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

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Abstract

We exhibit an infinite class of almost perfect nonlinear quadratic binomials from \mathbb{F}_{2^n} to \mathbb{F}_{2^n} with n=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 almost perfect nonlinear (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 [4, 31]). In this sense 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 [30, 15]). Besides, every AB function is APN [15], and in case n odd any quadratic function is APN if and only if it 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

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 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, 24, 26, 28, 31]).

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

Functions	Exponents d	Conditions	Proven in
Gold	$2^{i} + 1$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	[24, 31]
Kasami	$2^{2i} - 2^i + 1$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	[27, 28]
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 odd		
Inverse	$2^{2t} - 1$	n = 2t + 1	[3, 31]
Dobbertin	$2^{4t} + 2^{3t} + 2^{2t} + 2^t - 1$	n = 5t	[21]

When using S-boxes EA-equivalent to power functions the advantage is the low implementation complexity in hardware environments. On the other hand the properties of power functions could be exploited in an attack (see [1]). A first well known property of a power permutation F is that all its component functions $\operatorname{tr}(cF)$, $c \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*$, 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 [8, 9]. They are presented in Table 2. When n is odd these functions are also AB. However they are, by construction, CCZ-equivalent to Gold mappings.

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

Functions	Conditions	Alg. degree
	$n \ge 4$	
$x^{2^{i}+1} + (x^{2^{i}} + x + \operatorname{tr}(1) + 1)\operatorname{tr}(x^{2^{i}+1} + x\operatorname{tr}(1))$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	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	
$+\left[\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}+1}+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x^{2^{i}+1})+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)\right]^{\frac{1}{2^{i}+1}}(x^{2^{i}}+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}}+1)$	n divisible by m	m+2
$+\left[\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)^{2^{i}+1}+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x^{2^{i}+1})+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x)\right]^{\frac{2^{i}}{2^{i}+1}}(x+\operatorname{tr}_{n/m}(x))$	$\gcd(i,n)=1$	

The first examples of APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power mappings are introduced in [23]. These are two quadratic binomials:

- $\circ x^3 + wx^{36}$ over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{10}}$, where w has the order 3 or 93,
- $\circ x^3 + wx^{528}$ 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 (see [6, 7]) while the first function from [23] 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, $gcd(k, 3) = gcd(s, 3k) = 1k \ge 4, i = sk \mod 3, m = 3 - iw has the order 2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$	[6, 7]
The case n divisible by 4	$x^{2^s+1} + wx^{2^{ik} + 2^{mk+s}}$	n = 4k, $gcd(k, 2) = gcd(s, 2k) = 1k \ge 3, i = sk \mod 4, m = 4 - iw has the order 2^{3k} + 2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$	Theorem 1 of the present paper

The class of functions from Table 3 which corresponds to the case n divisible by 3 is constructed in [6, 7]. It is proven that these functions are APN for n even and in case n odd they are AB permutations [6, 7]. Until now this case has been the only known class of APN functions CCZ-inequivalent to power mappings. 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 $n \ge 12$.

Though quadratic APN functions are used in some Feistel ciphers (see for instance [34, 35]) functions of low algebraic degree are not the best choices for S-boxes (see [5]). 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 $k, 0 \le k \le 2^n - 1$, 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 $c_i \ne 0$, that is, $d^{\circ}(F) = \max_{0 \le i \le n-1, c_i \ne 0} w_2(i)$ (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 F' from \mathbb{F}_{2^n} to itself are called Carlet-Charpin-Zinoviev equivalent (CCZ-equivalent) if the graphs of F and F', that is, the subsets $\{(x, F(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}\}$ and $\{(x, F'(x)) \mid x \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}\}$ of $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} \times \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$, are affine equivalent. Hence, F and F' 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

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

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

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

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 the function F and the multiset $\{|\lambda_F(a,b)| : a,b \in \mathbb{F}_{2^n}, b \neq 0\}$ is called the extended Walsh spectrum of F. 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, 33]) 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 differential uniformity and the same extended Walsh spectrum (see [8]).

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 [12, 14]). When n is even, the inverse function x^{2^n-2} is a differentially 4-uniform permutation [31] and has the best known nonlinearity [29], 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 $s \le 4k-1$, $\gcd(k,2) = \gcd(s,2k) = 1$, 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. Since w has the order $2^{3k} + 2^{2k} + 2^k + 1$ then $w = \alpha^{2^k - 1}$ for some primitive element α 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 the element 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

$$f_1 = \Delta_a(x) = a(t+y^{2^s}) + x^{2^s} + x = 0$$

$$f_2 = f_1^{2^k} = b(x+z^{2^s}) + y^{2^s} + y = 0$$

$$f_3 = f_2^{2^k} = c(y+t^{2^s}) + z^{2^s} + z = 0$$

$$f_4 = abcf_3^{2^k} = z + x^{2^s} + abc(t^{2^s} + t) = 0.$$

The aim is now to eliminate y, z and t from these equations 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

$$R_2 = cf_1^{2^s} + a^{2^s}c(f_2^{2^s} + f_2) + a^{2^s}f_3$$

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

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

$$R_6 = R_1 + ab(bc+1)R_5^{2^s}$$

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

we finally get our desired equation

$$R_7 = (ab+1)R_5 + R_6$$
$$= ab(bc+1)^{2^s+1} \left(x^{2^{2^s}} + x^{2^s}\right).$$

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, $a^{2^{2k}+2^k} = 1$ or equivalently $a^{2^k+1} = 1$. We have

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

because

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

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 fifth power of an element of the field and $\alpha u^{2^k + 2^s}$ is not (since α is a primitive element). 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

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

The numbers $2^{3k-s}-1$ and $2^{k+s}-1$ are divisible by 3 since 3k-s and k+s are even. 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

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

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. A contradiction.

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

$$R_{1} = bcf_{1} + abcf_{2} + abf_{3} + f_{4}$$

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

$$R_{2} = c^{2^{s}}f_{1} + ac^{2^{s}}(f_{2}^{2^{s}} + f_{2}) + af_{3}^{2^{s}}$$

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

$$R_{3} = aR_{1}^{2^{s}} + (ab + 1)^{2^{s}}R_{2}$$

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

$$R_{4} = (ab + 1)R_{3} + a(bc + 1)^{2^{s}})R_{1}$$

$$= P(a)(abz + (ab + 1)x^{2^{s}} + x),$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

and

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

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

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

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

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

Since $2^{k-s}-1$ and $2^{3k+s}-1$ 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. \square

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 $k \geq 3$ 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 [32]). 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 extended Walsh spectrum of a function is invariant 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 $n \geq 20$ and n is not divisible by 3 then the function F is CCZ-inequivalent to all known APN functions.

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

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