

Lecture 9: Modern Block Ciphers; Linear and Differential Attacks

*Instructor: Dr. Goutam Paul**Scribe: Mayank Raikwar*

1 Product Cipher

A product cipher combines two or more transformations in a manner intending that the resulting cipher is more secure than the individual components to make it resistant to cryptanalysis.

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_1 &= E_{k_1}(x) \\
 y_2 &= E_{k_2}(y_1) \\
 y_2 &= E_{k_2}^{(2)}(E_{k_1}^{(1)}(x)) \\
 y_2 &= (E_{k_2}^{(2)} \cdot E_{k_1}^{(1)})(x) \\
 x &= D_{k_1}^{(1)} \cdot D_{k_2}^{(2)}(y_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

For example consider $E^{(1)}$: Multiplication and $E^{(2)}$:Shift (Affine Cipher)

2 Iterated Block Cipher

An iterated block cipher is one that encrypts a plaintext block by a process that has several rounds. In each round, the same transformation or round function is applied to the data using a subkey. The set of subkeys are usually derived from the user-provided secret key by a key schedule. So basically it consist of:

1. Round function $g()$, working for r (say 16) rounds.
2. Key Scheduling Algorithm (to get keys for each round).

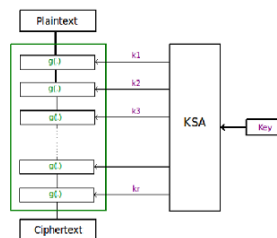


Figure 1: Iterated Block Cipher

3 Substitution-Permutation Network

One important type of iterated block cipher known as a substitution-permutation network (SPN) takes a block of the plaintext and the key as inputs, and applies several alternating rounds consisting of a substitution stage followed by a permutation stage to produce each block of ciphertext output.

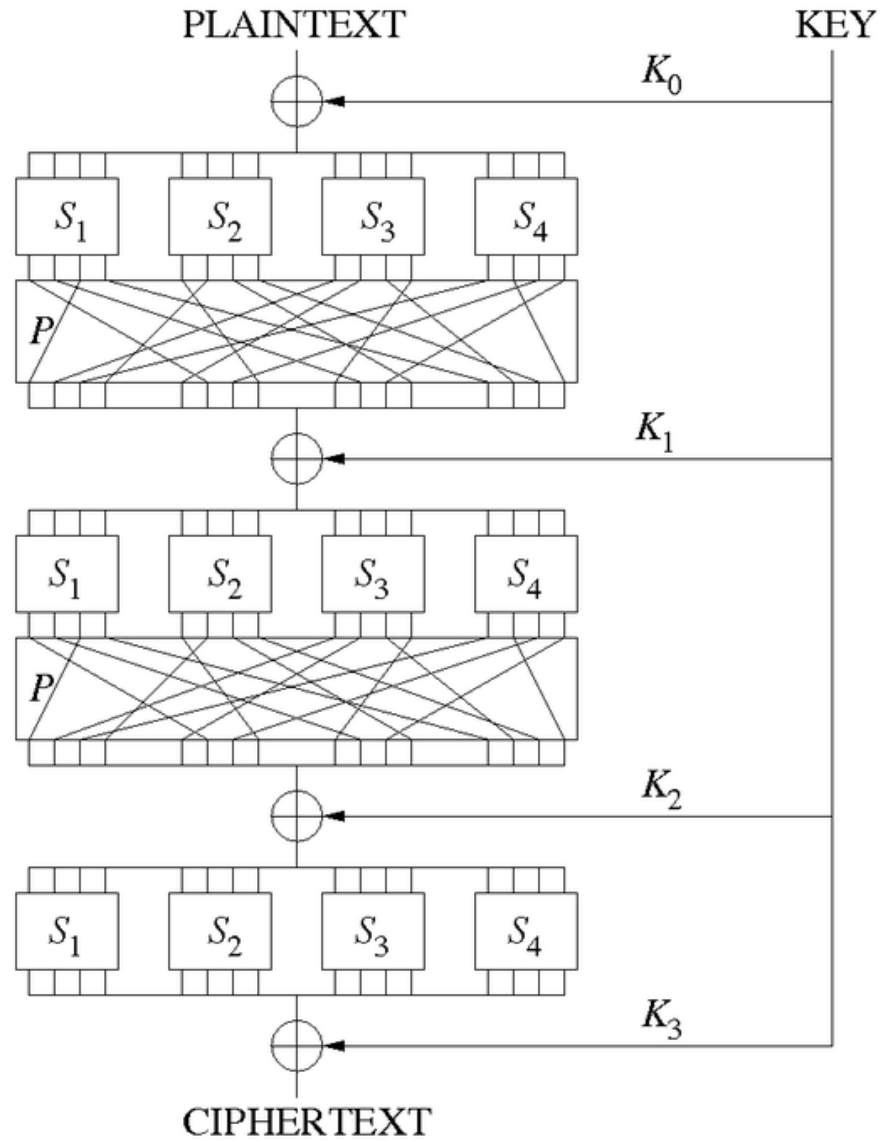


Figure 2: Substitution-Permutation Network

4 Linear Analysis

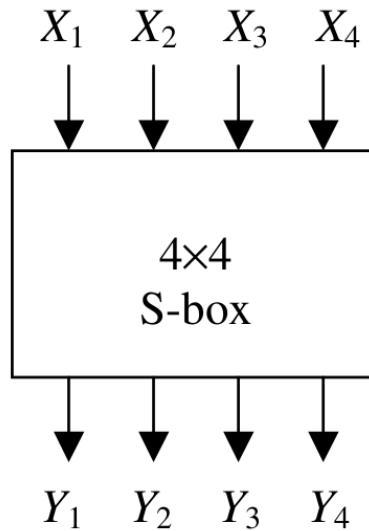


Figure 3: Idea behind Linear Analysis

1. Inputs : X_1, \dots, X_m
2. Outputs : Y_1, \dots, Y_n
3. Linear Approximation:

$$\Pr(\sum a_i X_i \oplus \sum b_j Y_j = 0) = p \neq \frac{1}{2}$$
4. Complete enumeration of all linear approximations is performed through a $2^m \times 2^n$ Linear Approximation Table (LAT) indexed by all possible values of a and b .

4.1 Piling-up Lemma

Suppose X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independent bernoulli variables with $\Pr(X_i = 0) = p_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

What is $\Pr(\sum X_i = 0) = ?$

Suppose X_1 and X_2 are two independent bernoulli variables and ϵ_1, ϵ_2 are the biases respectively so

$$X_1 \xrightarrow{0} p_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon_1$$

$$X_2 \xrightarrow{0} p_2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr(X_1 \oplus X_2 = 0) \\ &= \Pr(X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0) + \Pr(X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \Pr(X_1 = 0) \cdot \Pr(X_2 = 0) + \Pr(X_1 = 1) \cdot \Pr(X_2 = 1) \\
&= p_1 p_2 + (1 - p_1)(1 - p_2) \\
&= \left(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon_1\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon_2\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon_1\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon_2\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon_1\epsilon_2
\end{aligned}$$

From piling-up lemma :

$$\Pr(\sum X_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2} + 2^{n-1} \prod_{i=1}^n \epsilon_i$$

Proof. Proof by Induction:

- Base case: For two variables as done before.
- Hypothesis: $\Pr(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_k = 0) = \frac{1}{2} + 2^{k-1} \prod_{i=1}^k \epsilon_i$ (+ denotes XOR here)

• Inductive step:

$$\Pr(\underbrace{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_k}_{Y} + X_{k+1} = 0)$$

$$= \Pr(Y + X_{k+1} = 0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + 2^k \prod_{i=1}^{k+1} \epsilon_i \quad (\text{from base case of two variables})$$

□

4.2 Key Recovery using Linear Cryptanalysis

1. After piling up till last-but-one round, let $\Pr(\sum P_i \oplus \sum V_j \oplus \sum K_l = 0) = p \neq \frac{1}{2}$, where V_j is the partial decryption of C_j by inverting the last round.
2. $\sum K_l$ is fixed at 0 or 1; Hence over many pairs of P and C , $\Pr(\sum P_i \oplus \sum V_j = 0) = p$ or $1-p$ respectively.
3. **Strategy:** For each value of last round subkey, for each ciphertext sample, invert and count if the above relation holds. The total count for only the correct subkey will match with p .

Number of samples required is proportional to $\frac{1}{(p - \frac{1}{2})^2}$

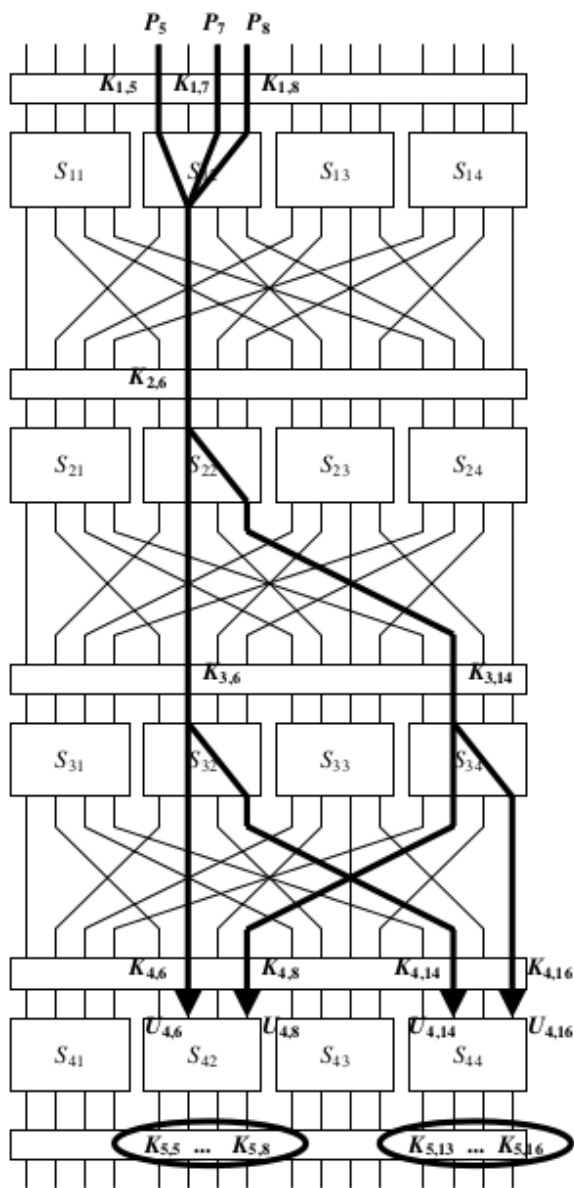


Figure 4: Piling up along Linear Trail

5 Differential Analysis

1. If $Y_1 = X_1 + K$ and $Y_2 = X_2 + K$, then $\Delta Y = \Delta X$
 Similarly, $Y_1 = AX_1$ and $Y_2 = AX_2$, then $\Delta Y = A\Delta X$.
 Thus, key-independent distinguishing attack is possible.
2. If $\Pr(\Delta Y \mid \Delta X) = p \neq \frac{1}{2}$ the pair $(\Delta X, \Delta Y)$ is called a Differential. Complete enumeration of all differential biases is performed through a $2^m \times 2^n$ Difference Distribution Table (DDT) indexed by all possible values of ΔX and ΔY .

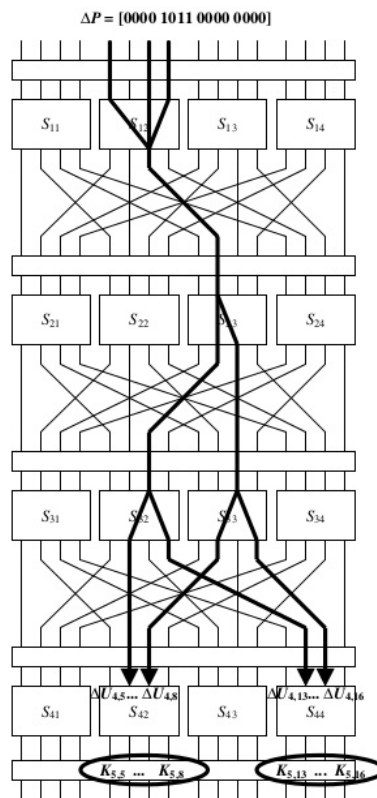


Figure 5. Sample Differential Characteristic

Figure 5: Differential Trail connecting P and C

5.1 Key Recovery using Differential Cryptanalysis

Find differential characteristic till last-but-one round; let $\Pr(\Delta Y_j | \Delta X_i) = p \neq \frac{1}{2}$, where V_j is the partial decryption of C_j by inverting the last round.

Strategy: For each value of last round subkey, for each sample (1 plaintext pair + 1 ciphertext pair) invert and count if $(\Delta P_i, \Delta V_j)$ is a valid differential. The total count for only the correct subkey will match the differential characteristics.

Number of samples required is proportional to $\frac{1}{p}$