# On the Lai-Massey Scheme 

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#### Abstract

Constructing a block cipher requires to define a random permutation, which is usually performed by the Feistel scheme and its variants. In this paper we investigate the Lai-Massey scheme which was used in IDEA. We show that we cannot use it "as is" in order to obtain results like Luby-Rackoff Theorem. This can however be done by introducing a simple function which has an orthomorphism property. We also show that this design offers nice decorrelation properties, and we propose a block cipher family called Walnut.


Designing a block cipher requires to build a random permutation from a random key. In most of block cipher constructions, we distinguish two approaches. First we use a fixed network with parallel permutations which are modified at their inputs or outputs by subkey values. This was used for instance in Safer [11] and Square [3]. Second we use the Feistel scheme [4] (or one of its variants) which starts from a random function (see Fig. 1). This was used for instance in DES [1] and Blowfish [14]. The literature gives an extra construction which is not in these categories and which was used in the IDEA cipher [9,8]. It uses a simple scheme which we illustrated on Fig. 2 and which we call the "Lai-Massey scheme" throughout the paper. As for the Feistel scheme, this structure relies on a group structure.


Fig. 1. The Feistel Scheme.

[^0]

Fig. 2. The Lai-Massey Scheme.

For the Feistel scheme, Luby and Rackoff [10] proved that if the round functions are random, then a 3 -round Feistel cipher will look random to any chosen plaintext attack when the number of chosen plaintexts $d$ is negligible towards $2^{\frac{m}{4}}$ (where $m$ is the block length). In this paper, we show a similar result for the Lai-Massey scheme if we add a simple function $\sigma$ which has the orthomorphism property: it must be such that $\sigma$ and $x \mapsto \sigma(x)-x$ are both permutations.

The Luby-Rackoff result however holds when the round functions are random. This has been extended by the decorrelation theory [18,19,20,21,22] when the round function have some decorrelation property. This was used to define the Peanut construction family in which the DFC cipher $[2,5,6]$ is an example. We show that we can have similar results with the Lai-Massey scheme and propose a similar construction.

## 1 Notations

### 1.1 Feistel and Lai-Massey Schemes

Let $(G,+)$ be a group. Given $r$ functions $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}$ on $G$ we can define an $r$ round Feistel scheme which is a permutation on $G^{2}$ denoted $\Psi\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$. It is define by iterating the scheme on Fig. 1. If $r>1$, we let

$$
\Psi\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)(x, y)=\Psi\left(F_{2}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)\left(y, x+F_{1}(y)\right)
$$

and

$$
\Psi\left(F_{1}\right)(x, y)=\left(x+F_{1}(y), y\right)
$$

(The last swap is omitted.)
Similarly, given a permutation $\sigma$ on $G$, we define an $r$-round Lai-Massey scheme as a permutation $\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$ by

$$
\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)(x, y)=\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{2}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)(\sigma(x+F(x-y)), y+F(x-y))
$$

and

$$
\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}\right)(x, y)=(x+F(x-y), y+F(x-y))
$$

in which the last $\sigma$ is omitted.
For more convenience, if $x \in G^{2}$, we let $x^{l}$ and $x^{r}$ denote its two halves: $x=\left(x^{l}, x^{r}\right)$.

### 1.2 Advantage of Distinguishers and Best Advantage

A distinguisher $\mathcal{A}$ is a probabilistic Turing machine with unlimited computation power. It has access to an oracle $\mathcal{O}$ and can send it a limited number of queries. At the end, the distinguisher must output 0 or 1 . We consider the advantage for distinguishing a random function $F$ from a random function $G$ defined by

$$
\operatorname{Adv}^{\mathcal{A}}(F, G)=\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}=F}=1\right]-\left|\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}=G}=1\right]\right|\right.
$$

Given an integer $d$ and a random function $F$ from a given set $\mathcal{M}_{1}$ to a given set $\mathcal{M}_{2}$, we define the $d$-wise distribution matrix $[F]^{d}$ as a matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{\mathcal{M}_{1}^{d} \times \mathcal{M}_{2}^{d}}$ by

$$
[F]_{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right),\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)}^{d}=\operatorname{Pr}\left[F\left(x_{1}\right)=y_{1}, \ldots, F\left(x_{d}\right)=y_{d}\right] .
$$

For a matrix $A$ in $\mathbf{R}^{\mathcal{M}_{1}^{d} \times \mathcal{M}_{2}^{d}}$, we define

$$
\|A\|_{a}=\max _{x_{1}} \sum_{y_{1}} \max _{x_{2}} \sum_{y_{2}} \ldots \max _{x_{d}} \sum_{y_{d}}\left|A_{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right),\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)}\right| .
$$

It has been shown that $\|.\|_{a}$ is a matrix norm which can compute the best advantage. Namely we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\substack{\text { Alimited to } \\ \text { chosen plaintext auries } \\ \text { attack }}} \operatorname{Adv}^{\mathcal{A}}(F, G)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|[F]^{d}-[G]^{d}\right\|_{a} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(See [24].)
Similarly, we recursively define the $\|.\|_{s}$ norm by

$$
\|A\|_{s}=\max \left(\max _{x_{1}} \sum_{y_{1}} \pi_{x_{1}, y_{1}}(A), \max _{y_{1}} \sum_{x_{1}} \pi_{x_{1}, y_{1}}(A)\right)
$$

(the norm of a matrix reduced to one entry being its absolute value) where $\pi_{x_{1}, y_{1}}(A)$ denotes the matrix in $\mathbf{R}^{\mathcal{M}_{1}^{d-1} \times \mathcal{M}_{2}^{d-1}}$ such that

$$
\left(\pi_{x_{1}, y_{1}}(A)\right)_{\left(x_{2}, \ldots, x_{d}\right),\left(y_{2}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)}=A_{\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right),\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)} .
$$

Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\substack{\text { A limited tod duuries } \\ \text { plaintext and ciphertext attack }}} \operatorname{Adv}^{\mathcal{A}}(F, G)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|[F]^{d}-[G]^{d}\right\|_{s} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

(See [24].)

### 1.3 Decorrelation Biases

We also use the decorrelation bias of order $d$ of a function in the sense of a given norm ||.|| defined by

$$
\operatorname{DecF}_{\|\cdot\|}^{d}(F)=\left\|[F]^{d}-\left[F^{*}\right]^{d}\right\|
$$

where $F^{*}$ is a random function uniformly distributed, and the decorrelation bias of order $d$ of a permutation defined by

$$
\operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\|}^{d}(C)=\left\|[C]^{d}-\left[C^{*}\right]^{d}\right\|
$$

where $C^{*}$ is a random permutation uniformly distributed. (See $[18,20,23,24]$.)

## 2 On the Need for Orthomorphisms

Let us first consider the $\Lambda^{\sigma}$ construction when $\sigma$ is the identity function. Obviously if $(z, t)=\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)(x, y)$ we have $z-t=x-y$. Thus, for any random round functions, $\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)$ is fairly easily distinguishable with only one known plaintext. This is why we have to introduce the $\sigma$ permutation.

Let us consider a one-round Lai-Massey scheme with $\sigma$ :

$$
(z, t)=(\sigma(x+F(x-y)), y+F(x-y)) .
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
z-t & =(\sigma(x+F(x-y))-(x+F(x-y)))+(x-y) \\
& =\sigma^{\prime}(x+F(x-y))+x-y
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\sigma^{\prime}(u)=\sigma(u)-u$. Thus, if $F$ is uniformly distributed and $\sigma^{\prime}$ is a permutation, then $z-t$ is uniformly distributed. Ideally we thus require that $\sigma$ and $\sigma^{\prime}$ are permutations, which means that $\sigma$ is an orthomorphism of the group.

Unfortunately, the existence of orthomorphisms is not guaranteed for arbitrary groups. Actually, Hall-Paige Theorem [7] states that an Abelian finite group has an orthomorphism if and only if its order is odd or $\mathbf{Z}_{2}^{2}$ is isomorphic to one of its subgroups. In particular, $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{m}}$ has no orthomorphism. In odd-ordered groups $G$, with multiplicative notations, the square $\sigma(x)=x^{2}$ is an orthomorphism since $\sigma^{\prime}$ is the identity permutation and $\sigma$ is a permutation (its inverse is the $\frac{1+\# G}{2}$-power function). In $\mathbf{Z}_{2}^{m}$ with $m>1$, Schnorr and Vaudenay $[15,16]$ exhibited

$$
\sigma(x)=(x \operatorname{AND} c) \mathrm{XOR}_{\operatorname{ROTL}}{ }^{i}(x)
$$

which is an orthomorphism when the AND of all $\operatorname{ROTL}^{i j}(c)$ values is zero and the OR is $11 \ldots 1 .{ }^{1}$ For instance, $i=1$ and $c=00 \ldots 01$ leads to an orthomorphism. Stern and Vaudenay used a similar construction in CS-Cipher [17].

We thus relax the orthomorphism properties by adopting the following notion of $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism.
${ }^{1}$ Throughout this paper OR, AND and XOR denote the usual bit-wise boolean operators on bitstrings of equal length, and $\mathrm{ROTL}^{i}$ denotes the left circular rotation by $i$ positions.

Definition 1. In a given group $G$ of order $g$, a permutation $\sigma$ is called an $\alpha$ almost orthomorphism if the function $\sigma^{\prime}(x)=\sigma(x)-x$ is such that there are at most $\alpha$ elements in $G$ with no preimage by $\sigma^{\prime}$.
This definition fits to Patarin's notion of "spreading" [12,13]. We prefer here to emphasis on the approximation of orthomorphism properties.

We notice that since $\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)^{\prime}(x)=-\sigma^{\prime}\left(\sigma^{-1}(x)\right)$, then $\sigma^{-1}$ is also an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism when $\sigma$ is an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism.

Here is an useful lemma.
Lemma 2. If $\sigma$ is an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism over the group $G$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \forall \delta \in G \backslash\{0\} \operatorname{Pr}_{(X, Y) \in_{U} G^{2}}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)-\sigma^{\prime}(Y)=\delta\right] \leq \max (\alpha, 1) g^{-1}  \tag{3}\\
& \forall \delta \in G \backslash\{0\} \operatorname{Pr}_{X \in U G}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)=\sigma^{\prime}(X+\delta)\right] \leq \alpha g^{-1}  \tag{4}\\
& \forall \delta \in G \operatorname{Pr}_{X \in U G}\left[\delta-\sigma^{\prime}(X) \notin \sigma^{\prime}(G)\right] \leq 2 \alpha g^{-1} . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. It is straightforward that for any set $A$, the number of preimages $x$ such that $\sigma^{\prime}(x) \in A$ is at most $\alpha+\# A$. Let $n_{y}$ denote the number of preimages of $y$. We have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{(X, Y) \in_{U} G^{2}}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)-\sigma^{\prime}(Y)=\delta\right]=g^{-2} \sum_{u} n_{u} n_{u+\delta}
$$

First, if $\alpha=1$, for $\delta \neq 0$, the number of $(x, y)$ pairs such that $\sigma^{\prime}(x)-\sigma^{\prime}(y)=\delta$ is at most $g$ which is equal to $\alpha g$.

Let us now consider $\alpha \geq 2$. If there exists one $y$ such that $n_{y}=\alpha+1$, then for all other $y$ s we have $n_{y} \leq 1$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}_{(X, Y) \in_{U} G^{2}}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)-\sigma^{\prime}(Y)=\delta\right] & \leq \frac{\alpha+1}{g^{2}}-g^{-2}+g^{-2} \sum_{u} n_{u+\delta} \\
& =\alpha g^{-2}+g^{-1} \\
& \leq \alpha g^{-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the other cases, we have $n_{y} \leq \alpha$ hence

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{(X, Y) \in_{U} G^{2}}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)-\sigma^{\prime}(Y)=\delta\right] \leq g^{-2} \alpha \sum_{u} n_{u+\delta}=\alpha g^{-1}
$$

Therefore, in all cases this inequality holds.
We have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}_{X \in U G}\left[\sigma^{\prime}(X)=\sigma^{\prime}(X+\delta)\right] \leq \sum_{y ; n_{y} \geq 2} n_{y} g^{-1}=1-g^{-1} \#\left\{y ; n_{y}=1\right\} .
$$

The number of $y$ s such that $n_{y}=1$ is greater than $g-2 \alpha$, thus the probability is less than $2 \alpha g^{-1}$.

The number of $x$ s such that $\delta-\sigma^{\prime}(x) \notin \sigma^{\prime}(G)$ is at most $\alpha+g-\# \sigma^{\prime}(G)$ which is at most $2 \alpha$.

As an example of almost orthomorphism in $\mathbf{Z}_{2^{m}}$ (which has no orthomorphism), we claim that the simple rotation ROTL is a 1-almost orthomorphism. Actually, it is a permutation, and $\operatorname{ROTL}^{\prime}(x)$ is equal to $x+\operatorname{MSB}(x)$ where $\operatorname{MSB}(x)$ denotes the most significant bit of $x$. The 0 value is taken twice by this function (by $x=0$ and $x=11 \ldots 1$ ), the value $100 \ldots 0$ is never taken, and all the other values are taken once.

## 3 Extending the Luby-Rackoff Theorem

In order to extend Luby-Rackoff Theorem to the Lai-Massey scheme, we need the following lemma, which corresponds to Patarin's "coefficient $H$ technique" $[12,13]$.

Lemma 3. Let $F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}$ be three independent random functions on a group $G$ with uniform distribution, and let d be a positive integer. Let $\sigma$ be an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$. For any family of $G^{2}$ elements $\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}\right)$ such that the $x_{i}$ values are pairwise different as well as the $y_{i}^{l}-y_{i}^{r}$ values, we have

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\left[\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]}{\operatorname{Pr}\left[C^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]} \geq 1-\frac{d(d-1)}{2}\left(g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)-f(\alpha)
$$

where $g$ denotes the cardinality of $G$ and $C^{*}$ is a random permutation of $G^{2}$ uniformly distributed, provided that $d<g^{2}$, and $f(\alpha)$ is a function such that $f(0)=0$ and

$$
f(\alpha)=d \frac{d(\alpha-1)+3 \alpha-1}{2 g} \text { for } \alpha>0
$$

Proof. We let $U_{i}, V_{i}, W_{i}$ denote the values after the first, second and final round of $\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)$ respectively. For any value $t$ in $G^{2}$, we let $\Delta t$ denote $t^{l}-t^{r}$. The probabilistic event $\left[W_{i}=y_{i}\right]$ is equivalent to $\left[\Delta V_{i}=\Delta y_{i}\right.$ and $W_{i}^{l}=y_{i}^{l}$ ]. Now we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta V_{i} & =\sigma^{\prime}\left(U_{i}^{l}+F_{2}^{*}\left(\Delta U_{i}\right)\right)+\Delta U_{i} \\
W_{i}^{l} & =V_{i}^{l}+F_{3}^{*}\left(\Delta V_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The $\left[W_{i}=y_{i}\right]$ event is thus equivalent to

$$
e_{i}=\left[F_{2}^{*}\left(\Delta U_{i}\right) \in \sigma^{\prime-1}\left(\Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i}\right)-V_{i}^{l} \text { and } F_{3}^{*}\left(\Delta y_{i}\right)=y_{i}^{l}-U_{i}^{l}\right] .
$$

When the $\Delta U_{i}$ are pairwise different, as well as the $\Delta V_{i}$, it is thus easy to compute the probability that we have $W_{i}=y_{i}$ for all $i$ because it relies on independent $F_{2}\left(\Delta U_{i}\right)$ and $F_{3}\left(\Delta V_{i}\right)$ uniformly distributed random variables. In addition we need all $\Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i}$ to have preimages by $\sigma^{\prime}$.

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[W_{i}=y_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, d\right] \\
= & \operatorname{Pr}\left[e_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, d\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\geq & \operatorname{Pr}\left[e_{i}, \Delta U_{i} \neq \Delta U_{j}, \Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \in \sigma^{\prime}(G) ; i \neq j\right] \\
= & \operatorname{Pr}\left[e_{i} / \Delta U_{i} \neq \Delta U_{j}, \Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \in \sigma^{\prime}(G) ; i \neq j\right] \times \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\Delta U_{i} \neq \Delta U_{j}, \Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \in \sigma^{\prime}(G) ; i \neq j\right] \\
= & \left.g^{-2 d}\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\exists i<j \quad \Delta U_{i}=\Delta U_{j} \text { or } \exists i \quad \Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \notin \sigma^{\prime}(G)\right)\right]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which is greater than $g^{-2 d}$ times

$$
1-\frac{d(d-1)}{2} \cdot \max _{i<j} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\Delta U_{i}=\Delta U_{j}\right]-d \cdot \max _{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \notin \sigma^{\prime}(G)\right]
$$

We notice that

$$
\Delta U_{i}=\sigma^{\prime}\left(x_{i}^{l}+F\left(\Delta x_{i}\right)\right)+\Delta x_{i} .
$$

The probability of having collisions with $\sigma^{\prime}$ with two different uniformly distributed inputs is less than $\max (\alpha, 1) g^{-1}$ for $\Delta x_{i} \neq \Delta x_{j}$ from Equation (3). If we have $\Delta x_{i}=\Delta x_{j}$, then we will have $\Delta U_{i}=\Delta U_{j}$ with probability at most $\alpha g^{-1}$ from Equation (4) since $x_{i} \neq x_{j}$ and thus $x_{i}^{l} \neq x_{j}^{l}$. In addition, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\Delta y_{i}-\Delta U_{i} \notin\right.$ $\left.\sigma^{\prime}(G)\right]$ is less than $2 \alpha g^{-1}$ from Equation (5). Therefore $\operatorname{Pr}\left[W_{i}=y_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, d\right]$ is greater than

$$
g^{-2 d}\left(1-\frac{d(d-1)}{2} \max (\alpha, 1) g^{-1}-2 d \alpha g^{-1}\right)
$$

We have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[C^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, d\right]=\frac{1}{g^{2}\left(g^{2}-1\right) \ldots\left(g^{2}-d+1\right)}
$$

Since

$$
\frac{g^{2}\left(g^{2}-1\right) \ldots\left(g^{2}-d+1\right)}{g^{2 d}} \geq 1-\frac{d(d-1)}{2 g^{2}}
$$

when $g^{2}>d$, we obtain the result.
We can now state our result.
Theorem 4. Let $F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}$ be three independent random functions on a group $G$ with a uniform distribution. Let $\sigma$ be an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$. For any distinguisher limited to $d$ chosen plaintexts $\left(d<g^{2}\right)$ between $\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right)$ and a random permutation $C^{*}$ with a uniform distribution, we have

$$
\operatorname{Adv}\left(\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right), C^{*}\right) \leq d(d-1)\left(g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)+f(\alpha)
$$

where $g$ is the cardinality of $G$ and $f(\alpha)$ is defined as in Lemma 3.
Proof. We can assume without loss of generality that the distinguisher never request the same query twice. Let $\omega$ denote the random tape of the distinguisher $\mathcal{A}$, and $A$ be the set of all $(\omega, y)$ entries which leads to the output 1 . We have

$$
p^{\mathcal{O}}=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}}=1\right]=\sum_{(\omega, y) \in A} \operatorname{Pr}[\omega] \operatorname{Pr}\left[C\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, d\right]
$$

where $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)$ in which $x_{i}$ depends on $\omega$ and $\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{i-1}\right)$. We let $C=\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right)$. Thus we have

$$
p^{C}-p^{C^{*}}=\sum_{(\omega, y) \in A} \operatorname{Pr}[\omega]\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[C\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[C^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]\right) .
$$

We split the sum between the $y$ entries for which the $\Delta y_{i}$ are pairwise different, and the others. From the previous lemma we have

$$
p^{C}-p^{C^{*}} \geq-\sum_{\substack{(\omega, y) \in A \\ \Delta y_{i} \neq \Delta y_{j}}} \operatorname{Pr}[\omega] p^{*} \epsilon-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\exists i<j \quad \Delta C^{*}\left(y_{i}\right)=\Delta C^{*}\left(y_{j}\right)\right]
$$

where $\epsilon=\frac{d(d-1)}{2}\left(g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)+f(\alpha)$ and $p^{*}$ is the probability that $C^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, d$. The first sum is less than $\epsilon$, and the last probability is less than $\frac{d(d-1)}{2} g^{-1}$, thus

$$
p^{C}-p^{C^{*}} \geq-\epsilon-\frac{d(d-1)}{2} g^{-1}
$$

We can then apply the same result to the symmetric distinguisher, and obtain the result.

## 4 Inheritance of Decorrelation in the Lai-Massey Scheme

We can use the same proof as in [24] for proving that the decorrelation bias of the round functions of a Lai-Massey scheme is inherited by the whole structure. The following lemma is a straightforward application of a more general lemma from [24].

Lemma 5. Let $m$ be an integer, and $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}$ be $r$ independent random functions on a group $G$. Let $\sigma$ be a permutation on $G$. We have

$$
\left\|\left[\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)\right]^{d}-\left[\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, \ldots, F_{r}^{*}\right)\right]^{d}\right\|_{a} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{DecF}_{\|\cdot\| a}^{d}\left(F_{i}\right)
$$

where $F_{1}^{*}, \ldots, F_{r}^{*}$ are uniformly distributed random functions.
Following [24], this lemma and Lemma 3 enables to prove the following corollary.

Corollary 6. If $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}$ are $r$ (with $r \geq 3$ ) independent random functions on a group $G$ of order $g$ such that $\operatorname{DecF}_{\|\cdot\|}^{d}\left(F_{i}\right) \leq \epsilon$ and if $\sigma$ is an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$, we have

$$
\operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\|_{a}}^{d}\left(\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)\right) \leq\left(3 \epsilon+d(d-1)\left(2 g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)+2 f(\alpha)\right)^{\left\lfloor\frac{r}{3}\right\rfloor}
$$

where $f(\alpha)$ is defined in Lemma 3.

## 5 On Super-Pseudorandomness

Super-pseudorandomness corresponds to cases where attacks can query chosen ciphertexts as well. We extend Lemma 3 in order to get results on the superpseudorandomness.
Lemma 7. Let $F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}$ be four independent random functions on a group $G$ with uniform distribution, and let $d$ be an integer. Let $\sigma$ be an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$. For any set of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{d}$ values in $G^{2}$ such that the $x_{i}$ values are pairwise different, we have

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\left[\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]}{\operatorname{Pr}\left[C^{*}\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i} ; i\right]} \geq 1-d(d-1)\left(g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)-f^{\prime}(\alpha)
$$

where $g$ denotes the cardinality of $G$ and $C^{*}$ is a random permutation of $G^{2}$ uniformly distributed, provided that $d<g^{2}$, and $f^{\prime}(\alpha)$ is a function such that $f^{\prime}(0)=0$ and

$$
f^{\prime}(\alpha)=d g^{-1}(d(\alpha-1)+\alpha-1) \text { for } \alpha>0 .
$$

Proof. $\left.\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)=y_{i}\right)$ is equivalent to

$$
\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}\right)\left(x_{i}\right)=\Lambda^{\sigma^{-1}}\left(F_{4}^{*}\right)\left(y_{i}\right)
$$

We can focus on the probability that all $\Delta \Lambda^{\sigma^{-1}}\left(F_{4}^{*}\right)\left(y_{i}\right)$ are pairwise different. Similarly as in the proof of Lemma 3, this holds but for a probability less than $\frac{d(d-1)}{2} \max (\alpha, 1) g^{-1}$. We can then apply Lemma 3 to complete the proof.
This extends Theorem 4.
Theorem 8. Let $F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}$ be four independent random functions on a group $G$ with a uniform distribution. Let $\sigma$ be an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$. For any distinguisher limited to $d$ chosen plaintexts or ciphertexts $\left(d<g^{2}\right)$ between $\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}\right)$ and a random permutation $C^{*}$ with a uniform distribution, we have

$$
\operatorname{Adv}\left(\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}^{*}, F_{2}^{*}, F_{3}^{*}, F_{4}^{*}\right), C^{*}\right) \leq d(d-1)\left(g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)+f^{\prime}(\alpha)
$$

where $g$ denotes the cardinality of $G$ and $f^{\prime}(\alpha)$ is defined in Lemma 7 .
The proof is the same as in Theorem 4, but with no consideration on the $\Delta y_{i} \neq \Delta y_{j}$ cases.

This shows that a 4-round random Lai-Massey scheme with an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism is a super-pseudorandom permutation when it is used less than $\sqrt{g / \max (\alpha, 1)}$ times. This also extends to the following decorrelation bias upper bound.

Corollary 9. If $F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}$ are $r$ (with $r \geq 4$ ) independent random functions on a group $G$ of order $g$ such that $\operatorname{DecF}_{\|\cdot\|_{a}}^{d}\left(F_{i}\right) \leq \epsilon$ and if $\sigma$ is an $\alpha$-almost orthomorphism on $G$, we have

$$
\operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\| \|_{s}}^{d}\left(\Lambda^{\sigma}\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{r}\right)\right) \leq\left(4 \epsilon+d(d-1)\left(2 g^{-1}+g^{-2}\right)+2 f^{\prime}(\alpha)\right)^{\left\lfloor\frac{r}{4}\right\rfloor}
$$

where $f^{\prime}(\alpha)$ is defined in Lemma 7.

## 6 A New Family of Block Ciphers

In this section we construct a new family of block ciphers called Walnut (as for "Wonderful Algorithm with Light N-Universal Transformation") Walnut is a Lai-Massey scheme which depends on four parameters $(m, r, d, q)$ where $m$ is the message-block length (must be even), $r$ is the number of rounds, $d$ is the order of decorrelation and $q$ is an integral prime power at least $2^{\frac{m}{2}}$. It is characterized by having round function $F_{i}$ with the form

$$
F_{i}(x)=\pi_{i}\left(r_{i}\left(K_{i, 1}\right)+r_{i}\left(K_{i, 2}\right) r_{i}(x)+\ldots+r_{i}\left(K_{i, d}\right) r_{i}(x)^{d-1}\right)
$$

where the $K_{i, j}$ are independent uniformly distributed bitstrings of length $m / 2$, $r_{i}$ is an injective mapping from $\{0,1\}^{\frac{m}{2}}$ to $\operatorname{GF}(q)$, and $\pi_{i}$ is a surjective mapping from $\operatorname{GF}(q)$ to $\{0,1\}^{\frac{m}{2}}$. This is a straightforward extension of the Peanut construction. It has been shown in [24] that $\operatorname{DecF}^{d}\left(F_{i}\right)$ is less than

$$
\epsilon=2\left((1+\delta)^{d}-1\right)
$$

where $q=(1+\delta) 2^{\frac{m}{2}}$. We use $\sigma=$ ROTL as a 1 -almost orthomorphism. Therefore by approximating the upper bounds of Corollaries 6 and 9 we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\| a}^{d}(\operatorname{Walnut}(m, r, d, q)) \leq \sim\left(6 d \delta+2 d^{2} 2^{-\frac{m}{2}}\right)^{\left\lfloor\frac{r}{3}\right\rfloor} \\
& \operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\|_{s}}^{d}(\operatorname{Walnut}(m, r, d, q)) \leq \sim\left(8 d \delta+2 d^{2} 2^{-\frac{m}{2}}\right)^{\left\lfloor\frac{r}{4}\right\rfloor} .
\end{aligned}
$$

With $m=64, d=2$ and $p=2^{32}+15$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\| \|_{a}}^{d}\left(\text { Walnut }\left(64, r, 2,2^{32}+15\right)\right) \leq 2^{-24\left\lfloor\frac{r}{3}\right\rfloor} \\
& \operatorname{DecP}_{\|\cdot\|_{s}}^{d}\left(\text { Walnut }\left(64, r, 2,2^{32}+15\right)\right) \leq 2^{-24\left\lfloor\frac{r}{4}\right\rfloor}
\end{aligned}
$$

This provides sufficient security against differential and linear attacks for $r \geq 12$.

## 7 Conclusion

We have shown that adding a simple orthomorphism (or almost orthomorphism) enables the Lai-Massey scheme to provide randomness on three rounds, and super-pseudorandomness on four rounds, like for the Feistel scheme. We have shown that we can get similar decorrelation upper bounds as well and propose a new block cipher family.

## Acknowledgement

I wish to thank NTT and Tatsuaki Okamoto for providing a good environment for research activities, and his team for enjoyable meetings and fruitful discussions.

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[^0]:    * Part of this work was done while the author was visiting the NTT Laboratories.

