# On differential equivalence of APN functions* 

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#### Abstract

For a given vectorial Boolean function $F$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself it was defined an associated Boolean function $\gamma_{F}(a, b)$ in $2 n$ variables by C. Carlet, P. Charpin, V. Zinoviev in 1998 that takes value 1 iff $a \neq \mathbf{0}$ and equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has solutions. In this paper we introduce the notion of differentially equivalent functions as vectorial functions that have equal associated Boolean functions. To describe differential equivalence class of a given APN function is an open problem of great interest. We obtained that each quadratic APN function $G$ in $n$ variables, $n \leq 6$, that is differentially equivalent to a given quadratic APN function $F$, is represented as $G=F+A$, where $A$ is an affine function. For the APN Gold function $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$, we completely described all affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent. This result implies that APN Gold functions $F$ with $k=n / 2-1$ for $n=4 t$ form the first infinitive family of functions up to EA-equivalence having non-trivial differential equivalence class consisting of more that $2^{2 n}$ trivial functions $F_{c, d}(x)=F(x+c)+d, c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.


Keywords. Boolean function, Almost perfect nonlinear function, Almost bent function, Crooked function, Differential equivalence, Linear spectrum

## 1 Introduction

Almost perfect nonlinear (APN) and almost bent (AB) functions are of a great interest for using in cryptographic applications as S-boxes due to their optimal differential and nonlinear properties (see paper [36] of K. Nyberg). An actual problem in cryptographic vectorial Boolean functions is to find new constructions of APN and AB functions. In the well known paper [16] of C. Carlet, P. Charpin and V. Zinoviev for a given vectorial Boolean function $F$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself it was defined the associated Boolean function $\gamma_{F}(a, b)$ in $2 n$ variables that takes value 1 if $a \neq \mathbf{0}$ and equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has solutions and value 0 otherwise. It was observed that $F$ is APN $(\mathrm{AB})$ if and only if $\gamma_{F}$ has weight $2^{2 n-1}-2^{n-1}$ (is a bent function).

In [26] we obtained that there do not exist two APN functions $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ such that $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=$ $\gamma_{F^{\prime}}(a, b)+1$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, a \neq \mathbf{0}$, when $n \geq 2$. But for a given APN function $F$ in $n$ variables there always exist at least $2^{2 n}$ distinct functions $F_{c, d}(x)=F(x+c)+d$ such that $\gamma_{F}=\gamma_{F_{c, d}}$ for all $c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, n \geq 2$ (see proposition 1 ). The question arises: do there exist more than $2^{2 n}$

[^0]functions with the same associated Boolean function to a given APN function? Surprisingly, working on [26] we computationally found an example of such an APN function in 4 variables. In this paper we introduce the following definition: two functions $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are called differentially equivalent if their associated functions $\gamma_{F}$ and $\gamma_{F^{\prime}}$ are equal. Note that using this notion one of the open problems mentioned by C. Carlet in [14] can be formulated as follows: is it possible to describe differentially equivalent functions to a given APN function? An answer to this question can potentially lead to new APN (AB) functions. In this paper we study the mentioned problem for quadratic APN functions and more precisely for the APN Gold functions. Also we continued the research of the linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function $F$ in $n$ variables. It was defined in [28] as the vector $\Lambda^{F}=\left(\lambda_{0}^{F}, \ldots, \lambda_{2^{n}-1}^{F}\right)$, where $\lambda_{k}^{F}$ is the number of linear functions $L$ such that $\left|\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}: B_{a}(F)=B_{a}(F+L)\right\}\right|=k$ (here $\left.B_{a}(F)=\left\{F(x)+F(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}\right)$. Being a differential and EA-equivalence invariant the linear spectrum allows us to obtain several nonequivalence results.

It is worth nothing to say that for an arbitrary vectorial function the notion of differential equivalence are generalized by C. Boura, A. Canteaut, J. Jean, V. Suder [5] as follows: two functions are called $D D T$-equivalent if their difference distribution tables are equal. DDTequivalence implies differential equivalence (that is called $\gamma$-equivalence in [5]) but the converse is not true [5]. In case of APN functions these equivalences coincide. In [5] an interesting statement is conjectured based on computational results obtained that functions having nontrivial DDT-equivalence class may relate to the number of distinct rows in their DDT. Note that the notion differential equivalence with respect to a subspace is used in [38] by V. Suder and it describes another property.

We start in section 2 by discussing basic definitions with paying attention to APN and AB functions. In section 3 we introduce definition of differential equivalence of vectorial Boolean functions and describe its general properties. A conjecture about differential equivalence of quadratic APN functions is formulated. Section 4 contains a new result of the APN Gold function $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$ over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$, which are also AB if $n$ is odd. We prove that there exist exactly $2^{2 n+n / 2}$ distinct affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent if $n=4 t$ for some $t$ and $k=n / 2 \pm 1$; otherwise the number of such affine functions is equal to $2^{2 n}$. Thus, APN Gold functions with $k=n / 2-1$ form the first infinitive family of functions up to EA-equivalence having non-trivial differential equivalence class. Section 5 is devoted to several new properties of the associated Boolean function $\gamma_{F}$ of a quadratic APN function $F$. In particular, we prove that $\Phi_{F}$ is a 3-to- 1 function if $n$ is even (note that $\Phi_{F}$ is a permutation if $n$ is odd [16]) and $\operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi_{F}\right) \leq n-2$ if $n$ is odd, where $\Phi_{F}$ is defined from the representation $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot b+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$. In section 6 the linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function is studied and theorem about its zero values is proved. Section 7 contains the computational results obtained. Section 8 concludes the paper where the problem remains open is formulated.

Note that this paper is an extended version of [27].

## 2 Definitions

### 2.1 Vectorial Boolean functions

Let $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ be the finite field of order $2^{n}$ and $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ be the $n$-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. Let $\mathbf{0}$ denote the zero vector of $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and $x \cdot y=x_{1} y_{1}+\ldots x_{n} y_{n}$ denote the inner product of vectors
$x, y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. A mapping $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{m}$ is called a vectorial Boolean function or $a(n, m)$-function. When $m=1$ a function $F$ is called a Boolean function. The Hamming weight $\mathrm{wt}(f)$ of a Boolean function $f$ is defined as $\operatorname{wt}(f)=\left|\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: f(x)=1\right\}\right|$ and the Hamming distance between $f$ and $g$ is $\operatorname{dist}(f, g)=\left|\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: f(x) \neq g(x)\right\}\right|$. Any $(n, m)$-function $F$ can be considered as the set of $m$ Boolean functions that are called coordinate functions of $F$ in the form $F(x)=\left(f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{m}(x)\right)$, where $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. A function $F$ has its unique algebraic normal form (ANF)

$$
F(x)=\sum_{I \in \mathcal{P}(N)} a_{I}\left(\prod_{i \in I} x_{i}\right),
$$

where $\mathcal{P}(N)$ is the power set of $N=\{1, \ldots, n\}$ and $a_{I}$ belongs to $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{m}$. Here + denotes the coordinate-wise sum of vectors modulo 2. The algebraic degree of $F$ is degree of its ANF: $\operatorname{deg}(F)=\max \left\{|I|: a_{I} \neq \mathbf{0}, I \in \mathcal{P}(N)\right\}$. A function is called affine if its algebraic degree is not more than 1 or, equivalently, if $F(x+y)=F(x)+F(y)+F(\mathbf{0})$ for any $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. An affine function $F$ is linear if $F(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$. Functions of algebraic degree 2 are called quadratic.

In this paper we will consider only $(n, n)$-functions and Boolean functions. Further, by vectorial Boolean functions we mean only $(n, n)$-functions. It is convenient to identify the vector space $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ with the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ and to consider vectorial Boolean functions as mappings from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to itself. A function $F$ has the unique representation as a univariate polynomial over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ of degree not more than $2^{n}-1$

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

It is widely known that algebraic degree of $F$ can be calculated as $\operatorname{deg}(F)=\max _{i=0, \ldots, 2^{n}-1}\{\mathrm{wt}(i)$ : $\left.\lambda_{i} \neq 0\right\}$, where $\mathrm{wt}(i)$ denotes binary weight of integer $i$. In this representation an affine function $F$ has a form $F(x)=\lambda+\sum_{i=0}^{n} \lambda_{i} x^{2^{i}}$, where $\lambda, \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$. And $F$ is linear if $\lambda=0$.

Since a Boolean function $f$ on $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ is a particular case of vectorial Boolean functions then it also can be uniquely represented as a univariate polynomial that takes values only from $\mathbb{F}_{2}$. But there is a more convenient representation of $f$ that is called trace form (it is not unique):

$$
f(x)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\sum_{i \in C S} \lambda_{i} x^{i}+\lambda x^{2^{n}-1}\right),
$$

where $\lambda_{i}, \lambda \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, $\operatorname{tr}$ denotes the trace function $\operatorname{tr}(x)=x+x^{2}+x^{2^{2}}+\ldots+x^{2^{n-1}}$ and $C S$ is the set of representatives of cyclotomic classes modulo $2^{n}-1$. Recall that the trace function takes values only from $\mathbb{F}_{2}$ and it is a linear function. A cyclotomic class modulo $2^{n}-1$ of an integer $i$ is the set $C(i)=\left\{i \cdot 2^{j} \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right), j=0, \ldots, n-1\right\}$. Cardinality of any cyclotomic class modulo $2^{n}-1$ is at most $n$ and divides $n$.

There are two notions of equivalence of vectorial Boolean functions that are usually considered studying cryptographic functions. Let $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ be $(n, n)$-functions. $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are called extended affine equivalent (EA-equivalent) if $F^{\prime}=A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A$, where $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ are affine permutations of $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and $A$ is an affine function on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. Two functions $F$ and $F^{\prime}$ are said to be Carlet-Charpin-Zinoviev equivalent (CCZ-equivalent) if their graphs $\mathcal{G}_{F}=\left\{(x, F(x)): x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{F^{\prime}}=\left\{\left(x, F^{\prime}(x)\right): x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$ are affine equivalent, that is, there exists an affine permutation $A=\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ (where $A_{1}, A_{2}$ are affine functions from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ ), such that $y=F(x)$ if and only if $A_{2}(x, y)=F^{\prime}\left(A_{1}(x, y)\right)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.

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

| Functions | Exponents $d$ | Conditions | $\operatorname{deg}\left(x^{d}\right)$ | AB | Ref. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gold | $d=2^{t}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(t, n)=1$ | 2 | for odd $n$ | $[25],[36]$ |
| Kasami | $d=2^{2 t}-2^{t}+1$ | $\operatorname{gcd}(t, n)=1$ | $t+1$ | for odd $n$ | $[32],[33]$ |
| Welch | $2^{t}+3$ | $n=2 t+1$ | 3 | yes | $[13],[19]$ |
| Niho | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{t}{2}}-1$, if $t$ is even | $n=2 t+1$ | $(t+1) / 2$ |  | yes |
|  | $2^{t}+2^{\frac{3 t+1}{2}}-1$, if $t$ is odd |  | $[18],[30]$ |  |  |
| Inverse | $2^{2 t}-1$ | $n=2 t+1$ | $n-1$ | no | $[3],[36]$ |
| Dobbertin | $2^{4 t}+2^{3 t}+2^{2 t}+2^{t}-1$ | $n=5 t$ | $t+3$ | no | $[20]$ |

Both these equivalences preserve the properties of a vectorial Boolean function to be APN and AB . But, in general, CCZ-equivalence in contrast to EA-equivalence modifies the algebraic degree of a function. EA-equivalence is a particular case of CCZ-equivalence, although in several cases they coincide, for example, for Boolean functions and vectorial bent Boolean functions as shown by L. Budaghyan and C. Carlet in [10]. Also, it was proved in [41] by S. Yoshiara that two quadratic APN functions are CCZ-equivalent if and only if they are EA-equivalent.

### 2.2 APN and AB functions

A function $F$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself is called almost perfect nonlinear (APN) if for any $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, $a \neq \mathbf{0}$, equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has at most 2 solutions. Equivalently, $F$ is APN if $\left|B_{a}(F)\right|=\left|\left\{F(x)+F(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}\right|=2^{n-1}$ for any nonzero vector $a$.

The nonlinearity $\mathcal{N}_{F}$ of a $(n, m)$-function $F$ is the minimum Hamming distance between all nonzero linear combinations of coordinate functions of $F$ and all affine Boolean functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. There is the universal bound on nonlinearity of an arbitrary ( $n, m$ )-function: $\mathcal{N}_{F} \leq 2^{n-1}-2^{n / 2-1}$. A $(n, m)$-function is called a bent function if its nonlinearity is equal to $2^{n-1}-2^{n / 2-1}$. In [35] K. Nyberg proved that bent functions exist only if $m \leq n / 2$ and $n$ is even. When $n=m$, there is a better upper bound on nonlinearity (the Sidelnikov-Chabaud-Vaudenay bound) equal to $2^{n-1}-2^{(n-1) / 2}$. Vectorial functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ that achieve this bound are called almost bent ( AB ). It is easy to see that $A B$ functions exist only for odd $n$. Every $A B$ function is APN but the converse is not true. However, it was proved [16] that every quadratic APN function in odd number of variables is AB .

Although APN and AB functions are intensively studied, it is very hard to give complete descriptions of these classes. Power or monomial functions, that are functions over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ of the form $F(x)=x^{d}$, are the simplest candidates to study whether they are APN (AB) or not. Table 1 illustrates the list of all known APN and AB power functions. There is a conjecture [18] of H. Dobbertin that this list is complete. Note that in paper [24] M. M. Glukhov mentions that the APN property of the inverse function (see Table 1) was already proved in 1964 by V.A. Bashev and B. A. Egorov. Infinitive families of APN and AB polynomials are also found (see, for example, the book [9] of L. Budaghyan, surveys [37] of A. Pott, [24] of M. M. Glukhov, [39] of M. E. Tuzhilin).

Another longstanding problem in APN functions is the existence of APN permutations in
even number of variables $n$. There are several partial nonexistence results on APN permutations (for example, [2], [23], [24], [31]) and the only APN permutation in even $n$ is discovered in [8] for $n=6$ by J.F. Dillon et al. In [40] V. Vitkup considers sets of different values of an arbitrary APN function and study their properties and bounds on their cardinalities.

Complete classification over EA- and CCZ-equivalences of APN functions up to dimension 5 was obtained in [6] by M. Brinkman and G. Leander. For $n=6$ there are also known all 13 CCZinequivalent quadratic APN functions (found in [7], verified in [21] by Y. Edel). In [43] Y. Yu, M. Wang, Y. Li developed a new approach to find CCZ-inequivalent quadratic APN functions and in updated version of [42] presented 487 CCZ-inequivalent quadratic APN functions for $n=7$ and 8179 for $n=8$.

## 3 Differential equivalence of vectorial Boolean functions

In this section we introduce the notion of differential equivalence of vectorial Boolean functions and consider its basic properties in general case and more precisely in case of quadratic functions.

### 3.1 Definition and basic properties of differential equivalence

Let $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ be a vectorial Boolean function. In [16] a Boolean function $\gamma_{F}: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{2 n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}$ associated to $F$ was introduced in the following way: $\gamma_{F}(a, b)$ takes value 1 if and only if $a \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has solutions. It was shown that $F$ is APN (AB) if and only if $\gamma_{F}$ has the Hamming weight $2^{2 n-1}-2^{n-1}$ (is a bent function, respectively).

Let us introduce the following definition.
Definition 1. Two functions $F, F^{\prime}$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself are called differentially equivalent if $\gamma_{F}=$ $\gamma_{F^{\prime}}$. Denote the differential equivalence class of $F$ by $\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}$.

Problem 1. [14] Is it possible to find a systematic way, given an APN function $F$, to build another function $F^{\prime}$ such that $\gamma_{F}=\gamma_{F^{\prime}}$ ?

This open problem can be also formulated in terms of differential equivalence: is it possible to describe the differential equivalence class of a given APN function? It is a rather natural question, but it seems to be difficult to find an answer for an arbitrary APN function. Indeed, we could not even say that differential equivalence between two APN functions implies EA- or CCZ-equivalence between them. It makes this problem more interesting since we potentially could find new APN functions studying differential equivalence classes of known ones.

Let us denote the set $\left\{F(x)+F(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$ by $B_{a}(F)$, where $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.
Proposition 1. Let $F: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ be an APN function and $n>1$. Then $F_{c, d}(x)=F(x+c)+d$ is differentially equivalent to $F$ for all $c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and all the functions $F_{c, d}$ are pairwise distinct.

Proof. Consider $B_{a}\left(F_{c, d}\right)$ for an arbitrary nonzero $a$ from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{a}\left(F_{c, d}\right) & =\left\{F(x+c)+d+F(x+c+a)+d \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\} \\
& =\left\{F(y)+F(y+a) \mid y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}=B_{a}(F) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, by definition $F$ and $F_{c, d}$ are differentially equivalent for any $c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.

Suppose that there exist $c, d, c^{\prime}, d^{\prime} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $F_{c, d}=F_{c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}}$. Then $F(x+c)+d=$ $F\left(x+c^{\prime}\right)+d^{\prime}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. Since $n>1$, it follows that equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has at least 4 solutions if $a=c+c^{\prime}$ and $b=d+d^{\prime}$. So, it is impossible for $F$ to be APN if $c \neq c^{\prime}$ or $d \neq d^{\prime}$.

The next proposition means that we only need to study differential equivalence classes of the representatives of EA-equivalence classes of vectorial Boolean functions.

Proposition 2. Let $F, G$ be EA-equivalent functions from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself. Then $\left|\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}\right|=\left|\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{G}\right|$. Moreover, if $G=A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A$ and $\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}=\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{k}\right\}$, then $\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{G}=\left\{A^{\prime} \circ F_{1} \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A, \ldots, A^{\prime} \circ\right.$ $\left.F_{k} \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A\right\}$.
Proof. Let us show that functions $G_{i}^{\prime}=A^{\prime} \circ F_{i} \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A, i=1, \ldots, k$, belong to $\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{G}$. Indeed,

$$
\begin{gathered}
B_{a}\left(G_{i}^{\prime}\right)=\left\{G_{i}^{\prime}(x)+G_{i}^{\prime}(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\} \\
=\left\{A^{\prime}\left(F_{i}\left(A^{\prime \prime}(x)\right)\right)+A(x)+A^{\prime}\left(F_{i}\left(A^{\prime \prime}(x+a)\right)\right)+A(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\} \\
=\left\{A^{\prime}\left(F_{i}(y)+F_{i}\left(y+A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(0)\right)\right)+A^{\prime}(0)+A(a)+A(0) \mid y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\} \\
=A^{\prime}\left(B_{A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(0)}\left(F_{i}\right)\right)+A^{\prime}(0)+A(a)+A(0) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Similarly, $B_{a}(G)=A^{\prime}\left(B_{A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(0)}(F)\right)+A^{\prime}(0)+A(a)+A(0)$. Since $B_{A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(0)}(F)=$ $B_{A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(0)}\left(F_{i}\right)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and $A^{\prime}$ is a one-to-one function, then $B_{a}\left(G_{i}^{\prime}\right)=B_{a}(G)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. So, $G_{i}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D E}_{G}, i=1, \ldots, k$. Thus, $\left|\mathcal{D E} \mathcal{E}_{G}\right| \geq k$, since $F_{i} \neq F_{j}$ implies $G_{i}^{\prime} \neq G_{j}^{\prime}$, where $i, j=1, \ldots, k, i \neq j$.

On the other hand, $F=\left(A^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ G \circ\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)^{-1}+\left(A^{\prime}\right)^{-1} \circ A \circ\left(A^{\prime \prime}\right)^{-1}+\left(A^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(0)=\tilde{A^{\prime}} \circ G \circ \tilde{A^{\prime \prime}}+\tilde{A}$. Similarly, we get $k \geq\left|\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{G}\right|$ that completes the proof.

There is the next natural question: "Is it true that an analogue of proposition 2 for CCZequivalent functions takes place?". Let us consider the case $n=4$ : there exist 2 EA-equivalence classes of APN functions and their representatives are CCZ-equivalent (see [6]). We computationally found that cardinalities of differential equivalence classes of these two representatives are equal to each other (see section 7). So, such an analogue holds for all numbers of variables up to 4 .

### 3.2 Differential equivalence of quadratic APN functions

Quadratic APN functions are the simplest APN functions due to their algebraic degree, since affine APN functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ do not exist if $n>1$. But even in this case APN and AB functions are still not classified for arbitrary number of variables. Studying quadratic functions we make use of the following their useful property. If $F$ is a quadratic function from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself then $B_{a}(F)$ is an affine subspace for all nonzero $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ (recall that $B_{a}(F)=\left\{F(x)+F(x+a) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$ ). If $F$ is APN, then $B_{a}(F)$ is an affine hyperplane (i. e. has cardinality $2^{n-1}$ ) for all $a \neq \mathbf{0}$.

In [1] definition of the crooked functions was introduced in connection with distance regular graphs by T. D. Bending and D. Fon-Der-Flaass. In [34] G. Kyureghyan generalized this definition to the following: a function $F$ is called crooked if $B_{a}(F)$ is an affine hyperplane for all $a \neq \mathbf{0}$. Obviously, quadratic APN functions are always crooked. There is also a conjecture (proved for monomial [34] and special binomial [4] functions):

Conjecture 1. [34] All crooked functions are quadratic.

If conjecture 1 is true, then for solving problem 1 for a quadratic APN function $F$ we only need to study if there exist quadratic functions differentially equivalent to $F$. The first natural step in this direction is to study whether EA-equivalent to $F$ function $G$ is also differentially equivalent to $F$.

Let $G=A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A$, where $F$ is a quadratic APN function, $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ are affine permutations and $A$ is an affine function. Denote by $L^{\prime}, L^{\prime \prime}, L$ linear parts of $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}, A$ respectively, i. e. $L^{\prime}(x)=A^{\prime}(x)+A^{\prime}(\mathbf{0}), L^{\prime \prime}(x)=A^{\prime \prime}(x)+A^{\prime \prime}(\mathbf{0}), L(x)=A(x)+A(\mathbf{0})$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{a}(G)=L^{\prime}\left(B_{L^{\prime \prime}(a)}(F)\right)+L(a) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 3. Let $F, A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}, A$ be functions from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself, where $F$ is a quadratic APN permutation, $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ are affine permutations and $A$ is an affine function. Then $F$ and $A^{\prime} \circ F \circ$ $A^{\prime \prime}+A$ are differentially equivalent if and only if $F$ and $A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}$ are differentially equivalent and $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent.

Proof. Denote by $L^{\prime}, L^{\prime \prime}, L$ linear parts of $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}, A$ respectively. The sufficient condition follows immediately from (1) and differential equivalence definition. Let us prove the necessary condition. Let $F$ and $G=A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A$ be differentially equivalent. Since $F$ is a quadratic permutation, then $B_{a}(F)$ is a complement of a hyperplane for all nonzero $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. From (1) and $B_{a}(G)=B_{a}(F)$ we get that linear parts of $B_{a}(F)$ and $L^{\prime}\left(B_{L^{\prime \prime}(a)}(F)\right)$ are equal. Hence, $B_{a}(F)=L^{\prime}\left(B_{L^{\prime \prime}(a)}(F)\right)$, since $L^{\prime}, L^{\prime \prime}$ are linear permutations and $\mathbf{0} \notin B_{a}(F)$ for all $a \neq \mathbf{0}$. This implies that $F$ and $A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}$ are differentially equivalent. Therefore, $F$ and $F+A$ are also differentially equivalent.

Thus, according to proposition 3 for quadratic APN permutations we could separately consider when $F$ and $A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}$ are differentially equivalent, where $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ are affine permutations, and whether there exist an affine function $A$ for a quadratic APN function $F$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent.

Note 1. There exist at least $2^{2 n}$ distinct affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent for any quadratic APN function $F$ on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. Indeed, $A_{c, d}^{F}(x)=F(x)+F(x+c)+d$ is affine for all $c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and $F(x)+A_{c, d}^{F}(x)=F(x+c)+d$, which is differentially equivalent to $F$ according to proposition 1. So, all these functions $A_{c, d}^{F}$ are distinct and lead only to functions belonging to the set of trivial differentially equivalent to $F$ functions $\left\{F(x+c)+d \mid c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$. The question arises: do there exist other affine functions? The number of affine functions $A$ for a given quadratic $A P N$ function $F$ such that $F+A \in \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}$ is an $E A$-equivalence invariant (see proposition 9).

Computationally (see section 7), we obtained the following result.
Theorem 1. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables, $n=3,4,5,6$. Then each differentially equivalent to $F$ quadratic APN function $G$ is represented as follows: $G=F+A$, where $A$ is an affine function. Moreover, the number $K$ of such functions $A$ equals $2^{2 n}$ for all functions except functions from three EA-equivalence classes with the following representatives:

1) $n=4: \quad A P N$ Gold function $F(x)=x^{3}, \quad K=2^{10}$;
2) $n=6$ : APN function $F(x)=\alpha^{7} x^{3}+x^{5}+\alpha^{3} x^{9}+\alpha^{4} x^{10}+x^{17}+\alpha^{6} x^{18}, \quad K=2^{13}$;
3) $n=8: \quad A P N$ Gold function $F(x)=x^{9}, \quad K=2^{20}$.

This means that there are no two quadratic APN functions $F$ and $G$ in small number of variables up to 6 such that $F+G$ is not an affine function. This result leads us to the following conjecture.

Conjecture 2. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables. Then each differentially equivalent to $F$ quadratic $A P N$ function $G$ can be represented as follows: $G=F+A$, where $A$ is an affine function.

## 4 APN Gold functions

An APN Gold function is a quadratic monomial function of the form $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$. Thus, it follows [16] that it is also AB for odd $n$. It is easy to see that Gold functions are permutations if $n$ is odd and 3 -to- 1 functions otherwise.

APN Gold functions take a special place among APN functions. At first, these functions are the only exceptional monomial functions along with APN Kasami functions that was proved in [29] by F. Hernando, G. McGuire. Also, despite the fact these functions seem to be rather simple due to their algebraic degree and the univariate representation, many other interesting constructions of APN functions have been found based on them (for example, [11], [12], [22]).

Working on paper [26], where we tried to find an affine function $A$ for a given quadratic APN function such that $B_{a}(F+A)=\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash B_{a}(F)$ for as many vectors $a$ as possible, we found that for the APN Gold function in 4 variables there exist $2^{10}$ affine functions such that $B_{a}(F+A)=B_{a}(F)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{4}$. This result shows us that the differential equivalence class of this function $F$ includes functions that do not belong to the trivial set $\left\{F(x+c)+d \mid c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{4}\right\}$.

In this section we prove that for an APN Gold function $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$ there exist exactly $2^{2 n+n / 2}$ distinct affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent if $n=4 t$ for some $t$ and $k=n / 2 \pm 1$; otherwise the number of such affine functions is equal to $2^{2 n}$.

### 4.1 Preliminary lemmas

Here we consider two lemmas that will be used for proving a new result on APN Gold functions.
Lemma 1. Let $n$ be an integer. Let $P_{k}^{i}=2^{i}-2^{k}-1$, where $i=0, \ldots, n-1$ and $k$ runs from 1 to $n-1$ except the case $k=n / 2$ if $n$ is even. Then the following statements hold:

1) $P_{k}^{0}$ and $P_{k}^{k}$ are in one cyclotomic class modulo $2^{n}-1$ (say, C) for all $k$;
2) $P_{k}^{i}$ and $P_{k}^{j}$ are in distinct cyclotomic classes modulo $2^{n}-1$ not equal to $C$ for all $i \neq j$ and $i, j \neq 0, k$;
3) if $n$ is odd, then $\left|C\left(P_{k}^{i}\right)\right|=n$ for all $i$ and $k$;
4) if $n$ is even, then $\left|C\left(P_{k}^{i}\right)\right|=n$ for all $i$ and $k$ except the following cases: $\left|C\left(P_{n / 2-1}^{n-1}\right)\right|=$ $\left|C\left(P_{n / 2+1}^{k-1}\right)\right|=n / 2$.

Proof. 1) Let us further by $P_{k}^{i}$ mean the representative of $P_{k}^{i}$ congruence class modulo $2^{n}-1$ belonging to the interval from 0 to $2^{n}-2$. By definition, binary weights of $P_{k}^{0}=-2^{k}$ and $P_{k}^{k}=-1$ are equal to $n-1$. It is easy to see that all integers from 0 to $2^{n}-2$ of binary weight $n-1$ are in one cyclotomic class modulo $2^{n}-1$ (say, $C$ ) of cardinality $n$.
2) Let us consider all integers $P_{k}^{i}$ and their binary representations, see Table 2. The integers $P_{k}^{1}, \ldots, P_{k}^{k-1}$ have binary weights $n-k, \ldots, n-2$ correspondingly. Thus, they are in pairwise

Table 2: Binary representations of integers $P_{k}^{i}$.

| $i$ | $P_{k}^{i}=2^{i}-2^{k}-1 \bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right)=\left(b_{n-1}, \ldots, b_{k}, \ldots, b_{0}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $w t\left(P_{k}^{i}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | . . . | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | . . . | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $n-1$ |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | . | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | $\ldots$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $n-k$ |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $n-k+1$ |
| 3 | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $n-k+2$ |
| . | . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | ... |
| $k-1$ | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $n-2$ |
| $k$ | 1 | 1 | . . | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | . . | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $n-1$ |
| $k+1$ | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $k$ |
| $k+2$ | 0 | 0 | ... | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\ldots$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $k+1$ |
| ... | . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\cdots$ |
| $n-1$ | 0 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | ... | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $n-2$ |

distinct cyclotomic classes modulo $2^{n}-1$ not equal to $C$. Similarly, the integers $P_{k}^{k+1}, \ldots, P_{k}^{n-1}$ belong to pairwise distinct cyclotomic classes modulo $2^{n}-1$ not equal to $C$ since their binary weights runs from $k$ to $n-2$.

The binary representation of $P_{k}^{i}$ consist of two groups of consecutive 1 s that have lengths $n-k$ and $i-1$ if $i=1, \ldots k-1$, and $k$ and $i-k-1$ if $i=k+1, \ldots, n-1$. Since the necessary condition for two such integers be in the same cyclotomic classes is the equality of lengths of consecutive 1 s groups, then any two integers from different considered groups belong to different classes. Indeed, $n-k \neq k$ by proposition condition and $n-k \neq i-k-1$ for all $i=k+1, \ldots, n-1$.
$3), 4)$ According to the previous studying of $P_{k}^{i}$ binary representations the only possible case when $\left|C\left(P_{k}^{i}\right)\right| \neq n$ is the following: if lengths of consecutive 1 s groups in $P_{k}^{i}$ are both equal to $n / 2-1$. If $n$ is odd, this case is not realized. If $n$ is even, then these possibilities are the following: $i=n-1$ if $k=n / 2-1$ and $i=k-1$ if $k=n / 2+1$. In both these cases $P_{k}^{i}=2^{n / 2} P_{k}^{i}$ modulo $2^{n}-1$ that completes the proof.

Lemma 2. Let $\ell$ be an integer, $\ell>1$. If $\ell$ is even, then $\operatorname{gcd}(2 \ell, \ell \pm 1)=1$; if $\ell$ is odd, then $\operatorname{gcd}(2 \ell, \ell \pm 1)=2$.

Proof. Let $\operatorname{gcd}(2 \ell, \ell \pm 1)=d$. Then $2 \ell=x d$ and $\ell \pm 1=y d$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$. Extracting $\ell$ from the second equality and putting it to the first equality we get $2=(\mp x \pm 2 y) d$. Hence, the only possible cases are: $d=1$ or $d=2$. Thus, if $\ell$ is even, then $\ell \pm 1$ is odd and $d=1$; otherwise $d=2$.

### 4.2 The main result concerning APN Gold function

For an APN Gold function $F$ the explicit form of the associated Boolean function $\gamma_{F}$ is known [16]. For completeness we present it with a proof.
Proposition 4. Let $F: \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ be a Gold function $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$. Then $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} b\right)+\operatorname{tr}(1)+1$ if $a \neq 0$ and $\gamma_{F}(0, b)=0$ for all $b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Proof. By definition, $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=1$ if and only if $a \neq 0$ and equation $F(x)+F(x+a)=b$ has solutions. Let us consider this equation for a Gold function:

$$
x^{2^{k}+1}+(x+a)^{2^{k}+1}=b
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
x^{2^{k}} a+x a^{2^{k}}=b+a^{2^{k}+1} \quad / \cdot a^{-1}\left(a^{2^{k}}\right)^{-1} \\
x^{2^{k}}\left(a^{-1}\right)^{2^{k}}+x a^{-1}=b\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1}+1 .
\end{gathered}
$$

If a solution exists, then by applying the function trace to both sides of the equation we get:

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(x^{2^{k}}\left(a^{-1}\right)^{2^{k}}+x a^{-1}\right)=0=\operatorname{tr}\left(b\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1}+1\right)
$$

Then $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\operatorname{tr}\left(b\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1}+1\right)+1=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} b\right)+\operatorname{tr}(1)+1$.
The following theorem contains a new result on APN Gold functions.
Theorem 2. Let $F: \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ be a Gold function $F(x)=x^{2^{k}+1}$, where $\operatorname{gcd}(k, n)=1$. Then the following statements hold:

1) if $n=4 t$ for some $t$ and $k=n / 2 \pm 1$, then there exist exactly $2^{2 n+n / 2}$ distinct affine functions $A$ of the form $A(x)=\alpha+\lambda^{2^{k}} x+\lambda x^{2^{k}}+\delta x^{2^{j}}$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent, where $\alpha, \lambda, \delta \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, \delta=\delta^{2^{n / 2}}$, and $j=k-1$ for $k=n / 2+1$ and $j=n-1$ for $k=n / 2-1$;
2) otherwise there exist exactly $2^{2 n}$ distinct affine functions $A$ of the form $A(x)=\alpha+\lambda^{2^{k}} x+$ $\lambda x^{2^{k}}$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent, where $\alpha, \lambda \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Proof. From proposition 4 we get that $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} b\right)+\operatorname{tr}(1)+1$ if $a \neq 0$ and $\gamma_{F}(0, b)=0$ for all $b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$. Let $A$ be an affine function from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ to itself and $L$ be its linear part, i. e. $L(x)=A(x)+A(0)$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\gamma_{F+A}(a, b)=\gamma_{F}(a, b+L(a))=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1}(b+L(a))+\operatorname{tr}(1)+1\right. \\
=\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} b\right)+\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} L(a)\right)+\operatorname{tr}(1)+1\right.
\end{gathered}
$$

Thus, $\gamma_{F+A}(a, b)=\gamma_{F}(a, b)+\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} L(a)\right)$. So, $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent if and only if the linear part $L$ of $A$ satisfies the equality $\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} L(a)\right)=0$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$. Denote by $N$ the number of such affine functions $A$.

Let $A(x)=\alpha+L(x)=\alpha+\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \lambda_{i} x^{2^{i}}$ be an affine function, where $\alpha, \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}, i=$ $0, \ldots, n-1$. Then the following equalities hold for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ :

$$
\operatorname{tr}\left(\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1} L(a)\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \lambda_{i} a^{2^{i}}\left(a^{2^{k}+1}\right)^{-1}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \operatorname{tr}\left(\lambda_{i} a^{2^{i}-2^{k}-1}\right)=0
$$

The last equality represents a polynomial equation in variable $a$ of degree not more than $2^{n}-1$ that has $2^{n}$ solutions. So, all its coefficients must be equal to 0 . Let us find the coefficients of all monomials $x^{d}, d=0, \ldots, 2^{n}-1$. To do this we need to study cyclotomic classes of all exponents $P_{k}^{i}=2^{i}-2^{k}-1, i=0, \ldots, n-1$, for a given $k$. From lemma $1(1,2)$ it follows that there are only two exponents $P_{k}^{0}$ and $P_{k}^{k}$ belonging to one cyclotomic class modulo $2^{n}-1$. So, we get that there is a relation between $\lambda_{0}$ and $\lambda_{k}$ in the form $\lambda_{0}=\left(\lambda_{k}\right)^{2^{k}}$ for all $n$ since $P_{k}^{0}=2^{k} P_{k}^{k}\left(\bmod \left(2^{n}-1\right)\right)$. To study the other coefficients consider the following cases.

Case 1. If $n$ is odd, then from lemma $1(2,3)$ we get that $\lambda_{i}=0$ if $i \neq 0, k$. Thus, $N=2^{2 n}$ since we can choose $\alpha, \lambda_{k}$ be arbitrary elements from $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Let $n=2 \ell$ be even. There are two different possibilities.

Case 2. If $\ell$ is odd, then $\operatorname{gcd}(n, n / 2 \pm 1)=2$ according to lemma 2 . So, we do not consider $k=n / 2 \pm 1$ by theorem condition and as a result $\lambda_{i}=0$ if $i \neq 0, k$ according to lemma 1 (4). Similarly to case $1, N=2^{2 n}$.

Case 3. If $\ell$ is even, then according to lemma $2 \operatorname{gcd}(n, n / 2 \pm 1)=1$.
— If $k \neq n / 2 \pm 1$, then according to lemma 1 (4) we have $\lambda_{i}=0$ if $i \neq 0, k$. Thus, $N=2^{2 n}$.

- If $k=n / 2+1$, then according to lemma 1 (4) we have $\lambda_{i}=0$ if $i \neq 0, k-1, k$ and $\lambda_{k-1}=\left(\lambda_{k-1}\right)^{2^{n / 2}}$. Since the number of elements $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ satisfying the equality $x=x^{2^{n / 2}}$ is equal to $2^{n / 2}$, we have $N=2^{2 n+n / 2}$.
- If $k=n / 2-1$, then according to lemma 1 (4) we have $\lambda_{i}=0$ if $i \neq 0, k, n-1$ and $\lambda_{n-1}=\left(\lambda_{n-1}\right)^{2^{n / 2}}$. Similarly to the previous, $N=2^{2 n+n / 2}$.

Theorem 2 shows that the class of APN Gold functions contains quadratic APN functions $F$ whose differential equivalence classes are wider than trivial classes $\left\{F_{c, d}(x)=F(x+c)+d \mid c, d \in\right.$ $\left.\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}$ of cardinality $2^{2 n}$ (recall that for a quadratic function $F$ functions $F_{c, d}=F+A_{c, d}$, where $A_{c, d}$ is affine for all $\left.c, d \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right)$. Indeed, the cardinality of $\mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}$, where $F(x)=x^{2^{n / 2 \pm 1}+1}, n=4 t$, is greater or equal to $2^{2 n+n / 2}$ according to theorem $2(1)$. Note that these functions are in the same EA-equivalence class.

Also, as we will see in section 7 APN Gold functions $F(x)=x^{2^{n / 2-1}+1}, n=4,8$, are the only functions up to EA-equivalence (except one function in 6 variables) among all quadratic APN functions in $2, \ldots, 6$ variables and all known quadratic APN functions in 7,8 variables that have more than $2^{2 n}$ affine functions preserving the associated Boolean functions when adding to the original functions and as a result have differential equivalence classes wider than trivial. That is why we call this property of APN Gold functions remarkable.

## 5 Properties of the associated Boolean function

Here we get several properties of the associated Boolean function for quadratic APN functions.
Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function. Then $\gamma_{F}$ is of the form $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot b+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$, where $\Phi_{F}: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, \varphi_{F}: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}$ are uniquely defined from

$$
B_{a}(F)=\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid \Phi_{F}(a) \cdot y=\varphi_{F}(a)\right\}
$$

for all $a \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $\Phi_{F}(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}, \varphi_{F}(\mathbf{0})=1$. Note, that $B_{a}(F)$ is linear iff $\varphi_{F}(a)=0$. It is easy to see that $(F(x)+F(x+a)+F(a)+F(\mathbf{0})) \cdot \Phi_{F}(a)=0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ by definition.
Proposition 5. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables and $\Phi_{F}(a)=\Phi_{F}(b)$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. Then $\Phi_{F}(a)=\Phi_{F}(a+b)$.
Proof. If $\Phi_{F}(a)=\Phi_{F}(b)$, then $L_{a}(F)=L_{b}(F)$, where $L_{a}(F)$ is the linear part of subspace $B_{a}(F), L_{a}(F)=B_{a}(F)+F(0)+F(a)$. Let us consider $L_{a+b}(F)$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
L_{a+b}(F)=\left\{F(x+a)+F(x+b)+F(a)+F(b) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\} \\
=\left\{F(x)+F(x+a)+F(\mathbf{0})+F(a)+F(x)+F(x+b)+F(\mathbf{0})+F(b) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}
\end{gathered}
$$

Let us denote $c_{a}(x)=F(x)+F(x+a)+F(\mathbf{0})+F(a)$ and $c_{b}(x)=F(x)+F(x+b)+F(\mathbf{0})+F(b)$. Then $c_{a}(x) \in L_{a}(F)$ and $c_{b}(x) \in L_{b}(F)$ for all vectors $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ and

$$
L_{a+b}(F)=\left\{c_{a}(x)+c_{b}(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}\right\}=L_{a}(F)
$$

since $L_{a}(F)=L_{b}(F)$ and $\left|L_{a+b}(F)\right|=2^{n-1}$.

Let us denote $A_{v}^{F}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid \Phi_{F}(a)=v\right\}$ for a $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.
Proposition 6. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables. Then $A_{v}^{F} \cup\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is a linear subspace for any vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, v \neq \mathbf{0}$, and $A_{\mathbf{0}}^{F}=\{\mathbf{0}\}$.

Proof. It is a direct corollary of proposition 5 and the equality $\Phi_{F}(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$.
Proposition 7. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables. Then there exists $c_{v} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ for any vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $\left.\varphi_{F}(x)\right|_{A_{v}^{F}}=\left.c_{v} \cdot x\right|_{A_{v}^{F}}$.
Proof. Let $A_{v}^{F}$ be nonempty. By definition $\Phi_{F}(a)=v$ for all vectors $a \in A_{v}^{F}$. Hence, $L_{a}(F)=$ $L_{v}$ for all vectors $a \in A_{v}^{F}$, where $L_{v}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid x \cdot v=0\right\}$. Then $B_{a}(F)=L_{v}+y_{a}(F), a \in A_{v}^{F}$, where $y_{a}(F)$ is any vector from $B_{a}(F)$. Let $a, b \in A_{v}^{F}$, then by proposition 5 we have $a+b \in A_{v}^{F}$. Let us show that $\varphi_{F}(a+b)=\varphi_{F}(a)+\varphi_{F}(b)$. Indeed, $\varphi_{F}(a+b)=0$ iff $y_{a+b}(F) \in L_{v}$, that is equivalent to $y_{a}(F)+y_{b}(F) \in L_{v}$.

It is known [16] that $\Phi_{F}$ is a permutation when $n$ is odd. So, in this case all $A_{v}^{F}, v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, are pairwise distinct and each of them consists of one element. We prove the following theorem for even number of variables.

Theorem 3. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables, $n$ is even. Then dimension of $A_{v}^{F} \cup\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is even for any $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.

Proof. Step 1. The Walsh coefficients of $F$ and $\gamma_{F}$ are connected by the following rule [16] (here $F_{v}=v \cdot F$ is a component function of $F$ ):

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=2^{2 n} \delta(u, v)-\left(W_{F_{v}}(u)\right)^{2}+2^{n}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\delta(u, v)=1$ if $(u, v)=(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0})$ and $\delta(u, v)=0$ otherwise.
All component functions $F_{v}, v \neq \mathbf{0}$, are quadratic, since APN functions do not have affine component functions [15]. Then $W_{F_{v}} \in\left\{0, \pm 2^{k_{v}}\right\}$ for all $v \neq \mathbf{0}$, where $k_{v}$ is an integer, $n / 2 \leq$ $k_{v} \leq n-1$ [17]. Let us consider $W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)$ according to equality (2):

If $v=\mathbf{0}$, then

- $u=\mathbf{0}: W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=2^{2 n}-2^{2 n}+2^{n}=2^{n} ;$
- $u \neq \mathbf{0}: W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=0-0+2^{n}=2^{n}$.

If $v \neq 0$ :

- $W_{F_{v}}(u)=0: W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=0-0+2^{n}=2^{n}$;
- $W_{F_{v}}(u)= \pm 2^{k_{v}}: W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=0-2^{2 k_{v}}+2^{n}=2^{n}-2^{2 k_{v}}$.

Step 2. From the other hand, $W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=-2^{n} \sum_{a \in A_{v}^{F}}(-1)^{\varphi_{F}(a)+\langle u, a\rangle}$. Indeed, consider $W_{\gamma_{F}}$ using $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=b \cdot \Phi_{F}(a)+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=\sum_{a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{b \cdot \Phi_{F}(a)+\varphi_{F}(a)+1+u \cdot a+v \cdot b} \\
=-\sum_{a \in \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{\varphi_{F}(a)+u \cdot a} \sum_{b \in \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{b \cdot \Phi_{F}(a)+v \cdot b} \\
=\sum_{b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{v \cdot b}-\sum_{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, a \neq \mathbf{0}}(-1)^{\varphi_{F}(a)+u \cdot a} \sum_{b \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{b \cdot \Phi_{F}(a)+v \cdot b} .
\end{gathered}
$$

If $v=\mathbf{0}$, then $W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=2^{n}-0=2^{n}$, since $\Phi_{F}(a) \neq \mathbf{0}$ when $a \neq \mathbf{0}$.
If $v \neq \mathbf{0}$, then $W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=0-2^{n} \sum_{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: \Phi_{F}(a)=v}(-1)^{\varphi_{F}(a)+u \cdot a}$.
Step 3. We have $W_{\gamma_{F}}(u, v)=-2^{n} \sum_{a \in A_{v}^{F}}(-1)^{\varphi_{F}(a)+u \cdot a}$. By proposition 7, there exists $c_{v} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ for any vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $\left.\varphi_{F}(x)\right|_{A_{v}^{F}}=\left.c_{v} \cdot x\right|_{A_{v}^{F}}$. Then $W_{\gamma_{F}}\left(c_{v}, v\right)=-2^{n}\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|$. According to step 1 we have the only possible case: $-2^{n}\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|=2^{n}-2^{2 k_{v}}$, that implies $\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|+1=2^{2 k_{v}-n}$ or $\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{v}^{F} \cup\{\mathbf{0}\}\right)=2 k_{v}-n$. Since $n$ is even, we get the required statement.

Thus, by theorem 3, preimage $\Phi_{F}^{-1}(v)$ for any nonzero element $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, n$ is even, is the empty set or forms a linear subspace of even dimension together with zero vector. So, we can say that $\Phi_{F}$ is a 3-to- 1 function if $n$ is even.

Proposition 8. Let $F$ be a quadratic $A P N$ function in $n$ variables. Then, for any vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, the set $\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=0\right\}$ is represented as $\bigcup_{i \in I} M_{i}$, where $M_{i}, i \in I$, is a linear subspace of dimension 2, and $M_{i} \cap M_{j}=\{\mathbf{0}\}, i, j \in I, i \neq j$.

Proof. Let $v \neq \mathbf{0}$ and $v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=0$, where $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, x \neq \mathbf{0}$. This means that there exists a vector $y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $v=F(y)+F(y+x)+F(x)+F(0)$ (since $F$ is APN, then there are no another such a vector $z$ that is not equal to $y$ or $y+x)$. This implies $v \cdot \Phi_{F}(y)=0$ and $v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x+y)=0$ by definition of $\Phi_{F}$. Thus, the set $\{x, y, x+y\}$ together with the zero vector forms the required linear subspace of dimension 2 .

Theorem 4. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables, $n$ is odd. Then $\operatorname{deg}\left(v \cdot \Phi_{F}\right) \leq$ $n-2$ for all $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}, v \neq \mathbf{0}$.

Proof. We use the following widely known equality for counting the ANF coefficients of a Boolean function $f$ in $n$ variables:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{f}(a)=\left(2^{\mathrm{wt}(a)-1}-2^{\mathrm{wt}(a)-n-1} \sum_{b \preceq(a \oplus \mathbf{1})} W_{f}(b)\right) \bmod 2 . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\Phi_{F}$ is a permutation, then $v \cdot \Phi_{F}$ is balanced for any nonzero vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. This implies $W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}(\mathbf{0})=0$ and $\operatorname{deg}\left(v \cdot \Phi_{F}\right)<n$.

Let $v$ be a vector from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. Let us prove that $\operatorname{deg}\left(v \cdot \Phi_{F}\right) \neq n-1$. This means that $g_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}\left(a^{k}\right)=$ 0 for all $a^{k} \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $\operatorname{wt}\left(a^{k}\right)=n-1, k=1, \ldots, n$. Equivalently, $\sum_{b \preceq\left(a^{k} \oplus \mathbf{1}\right)} W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}(b)=$ $W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}(\mathbf{0})+W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}\left(e^{k}\right)=W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}\left(e^{k}\right)$ is divided by 8 according to (3), where $e^{\bar{k}}$ is the vector with one nonzero coordinate $k$. Indeed,

$$
\begin{gathered}
W_{v \cdot \Phi_{F}}\left(e^{k}\right)=\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}}(-1)^{v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)+x \cdot e^{k}}= \\
\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=0}(-1)^{x \cdot e^{k}}+\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}: v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=1}(-1)^{1+x \cdot e^{k}}=4|M|-2^{n}
\end{gathered}
$$

where

$$
M=\left|\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=0, x \cdot e^{k}=0\right\}\right|
$$

We need to prove that $|M|$ is even. From proposition 8 we have that $\left\{x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=\right.$ $0\}=\bigcup_{i \in I} M_{i}$, where $M_{i}, i \in I$ is a linear subspace of dimension 2 , and $M_{i} \cap M_{j}=\{\mathbf{0}\}, i, j \in I$,
$i \neq j$. Note, that the number of vectors $x \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, such that $v \cdot \Phi_{F}(x)=0$, is equal to $2^{n-1}$ since $\Phi_{F}$ is a permutation. So, $|I|=\left(2^{n-1}-1\right) / 3$ and it is an odd integer. Let $M_{i}=\left\{\mathbf{0}, x^{i}, y^{i}, x^{i}+y^{i}\right\}$, $i \in I$. For any $i \in I$, there is an odd number (one or three) of nonzero vectors $x \in M_{i}$ such that $x_{k}=0$. Thus, $|M|$ is even, since we have an odd number of nonzero vectors belonging to $M$ and $\mathbf{0} \in M$.

Note that the bound of theorem 4 is tight for all known quadratic APN functions in not more than 8 variables $n$ (including also cases when $n$ is even).

## 6 The linear spectrum of a quadratic Boolean function

In this section we introduce the notion of the linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function as a new combinatorial characteristics of the function.

Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables and $L: \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ be a linear function. Then $B_{a}(F+L)=B_{a}(F)$ or $B_{a}(F+L)=\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash B_{a}(F)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.

Let us denote $k_{L}^{F}=\left|\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}: B_{a}(F)=B_{a}(F+L)\right\}\right|$. If $\gamma_{F}$ is represented as $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=$ $\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot b+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$, then $\gamma_{F+L}(a, b)=\gamma_{F}(a, b+L(a))=\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot b+\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$. Thus,

$$
\begin{equation*}
k_{L}^{F}=\left|\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}: \Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)=0\right\}\right| . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 2. The linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function $F$ in $n$ variables is the vector $\Lambda^{F}=\left(\lambda_{0}^{F}, \ldots, \lambda_{2^{n}-1}^{F}\right)$, where $\lambda_{k}^{F}$ is the number of linear functions $L$ such that $k_{L}^{F}=k$.

It is easy to see that $\sum_{k=0}^{2^{n}-1} \lambda_{k}^{F}=2^{n^{2}}$.
The notion of the linear spectrum is essentially arisen while studying quadratic APN functions. Let us describe two directions of studying APN functions for which the linear spectrum is of great interest. The first one is the following. In [26] an approach to find iterative constructions of APN function was suggested. In particular, to get a quadratic APN function $S$ in $n+1$ variables one need to take two admissible (see definition 4 [26]) quadratic functions $F$ and $G$ in $n$ variables such that $F+G$ is an affine function. There is a statement (assertion 7 [26]) that can be formulated in terms of this paper as follows: two functions $F$ and $F+L$ are not admissible, where $F$ is a quadratic APN function and $L$ is a linear function, if $k_{L}^{F}>2^{n-1}$. Thus, we are interested in what values $k_{L}^{F}$ can take. The second direction is to study what is the linear spectrum coefficient $\lambda_{2^{n}-1}^{F}$ for a quadratic APN function $F$ in $n$ variables. It is equal to the number of linear functions $L$ such that $F$ and $F+L$ are differentially equivalent. As we computationally obtained (see theorem 1 , section 3.2 ) there are no two differentially equivalent quadratic APN functions in small number of variables up to 6 such that their sum is not an affine function. So, $\lambda_{2^{n}-1}$ seems to show how many differentially equivalent functions to $F$ exist.

The next proposition states that the linear spectrum is invariant under EA- and differential equivalences. Thus, it can be used for obtaining nonequivalence results.

Proposition 9. The linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function is

1) a differential equivalence invariant;
2) a EA-equivalence invariant.

Proof. 1) It follows from definitions of the differential equivalence and the linear spectrum.
2) Let $G=A^{\prime} \circ F \circ A^{\prime \prime}+A$, where $F, G$ are quadratic APN functions in $n$ variables, $A^{\prime}, A^{\prime \prime}$ are affine permutations, $A$ is an affine function. Then $B_{a}(G)=A^{\prime}\left(B_{A^{\prime \prime}(a)+A^{\prime \prime}(\mathbf{0})}(F)\right)+A^{\prime}(\mathbf{0})+$
$A(a)+A(\mathbf{0})$. Hence, $k_{L}^{F}=k_{L^{\prime}}^{G}$ for any linear function $L$, since $B_{a}(F)=B_{a}(F+L)$ iff $B_{a}(G)=$ $B_{a}\left(G+L^{\prime}\right)$, where $L^{\prime}(x)=A^{\prime}(L(x))+A^{\prime}(\mathbf{0})$. As long as $A^{\prime}$ is a permutation, then $L^{\prime}$ runs through the set of all linear functions when looking all linear functions $L$. Thus, by definition of the linear spectrum, we have $\Lambda^{F}=\Lambda^{G}$.

Proposition 10. Let $F$ be a quadratic $A P N$ function in $n$ variables, $n>1$. Then $\lambda_{2^{n}-1}^{F} \geq 2^{n}$.
Proof. It is a direct corollary of the fact from note 1.
We prove the following theorem on zero values of the linear spectrum.
Theorem 5. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function in $n$ variables, $n>1$. Then the following statements hold:

1) $\lambda_{k}^{F}=0$ for all even $k, 0 \leq k \leq 2^{n}-2$;
2) if $n$ is even, then $\lambda_{k}^{F}=0$ for all $0 \leq k<\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$.

Proof. 1) Let $n$ be odd. By equality (4) we have $k_{L}^{F}=\left|\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}: \Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)=0\right\}\right|$ for any linear function $L$. Equivalently, $k_{L}^{F}=2^{n}-1-\mathrm{wt}(f)$, where $f(a)=\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)$. Since $\operatorname{deg}\left(\Phi_{F}\right) \leq n-2$ by theorem 4 and $L$ is linear, then $\operatorname{deg}(f) \leq n-1$. This implies that $\mathrm{wt}(f)$ is even and $k_{L}^{F}$ is odd. The proof for even $n$ is contained in item 2).
2) Let $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot b+\varphi_{F}(a)+1$. Recall $A_{v}^{F}=\left\{a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid \Phi_{F}(a)=v\right\}$ for a vector $v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$. By theorem 3, dimension of linear subspace $A_{v}^{F} \cup\{\mathbf{0}\}$ is even. Hence, the minimum possible nonzero $\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|$ is equal to 3 . Moreover, if $\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|>3$, then $A_{v}^{F}$ can be represented as the union of sets $A_{v, i}^{F}, i=1, \ldots,\left|A_{v}^{F}\right| / 3$, such that $A_{v, i}^{F} \cup \mathbf{0}$ is a linear subspace of dimension 2.

Let $M \cup\{\mathbf{0}\}$ be a linear subspace of dimension 2 that coincides with $A_{v}^{F}$ or with $A_{v, i}^{F}$ for some $i$ if $\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|>3$. Note that there are exactly $\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$ such subspaces $M$. Then $\left.\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)\right|_{M}=\left.c \cdot L(a)\right|_{M}$ is a linear Boolean function, where $c=\Phi_{F}(a), a \in M$. Hence, $\left.\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)\right|_{M}=0$ for all three vectors $a \in M$ or for only one. Since $\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$ is odd, then according to (4) we get that $k_{L}^{F}$ is odd that completes the proof of item 1). Moreover, there are at least $\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$ nonzero vectors $a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)=0$. This means that $\lambda_{k}^{F}=0$ for all $0 \leq k<\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$.

Note 2. More precisely, the upper bound of theorem 5 (2) can be made more tight. To do this one should know what is cardinalities of the sets $A_{v}^{F}, v \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$, for quadratic APN function $F$. It can be done by the following algorithm:

1. Let $d=\left(2^{n}-1\right) / 3$ and $v$ be the first vector in all ordered nonzero vectors from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.
2. If $\left|A_{v}^{F}\right|>3$, then replace the current $d$ by $d-\left|A_{v}^{F}\right| / 3+2^{\operatorname{dim}\left(A_{v}^{F} \cup\{0\}\right)-1}-1$. Take the next vector $v$ and repeat step 2 until all vectors $v$ will be looked.

As a result of this algorithm we get the final bound: $\lambda_{k}^{F}=0$ for all $k, 0 \leq k<d$. The algorithm is correct since we can consider the whole set $A_{v}^{F}$ instead of $A_{v, i}^{F}, i=1, \ldots,\left|A_{v}^{F}\right| / 3$, in the proof of the theorem 5.

We computationally found the linear spectrums of all quadratic APN functions in $3,4,5,6$ variables, see section 7 .

Table 3: The linear spectrum of quadratic APN functions in 3 variables.

| N | $\Lambda^{F}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | 0 | 56 | 0 | 280 | 0 | 168 | 0 | 8 |

Table 4: The linear spectrum of quadratic APN functions in 4 variables.

| N | $\Lambda^{F}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15552 | 0 | 25920 | 0 | 17280 | 0 | 5760 | 0 | 960 | 0 | 64 |

## 7 Computational results

Here we present results that were obtained using computer calculations. Recall that the exact numbers of EA-equivalence classes of quadratic APN functions are known for all $n$ from 2 to 6 ([6], [7], [21]). For $n$ equal to 7,8 there are known partial results from [43] and updated version of [42]. We took representatives of EA- (CCZ-) equivalence classes of APN functions from [6] (note that the functions N13 in Table 5 [6] is not quadratic) and updated version of [42].

### 7.1 The linear spectrums in small number of variables up to 6

The obtained linear spectrums of all quadratic APN functions in $3,4,5,6$ variables are listed in Tables 3, 4, 5, 6. Calculations for $n=6$ were conducted using supercomputer NKS-30T SSCC SB RAS.

Note 3. We obtain that the linear spectrums of EA-equivalence representatives of quadratic APN functions in 5, 6 variables are pairwise distinct except two functions N3 and N10 in Table 6 for $n=6$ that have equal spectrums. Moreover, the bound from theorem 5 (2) with the algorithm of note 2 is tight for all considered $n$. Note 2 is actual for the only function in 6 variables: one set $A_{v}^{F}$ of the APN function N11 in Table 6 is of cardinality 15.

### 7.2 Differentially equivalent APN functions in small number of variables

Here we summarize the obtained computational results about differential equivalence classes of APN functions in $n=2,3,4,5,6,7,8$ variables.

Result 1. Table 7 illustrates a classification under differential equivalence of all APN functions in small number of variables $n=2,3,4$. For these dimensions we see that differential equivalence between two functions implies also their EA-equivalence.

Table 5: The linear spectrums of quadratic APN functions in 5 variables.

| N N[6] | $\Lambda^{F}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. 1. | 00 | 00 | 0 | 5952 | 0 | 84320 | 0 | 605120 | 0 | 2737920 | 0 | 6249600 | 0 | 9663072 |
|  | 08035200 | 04563200 | 0 | 1331264 | 0 | 252960 | 0 | 25792 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 32 |
| 2. 2 . | 00 | 00 | 0 | 6944 | 0 | 74400 | 0 | 649760 | 0 | 2618880 | 0 | 6457920 | 0 | 9413088 |
|  | 08243520 | 04444160 | 0 | 1375904 | 0 | 243040 | 0 | 26784 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 32 |

Table 6: The linear spectrums of quadratic APN functions in 6 variables.


Note that all values in the table must be multiplied by 64 .

Table 7: Cardinalities of differential equivalence classes of APN functions on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$.

| $n$ | \# APN functions | EA | deg | \# differential equivalence classes with cardinalities |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | 192 | $x^{3}$ | 2 | 12 classes of $2^{4}$ functions |
| 3 | 688128 | $x^{3}$ | 2 | 10752 classes of $2^{6}$ functions |
| 4 | 18940805775360 | $x^{3}$ | 2 | 1156055040 classes of $2^{10}$ functions |
|  |  | $f[12]$ | 3 | 17340825600 classes of $2^{10}$ functions |

$$
\text { Here } f(x)=x^{3}+\left(x^{2}+x+1\right) \operatorname{tr}\left(x^{3}\right) .
$$

Table 8: Total numbers of affine functions $A$ on $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent, where $F$ is a EA-equivalence representative of quadratic APN functions.

| $n$ | \# EA classes | \# affine functions $A: F+A \in \mathcal{D} \mathcal{E}_{F}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | 1 | $2^{4}$ |
| 3 | 1 | $2^{6}$ |
| 4 | 1 | $2^{10}$ |
| 5 | 2 | for all 2 classes: $2^{10}$ |
| 6 | 13 | for 12 classes: $2^{12} ;$ for 1 class: $2^{13}$ |
| 7 | $\geq 487$ | for all known 487 classes: $2^{14}$ |
| 8 | $\geq 8179$ | for 1 class from known $8179: 2^{20}$ <br> for other 8178 classes: $2^{16}$ |

Result 2. Further we study how many affine functions $A$ in $n$ variables exist for a given quadratic APN function such that $F$ and $F+A$ belong to one differential equivalence class.

At first we present mathematical background for our search. Let $F$ be a quadratic APN function. Then $\gamma_{F}$ is of the form $\gamma_{F}(a, b)=\Phi(a) \cdot b+\varphi(a)+1$, where $B_{a}(F)=\left\{y \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} \mid \Phi_{F}(a) \cdot y=\right.$ $\left.\varphi_{F}(a)\right\}$.

Let $A$ be an affine function from $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{n}$ to itself and $L(x)=A(x)+A(\mathbf{0})$. Then

$$
\gamma_{F+A}(a, b)=\gamma_{F}(a, b+L(a))=\gamma_{F}(a, b)+\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a) .
$$

Thus, $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{F}(a) \cdot L(a)=0 \text { for all } a \in \mathbb{F}_{2}^{n} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The equalities (5) form the system of equations over $n^{2}$ binary variables $\ell_{i, j}, i, j=1, \ldots, n$, if we represent $L$ as $L(x)=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_{1, i} x_{i}, \ldots, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_{n, i} x_{i}\right)$. Let $r$ be rank of this system. Then there exist exactly $2^{n^{2}-r+n}$ affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent.

We computationally study ranks of system (5) for all known EA-equivalence classes of quadratic APN functions in $2, \ldots, 8$ variables. Our computational results are listed in Table 8. As we can see for almost all considered EA-equivalence classes in $n$ variables with representative $F$ there exist exactly $2^{2 n}$ trivial affine functions $A$ such that $F$ and $F+A$ are differentially equivalent. The exceptional cases from Table 8 are the following functions in even number of variables:
$n=4$ : APN Gold function $x^{3}$;
$n=6$ : 4th APN function from [7] $\alpha^{7} x^{3}+x^{5}+\alpha^{3} x^{9}+\alpha^{4} x^{10}+x^{17}+\alpha^{6} x^{18}$;
$n=8$ : APN Gold function $x^{9}$.
Result 3. As we know from section 6 the linear spectrum of a quadratic APN function is a differential equivalence invariant. Thus, according to Result 1 we can state that there are no two quadratic APN functions in $n=5,6$ variables belong to distinct EA-equivalence classes that are differentially equivalent except possibly functions N3 and N10 in Table 6 for $n=6$ having equal spectrums. But we were able to check that this possibility is not realized. The next question was to understand what quadratic APN functions from the same EA-equivalence class are differentially equivalent. Surprisingly, it happened that if any two quadratic APN functions $F$ and $G$ are in the same differential equivalence class, then $F+G$ is affine.

Our computational proofs of result 3 were based on theorem 3 and the following fact: if $F$ and $G$ are EA-equivalent, then $\Phi_{F}$ and $\Phi_{G}$ are linear equivalent, i.e. $\Phi_{G}=L^{\prime} \circ \Phi_{F} \circ L^{\prime \prime}$, where $L^{\prime}, L^{\prime \prime}$ are linear permutations.

We summarize computational results in theorem 1 in section 3.2.

## 8 Conclusion

In this paper we introduced the notion of differential equivalence of vectorial Boolean functions and considered its basic properties in general and quadratic cases. We started to analyze differential equivalence classes of APN Gold functions by studying functions that are obtained by adding affine functions to a given Gold function. This theoretical result and computer calculations for small number of variables showed us a remarkable property of APN Gold functions that is not usual for almost all known quadratic APN functions. Also, we formulated a conjecture about differential equivalence of quadratic APN functions that would be interesting to study further. It states that if two quadratic APN functions are differentially equivalent, then their sum is an affine function. But the most exciting problem that remains open about differential equivalence in common case is the existence of two differentially equivalent APN functions that are not CCZ-equivalent. The positive answer to this question can give a new method for constructing APN functions inequivalent to the known ones.

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