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A infinite class of Kasami functions that are not APN infinitely often

Eric Férard

ABSTRACT. We consider a polynomial $f(x) = x^{2^r-2^r+1} + g(x)$ over \mathbb{F}_q of Kasami degree where degree d of $g(x)$ is $< 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$. We prove that if $d \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then the function $f(x)$ is not APN on infinitely many extensions of \mathbb{F}_q . We also obtain partial results in the case where $d = 2^t t$ with $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

1. Introduction

The vector Boolean functions are used in cryptography to construct block ciphers and an important criterion on these functions is high resistance to differential cryptanalysis.

Let $q = 2^n$ for some positive integer n and \mathbb{F}_q a finite field with q elements. A function $f: \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ is said to be *almost perfect nonlinear (APN)* if the number of solutions in \mathbb{F}_q of the equation

$$f(x+a) + f(x) = b$$

is at most 2, for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q$ with $a \neq 0$. Nyberg proved that this kind of functions have a good resistance to differential cryptanalysis [23].

So far, the study of APN functions has focused on power functions. Recently it was generalised to other functions, particularly quadratic polynomials (Edel, Kyureghyan and Pott [13], Budaghyan, Carlet, Felke and Leander [6], Bracken, Tan and Tan [5], or Bluher [3]) or polynomials on small fields (Dillon [12]). On the other hand, several authors (Berger, Canteaut, Charpin and Laigle-Chapuy [2], Byrne and McGuire [7], Jedlicka [20], Rodier [24], Delgado and Janwa [11], or Férard and Rodier [15, 16]) showed that APN functions did not exist for a large class of infinite families.

The Gold functions x^{2^r+1} and the Kasami-Welch functions $x^{2^{2r}-2^r+1}$ are APN for an infinite number of extensions of \mathbb{F}_2 . An exponent t is said to be *exceptional* if the function $f(x) = x^t$ is APN for an infinite number of extensions of \mathbb{F}_2 . In [17], Hernando and McGuire obtain a result on the classification of APN monomials which had been conjectured in [18].

THEOREM 1. *The only exceptional exponents are the Gold and Kasami-Welch exponents.*

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In [1], Aubry, McGuire and Rodier formulate the following conjecture: a function $\mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ can be APN for an infinity of extensions of \mathbb{F}_q only if it is CCZ-equivalent (as was defined by Carlet, Charpin and Zinoviev in [8]) to a monomial x^t where t is an exceptional exponent.

A means to prove this conjecture is to remark that the APN property is equivalent to the fact that the rational points of the algebraic surface X in a 3-dimensional space defined by

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = \frac{f(x) + f(y) + f(z) + f(x+y+z)}{(x+y)(x+z)(y+z)}$$

(which is a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_q[x, y, z]$) are all in a surface made of the three planes $x+y=0, x+z=0, y+z=0$. If X is absolutely irreducible (or has an absolutely irreducible component defined over \mathbb{F}_q) then f is not APN on \mathbb{F}_{q^n} for all n sufficiently large. As shown in [24], this follows from the Lang-Weil bound for surfaces, which guarantees many \mathbb{F}_{q^n} -rational points on the surface X for all n sufficiently large. In this way, Aubry, McGuire and Rodier obtained the following results.

THEOREM 2. *If the degree of the polynomial function f is odd and not a Gold or a Kasami number then f is not APN over \mathbb{F}_{q^n} for all n sufficiently large.*

THEOREM 3. *If the degree of the polynomial function f is $2e$ with e odd, and if f contains a term of odd degree, then f is not APN over \mathbb{F}_{q^n} for all n sufficiently large.*

Aubry, McGuire and Rodier obtained also some partial results in the case of polynomial of Gold degree. These results have been generalized by Delgado and Janwa [11].

THEOREM 4. *Let $r \geq 2$ be an integer. Suppose that $f(x) = x^{2^r+1} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $d < 2^r + 1$. Assume that one of the following two conditions is satisfied:*

- (1) $d \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$,
- (2) $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $\phi_{x^{2^r+1}}, \phi_{x^d}$ are relatively prime.

Then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is not absolutely irreducible.

Rodier [25] and Caullery [10] studied the case of polynomials of degree $4e$.

THEOREM 5. *Let $f: \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ such that $\deg(f) = 4e$ with $e \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and $e > 3$, then f cannot be APN over infinitely many extensions of \mathbb{F}_q .*

In this paper, we consider the case of polynomials of Kasami degree. We will generalize the following results due to Férard, Oyono and Rodier [14].

THEOREM 6. *Suppose $f(x) = x^{2^{2r}-2^r+1} + g(x)$ where $\deg(g) \leq 2^{2r-1} - 2^{r-1} + 1$. Let $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{2^{2r-1}-2^{r-1}+1} a_j x^j$. Suppose moreover that there exists a nonzero coefficient a_j such that ϕ_{x^j} is prime to ϕ_{x^d} . Then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is absolutely irreducible.*

THEOREM 7. *Let $q = 2^n$. Let $r \geq 3$ be odd and relatively prime to n . Suppose $f(x) = x^{2^{2r}-2^r+1} + g(x)$ where $g(x) \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ and $\deg(g) = 2^{2r-1} - 2^{r-1} + 2$. If $g(x)$ does not have the form $ax^{2^{2r-1}-2^{r-1}+2} + a^2 x^3$ then ϕ_f is absolutely irreducible, while if $g(x)$ does have the form $ax^{2^{2r-1}-2^{r-1}+2} + a^2 x^3$ then either ϕ_f is irreducible or ϕ_f splits into two absolutely irreducible factors which are both defined over \mathbb{F}_q .*

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$x^{2^r-1} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree 2. We will show that f is not APN over \mathbb{F}_{q^n} for all n sufficiently large.

degree 4. Let $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^d a_j x^j$, then

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The proof of these theorems use, among other things, the factorization of $\phi_{2^{2r}-2^r+1}(x, y, z)$ over \mathbb{F}_{2^r} given by Janwa and Wilson [19].

THEOREM 8. If $f(x) = x^{2^r-2^r+1}$ then

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = \prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r} \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} q_\alpha(x, y, z)$$

where for each α , $q_\alpha(x, y, z)$ is an absolutely irreducible polynomial of degree $2^r + 1$ on \mathbb{F}_{2^r} such that $q_\alpha(x, 0, 1) = (x - \alpha)^{2^r+1}$.

The object of the third section is to obtain more information about this factorization. Then, we will, in the four section, study the hyperplane section of the surface X by the plane $y = z$. In the fifth section, we prove that if $f(x) = x^{2^r-2^r+1} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial which satisfies some conditions, then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is absolutely irreducible. In particular, f is not APN over \mathbb{F}_{q^n} for all n sufficiently large.

2. Preliminaries

We fix an algebraic closure $\bar{\mathbb{F}}_2$ of \mathbb{F}_2 . Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field of characteristic 2 and let $f: \mathbb{F}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$ be a function given by a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$. We define

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = \frac{f(x) + f(y) + f(z) + f(x+y+z)}{(x+y)(x+z)(y+z)}$$

which is a polynomial in $\mathbb{F}_q[x, y, z]$. We write $\phi_f(x, y)$ for $\phi_f(x, y, 1)$. More generally, for each polynomial $p(x, y, z)$, we write $p(x, y)$ for $p(x, y, 1)$. The context should make clear whether we are thinking projectively in three variables, or affinely in two.

If $f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^d a_j x^j$, then

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = \sum_{j=3}^d a_j \phi_j(x, y, z),$$

where $\phi_j(x, y, z)$ the ϕ function associated to the monomial x^j . The function $\phi_j(x, y, z)$ is homogeneous of degree $j - 3$.

Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , ℓ be an odd integer ≥ 3 and $t = 2^r \ell + 1$. We define

$$f_t(x, y) = x^t + y^t + 1 + (x+y+1)^t.$$

We have $\phi_t(x, y) = \frac{f_t(x, y)}{(x+y)(x+1)(y+1)}$.

3. Another proof of a theorem of Janwa-Wilson

Let r be an integer ≥ 2 . Let $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ be a Kasami exponent. We set $e = 2^r + 1$ and $g_{k_r}(x, y) = f_{k_r}(x^e, y^e)$. We define

$$\psi_{k_r}(x, y) = \phi_{k_r}(x^e, y^e) = \frac{g_{k_r}(x, y)}{(x^e + y^e)(x^e + 1)(y^e + 1)}$$

which is a polynomial of degree $e(k_r - 3)$.

Let $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$ and $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$. We will give the decomposition of $\psi_{k_r}(x, y)$ into linear factors in $L[x, y]$. We consider first the equation

$$(1) \quad x^e + y^e = 1$$

in $(L^*)^2$. For $x \in L^*$, we have $x^e = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(x)$ where $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(\cdot)$ designed the norm of L over K . Therefore, this equation is equivalent to

$$\text{Nm}_{L/K}(x) + \text{Nm}_{L/K}(y) = 1.$$

If $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(x) = 1$, then the equation has no solution in L^* (there is exactly $2^r + 1$ such elements in L^*). If $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(x) \neq 1$, then the equation has exactly $2^r + 1$ solutions in L . Thus, the equation (1) has exactly

$$(2^{2r} - 1 - (2^r + 1))(2^r + 1) = (k_r - 3)e$$

solution in $(L^*)^2$.

LEMMA 1. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$ and $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$. Then*

$$\psi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{(a,b)} (y + ax + b)$$

where the product is taken over the solutions (a, b) of equation (1) in $(L^*)^2$.

PROOF. For $X = x^e$ and $Y = y^e$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} g_{k_r}(x, y) &= \frac{1}{(X+Y+1)^{2r}} (X^{2r}Y^{k_r} + X^{k_r}Y^{2r} + X^{2^{2r}}Y + XY^{2^{2r}} + X^{2^{2r}} + Y^{2^{2r}} \\ &\quad + X^{k_r} + Y^{k_r} + X^{2^r} + Y^{2^r} + X + Y). \end{aligned}$$

If we set $y = ax + b$ with $a, b \in L^*$, a calculation shows that

$$\begin{aligned} X^{2r}Y^{k_r} + X^{k_r}Y^{2r} + X^{2^{2r}}Y + XY^{2^{2r}} + X^{2^{2r}} + Y^{2^{2r}} + X^{k_r} + Y^{k_r} \\ + X^{2^r} + Y^{2^r} + X + Y = (a^e + b^e + 1)(x^e + x^{e2^r} + x^{e2^{2r}} + x^{2^{3r}+1}). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $g_{k_r}(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $a^e + b^e = 1$. For each solution $(a, b) \in (L^*)^2$ of (1), we have $\psi_{k_r}(x, ax + b) = 0$. Since the polynomial $\psi_{k_r}(x, y)$ is monic as a univariate polynomial in the variable y and of degree $e(k_r - 3)$, we have obtained the lemma. \square

We also have

$$\psi_{k_r}(x, y) = \psi_{k_r}(y, x) = \prod_{(a,b)} (x + ay + b)$$

where the product is taken over $(a, b) \in (L^*)^2$ such that $a^e + b^e = 1$.

LEMMA 2. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$ and $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$. Given a solution $(a', b') \in (L^*)^2$ of (1), there exists an unique element $(a, b) \in (K^*)^2$ such that*

$$\text{Nm}_{L/K}(a) = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a') \text{ and } \text{Nm}_{L/K}(b) = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(b').$$

Moreover, $b = a + 1$.

PROOF. Let $a' \in L^*$ and $a \in K^*$. If c' is an element of L such that $c'^2 = a'$, then $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(a) = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a')$ if and only if $a = c'^e \in K$.

Let (a', b') be an element of $(L^*)^2$ which satisfies (1). By what we have seen just above, there exists an unique element (a, b) of $(K^*)^2$ such that $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(a) = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a')$ and $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(b) = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(b')$. Moreover, we have

$$a^2 + b^2 = a^e + b^e = a'^e + b'^e = 1.$$

Thus $a = b + 1$. \square

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For each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an unique $b \in K$ such that (a, b) is a solution of (1). In fact, $b = a + 1$. We define

$$u_a(x, y) = \prod_{(a', b')} (x + a'y + b')$$

where the product is taken over elements (a', b') of $(L^*)^2$ satisfying $Nm_{L/K}(a') = Nm_{L/K}(a)$ and $Nm_{L/K}(b') = Nm_{L/K}(b)$. The polynomial $u_a(x, y)$ is defined over K and of degree e^2 . Indeed, if the pair (a, b) satisfies $Nm_{L/K}(a') = Nm_{L/K}(a)$ and $Nm_{L/K}(b') = Nm_{L/K}(b)$, then the same is true for the pair (a'^{e-1}, b'^{e-1}) and the polynomial

$$(x + a'y + b')(x + a'^{e-1}y + b'^{e-1}) \in K[x, y].$$

On the other hand, we have $Nm_{L/K}(a') = Nm_{L/K}(a)$ if and only if $a' = ua$ where u is an element of L such that $u^e = 1$. From this, we deduce that the degree of $u_a(x, y)$ is e^2 .

If a_1 and a_2 are two distinct elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, then the polynomials $u_{a_1}(x, y)$ and $u_{a_2}(x, y)$ are relatively prime. Indeed, we have $a_1^e \neq a_2^e$. Thus, if $Nm_{L/K}(a'_1) = Nm_{L/K}(a_1)$ and $Nm_{L/K}(a'_2) = Nm_{L/K}(a_2)$, then $a'_1 \neq a'_2$ and $x + a'_1y + 1 \neq x + a'_2y + 1$.

If g designed a primitive e th root of unity in L , then the polynomial $u_a(x, y)$ can also be written

$$u_a(x, y) = \prod_{0 \leq i, j \leq e-1} (x + g^iay + g^jb),$$

where $b = a+1$. The following proposition is an immediate consequence of lemmas 1 and 2.

PROPOSITION 1. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Then we have

$$\psi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} u_a(x, y).$$

LEMMA 3. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 . For all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r} \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, we have $u_a(y, x) = a^4 u_{a^{-1}}(x, y)$.

PROOF. If we set $b = a+1$, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} u_a(y, x) &= \prod_{i,j} (y + g^i ax + g^j b) \\ &= \prod_{i,j} g^i a(g^{-i} a^{-1} y + x + g^{j-i} a^{-1} b) \\ &= a^4 \prod_{i',k} (x + g^{i'} a^{-1} y + x + g^k a^{-1} b) \\ &= a^4 u_{a^{-1}}(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

□

We will now show that there exists an unique polynomial $v_a(x, y)$ defined over K such that $u_a(x, y) = v_a(x^e, y^e)$.

LEMMA 4. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $e = 2^r + 1$ and g a primitive e th root of unity in $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$. Let $a, b, d \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$. Then

$$\prod_{0 \leq i, j \leq e-1} (x + (g^i ad + g^j b)y) = \prod_{i=0}^{e-1} (x^e + (g^i ad + b)^e y^e).$$

PROOF. We have

$$\prod_{0 \leq i, j \leq e-1} (x + g^i ad + g^j b) = \prod_{0 \leq i_0, k \leq e-1} (x + (g^{i_0} ad + b)g^k)$$

and

$$\prod_{k=0}^{e-1} (x + (g^{i_0} ad + b)g^k) = x^e + (g^{i_0} ad + b)^e.$$

This proves our lemma. \square

LEMMA 5. Let F be a field and let e be an integer ≥ 2 . Then the map

$$\theta: F[x, y] \longrightarrow F[x, y], \quad A(x, y) \longmapsto A(x^e, y^e)$$

is an injective ring homomorphism.

PROOF. The map θ is clearly linear, injective and we have

$$\theta(x^i y^j x^k y^l) = x^{ie} y^{je} x^{ke} y^{le} = \theta(x^i y^j) \theta(x^k y^l).$$

So θ is a ring homomorphism. \square

LEMMA 6. Let $P(x, y)$ be a polynomial over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$. Let e be an integer ≥ 2 . Then there exists a polynomial $Q(x, y) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[x, y]$ such that $P(x, y) = Q(x^e, y^e)$ if and only if for all pair $(c, d) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2^2$, there exists two polynomials $A_c(y) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[y]$ and $B_d(x) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[x]$ such that

$$P(x, d) = B_d(x^e) \text{ and } P(c, y) = A_c(y^e).$$

Moreover, the polynomial $Q(x, y)$ is unique and if the polynomial $P(x, y)$ is defined over a subfield of $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$, the same is true for $Q(x, y)$.

PROOF. Let $P(x, y) = \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j} x^i y^j \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[x, y]$. Assume that for all pair $(c, d) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2^2$, there exists $A_c(y) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[y]$ and $B_d(x) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2[x]$ such that $P(x, d) = B_d(x^e)$ and $P(c, y) = A_c(y^e)$. We will prove that $a_{i,j} = 0$ for all pair (i, j) such that i or j is not divisible by e . For all $d \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$, we have

$$B_d(x^e) = P(x, d) = \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j} x^i d^j = \sum_i x^i \sum_j a_{i,j} d^j,$$

which implies that $\sum_j a_{i,j} d^j$ for all i not divisible by e . In other words, $\sum a_{i,j} y^j$ is the zero polynomial. Hence, $a_{i,j} = 0$ for all pair (i, j) such that i is not divisible by e . We prove similarly that $a_{i,j} = 0$ for all pair (i, j) such that j is not divisible by e . If we set $Q(x, y) = \sum a_{i,j} x^{i/e} y^{j/e}$, then $P(x, y) = Q(x^e, y^e)$. The unicity follows from the previous lemma and if $P(x, y)$ is defined over a subfield of $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$, it is clear that the same is true for $Q(x, y)$. The converse is trivial. \square

LEMMA 7. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $e = 2^r + 1$. For each $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r} \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an unique polynomial $v_a(x, y)$ over \mathbb{F}_{2^r} such that

$$u_a(x, y) = v_a(x^e, y^e).$$

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PROOF. By lemma 4, we have

$$u_a(x, d) = \prod_{0 \leq i, j \leq e-1} (x + g^i ad + g^j b) = \prod_{i=1}^{e-1} (x^e + (g^i ad + g^j b)^e y^e)$$

for all $d \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$. So, all the exponents of the polynomial $u_a(x, d)$ are divisible by e . The same is true for the exponents of the polynomial $u_a(c, y) = a^4 u_{a-1}(y, c)$ for all $c \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$. According to the previous lemma, there exists an unique polynomial $v_a(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r}[x, y]$ such that $u_a(x, y) = v_a(x^e, y^e)$. □

We will give an elementary proof of the factorization of $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$ obtained by Janwa-Wilson (see theorem 8). Furthermore, we obtain more information about this factorization.

THEOREM 9. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$, $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$, $e = 2^r + 1$ and $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$. Then

$$\phi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y),$$

where for each a , $v_a(x, y)$ is an absolutely irreducible polynomial of degree e over K . Moreover, $v_a(x, y)$ is the unique polynomial over K such that

$$v_a(x^e, y^e) = \prod_{(a', b')} (x + a'y + b')$$

where the product is taken over the pair $(a', b') \in (L^*)^2$ such that $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(a') = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a)$ and $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(b') = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a+1)$.

PROOF. Let a be an element of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ and $b = a+1$. We prove first that the polynomial $v_a(x, y)$ defined in lemma 7 is absolutely irreducible. Let $p(x, y)$ be a polynomial of positive degree over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$ which divides $v_a(x, y)$. Then $p(x, y)q(x, y) = v_a(x, y)$ for some polynomial $q(x, y)$ over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_2$. We have

$$p(x^e, y^e)q(x^e, y^e) = v_a(x^e, y^e) = u_a(x, y) = \prod_{i, j} (x + g^i ay + g^j b).$$

It is obvious that the polynomials in the product are relatively prime. Since we assume that the polynomial $p(x, y)$ is of positive degree, there exists i_0, j_0 such that $x + g^{i_0} ay + g^{j_0} b$ divides $p(x^e, y^e)$. Put $p_0(x, y) = x + g^{i_0} ay + g^{j_0} b$. For all the integers i', j' , the polynomial $p_0(g^{i'} x, g^{j'} y)$ divides $p(x^e, y^e)$ (since $g^e = 1$). In particular, for all integers i, j such that $0 \leq i, j < e$, the polynomial

$$p_0(g^{j_0-j} x, g^{i-i_0+j_0-j} y) = g^{j_0-j} x + g^{i+i_0-j} ay + g^{j_0} b = g^{j_0-j} (x + g^i ay + g^j b)$$

divides $p(x^e, y^e)$. It follows that $\prod_{i, j} (x + g^i ay + g^j b)$ divides $p(x^e, y^e)$ and so $p(x^e, y^e) = v_a(x^e, y^e)$ (up to a scalar). Therefore, $p(x, y) = v_a(x, y)$ (up to a scalar). So, the polynomial $v_a(x, y)$ is absolutely irreducible.

We have seen that

$$\phi_{k_r}(x^e, y^e) = \psi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} u_a(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x^e, y^e).$$

We deduce from the lemma 5 that $\phi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y)$. □

□

REMARK 1. Janwa and Wilson [18] proved that

$$\phi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{\gamma \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} q_\gamma(x, y)$$

where for each γ , $q_\gamma(x, y)$ is an absolutely irreducible polynomial of degree e over K such that $q_\gamma(x, 0) = (x + \gamma)^e$ (see theorem 8). With the notations of the previous theorem, we have

$$q_{b^e}(x, y) = v_a(x, y).$$

COROLLARY 1. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$, $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$, $e = 2^r + 1$ and $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$. Then

$$\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z) = \frac{x^{k_r} + y^{k_r} + z^{k_r} + (x + y + z)^{k_r}}{(x + y)(x + z)(y + z)} = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y, z),$$

where for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, $v_a(x, y, z)$ is an absolutely irreducible polynomial of degree e over K . Moreover, $v_a(x, y, z)$ is the unique polynomial over K such that

$$v_a(x^e, y^e, z^e) = \prod_{(a', b')} (x + a'y + b'z)$$

where the product is taken over the pair (a', b') of $(L^*)^2$ such that $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(a') = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a)$ and $\text{Nm}_{L/K}(b') = \text{Nm}_{L/K}(a + 1)$.

PROOF. We have

$$\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z) = \frac{x^{k_r} + y^{k_r} + z^{k_r} + (x + y + z)^{k_r}}{(x + y)(x + z)(y + z)} = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y, z),$$

where $v_a(x, y, z) = z^e v_a(\frac{x}{z}, \frac{y}{z})$ is the homogenization of $v_a(x, y)$. By lemma 7, we have

$$v_a(x^e, y^e, z^e) = z^{e^2} \prod_{a', b'} \left(\frac{x}{z} + a' \frac{y}{z} + b' \right) = \prod_{(a', b')} (x + a'y + b'z). \quad \square$$

4. Hyperplane sections

The aim of this section is to study the hyperplane section by the plane $y = z$ of the surface of equation $\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z) = 0$. More precisely, we will give the decomposition into absolutely irreducible components of the hyperplane section of the surface of equation $v_a(x, y, z) = 0$ by the plane $y = z$.

COROLLARY 2. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. For all $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, we have

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i=1}^{2^{r-1}} (x + \rho_i(a)y)^2,$$

where $\rho_i(a) = a(a + 1)(g^i + g^{-i}) + 1 \in K$.

PROOF. Put $e = 2^r + 1$ and $N = (e - 1)/4 = 2^{r-2}$. By corollary 1 and lemma 4, we have

$$v_a(x^e, y^e, y^e) = \prod_{i,j} (x + (g^i a + g^j b)y) = \prod_{i=0}^{4N} (x^e + (g^i a + b)^e y^e),$$

where $b = a + \rho_{2N+1-i}(a)$ for

From this, we

We wish to show that $a = a' + 1$ is true.

LEMMA 8
 $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ if

PROOF. If

$$\sum_{i=1}^{(e-1)/2} \rho_i(a) =$$

If $v_a(x, y) = v$ then $v = 1$, which implies

In the case where $\rho_i(a) = \rho_{i'}(a')$ for some element of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$

If $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = 0$ then

as $\beta \in K$. Then $u_1 u_2 = 1$, $\beta \in K$

We have shown that

LEMMA 9
 $\beta \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. If T

(1) If T

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Given a $u \neq 1$. Indeed

where $b = a + 1$. Since $(g^i a + b)^e = a^e + g^{-i}ab + g^i ab + b^e = \rho_i(a)$, $\rho_{2N+i}(a) = \rho_{2N+1-i}(a)$ for $i = 1, \dots, 2N$ and $\rho_0(a) = 1$, we have

$$v_a(x^e, y^e, y^e) = (x^e + y^e) \prod_{i=1}^{2N} (x^e + \rho_i(a)y^e)^2.$$

From this, we deduce, using lemma 5, that

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i=1}^{2N} (x + \rho_i(a)y)^2. \quad \square$$

We wish to determine the gcd of $v_a(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$. The case where $a = a' + 1$ is the object of the following lemma.

LEMMA 8. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 . Let $a, a' \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r} \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. Then $v_a(x, y, y) = v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ if and only if $a - a' \in \mathbb{F}_2$.

PROOF. Put $e = 2^r + 1$. We have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{(e-1)/2} \rho_i(a) = a(a+1) \sum_{i=1}^{(e-1)/2} (g^i + g^{-i}) = a(a+1) \sum_{i=1}^{e-1} g^i = a(a+1) \frac{g + g^e}{g + 1} = a(a+1).$$

If $v_a(x, y) = v_{a'}(x, y)$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{(e-1)/2} \rho_i(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{(e-1)/2} \rho_i(a')$ and $a(a+1) = a'(a'+1)$, which implies that $a = a'$ or $a = a' + 1$. The converse is trivial. \square

In the case where $a' \neq a$ and $a' \neq a + 1$, we need to study the equation $\rho_i(a) = \rho_{i'}(a')$. We consider first the equation $u + u^{-1} = \beta$ in L^* where β is an element of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. It is equivalent to

$$u^2 + \beta u + 1 = 0.$$

If $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = 0$, it has two solutions in K . Assume that $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = 1$. Note that

$$\text{Tr}_{L/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\text{Tr}_{L/K}(\beta^{-1})) = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(0) = 0$$

as $\beta \in K$. Thus, the equation has two distinct solutions u_1, u_2 in $L \setminus K$. Since $u_1 u_2 = 1$, $\beta \in K$ and $u_1, u_2 \in L \setminus K$, we have

$$u_2 = u_1^{2^r} \text{ and } u_1^e = 1.$$

We have shown the following result.

LEMMA 9. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $e = 2^r + 1$, $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$ and $L = \mathbb{F}_{2^{2r}}$. Let $\beta \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$.

- (1) If $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = 0$, then the equation $u + u^{-1} = \beta$ has two distinct solutions in K .
- (2) If $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\beta^{-1}) = 1$, then the equation $u + u^{-1} = \beta$ has two distinct solutions in $L \setminus K$. Moreover, if u is a solution, then $u^e = 1$ and the other solution is u^{-1} .

For $a \in K$ and $u \in L^*$, we set

$$\rho(u, a) = a(a+1)(u + u^{-1}) + 1 \in L.$$

Given $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, we have $\rho(u, a) \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ for all u such that $u^e = 1$ and $u \neq 1$. Indeed, it is obvious that $\rho(u, a) \in K$ and $\rho(u, a) \neq 1$. If $\rho(u, a) = 0$, then

$a(a+1) = \frac{1}{u+u^{-1}}$ and we have $0 = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(a^2 + a) = \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \frac{1}{u+u^{-1}} = 1$, which is absurd. Thus, $a(a+1) \neq \frac{1}{u+u^{-1}}$ and $\rho(u, a) \neq 0$.

For all $a, a' \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ and $u \in L \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, we have $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u, a')$ if and only if $a = a'$ or $a = a' + 1$.

LEMMA 10. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $e = 2^r + 1$ and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Let $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, $u, u' \in L^*$ such that $u^e = u'^e = 1$. Then $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a)$ if and only if $u = u'$ or $u = u'^{-1}$.

PROOF. Assume that $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a)$. Then $\text{Tr}_{L/K}(u) = \text{Tr}_{L/K}(u')$ and we can write $u = u' + d$ with $d \in K$. We have

$$1 = u^e = u'^e + u'^{e-1}d + u'd^{e-1} + d^e = 1 + (u' + u'^{-1})d + d^2.$$

It follows that $(u' + u'^{-1})d + d^2 = 0$, and finally $d = 0$ or $d = u' + u'^{-1}$. The converse is immediate. \square

The following lemma is an immediate consequence of the fact that the \mathbb{F}_2 -bilinear pairing $K \times K \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2$, $(x, y) \mapsto \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(xy)$ is nondegenerate.

LEMMA 11. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$ and n an integer between 1 and r . Let $(\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{n-1})$ be a linearly independent family of elements of K . Let $\delta_0, \dots, \delta_{n-1}$ be elements of \mathbb{F}_2 . Then the system

$$\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\lambda_0 x) = \delta_0, \dots, \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2}(\lambda_{n-1} x) = \delta_{n-1}$$

has 2^{r-n} solutions.

We denote by T a system of representatives of the orbits of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ acted on additively by \mathbb{F}_2 . We now define an equivalence relation on the set of elements $u \in L \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that $u^e = 1$. Two such elements u, u' are said equivalent if $u = u'$ or $u = u'^{-1}$. We denote by U a system of representatives of the classes of this relation.

We recall that we define, for all integer i , $\rho_i(a) = \rho(g^i, a)$. We recall also that

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i=1}^{2N} (x + \rho_i(a)y)^2$$

with $N = 2^{r-2}$. The lemma 10 shows that one can write

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{u \in U} (x + uy)^2.$$

Moreover, the factors are pairwise distinct.

LEMMA 12. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 . Let a, a' be two distinct elements of T . Then there exists exactly 2^{r-2} elements $u' \in U$ such that the equation

$$\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a')$$

has exactly one solution u (resp. has no solution) in U .

PROOF. The equation $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a')$ is equivalent to

$$u + u^{-1} = \frac{u' + u'^{-1}}{\lambda} \text{ with } \lambda = \frac{a(a+1)}{a'(a'+1)}.$$

By lemma 9, it last condition is the lemma 9 sho

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By lemma 9, it has an unique solution in U if and only if $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \frac{\lambda}{u'+u'^{-1}} = 1$. This last condition is equivalent to $y = \frac{1}{u'+u'^{-1}}$ and $\text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \lambda y = 1$. Since $K \cap U = \emptyset$, the lemma 9 shows that this is the same as saying that

$$\begin{cases} \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} y = 1, \\ \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \lambda y = 1. \end{cases}$$

Moreover, for each solution $y \in K$ of this system, there exists exactly one solution $u \in U$ of the equation $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a')$. Since $\lambda \notin \mathbb{F}_2$, the previous lemma shows that there exists 2^{r-2} elements $u' \in U$ such that the system has exactly one solution. Moreover, for every other elements of U , there is no solution. To conclude, there exists exactly 2^{r-2} elements $u' \in U$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \rho(u', a')$ has exactly one solution (resp. has no solution) in U . □

PROPOSITION 2. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 . Put $N = 2^{r-2}$. Let $a, a' \in \mathbb{F}_{2^r} - \mathbb{F}_2$ such that $a \neq a', a' + 1$. Then there exists distinct integers i_1, \dots, i_N between 1 and $2N$ such that the gcd of $v_a(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ is

$$(x+y) \prod_{k=1}^N (x + \rho_{i_k}(a)y)^2.$$

PROOF. Let i' be an integer between 1 and $2N$. Consider the equation

$$\rho_i(a) = \rho_{i'}(a')$$

with $i, 1 \leq i \leq 2N$. By lemma 12, there exists N integers i' between 1 and $2N$ such that the equation has exactly one solution (resp. no solution).

On the other hand, we have seen that

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x+y) \prod_{i=1}^{2N} (x + \rho_i(a)y)^2 \text{ and } v_{a'}(x, y, y) = (x+y) \prod_{i'=1}^{2N} (x + \rho_{i'}(a')y)^2.$$

Therefore, there exists N distinct integers i_1, \dots, i_N (the solutions of the equation) between 1 and $2N$ such that the gcd of $v_a(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ is

$$(x+y) \prod_{k=1}^N (x + \rho_{i_k}(a)y)^2. \quad \square$$

REMARK 2. One can prove that there exists distinct integers $i_1, \dots, i_{N/2}$ between 1 and $2N$ such that the gcd of $v_a(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ is

$$(x+y) \prod_{k=1}^{N/2} (x + \rho_{i_k}(a)y)^2 (x + \rho_{i_k}(a)^{-1}y)^2.$$

We will now prove that for each element a of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an primitive element γ of K such that $x + \gamma y$ divides $v_a(x, y, y)$. To each family $(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{n-1})$ of K , we associate a system of equations

$$(2) \quad \rho(u_1, a) = \gamma_1, \dots, \rho(u_n, a) = \gamma_n$$

with $(a, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) \in T \times U^{n-1}$. It is clearly equivalent to

$$\begin{cases} a^2 + a = \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{u_1 + u_1^{-1}}, \\ a^2 + a = \frac{\gamma_2 + 1}{u_2 + u_2^{-1}}, \\ \vdots \\ a^2 + a = \frac{\gamma_{n-1} + 1}{u_{n-1} + u_{n-1}^{-1}}. \end{cases}$$

Note that if (a, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) is a solution of (2) in $T \times U^{n-1}$, then $u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} \in U$ are entirely determined by a .

Consider the linear system of equations

$$(3) \quad \begin{cases} \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} y &= 1, \\ \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} (\gamma_1 + 1)y &= 0, \\ \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{\gamma_2 + 1} y &= 1, \\ \vdots \\ \text{Tr}_{K/\mathbb{F}_2} \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{\gamma_{n-1} + 1} y &= 1 \end{cases}$$

with $y \in K$.

LEMMA 13. *The solutions of the system (2) (in $T \times U^{n-1}$) are in bijection with the solutions of the system (3) (in K).*

PROOF. Let θ be the map which associate to each solution $(a, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) \in T \times U^{n-1}$ of (2) the solution $y = \frac{1}{u_1 + u_1^{-1}}$ of (3). It is clearly surjective and if $\theta(a, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1}) = \theta(a', u'_1, \dots, u'_{n-1})$, then

$$\frac{1}{u_1 + u_1^{-1}} = \frac{1}{u'_1 + u'_1^{-1}},$$

which implies $u_1 = u'_1 \in T$, $a = a' \in T$ and finally $u_2 = u'_2, \dots, u_{n-1} = u'_{n-1}$. \square

LEMMA 14. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Let $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1}$ be elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 . Then, for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an integer j between 1 and $r - 1$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U .*

PROOF. For all integer j between 1 and $r - 1$, let A_j be the set of elements a in T for which there exists $u_j \in U$ such that $\rho(u_j, a) = \gamma_j$. We want to prove that $\bigcup_{j=1}^{r-1} A_j = T$. For all family (j_1, \dots, j_m) of m distinct integers of $\{1, \dots, r - 1\}$ (with $1 \leq m \leq r - 1$), the cardinality of $A_{j_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_m}$ is the number of solutions of the system (3) associated to the family $(\gamma_{j_1}, \dots, \gamma_{j_m})$. Since the family

$$\left(1, \gamma_{j_1} + 1, \frac{\gamma_{j_1} + 1}{\gamma_{j_2} + 1}, \dots, \frac{\gamma_{j_1} + 1}{\gamma_{j_m} + 1}\right)$$

is linearly independent, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \# \bigcup_{j=1}^{r-1} A_j &= \sum_{j=1}^{r-1} \# A_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{r-1} m \\ &= m \\ &= 2^{r-2} \end{aligned}$$

as $N = 2^{r-2}$ and

It follows that for each $a \in T$, there exists at least one j such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U .

LEMMA 15. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Let $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1}$ be elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 . Then, for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an integer j between 1 and $r - 1$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U .*

PROOF. We proceed by induction on r . According to a theorem of L. Carlitz [11], for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an integer j between 1 and $r - 1$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U .

It follows that for each $a \in T$, there exists at least one j such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U .

LEMMA 16. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. If $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1}$ are elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 and if p is an odd prime, then $2^r \mid p - 1$.*

PROOF. By L. Carlitz's theorem [11], for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists an integer j between 1 and $r - 1$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U . From this, we can prove by induction on r that lemma 15, we can prove that

REMARK 3. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Let $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1}$ be elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. If $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1}$ are elements of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 and if p is an odd prime, then $2^r \mid p - 1$.*

Indeed, we have

as in the previous section,

is linearly independent, by lemma 11, this cardinality is $N/2^{m-1}$. By the inclusion-exclusion principle, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \# \bigcup_{j=1}^{r-1} A_j &= \sum_{m=1}^{r-1} \left((-1)^{m-1} \sum_{1 \leq j_1 < j_2 < \dots < j_m \leq r-1} \# A_{j_1} \cap A_{j_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{j_m} \right) \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^{r-1} (-1)^{m+1} \binom{r-1}{m} \frac{N}{2^{m-1}} = \frac{N}{2^{r-2}} \sum_{m=1}^{r-1} (-1)^{m+1} \binom{r-1}{m} 2^{r-m-1} \\ &= 2N - 1 = \# T \end{aligned}$$

as $N = 2^{r-2}$ and

$$1 = (2-1)^{r-1} = \sum_{m=0}^{r-1} (-1)^m \binom{r-1}{m} 2^{r-1-m}.$$

It follows that for each element a in T , there exists an integer j between 1 and $2N$ such that the equation $\rho(u, a) = \gamma_j$ has a solution in U . \square

LEMMA 15. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Given $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists at least an integer i between 1 and 2^{r-1} such that $\rho_i(a)$ is an primitive element of K .

PROOF. We handle the case where $r = 4$ with Magma. Assume that $r \neq 4$. According to a theorem of Kapetanakis [21], one can find a primitive normal basis $(\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{r-1})$ of K over \mathbb{F}_2 such that

$$\left(\frac{1}{\gamma_0 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1} \right)$$

is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 . The sum $\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \frac{1}{\gamma_i + 1}$ is invariant by Galois, hence equal to 0 or 1. Since the family $(\frac{1}{\gamma_0 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is linearly independent, it must be equal to 1. So, the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is linearly independent. By the previous lemma, for each $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$, there exists two integers i, j with $1 \leq i \leq 2^{r-1}$ and $1 \leq j \leq r-1$ such that $\rho_i(a) = \gamma_j$. \square

LEMMA 16. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$, j be an integer ≥ 2 , ℓ be an odd integer ≥ 1 and $t = 2^j \ell + 1$. If $\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z)$ and $\phi_t(x, y, z)$ are not relatively prime, then $2^r - 1$ divides ℓ .

PROOF. By theorem 9, $v_a(x, y, z)$ divides $\phi_t(x, y, z)$ for some element a of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. It follows $v_a(x, y, y)$ divides $\phi_t(x, y, y)$. On the other hand, Delgado-Janwa [11] proved that

$$\phi_t(x, y, y) = \frac{(x^\ell + y^\ell)^{2^j}}{(x+y)^2}.$$

From this, we deduce, using corollary 2, that $\rho_i(a)^\ell = 1$ for $i = 1, \dots, 2^{r-1}$. By lemma 15, we conclude that $2^r - 1$ divides ℓ . \square

REMARK 3. Let t be an integer ≥ 7 with $t \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. We write $t = 3 + 4m$ with an integer $m \geq 1$. If $\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z)$ and $\phi_t(x, y, z)$ are not relatively prime, then

$$m \equiv 2^{r-1} - 1 \pmod{2^r - 1}.$$

Indeed, we have $\phi_t(x, y, y) = \frac{(x^{1+2m} + y^{1+2m})^2}{(x+y)^2}$ (see lemma 2 in [11]) and we prove, as in the previous lemma, that $2^r - 1$ divides $1 + 2m$.

LEMMA 17. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. Let A, A' be a partition of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. Then there exists $a_0 \in A, a'_0 \in A'$ and a primitive element γ of K such that $x + \gamma y$ divides $v_{a_0}(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'_0}(x, y, y)$.

PROOF. If there exists $a \in A$ (resp. $a' \in A'$) such that $a + 1 \in A'$ (resp. $a' + 1 \in A$), the lemma is trivial (since $v_a(x, y, y) = v_{a+1}(x, y, y)$). So, we can assume that this is not the case. Let $a \in A$ and $a' \in A'$. Since A and A' are stable by \mathbb{F}_2 by the above hypothesis, we can assume that $a, a' \in T$. By corollary 2 and proposition 2, we can write

$$v_a(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i=1}^{2N} (x + \gamma_i y)^2$$

and

$$v_{a'}(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i'=1}^N (x + \gamma'_{i'} y)^2 \prod_{i=N+1}^{2N} (x + \gamma_i y)^2$$

with $N = 2^{r-2}$ and $\gamma_i, \gamma'_{i'} \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. The elements γ_i are pairwise distinct and, for all $i, i', 1 \leq i, i' \leq N$, we have $\gamma_i \neq \gamma'_{i'}$.

We will prove that the system (2), or equivalently (3), associated to the family $(\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_N)$ has at least two distinct solutions. Since it has solution, it suffices to prove that the family $(1, \gamma_1 + 1, \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{\gamma_2 + 1}, \dots, \frac{\gamma_1 + 1}{\gamma_N + 1})$, or equivalently the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_N + 1})$, is of rank $< r$. If it is of rank r , then, we can assume (reordering the indices if necessary) that the family $(1, \frac{1}{\gamma_1 + 1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\gamma_{r-1} + 1})$ is a basis of K over \mathbb{F}_2 . By lemma 14, there exists an integer j , $1 \leq j \leq r - 1$ and $u \in U$ such that $\rho(u, a') = \gamma_j$. Then $x + \gamma_j y$ is a factor of $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$. Since the elements γ_i are pairwise distinct, γ_j must be equal to a $\gamma_{i'}$, $1 \leq i' \leq N$, which contradict our hypothesis.

Since the system has at least two distinct solutions, there exists an element $a'' \in T$, $a'' \neq a, a'$, such that $x + \gamma_1 y, \dots, x + \gamma_N y$ divides $v_{a''}(x, y, y)$. Then, by proposition 2, we have necessarily

$$v_{a''}(x, y, y) = (x + y) \prod_{i=1}^N (x + \gamma_i y)^2 (x + \gamma'_{i'} y)^2.$$

If one of the elements $\gamma_{N+1}, \dots, \gamma_{2N}$ is a primitive element of K , it suffices to choose $a_0 = a$ and $a'_0 = a'$. If this is not the case, by the lemma 15, there exists two integers i_0 and i'_0 between 1 and N such that γ_{i_0} and $\gamma'_{i'_0}$ are primitives elements. We choose $a_0 = a''$ and $a'_0 = a'$ if $a'' \in A$ and $a_0 = a$ and $a'_0 = a''$ in the contrary. \square

5. Polynomials of Kasami Degree

In this section, we prove, under some hypothesis, that if $f(x)$ is a polynomial of Kasami degree, then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is not absolutely irreducible. In particular, the function $f(x)$ can not be APN on infinitely many extensions.

Let r be an integer ≥ 2 and $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ be a Kasami exponent. Let d be an integer, $1 \leq d < k_r$ and $f(x) = x^{k_r} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree $d < k_r$. If we set $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k_r} a_i x^i$, then

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = \sum_{i=3}^{k_r} a_i \phi_i(x, y, z).$$

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We will consider two cases: $d \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and $d = 2^i t$ with $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. In the first case, we follow the ideas of Aubry-McGuire-Rodier [1] and Delgado-Janwa [11].

THEOREM 10. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ be a Kasami exponent, d be an integer, $1 \leq d < k_r$ and $f(x) = x^{k_r} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree d . If $d \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is absolutely irreducible.*

PROOF. Delgado-Janwa [11] have shown that $x + y$ does not divide $\phi_d(x, y, y)$.

Assume that $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is not absolutely irreducible. There exists two polynomials P and Q of positive degree such that $\phi_f(x, y, z) = P(x, y, z)Q(x, y, z)$. If we write P and Q as a sum of homogeneous polynomials, we get

$$\phi_f(x, y, z) = PQ = (P_s + \dots + P_0)(Q_t + \dots + Q_0) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{s+t} \sum_{j=0}^t P_{s+\ell-t-j} Q_j,$$

where P_j and Q_j are homogeneous of degree j (we put $P_i = 0$ if $i < 0$ and $Q_j = 0$ if $j < 0$). We can assume that $s \geq t > 0$. We have $s + t = k_r - 3$ and $0 < t \leq \frac{k_r-3}{2} \leq s < k_r - 3$. On the other hand, we have

$$P_s(x, y, z)Q_t(x, y, z) = \phi_{k_r}(x, y, z) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y, z)$$

with $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$. In particular, this implies that P_s and Q_t are relatively prime as the product is made of distinct irreducible factors. Moreover, we can write

$$P_s(x, y, z) = \prod_{a \in A} v_a(x, y, z) \text{ and } Q_t(x, y, z) = \prod_{a \in A'} v_a(x, y, z)$$

where A and A' is a partition of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. We set $e = k_r - d$. Delgado-Janwa [11] showed that $P_{s-1} = \dots = P_{s-(e-1)} = 0 = Q_{t-1} = \dots = Q_{t-(e-1)}$ and

$$a_d \phi_d(x, y, z) = P_s Q_{t-e} + P_{s-e} Q_t.$$

If $Q_{t-e} = 0$, then $a_d \phi_d = P_{s-e} Q_t$. Thus, there exists $a' \in A'$ such that $v_{a'}(x, y, y)$ divides $\phi_d(x, y, y)$ and, in particular, $x + y$ divides $\phi_d(x, y, y)$, which is impossible, as we said above. We prove similarly that $P_{t-e} \neq 0$.

Assume $Q_{t-e} \neq 0$ and $P_{t-e} \neq 0$. Then we have

$$a_d \phi_d(x, y, y) = P_s(x, y, y)Q_{t-e}(x, y, y) + P_{s-e}(x, y, y)Q_t(x, y, y).$$

So there exists $a \in A$ and $a' \in A'$ such that the gcd, and in particular $x + y$, divides $\phi_d(x, y, y)$, which is impossible, as we said above. \square

We now study the case where $d = 2^i t$ with $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

LEMMA 18. *Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ be a Kasami exponent and t be an integer ≥ 5 such that $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. We write $t = 2^j \ell + 1$ with an integer $j \geq 2$ and an odd integer $\ell \geq 1$. If $\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z)$ and $\phi_t(x, y, z)$ are not relatively prime, then $j = r$ and*

$$\ell = \frac{2^{2r(n+1)} - 1}{2^r + 1}$$

with an integer $n \geq 0$.

PROOF. We put $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^r}$ and $e = 2^r + 1$. Recall that the factorization of $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$ into absolutely irreducible polynomials is

$$\phi_{k_r}(x, y) = \prod_{a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2} v_a(x, y).$$

Thus, there exists $a \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$ such that $v_a(x, y)$ divides $\phi_t(x, y)$. It follows that $u_a(x, y) = v_a(x^e, y^e)$ divides $f_t(x^e, y^e)$. Since

$$u_a(x, y) = \prod_{0 \leq i, j \leq e-1} (x + g^i ay + g^j b),$$

we see that $x + ay + b$ divides $f_t(x^e, y^e)$ where $b = a + 1$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (ay + b)^e + y^e + 1 &= (a^e + 1)y^e + a^{e-1}by^{e-1} + ab^{e-1}y + (b^e + 1) \\ &= b^e y^e + a^{e-1}by^{e-1} + ab^{e-1}y + a^e \\ &= b^e(y^e + c^{e-1}y^{e-1} + cy + c^e) \\ &= b^e(y + c)^e \end{aligned}$$

where $c = a/b$. If we set $s = et$, then $s = (2^r + 1)(2^j\ell + 1) > 2^{r+j}$. For $x = ay + b$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = f_t(x^e, y^e) &= (ay + b)^s + y^s + 1 + ((ay + b)^e + y^e + 1)^t \\ &= (ay + b)^s + y^s + 1 + b^s(y + c)^s \\ &= a^s + b^s + 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{s-1} \binom{s}{i} (a^i b^{s-i} + b^s c^{s-i}) y^i + (a^s + b^s + 1) y^s. \end{aligned}$$

From this, we get

$$\binom{s}{i} (c^i + c^{s-i}) = 0$$

for $i = 1, \dots, s-1$.

Let ν be the order of c . Note that ν is positive and divides $2^r - 1$ (as $c \in K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$). By lemma 16, $\ell \equiv 0 \pmod{2^r - 1}$, which implies that $t \equiv 1 \pmod{\nu}$. For $i = 1, \dots, s-1$, we have $c^i = c^{s-i}$ if and only if $s \equiv 2i \pmod{\nu}$. Since $e \equiv 2 \pmod{\nu}$, it is also equivalent to

$$e(t-i) \equiv e(1-i) \equiv 0 \pmod{\nu}.$$

Since ν and e are coprime, this is equivalent to $i \equiv 1 \pmod{\nu}$.

Assume that s can not be written in the form $2^k + 1$ with an integer k . Let

$$s = \sum_{p=0}^m s_p 2^p,$$

with $s_m = 1$, be the 2-adic development of s ($m \geq r+j \geq 4$ as $s > 2^{r+j}$). Since s is odd, we have $s_0 = 1$. By hypothesis, there exists an integer p , $0 < p < m$, such that $s_p = 1$. By Lucas' theorem [22], the binomial coefficient $\binom{s}{2^p+1}$ is odd (as $s_p = 1$). As $2^p + 1 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{\nu}$, we have

$$\binom{s}{2^p+1} (a^i b^{s-i} + b^s c^{s-i}) \neq 0,$$

which is impossible. Therefore, s can be written in the form $s = 2^k + 1$ with an integer $k > r+j$ (as $s > 2^{r+j}$). Then k is necessarily congruent to r modulo $2r$ (as $2^k \equiv -1 \pmod{2^r + 1}$). So, we can write k in the form $k = r + 2r(n+1)$ with an integer $n \geq 0$ (as $k > r+j$). From this, we get

$$\ell = 2^{r-j} \frac{2^{2r(n+1)} - 1}{e}.$$

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THEOREM 11. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ a Kasami exponent, d an integer, $5 \leq d \leq 2^{2r-1} - 2^{r-1} + 1$ and $f(x) = x^{k_r} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree d . We write $d = 2^i t$ with t an odd integer and i an integer ≥ 0 . If $t \geq 5$ and $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is absolutely irreducible.

PROOF. It suffices to prove that $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$ and $\phi_d(x, y)$ are relatively prime (see theorem 6). We write $t = 1 + 2^j \ell$ with an integer $j \geq 2$ and an odd integer $\ell \geq 1$. We have

$$\phi_d(x, y, z) = ((x+y)(x+z)(y+z))^{2^i-1} \phi_t(x, y, z)^{2^i}.$$

Rodier proved that $(x+y)(x+z)(y+z)$ does not divide $\phi_{k_r}(x, y, z)$ (see lemma 6.1 in [25]). Hence, the polynomial $\phi_d(x, y)$ is relatively prime to $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$ if and only if the polynomial $\phi_t(x, y)$ is relatively prime to $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$.

By the previous lemma, $\phi_{k_r}(x, y)$ and $\phi_t(x, y)$ are relatively prime if $j \neq r$ or if ℓ can not be written in the form

$$\ell = \frac{2^{2r(n+1)} - 1}{2^r + 1}$$

with an integer $n \geq 0$. To conclude, it remains to note that if $j = r$ and $\ell = \frac{2^{2r(n+1)} - 1}{2^r + 1}$ with an integer $n \geq 0$, then

$$t = 2^r \ell + 1 = 2^r \frac{2^{2r(n+1)} - 1}{2^r + 1} + 1 > 2^{2r-1} - 2^{r-1} + 1,$$

which contradicts our hypothesis. \square

THEOREM 12. Let r be an integer ≥ 2 , $k_r = 2^{2r} - 2^r + 1$ a Kasami exponent, d an odd integer, $5 \leq d < k_r$ and $f(x) = x^{k_r} + g(x)$ where $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree d . Assume that $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. We write $d = 1 + 2^j \ell$ with ℓ an odd integer and j an integer ≥ 2 . If $2^r - 1$ does not divide ℓ , then $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is absolutely irreducible.

PROOF. Assume that $\phi_f(x, y, z)$ is not absolutely irreducible. With the notations of the proof of theorem 10, we have

$$a_d \phi_d = P_s Q_{t-e} + P_{s-e} Q_t, P_s(x, y, z) = \prod_{a \in A} v_a(x, y, z)$$

and

$$Q_t(x, y, z) = \prod_{a \in A'} v_a(x, y, z)$$

where A and A' is a partition of $K \setminus \mathbb{F}_2$. By the lemma 17, there exists $a_0 \in A$, $a'_0 \in A'$ and a primitive element γ of K such that $x + \gamma y$ divides $v_{a_0}(x, y, y)$ and $v_{a'_0}(x, y, y)$. We have

$$a_d \phi_d(x, y, y) = P_s(x, y, y) Q_{t-e}(x, y, y) + P_{s-e}(x, y, y) Q_t(x, y, y).$$

On the other hand, Delgado-Janwa [11] have shown that

$$\phi_d(x, y, y) = \frac{(x^\ell + y^\ell)^{2^j}}{(x + y)^2}.$$

Thus, $x + \gamma y$ divides $\phi_d(x, y, y)$. It follows that $\gamma^\ell = 1$ and $2^r - 1$ divides ℓ . \square

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