# Another class of quadratic APN binomials over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ : the case $n$ divisible by 4 

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#### Abstract

We exhibit an infinite class of almost perfect nonlinear quadratic binomials from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ with $n=4 k$ and $k$ odd. We prove that these functions are CCZinequivalent to known APN power functions when $k \neq 1$. In particular it means that for $n=12,20,28$, they are CCZ-inequivalent to any power function.


Keywords. Affine equivalence, Almost bent, Almost perfect nonlinear, CCZequivalence, Differential uniformity, Nonlinearity, S-box, Vectorial Boolean function.

## 1 Introduction

A function $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ is called APN if, for every $a \neq 0$ and every $b$ in $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, the equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ admits at most two solutions (it is also called differentially 2-uniform). Vectorial Boolean functions used as S-boxes in block ciphers must have low differential uniformity to prevent from the differential cryptanalysis (see [5, 33]). In this sense almost perfect nonlinear (APN) functions are optimal. The notion of APN function is closely connected to the notion of almost bent (AB) function. A function $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ is called AB if the minimum Hamming distance between all Boolean functions $v \cdot F, v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash\{0\}$ (where "." denotes the usual inner product in $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, note that any other choice of an inner product would lead to the same notion) and all affine Boolean functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ is maximal (this distance is called the nonlinearity of $F$ and this maximum equals $2^{n-1}-2^{\frac{n-1}{2}}$ ). AB functions oppose an optimum resistance to the linear cryptanalysis (see [31, 15]). Besides, every AB function is APN [15] and any quadratic APN function is AB [14].

Until recently the only known constructions of APN and AB functions were EAequivalent to power functions over finite fields. Recall that functions $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are called extended affine equivalent (EA-equivalent) if $F^{\prime}=A_{1} \circ F \circ A_{2}+A$, where the mappings

[^0]$A, A_{1}, A_{2}$ are affine, and where $A_{1}, A_{2}$ are permutations. Table 1 gives all known values of exponents $d$ (up to multiplication by a power of 2 modulo $2^{n}-1$, and up to taking the inverse when a function is a permutation) such that the power function $x^{d}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ is APN. For $n$ odd the Gold, Kasami, Welch and Niho APN functions from Table 1 are also AB (for the proofs of AB property see [11, 12, 25, 27, 29, 33]).

Table 1
Known APN power functions $x^{d}$ on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

| Functions | Exponents $d$ | Conditions | Proven in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gold | $2^{i}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1$ | $[25,33]$ |
| Kasami | $2^{2 i}-2^{i}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1$ | $[28,29]$ |
| Welch | $2^{t}+3$ | $n=2 t+1$ | $[20]$ |
| Niho | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-1, t$ even | $n=2 t+1$ | $[19]$ |
|  | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}-1, t$ odd |  |  |
| Inverse | $2^{2 t}-1$ | $n=2 t+1$ | $[4,33]$ |
| Dobbertin | $2^{4 t}+2^{3 t}+2^{2 t}+2^{t}-1$ | $n=5 t$ | $[21]$ |

When using S-boxes EA-equivalent to power functions the advantage is the low implementation complexity in hardware environments. On the other hand the properties of power functions could be exploited in an attack (see [1]). A first well known property of a power permutation $F$ is that all its component functions $\operatorname{tr}(c F), c \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$, are affine equivalent. A second consequence is that the rich algebraic structure of the field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ can be extensively used, probably in a simpler manner for a power function than for a polynomial with many terms. The impact of the choice of power functions on algebraic attacks is another open question [16]. Probably, some of the potential weaknesses of S-boxes based on power functions can be avoided by using S-boxes EA-inequivalent or even CCZ-inequivalent (see below) to power mappings.

Applying the stability properties studied in [14] and more recently called CCZ-equivalence (cf. definition at Section 2), classes of APN functions EA-inequivalent to power functions are constructed in $[9,8]$. They are presented in Table 2. When $n$ is odd these functions are also AB. However they are, by construction, CCZ-equivalent to Gold mappings.

Table 2
Known APN functions EA-inequivalent to power functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

| Functions | Conditions | Alg. degree |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $x^{2^{i}+1}+\left(x^{2^{i}}+x \operatorname{tr}(1)+1\right) \operatorname{tr}\left(x^{2^{i}+1}+x \operatorname{tr}(1)\right)$ | $\begin{gathered} n \geq 4 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1 \end{gathered}$ | 3 |
| $\left[x+\operatorname{tr}_{n / 3}\left(x^{2\left(2^{i}+1\right)}+x^{4\left(2^{i}+1\right)}\right)+\operatorname{tr}(x) \operatorname{tr}_{n / 3}\left(x^{2^{i}+1}+x^{2^{2 i}\left(2^{i}+1\right)}\right)\right]^{2^{i}+1}$ | $n$ divisible by 6 $\operatorname{gcd}(i, n)=1$ | 4 |
| $\begin{aligned} & x^{2^{i}+1}+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}\left(x^{2^{i}+1}\right)+x^{2^{i}} \operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)+x \operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)^{2^{i}} \\ & +\left[\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)^{2^{2}+1}+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}\left(x^{2^{i}+1}\right)+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)\right]^{\frac{1}{2+1}}\left(x^{2^{i}}+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)^{2^{i}}+1\right) \\ & +\left[\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}\left(x 2^{2^{i}+1}+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}\left(x^{2^{i}+1}\right)+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)\right]^{\frac{2^{i}}{2^{2}+1}}\left(x+\operatorname{tr}_{n / m}(x)\right)\right. \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $m \neq n$ $n$ odd $n$ divisible by $m$ $\operatorname{gcd}(n, i)=1$ | $m+2$ |

The first examples of APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power mappings are introduced in [24]. These are two quadratic binomials:

- $x^{3}+w x^{36}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{10}}$, where $w$ has the order 3 or 93 ,
- $x^{3}+w x^{528}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{12}}$, where $w$ has the order 273 or 585 .

The second of these two functions has been proven being part of an infinite sequence of quadratic APN binomials given in Table 3 which represents by the only known classes of APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power functions. Note that the first function from [24] is not explained yet by any infinite family.

Table 3
Known APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

|  | Functions | Conditions | Proven in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $n=3 k, \operatorname{gcd}(k, 3)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, 3 k)=1$ |  |
| The case $n$ | $x^{2^{s}+1}+w x^{2^{i k}}+2^{m k+s}$ | $k \geq 4, i=s k \bmod 3, m=3-i$ | $[6,7]$ |
| divisible by 3 |  | $w$ has the order $2^{2 k}+2^{k}+1$ |  |
|  |  | $n=4 k, \operatorname{gcd}(k, 2)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, 2 k)=1$ |  |
| The case $n$ | $x^{2^{s}+1}+w x^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}}$ | $n \geq 3, i=s k \bmod 4, m=4-i$ <br> divisible by 4 |  |
|  | $w$ has the order $2^{3 k}+2^{2 k}+2^{k}+1$ | Theorem 1 of |  |
| the present paper |  |  |  |

The functions from Table 3 which correspond to the case $n$ divisible by 3 are proven to be APN for $n$ even and in case $n$ odd they are AB permutations [6, 7]. The present paper introduces a new infinite family of quadratic APN binomials which corresponds to the case $n$ divisible by 4 in Table 3. It is proven (in [6] for $n$ divisible by 3 and in the present paper for $n$ divisible by 4) that all these functions are EA-inequivalent to power functions and CCZ-inequivalent to the Gold and Kasami mappings. This implies that for $n$ even they are CCZ-inequivalent to all known APN functions and for $n=12,15,20,24,28$, they are CCZ-inequivalent to any power mappings. We conjecture CCZ-inequivalence of these functions to any power functions for all $n \geq 12$.

Though quadratic APN functions are used in some Feistel ciphers (see for instance [32]) functions of low algebraic degree are not the best choices for S-boxes. However, the APN functions from Table 3 can be viewed as the first necessary steps to construct maximum nonlinear S-boxes of a larger algebraic degree CCZ-inequivalent to power functions. Note that, applying CCZ-equivalence to quadratic APN functions it is possible to construct nonquadratic APN mappings CCZ-inequivalent to power functions. The existence of APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power functions and to quadratic functions is still an open problem.

## 2 Preliminaries

Let $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ be the $n$-dimensional vector space over the field $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. Any function $F$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself can be uniquely represented as a polynomial on $n$ variables with coefficients in $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$,
whose degree with respect to each coordinate is at most 1 :

$$
F\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{u \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}} c(u)\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}^{u_{i}}\right), \quad c(u) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}
$$

This representation is called the algebraic normal form of $F$ and its degree $d^{\circ}(F)$ the algebraic degree of the function $F$.
Besides, the field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ can be identified with $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ as a vector space. Then, viewed as a function from this field to itself, $F$ has a unique representation as a univariate polynomial over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ of degree smaller than $2^{n}$ :

$$
F(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{2^{n}-1} c_{i} x^{i}, \quad c_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}
$$

For any $k, 0 \leq k \leq 2^{n}-1$, the number $w_{2}(k)$ of the nonzero coefficients $k_{s} \in\{0,1\}$ in the binary expansion $\sum_{s=0}^{n-1} 2^{s} k_{s}$ of $k$ is called the 2 -weight of $k$. The algebraic degree of $F$ is equal to the maximum 2-weight of the exponents $i$ of the polynomial $F(x)$ such that $c_{i} \neq 0$, that is $d^{\circ}(F)=\max _{0 \leq i \leq n-1, c_{i} \neq 0} w_{2}(i)$ (see [14]).

A function $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ is linear if and only if $F(x)$ is a linearized polynomial over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, that is,

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i} x^{2^{i}}, \quad c_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}
$$

The sum of a linear function and a constant is called an affine function.
Let $F$ be a function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to itself and $A_{1}, A_{2}: \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ be affine permutations. The functions $F$ and $A_{1} \circ F \circ A_{2}$ are then called affine equivalent. Affine equivalent functions have the same algebraic degree (i.e. the algebraic degree is affine invariant).

As recalled in introduction, we say that the functions $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are extended affine equivalent if $F^{\prime}=A_{1} \circ F \circ A_{2}+A$ for some affine permutations $A_{1}, A_{2}$ and an affine function $A$. If $F$ is not affine, then $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ have again the same algebraic degree.

Two mappings $F$ and $G$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to itself are called Carlet-Charpin-Zinoviev equivalent (CCZ-equivalent) if the graphs of $F$ and $G$, that is, the subsets $\left\{(x, F(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}\right\}$ and $\left\{(x, G(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}\right\}$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, are affine equivalent. Hence, $F$ and $G$ are CCZ-equivalent if and only if there exists an affine automorphism $\mathcal{L}=\left(L_{1}, L_{2}\right)$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ such that

$$
y=F(x) \Leftrightarrow L_{2}(x, y)=G\left(L_{1}(x, y)\right) .
$$

Note that since $\mathcal{L}$ is a permutation then the function $L_{1}(x, F(x))$ has to be a permutation too (see [6]). As shown in [14], EA-equivalence is a particular case of CCZ-equivalence and any permutation is CCZ-equivalent to its inverse.

For a function $F: \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ and any elements $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ we denote

$$
\delta_{F}(a, b)=\left|\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: F(x+a)+F(x)=b\right\}\right|
$$

and

$$
\Delta_{F}=\left\{\delta_{F}(a, b): a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, a \neq 0\right\} .
$$

$F$ is called a differentially $\delta$-uniform function if $\max _{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}} \delta_{F}(a, b) \leq \delta$. Note that $\delta \geq 2$ for any function over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$. Differentially 2 -uniform mappings are called almost perfect nonlinear.

For any function $F: \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ we denote

$$
\lambda_{F}(a, b)=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}}(-1)^{\operatorname{tr}(b F(x)+a x)}, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}},
$$

where $\operatorname{tr}(x)=x+x^{2}+x^{4}+\ldots+x^{2^{n-1}}$ is the trace function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ into $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. The set $\Lambda_{F}=\left\{\lambda_{F}(a, b): a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, b \neq 0\right\}$ is called the Walsh spectrum of $F$ and the value

$$
\mathcal{N} \mathcal{L}(F)=2^{n-1}-\frac{1}{2} \max _{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}}\left|\lambda_{F}(a, b)\right|
$$

equals the nonlinearity of the function $F$. The nonlinearity of any function $F$ satisfies the inequality

$$
\mathcal{N} \mathcal{L}(F) \leq 2^{n-1}-2^{\frac{n-1}{2}}
$$

( $[15,35]$ ) and in case of equality $F$ is called almost bent or maximum nonlinear.
It is shown in [14] that, if $F$ and $G$ are CCZ-equivalent, then $F$ is APN (resp. AB) if and only if $G$ is APN (resp. AB). More general, CCZ-equivalent functions have the same nonlinearity and differential uniformity.

Obviously, AB functions exist only for $n$ odd. It is proven in [15] that every AB function is APN and its Walsh spectrum equals $\left\{0, \pm 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}}\right\}$. If $n$ is odd, every APN mapping which is quadratic (that is, whose algebraic degree equals 2 ) is AB [14], but this is not true for nonquadratic cases: the Dobbertin and the inverse APN functions are not AB (see [14],[12]). When $n$ is even, the inverse function $x^{2^{n}-2}$ is a differentially 4 -uniform permutation [33] and has the best known nonlinearity [30], that is $2^{n-1}-2^{\frac{n}{2}}$ (see [12, 18]). This function has been chosen as the basic S-box, with $n=8$, in the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES), see [17]. A comprehensive survey on APN and AB functions can be found in [13].

## 3 A new family of APN functions

Theorem 1 Let $s$ and $k$ be positive integers such that $s \leq 4 k-1, \operatorname{gcd}(k, 2)=\operatorname{gcd}(s, 2 k)=$ 1 , and $i=s k \bmod 4, m=4-i, n=4 k$. If $w \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ has the order $2^{3 k}+2^{2 k}+2^{k}+1$ then the function $F(x)=x^{2^{s}+1}+w x^{2^{2 k}+2^{m k+s}}$ is APN on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Proof. Without loss of generality we can assume that $w=\alpha^{2^{k}-1}$ where $\alpha$ is a primitive element of $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$. We have to show that for every $u, v \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, u \neq 0$, the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(x)+F(x+u)=v \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

has at most 2 solutions. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
F(x)+F(x+u)= & \alpha^{2^{k}-1}\left(x^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}}+(x+u)^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}}\right)+x^{2^{s}+1}+(x+u)^{2^{s}+1} \\
= & \alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}}\left(\left(\frac{x}{u}\right)^{2^{i k}}+\left(\frac{x}{u}\right)^{2^{m k+s}}\right) \\
& +u^{2^{s}+1}\left(\left(\frac{x}{u}\right)^{2^{s}}+\left(\frac{x}{u}\right)\right)+\alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}}+u^{2^{s}+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

As this is a linear equation in $x$ it is sufficient to study the kernel. To simplify notation we denote

$$
a=2^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}-2^{s}-1} .
$$

After replacing $x$ by $u x$ and dividing by $u^{2^{s}+1}$, we see the equation (1) admits 0 or 2 solutions for every $u \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ if and only if, denoting

$$
\Delta_{a}(x)=a\left(x^{2^{i k}}+x^{2^{m k+s}}\right)+x^{2^{s}}+x
$$

the equation $\Delta_{a}(x)=0$ has the only solutions 0 and 1 .
From now on we consider the cases $i=1$ and $i=3$ separately.
Case $1(i=3, m=1)$ : If we denote $y=x^{2^{k}}, z=y^{2^{k}}, t=z^{2^{k}}$ and $b=a^{2^{k}}, c=b^{2^{k}}$, $d=c^{2^{k}}$ the equation $\Delta_{a}(x)=0$ can be rewritten as

$$
a\left(t+y^{2^{s}}\right)+x^{2^{s}}+x=0
$$

Since $2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}-2^{s}-1=2^{3 k}+2^{k+s}-2^{s}-1=\left(2^{k}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k}+2^{k}+2^{s}+1\right)$ then $a$ is always a $\left(2^{k}-1\right)$-th power and thus $a b c d=1$. Considering also the conjugated equations we derive the following system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{1} & =a\left(t+y^{2^{s}}\right)+x^{2^{s}}+x= \\
f_{2} & =b\left(x+z^{2^{s}}\right)+y^{2^{s}}+y= \\
f_{3} & =c\left(y+t^{2^{s}}\right)+z^{2^{s}}+z= \\
f_{4} & =z+x^{2^{s}}+a b c\left(t^{2^{s}}+t\right)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

The aim is now to eliminate $y, z$ and $t$ from these equations and to get an equation in $x$ only. First we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{1} & =b c f_{1}+a b c f_{2}+a b f_{3}+f_{4} \\
& =a b(b c+1) z^{2^{s}}+(a b+1) z+(b c+1) x^{2^{s}}+b c(a b+1) x
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{2} & =c f_{1}^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}} c\left(f_{2}^{2^{s}}+f_{2}\right)+a^{2^{s}} f_{3} \\
& =a^{2^{s}} b^{2^{s}} c 2^{2^{2 s}}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1) z^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}} z+c x^{2^{2 s}}+c(a b+1)^{2^{s}} x^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}} b c x
\end{aligned}
$$

to eliminate $t$ and $y$. To eliminate $z^{22^{2 s}}$ we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{3} & =c R_{1}^{2^{s}}+(b c+1)^{2^{s}} R_{2} \\
& =\left(c(a b+1)^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1}\right) z^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1)^{2^{s}} z+c(a b+1)^{2^{s}} x^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}} b c(b c+1)^{2^{s}} x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using equations $R_{1}$ and $R_{3}$ we can eliminate $z^{2^{s}}$ by computing

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{4} & =a b(b c+1) R_{3}+\left(c(a b+1)^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1}\right) R_{1} \\
& =P(a)\left(z+(b c+1) x^{2^{s}}+b c x\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
P(a)=c(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1} .
$$

Below we shall show that $P(a) \neq 0$, thus we can denote

$$
R_{5}=\frac{R_{4}}{P(a)}=z+(b c+1) x^{2^{s}}+b c x .
$$

Computing

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{6} & =R_{1}+a b(b c+1) R_{5}^{2^{s}} \\
& =(a b+1) z+a b(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1} x^{2^{2 s}}+\left(a b^{2^{s}+1} c^{2^{s}}+1\right)(b c+1) x^{2^{s}}+b c(a b+1) x
\end{aligned}
$$

we finally get our desired equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{7} & =(a b+1) R_{5}+R_{6} \\
& =a b(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1}\left(x^{2^{2 s}}+x^{2^{s}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously if $x$ is a solution of $\Delta_{a}(x)=0$ then $R_{7}(x)=0$. For $P(a) \neq 0$ and $b c+1 \neq 0$ this is equivalent to $x=0,1$. Thus to prove the theorem we have to show that $P(a)$ and $b c+1$ do not vanish for elements $a$ fulfilling the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=\alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{3 k}+2^{k+s}-2^{s}-1} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assume $b c=1$, that is, $a^{2^{2 k}+2^{k}}=1$ and then $a^{2^{k}+1}=1$. We have

$$
a^{2^{k}+1}=\left(\alpha u^{2^{k}+2^{s}}\right)^{2^{2 k}-1}
$$

because

$$
\left(2^{3 k}+2^{k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{k}+1\right)=\left(2^{2 k}-1\right)\left(2^{k}+2^{s}\right) \quad \bmod \left(2^{4 k}-1\right) .
$$

Since $a^{2^{k}+1}=1$ then $\alpha u^{2^{k}+2^{s}}$ should be $\left(2^{2 k}+1\right)$-th power of an element of the field. We have

$$
2^{k}+2^{s}=2^{s}\left(2^{k-s}+1\right)=2^{s}\left(2^{2 p}+1\right)
$$

with some $p$ odd. Indeed, $k s \bmod 4=3$, then

$$
k \quad \bmod 4 \neq s \quad \bmod 4
$$

for odd $k, s$, and $k-s=2 p$ for some $p$ odd.
Numbers $2^{2 p}+1$ and $2^{2 k}+1$ are divisible by 5 because $p, k$ are odd. We get that $u^{2^{k}+2^{s}}$ is 5 -th power of an element of the field and $\alpha u^{2^{k}+2^{s}}$ is not. Therefore $\alpha u^{2^{k}+2^{s}}$ is not $\left(2^{2 k}+1\right)$-th power of an element of the field. A contradiction.

Let $c(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}+a^{2^{s}}(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1}=0$. Since $b c+1 \neq 0$ then $a b+1 \neq 0$ and we get

$$
\frac{c}{a^{2^{s}}}=\left(\frac{b c+1}{a b+1}\right)^{2^{s}+1}
$$

Note that since $n$ is even and $s$ is odd then $2^{n}-1$ and $2^{s}+1$ are divisible by 3 . Therefore $c / a^{2^{s}}$ is third power of an element of the field. We have

$$
c / a^{2^{s}}=a^{2^{2 k}-2^{s}}=a^{2^{s}\left(2^{2 k-s}-1\right)}
$$

and
$\left(2^{3 k}+2^{k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k-s}-1\right)=-\left(2^{2 k}-1\right)-2^{k-s}\left(2^{2 s}-1\right)-2^{s}\left(2^{2(k-s)}-1\right) \bmod \left(2^{4 k}-1\right)$.
The numbers $2^{2 k}-1,2^{2 s}-1$ and $2^{2(k-s)}-1$ are divisible by 3 . On the other hand $2^{k}-1$ and $2^{2 k-s}-1$ are not divisible by 3 since $k$ and $2 k-s$ are odd. We get

$$
a^{2^{s}\left(2^{2 k-s}-1\right)}=2^{2^{s}\left(2^{2 k-s}-1\right)\left(2^{k}-1\right)} u^{2^{s}\left(-\left(2^{2 k}-1\right)-2^{k-s}\left(2^{2 s}-1\right)-2^{s}\left(2^{2(k-s)}-1\right)\right) .} \text {. }
$$

Obviously $c / a^{2^{s}}$ is not third power of an element of the field and therefore it is not ( $2^{s}+1$ )-th power.

Case $2(i=1, m=3)$ : $\quad$ Since $2^{i k}+2^{m k+s}-2^{s}-1=2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1=\left(2^{k}-1\right)(1+$ $2^{2 k+s}+2^{k+s}+2^{s}$ ) then $a$ is always a $\left(2^{k}-1\right)$-th power and thus again $a b c d=1$.

In this case the equation $\Delta_{a}(x)=0$ can be transformed into the following system of equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{1}=a\left(y+t^{2^{s}}\right)+x^{2^{s}}+x=0 \\
& f_{2}=b\left(z+x^{2^{s}}\right)+y^{2^{s}}+y=0 \\
& f_{3}=c\left(t+y^{2^{s}}\right)+z^{2^{s}}+z=0 \\
& f_{4}=x+z^{2^{s}}+a b c\left(t^{2^{s}}+t\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

We get

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{1} & =b c f_{1}+a b c f_{2}+a b f_{3}+f_{4} \\
& =(a b+1) z^{2^{s}}+a b(b c+1) z+b c(a b+1) x^{2^{s}}+(b c+1) x, \\
R_{2} & =c^{2^{s}} f_{1}+a c^{2^{s}}\left(f_{2}^{2^{s}}+f_{2}\right)+a f_{3}^{2^{s}} \\
& =a z^{2^{2 s}}+a(b c+1)^{2^{s}} z^{2^{s}}+a b c^{2^{s}} z+a b^{2^{s}} c^{2^{s}} x^{2^{2 s}}+c^{2^{s}}(a b+1) x^{2^{s}}+c^{2^{s}} x, \\
R_{3} & =a R_{1}^{2^{s}}+(a b+1)^{2^{s}} R_{2} \\
& =a(b c+1)^{2^{s}} z^{2^{s}}+a b c^{2^{s}}(a b+1)^{2^{s}} z+\left(a(b c+1)^{2^{s}}+c^{2^{s}}(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}\right) x^{2^{s}}+c^{2^{s}}(a b+1)^{2^{s}} x, \\
R_{4} & =(a b+1) R_{3}+a\left(b c+12^{2^{s}}\right) R_{1} \\
& =P(a)\left(a b z+(a b+1) x^{2^{s}}+x\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
P(a)=c^{2^{s}}(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}+a(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1} .
$$

Assuming that $P(a) \neq 0$ we continue

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{5} & =\frac{R_{4}}{P(a)}=a b z+(a b+1) x^{2^{s}}+x \\
R_{6} & =a^{2^{s}} b^{2^{s}} R_{1}+(a b+1) R_{5}^{2^{s}} \\
& =a^{2^{s}+1} b^{2^{s}+1}(b c+1) z+(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1} x^{2^{2 s}}+\left(a^{2^{s}} b^{2^{s}+1} c+1\right)(a b+1) x^{2^{s}}+a^{2^{s}} b^{2^{s}}(b c+1) x, \\
R_{7} & =a^{2^{s}} b^{2^{s}}(b c+1) R_{5}+R_{6} \\
& =(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}\left(x^{2^{2 s}}+x^{2^{s}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We see now that the equation $\Delta_{a}(x)=0$ has the only solutions 0 and 1 if $P(a) \neq 0$ and $a b+1 \neq 0$.

Assume that $a b=1$, that is, $a^{2^{k}+1}=1$. We have

$$
\left(2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{k}+1\right)=\left(2^{2 k}-1\right)\left(2^{k+s}+1\right) \bmod \left(2^{4 k}-1\right)
$$

and

$$
a^{2^{k}+1}=\left(\alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1}\right)^{2^{k}+1}=\left(\alpha u^{2^{k+s}+1}\right)^{2^{2 k}-1} .
$$

Because $a^{2^{k}+1}=1$, the element $\alpha u^{2^{k+s}+1}$ should be $\left(2^{2 k}+1\right)$-th power of an element of the field. Since $k s \bmod 4=1$ then $k \bmod 4=s \bmod 4$ and $2^{k+s}+1=2^{2 p}+1$ for some $p$ odd. Thus $2^{k+s}+1$ and $2^{2 k}+1$ are divisible by 5 . Therefore $\alpha u^{2^{k+s}+1}$ is not fifth power of an element of the field and then it is not $\left(2^{2 k}+1\right)$-th power. A contradiction.

Let $c^{2^{s}}(a b+1)^{2^{s}+1}+a(b c+1)^{2^{s}+1}=0$. Since $a b+1 \neq 0$ then

$$
c^{2^{s}} / a=\left(\frac{b c+1}{a b+1}\right)^{2^{s}+1} .
$$

We show that the element $c^{2^{s}} / a=a^{2^{2 k+s}-1}$ is not third power of an element of the field. A contradiction.

Indeed, for $n$ even and $s$ odd the numbers $2^{s}+1$ and $2^{n}-1$ are divisible by 3 . On the other hand

$$
a^{2^{2 k+s}-1}=\left(\alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1}\right)^{2^{2 k+s}-1}=\alpha^{\left(2^{k}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k+s}-1\right)} u^{\left(2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k+s}-1\right)}
$$

and
$\left(2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k+s}-1\right)=2^{s}\left(1-2^{2 k}\right)+\left(1-2^{2(k+s)}\right)+2^{k}\left(2^{2 s}-1\right) \bmod \left(2^{4 k}-1\right)$.
Since $2^{2 k}-1,2^{2(k+s)}+1$ and $2^{2 s}-1$ are divisible by 3 then $u^{\left(2^{k}+2^{3 k+s}-2^{s}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k+s}-1\right)}$ is third power of an element of the field. The number $\left(2^{k}-1\right)\left(2^{2 k+s}-1\right)$ is not divisible by 3 because $k$ and $2 k+s$ are odd. Therefore, $a^{2^{2 k+s}-1}$ is not third power of an element of the field.

## 4 On CCZ-inequivalence of the introduced APN functions to power functions

To prove CCZ-inequivalence of APN functions of Theorem 1 to the Gold and Kasami functions we use results from [6].

Theorem 2 ([6]) Let $n$ be a positive integer and let $s, j, q$ be three nonzero elements of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ such that $q \neq \pm s, j \neq \pm s, \pm q, 2 s, s \pm q$. Then the function $F(x)=x^{2^{s}+1}+a x^{2^{j}\left(2^{q}+1\right)}$ with $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ is $E A$-inequivalent to power functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Theorem 3 ([6]) Let $n$ be a positive integer and $r, s, q$ be three nonzero elements of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ and $j$ an element of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ such that $s \neq \pm q, j \neq s-r, j \neq-r, j+q \neq s-r, j+q \neq-r$. If for $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ the function $F(x)=x^{2^{s}+1}+a x^{\left.2^{j} 2^{q}+1\right)}$ is $A P N$ on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ and it is CCZ-equivalent to the function $G(x)=x^{2^{r}+1}$ then $F$ and $G$ are EA-equivalent.

Theorem 4 ([6]) Let $n$ be a positive integer and $r, s, q, j$ be nonzero elements of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(r, n)=1, n>4, s \neq \pm q, s \neq \pm 3 q, q \neq \pm 3 s, s \neq \pm j, q \neq \pm j, 3 q+j \neq 0$, $j+q \neq \pm s, j \neq s+q, 2 q \neq \pm j, 2 q \neq s-j, 2 s \neq j, 2 s \neq j+q$. Then for $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}^{*}$ the functions $F(x)=x^{2^{s}+1}+a x^{2^{j}\left(2^{q}+1\right)}$ and $K(x)=x^{4^{r}-2^{r}+1}$ are CCZ-inequivalent on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Proposition 1 The function $F$ of Theorem 1 is EA-inequivalent to power functions when $k \geq 3$.

Proof. The function $F$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 2. If $i=1$ then $j=k$ and $q=2 k+s$. The conditions $q \neq \pm s, j \neq \pm s, \pm q, \pm 2 s, s \pm q$ are satisfied when $k \geq 3$ because $k, s$ are odd, $n=4 k, \operatorname{gcd}(s, 4 k)=1$. The same is with the case $i=3$.

Proposition 2 The function $F$ of Theorem 1 is CCZ-inequivalent to the Gold mappings when $k \geq 3$.

Proof. The proof is based on Proposition 1 and Theorem 3. Let $i=1$, then $j=k$ and $q=2 k+s$ satisfy the conditions $q \neq \pm s, j \neq s-r, j \neq-r, j+q \neq s-r, j+q \neq-r$ for any $r$ satisfying $1 \leq r<n / 2$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(r, n)=1$. Indeed, $q= \pm s$ is in contradiction with $\operatorname{gcd}(s, 4 k)=1, n=4 k$. If $k=s-r$ then it contradicts to the fact that $k$ is odd and $s-r$ is even. If $k=-r$ then it would contradict to $\operatorname{gcd}(r, 4 k)=1$. If $3 k+s=s-r$ then $3 k=-r$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(r, k) \neq 1$, a contradiction. If $3 k+s=-r$ then $s+r=k$ while $s, r, k$ are odd. By Theorem 3 and Proposition 1 the function $F$ is CCZ-inequivalent to $x^{2^{r}+1}$. For the case $i=3$ the proof is similar.

Proposition 3 The function $F$ of Theorem 1 is CCZ-inequivalent to the Kasami mappings when $k \geq 3$.

Proof. Obviously, when $k \geq 3$ the function $F$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 4 because $k, s$ are odd, $n=4 k, \operatorname{gcd}(s, 4 k)=1$.

If $n$ is even then for any quadratic APN mapping $F$ the number $2^{n / 2}$ divides all the values in the Walsh spectrum of $F$ (see [34]). Besides, it is proven in [11] that $2^{\frac{2 n}{5}+1}$ cannot be a divisor of all the values in the Walsh spectrum of the Dobbertin function. Since the Walsh spectrum of a function is invariant (up to the sign of the values in it) under CCZ-equivalence then we can make the following conclusion from Propositions 1-3.

Corollary 1 The function $F$ of Theorem 1 is CCZ-inequivalent to all known power APN functions when $k \geq 3$.

For $n=12,20,28$ Corollary 1 implies that the introduced APN binomials are CCZinequivalent to all power functions. When $n \geq 20$ and $n$ is not divisible by 3 then the function $F$ is CCZ-inequivalent to all known APN functions.

Problem 1 Construct APN polynomials CCZ-inequivalent to power functions and to quadratic functions.

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