

Cryptanalysis of Ladder-DES

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Abstract. Feistel ciphers are very common and very important in the design and analysis of blockciphers, especially due to four reasons: (1) Many (DES-like) ciphers are based on Feistel’s construction. (2) Luby and Rackoff proved the security of a four-round Feistel construction when the round functions are random. (3) Recently several provably secure ciphers were suggested, which use other (assumed secure) ciphers as the round function. (4) Other such ciphers use this construction as attempts to improve the security of other ciphers (e.g., to improve the security of DES).

In this paper we cryptanalyze Ladder-DES, a four-rounds Feistel cipher using DES in the round function, and show that its security is smaller than expected.

1 Introduction

Feistel ciphers are very common and well known. In particular, Feistel’s construction is used in the Data Encryption Standard[8], Lucifer[12] and their many successors (such as Feal[11,7], GDES[10], and many others). This construction was studied from the theoretical point of view by Luby and Rackoff[4], who concluded that four rounds suffice to prove its security when the round function is random. Many suggested cryptosystems were designed with this construction, using another cipher as the round function: some examples are Bear and Lion[2], Beast[6], and Ladder-DES[9]. Many other works had generalized or adopted the Feistel/Luby-Rackoff construction (some of them are [5,1]).

In this paper we cryptanalyze Ladder-DES, a four-round Feistel cipher, whose aim is to increase the security of DES, using DES in the round function. We describe the attack on Ladder-DES, and show that the security of Ladder-DES is smaller than expected. This attack can be generalized to many similar Feistel ciphers whose two parts (halves) are of the same size and whose round functions are permutations. This attack uses a novel application of the birthday paradox.

In the attack we choose 2^{36} plaintexts of the form (A,B) where B is your favorite (or random) 64-bit fixed constant, and A gets 2^{36} different 64-bit values.

In this context, L_1 is fixed in all the 2^{36} encryption runs, and L_0 gets 2^{36} different values in the 2^{36} encryption runs. For simplicity, we will call this property of L_0 a *permutation* (i.e., there is no collision; this property holds even in all the 2^{64} possible plaintexts with a fixed B). F_1 is L_1 encrypted under a fixed (but unknown) key, thus it is fixed in all the runs. A permutation XORed with a fixed value is also a permutation, and thus L_2 is a permutation, and F_2 is also a permutation. L_1 is fixed, and thus L_3 and F_3 are permutations as well. L_4 is not a permutation: it is a mix of two permutations, which behaves like a pseudo-random function.

Our aim is to find the permutation in L_3 , given the ciphertext $(C, D) = (L_4, L_5)$.

When the 2^{36} ciphertexts are given, we try all the 2^{56} possible keys k_4 , one by one, using the following algorithm:

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for each possible key  $k_4$  (in range 0 to  $2^{56} - 1$ )
  for each ciphertext  $(C_i, D_i)$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 2^{36}$ )
    compute  $L_3^{i,k_4} = \text{DES}_{k_4}^{-1}(C_i) \oplus D_i$ 
    if a collision occurs (i.e.,  $L_3^{i,k_4} = L_3^{j,k_4}$  for some  $j < i$ )
      conclude that  $k_4$  is wrong, and try next  $k_4$ 
    end for
  - We reach here only when  $k_4$  is the right key!!
  conclude that  $k_4$  is the key
end for

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When we decrypt the ciphertext with a wrong candidate for k_4 , the one-round decryption function (that computes L_3) is expected to behave like a random function. For each candidate key we decrypt the fourth round of all the 2^{36} ciphertexts, or till we get two equal values of L_3 . If two equal values of L_3 are found, L_3 is not a permutation, and thus the candidate for k_4 is not the key. In average about 2^{32} candidates are required to discard a wrong candidate. The real value of k_4 does not imply any collision of L_3 even if all the 2^{64} possible ciphertexts are decrypted by one round, and thus it can be identified.

Later, the values of k_3 can be found with the same data, because L_2 is a permutation, but if a wrong value of k_3 is used during decryption, the resultant value of L_2 would not be a permutation. A simpler method to find k_3 takes two of the plaintexts, compute the difference of the output of F_3 as the XOR of the differences of L_0 and of L_4 . Then, it searches exhaustively for the key k_3 which satisfies this difference. False alarms can be identified and discarded using a third plaintext.

The remaining key k_1 and k_2 can then be found by exhaustive search, which would require only one plaintext/ciphertext sample, taken from the data we already have. Each of k_1 and k_2 would be found with complexity 2^{56} , after k_3 and k_4 are known.

Some notes on the birthday paradox:

About $\sqrt{2 \cdot \log_e 2 \cdot 2^{64}} = 1.177 \cdot 2^{32} \approx 2^{32}$ random values are required to find two equal 64-bit values with probability $1/2$, and $\sqrt{2 \cdot \log_e 2 \cdot 2^{64} \cdot m} = \sqrt{m} \cdot 1.177 \cdot 2^{32}$ random values are required to find such a pair with probability $1 - 2^{-m}$. In particular, in the interesting case when $m=56$, and we have an error probability of 2^{-56} , we need only $\sqrt{56} \cdot 1.177 \cdot 2^{32} = 8.1 \cdot 2^{32} = 2^{35}$ values to identify whether they are the result of a random function or a permutation. Thus given 2^{35} ciphertexts we can identify the key almost without mistakes, and with 2^{36} ciphertexts we can be almost ensured to have no mistakes (error probability about $e^{-128} = 2^{-185}$, which causes probability 2^{-129} for a false alarm). In average we need only 2^{32} tries, and only in a few cases we need more than 2^{34} tries for a key (except for the real key).

Complexity:

We try 2^{56} keys, for each we calculate in average 2^{32} single DES's before we discard it. Thus our complexity is about 2^{88} to find k_4 . The complexity to find k_3 is 2^{57} . k_1 and k_2 can then be found with complexity 2^{56} each. Thus, the total complexity is about 2^{88} . Only 2^{35} – 2^{36} chosen plaintexts are required. This complexity is much less than the expected 2^{112} complexity of a meet in the middle attack[3], which was claimed for this cryptosystem.

4 A Known Plaintext Attack

The complexity and number of required plaintexts of this known plaintext attack are about the same as of the chosen plaintext attack (2^{90} complexity, 2^{36} known plaintexts). The amount of required memory is however much larger than the chosen plaintext attack requires.

When the plaintexts/ciphertexts are given, we try all the 2^{56} possible keys k_4 one by one. For each k_4 we search for collisions in L_3 as in the chosen ciphertext attack, but this time collisions should occur for all the keys. We keep the first two collisions we find (in lexicographic order of the index of the plaintexts) in a table (of size $2 \cdot 2^{56}$, each keeps only the index of the pair). Similarly, we try all the values of k_1 and search for collisions in F_3 ($F_3 = A \oplus C \oplus DES_{K_1}(B)$). Clearly, a pair collides in L_3 iff it collides in F_3 . We then search for pairs in the first table which have the same indices as pairs in the second table: only such pairs can suggest the right k_1 and k_4 . It is expected that only the right k_1 and k_4 will

collide in two same pairs (average of 2^{-16} false alarms; additional safety margins can be added by keeping three colliding pairs in the tables, which reduces the rate of false alarms to 2^{-80}).

The remaining k2 and k3 are easily found later with complexity 2^{57} .

This attack requires 2^{36} known plaintext, 2^{90} work (in average to find the first two colliding pairs for each key) and requires 2^{57} space (about 2^{60} – 2^{61} bytes).

5 Acknowledgements

We are very grateful to Don Coppersmith for his various comments which improved the results of this paper. This research was supported by the fund for the promotion of research at the Technion.

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