

In general, security evaluation is performed from two viewpoints: information theory and computational security. In this study, we focus on computational security and evaluate the security of the proposed method because the $c_0$ in (5) is quantized and the signal pattern becomes finite. Chaos modulation has high computational security because

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$N_f$</th>
<th>Complexity of demodulator</th>
<th>Complexity ratio with respect to conventional method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>245,760</td>
<td>93.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>229,376</td>
<td>87.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>196,208</td>
<td>75.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>131,072</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>65,536</td>
<td>25.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>256</td>
<td>16,384</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 9 BLER of the proposed method ($N = 2048, r = 0.25$).

Figs. 10 and 11 show the BLER characteristics when $N = 512$ and the code rates are $r = 0.5$ and 0.75, respectively, with the parameter $N_f$. The simulation conditions were the same as those in Table 1. For $r = 0.75$, $F$ becomes $F = 128$, resulting in the range $8 \leq N_f \leq 128$. The characteristics of BPSK with $N_f = 0$ [34] and the

4.5 Versatility evaluation of the proposed method
The proposed method had superior BLER characteristics compared with the conventional chaos polar and PLS-polar methods using BPSK modulation. The proposed method could reduce the complexity by up to 1/16 without degrading the computational security compared with the conventional chaos polar method. Finally, $N_f$ could be appropriately determined according to the code rate, and high-quality transmission could be achieved by using the proposed method together with existing methods.

Acknowledgments
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References

5. Conclusion
In this paper, we proposed a PLS-polar method that employs frozen bits for “demodulation assistance” in chaos demodulation. The numerical results showed that the proposed method had superior BLER characteristics compared with the conventional chaos polar and PLS-polar methods using BPSK modulation. The proposed method could reduce the complexity by up to 1/16 without degrading the computational security compared with the conventional chaos polar method. Finally, $N_f$ could be appropriately determined according to the code rate, and high-quality transmission could be achieved by using the proposed method together with existing methods.
Appendix A: Effect of separative interleaving

The BLER characteristics of the comprehensive random interleaver and separative interleaver, in which fixed bits and other bits are independently interleaved, as shown in Fig. 3, are calculated. In addition, to clarify the effect of interleaving, the characteristics without interleaving (no interleave) are also plotted. The results show that turbo
decoding does not work well when no interleaving is used, and the BLER is significantly degraded. The results also indicate that the separative interleaving method has superior characteristics. This is because the fixed bits are uniformly distributed to each chaos MIMO block by the separative interleaver, and the quality of the output LLR in chaos demodulation is improved on average. Therefore, the proposed method uses a separative interleaver, as shown in Fig. 3.

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