# Decomposition of Permutations in a Finite Field 

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#### Abstract

We describe a method to decompose any power permutation, as a sequence of power permutations of lower algebraic degree. As a result we obtain decompositions of the inversion in $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ for small $n$ from 3 up to 16 , as well as for the APN functions, when $n=5$. More precisely, we find decompositions into quadratic power permutations for any $n$ not multiple of 4 and decompositions into cubic power permutations for $n$ multiple of 4. Finally, we use the Theorem of Carlitz to prove that for $3 \leq n \leq 16$ any $n$-bit permutation can be decomposed in quadratic and cubic permutations.


## 1 Introduction

In order to construct efficient hardware implementations, we are interested in the decomposition of complex S-boxes or permutations into simpler maps.

Definition 1 (Decomposition). A decomposition of a function $f: \operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right) \rightarrow$ $\mathrm{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ is a finite sequence of functions $g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots g_{t}$ such that

$$
f(x)=g_{t} \circ g_{t-1} \circ \cdots \circ g_{2} \circ g_{1}(x)
$$

The question has been investigated in the context of Threshold Implementation in $[10,14]$, where the decomposition and factorization of the Present S-box on quadratic S-boxes has been proposed. This research has been extended to all $3 \times 3$ and $4 \times 4$ S-boxes in $[2,3]$. In the same context it was proven that when $n=4$ all S-boxes belonging to the Alternative group have decomposition into quadratic permutations and all S-boxes not belonging to the Alternative group have no such decomposition, the inversion is among the latter [2,3]. Decompositions of permutations into simpler operations, i.e. with less field multiplications, to enable more efficient side-channel countermeasures have been presented in [5, 6, 9, 15]. The goal of this paper is different - we target a decomposition of permutations into quadratic or cubic permutations.

Let us recall some well known results, which we are using in the paper. There is no $n$-bit permutation with degree $n$ [1], i.e. the maximal algebraic degree of a balanced $n$-variable Boolean function is $n-1$. The inverse of an affine permutation is affine, the (algebraic) degree of a permutation $x^{d}$ is equal to $w t(d)$ (Hamming weight), hence the permutations $x^{d}$ and $x^{d} \circ x^{2^{i}}$ are affine equivalent since $x^{2^{i}}$ are linear permutations. It has also been shown that $x^{d}$ is a permutation
of $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(d, 2^{n}-1\right)=1[1]$. Note that for $n=2^{m}$ there is no quadratic power function which is a permutation. It can easily be seen that the quadratic function $x^{3}$ is a permutation whenever $n$ is odd. Indeed, since $2=-1$ $\bmod 3$ it follows that $2^{n}-1=1 \bmod 3$ or in other words $\operatorname{gcd}\left(3,2^{n}-1\right)=1$. It can also been seen that $x^{3}$ is not a permutation when $n$ is even. All involution permutations [13] are a product of disjoint cycles with 1 or 2 elements only.

Recall that a mapping $f$ from $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ into $\mathrm{GF}\left(2^{m}\right)$ is called differentially $\delta$-uniform (or simply $\delta$-uniform) if for all $a \in \operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right), a \neq 0$ and $b \in \operatorname{GF}\left(2^{m}\right)$ we have $\left|\left\{z \in \operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right) \mid f(z+a)-f(z)=b\right\}\right| \leq \delta$. It is proven in [12] that the inversion mapping $f$ i.e. $x^{-1}=x^{2^{n}-2}$ in $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ has $\operatorname{deg}(f)=n-1$, since $w t\left(2^{n}-2\right)=n-1$; it has odd parity; $f$ is differentially 2-uniform if $n$ is odd and it is differentially 4 -uniform if $n$ is even. The functions which are 2 -uniform are also known as Almost Perfect Nonlinear(APN) functions.

Theorem 1 ([4]). There are 5 APN permutations in $\mathrm{GF}\left(2^{5}\right)$ up to affine equivalence, all of those are affine equivalent to power functions $A P N_{1}^{5}=x^{3}$, $A P N_{2}^{5}=x^{5}, A P N_{3}^{5}=x^{7}, A P N_{4}^{5}=x^{11}, A P N_{5}^{5}=x^{15}$. Where $A P N_{5}^{5}$ is equivalent to its inverse, and $A P N_{1}^{5}$ (respectively $A P N_{2}^{5}$ ) is equivalent to the inverse of $A P N_{4}^{5}$ (respectively $A P N_{3}^{5}$ ). Note that $A P N_{1}^{5}$ and $A P N_{2}^{5}$ are quadratic, $A P N_{3}^{5}$ and $A P N_{4}^{5}$ are cubic, and $A P N_{4}^{5}$ has degree 4.

There is only one known affine equivalence class of 6-bit APN permutations and it has degree 4 . It is known that this permutation can be decomposed into two permutations of degree three and two, namely $A P N^{6}=g \circ f$, where $f$ is cubic and $g$ is quadratic.

Carlitz proved the following important theorem [7].
Theorem 2. Given a finite field $\mathrm{GF}(q)$ with $q>2$ then all permutation polynomials over it are generated by the special permutation polynomials $x^{q-2}$ (the inversion) and $a x+b$ (affine i.e. $a, b \in \operatorname{GF}(q)$ and $a \neq 0)$.

In other words any permutation $[8,16]$ can be presented as decomposition of affine and inverse permutations. Such a decomposition is called the Carlitz rank. The length i.e. the number of inversions in this decomposition is referred as the Carlitz length.

Our contribution in this paper is twofold - first, we describe a method to decompose any power function as a sequence of power permutations of lower algebraic degree. Using this method we provide decompositions of the inversion in $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ for small $n$ from 3 up to 16 , as well as for the APN functions when $n=5$. Namely, there exist decompositions into quadratic power permutations for any $n$ not multiple of 4 and decompositions into cubic power permutations for $n$ multiple of 4 . The second contribution of this paper is to extend the known, for $n=4$, decomposition results to any permutation in $\operatorname{GF}\left(2^{n}\right)$ with $3 \leq n \leq 16$. In other words, we show that any permutation can be decomposed in cubic (or quadratic) permutations when $n$ is (or not) multiple of 4 . This general result is obtained thanks to the Theorem of Carlitz.

## 2 Decompositions

We will start with an algorithm which finds decompositions for the inversion into quadratic or cubic power permutations. Note that it is straightforward to apply the same method to other well known power functions as we demonstrate later for the APN functions when $n=5$.

Let us recall that for $n=2^{m}$ there is no quadratic power function which is a permutation, hence there will be no decomposition of the inversion on quadratic power permutations for such $n$. When $n=12$ the only quadratic power permutation is $x^{17}$, but it has even parity while the inversion has an odd parity, hence no decomposition of the inversion on quadratic power permutations exist when $n=12$. Since we consider $3 \leq n \leq 16$ then when $n$ is multiple of 4 (i.e. $n=4,8,12,16$ ) we will look for decompositions on cubic power permutations, in all the other cases we will search for decompositions on quadratic power permutations. Let us denote by $\mathcal{A}(k)$ the cyclotomic class of a power permutation $x^{k}$. Next, we consider the following algorithm (see Figure 1) in which the first two steps are pre-computations followed by two alternatives for the search loop.

We note that since we are looking only for decompositions relevant to the S-boxes used in symmetric cryptographic primitives the choice of $n$ between 3 and 16 is entirely justified. We would like to point out as well that the use of cyclotomic classes in the first step of the algorithm is similar to the algorithms in $[5,6,9,15]$, however our goal and the algorithm steps afterwards are different. Thus, the algorithm described above is adapted to serve well our purposes to find all desirable decompositions. Note that the exhaustive search worked out for all $n$ except $n=13,15$ and 16 .

Table 1. Decompositions of the inversion

| n | Decomposition $x^{-1}$ | Length | n | Decomposition $x^{-1}$ | Length |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | $x^{2} \circ x^{3}$ | 1 | 4 | $x^{2} \circ x^{7}$ | 1 |
| 5 | $x^{2} \circ x^{3} \circ x^{5}$ | 2 | 6 | $x^{5} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{5}$ | 3 |
| 7 | $x^{2^{6}} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{5}$ | 3 | 8 | $x^{2^{5}} \circ x^{13} \circ x^{19}$ | 2 |
| 9 | $x^{2} \circ x^{17} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{3}$ | 3 | 10 | $x^{17} \circ \ldots \circ x^{17}$ | 15 |
| 1 | $x^{2} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{9}$ | 8 | 12 | $x^{2^{3}} \circ x^{97} \circ x^{97} \circ x^{97}$ | 3 |
| 13 | $x^{2^{10}} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{17} \circ x^{17} \circ x^{17}$ | 4 | 14 | $x^{5} \circ \ldots \circ x^{5}$ | 21 |
| 15 | $x^{2^{2}} \circ x^{3} \circ x^{9} \circ x^{33} \circ x^{129} \circ x^{129} \circ x^{129}$ | 6 | 16 | $x^{2^{13}} \circ x^{11} \circ x^{37} \circ x^{161}$ | 3 |

All decompositions we found for the inversion given in Table 1 are with a minimal length. We applied our algorithm also for $A P N_{3}^{5}=x^{7}, A P N_{4}^{5}=x^{11}$ and $A P N_{5}^{5}=x^{15}$ and found that for $A P N_{3}^{5}=x^{4} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{5}$ i.e. decomposition of length 2 ; for $A P N_{4}^{5}=x^{8} \circ x^{3} \circ x^{5} \circ x^{5}$ i.e. decomposition of length 3 ; for $A P N_{5}^{5}=x^{5} \circ x^{3}$ i.e. decomposition of length 2 ; and those are the shortest decompositions.

A confirmation of the above results is given by the decompositions of the inversion in $\mathrm{GF}\left(2^{8}\right)$ i.e. the AES S-box which is of algebraic degree 7, presented in [11]: $x^{-1}=x^{32} \circ x^{19} \circ x^{13}$ i.e., a composition of 2 permutations of degree

Fig. 1. Algorithm for decompositions of power permutations

1. First define $\mathcal{A}(k)=\left\{k 2^{i} \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right) \mid\right.$ s.t. $\operatorname{gcd}\left(k 2^{i}, 2^{n}-1\right)=1$ for $i=$ $0, \ldots, n-1\}$. Note that for any permutation $x^{d}$, the degree $d$ will belong to only one cyclotomic class $\mathcal{A}(k)$. Next we build the set of all cyclotomic classes, which are permutations $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{P}$, i.e. it is a collection of all $\mathcal{A}(k)$. Further, we consider the subset of $\mathcal{C P}$ consisting of either quadratic or when there are no quadratic then cubic permutations denoted by $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{Q}}$ (or $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}}$ ).
2. For each $k$ from $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{Q}}$ (or $\mathcal{C} \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{C}}$ ) compute the order of $k$ as the smallest power $m_{k}$ such that $w t\left(k^{m_{k}} \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right)\right)=1$. In other words, $x^{k^{m_{k}}}$ has algebraic degree 1, i.e. is a linear function. Hence, for each set $\mathcal{A}(k)$ we construct a corresponding set $\mathcal{P}(k)$ which we call the power set of $k$, namely $\mathcal{P}(k)=\left\{k^{i} \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right) \mid i=\right.$ $\left.1, \ldots, m_{k}\right\}$. The collection of all power sets $\mathcal{P}(k)$ we denote by $\mathcal{P}$. Last define $\ell=|\mathcal{P}|$ and enumerate the representatives $k$ of $\mathcal{P}(k) \in \mathcal{P}$ for example, $k_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, \ell$. Note 2 is not among them since it generates linear permutation.
3. Exhaustive search

For each $j_{i}=0, \ldots, m_{k_{i}}-1$ and $j=0, \ldots, n-1$ compute the number $z\left(j, j_{1}, \ldots, j_{\ell}\right)=2^{j} \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} k_{i}^{j_{i}} \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right)$. Then check $(*)$ whether $z\left(j, j_{1}, \ldots, j_{\ell}\right)=2^{n}-2$. Note that the number $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} j_{i}$ corresponds to the length of the decomposition. If the check $(*)$ is satisfied then we remember the tuple ( $j^{\prime}, j_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, j_{\ell}^{\prime}$ ) which results in the shorter decomposition length. Naturally at the end we have the decomposition with the shortest length. The complexity of this exhaustive search is $n \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} m_{k_{i}}$.
4. Adaptive search

We start in the same way as in the exhaustive search i.e. for each $j_{i}=0, \ldots, m_{k_{i}}-$ 1 and $j=0, \ldots, n-1$, but with the additional constrain on the length of the decomposition, i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} j_{i} \leq t$ for a chosen $t$. However, when a tuple $\left(j^{\prime}, j_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, j_{\ell}^{\prime}\right)$ is found which satisfies the check $(*)$ and achieves a shorter decomposition length than the already known, then the search space is reduced to only those tuples which have even shorter decomposition length.
$3 ; x^{-1}=x^{16} \circ x^{43} \circ x^{53}$ i.e., a composition of 2 permutations of degree $4 ;$ $x^{-1}=x^{128} \circ x^{23} \circ x^{11}$ i.e., a composition of a permutations of degree 3 with a permutation of degree 4 .

To complete our result we use the Carlitz Theorem 2 and we arrive at our main Theorem.

Theorem 3. For $n \leq 16$ any permutation can be decomposed in quadratic permutations, when $n$ is not multiple of 4 and in cubic permutations, when $n$ is multiple of 4 .

Note that the Carlitz Theorem 2 uses a subset of affine transforms of the type $a x+b$ where $a, b$ are field elements. Recall that any affine permutation can be presented as $b+\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_{i} x^{2^{i}}$ called also linearized polynomials, where the coefficients $a_{i}$ are field elements. Since Carlitz considers only a subset of them by using all affine permutations instead we can achieve shorter Carlitz length. Note
that the classes with even/odd Carlitz length have even/odd parity. We should point out that although the decompositions we have found for the inversion are with minimal length, the decompositions found in Theorem 3 for any S-box might not have minimal length.

Another application of our main Theorem relates to the decompositions of the S -boxes when $n=3$ and $n=4$. All single permutation transpositions $(0, j)$ belong to class $Q_{1}^{3}$ for $3 \times 3$ permutations. Moreover, all 4 classes for $n=3$ can be obtained via $I n v \circ A \circ I n v \circ B \circ I n v$ i.e. with Carlitz length at most 3. Class $A_{0}^{3}$ is the affine class, i.e., has length 0 and class $Q_{3}^{3}$ is the only class with length 1 , since it contains the inversion. Then class $Q_{2}^{3}$ is with length 2 and the remaining class $Q_{1}^{3}$ is with length 3. Note that, from the construction used in the proof of the Carlitz Theorem, the single transpositions (i.e. class $Q_{1}^{3}$ ) are with Carlitz length 3.

All 302 classes for $n=4$ can be obtained as follows: $I n v \circ A \circ I n v \circ B \circ I n v \circ C \circ$ $I n v$ i.e. with Carlitz length at most 4. Class $A_{0}^{4}$ is the affine class and hence with length 0 , class $C_{282}^{4}$ is the only class with length 1 since it contains the inversion. Then there are 59 Classes with length 2: $\{010,016,024,041,049,050,052,053,060$, $061,063,064,066,067,070,071,073,074,076,081,083,089,092,095,096,099,107$, $118,126,127,130,131,138,140,142,150,151,164,165,168,171,172,174,180,192$, $201,202,211,212,217,236,249,254,262,268,270,273,281,287\}$.
Next there are 150 classes with length 3 - namely all the classes not belonging to the Alternative group except $C_{282}^{4}:\{001,003,005,007,009,011,013,015,017,019$, $021,023,025,027,029,030,032,035,037,039,040,042,045,047,048,051,054,056$, $058,059,062,065,068,069,072,075,077,079,080,082,084,087,088,090,091,093$, 094, 097, 098, 100, 102, 105, 106, 108, 109, 112, 113, 116, 117, 119, 122, 125, 128, 129, $132,133,135,137,139,141,143,144,146,149,152,153,156,157,160,163,166,167$, $169,170,173,175,177,179,181,182,185,186,188,190,191,193,195,197,199,200$, $203,204,206,207,209,210,213,216,218,220,222,224,226,227,229,230,232,235$, $237,239,241,242,245,246,248,250,251,253,255,256,257,261,263,265,267,269$, $271,272,274,276,279,283,284,285,289,290,291,295,298,301\}$.
From the construction used in the proof of the Carlitz Theorem, the single transpositions $(0, j)$ (i.e. class $C_{1}^{4}$ ) are with Carlitz length 3 . The remaining 91 classes are with length 4 and among them are all the 6 quadratic classes: $\{002,004,006,008,012,014,018,020,022,026,028,031,033,034,036,038,043$, $044,046,055,057,078,085,086,101,103,104,110,111,114,115,120,121,123,124$, $134,136,145,147,148,154,155,158,159,161,162,176,178,183,184,187,189,194$, $196,198,205,208,214,215,219,221,223,225,228,231,233,234,238,240,243,244$, $247,252,258,259,260,264,266,275,277,278,280,286,288,292,293,294,296,297$, $299,300\}$. Five classes $\{006,136,161,162,278\}$ will have length 2 instead of length 4 if all Affine transforms are used instead of only the ones of the type $a x+b$.

## 3 Conclusions

We have shown that any permutation (for $3 \leq n \leq 16$ ) can be decomposed in quadratic permutations, when $n$ is not multiple of 4 and in cubic permutations,
when $n$ is multiple of 4 . There are still two open problems to be solved: Can the inversion be decomposed in quadratic permutations when $n$ is multiple of 4 and $n>4$ ? Can we find decompositions with shorter length?

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