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# Planar products of linearized polynomials 

Gohar M. Kyureghyan ${ }^{1}$ and Ferruh Özbudak ${ }^{2}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Department of Mathematics, Otto-von-Guericke University of Magdeburg, Universitätsplatz 2, 39106 Magdeburg, Germany<br>gohar.kyureghyan@ovgu.de<br>${ }^{2}$ Department of Mathematics and Institute of Applied Mathematics, Middle East Technical University, İnönü Bulvarı, 06531, Ankara, Turkey<br>ozbudak@metu.edu.tr


#### Abstract

Let $L_{1}(x)$ and $L_{2}(x)$ be linearized polynomials over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. We determine conditions when the product $L_{1}(x) \cdot L_{2}(x)$ is a planar mapping on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. For a linearized polynomial $L$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, let $\mathcal{M}(L)=\{\alpha \in$ $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}: L(x)+\alpha \cdot x$ is bijective on $\left.\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right\}$. We show that the planarity of the product $L_{1}(x) \cdot L_{2}(x)$ is linked with the set $\mathcal{M}(L)$ of a suitable linearized polynomial $L$. We use this relation to describe some families of such planar mappings and we give some nonexistence results.


Keywords: planar mapping, quadratic mapping, Dembowski-Ostrom polynomial, linearized polynomial, directions defined by linear functions

## 1 Introduction

Let $p$ be an odd prime number and $q$ a power of $p$. Given a mapping $f: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ and a nonzero element $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, we call

$$
D_{f, a}: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}, \quad x \mapsto f(x+a)-f(x)-f(a)
$$

the difference mapping of $f$ defined by $a$. A mapping $f: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ is called planar (or perfect nonlinear) if all its difference mappings are bijective. Planar mappings were introduced in [7] as a tool to construct projective spaces. In Cryptology planar mappings are called perfectly nonlinear, and they provide the optimal resistance to differential attacks [16]. In [8], [9], planar mappings are used to construct optimal constant-composition codes and signal sets. Planar mappings do not exist in finite fields of even characteristic. A mapping $f$ : $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ is called almost perfect nonlinear (APN) if every difference mapping of it has an image set of the maximal possible cardinality $2^{n-1}$.

The $q$-weight of a nonnegative integer $m$ is the sum of the digits in its $q$-adic representation, i.e. if $m=\sum_{i} b_{i} q^{i}$ then the $q$-ary weight of $m$ is $\sum_{i} b_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$. Recall, that any mapping of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ can be represented by a polynomial over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ of degree less than $q^{n}$. Moreover, different such polynomials define different mappings. This allows us to identify the set of mappings of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ with the set of polynomials over
$\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ with degree less than $q^{n}$. We use the notation $F(X)$ to denote a polynomial, while $F(x)$ is used for the mapping induced by $F(X)$. The algebraic $q$-degree of a polynomial over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ is the maximal $q$-weight of the exponents in its terms. We use briefly the term algebraic degree, since $q$ is fixed all over the paper.

The $\mathbb{F}_{q^{-}}$linear mappings $L: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ are represented by the polynomials of algebraic degree 1 with the zero constant term, that is $L(x)=\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} c_{i} x^{q^{i}}$, $c_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. Such polynomials are called linearized or $q$-polynomials. The affine mappings are given by the polynomials of algebraic degree 1.

Two mappings $F, G: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ are called extended affine equivalent (EAequivalent), if $G=A_{1} \circ F \circ A_{2}+A$ for some affine permutations $A_{1}, A_{2}$ and an affine mapping $A$. EA-equivalent non-constant mappings have the same algebraic degree. It is easy to see that EA-equivalence preserves the planarity of mappings.

A mapping is called quadratic if it is represented by a polynomial of algebraic degree 2 . The polynomials of algebraic degree 2 with no terms of algebraic degree 1 ,

$$
\sum_{i, j=0}^{n-1} a_{i, j} x^{q^{i}+q^{j}}, a_{i, j} \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}
$$

are called Dembowski-Ostrom polynomials in [6]. Observe that any quadratic mapping is EA-equivalent to a one represented by a Dembowski-Ostrom polynomial. Dembowski-Ostrom planar polynomials describe finite commutative semifields and vice-versa $[7,5]$.

In this paper we continue the study of products of linearized polynomials. To our knowledge such polynomials were first considered in [2]. In [2, 12] bijectivness of these polynomials is studied. APN products of linearized polynomials are considered in [3], where it is shown that if $X \cdot L(X)$ is APN with a linearized polynomial $L(X)$ then $L(X)$ must be a monomial. In this paper we investigate the planar products of linearized polynomials. In particular we observe that to contrary to the APN case there are planar polynomials $X \cdot L(X)$ with a nonmonomial linearized polynomial $L(X)$.

## 2 Planar products of linearized polynomials

Proposition 1. Let $L_{1}, L_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}[X]$ be linearized polynomials. If the mapping $L_{1} \cdot L_{2}: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ is planar, then necessarily the mappings $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ are bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

Proof. Observe that $L_{1}(X) \cdot L_{2}(X)$ is a Dembowski-Ostrom polynomial. In [14, 18 ] it is shown that the only zero of a planar Dembowski-Ostrom polynomial is $X=0$, which yields the statement.

The next proposition shows that the study of planar polynomials of shape $L_{1}(X) \cdot L_{2}(X)$ can be reduced to the one of shape $X \cdot L(X)$.

Proposition 2. Let $L_{1}, L_{2}: \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ be $\mathbb{F}_{q}$-linear. Then $L_{1}(x) \cdot L_{2}(x)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ if and only if $x \cdot L_{1}\left(L_{2}^{-1}(x)\right)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, where $L_{2}^{-1}(x)$ is the inverse mapping of $L_{2}$.
Proof. The mappings $L_{1}(x) \cdot L_{2}(x)$ is EA-equivalent to $x \cdot L_{1}\left(L_{2}^{-1}(x)\right)$, since

$$
\left(L_{1}(x) \cdot L_{2}(x)\right) \circ L_{2}^{-1}(x)=L_{1}\left(L_{2}^{-1}(x)\right) \cdot L_{2}\left(L_{2}^{-1}(x)\right)=L_{1}\left(L_{2}^{-1}(x)\right) \cdot x
$$

For any linearized polynomial $L(X)$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ we define the polynomial $Q_{L}$ by

$$
Q_{L}(X):=\frac{L(X)}{X}
$$

Lemma 1. Let $L(X) \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}[X]$ be a linearized permutation polynomial. The mapping $x \cdot L(x)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ if and only if, for any non-zero $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, at most one of $\beta$ or $-\beta$ belongs to the set $\left\{Q_{L}(x): x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}\right\}$.

Proof. Consider

$$
D_{a}(x)=(x+a) L(x+a)-x L(x)-a L(a)=a L(x)+x L(a)
$$

Since $D_{a}(x)$ is a linear mapping, it is bijective if and only if it has a trivial kernel. It remains to note that the condition $a L(x)+x L(a)=0$ if and only if $x=0$ is equivalent to

$$
\frac{L(x)}{x} \neq-\frac{L(a)}{a}
$$

for any non-zero $a, x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.
Further we show that the planarity of $X \cdot L(X)$ is linked with the set

$$
\mathcal{M}(L)=\left\{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}: L(x)+\alpha \cdot x \text { is bijective on } \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right\}
$$

Theorem 1. Let $L(X) \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}[X]$ be linearized. The mapping $x \cdot L(x)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ if and only if $0 \in \mathcal{M}(L)$ and at least one of $\beta$ or $-\beta$ belongs to the set $\mathcal{M}(L)$ for any non-zero $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

Proof. The condition $0 \in \mathcal{M}(L)$ states that $L(x)$ is bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. Using Lemma 1 , for any non-zero $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ it must hold that either $\beta$ or $-\beta$ is not contained in $\left\{Q_{L}(x): x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}\right\}$. The proof now follows from the observation that $\beta \notin\left\{Q_{L}(x): x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}\right\}$ if and only if $L(x)-\beta \cdot x$ is bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

Note that the monomial planar mappings $x^{2}$ and $x^{q^{i}+1}$ on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ with $n / \operatorname{gcd}(n, i)$ odd are covered by Theorem $1_{i}$. The conditions of Theorem 1 are trivially fulfilled for $x^{2}$. In the case $x \cdot x^{q^{i}}$ it is easy to see, that there is no $\beta$ such that both $x^{q^{i}}+\beta x$ and $x^{q^{i}}-\beta x$ are not bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ if and only if -1 is not a $\left(q^{i}-1\right)$ th power in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, or equivalently $n / \operatorname{gcd}(n, i)$ odd.

In [3] it is shown that if $X \cdot L(X)$ is APN with a linearized polynomial $L(X)$ then $L(X)$ must be a monomial. Does a similar result hold for planar products $X \cdot L(X)$ ? The answer is negative as the following observation shows.

Proposition 3. Let $1 \leq k \leq n-1$ with $n / \operatorname{gcd}(n, k)$ odd and let $u \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ be not $a\left(q^{k}-1\right)$ st power in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. Then the mapping $F(x)=x \cdot\left(x^{q^{n-k}}-u x^{q^{k}}\right)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

Proof. We show that $F(x)$ is EA-equivalent to the planar monomial $x^{q^{k}+1}$. Indeed,

$$
F(x)=x^{q^{n-k}+1}-u x^{q^{k}+1}=\left(x^{q^{n-k}}-u x\right) \circ x^{q^{k}+1}
$$

and the assumtions on $k$ and $u$ ensure that $x^{q^{n-k}}-u x$ is bijective and $x^{q^{k}+1}$ is planar.

Our next goal is to describe further families of planar products $X \cdot L(X)$ using Theorem 1. To our knowledge the only linearized polynomials $L$ for which the sets $\mathcal{M}(L)$ are known are $X, X^{q^{k}}-u X, \operatorname{Tr}(X)=X+X^{q}+\ldots+X^{q^{n-1}}$ or some natural transformations of these polynomials.

Open Problem. Find new families of linearized permutation polynomials $L$ with $|\{\beta,-\beta\} \cap \mathcal{M}(L)| \geq 1$ for any $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

The next result was proved in [10,11] by different approaches. In [10] it is shown that the mappings of Theorem 2 can be obtained from the mapping $x \mapsto x^{2}$ via EA-equivalence. We show that this result can be proved by using Theorem 1 as well.

Theorem 2. Let $u \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$. The mapping $F(x)=x^{2}+u x^{q+1}$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ if and only if $1-u^{q+1}$ is a square in the subfield $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Proof. The statement is true for $u=0$, so let $u \neq 0$. By Proposition 1 if $F(x)$ is planar then $x+u x^{q}$ is bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$, which is equivalent to $u^{q+1} \neq 1$. Further we apply Theorem 1 with $L(x)=x+u x^{q}$. Let $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ be such that both $L(x)+\beta x=u x^{q}+(1+\beta) x$ and $L(x)-\beta x=u x^{q}+(1-\beta) x$ are not bijective on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$. This is the case if and only if the elements $-(1+\beta) / u$ and $-(1-\beta) / u$ are $(q-1)$ st powers in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$, or equivalently if it holds:

$$
\left(\frac{\beta+1}{u}\right)^{q+1}=\left(\frac{\beta-1}{u}\right)^{q+1}=1 .
$$

In particular, it must hold $(\beta+1)^{q+1}=(\beta-1)^{q+1}$, which implies $\beta^{q}=-\beta$. Hence,

$$
\left(\frac{\beta+1}{u}\right)^{q+1}=\frac{-\beta^{2}-\beta+\beta+1}{u^{q+1}}=1,
$$

which yields

$$
\beta^{2}=-u^{q+1}+1
$$

Note that $1-u^{q+1}$ is an element in the subfield $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Moreover $\beta \notin \mathbb{F}_{q}$, since $\beta=-\beta^{q}$. Hence, $F(x)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ only if $1-u^{q+1}$ is a square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Finally, we show that this condition is necessary as well. Indeed, let $1-u^{q+1} \neq 0$
be a non-square in $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Suppose, $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{2}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{q}$ satisfies $\beta^{2}=-u^{q+1}+1$. Then necessarily $\beta^{q}=-\beta$, since $\beta$ and $-\beta$ are the zeros of the irreducible polynomial $X^{2}-\left(1-u^{q+1}\right)$ in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2}}$ and therefor $-\beta$ is the conjugate of $\beta$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. To complete the proof it remains to note that for this $\beta$ it holds

$$
\left(\frac{\beta+1}{u}\right)^{q+1}=\left(\frac{\beta-1}{u}\right)^{q+1}=1 .
$$

In the remaining part of the paper we consider the case $L(X)=\operatorname{Tr}(X)$, where $\operatorname{Tr}(X)$ is the polynomial describing the trace mapping from $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ onto $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Proposition 4. [1, 13] For the trace mapping $\operatorname{Tr}$ from $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ onto $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ it holds $\mathcal{M}(\operatorname{Tr})=\left\{\gamma \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}: \operatorname{Tr}\left(\gamma^{-1}\right) \neq-1\right\}$.

Theorem 3. Let $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}$ with $\operatorname{Tr}\left((2 a)^{-1}\right) \neq-1$. Then $F(X)=X \cdot(\operatorname{Tr}(X)+$ aX) is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ if and only if there is no $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ such that $\operatorname{Tr}\left(z^{-1}\right)=-1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left((z-2 a)^{-1}\right)=1$.

Proof. By Proposition 4 it holds

$$
\mathcal{M}:=\mathcal{M}(\operatorname{Tr}(x)+a x)=\left\{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}: \alpha \neq-a \text { and } \operatorname{Tr}\left((a+\alpha)^{-1}\right) \neq-1\right\} .
$$

By Theorem 1, $F(x)$ is planar if and only if at least one of $\beta$ or $-\beta$ belongs to $\mathcal{M}$ for any non-zero $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. First we consider the case that $\beta \in\{-a, a\}$. Note that $a \in \mathcal{M}$ as $a \neq-a$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left((2 a)^{-1}\right) \neq-1$. Hence if $\beta \in\{-a, a\}$, then either $\beta$ or $-\beta$ is contained in $\mathcal{M}$. It remains to show that if $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \backslash\{0,-a, a\}$, then either $\beta$ or $-\beta$ is contained in $\mathcal{M}$. Assume the contrary and hence we have $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}} \backslash\{0,-a, a\}$ with $\operatorname{Tr}\left((a+\beta)^{-1}\right)=-1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left((a-\beta)^{-1}\right)=-1$. Putting $z=a+\beta$ we obtain $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ with $a-\beta=-(z-2 a), \operatorname{Tr}\left(z^{-1}\right)=-1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left((z-2 a)^{-1}\right)=-\operatorname{Tr}\left((a-\beta)^{-1}\right)=1$. Using the condition in the statement we complete the proof.

Remark 1. If $a=0$ in Theorem 3, then $F(x)=x \cdot(\operatorname{Tr}(x))$ is not planar by Proposition 1, since $\operatorname{Tr}(x)$ is not bijective. Further let $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}^{*}$ with $\operatorname{Tr}\left((2 a)^{-1}\right)=-1$. Then $a \notin \mathcal{M}(\operatorname{Tr}(x)+a x)$ and $-a \notin \mathcal{M}(\operatorname{Tr}(x)+a x)$. Hence also for such an $a$ the mapping $F(x)=x \cdot(\operatorname{Tr}(x)+a x)$ is not planar (see Theorem 1).

Corollaries 1 and 2 show, that the conditions of Theorem 3 are satisfied for $n=3$ and $a=-1,-2$.

Corollary 1. The mapping $F(x)=x^{q^{2}+1}+x^{q+1}$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{3}}$. Equivalently, there is no $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{3}}$ satisfying $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=-1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z+2}\right)=1$.

Proof. The statement follows from Proposition 3 and Theorem 3
Corollary 2. The mapping $G(x)=x^{q^{2}+1}+x^{q+1}-x^{2}$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{3}}$.

Proof. Note that $G(x)=x(\operatorname{Tr}(x)-2 x)$ and hence we can use Theorem 3 with $a=-2$. Suppose there is $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{3}}$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=-1 \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z+4}\right)=1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that then $z \notin \mathbb{F}_{q}$. Indeed, for $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ condition (1)

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)=\frac{3}{z}=-1 \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Tr}\left(\frac{1}{z+4}\right)=\frac{3}{z+4}=1 .
$$

reduces to $z=-3$ and $z=-1$, which cannot be satisfied. Let $z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{3}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{q}$ which satisfies (1). As in the proof of Corollary 1 already shown the minimal polynomial of $z$ over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ is of the following shape

$$
M_{z}(X)=X^{3}+a_{2} X^{2}+b X+b
$$

The minimal polynomial of $z+4$ is $M_{z+4}(X)=M_{z}(X-4)$, and hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{z+4}(X) & =(X-4)^{3}+a_{2}(X-4)^{2}+b(X-4)+b \\
& =X^{3}+\left(a_{2}-12\right) X^{2}+\left(48-8 a_{2}+b\right) X-64+16 a_{2}-3 b
\end{aligned}
$$

To ensure $\operatorname{Tr}\left((z+4)^{-1}\right)=1$ it must hold

$$
48-8 a_{2}+b=64-16 a_{2}+3 b
$$

and hence $b=4 a_{2}-8$. Substituting this value of $b$ in $M_{z}(X)$, we get

$$
M_{z}(X)=X^{3}+a_{2} X^{2}+\left(4 a_{2}-8\right) X+4 a_{2}-8
$$

a contradiction, since $X=-2$ is a zero of the latter polynomial.
Remark 2. Observe that the planar mappings described in Corollaries 1 and 2 are EA-equivalent to the monomial planar mapping $x^{q+1}$. Indeed, for $F(x)$ this follows from the proof of Proposition 3, and in the case of $G(x)$ from the following equality

$$
\left(x^{q^{2}}+x^{q}-x\right)^{q+1}=\left(-x^{q^{2}}+x^{q}+x\right) \circ G(x) .
$$

In the following theorem we show that if $n$ is sufficiently large, then there is no $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ such that $F(X)=X \cdot(\operatorname{Tr}(X)+a X)$ is planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. This is a result obtained using Theorem 3 and Remark 1, which is in the oppositive direction of the existence results given above.

Theorem 4. Let $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ and $F(X)=X \cdot(\operatorname{Tr}(X)+a X)$. If one the following conditions hold, then $F(X)$ is not planar on $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ :
$-q \geq 23$ and $n \geq 12$,
$-q \in\{11,13,17,19\}$ and $n \geq 13$,
$-q=9$ and $n \geq 14$,
$-q=7$ and $n \geq 15$.
$-q=5$ and $n \geq 16$.
$-q=3$ and $n \geq 19$.
Proof. Using Remark 1, we can assume that $a \neq 0$. Let $f_{1}(z)$ and $f_{2}(z)$ be the rational functions in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}(z)$ given by

$$
f_{1}(z)=\frac{1}{z} \text { and } f_{2}(z)=\frac{1}{z-2 a}
$$

We use Theorem 1.1 from [4]. Let $p$ be the characteristic of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$. Recall that the set $\left\{f_{1}(z), f_{2}(z)\right\}$ is strongly linearly independent over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ (cf. [4]) if there is no $a_{1}, a_{2}, \epsilon \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ and $h(z) \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}(z)$ such that $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right) \neq(0,0)$ and

$$
a_{1} f_{1}(z)+a_{2} f_{2}(z)=h(z)^{p}-h(z)+\epsilon .
$$

We use some simple facts from the theory of algebraic function fields (cf. [17] or [15]). Let $P_{1}$ be the place of $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}(z)$ corresponding to the zero of $z$ and let $\nu_{P_{1}}$ denote the normalized discrete valuation corresponding to $P_{1}$.

Assume that $a_{1} \neq 0$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu_{P_{1}}\left(h(z)^{p}-h(z)+\epsilon\right)=\nu_{P_{1}}\left(a_{1} f_{1}(z)+a_{2} f_{2}(z)\right)=\nu_{P_{1}}\left(f_{1}(z)\right)=-1 . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $\nu_{P_{1}}(h(z))<0$, indeed otherwise, using the triangle inequality of valuations (cf. [17, Definition 1.1.9]) we get

$$
\nu_{P_{1}}\left(h(z)^{p}-h(z)+\epsilon\right) \geq \min \left\{\nu_{P_{1}}\left(h(z)^{p}\right), \nu_{P_{1}}(h(z)), \nu_{P_{1}}(\epsilon)\right\} \geq 0,
$$

which is a contradiction to (2). As $\nu_{P_{1}}(h(z))<0$, we have $\nu_{P_{1}}(\epsilon)>\nu_{P_{1}}(h(z))>$ $\nu_{P_{1}}\left(h(z)^{p}\right)$. Then using the strict triangle inequality of valuations (cf. [17, Lemma 1.1.11]) we obtain that $\nu_{P_{1}}\left(h(z)^{p}-h(z)+\epsilon\right)=p \nu_{P_{1}}(h(z))=p \ell$, where $\ell=$ $\nu_{P_{1}}(h(z))$ is a negative integer. This is again a contradiction to (2). Therefore we get that $a_{1}=0$. Similarly we show that $a_{2}=0$. This proves that the set $\left\{f_{1}(z), f_{2}(z)\right\}$ is strongly linearly independent over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$.

Under the notation of [4, Theorem 1.1] we have $r=2, \operatorname{deg} f_{1}(z)=\operatorname{deg} f_{2}(z)=$ $1=m, t_{1}=-1, t_{2}=1, \ell=1$. Then there exists a primitive element $\gamma \in \mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ such that $\operatorname{Tr}\left(\gamma^{-1}\right)=-1$ and $\operatorname{Tr}\left((\gamma-2 a)^{-1}\right)=1$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
n>4\left(2+\log _{q}(9.8 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)\right), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\log _{q}$ is the logarithm with respect to base $q$. It is easy to check the (3) is satisfied if one of the conditions in the statement of the theorem holds. For example if $q \geq 23$, then $4\left(2+\log _{q}(9.8 \cdot 2)\right) \leq 4\left(2+\log _{23}(9.8 \cdot 2)\right)=11.7959 \ldots$ This completes the proof.

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