

# Constructing designs using functions

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## **First Part**

Definitions mostly

Some history too

# An important class of polynomials

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## Definition

A polynomial  $L \in \mathbb{F}_{p^e}[x]$  is called a *linearized polynomial* if

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$$L(x + y) = L(x) + L(y) \text{ for all } x, y \in \mathbb{F}_{p^e}.$$

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A linearized polynomial  $L \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  induces a permutation under evaluation (is a PP) over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  if and only if the only root of  $L(x)$  in  $\mathbb{F}_q$  is 0. (If you think about this in terms of a non-singular linear transformation, then we're talking about the size of the null space.)

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(If you think about this in terms of a non-singular linear transformation, then we're talking about the size of the null space.)

And linearized polynomials are closed under reduction modulo  $x^q - x$ .

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A polynomial  $D \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  is a *Dembowski-Ostrom (DO) polynomial* if

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# The interplay between DOs and linearized polynomials

So DO polynomials are precisely those polynomials whose non-trivial differential operators  $D(x + a) - D(x) - D(a)$  are all linearized polynomials. However, this is not their only important connection.

$$L(x) = \sum_i a_i x^{p^i}$$
$$D(x) = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^{p^i + p^j}$$

Think about what happens with composition. . .

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Think about what happens with composition. . .

Yep,  $L(D)$  and  $D(L)$  are both DOs, even after reduction.

This can lead to the study of DO polynomials under the action of the general linear group, say, since the general linear group is nothing more than the group of all non-singular transformations – i.e. the group of linearized PPs working modulo  $x^q - x$ .

## Definition

A connected incidence structure  $\mathcal{P}$  is a *projective plane* if

- ⊕ Every two points lie on a unique line.
  - ⊕ Every two lines intersect at a unique point.
  - ⊕ There are at least 4 points, no three of which are collinear.
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These axioms force  $\mathcal{P}$  to have the following properties:

- ⊕ the number of points on each line is the same as the number of lines through each point.
- ⊕ the same number of points as lines.

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These axioms force  $\mathcal{P}$  to have the following properties:

- ⊕ the number of points on each line is the same as the number of lines through each point.  $n + 1$
- ⊕ the same number of points as lines.  $n^2 + n + 1$

We call this important invariant  $n$  the *order* of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

# Affine and projective planes

If you have a projective plane and you delete any one line and all of the points on it, then you obtain what is known as an *affine plane*.

The affine plane satisfies almost all of the axioms of a projective plane (there's a slight fudge in the 2 lines intersecting at a unique point part).

Affine planes are equivalent to projective planes for if you have an affine plane, then it can only be completed in a single way to obtain a projective plane.

This concept of “completing” or “extending” is a central technique in projective geometry.

# The big open problems

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Most geometers believe this is true.
- ⊕ It is conjectured that all planes must have prime power order.  
There is no consensus among geometers.

# Incidence structures II

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## Definition

A connected incidence structure  $\mathcal{S}$  is a *semiplane* if

- ⊕ Every two points lie on 0 or 2 lines.
  - ⊕ Every two lines intersect at 0 or 2 points.
- 

## Definition

A connected incidence structure  $\mathcal{S}$  is a *biplane* if

- ⊕ Every two points lie on 2 lines.
- ⊕ Every two lines intersect at 2 points.

For biplanes we have the same number of points on a line and lines through a point:  $n + 2$ .

And the number of points and lines in the entire structure are the same:

$$1 + (n + 2)(n + 1)/2.$$

Again we call  $n$  the order.

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The biggest problem concerning semibiplanes is probably:

There is a method for constructing projective planes from specific types of semibiplanes, and when it works it produces “exotic” examples.

But so far it's only produced 2 new examples because we only have 2 examples of semibiplanes that satisfy the criteria!

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There is a method for constructing projective planes from specific types of semibiplanes, and when it works it produces “exotic” examples.

But so far it's only produced 2 new examples because we only have 2 examples of semibiplanes that satisfy the criteria!

This is not like the biplane problem – we have infinitely many examples of semibiplanes, its just that the criteria needed seems to be very rare.



## Definition

A connected incidence structure  $\mathcal{S}$  is a *semisymmetric design (SSD)* if there exists some integer  $\lambda > 0$  such that

- ⊕ Every two points lies on 0 or  $\lambda$  lines.
- ⊕ Every two lines intersect at 0 or  $\lambda$  points.

Here  $\lambda$  is often called the *incidence parameter*.

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If  $\lambda = 1$ , the SSD is more commonly called a partial plane.

If  $\lambda = 2$ , the SSD is just a semiplane.

# Some facts about SSDs

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## **Theorem** [Wild, 1981]

Let  $S$  be a semisymmetric design with incidence parameter  $\lambda > 1$ . Then  $S$  has the following properties,

- (i) there is a positive integer  $k$  such that every point is on  $k$  lines and every line contains  $k$  points,
- (ii) the number of points is equal to the number of lines, usually denoted by  $v$ ,
- (iii) every point has  $k(k-1)/\lambda$  neighbours,
- (iv)  $v \geq k(k-1)/\lambda + 1$ ,
- (v)  $2\lambda \mid vk(k-1)$ .

Because of these results we usually write  $\text{SSD}(v, k, \lambda)$  for the SSD.

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At present, there is also no theory on how to complete partial planes or semiplanes or SSDs to their regular counterparts.

There is some partial success for partial planes, but we have no idea for any  $\lambda \geq 2$ .

It was hoped that this approach might lead to breaking open the general problem, but nowadays at least some combinatorists seem to think it is a dead-end.

## **Second Part**

Definitions of the functions

Sort of a history

A long long time ago...

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**Definition** (Dembowski & Ostrom, 1968)

Let  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups, written additively.

Let  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ .

We say  $f$  is

planar

if, for every  $a \in \mathcal{G}, b \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , the equation

$$f(x + a) - f(x) = b$$

has a unique solution  $x \in \mathcal{G}$ .

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**Definition** (Nyberg, 1993)

Let  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups, written additively.

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almost perfect non-linear (APN)

if, for every  $a \in \mathcal{G}, b \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , the equation

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has at most 2 solutions  $x \in \mathcal{G}$ .

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**Definition** (Coulter & Henderson, 1999)

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# APN vs semiplanar

Why the two definitions?

Revisiting the proof of the following result is maybe instructive:

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## **Lemma**

If  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is planar, then  $\#\mathcal{G}$  must be odd.

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Suppose  $f$  is planar and  $\#\mathcal{G}$  is even.

Then there exists an involution  $t \in \mathcal{G}$  (an element of order 2).

As  $f$  is planar, the map  $x \mapsto f(x + t) - f(x)$  is a bijection.

That means there exists a unique solution  $x_0$  to

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But then  $f((x_0 + t) + t) - f(x_0 + t) = f(x_0) - f(x_0 + t) = 0$ , so that  $x_0 + t$  is also a solution, a contradiction.

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Now consider the two definitions over a finite field of characteristic 2. In  $\mathbb{F}_{2^e}$ , the additive group (the relevant group to the definition) is an elementary abelian 2-group.

That means every non-zero element is an involution.

So every derivative will have solutions coming in pairs and consequently APN and semiplanar coincide over finite fields of characteristic 2.

Over other groups, they mean different things.

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**Definition** (Coulter & Fain, 1999/2021)

Let  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups, written additively.

Let  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  and  $\lambda \geq 2$  be an integer.

We say  $f$  is

*semiplanar of index  $\lambda$*

if, for every  $a \in \mathcal{G}, b \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , the equation

$$f(x + a) - f(x) = b$$

has either 0 or  $\lambda$  solutions  $x \in \mathcal{G}$ .

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## Third Part

Incidence structures from functions

Justifying why those functions just defined were just defined

The problem of connectivity (or connectedness, if you prefer)

# An incidence structure for functions (planar version)

For  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ , we define an incidence structure  $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  as follows:

- ⊕ "Points" are the elements of  $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{H}$ ,
  - ⊕ "Lines" are the symbols  $\mathcal{L}(a, b)$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(c)$  where  $a, c \in \mathcal{G}$  and  $b \in \mathcal{H}$ , and are defined by
  - ⊕  $\mathcal{L}(a, b) = \{(x, f(x - a) + b) : x \in \mathcal{G}\}$ , and
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One can think of these lines as lines of slope  $a$  and vertical lines.

Note how the whole structure  $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is dependent on  $f$  as the slope lines are dependent on  $f$ .

# Intersection points

$$\mathcal{L}(a, b) = \{(x, f(x - a) + b) : x \in \mathcal{G}\}$$

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Consider the intersection points for the lines in  $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$ . We have

$$\mathcal{L}(c) \cap \mathcal{L}(d) = \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{L}(c) \cap \mathcal{L}(a, b) = \{(c, f(c - a) + b)\}.$$

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So zero or 1 intersection points involving vertical lines. And

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(a, b) \cap \mathcal{L}(c, d) &= \{(x, f(x - a) + b) : f(x - a) + b = f(x - c) + d\} \\ &= \{(x, f(x - a) + b) : f(x - a) - f(x - c) = d - b\}.\end{aligned}$$

So when  $a = c$ ,  $\mathcal{L}(a, b) \cap \mathcal{L}(a, d) = \emptyset$  unless  $b = d$ .

For  $a \neq c$ , intersection points are tied to the derivatives of  $f$ .

# Properties of the structure $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$

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**Theorem** (Dembowski & Ostrom, 1968)

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups written additively where  $\#\mathcal{G} = \#\mathcal{H} = n$ . If  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is a planar function, then  $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  has the following properties.

- (i) It has  $n^2$  points and  $n^2 + n$  lines.
  - (ii) Each line contains  $n$  points and each point is on  $n + 1$  lines.
  - (iii) Every pair of points occur on a unique line. Every pair of lines intersect in 0 or 1 points.
  - (iv) For every point there are exactly  $n^2 - 1$  other points defined by the lines through it; for every line there are exactly  $n^2$  other lines intersecting it.
-

**Theorem** (Dembowski & Ostrom, 1968)

A connected  $I(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is an affine plane if and only if  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is a planar function.

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The only issue to be considered is whether or not the structure is connected.

However, since every point has  $n^2 - 1$  neighbours, we see every point is connected to every other point.

Thus, planar functions *always* produce affine planes.

# An incidence structure for functions (sempiplanar version)

For  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ , define  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  as follows:

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What changed? Yes, we deleted the vertical lines.



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But why?!

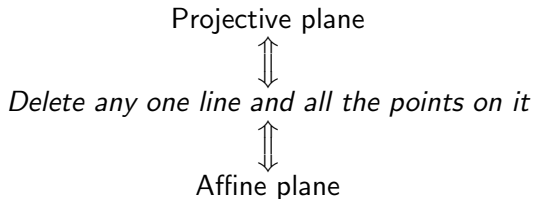
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A little known fact about projective planes is that the step from projective to affine through deleting a line is not the only reversible step one can do.

Projective plane



*Delete any one line and all the points on it*



Affine plane



*Delete all the lines of a single parallel class (the “vertical lines”)*



The defining component of the projective plane (just the “slope lines”)

# The structure $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$

We're keeping the slope lines but throwing out the vertical lines.

Implications?

# The structure $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$

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Implications?

The structure remains dependent on the function  $f$ .

# The structure $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$

We're keeping the slope lines but throwing out the vertical lines.

Implications?

The structure remains dependent on the function  $f$ .

And the intersection points of slope lines are dependent on the derivatives, which means the derivatives of the function remain integral to understanding the incidence structure.



# Properties of the structure $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Henderson, 1999; Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups written additively where  $\#\mathcal{G} = n$  and  $\#\mathcal{H} = m$ . If  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is a semiplanar function of index  $\lambda \geq 2$ , then  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  has the following properties.

- (i) It has  $nm$  points and  $nm$  lines.
  - (ii) Each line contains  $n$  points and each point is on  $n$  lines.
  - (iii) Every pair of points occur on 0 or  $\lambda$  lines and every pair of lines intersect in 0 or  $\lambda$  points.
  - (iv) For every point there are exactly  $n(n-1)/\lambda$  other points defined by the lines through it.
-

**Theorem** (Coulter & Henderson, 1999; Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $\#\mathcal{G} = n$  and  $\#\mathcal{H} = m$ .

A connected  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is a  $\text{SSD}(nm, n, \lambda)$  if and only if  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is a semiplanar function of index  $\lambda$ .

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---

Yes, there is that issue with connectivity...

Unlike the planar function situation, now we're only guaranteed that a point has (at best) roughly half the points in the structure as neighbours, so it's not quite as straightforward.

# Is this structure connected or not?!

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Henderson, 1999, 2004)

Let  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be a semiplanar function of index 2. If the structure is not connected, then it splits into exactly two isomorphic semibiplanes.

This actually happens when  $\#\mathcal{G} = \#\mathcal{H} = 4$ .

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**Theorem** (Coulter & Henderson, 1999)

If  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  is a bijective semiplanar function of index 2 and  $\#\mathcal{G} > 4$ , then  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is connected.

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**Theorem** (Yoshiara, 2010)

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---

# Connectivity of $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$ for semiplanar $f$

For  $S \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ , we use  $\text{Span}(S)$  to denote the subgroup of  $\mathcal{G}$  that is generated by  $S$  – i.e. the closure of  $S$ .

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be a semiplanar function of index  $\lambda \geq 2$  and suppose wlog  $f(0) = 0$ . Define the set  $\Gamma_f$  by

$$\Gamma_f = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathcal{G}\}.$$

Then  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is connected if and only if  $\text{Span}(\Gamma_f) = \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{H}$ .

---

# Connectivity of $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$ for semiplanar $f$

---

## Corollary

If  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is connected, then  $\text{Span}(\text{Im}(f)) = \mathcal{H}$ .

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If  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is connected, then  $\text{Span}(\text{Im}(f)) = \mathcal{H}$ .

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# Connectivity of $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$ for semiplanar $f$

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## Corollary

If  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is connected, then  $\text{Span}(\text{Im}(f)) = \mathcal{H}$ .

---

We thought this was a sufficient condition, but there are some easy counterexamples.

The polynomial  $f(x) = \text{Tr}(x^2)$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$ , with  $\text{Tr}$  the trace from  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$  to  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , is semiplanar of index  $q$  (for  $q \geq 5$ ). But it's easy to show...

- ⊕  $S(\mathbb{F}_{q^2}, \mathbb{F}_{q^2}; f)$  and  $S(\mathbb{F}_{q^2}, \mathbb{F}_{q^2}; f + x)$  are isomorphic, and
- ⊕  $\text{Span}(\text{Im}(f)) = \mathbb{F}_q$  and  $\text{Span}(\text{Im}(f + x)) = \mathbb{F}_{q^2}$ .

# The best we can do with connectivity

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}$  be finite abelian groups of order  $n$  and  $m$ , respectively.

Let  $f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  be semiplanar of index  $\lambda > 2$ .

Then  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is a collection of at most  $\frac{m}{n}\lambda$  isomorphic SSDs.

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Then  $S(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}; f)$  is a collection of at most  $\frac{m}{n}\lambda$  isomorphic SSDs.

---

Disappointingly, this is, in fact, the best we can do!

The function  $f(x) = \text{Tr}(x^2)$  where  $\text{Tr}$  is the trace from  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  to  $\mathbb{F}_q$  is a semiplanar function of index  $q^{n-1}$ .

And we can prove that  $S(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}, \mathbb{F}_{q^n}; f)$  is a collection of  $q^{n-1}$  isomorphic copies of a  $\text{SSD}(q^{n+1}, q^n, q^{n-1})$ .

## **Fourth Part**

Restrictions

Existence

Composition

# Requirements for planar functions to exist

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There are some limitations on the groups involved:

- ⊕  $\#\mathcal{G} = \#\mathcal{H}$
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# Requirements for planar functions to exist

There are some limitations on the groups involved:

- ⊕  $\#\mathcal{G} = \#\mathcal{H}$
- ⊕  $\mathcal{G}$  cannot contain an involution. So  $\#\mathcal{G}$  must be odd.

A further possible requirement is that both groups need to be elementary abelian  $p$ -groups.

J.C.D.S. Yaquub may have had a proof of this (“about 3 pages of hand-written notes”), but she died before sharing it with me.

Nowadays this is called Yaquub’s conjecture, and if it’s true, then the study of planar functions can be restricted to just the finite field case.



# Requirements for semiplanar functions to exist ( $\lambda \geq 2$ )

There are only 2 conditions, and both are kind of trivial:

$$\oplus \#G/\#\mathcal{H} \leq \lambda.$$

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# Requirements for semiplanar functions to exist ( $\lambda \geq 2$ )

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$$\oplus \lambda \text{ must divide } \#G.$$

There was a combinatorial design conjecture akin to Yaqub's conjecture related to certain designs, but this was proven false by Mubayi via a construction over non-abelian groups.

His constructions, however, do not ever produce SSDs so his results do not preclude the possibility that we can only construct these functions over elementary  $p$ -groups again.

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Matthews, 1997)

Let  $f(x) = x^{p^k+1} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^e}[x]$  with  $p$  odd.

Then  $f$  is planar if and only if  $\frac{e}{\gcd(k,e)}$  is odd.

---

Yes, DO monomial examples.

# Actual semiplanar functions (APN functions)

Since APN and semiplanar functions are one and the same over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^e}$ , we can cheat and just use APN examples here. . .

---

**Theorem** (Gold, 1968)

Let  $f(x) = x^{2^k+1} \in \mathbb{F}_{2^e}[x]$ .

Then  $f$  is APN/semiplanar of index 2 if and only if  $\gcd(k, e) = 1$ .

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---

Most in the room will be able to list at least several more examples, but I'm just going to leave it simple with this one. . . there's a reason, of course!

# Actual semiplanar functions of index $\lambda > 2$

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $f(x) = x^{p^k+1} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^e}[x]$ .

For  $p = 2$ ,  $f$  is semiplanar of index  $2^{\gcd(k,e)}$ .

For  $p$  odd, we have the following:

- (i) If  $\frac{e}{\gcd(k,e)}$  is odd, then  $f$  is planar.
  - (ii) If  $\frac{e}{\gcd(k,e)}$  is even, then  $f$  is semiplanar of index  $p^{\gcd(k,e)}$ .
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- 

To be honest, this is kind of forced. The reason is pretty simple.

And if you've ever wondered why there is a prevalence of DOs among planar functions and APN functions, it is the same reason.

# Why DO polynomials have chances of being semiplanar

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- ⊕ DO polynomials are precisely those polynomials whose derivatives are linear operators.

So the derivative of a DO polynomial in the direction  $a$  will always have 0 or  $p^{k_a}$  solutions to  $f(x+a) - f(x) = b$  for each  $b$ , where  $k_a$  is only dependent on  $a$ .

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Thus, the only requirement is that all the  $k_a$  are the same – the regularity of preimages is already taken care of.

## And DO monomials have to be planar or semiplanar

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But for monomials, all the derivatives are basically equivalent.

$$\begin{aligned}(x+a)^n - x^n &= a^n \left( \left( \frac{x}{a} + 1 \right)^n - \left( \frac{x}{a} \right)^n \right) \\ &= a^n \left( (y+1)^n - y^n \right) \text{ for } y = x/a.\end{aligned}$$

This means all the derivatives have the same multiplicities of preimages, just for different images.

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So for DO monomials, all the derivatives have a regularity of preimages because they're DOs, and the same multiplicities of preimages because they're monomials.

That means DO monomials *have to be planar or semiplanar!*

# Composing planar functions with linear transformations

---

**Theorem** (Coulter & Matthews, 1997)

Let  $f, L \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  with  $L$  a linearized polynomial.

The following are equivalent.

- (i)  $f(L)$  is planar.
  - (ii)  $L(f)$  is planar.
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This looks like a version of . . .

---

**Definition** (Not sure who did this first!)

Let  $f, h \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ . Then we say  $f$  and  $h$  are *extended affine equivalent* if there exists linearized  $L_1, L_2, L_3$ , with  $L_1, L_2$  permutations, and constants  $c_1, c_2$  such that

$$f(x) \equiv L_2(h(L_1(x) + c_1)) + L_3(x) + c_2 \pmod{(x^q - x)}.$$

---

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An equivalent result to the Coulter/Matthews statement would be:

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## A Theorem

Let  $f, L \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  with  $L$  a linearized polynomial.

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## **A Theorem this is not**

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- 

But this is not true in general!

# APN/semiplanar equivalent?

In fact, I don't even know if this works for  $\lambda = 2/\text{APN}$ ...

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## **A Theorem?**

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In a very quick search, I couldn't find a result stating this explicitly, and I suspect it is probably false.

# So what do we have?

---

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What we have from EA-equivalence is an equivalence relation defined on functions using linear transformations which preserves semiplanarity.

But it doesn't force the decomposition conclusion we see in this planarity theorem.

Specifically, if I give you a polynomial  $L(f)$  which is semiplanar of index  $\lambda$ , then you cannot conclude  $L$  is a permutation polynomial and  $f$  is semiplanar of index  $\lambda$ .

So the equivalence of the 3 statements fails.



---

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Thus, you cannot relax the condition with regards to inner composition.

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Thus, you cannot relax the condition with regards to inner composition.

But outer compositions do not behave as nicely.

---

**Lemma** (Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $f, L, M \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  with  $f$  planar and  $L, M$  linearized polynomials.

- (i)  $L(f)$  is semiplanar of index  $\# \ker(L)$ .
  - (ii)  $M(L(f))$  is either semiplanar of index  $\# \ker(M(L))$  or  $M(L(f(x))) \equiv 0 \pmod{(x^q - x)}$ .
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# Semiplanar functions and linear transformations

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---

**Lemma** (Coulter & Fain, 2021)

Let  $f, L \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  with  $f$  semiplanar of some index  $\lambda \geq 2$  and  $L$  a linearized polynomial.

Then  $L(f)$  is semiplanar of some index or equivalent to the 0 polynomial if and only if  $\#(\ker(L) \cap \text{Im}(\Delta_{f,a}))$  is the same for all  $a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ .

Here  $\Delta_{f,a}(x) = f(x+a) - f(x) - f(a)$ .

---

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- ⊕ Construct semiplanar functions over abelian groups that are not elementary abelian  $p$ -groups, or prove they don't exist.
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- ⊕ Conjecture: Over odd finite fields, all semiplanar functions of index  $\lambda > 1$  are EA-equivalent to DO polynomials.
- ⊕ Classify semiplanar monomials.
- ⊕ Obtain a better understanding of how composition of semiplanar functions and linear transformations behaves.
- ⊕ We've done very little so far on investigating automorphism groups of SSDs. The semiplane case, in particular, needs to be looked at.

## **Fifth Part**

The end.