# On the exponents of APN power functions and Sidon sets, sum-free sets, and Dickson polynomials 

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#### Abstract

We derive necessary conditions related to the notions, in additive combinatorics, of Sidon sets and sum-free sets, on those exponents $d \in$ $\mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$ which are such that $F(x)=x^{d}$ is an APN function over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ (which is an important cryptographic property). We study to which extent these new conditions may speed up the search for new APN exponents $d$. We also show a new connection between APN exponents and Dickson polynomials: $F(x)=x^{d}$ is APN if and only if the reciprocal polynomial of the Dickson polynomial of index $d$ is an injective function from $\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; \operatorname{tr}_{n}(y)=0\right\}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash\{1\}$. This also leads to a new and simple connection between Reversed Dickson polynomials and reciprocals of Dickson polynomials in characteristic 2 (which generalizes to every characteristic thanks to a small modification): the squared Reversed Dickson polynomial of some index and the reciprocal of the Dickson polynomial of the same index are equal.


## 1 Introduction

In this paper, we study the so-called $A P N$ exponents in fields $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, that is, those values $d \in \mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$ such that the corresponding power function $F(x)=x^{d}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ is Almost Perfect Nonlinear (APN). A function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to itself is called APN [11, 2, 10] if, for every nonzero $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ and every $b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, the equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has at most two solutions. Equivalently, the system of equations $\left\{\begin{array}{l}x+y+z+t=0 \\ F(x)+F(y)+F(z)+F(t)=0\end{array}\right.$ has for only solutions quadruples $(x, y, z, t)$ whose elements are not all distinct (i.e., are pairwise equal). Recall that changing $d$ into one of its conjugates $2^{j} d$ corresponds to changing $F(x)$ into a linearly equivalent APN function, which preserves APNness. The APN exponents constitute then a union of cyclotomic classes of $2 \bmod 2^{n}-1$. The known APN exponents (Gold, Kasami, Welch, Niho, Inverse, and Dobbertin) are all those exponents which are the conjugates of those given in Table 1 below,

Table 1: Known APN exponents on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ up to equivalence and to inversion.

| Functions | Exponents $d$ | Conditions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gold | $2^{i}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1$ |
| Kasami | $2^{2 i}-2^{i}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1$ |
| Welch | $2^{t}+3$ | $n=2 t+1$ |
| Niho | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-1, t$ even | $n=2 t+1$ |
|  | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}-1, t$ odd |  |
| Inverse | $2^{2 t}-1$ | $n=2 t+1$ |
| Dobbertin | $2^{4 t}+2^{3 t}+2^{2 t}+2^{t}-1$ | $n=5 t$ |

or of their inverses when they are invertible in $\mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$. Note that $i$ (in the definitions of Gold and Kasami exponents) can always be taken lower than $n / 2$ (thanks to conjugacy).

It has been proved by Dobbertin (as described in the survey chapter 3], to which we refer for more information on APN functions) that an exponent can be APN only if $g c d\left(d, 2^{n}-1\right)$ equals 1 if $n$ is odd and 3 if $n$ is even. We shall show in Section 2 that for all exponents given in Table 1, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=1$. This corresponds to the fact that the related functions $F$ have 0 and 1 as only fixed points, since $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ is a nonzero fixed point of function $F(x)=x^{d}$ if and only if $x^{d-1}=1$.

It happens for some cyclotomic classes that the property $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=1$ be true for any element in the cyclotomic class, or equivalently that $\operatorname{gcd}(d-$ $2^{j}, 2^{n}-1$ ) $=1$ for every $j=0, \ldots, n-1$. We list in Table 2 , for the (known) APN exponents of Table 1 up to $n=32$, when $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$ is true for every $j=0, \ldots, n-1$. The proportion of such exponents is large. Since such property is unlikely for random exponents satisfying Dobbertin's observation recalled above, we can hope that some other property can be found, which would explain such large proportion, and could maybe ease the search for APN exponents outside the main classes. This other property cannot be that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=$ 1 for all APN exponents $d$, which would imply $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$ for all $j$, since we see in Table 2 that some cyclotomic classes do not satisfy this.

In this paper, we find a new property relating APN exponents to Sidon sets and sum-free sets (two well-known notions in additive combinatorics [1, 6, 12]; see the definitions in Section 3): for every APN exponent $d$ and every integer $j$, the multiplicative subgroup of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ of order $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)$ is a Sidon set and a sum-free set.

The relationship between APN functions and Sidon sets is not new: by definition, an ( $n, n$ )-function is APN if and only if its graph is a Sidon set (see Section 3). But the relationship we establish in this paper is different and gives more insight on APN exponents.

We study the consequences on the search for new APN exponents, which is a sensitive open question on which the research is being stuck since almost 20 years. We do not find new APN exponents, but we show that $d$ is an APN exponent if and only if the function equal to the reciprocal of the Dickson polynomial $D_{d}(X, 1)$ is injective from $\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; \operatorname{tr}_{n}(y)=0\right\}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash\{1\}$, where $\operatorname{tr}_{n}(x)=x+x^{2}+\cdots+x^{2^{n-1}}$ is the trace function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. Finally, we show a very simple new relationship (which generalizes to every characteris-

Table 2: $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$ for every $j=0, \ldots, n-1$.

| Class name | Value |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $(n \mid i) ; i \leq n / 2$ |
| Gold | $(3 \mid 1),(5 \mid 1,2),(6 \mid 1),(7 \mid 1,2,3),(9 \mid 1,2,4),(11 \mid 2,4,5)$ |
|  | $(13 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6),(14 \mid 1,3,5),(15 \mid 1,2,4,7),(17 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8)$, |
|  | $(19 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9),(21 \mid 1,2,4,5,8,10),(22 \mid 5,7,9)$, |
|  | $(23 \mid 2,5,7,8,9,10),(25 \mid 1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,11,12),(26 \mid 1,3,5,7,9,11)$ |
|  | $(27 \mid 1,2,4,5,7,8,10,11,13),(29 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,14)$ |
|  | $(31 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15)$ |, |  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $(3 \mid 1),(5 \mid 1,2),(6 \mid 1),(7 \mid 1,2,3),(9 \mid 1,2,4),(11 \mid 3,4),(13 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6)$ |
| Kasami | $(14 \mid 1,3),(15 \mid 1,2,4,7),(17 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8),(19 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9)$, |
|  | $(21 \mid 1,4,5,8,10),(22 \mid 3,7),(23 \mid 2,3,6,8,9,11),(25 \mid 1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,11,12)$, |
|  | $(26 \mid 1,3,5,7,9,11),(27 \mid 1,2,4,5,7,8,10,11,13)$, |
|  | $(29 \mid 1,2,3,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14)$, |
|  | $(31 \mid 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15)$ |
|  | $n$ |
| Welch | $3,5,7,9,13,15,17,19,23,25,27,31$ |
| Niho | $3,5,7,9,11,13,15,17,19,21,23,25,27,29,31$ |
| Dobbertin | $5,15,25$ |
| Inverse | $3,5,7,9,11,13,15,17,19,21,23,25,27,29,31$ |

tic after a small modification) between Reversed Dickson polynomials and the reciprocals of Dickson polynomials: for every positive integer $d$, the Reversed Dickson polynomial $D_{2 d}(1, X)$ of index $2 d$ and the reciprocal of the Dickson polynomial $D_{d}(X, 1)$ of index $d$ are equal.

## 2 On the exponents of Table 1

The value $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)$ for a power function $F(x)=x^{d}$ is an important parameter. The number of fixed points of $F$ equals $2^{\text {gcd }\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)}$.

Lemma 2.1 All the exponents $d$ in Table 1 satisfy $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=1$.
Proof. In the case of Gold functions $F(x)=x^{2^{i}+1}$, where $(i, n)=1$, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{i}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$.
In the case of Kasami functions $F(x)=x^{2^{2 i}-2^{i}+1}$, where $(i, n)=1$, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{i}-1,2^{n}-1\right)=2^{g c d(i, n)}-1=1$.
In the case of Welch function $F(x)=x^{2^{t}+3}$, we have according to the Gauss theorem (which states that if $a$ divides $b c$ and is co-prime with $b$ then it divides $c): \operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{t-1}+1,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)=\frac{g c d\left(2^{2 t-2}-1,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)}{g c d\left(2^{t-1}-1,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)}=$ $\frac{2^{g c d(2 t-2,2 t+1)}-1}{2^{g c d(t-1,2 t+1)}-1}=\frac{2^{g c d(t-1,2 t+1)}-1}{2^{g c d(t-1,2 t+1)}-1}=1$.
In the case of Niho functions:

- $F(x)=x^{2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-1}, t$ even, we have, applying the Euclidean algorithm: $g c d(d-$ $\left.1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-2,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-2,-5 \cdot 2^{t / 2+1}+11\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot\left(2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-2\right), 5 \cdot 2^{t / 2+1}-11\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(5 \cdot 2^{t / 2+1}-11,31\right)=1$, since 31 divides $2^{2 t+1}-1$ if and only if $2 t+1 \equiv 0[\bmod 5]$ and the only possibility for
that is $t \equiv 2[\bmod 5], \frac{t}{2} \equiv 1[\bmod 5]$ and $2^{t}+2^{t / 2}-2 \equiv 4 \not \equiv 0[\bmod 31] ;$
- $F(x)=x^{2^{t}+2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}-1}, t$ odd, we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}+2^{t}-\right.$ $\left.2,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}+2^{t}-2,2^{t}+2^{\frac{t+3}{2}}-3\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{t}+2^{\frac{t+3}{2}}-3,9 \cdot 2^{\frac{t+1}{2}}-11\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(2 \cdot 9^{2} \cdot\left(2^{t}+2^{\frac{t+3}{2}}-3\right), 9 \cdot 2^{\frac{t+1}{2}}-11\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(9 \cdot 2^{\frac{t+1}{2}}-11,31\right)=1$, since, again, 31 divides $2^{2 t+1}-1$ if and only if $2 t+1 \equiv 0[\bmod 5]$ and the only possibility for that is $t \equiv 2[\bmod 5], \frac{3 t+1}{2} \equiv 1[\bmod 5]$ and $2^{t}+2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}-2 \equiv 4 \not \equiv 0[\bmod 31]$.
In the case of the APN Inverse function $F(x)=x^{2^{2 t}-1}$, we have, by the Euclidean algorithm: $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{2 t-1}-1,2^{2 t+1}-1\right)=2^{g c d(2 t-1,2 t+1)}-$ $1=1$.
In the case of Dobbertin APN function $F(x)=x^{d}$, where $d=2^{4 t}+2^{3 t}+$ $2^{2 t}+2^{t}-1$ and $n=5 t$, we could calculate $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)$ by applying again the Euclidean algorithm but more simply we have $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,\left(2^{t}-1\right)(d+2)\right)$, and since $d \equiv 3\left[\bmod \left(2^{t}-1\right)\right]$, and $d-1$ is then co-prime with $2^{t}-1$, we obtain then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=\operatorname{gcd}(d-1, d+2)=\operatorname{gcd}(d-1,3)$, which equals 1 if $n$ is odd (because we know that 3 does not divide $2^{n}-1$ in this case) and which equals $\operatorname{gcd}(2,3)=1$ if $n$ is even (since, $t$ being then even, we have $2^{4 t}, 2^{3 t}, 2^{2 t}, 2^{t}$ all congruent with $1 \bmod 3$ and then $\left.d-1 \equiv 2[\bmod 3]\right)$. Then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=1$ in all cases.

Hence, all the corresponding APN functions have 0,1 as only fixed points.
Remark 2.2 If $d$ is invertible $\bmod 2^{n}-1$ and $d^{\prime}$ is its inverse, then $\operatorname{gcd}(d-$ $\left.1,2^{n}-1\right)$ equals 1 if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d^{\prime}-1,2^{n}-1\right)$ equals 1 , since a permutaton has the same number of fixed points as its compositional inverse.

## 3 Sidon sets and sum-free sets

We saw in Section 2 that the known APN exponents may have a property not covered by the Dobbertin observation (recalled in introduction). We also saw in introduction that such property (to be found) cannot be that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-1,2^{n}-1\right)=$ 1 , since this would imply $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$ for every $j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, which is already not true (for some $n$ ) for the simplest known APN exponent 3. In the present section, we show that every APN exponent (known or unknown), satisfies a property which deals with the numbers $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right), j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, in a more subtle way. We first need to recall two definitions from additive combinatorics.

Definition 3.1 [1] A subset of an additive group $(G,+)$ is called a Sidon set if it does not contain elements $x, y, z, t$, at least three of which are distinct, and such that $x+y=z+t$.

This notion is due to the mathematician Sidon. It is preserved by (additive) equivalence, that is, if $S$ is a Sidon set in $(G,+)$ and $A$ is a permutation of $G$ such that $A(x+y)=A(x)+A(y)$, then $A(S)$ is a Sidon set. The notion is also preserved by translation. Of course, any set included in a Sidon set is a Sidon set.
This definition is also relevant in characteristic 2 . In such characteristic, we have more simply: A subset of an additive group of characteristic 2 is a Sidon set if it does not contain four distinct elements $x, y, z, t$ such that $x+y+z+t=0$.

Indeed, if two elements are equal, then there cannot be three distinct elements among $x, y, z, t$ such that $x+y+z+t=0$.

Remark 3.2 By definition, an ( $n, n$ )-function $F$ is APN if and only if its graph $\mathcal{G}_{F}=\left\{(x, F(x)) ; x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}\right\}$ is a Sidon set in $\left(\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{2},+\right)$. Hence, APN functions correspond to a subclass of Sidon sets in $\left(\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{2},+\right):$ those $S$ such that, for every $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, there exists a unique $y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ such that $(x, y) \in S$.

Remark 3.3 A subset $S$ of an additive group $(G,+)$ is a Sidon set if and only if, denoting by $P_{S}$ the set of pairs in $S$, the mapping $\{x, y\} \in P_{S} \mapsto x+y$ is one-to-one. The size $|S|$ is then (see e.g. [1]) such that $\binom{|S|}{2}=\frac{|S|(|S|-1)}{2} \leq|G|-1$, since otherwise the number of pairs $\{x, y\}$ included in $S$ would be strictly larger than the number of nonzero elements of $G$; at least two different pairs $\{x, y\}$ and $\left\{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right\}$ would then have the same sum and these two pairs would in fact be disjoint (if, for instance $x=x^{\prime}$, then $y \neq y^{\prime}$ and $x+y \neq x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}$, a contradiction).

Definition 3.4 [6, 12] $A$ subset $S$ of an additive group $(G,+)$ is called a sumfree set if it does not contain elements $x, y, z$ such that $x+y=z$ (i.e., if $S \cap(S+S)=\emptyset)$.

This notion is due to Erdös. It is also preserved by (additive) equivalence and by translation; any set included in a sum-free set is a sum-free set and no sum-free set contains 0 .
Remark 3.5 A subset $S$ of an additive group $(G,+)$ is sum-free if and only if, denoting again by $P_{S}$ the set of pairs in $S$, the mapping $\{x, y\} \in P_{S} \mapsto x+y$ is valued outside $S$. The size $|S|$ is then (see e.g. [6, 12]) smaller than or equal to $\frac{|G|}{2}$, because the size of $S+S$ is at least the size of $S$ (since $G$ is a group), and if $|S|>\frac{|G|}{2}$ then the two sets $S+S$ and $S$ have sizes whose sum is strictly larger than the order of the group, and they necessarily have a nonempty intersection. A basic example of a sum-free set in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, which achieves this bound $|S| \leq \frac{|G|}{2}$ with equality, is any affine hyperplane (i.e., the complement of any linear hyperplane).
Remark 3.6 The size $|S|$ of a sum-free Sidon set satisfies $\frac{|S|(|S|+1)}{2} \leq|G|-1$, since otherwise, the number of pairs $\{x, y\} \in P_{S}$ would be strictly larger than the number of nonzero elements of $G \backslash S$. Note that, in characteristic 2, if $S$ is a Sidon-sum-free set, then $S \cup\{0\}$ is a Sidon set, which gives again the same bound by using Remark 3.3.

## 4 APN exponents, Sidon sets, and sum-free sets

We give now the new property valid for all APN exponents which is related to Sidon sets and sum-free sets.

Theorem 4.1 For every positive integers $n$ and $d$ and for every $j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, let $e_{j}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right) \in \mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$, and let $G_{e_{j}}$ be the multiplicative subgroup $\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{d-2^{j}}=1\right\}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{e_{j}}=1\right\}$ of order $e_{j}$. If function $F(x)=x^{d}$ is APN over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, then, for every $j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}, G_{e_{j}}$ is a Sidon set in the additive group $\left(\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}},+\right)$ and is also a sum-free set in this same group. Moreover, for every $k \neq j$, if $x \in G_{e_{k}}, y \in G_{e_{j}}, x \neq y$ and $x \neq y^{-1}$, then we have $(x+1)^{d-2^{k}} \neq(y+1)^{d-2^{j}}$.

Proof. Using the same idea as the one used by Dobbertin for showing the observation recalled in introduction, for every $x \in G_{e_{j}} \backslash\{1\}$, we introduce the unique $s \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} \backslash\{1\}$ such that $x=\frac{s}{s+1}$, that is, $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$. Then $x^{d-2^{j}}=1$ implies $s^{d-2^{j}}+(s+1)^{d-2^{j}}=0$, which implies after multiplication by $s^{2^{j}}+1=(s+1)^{2^{j}}$ that $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=s^{d-2^{j}}=(s+1)^{d-2^{j}}=\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2^{j}}}$. Note that if $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$ and $s^{\prime}=\frac{x^{\prime}}{x^{\prime}+1}$, with $x \neq 1$ and $x^{\prime} \neq 1$, then we have $s=s^{\prime}$ if and only if $x=x^{\prime}$ (since function $\frac{x}{x+1}$ is bijective, being involutive) and we have $s=s^{\prime}+1$ if and only if $x^{\prime}=x^{-1}$, since $\frac{x}{x+1}+1=\frac{x^{-1}}{x^{-1}+1}$.
Suppose that $G_{e_{j}}$ is not a Sidon set, then let $x, y, z, t$ be distinct elements of $G_{e_{j}}$ such that $x+y=z+t$. Making the changes of variables $x \rightarrow x t, y \rightarrow y t, z \rightarrow z t$ and dividing the equality by $t$, we obtain distinct elements $x, y, z$ of $G_{e_{j}} \backslash\{1\}$ such that $x+y+z=1$. Making now the change of variable $y \rightarrow z y$, we obtain elements $x, y, z$ in $G_{e_{j}} \backslash\{1\}$ such that $x+1=z(y+1), x \neq y$ and $x \neq y^{-1}$ (indeed, the condition $y=1$ in the new setting corresponds to the condition $y=z$ in the former setting, the condition $x=y$ in the new setting is equivalent (thanks to $x+1=z(y+1)$ ) to $z=1$ in both settings, and the condition $x=y^{-1}$ in the new setting, that is (thanks to $x+1=z(y+1)$ again), $z y=1$, is equivalent to $y=1$ in the former setting). We have then $\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2 j}}=\frac{1}{(y+1)^{d-2^{j}}}$ and since $x \neq y$ and $x \neq y^{-1}$, we have $\frac{x}{x+1} \neq \frac{y}{y+1}$ and $\frac{x}{x+1} \neq \frac{y}{y+1}+1$ and this gives 4 distinct solutions to the equation $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2 j}}$, a contradiction with the APNness of $F$.
Suppose that $G_{e_{j}}$ is not sum-free, that is, $G_{e_{j}} \cap\left(G_{e_{j}}+G_{e_{j}}\right) \neq \emptyset$, that is without loss of generality since $G_{e_{j}}$ is a multiplicative group, $G_{e_{j}} \cap\left(G_{e_{j}}+1\right) \neq \emptyset$, then let $x \in G_{e_{j}} \cap\left(G_{e_{j}}+1\right)$ (which implies $x \neq 0,1$ ) and $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$ (with $s \neq 0,1$ as well), we have then $\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2 j}}=1$ and $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=1$ and the equation $z^{d}+(z+1)^{d}=1$ has four solutions $0,1, s$, and $s+1$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, a contradiction. The last assertion is a direct consequence of the observations made in the first paragraph of the present proof.

Remark 4.2 Since for $s=\frac{x}{x+1}, x \neq 1$, we have $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ and since $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{\left(x^{-1}\right)^{d}+1}{\left(x^{-1}+1\right)^{d}}$, the condition " $G_{e_{j}}$ is sum-free" is in fact a weaker version of the condition"the equation $x^{d}+1=(x+1)^{d}$ has at most one solution in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, up to the replacement of $x$ by $x^{-1}$ " which is implied by the condition "the equation $x^{d}+(x+1)^{d}=1$ has at most two solutions in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ ". We shall say more in Subsection 4.1. Note that every element of $G_{e_{j}}$ satisfies $x^{d}+1=(x+1)^{d}$ since this equation in $G_{e_{j}}$ is equivalent to $x^{2^{j}}+1=(x+1)^{2^{j}}$ which is always true, and this is why $G_{e_{j}}$ plays an interesting role.

Remark 4.3 Denoting $e=\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{n}-1\right)$, we have that $G_{e}$ itself is a Sidon set since, as recalled above, we have $e=1$ if $n$ is odd and $e=3$ if $n$ is even, and $G_{1}=\{1\}, G_{3}=\mathbb{F}_{4}^{*}$ are Sidon sets (since they do not contain 4 distinct elements). But $G_{e}$ is a sum-free set only for $n$ odd, since $\mathbb{F}_{4}^{*}$ is not sum-free.

Remark 4.4 An APN function is APN in any subfield where the function makes sense (i.e., such that $F(x)$ belongs to this subfield when $x$ does). In particular, an APN power function is APN in any subfield. Applying Theorem
4.1 with a divisor $r$ of $n$ in the place of $n$ replaces $e_{j}$ by $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{r}-1\right)$ and $G_{e_{j}}$ by $G_{e_{j}} \cap \mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}^{*}$, so it gives no additional information since if $G_{e_{j}}$ is a Sidon-sum-free set in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, then $G_{e_{j}} \cap \mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}^{*}$ is also a Sidon-sum-free set in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}$.

Remark 4.5 The condition that $G_{e_{j}}$ is sum-free for every $j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ implies that, for every divisor $k$ of $n$ larger than 1 , the integer $e_{j}$ is not divisible by $2^{k}-1$, because otherwise $G_{e_{j}}$ would contain $\mathbb{F}_{2^{k}}^{*}$, and this is contradictory with the condition. For $k>2$, the fact that $e_{j}$ is not divisible by $2^{k}-1$ is also a consequence of the fact that $G_{e_{j}}$ is a Sidon set, since it is straightforward that for $k>2, \mathbb{F}_{2^{k}}^{*}$ is not a Sidon set and any superset is then not one either. In fact, the property of being a Sidon-sum-free set is rather restrictive, and this explains the observations made in the introduction.

Remark 4.6 We observed that, in characteristic 2, the size $|S|$ of a Sidon-sumfree set $S$ not containing 0 cannot be such that $\binom{|S|+1}{2}=\frac{|S|(|S|+1)}{2}>2^{n}-1$. We deduce then from the theorem that, if $d$ is an APN exponent, then for every divisor $\lambda$ of $2^{n}-1$ such that $\binom{\lambda+1}{2}>2^{n}-1$ and every $j \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, this number $\lambda$ does not divide $d-2^{j}$. Take for instance $n=8$ and $\lambda=\frac{2^{8}-1}{3}=85$, we have $\binom{\lambda+1}{2}>255$ and for every APN exponent d, we have that 85 does not divide $d-1, d-2, d-4, d-8, d-16, d-32, d-64$ nor $d-128$ (all these numbers being taken modulo 255). We can also take $\lambda=\frac{2^{8}-1}{5}=51$, we have $\binom{\lambda+1}{2}>255$ and 51 does not divide $d-1, d-2, d-4, d-8, d-16, d-32, d-64$ nor $d-128$ as well. For this value of $n$, there are only two possible values for $\lambda$, but for some larger values of $n$, the number of possible $\lambda$ may be much larger and the condition discriminates then better the candidates $d$.

### 4.1 A general framework for deriving results similar to Theorem 4.1

In the proof of Theorem 4.1, we have used that, if $x \in G_{e_{j}} \backslash\{1\}$ and $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$, then $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2^{j}}}$. In fact, when relaxing the condition $x \in G_{e_{j}} \backslash\{1\}$, we still have an interesting identity, which leads to a new characterization of APN exponents:

Proposition 4.7 Let $n$ be any positive integer and $F(x)=x^{d}$ be any power function over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$. If $x \neq 1$ and $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$ then $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$, and $F$ is APN if and only if the function $x \mapsto \frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ is 2-to-1 from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash\{1\}$.

Proof. The first identity is straightforward. Hence, function $x \mapsto \frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ is 2-to1 from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash\{1\}$ if and only if any equation $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=b \neq 1$ has at most 2 solutions $s$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ (indeed, it has no solution in $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ ) and equation $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=1$ has only 2 solutions $s$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ (which are 0 and 1 ), that is, $F$ is APN .
Note that function $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2} \mapsto \frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ is invariant under the transformation $x \mapsto x^{-1}$. Note also that instead of $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$, we could take $s=\frac{x}{x+1}+1=\frac{1}{x+1}$.

Theorem 4.1 can then be revisited as follows: we use the facts that if a function is 2 -to- 1 over some set, then it is at most 2 -to- 1 over any subset, and that the expression of $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ is simplified when $x \in G_{e_{j}}$, because $x^{d-2^{j}}=1$
implies $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{x^{2^{j}}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{(x+1)^{2^{j}}}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{1}{(x+1)^{d-2 j}}$. The nice thing here is that we obtain an expression with the same exponent $d-2^{j}$ as in the definition of $G_{e_{j}}$ and this is what leads to the Sidon-sum-free property.

### 4.2 On the relationship between APN exponents and Dickson polynomials

Recall that, for every positive integer $d$, functions $x^{d}+(x+1)^{d}$ and $x^{2}+x$ being invariant by the translation $x \mapsto x+1$ and the latter one being 2-to- 1 , $x^{d}+(x+1)^{d}$ equals $\phi_{d}\left(x^{2}+x\right)$ for some polynomial $\phi_{d}$ and $F(x)=x^{d}$ is APN if and only if function $\phi_{d}$ is injective over the hyperplane $H=\left\{x^{2}+x ; x \in\right.$ $\left.\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}\right\}=\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} ; \operatorname{tr}_{n}(y)=0\right\}$, where $\operatorname{tr}_{n}(x)=x+x^{2}+\cdots+x^{2^{n-1}}$ is the trace function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. This polynomial $\phi_{d}$ is called the Reversed Dickson polynomial [8] and equals $D_{d}(1, X)$ (see e.g. [8), where $D_{d}$ is classically defined by $D_{d}(X+Y, X Y)=X^{d}+Y^{d}$.
Similarly, functions $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ and $x+x^{-1}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$ being invariant under the transformation $x \mapsto x^{-1}$ and the latter one being 2-to-1, $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}$ equals $\psi_{d}\left(x+x^{-1}\right)$ for some function $\psi_{d}$, which is here characterized by $\left(\psi_{d}(y)\right)^{2}=$ $\frac{D_{d}(y, 1)}{y^{d}}$, since $\left(\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}\right)^{2}=\frac{x^{d}+x^{-d}}{\left(x+x^{-1}\right)^{d}}$. According to Proposition 4.7, function $F$ is then APN if and only if $\psi_{d}$ is injective over $\left\{x+x^{-1} ; x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}\right\}$, that is, over $\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; \operatorname{tr}_{n}\left(y^{-1}\right)=0\right\}$ and does not take value 1 . Note that $\frac{D_{d}\left(y^{-1}, 1\right)}{\left(y^{-1}\right)^{d}}=y^{d} D_{d}\left(y^{-1}, 1\right)$ equals the value at $y$ of the reciprocal polynomial of $D_{d}(X, 1)$. Hence:

Proposition 4.8 For every positive integers $n$ and d, function $F(x)=x^{d}$ is APN if and only if the reciprocal polynomial $\widetilde{D_{d}(X, 1)}=X^{d} D_{d}\left(X^{-1}, 1\right)$ of the Dickson polynomial $D_{d}(X, 1)$ is injective and does not take value 1 over $H^{*}=$ $\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; \operatorname{tr}_{n}(y)=0\right\}$.

We have seen that, for $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$, if $s=\frac{x}{x+1}$, that is, $x=\frac{s}{s+1}$ or $s=\frac{1}{x+1}$, that is, $x=\frac{s+1}{s}$, we have $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}$. We have then $x+x^{-1}=$ $\frac{s+1}{s}+\frac{s}{s+1}=\frac{1}{s^{2}+s}$ and therefore $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\psi_{d}\left(x+x^{-1}\right)=\psi_{d}\left(\frac{1}{s^{2}+s}\right)=s^{d}+(s+$ $1)^{d}=\phi_{d}\left(s^{2}+s\right)$. Hence, for every $z \in H^{*}, \phi_{d}(z)=\psi_{d}\left(z^{-1}\right)$ and squaring gives $\left(\phi_{d}(z)\right)^{2}=\widetilde{D_{d}}(z, 1)$. In other words, the squared Reversed Dickson polynomial and the reciprocal of Dickson polynomial of a same index take the same value over $H$ and then, given their common degree, are equal to each other (this can also be easily seen as a consequence of the classical recurrence relations satisfied by these two polynomials [8]). We have then:

Proposition 4.9 For every positive integer d, the squared Reversed Dickson polynomial of index d (equal to the Reversed Dickson polynomial of index 2d) and the reciprocal of Dickson polynomial of index $d$ are equa ${ }^{11}$. For every $z \neq 0$ such that $\operatorname{tr}_{1}^{n}(z)=0$, we have then $\left(\phi_{d}(z)\right)^{2}=\widetilde{D_{d}}(z, 1)$, where $\widetilde{D_{d}}$ is the reciprocal

[^0]polynomial of the Dickson polynomial $D_{d}$ of degree d. In particular, we have:
$$
x^{d}+(x+1)^{d}=\left(\widetilde{D_{d}}\left(x^{2}+x, 1\right)\right)^{2^{n-1}}
$$

This property allows to deduce the expression of Dickson polynomials with so-called Gold indices: for every integer $i$, we have $D_{2^{i}+1}(X, 1)=X^{2^{i}+1}+$ $\sum_{j=1}^{i} X^{2^{i}+1-2^{j}}$. Indeed, $x^{2^{i}+1}+(x+1)^{2^{i}+1}=x^{2^{i}}+x+1=1+\sum_{j=0}^{i-1}\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{j}}$ and therefore $\widetilde{D_{2^{i}+1}}\left(X^{2}+X, 1\right)=1+\sum_{j=1}^{i}\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{j}}, \widetilde{D_{2^{i}+1}}(X, 1)=1+$ $\sum_{j=1}^{i} X^{2^{j}}$. The values of $D_{2^{i}+1}(X, 1)$ and $D_{2^{i}-1}(X, 1)$ (which are related by $\left.D_{2^{i}-1}(X, 1)+D_{2^{i}+1}(X, 1)=X^{2^{i}+1}\right)$ are already known from [5], but Proposition 4.9 also allows to obtain the explicit expressions of other Dickson polynomials; for instance with so-called Kasami indices:

Corollary 4.10 For every integer $i$ we have:

$$
D_{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}(X, 1)=X^{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}+X^{4^{i}+2^{i}+1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} X^{-2^{j}}\right)^{2^{i}+1} .
$$

Proof. For every $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{2}$, we have (as already observed and used by Dobbertin):

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}+(x+1)^{4^{i}-2^{i}+1} & =\frac{x^{4^{i}+1}(x+1)^{2^{i}}+(x+1)^{4^{i}+1} x^{2^{i}}}{\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{i}}} \\
& =\frac{x^{4^{i}+1}+x^{4^{i}+2^{i}}+x^{2^{i}+1}+x^{2^{i}}}{\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{i}}} \\
& =1+\frac{\left(x^{2^{i}}+x\right)^{2^{i}+1}}{\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{i}}} \\
& =1+\frac{\left(\sum_{j=0}^{i-1}\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{j}}\right)^{2^{i}+1}}{\left(x^{2}+x\right)^{2^{i}}},
\end{aligned}
$$

and therefore, after squaring and denoting $X=x^{2}+x$, we obtain:

$$
\widetilde{D_{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}}(X, 1)=1+\frac{\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} X^{2^{j}}\right)^{2^{i}+1}}{X^{2^{i+1}}}
$$

and then:

$$
D_{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}(X, 1)=X^{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}+X^{4^{i}+2^{i}+1}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i} X^{-2^{j}}\right)^{2^{i}+1} .
$$

This completes the proof.
Of course we can deduce $D_{4^{i}+2^{i}+1}(X, 1)$ thanks to the relation $D_{4^{i}-2^{i}+1}(X, 1)+$ $D_{4^{i}+2^{i}+1}(X, 1)=D_{2^{i}}(X, 1) D_{4^{i}+1}(X, 1)=X^{2^{i}} D_{4^{i}+1}(X, 1)$.

The same method applies more generally to $D_{2^{j}-2^{i}+1}$ but without anymore the nice factorization above.

Remark 4.11 The Müller-Cohen-Matthews (MCM) polynomial (see [5]) equals $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} X^{\left(2^{k}+1\right) 2^{i}-2^{k}}$ and is a permutation polynomial when $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$ and $k$ is odd. Note that it equals $\frac{\phi\left(X^{2^{k}+1}\right)}{X^{2^{k}}}$, where $\left.\phi(X)=\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} X^{2^{i}}=1+\widetilde{D_{2^{k}+1}}(X, 1)\right)^{2^{n-1}}$.

## 5 Experimental Results

### 5.1 Sidon and sum-free conditions

Hans Dobbertin and Anne Canteaut have checked by computer investigation that no unclassified APN exponent exists for $n \leq 26$. By unclassified APN exponent, we mean an APN exponent not equal to a Gold, Kasami, Dobbertin, Welch, Niho or Inverse APN exponent, with $n$ odd in the three latter cases, nor to its inverse $\bmod 2^{n}-1$ when it is co-prime with $2^{n}-1$ (that is, when $n$ is odd), nor to these exponents multiplied by powers of 2 and reduced modulo $2^{n}-1$.

Yves Edel checked the same for $n \leq 34$ and $n=36,38,40,42$. The main idea for his computer investigation was to consider all the elements in $\mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$, discard (because of Dobbertin's observation recalled in introduction) all those which are not co-prime with $2^{n}-1$ for $n$ odd and do not have gcd equal to 3 with $2^{n}-1$ for $n$ even, and discard (because the restriction to a subfield of an APN power function is an APN power function) all the remaining exponents whose reduction $\bmod 2^{r}-1$ is not an APN exponent in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}$ for some divisor $r$ of $n$. Since the checking that no unclassified APN exponent exists had been already done previously for $r$, the condition "is not an APN exponent in $\mathbb{F}_{2 r}$ " could be replaced by "is not a known APN exponent in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}$ ". Then, after discarding all known APN exponents in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, the remaining exponents were investigated as possibly new APN exponents; they were gathered in cyclotomic classes and the APNness of one member of each class was investigated. No unclassified APN exponent could be found. Note that in the rest of the paper, when discussing the subfield condition, we mean the condition as implemented by Yves Edel in his investigation.

In this section, we concentrate on utilizing the same method as well as our newly developed Sidon and sum-free conditions in order to derive the number of possibly new APN exponents to test, and to see if the Sidon and sum-free conditions contribute to reducing this number. Note that we use acronym $S$ for Sidon condition, $S F$ for sum-free condition, and $S S F$ for Sidon-sum-free condition. We shall call "S values" (resp. SF, SSF values) those divisors $e$ of $2^{n}-1$ such that $G_{e}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{e}=1\right\}$ satisfies S (resp. SF, SSF).

We propose here two techniques; the first one has high computational complexity but low memory complexity and the second one has low computational complexity but high memory complexity. A trade-off can be considered with respect to the available resources. In both techniques, we use a result from 4]: for every divisor $e$ of $2^{n}-1, G_{e}$ is a Sidon (resp. a sum-free) set if and only if, for every $u \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ (resp. for $u=1$ ), the polynomial $(X+1)^{e}+u$ has at most two zeros in $G_{e}$ (resp. has no zero in $G_{e}$ ).

In the first technique, to determine whether a value $e$ is Sidon (resp. sumfree), we visit all the elements $u$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ and for each of them we visit all $x$ of $G_{e}$ (that is, all those powers of a primitive element whose exponents are multiples of $\frac{2^{n}-1}{e}$ ) and we:

1. Calculate $(x+1)^{e}+u$.
2. Increment a counter for value $u$ when $(x+1)^{e}+u=0$.
3. Keep $e$ as Sidon (S) if for no value of $u$, the counter reached more than 2 and as sum-free (SF) if, for $u=1$, the counter never reached more than 0.

This gives computational complexity equal to $2^{n} e$. From the memory perspective, at any time we are required only to keep two counters (one for S and one for SF).

For the second technique, we visit all the elements $x$ of $G_{e}$ (that is, again, all those powers of a primitive element whose exponents are multiples of $\frac{2^{n}-1}{e}$ ) and for each, we:

1. Calculate $(x+1)^{e}$.
2. Increment a counter in a table for value $(x+1)^{e}$.
3. Keep $e$ as Sidon (S) if we never reached more than 2 in the table and as sum-free (SF) if, for value 1 , we never reached more than 0 .

This technique gives computational complexity of $e$ and memory complexity of $2^{n}$. Since we require 2 bits to store the value 2 in memory, in total we need up to $2^{n+1}$ bits.

We show the results for $n \in[3,31]$ in Tables 3 and 4 . Note that sum-free condition is somewhat more discriminating and enables us to reduce more values $e$ than the Sidon condition.

Calculating the SSF conditions as we propose here is efficient only for relatively small values of $n$ or of $e$ or if a value $e$ is not SSF (since then we stop the search relatively fast). In the cases when a large value $e$ is $\operatorname{SSF}$ and $n$ is large, calculating SSF can become too expensive in time and space complexities. Consequently, we arrive to the situation that checking SSF is more expensive than checking if a value $d$ is a new APN exponent. To circumvent that problem, for larger values of $n$, we do not calculate SSF values exactly: we call Approximate SSF (ASSF) those values $e$ which are not shown "not SSF" by the results of Carlet and Mesnager given in [4:

Definition 5.1 The Approximate Sidon-sum-free (ASSF) set is the set consisting of the divisors e of $2^{n}-1$ after discarding the following values:

1. $2^{r}-1$ where $r \geq 2$ divides $n$.
2. $\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{r}+1,2^{n}-1\right)$ where $r$ is odd and $n$ is even.
3. $\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{r}+3,2^{n}-1\right)$ where $r \equiv 2 \bmod 3$ and $n$ is a multiple of 3 .
4. $\operatorname{gcd}\left(2^{r}-2^{k}+1,2^{n}-1\right)$ where $n, r$ and $k-1$ have a common divisor larger than 1.
5. Every divisor of $2^{n}-1$ which is a multiple of one of the values described in one of the items above.

Analogous to the definition of ASSF set, we define the Approximate Sidon (AS) set and Approximate sum-free (ASF) set. More precisely, Approximate Sidon (AS) set is the set consisting of the divisors $e$ of $2^{n}-1$ after discarding the values from Definition5.1, conditions 1 and 5. Approximate sum-free (ASF) set is the set consisting of the divisors $e$ of $2^{n}-1$ after discarding the values

Table 3: Divisors of $2^{n}-1$ which are Sidon-sum-free, part I.

| n | Specification | Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 4 | S | 1, 3, 5 |
|  | SF | 1,5 |
|  | SSF | 1,5 |
| 5 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 6 | S | 1, 3, 9 |
|  | SF | 1 |
|  | SSF | 1 |
| 7 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 8 | S | 1, 3, 5, 17 |
|  | SF | 1, 5, 17 |
|  | SSF | 1, 5, 17 |
| 9 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 10 | S | 1, 3, 11, 33 |
|  | SF | 1, 11 |
|  | SSF | 1, 11 |
| 11 | S | 1, 23 |
|  | SF | 1, 23, 89 |
|  | SSF | 1, 23 |
| 12 | S | 1, 3, 5, 9, 13, 39, 65 |
|  | SF | 1, 5, 13, 65 |
|  | SSF | 1, 5, 13, 65 |
| 13 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 14 | S | 1, 3, 43, 129 |
|  | SF | 1, 43 |
|  | SSF | 1, 43 |
| 15 | S | 1, 151 |
|  | SF | 1, 151 |
|  | SSF | 1, 151 |
| 16 | S | 1, 3, 5, 17, 257 |
|  | SF | 1, 5, 17, 257, 1285 |
|  | SSF | 1, 5, 17, 257 |
| 17 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 18 | S | 1, 3, 9, 19, 27, 57, 171, 513 |
|  | SF | 1,19 |
|  | SSF | 1, 19 |

Table 4: Divisors of $2^{n}-1$ which are Sidon-sum-free, part II.

| n | Specification | Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 19 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 20 | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1,3,5,11,25,33,41,55,123,205,275,1025 \\ 1,5,11,25,41,55,205,275,451,1025,2255, \\ 1,5,11,25,41,55,205,275,1025 \end{array}$ |
| 21 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1,337 \\ & 1,337 \\ & 1,337 \end{aligned}$ |
| 22 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1,3,23,69,683,2049 \\ 1,23,89,683,15709 \\ 1,23,683 \end{array}$ |
| 23 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1,47 \\ & 1,47 \\ & 1,47 \end{aligned}$ |
| 24 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $1,3,5,9,13,17,39,65,221,241,723,1205,4097$ $1,5,13,17,65,221,241,1205,4097$ $1,5,13,17,65,221,241,1205,4097$ |
| 25 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 1,601,1801 \\ 1,601,1801 \\ 1,601,1801 \end{gathered}$ |
| 26 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1,3,2731,8193 \\ 1,2731 \\ 1,2731 \end{array}$ |
| 27 | S/SF/SSF | 1 |
| 28 | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $1,3,5,29,43,87,113,129,145,215,339,565,1247,3277,16385$ $1,5,29,43,113,145,215,565,1247,3277,4859,6235,16385,24295$ $1,5,29,43,113,145,215,565,1247,3277,16385$ |
| 29 | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathrm{S} \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | 1, 233, 1103, 2089 1, 233, $1103,2089,256999$ 1, 233, 1103, 2089 |
| 30 | $\begin{gathered} \hline \mathrm{S} \\ \\ \mathrm{SF} \\ \mathrm{SSF} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 1,3,9,11,33,99,151,331,453,993,1359,1661,2979, \\ 3641,4983,10923,32769 \\ 1,11,151,331,1661,3641 \\ 1,11,151,331,1661,3641 \end{array}$ |
| 31 | S/SF/SSF | ( 1 |

obtained from Definition 5.1, conditions 2, 3, 4, and 5. Due to the large number of possible AS, ASF, ASSF values for $n$ large, we give tables with results up to $n=40$ in Appendix A, Tables 6 until 10 .

Remark 5.2 Note that all the SSF values belong to the set of Approximate SSF values, but this set possibly contains more values.
By comparing the results from Tables 3 and 4 with those from Tables 6 until 10 we see there are only a few values of $n$ where SSF and ASSF sets are not the same. This does not mean necessarily that using ASSF for larger $n$ does not weaken the techniques.

Remark 5.3 It is possible to improve the computation speed for calculating SSF set by considering the ASSF set: first, we calculate the ASSF set and then we check if all those values are indeed SSF values. Trivially, we can exclude values 1 from the check (since we know that it is always $S S F$ ) and $2^{n}-1$ since we know it is never SSF.

Remark 5.4 When $2^{n}-1$ is a Mersenne prime then there is no need to check SSF since we know value 1 is always SSF and there is no other strict divisor of $2^{n}-1$.

### 5.2 Calculating the number of possibly new APN exponents

In this section, we employ all constraints on the possibly new APN exponents $d$ in order to investigate the computational effort needed to find new APN exponents or discard all possible values $d$ for a certain value of $n$. We start by recalling all the conditions a value $d$ needs to fulfill to be a possibly new APN exponent. We list the conditions in the order we apply them.

1. Remove any value $d$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{n}-1\right) \neq 1$ if $n$ is odd and $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{n}-\right.$ 1) $\neq 3$ if $n$ is even.
2. Remove any value $d$ if it is already a known APN exponent.
3. If $n$ is even, keep only one representative of a cyclotomic class with $d$ being an element. Keep the minimal representative of a cyclotomic class. If $n$ is odd, keep only one representative of cyclotomic classes with $d$ and its inverse being the elements. Keep the minimal representative of both cyclotomic classes.
4. Remove any value $d$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{r}-1\right)$ is not an APN exponent in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{r}}$.
5. Remove any value $d$ such that $g c d\left(d-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)$ is not an SSF value, for some $j$. If $n$ is too large, replace SSF by ASSF.
6. Remove any value $d$ such that there exists a divisor $\lambda$ of $2^{n}-1$ such that $\binom{\lambda+1}{2}>2^{n}-1$ and there exists $j=1, \ldots, n-1$ such that $\lambda$ divides $d-2^{j}$ (see Remark 4.6).

Remark 5.5 Note that if $n$ is a prime, then the subfield condition is useless since there are no subfields to explore.

Table 5: Number of possibly new APN exponents, the total number of values to consider for a certain $n$ equals $2^{n}-2$.

| n | $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{n}-1\right)$ | Not known APN | Cyclotomic rep. | Subfield | SSF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 6 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 30 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 6 | 12 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 126 | 49 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| 8 | 64 | 40 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 9 | 432 | 315 | 19 | 6 | 4 |
| 10 | 300 | 260 | 26 | 21 | 21 |
| 11 | 1936 | 1683 | 78 | 78 | 66 |
| 12 | 576 | 540 | 45 | 21 | 21 |
| 13 | 8190 | 7839 | 302 | 302 | 301 |
| 14 | 5292 | 5222 | 373 | 226 | 226 |
| 15 | 27000 | 26685 | 893 | 365 | 365 |
| 16 | 16384 | 16272 | 1017 | 377 | 370 |
| 17 | 131070 | 130475 | 3838 | 3838 | 3837 |
| 18 | 46656 | 46566 | 2587 | 697 | 697 |
| 19 | 524286 | 523545 | 13778 | 13778 | 13777 |
| 20 | 240000 | 239840 | 11992 | 1592 | 1512 |
| 21 | 1778112 | 1777545 | 42326 | 12923 | 12923 |
| 22 | 1320352 | 1320154 | 60007 | 7834 | 7824 |
| 23 | 8210080 | 8208999 | 178458 | 178458 | 178434 |
| 24 | 2211840 | 2211672 | 92153 | 2153 | 2135 |
| 25 | 32400000 | 32398875 | 647981 | 539979 | 539966 |
| 26 | 22358700 | 22358414 | 859939 | 36844 | 36844 |
| 27 | 113467392 | 113466339 | 2101232 | 569069 | 569010 |
| 28 | 66382848 | 66382540 | 2370805 | 31349 | 31127 |
| 29 | 533826432 | 533824721 | 9203878 | 9203878 | 9202166 |
| 30 | 178200000 | 178199760 | 5939992 | 11212 | 11212 |
| 31 | 2147483646 | 2147481693 | 34636802 | 34636802 | 34636801 |

Remark 5.6 Since the SSF condition works for all values of $n$ where $2^{n}-1$ is not a Mersenne prime and subfield condition works for all values where $n$ is not prime, we consider SSF condition to be a more general one since Mersenne primes are rarer than primes.

In Table 5, we give results for the number of values $d$ one needs to examine in order to look for new APN exponents. We note that this list serves only the illustrative purpose how SSF constraint reduces the number of values to check. Previous results by Y. Edel 9] show that there are no new APN exponents for those values of $n$. We can observe as the values of $n$ become larger and when $2^{n}-1$ has many divisors, SSF condition is able to discriminate more values. This gives hope that for even higher values of $n$, SSF would be more useful and significantly reduce the number of values $d$ to test. This could be especially true for cases when $n$ is prime but $2^{n}-1$ has many divisors (e.g. $n=29$ ).

## 6 More properties of APN exponents

In this section, we give more results on APN exponents, which are not so nice to state as in Section 4 , but may however be useful for future works.

### 6.1 Other necessary conditions for an exponent to be APN

Proposition 6.1 For every positive integers $n$ and $d$ and for every integer $j$ such that $0 \leq j \leq n-1$, let $f_{j}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(d+2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)$. Consider the multiplicative group $G_{f_{j}}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{d+2^{j}}=1\right\}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{f_{j}}=1\right\}$. If function $F(x)=x^{d}$ is $A P N$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, then, for every $j, k \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ and for every elements $x \in$ $G_{f_{j}} \backslash\{1\}, x^{\prime} \in G_{f_{k}} \backslash\{1\}$ satisfying $x^{2^{j}}(x+1)^{d-2^{j}}={x^{\prime 2}}^{k}\left(x^{\prime}+1\right)^{d-2^{k}}$, we have $x^{\prime}=x$ or $x^{\prime}=x^{-1}$.

Proof. Writing again $x=\frac{s}{s+1}, s=\frac{x}{x+1}$, the identity $x^{d+2^{j}}=1$ implies $s^{d+2^{j}}+(s+1)^{d+2^{j}}=0$, that is, $s^{d+2^{j}}+(s+1)^{d}\left(s^{2^{j}}+1\right)=0$, that is, $s^{d}+$ $(s+1)^{d}=\frac{(s+1)^{d}}{s^{2 j}}=\frac{1}{x^{2 j}(x+1)^{d-2 j}}$. Hence, if $F$ is APN, every elements $x \in$ $G_{f_{j}} \backslash\{1\}, x^{\prime} \in G_{f_{k}} \backslash\{1\}$ such that $\frac{1}{x^{2^{j}}(x+1)^{d-2 j}}=\frac{1}{x^{\prime 2^{k}}\left(x^{\prime}+1\right)^{d-2^{k}}}$, or equivalently $x^{2^{j}}(x+1)^{d-2^{j}}={x^{\prime 2}}^{2^{k}}\left(x^{\prime}+1\right)^{d-2^{k}}$, are such that $x^{\prime}=x$ or $x^{\prime}=x^{-1}$.

Remark 6.2 The interpretation of Subsection 4.1 is in the present case as follows: if $x^{d+2^{j}}=1$ then $\frac{x^{d}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{x^{-2^{j}}+1}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{x^{2^{j}}+1}{x^{2^{j}(x+1)^{d}}}=\frac{1}{x^{2^{j}}(x+1)^{d-2^{j}}}$.

Other similar properties can be derived but they are more complex (and give then less simple ways of discriminating APN exponents).
For instance, for every integers $k, j, d$ such that $0 \leq k<j \leq n-1$, let $e_{k, j}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(d-2^{k}-2^{j}, 2^{n}-1\right)$, and let $G_{e_{k, j}}$ be the multiplicative subgroup $\{x \in$ $\left.\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}=1\right\}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} ; x^{e_{k, j}}=1\right\}$ of order $e_{k, j}$. If function $F(x)=x^{d}$ is APN over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, then, if $x, y \in G_{e_{k, j}} \backslash\{1\}, x \neq y$ and $x \neq y^{-1}$, then we have $\frac{x^{d}+x^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{k}+2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{j}+2^{k}}}{(x+1)^{d}} \neq 1$ and $\frac{x^{d}+x^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{k}+2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{j}+2^{k}}}{(x+1)^{d}} \neq$ $\frac{y^{d}+y^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+y^{d-2^{k}+2^{j}}+y^{d-2^{j}+2^{k}}}{(y+1)^{d}}$. Indeed, still introducing the unique $s \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*} \backslash\{1\}$ such that $x=\frac{s}{s+1}$, we have $s^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+(s+1)^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}=0$, and multiplying by $(s+1)^{2^{k}+2^{j}}$ we obtain $s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=s^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+s^{d-2^{k}}+s^{d-2^{j}}=$ $\frac{x^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}(x+1)^{2^{k}+2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{k}}(x+1)^{2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{j}}(x+1)^{2^{k}}}{(x+1)^{d}}=\frac{x^{d}+x^{d-2^{k}-2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{k}+2^{j}}+x^{d-2^{j}+2^{k}}}{(x+1)^{d}}$. The rest of the proof is similar to above.
More generally, let $k$ be any integer and let $x^{k}=1, x \neq 1, x=\frac{s}{s+1}$, we have $s^{k}+(s+1)^{k}=0$ and therefore, by multiplication by $(s+1)^{d-k}: s^{d}+(s+1)^{d}=$ $\sum_{j=0}^{d-k-1}\binom{d-k}{j} s^{j+k}$, which implies that $x \neq 1, y \neq 1, x \neq y, x \neq \frac{1}{y}$ and $x^{k}=y^{k}=1$ imply $\sum_{j=0}^{d-k-1}\binom{d-k}{j} \frac{x^{j}}{(x+1)^{j+k}} \neq 1$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{d-k-1}\binom{d-k}{j} \frac{x^{j}}{(x+1)^{j+k}} \neq$ $\sum_{j=0}^{d-k-1}\binom{d-k}{j} \frac{y^{j}}{(y+1)^{j+k}}$.

## 7 Conclusions

In this paper, we presented necessary conditions related to Sidon sets and sumfree sets for an element $d \in \mathbb{Z} /\left(2^{n}-1\right) \mathbb{Z}$ to be an APN exponent in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ (we
call these conditions the Sidon-sum-free, in brief SSF, conditions). This makes a junction between vectorial Boolean functions for cryptography and additive combinatorics. We also gave a new characterization of such exponents, which can be nicely expressed by means of Dickson polynomials, and we proved that Dickson polynomials in characteristic 2 and Reversed Dickson polynomials of the same index are reciprocal of each others, up to squaring the latter. Since Reversed Dickson polynomials are easier to calculate than Dickson polynomials, this allows simplifying the determination of the expressions of the latter (we gave two examples of such determinations). The new conditions related to Sidon sets and sum-free sets in turn enable us to speed up the search for new APN exponents, i.e., to discriminate even more what could be possible new APN exponents. Although our experimental results show the improvements are relatively small, they are nevertheless important from both theoretical and practical perspective. We observe only small improvements with our new SSF condition since we apply it after all the other known conditions and we notice that the Edel's subfield condition removes many of the same exponents as the SSF condition. Finally, our results suggest that SSF condition should become more discriminative as we increase the value $n$ and especially for those values where $n$ is prime and $2^{n}-1$ has many divisors.

In future work, we plan to extend our research for new APN exponents for higher values of $n$, as well as investigate how to calculate SSF values more efficiently. Finally, the discrepancy between the obtained SSF values and the super-class (more easy to determine) of ASSF values points us that additional conditions to recognize ASSF values more precisely should be found.

## Acknowledgment

We deeply thank Yves Edel for his very useful indications on the investigation of APN exponents he made (whose results were not published but were reported by Gohar Kyureghyan in [9). We thank Sihem Mesnager for useful observations and Wolfgang Schmid and Alain Plagne for informations on Sidon sets and on sum-free sets.

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## A Additional computational results

Tables 6 until 10 give results for AS, ASF, and ASSF sets for values $n$ up to 40 .

Table 6: ASSF calculations, part I.

| n | Specification | Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 4 | AS | 1, 3, 5 |
|  | ASF | 1, 5 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 5 |
| 5 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 6 | AS | 1, 3, 9 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 7 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 8 | AS | $1,3,5,17,51,85$ |
|  | ASF | 1, 5, 17, 85 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 5, 17, 85 |
| 9 | AS | 1,73 |
|  | ASF | 1,73 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 73 |
| 10 | AS | 1, 3, 11, 33 |
|  | ASF | 1, 11 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 11 |
| 11 | AS | 1, 23, 89 |
|  | ASF | 1, 23, 89 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 23, 89 |
| 12 | AS | $1,3,5,9,13,39,65,117$ |
|  | ASF | 1, 5, 13, 65 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 5, 13, 65 |
| 13 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 14 | AS | 1, 3, 43, 129 |
|  | ASF | $1,43$ |
|  | ASSF | 1,43 |
| 15 | AS | 1, 151 |
|  | ASF | 1, 151 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 151 |

Table 7: ASSF calculations, part II.

| n | Specification | Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16 | AS | 1, 3, 5, 17, 51, 85, 257, 771, 1285, 4369, 13107, 21845 |
|  | ASF | $1,5,17,85,257,1285,4369,21845$ |
|  | ASSF | 1, 5, 17, 85, 257, 1285, 4369, 21845 |
| 17 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 18 | AS | $1,3,9,19,27,57,73,171,219,513,657,1387,1971,4161,12483,37449$ |
|  | ASF | 1, 19, 73, 1387 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 19, 73, 1387 |
| 19 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 20 | AS | $1,3,5,11,25,33,41,55,123,205,275,451,1025,1353,2255,11275$ |
|  | ASF | $1,5,11,25,41,55,205,275,451,1025,2255,11275$ |
|  | ASSF | $1,5,11,25,41,55,205,275,451,1025,2255,11275$ |
| 21 | AS | 1, 337 |
|  | ASF | 1, 337 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 337 |
| 22 | AS | 1, 3, 23, 69, 89, 267, 683, 2049, 15 709, 47 127, 60 787, 182361 |
|  | ASF | 1, 23, 89, 683, 15709, 60787 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 23, 89, 683, 15709, 60787 |
| 23 | AS | 1, 47, 178481 |
|  | ASF | 1, 47, 178481 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 47, 178481 |
| 24 | AS | $1,3,5,9,13,17,39,51,65,85,117,153,221,241,663,723,1105,1205,1989$, $2169,3133,4097,9399,12$ 291, $15665,20485,28197,36873,53261,159783$, 266 305, 479349 |
|  | ASF | $1,5,13,17,65,85,221,241,1105,1205,3133,4097,15665,20485,53261$, |
|  |  | 266305 |
|  | ASSF | $1,5,13,17,65,85,221,241,1105,1205,3133,4097,15665,20485,53261$, |
|  |  | 266305 |
| 25 | AS | 1, 601, 1801, 1082401 |
|  | ASF | 1, 601, 1801, 1082401 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 601, 1801, 1082401 |
| 26 | AS | 1, 3, 2731, 8193 |
|  | ASF | 1, 2731 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 2731 |
| 27 | AS | 1, 73, 262657,19173961 |
|  | ASF | 1, 73, 262657,19173961 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 73, 262657,19173961 |

Table 8: ASSF calculations, part III.

| n | Specification | Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 28 | AS | $1,3,5,29,43,87,113,129,145,215,339,565,1247,3277,3741,4859$, $6235,9831,14577,16385,24295,140911,422733,704555$ |
|  | ASF | $1,5,29,43,113,145,215,565,1247,3277,4859,6235,16385,24295$, 140911,704555 |
|  | ASSF | $1,5,29,43,113,145,215,565,1247,3277,4859,6235,16385,24295$, 140911,704555 |
| 29 | AS | 1, 233, $1103,2089,256999,486737,2304167$ |
|  | ASF | 1, 233, $1103,2089,256999,486737,2304167$ |
|  | ASSF | 1, 233, 1103, 2089, 256 999, 486 737, 2304167 |
| 30 | AS | $1,3,9,11,33,99,151,331,453,993,1359,1661,2979,3641,4983,10923$, 14949, 32 769, 49 981, 149 943, 449 829, 549 791, 1649 373, 4948119 |
|  | ASF | 1, 11, 151, 331, $1661,3641,49981,549791$ |
|  | ASSF | 1, 11, 151, 331, 1661, 3641, 49 981, 549791 |
| 31 | AS | 1 |
|  | ASF | 1 |
|  | ASSF | 1 |
| 32 | AS | $1,3,5,17,51,85,257,771,1285,4369,13107,21845,65537,196611,327685$, <br> $1114129,3342387,5570645,16843009,50529027,84215045,286331153$, 858993 459, 1431655765 |
|  | ASF | $1,5,17,85,257,1285,4369,21845,65537,327685,1114129,5570645$, $16843009,84215045,286331153,1431655765$ |
|  | ASSF | $1,5,17,85,257,1285,4369,21845,65537,327685,1114129,5570645$, $16843009,84215045,286331153,1431655765$ |
| 33 | AS | 1, 23, 89, $599479,13788017,53353631$ |
|  | ASF | 1, 23, 89, $599479,13788017,53353631$ |
|  | ASSF | 1, 23, 89, $599479,13788017,53353631$ |
| 34 | AS | 1, 3, 43 691, 131073 |
|  | ASF | 1, 43691 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 43691 |
| 35 | AS | 1, 71, 122921,8727391 |
|  | ASF | 1, 71, 122921,8727391 |
|  | ASSF | 1, 71, 122921,8727391 |

Table 9: ASSF calculations, part IV.


Table 10: ASSF calculations, part V.



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Xiang-dong Hou [7], informed of this property by the authors, has observed that it can be generalized to any characteristic: $X^{d} D_{d}\left(\frac{1}{X}-2,1\right)=D_{2 d}(1, X)$.

