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

Lilya Budaghyan^{*}, Claude Carlet[†], Gregor Leander[‡]

Abstract

We exhibit an infinite class of almost perfect nonlinear quadratic binomials from \mathbb{F}_{2^n} to \mathbb{F}_{2^n} with n = 4k and k odd. We prove that these functions are CCZ-inequivalent 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, CCZ-equivalence, Differential uniformity, Nonlinearity, S-box, Vectorial Boolean function.

1 Introduction

A function $F : \mathbb{F}_2^n \to \mathbb{F}_2^n$ 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 $F : \mathbb{F}_2^n \to \mathbb{F}_2^n$ is called AB if the minimum Hamming distance between all Boolean functions $v \cdot F$, $v \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \setminus \{0\}$ (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' are called extended affine equivalent (EA-equivalent) if $F' = A_1 \circ F \circ A_2 + A$, where the mappings

^{*}Department of Mathematics, University of Trento, I-38050 Povo (Trento), ITALY; e-mail: lilia.b@mail.ru

[†]Department of Mathematics, University of Paris 8, and also a member of INRIA, Projet CODES, BP 105 - 78153, Le Chesnay Cedex, FRANCE; e-mail: claude.carlet@inria.fr

[‡]Department of Mathematics, Ruhr-University, Bochum, D-44780 Bochum, GERMANY; e-mail: leander@itsc.ruhr-uni-bochum.de

 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]).

Known APN power functions x^{-} on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.					
Functions	Exponents d	Conditions	Proven in		
Gold	$2^{i} + 1$	$\gcd(i,n) = 1$	[25, 33]		
Kasami	$2^{2i} - 2^i + 1$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	[28, 29]		
Welch	$2^{t} + 3$	n = 2t + 1	[20]		
Niho	$2^t + 2^{\frac{t}{2}} - 1, t$ even	n = 2t + 1	[19]		
	$2^t + 2^{\frac{3t+1}{2}} - 1, t \text{ odd}$				
Inverse	$2^{2t} - 1$	n = 2t + 1	[4, 33]		
Dobbertin	$2^{4t} + 2^{3t} + 2^{2t} + 2^t - 1$	n = 5t	[21]		

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

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 tr(cF), $c \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*$, 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.

Functions EA-inequivalent to power fu	Conditions 1 ± 2^n .	Alg. degree
		8:8
$2^{i} + 1 + (2^{i} + (4) + 1) + (2^{i} + 1 + (4))$	$n \ge 4$	0
$x^{2^{i}+1} + (x^{2^{i}} + x\operatorname{tr}(1) + 1)\operatorname{tr}(x^{2^{i}+1} + x\operatorname{tr}(1))$	$\gcd(i,n) = 1$	3
	n divisible by 6	
$[x + \operatorname{tr}_{n/3}(x^{2(2^{i}+1)} + x^{4(2^{i}+1)}) + \operatorname{tr}(x)\operatorname{tr}_{n/3}(x^{2^{i}+1} + x^{2^{2i}(2^{i}+1)})]^{2^{i}+1}$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	4
	$m \neq n$	
$x^{2^{i}+1} + \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x^{2^{i}+1}) + x^{2^{i}} \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x) + x \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}}$	n odd	
$+[\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}+1} + \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x^{2^{i}+1}) + \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)]^{\frac{1}{2^{i}+1}}(x^{2^{i}} + \operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}} + 1)$	\boldsymbol{n} divisible by \boldsymbol{m}	m+2
+[tr _{n/m} (x) ^{2ⁱ+1} + tr _{n/m} (x ^{2ⁱ+1}) + tr _{n/m} (x)] ^{$\frac{2^{i}}{2^{i}+1}$} (x + tr _{n/m} (x))	$\gcd(n,i)=1$	

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

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

- $x^3 + wx^{36}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{10}}$, where w has the order 3 or 93,
- $x^3 + wx^{528}$ 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		
The case n divisible by 3	$x^{2^{s}+1} + wx^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}}$	$n = 3k, \gcd(k, 3) = \gcd(s, 3k) = 1$ $k \ge 4, i = sk \mod 3, m = 3 - i$ w has the order $2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$	[6, 7]		
The case n divisible by 4	$x^{2^{s}+1} + wx^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}}$	$n = 4k, \gcd(k, 2) = \gcd(s, 2k) = 1$ $k \ge 3, i = sk \mod 4, m = 4 - i$ w has the order $2^{3k} + 2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$	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:

$$F(x_1, ..., x_n) = \sum_{u \in \mathbb{F}_2^n} c(u) \left(\prod_{i=1}^n x_i^{u_i}\right), \qquad c(u) \in \mathbb{F}_2^n.$$

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 $F : \mathbb{F}_2^n \to \mathbb{F}_2^n$ 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 $A_1, A_2 : \mathbb{F}_{2^n} \to \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ 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' are extended affine equivalent if $F' = A_1 \circ F \circ A_2 + A$ for some affine permutations A_1 , A_2 and an affine function A. If F is not affine, then F and F' 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 $\{(x, F(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}\}$ and $\{(x, G(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}\}$ 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 $\mathcal{L} = (L_1, L_2)$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ such that

$$y = F(x) \Leftrightarrow L_2(x, y) = G(L_1(x, y)).$$

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

$$\delta_F(a,b) = |\{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n : F(x+a) + F(x) = b\}|$$

and

$$\Delta_F = \{\delta_F(a,b) : a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}, a \neq 0\}.$$

F is called a *differentially* δ -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 $F : \mathbb{F}_{2^n} \to \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ we denote

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

where $tr(x) = x + x^2 + x^4 + ... + x^{2^{n-1}}$ is the trace function from \mathbb{F}_{2^n} into \mathbb{F}_2 . The set $\Lambda_F = \{\lambda_F(a, b) : a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}, b \neq 0\}$ is called the *Walsh spectrum* of F and the value

$$\mathcal{NL}(F) = 2^{n-1} - \frac{1}{2} \max_{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*} |\lambda_F(a, b)|$$

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

$$\mathcal{NL}(F) \le 2^{n-1} - 2^{\frac{n-1}{2}}$$

([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 $\{0, \pm 2^{\frac{n+1}{2}}\}$. 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 $s \leq 4k-1$, gcd(k,2) = gcd(s,2k) = 1, and $i = sk \mod 4$, m = 4-i, n = 4k. If $w \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ has the order $2^{3k} + 2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$ then the function $F(x) = x^{2^{s+1}} + wx^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}}$ is APN on \mathbb{F}_{2^n} .

Proof. Without loss of generality we can assume that $w = \alpha^{2^{k}-1}$ where α 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

$$F(x) + F(x+u) = v \tag{1}$$

has at most 2 solutions. We have

$$F(x) + F(x+u) = \alpha^{2^{k}-1} \left(x^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}} + (x+u)^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}} \right) + x^{2^{s}+1} + (x+u)^{2^{s}+1}$$
$$= \alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}} \left(\left(\frac{x}{u} \right)^{2^{ik}} + \left(\frac{x}{u} \right)^{2^{mk+s}} \right)$$
$$+ u^{2^{s}+1} \left(\left(\frac{x}{u} \right)^{2^{s}} + \left(\frac{x}{u} \right) \right) + \alpha^{2^{k}-1} u^{2^{ik}+2^{mk+s}} + u^{2^{s}+1}$$

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

$$a = \alpha^{2^{k} - 1} u^{2^{ik} + 2^{mk + s} - 2^{s} - 1}$$

After replacing x by ux 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

$$\Delta_a(x) = a\left(x^{2^{ik}} + x^{2^{mk+s}}\right) + x^{2^s} + x,$$

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

$$a(t+y^{2^{s}}) + x^{2^{s}} + x = 0.$$

Since $2^{ik} + 2^{mk+s} - 2^s - 1 = 2^{3k} + 2^{k+s} - 2^s - 1 = (2^k - 1)(2^{2k} + 2^k + 2^s + 1)$ then *a* is always a $(2^k - 1)$ -th power and thus abcd = 1. Considering also the conjugated equations we derive the following system of equations

$$f_{1} = a(t + y^{2^{s}}) + x^{2^{s}} + x = 0$$

$$f_{2} = b(x + z^{2^{s}}) + y^{2^{s}} + y = 0$$

$$f_{3} = c(y + t^{2^{s}}) + z^{2^{s}} + z = 0$$

$$f_{4} = z + x^{2^{s}} + abc(t^{2^{s}} + t) = 0.$$

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

$$R_1 = bcf_1 + abcf_2 + abf_3 + f_4$$

= $ab(bc+1)z^{2^s} + (ab+1)z + (bc+1)x^{2^s} + bc(ab+1)x$

and

$$R_{2} = cf_{1}^{2^{s}} + a^{2^{s}}c(f_{2}^{2^{s}} + f_{2}) + a^{2^{s}}f_{3}$$

= $a^{2^{s}}b^{2^{s}}cz^{2^{2s}} + a^{2^{s}}(bc+1)z^{2^{s}} + a^{2^{s}}z + cx^{2^{2s}} + c(ab+1)^{2^{s}}x^{2^{s}} + a^{2^{s}}bcx$

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

$$R_3 = cR_1^{2^s} + (bc+1)^{2^s}R_2$$

= $(c(ab+1)^{2^s} + a^{2^s}(bc+1)^{2^{s+1}})z^{2^s} + a^{2^s}(bc+1)^{2^s}z + c(ab+1)^{2^s}x^{2^s} + a^{2^s}bc(bc+1)^{2^s}x.$

Using equations R_1 and R_3 we can eliminate z^{2^s} by computing

$$R_4 = ab(bc+1)R_3 + (c(ab+1)^{2^s} + a^{2^s}(bc+1)^{2^{s+1}})R_1$$

= $P(a)(z + (bc+1)x^{2^s} + bcx),$

where

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

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

$$R_5 = \frac{R_4}{P(a)} = z + (bc+1)x^{2^s} + bcx.$$

Computing

$$R_{6} = R_{1} + ab(bc+1)R_{5}^{2^{s}}$$

= $(ab+1)z + ab(bc+1)^{2^{s}+1}x^{2^{2s}} + (ab^{2^{s}+1}c^{2^{s}}+1)(bc+1)x^{2^{s}} + bc(ab+1)x^{2^{s}}$

we finally get our desired equation

$$R_7 = (ab+1)R_5 + R_6$$

= $ab(bc+1)^{2^s+1} \left(x^{2^{2s}} + x^{2^s}\right)$

Obviously if x is a solution of $\Delta_a(x) = 0$ then $R_7(x) = 0$. For $P(a) \neq 0$ and $bc + 1 \neq 0$ this is equivalent to x = 0, 1. Thus to prove the theorem we have to show that P(a) and bc + 1 do not vanish for elements a fulfilling the equation

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

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

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

because

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

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

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

with some p odd. Indeed, $ks \mod 4 = 3$, then

$$k \mod 4 \neq s \mod 4$$

for odd k, s, and k - s = 2p for some p odd.

Numbers $2^{2p} + 1$ and $2^{2k} + 1$ 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 $(2^{2k} + 1)$ -th power of an element of the field. A contradiction.

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

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

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

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

and

$$(2^{3k} + 2^{k+s} - 2^s - 1)(2^{2k-s} - 1) = -(2^{2k} - 1) - 2^{k-s}(2^{2s} - 1) - 2^s(2^{2(k-s)} - 1) \mod (2^{4k} - 1).$$

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

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

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): Since $2^{ik} + 2^{mk+s} - 2^s - 1 = 2^k + 2^{3k+s} - 2^s - 1 = (2^k - 1)(1 + 2^{2k+s} + 2^{k+s} + 2^s)$ then a is always a $(2^k - 1)$ -th power and thus again abcd = 1.

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

$$f_{1} = a(y + t^{2^{s}}) + x^{2^{s}} + x = 0$$

$$f_{2} = b(z + x^{2^{s}}) + y^{2^{s}} + y = 0$$

$$f_{3} = c(t + y^{2^{s}}) + z^{2^{s}} + z = 0$$

$$f_{4} = x + z^{2^{s}} + abc(t^{2^{s}} + t) = 0.$$

We get

$$\begin{aligned} R_1 &= bcf_1 + abcf_2 + abf_3 + f_4 \\ &= (ab+1)z^{2^s} + ab(bc+1)z + bc(ab+1)x^{2^s} + (bc+1)x, \\ R_2 &= c^{2^s}f_1 + ac^{2^s}(f_2^{2^s} + f_2) + af_3^{2^s} \\ &= az^{2^{2s}} + a(bc+1)^{2^s}z^{2^s} + abc^{2^s}z + ab^{2^s}c^{2^s}x^{2^{2s}} + c^{2^s}(ab+1)x^{2^s} + c^{2^s}x, \\ R_3 &= aR_1^{2^s} + (ab+1)^{2^s}R_2 \\ &= a(bc+1)^{2^s}z^{2^s} + abc^{2^s}(ab+1)^{2^s}z + (a(bc+1)^{2^s} + c^{2^s}(ab+1)^{2^{s+1}})x^{2^s} + c^{2^s}(ab+1)^{2^s}x, \\ R_4 &= (ab+1)R_3 + a(bc+1)^{2^s})R_1 \\ &= P(a)(abz + (ab+1)x^{2^s} + x), \end{aligned}$$

where

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

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

$$R_{5} = \frac{R_{4}}{P(a)} = abz + (ab+1)x^{2^{s}} + x,$$

$$R_{6} = a^{2^{s}}b^{2^{s}}R_{1} + (ab+1)R_{5}^{2^{s}}$$

$$= a^{2^{s+1}}b^{2^{s+1}}(bc+1)z + (ab+1)^{2^{s+1}}x^{2^{2s}} + (a^{2^{s}}b^{2^{s+1}}c+1)(ab+1)x^{2^{s}} + a^{2^{s}}b^{2^{s}}(bc+1)x,$$

$$R_{7} = a^{2^{s}}b^{2^{s}}(bc+1)R_{5} + R_{6}$$

$$= (ab+1)^{2^{s+1}}\left(x^{2^{2s}} + x^{2^{s}}\right).$$

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

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

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

and

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

Because $a^{2^{k+1}} = 1$, the element $\alpha u^{2^{k+s}+1}$ should be $(2^{2k}+1)$ -th power of an element of the field. Since $ks \mod 4 = 1$ then $k \mod 4 = s \mod 4$ and $2^{k+s} + 1 = 2^{2p} + 1$ for some p odd. Thus $2^{k+s} + 1$ and $2^{2k} + 1$ 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 $(2^{2k} + 1)$ -th power. A contradiction. Let $c^{2^s}(ab+1)^{2^s+1} + a(bc+1)^{2^s+1} = 0$. Since $ab+1 \neq 0$ then

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

We show that the element $c^{2^s}/a = a^{2^{2k+s}-1}$ 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

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

and

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

Since $2^{2k} - 1$, $2^{2(k+s)} + 1$ and $2^{2s} - 1$ are divisible by 3 then $u^{(2^k+2^{3k+s}-2^s-1)(2^{2k+s}-1)}$ is third power of an element of the field. The number $(2^k - 1)(2^{2k+s} - 1)$ is not divisible by 3 because k and 2k + s are odd. Therefore, $a^{2^{2k+s}-1}$ 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 $q \neq \pm s, j \neq \pm s, \pm q, 2s, s \pm q$. Then the function $F(x) = x^{2^s+1} + ax^{2^j(2^q+1)}$ with $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*$ is EA-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 $F(x) = x^{2^s+1} + ax^{2^j(2^q+1)}$ is APN 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 gcd(r, n) = 1, n > 4, $s \neq \pm q$, $s \neq \pm 3q$, $q \neq \pm 3s$, $s \neq \pm j$, $q \neq \pm j$, $3q + j \neq 0$, $j + q \neq \pm s$, $j \neq s + q$, $2q \neq \pm j$, $2q \neq s - j$, $2s \neq j$, $2s \neq j + q$. Then for $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*$ the functions $F(x) = x^{2^{s+1}} + ax^{2^{j}(2^{q+1})}$ 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 = 2k + s. The conditions $q \neq \pm s$, $j \neq \pm s$, $\pm q$, $\pm 2s$, $s \pm q$ are satisfied when $k \geq 3$ because k, s are odd, n = 4k, gcd(s, 4k) = 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 = 2k + 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 gcd(r, n) = 1. Indeed, $q = \pm s$ is in contradiction with gcd(s, 4k) = 1, n = 4k. 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 gcd(r, 4k) = 1. If 3k + s = s - r then 3k = -r and $gcd(r, k) \neq 1$, a contradiction. If 3k + 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 $k \ge 3$ the function F satisfies the conditions of Theorem 4 because k, s are odd, n = 4k, gcd(s, 4k) = 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 $2^{\frac{2n}{5}+1}$ 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 CCZ-inequivalent to all power functions. When $n \ge 20$ 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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