

Linear Cryptanalysis: From Intuition to Full Examples

Masks, Correlations, and Matsui's Attack

Generated for You

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1 Introduction: The Goal

Linear Cryptanalysis (LC) is a **Known-Plaintext Attack**: you passively observe plaintext–ciphertext pairs and look for statistical patterns that should not exist in a random permutation.

The aim is to find linear relations that slightly bias certain bit parities, then exploit these biases to distinguish the cipher from random and recover key information.

2 Core Concept: Correlation

The key idea is correlation between input and output bit parities.

- **Correlation +1**: Perfect copy. If $A = 1$, then $B = 1$; if $A = 0$, then $B = 0$.
- **Correlation -1**: Perfect opposite. If $A = 1$, then $B = 0$ and vice versa; this is still a perfect dependency.
- **Correlation 0**: Statistical independence. Knowing A gives no information about B .

Common Mistake: Correlation vs. Independence

“1 always leads to 0” is strong *anti-correlation*, not independence. Independence means that given A , B is 0 or 1 with probability 50% each.

3 Linear Masks and Parities

3.1 Dot Product with a Mask

LC does not use raw bits but linear expressions built with masks α, β, γ over plaintext P , ciphertext C , and key K :

$$(P \cdot \alpha) \oplus (C \cdot \beta) = (K \cdot \gamma).$$

Intuition: The Bitwise Dot Product

For a bitstring P and mask α :

1. Select the positions where α has 1s (bitwise AND conceptually).
2. XOR all selected bits.
3. The result is a single parity bit in $\{0, 1\}$.

The mask acts as a linear “compressor” from many bits to one parity bit.

Example: Bitwise Masking Step-by-Step

Compute $P \cdot \alpha$:

- Input $P = 10110$
- Mask $\alpha = 00110$ (inspect 3rd and 4th bits)

Selection (conceptual AND):

$$P = 1\ 0\ \mathbf{1\ 1}\ 0, \quad \alpha = 0\ 0\ \mathbf{1\ 1}\ 0$$

Selected bits: 1, 1.

Compression (XOR parity):

$$0 \oplus 0 \oplus \mathbf{1 \oplus 1} \oplus 0 = \mathbf{0}.$$

So $P \cdot \alpha = 0$ for this example.

4 Correlation Intuition

4.1 Copy, Rebel, Stranger

Consider an input bit A and output bit B .

Scenario A: Copycat (+1) Always $B = A$. Perfect predictability.

Scenario B: Rebel (−1) Always $B = \bar{A}$. Still perfectly predictable: just flip the bit.

Scenario C: Stranger (0) Half the time $B = A$, half the time $B \neq A$; A is useless for predicting B .

In LC, correlations close to ± 1 are extremely exploitable; correlations near 0 are useless.

5 Linear Approximation Table (LAT)

For an S-box S , the Linear Approximation Table captures how input and output parities are correlated.

- Rows: input masks α .
- Columns: output masks β .
- Entry: bias or correlation of $(\alpha \cdot x)$ and $(\beta \cdot S(x))$ over all inputs x .

5.1 Example: One LAT Entry

Consider a 3-bit S-box S . Suppose we test:

- Input mask $\alpha = 101$ giving $x_1 \oplus x_3$.
- Output mask $\beta = 010$ giving y_2 .

We check whether $x_1 \oplus x_3 = y_2$ over all 8 inputs.

Input x			Output $y = S(x)$			Masked In	Masked Out	Match?
x_1	x_2	x_3	y_1	y_2	y_3	$x_1 \oplus x_3$	y_2	
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	No
0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	No
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	Yes
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	Yes
1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	No
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	No
1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	Yes
1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	Yes

Matches: 4 out of 8, so the probability is $p = 1/2$ and the bias $\epsilon = p - 1/2 = 0$.

Intuition: Interpreting Bias

Bias 0 means the chosen masks are useless for LC on this S-box: the masked input and masked output behave independently. Useful approximations are those where matches are very frequent (e.g., 7/8) or very rare (e.g., 1/8).

6 Piling-Up Lemma and Linear Trails

Real ciphers have many rounds. One constructs a *linear trail* by chaining S-box approximations across rounds.

If the correlation of round i along the trail is corr_i , then under independence assumptions:

$$\text{Total Correlation} = \prod_i \text{corr}_i.$$

Each correlation has magnitude less than 1, so the overall bias shrinks exponentially with the number of rounds, which is why adding rounds greatly improves resistance to LC.

7 Matsui's Algorithms

7.1 Algorithm 1: Sign Test for One Key Bit

This algorithm recovers the single bit value of a key parity $(K \cdot \gamma)$.

1. For N known plaintext–ciphertext pairs, evaluate $(P \cdot \alpha) \oplus (C \cdot \beta)$.
2. Count how many times the result is 0; call this T_0 .
3. If $T_0 > N/2$, guess key bit 0; if $T_0 < N/2$, guess key bit 1.

7.2 Algorithm 2: Last-Round Subkey Recovery

1. Build a linear trail covering rounds 1 to $R - 1$.
2. For each candidate last-round subkey k' , partially decrypt one round.
3. For each k' , measure the correlation predicted by the trail.
4. The key k' with the largest absolute correlation is taken as the correct subkey.

Intuition: Signal vs. Noise Key Guesses

Wrong subkeys produce random-looking intermediate values, so measured correlations are near 0. The correct subkey “aligns” the trail, producing a clear correlation peak close to the theoretical value from the Piling-Up Lemma.

8 Recap

1. Linear masks select bits and XOR them to form parities.
2. Correlation measures whether those parities depend on each other; ± 1 is perfect, 0 is independence.
3. LAT entries quantify biases for S-box mask pairs; strong biases are attack targets.
4. The Piling-Up Lemma combines per-round correlations into a trail across many rounds.
5. Matsui’s algorithms use biased linear relations to recover key bits and last-round subkeys from known plaintexts.