

# 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  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  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  $\alpha$ :

1. Select the positions where  $\alpha$  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):

$$P = 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0, \quad \alpha = 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0$$

Selected bits: 1, 1.

### Compression (XOR parity):

$$0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 = 0.$$

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  $\pm 1$  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  $\alpha$ .
- Columns: output masks  $\beta$ .
- 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	<b>1</b>	0	0	1	No
0	0	1	0	<b>0</b>	1	1	0	No
0	1	0	0	<b>0</b>	0	0	0	<b>Yes</b>
0	1	1	1	<b>1</b>	1	1	1	<b>Yes</b>
1	0	0	1	<b>0</b>	0	1	0	No
1	0	1	0	<b>1</b>	0	0	1	No
1	1	0	0	<b>1</b>	0	1	1	<b>Yes</b>
1	1	1	0	<b>0</b>	1	0	0	<b>Yes</b>

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  $\text{corr}_i$ , 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;  $\pm 1$  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.