RELATIVE DIFFERENCE SETS¹

BY

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1. Introduction

DEFINITION 1.1. A set R of k elements in a group G of order mn is a difference set of G relative to a normal subgroup H of order $n \neq mn$ if the collection of differences r - s; $r, s \in R, r \neq s$ contains only the elements of G which are not in H, and contains every such element exactly d times.

This "relative difference set" will be denoted by R(m, n, k, d). It is to be understood that R(m, n, k, d) is in a group G of order mn relative to a normal subgroup H of order n unless the group and normal subgroup are specified explicitly.

If n = 1, R is an ordinary difference set with parameters (m, k, d), and this will be denoted by D(m, k, d).

Difference sets in a cyclic group have been studied extensively by such authors as Marshall Hall [5], E. Lehmer [6], and H. B. Mann [7] to name only very few, and more recently this concept has been extended to an arbitrary group by R. H. Bruck [1], H. B. Mann [8], and P. Kesava Menon [10].

The concept of a relative difference set was introduced by A. T. Butson [2]. He considered the cyclic group, and obtained a class of cyclic relative difference sets. He also gave a necessary condition for the existence of cyclic R(m, n, k, d).

In this paper, we consider relative difference sets in an arbitrary group. We first show that the existence of an R(m, n, k d) implies the existence of a $D(m, k, \lambda)$ where $\lambda = nd$; and, in this case, the R(m, n, k, d) will be called an extension of the $D(m, k, \lambda)$.

In Sections 3 and 4, $R(p^N, p, p^N, p^{N-1})$ and $R(p^{2N}, p^2, p^{2N}, p^{2N-2})$ are constructed in an elementary Abelian *p*-group, where *p* is an odd prime. In the elementary Abelian 2-group, two classes of $R(2^{2N}, 2, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1})$ are constructed. It will be shown in Section 6 that a relative difference set in an elementary Abelian 2-group is, necessarily, an $R(2^{2N}, 2^s, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-s})$, (unless it is an $R(2^6, 2, 36, 10)$).

For cyclic groups, we are able to enlarge the class described in [2]. We also show, in direct contrast to the situation in elementary Abelian groups, that no cyclic R(m, n, m, d), nd = m, n > 1, m > 2, exists.

In Section 7, we prove a "Multiplier Theorem" for relative difference sets. The proof generalizes H. B. Mann's proof of Marshall Hall's "Multiplier Theorem" for difference sets. In Section 8, further results for multipliers

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are established; and, finally, in Section 9, it is shown that no

$$R(p^r = 4t - 1, t - 1, 2t - 1, 1),$$

extensions of the quadratic residue difference sets, can exist.

2. Preliminary results

THEOREM 2.1. If R is an R(m, n, k, d) and if σ is a homomorphism of G onto $\sigma(G)$ with kernel $K \subseteq H$, then $\sigma(R)$ is an R(m, s, k, td) of $\sigma(G)$ relative to $\sigma(H)$, where n = ts, and t is the order of K.

To see this, let $g \in G$ and $g \notin H$. Then there exist exactly td pairs $r, s \in R$ such that $\sigma(g) = \sigma(r) - \sigma(s)$; and, since $K \subseteq H, \sigma(r) \neq \sigma(s)$. If $g \in H$ and $\sigma(g) = \sigma(r) - \sigma(s)$ for some $r, s \in R$, then clearly r = s, and thus the theorem is proved.

COROLLARY 2.1.1. If L is a normal subgroup of G of order t, and $L \subseteq H$, then the existence of an R(m, n, k, d) implies the existence of an R(m, s, k, td), where ts = n, in G/L relative to H/L.

This is clear if we let the homomorphism of Theorem 2.1 be the natural map of G onto G/L.

Due to its importance, the special case in which L = H is stated separately.

COROLLARY 2.1.2. The existence of an R(m, n, k, d) implies the existence of a $D(m, k, \lambda)$ in G/H, where $\lambda = nd$.

Corollary 2.1.2 suggests the following definition.

DEFINITION 2.1. If an R = R(m, n, k, d) maps onto a $D(m, k, \lambda)$ under the natural map of G onto G/H, and if $R \neq D$, then R is called an extension of D.

Thus, in the search for R(m, n, k, d) and in attempting to prove their nonexistence, particular attention is paid to those R(m, n, k, d) which are extensions of well-known $D(m, k, \lambda)$.

It follows immediately from Corollary 2.1.2 that

(2.1)
$$k(k-1) = (m-1)nd,$$

$$(2.2) k \le m.$$

We may not, however, assume that $2k \leq m$; since, unlike a $D(m, k, \lambda)$, the complement of an R(m, n, k, d) is not necessarily an R(m', n', k', d'). Indeed, we have the result below.

THEOREM 2.2. The complement in G of an R(m, n, k, d), n > 1, is an R(m', n', k', d') if and only if n = 2 and m = k.

To show this, let R = R(m, n, k, d). If $g \in G$, and $g \notin H$, then, for exactly mn pairs of elements g_1 , $g_2 \in G$, $g = g_1 - g_2$. For exactly k of these pairs

 $g_1 \in R$, and for exactly d pairs $g_1 \in R$ and $g_2 \in R$. Thus, for exactly k - d pairs $g_1 \in R$ and $g_2 \notin R$. Hence $g_1 \notin R$ and $g_2 \notin R$ for exactly nm - 2k + d pairs.

If $g \in H$, and $g \neq 0$, then for exactly mn pairs $g_1, g_2 \in G, g = g_1 - g_2$. For exactly k of these pairs $g_1 \in R$, which implies that $g_2 \notin R$; and, for exactly k pairs $g_2 \in R$, which similarly implies that $g_1 \notin R$. Thus $g \in H, g \neq 0$, can be expressed as a difference of two elements neither of which is in R, in exactly mn - 2kways.

For m = k, and n = 2, therefore, if $g \in H$, $g \neq 0$, g cannot be expressed as a difference of two elements of the complement of R; and if $g \notin H$, then g is expressed as such a difference in mn - 2k + d ways.

Conversely, if the complement of R is an R(m', n', k', d'), it must necessarily be defined relative to the subgroup H, since $mn - 2k + d \neq mn - 2k$. Therefore, mn = 2k. By equation (2.2), $m \geq k$, and n > 1; and, thus, n = 2 and m = k, giving the required result.

If $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_{mn}\}$, and if the elements are so arranged that

$$g_i + H = \{g_i, g_{i+m}, \cdots, g_{i+(n-1)m}\}$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, we may consider the $mn \times mn$ incidence matrix A of R = R(m, n, k, d) defined by $a_{ij} = 1$, if $g_j \in g_i + R$, $a_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. Then

$$AA^{T} = A^{T}A = kI_{mn} + dJ_{mn} - d(I_{m} \otimes J_{n}),$$

where I_u is the $u \times u$ unit matrix, J_u the $u \times u$ matrix each of whose entries is one, and \otimes denotes the left Kronecker product. Thus

(2.3)
$$(\det A)^2 = k^{m(n-1)+2}(k - nd)^{m-1}$$

This proves the theorem below, which generalizes the known result for a $D(m, k, \lambda)$.

THEOREM 2.3. If an R(m, n, k, d) exists, then (i) if m is even, k - nd is a square; (ii) if m is odd, and n is even, k is a square.

3. Construction of relative difference sets in an elementary Abelian p-group, where p is an odd prime

The symbol \oplus will be used to express the direct sum, A_p will denote the additive group of integers modulo p, and throughout this section, p will be an odd prime. We will denote by G_N the elementary Abelian p-group of order p^N , with identity **0**, whose elements are expressed as N-tuples of elements of A_p .

THEOREM 3.1. Let $G = A_p \oplus G_N$ and let $H = A_p \oplus \{0\}$. If the rational integer $a_i \neq 0 \pmod{p}$, for $i = 1, \dots, N$, then

$$R = \{(f(n), n); n = (n_1, n_2, \cdots, n_N) \in G_N\},\$$

where $f(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i n_i^2 \pmod{p}$, is an $R(p^N, p, p^N, p^{N-1})$ of G relative to H.

To obtain this result, let r(n) = (f(n), n), and

$$(a, g) = (a, g_1, \cdots, g_N) \epsilon G,$$

where $(a, g) \notin H$. Then (a, g) = r(n + g) - r(n) if and only if

(3.1)
$$a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{ 2a_i \, n_i \, g_i + a_i^2 \, g_i^2 \} \pmod{p}.$$

Now there exists $g_i \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ for some $i, 1 \leq i \leq N$. Therefore, choose $n_j, j = 1, \dots, i-1, i+1, \dots, N$ arbitrarily from A_p . Since $g_i \neq 0 \pmod{p}$, for each such choice, there is a value of n_i in A_p satisfying equation (3.1).

Thus (a, g) can be expressed as a difference of two elements of R in exactly p^{N-1} ways.

Clearly, no element of H other than the identity can be expressed as such a difference.

COROLLARY 3.1.1. Corresponding to each $R(p^N, p, p^N, p^{N-1})$ of the theorem, there exists an $R(p^N, p, p^N, p^{N-1})$ of G relative to any subgroup of order p.

This result follows immediately from Theorem 2.1.

THEOREM 3.2. Let $G = A_p \oplus A_p \oplus G_{2N}$, and $H = A_p \oplus A_p \oplus \{0\}$. Let a_i be a quadratic residue modulo p for $i = 2, 4, \dots, 2N$, and a quadratic non-residue modulo p for $i = 1, 3, \dots, 2N - 1$. Then

$$R = \{(f(n), h(n), n); n = (n_1, \cdots, n_{2N}) \in G_{2N}\},\$$

where $f(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{2^{N}} a_{i} n_{i}^{2} \pmod{p}$ and $h(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} n_{2i-1} n_{2i} \pmod{p}$, is an $R(p^{2^{N}}, p^{2}, p^{2^{N}}, p^{2^{N-2}})$ of G relative to H.

To obtain this result, let r(n) = (f(n), h(n), n). If $(a, b, g) \in G$, and $(a, b, g) \notin H$, where $g = (g_1, \dots, g_{2N}) \in G_{2N}$, then (a, b, g) = r(n+g) - r(n) if and only if

(3.2)
$$a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{2N} \{2a_i n_i g_i + a_i g_i^2\} \pmod{p}$$

and

(3.3)
$$b \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{g_{2i-1}n_{2i} + g_{2i}n_{2i-1} + g_{2i-1}g_{2i}\} \pmod{p}$$

Some coordinate of g is non-zero, so suppose it is one of the pair g_{2i-1} , g_{2i} . Then choose n_j , $j = 1, 2, \dots, 2i - 2, 2i + 1, \dots, 2N$, arbitrarily in A_p . For each such choice, the conditions of the theorem ensure solutions for n_{2i-1} and n_{2i} , unique modulo p, satisfying (3.2) and (3.3). Hence $(a, b, g) \notin H$ can be expressed as a difference of two elements of R in p^{2N-2} ways, and (a, b, 0)clearly cannot be so expressed unless a = b = 0, completing the proof of this theorem.

Theorem 2.1 immediately implies the following corollaries.

COROLLARY 3.2.1. The set

$$R' = \{(h(n), n); n \in G_{2N}\}$$

is an $R(p^{2N}, p, p^{2N}, p^{2N-1})$ in $A_p \oplus G_{2N}$ relative to $A_p \oplus \{\mathbf{0}\}$.

COROLLARY 3.2.2. There exist $R(p^{2N}, p^2, p^{2N}, p^{2N-2})$ in $A_p \oplus A_p \oplus G_{2N}$ relative to any subgroup of order p^2 , and there exist $R(p^{2N}, p, p^{2N}, p^{2N-1})$ in $A_p \oplus G_{2N}$ relative to any subgroup of order p.

Relative difference sets similar to those of Corollary 3.2.1 may be constructed in $A_p \oplus G_{2N+1}$. This result is stated in the theorem below, the proof of which is entirely similar to that of Theorem 3.1.

THEOREM 3.3. Let $G = A_p \oplus G_{2N+1}$, and let $H = A_p \oplus \{\mathbf{0}\}$; then

$$R = \{(f(n), n); n = (n_1, \cdots, n_{2N+1}) \in G_{2N+1}\},\$$

where

 $f(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} (n_{2i-1} n_{2i} + n_{2N+1}^2) \pmod{p},$

is an $R(p^{2N+1}, p, p^{2N+1}, p^{2N})$ of G relative to H.

Again, appropriate isomorphisms give $R(p^{2N+1}, p, p^{2N+1}, p^{2N})$ of G relative to any subgroup of order p.

4. Construction of relative difference sets in an elementary Abelian 2-group

In this section, K_N will denote the elementary Abelian 2-group of order 2^N whose elements are N-tuples of elements of A_2 , the additive group of integers modulo 2. The identity of K_N will be denoted by **0**.

THEOREM 4.1. Let $G = A_2 \oplus K_{2N}$, $H = A_2 \oplus \{\mathbf{0}\}$, and

$$M = \{g = (g_1, \dots, g_{2N}) \in K_{2N}; \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{2N} g_i \equiv 0 \quad or \quad 1 \pmod{4} \}$$

Then

$$R \,=\, \{(0,\,g)\,;\,g\,\epsilon\,M\}$$
 U $\{(1,\,g)\,;\,g\,\epsilon\,K_{2N}\,,\,g\,\epsilon\,M\}$

is an $R(2^{2N}, 2, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1})$ of G relative to H.

To prove this, it is first noted that M is a Menon

$$D(2^{2^{N}}, 2^{2^{N-1}} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2^{N-2}} \pm 2^{N-1}),$$

[10]. The complement of M in K_{2N} is, therefore, a

$$D(2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1} \mp 2^{N-1}, 2^{2N-2} \mp 2^{N-1}).$$

Thus, if $(0, g) \in G$, $g \neq \mathbf{0}$, then (0, g) = (0, a) - (0, b), for exactly $2^{2N} \pm 2^{N-1}$ pairs of elements $a \in M$, $b \in M$; and (0, g) = (1, a) - (1, b) for exactly $2^{2N-2} \mp 2^{N-1}$ pairs $a \notin M$, $b \notin M$. Hence (0, g), where $g \neq \mathbf{0}$, can be expressed as a difference of two elements of R in exactly 2^{2N-1} ways. However, g = a - b for exactly $2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}$ pairs a, b where $a \notin M$ and

However, g = a - b for exactly $2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}$ pairs a, b where $a \in M$ and $b \in K_{2N}$, and for exactly $2^{2N-2} \pm 2^{N-1}$ of these pairs, $b \in M$; thus, for exactly 2^{2N-2} pairs $a \in M$, $b \notin M$. Similarly, for exactly 2^{2N-2} pairs $a \notin M$, $b \notin M$. Hence $(1, g), g \neq 0$, is expressed as a difference of two elements of R in 2^{2N-1} ways.

Clearly, (1, 0) cannot be so expressed, and thus the proof of Theorem 4.1 is completed.

We have also the following $R(2^{2N}, 2, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1})$.

THEOREM 4.2. If $G = A_2 \oplus K_{2N}$, and $H = A_2 \oplus \{\mathbf{0}\}$, then

 $R = \{(h(n), n) \in G; n = (n_1, \cdots, n_{2N}) \in K_{2N}\}$

where $h(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} n_{2i-1} n_{2i} \pmod{2}$, is an $R(2^{2N}, 2, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1})$ of G relative to H.

To see this, let r(n) = (h(n), n), and choose $(a, g) \in G$, $g \neq 0$. Then (a, g) = r(n + g) - r(n) if and only if

$$a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \{g_{2i-1} n_{2i} + g_{2i} n_{2i-1} + g_{2i-1} g_{2i}\} \pmod{2}.$$

The proof then proceeds similarly to the proof of Theorem 3.1.

COROLLARY 4.2.1. The complements of the relative difference sets of Theorems 4.1 and 4.2 are relative difference sets.

5. Construction of cyclic relative difference sets

In [2] a class of cyclic relative difference sets was constructed with parameters $((p^{N}-1)/(p-1), (p-1), p^{N-1}, p^{N-2})$, where p is a prime. This result generalizes to a power of a prime. These relative difference sets are constructed from maximal length linearly recurring sequences [11].

THEOREM 5.1. For each m-sequence over a field of $q = p^s$ elements, there exists a cyclic

$$R((q^{N}-1)/(q-1), q-1, q^{N-1}, q^{N-2}),$$

where $q^{N} - 1$ is the period of the m- sequence.

The proof proceeds exactly as for [2]. If $\{a_i : i = 0, 1, \dots\}$ is the given m-sequence, then $\{i; 0 \leq i < q^N - 1, a_i = 1\}$ is the derived difference set in the group of additive integers modulo $(q^N - 1)$.

COROLLARY 5.1.1. There exist cyclic $R((q^N - 1)/(q - 1), n, q^{N-1}, q^{N-2}d)$, where nd = q - 1.

This follows from Theorem 2.1.

6. Non-existence

Any relative difference set in an elementary Abelian 2-group is obviously an extension of a difference set also in an elementary Abelian 2-group. It has been shown by H. B. Mann [9, Theorem 7.1] that such difference sets have either the parameters of the Menon difference sets, or else they are trivial difference sets: that is, the $D(m, k, \lambda)$ in an elementary Abelian 2-group are

- (a) $D(2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2N-2} \pm 2^{N-1}),$ (b) $D(2^N, 2^N 1, 2^N 2),$ or (c) $D(2^N, 2^N, 2^N).$

We now show that the Menon difference sets have no extensions in an elementary Abelian 2-group, with the possible exception of $D(2^6, 36, 20)$; and, further, if any relative difference set does exist in an elementary Abelian 2-group, it is necessarily an $R(2^{2^N}, 2^s, 2^{2^N}, 2^{2^{N-s}})$, (again with the possible exception of $R(2^6, 2, 36, 10)$). This result is stated in the theorem below, which is proved in several lemmas.

THEOREM 6.1. In an elementary Abelian 2-group no R(m, n, k, d) can exist other than an $R(2^{2N}, 2^s, 2^{2N}, 2^{2N-s})$, except possibly an $R(2^6, 2, 36, 10)$.

LEMMA 6.1.1. The $D(2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2N-2} \pm 2^{N-1})$ have no extensions in an elementary Abelian 2-group, unless that extension is an $R(2^6, 2, 36, 10)$.

To prove Lemma 6.1.1, suppose that such an extension does exist. Theorem 2.1 then implies the existence of an extension

$$R = R(2^{2N}, 2, 2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2N-3} \pm 2^{N-2})$$

in an elementary Abelian 2-group, G. The elements of G may be expressed as (2N + 1)-tuples of ones and zeros; and, since any subgroup of order 2 may be mapped isomorphically onto $\{(i, 0, \dots, 0) \in G; i = 0, 1\}$, it may be assumed that this set is H.

Let t be the number of elements of R with first coordinate one. Counting the number of differences of elements of R of the form $(1, g_2, \dots, g_{2N+1})$ yields the equation

$$2t(2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1} - t) = (2^{2N} - 1)(2^{2N-3} \pm 2^{N-2}).$$

Solving for t we obtain

$$2t = 2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1} \pm \sqrt{2^{2N-1}} \pm 2^{N-1}.$$

Therefore $(2^N \pm 1) = x^2$, where x is a rational integer. Since $N \ge 3$, $2^N - 1 = x^2$ yields an impossibility for $x^2 \not\equiv -1 \pmod{4}$.

Now consider $2^{N} + 1 = x^{2}$. Then x + 1 and x - 1 are two positive integers differing by 2, and are both powers of 2. This is possible only if x = 3 and N = 3. Thus no extension of a $D(2^{2N}, 2^{2N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2N-2} \pm 2^{N-1})$ other than a $D(2^{6}, 36, 20)$ exists in an elementary Abelian 2-group.

To complete the proof of the lemma, we note that if an R(m, n, k, d) exists in an elementary Abelian 2-group, then n must be a power of two. Since g = r - r' implies that g = r' - r, d must necessarily be even. This shows that the only possible extension of a $D(2^6, 36, 20)$ is an $R(2^6, 2, 36, 10)$, completing the proof of Lemma 6.1.1. It also proves the following lemma.

LEMMA 6.1.2. In an elementary Abelian 2-group, no extension of a $D(2^N, 2^N - 1, 2^N - 2)$ can exist.

To complete the proof of Theorem 6.1, we need only to prove the following lemma.

LEMMA 6.1.3. If an extension R of a $D(2^N, 2^N, 2^N)$ exists in an elementary Abelian 2-group G, then N is even.

To see this, it is first noted that the existence of R implies, by Theorem 2.1, the existence also of an $R(2^N, 2, 2^N, 2^{N-1})$ in an elementary Abelian 2-group. We may, therefore, assume that this is R. Expressing the elements of G as (N + 1)-tuples of ones and zeros, it may be assumed, again by Theorem 2.1, that $H = \{(i, 0, 0, \dots, 0); i = 0, 1\}$. Let t be the number of elements of R with first coordinate 1. Counting the number of ways in which elements of G with first coordinate 1 can be expressed as a difference of two elements of R yields the equation $2t(2^N - t) = (2^N - 1)2^{N-1}$. Therefore, N must be even, and the proofs of Lemma 6.1.3 and, consequently, Theorem 6.1 are complete.

In an elementary Abelian *p*-group, R(m, n, m, d), where nd = m, have been constructed. In a cyclic group, the situation is entirely different, as the following theorem shows.

THEOREM 6.2. In a cyclic group, there exist no R(m, n, m, d), where nd = m, if n > 1 and m > 2.

To prove this theorem, it is sufficient to consider the group G of additive integers modulo mn. We suppose that R = R(m, n, m, d), nd = m, n > 1, does exist, and $H = \{im; i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$. Since no two distinct elements of R are congruent modulo m, and since R contains m elements, there must exist an $r(i) \in R$ such that $r(i) \equiv i \pmod{m}$ for each $i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1$; that is, $R = \{r(i) = i + a(i)m; i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$. For each $b, 1 \leq b < m-1$,

$$r(i+b) - r(i) \equiv b + [a(i+b) - a(i)]m \pmod{mn}$$

for $i = 0, 1, \cdots, m - 1 - b$,

$$r(i+b-m) - r(i) \equiv b + [a(i+b-m) - a(i) - 1]m \pmod{mn}$$

for $i = m - b, m - b + 1, \dots, m - 1$.

Thus the collection of integers a(i+b) - a(i); $i = 0, 1, \dots, m-1-b$, and a(i+b-m) - a(i) - 1; $i = m-b, \dots, m-1$ together forms a complete set of residues modulo n replicated d times. Adding the elements in this collection gives

(6.1)
$$(-1)b \equiv d\{1+2+\dots+(n-1)\} \pmod{n}$$
 for each $b, 1 \le b \le m-1$

Since n > 1, for m > 2, letting b = 1 and b = 2 in equation (6.1) gives a contradiction, proving the theorem.

It is noted that cyclic R(2, 2, 2, 1) do exist.

7. The multiplier theorem

Throughout the remainder of this paper all groups considered will be Abelian; and v^* will denote the L.C.M. of the orders of the elements of the group G.

DEFINITION 7.1. Let R be an R(m, n, k, d), and let t be a rational integer such that

$$\{tr; r \in R\} = \{r + g; r \in R\}$$

for some $g \in G$, then t is called a multiplier of R. If g = 0, R is said to be fixed by t.

Multipliers of relative difference sets play a part in the study of R(m, n, k, d) comparable to that of multipliers in the study of $D(m, k, \lambda)$. In this section a "Multiplier Theorem", Theorem 7.1, is proved. The proof parallels the proof of the "Multiplier Theorem" for difference sets as proved by H. B. Mann [9, Theorem 7.3].

THEOREM 7.1. If t is a multiplier of a $D = D(m, k, \lambda)$, where $\lambda = nd$, $k \equiv 0 \pmod{k'}, k' > d, k' = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_s^{e_s}$, where the p_i are distinct primes, and if there exist f_i , $i = 1, \dots, s$ such that $p_i^{f_i} \equiv t \pmod{v^*}$, then t is a multiplier of every R(m, n, k, d) which is an extension of D.

To prove Theorem 7.1, we consider the group ring A of G over the rational integers I, and following the notation in [9] express the elements of A as polynomials, $F(x) = \sum_{g \in G} f_g x^g$, where $f_g \in I$. In particular, if S is a set of elements of G, then S(x) denotes the element of A defined by $S(x) = \sum_{g \in S} x^g$. The mn characters of G will be denoted by χ_i , $i = 1, \dots, mn$, where χ_1 is the principal character, and χ_i , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, is the identity on the subgroup H.

If $F(x) \epsilon A$, where $F(x) = \sum_{g \epsilon G} f_g x^g$ and $f_g \epsilon I$, then we define

$$\chi_i(F(x)) = \sum_{g \in G} f_g \chi_i(g)$$
 for $i = 1, \cdots, mn$.

The proof of Theorem 7.1 will be given in several lemmas.

LEMMA 7.1.1. If $C(x) \in A$, a is a rational integer such that (a, mn) = 1,

$$\begin{array}{ll} \chi_1(C(x)) \equiv (m-1)nd \pmod{a}, \\ \chi_i(D(x)) \equiv -nd \qquad (\text{mod } a) \end{array} \qquad for \quad i=2,3,\cdots,m, \end{array}$$

and

$$\chi_i(C(x)) \equiv 0$$
 (mod a) for $i = m + 1, \dots, mn$,

then

$$C(x) = d[G(x) - H(x)] + aF(x), \quad \text{where} \quad F(x) \in A.$$

Letting $C(x) = \sum_{g \in G} c_g x^g$, where $c_g \in I$, then the inversion formula [9, 7.6] states that $mnc_g = \sum_{i=1}^{mn} \chi_i(C(x))\chi_i(x^{-g})$, for each $g \in G$. Hence

$$mnc_g \equiv (m-1)n \ d - n \ d \sum_{i=2}^m \chi_i(x^{-g}) \pmod{a}.$$

Therefore, if $g \in H$, then $c_g \equiv 0 \pmod{a}$; and, if $g \in H$, since the χ_i , $i = 1, \dots, m$, may be regarded as characters on the factor group G/H, then $c_g \equiv d \pmod{a}$. Hence C(x) = d[G(x) - H(x)] + aF(x), where $F(x) \in A$.

LEMMA 7.1.2. Let R and R^* be two R(m, n, k, d) both in G, and both relative to H such that

(7.1)
$$R(x^{-1})R^*(x) = d[G(x) - x^{\theta}H(x)] + k'F(x),$$

where k' > d, $F(x) \in A$,

and

(7.2)
$$R^*(x)H(x) = R(x)H(x).$$

Then $R^*(x) = x^a R(x)$, where $a \in g + H$.

To prove this, it is first noted that

(7.3)
$$R(x)R(x^{-1}) = R^*(x)R^*(x^{-1}) = d[G(x) - H(x)] + k.$$

Multiplying (7.1) by H(x), and using (7.2) yields, upon simplification,

(7.4)
$$k'F(x)H(x) = kx^{\theta}H(x).$$

The principal character applied to (7.4) gives

(7.5)
$$k'\chi_1(F(x)) = k.$$

Applying the automorphism $x \to x^{-1}$ to equations (7.1) and (7.4) yields

(7.6)
$$R(x)R^*(x^{-1}) = d[G(x) - x^{-g}H(x)] + k'F(x^{-1}),$$

and

(7.7)
$$k'F(x^{-1})H(x) = kx^{-g}H(x).$$

Then multiplying equation (7.1) by (7.6) and simplifying gives

(7.8)
$$k'^2 F(x) F(x^{-1}) = k^2.$$

As in the proof for difference sets, since k' > d, it is clear from equation (7.1) that the coefficients of F(x) are non-negative. Thus, (7.8) implies that F(x) contains one term only; that is, $k'F(x) = kx^a$, for some $a \in G$. Equation (7.4) yields the fact that $a \in g + H$, and multiplying (7.6) by $R^*(x)$ and simplifying we have $R^*(x) = x^a R(x)$.

LEMMA 7.1.3. Let R and R^* be two R(m, n, k, d) of G relative to H, where $k \equiv 0 \pmod{p^i}, j > 0$, and (p, mn) = 1. If (7.9) $(\chi_i(R(x)), p^j) = (\chi_i(R^*(x)), p^j)$ for $i = m + 1, \dots, mn$,

and

(7.10)
$$R^*(x)H(x) = x^g R(x)H(x) \text{ for some } g \in G,$$

then

$$R(x^{-1})R^*(x) = d[G(x) - x^{\theta}H(x)] + p^{i}F(x), \quad \text{where} \quad F(x) \in A.$$

In order to obtain this result, we note that (7.3) holds and, therefore,

$$(7.11) \qquad \chi_i(R(x^{-1}))\chi_i(R(x)) \equiv \chi_i(R^*(x))\chi_i(R^*(x^{-1})) \pmod{p^i}$$

for $i = m + 1, \cdots, mn$.

From equations (7.9) and (7.11), we thus have that

(7.12) $\chi_i(R(x^{-1}))\chi_i(R^*(x)) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^i}$ for $i = m + 1, \dots, mn$; and, since the characters χ_i , $i = 1, \dots, m$, may be regarded as the *m* characters of the group G/H, equations (7.10) and (7.3) imply that

(7.13)
$$\chi_i(R(x^{-1}))\chi_i(R^*(x)) \equiv -\chi_i(x^g)nd \pmod{p^i}$$
 for $i = 2, \dots, m$,
and

(7.14)
$$\chi_1(R(x^{-1}))\chi_1(R^*(x)) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^i}.$$

We now infer from Lemma 7.1.1 that

$$x^{-g}R(x^{-1})R^*(x) = d[G(x) - H(x)] + p^{i}F(x),$$
 where $F(x) \in A$.

Multiplication by x^{g} , completes the proof of this lemma.

To prove Theorem 7.1, it is first observed that since t is a multiplier of the difference set induced in G/H, then $R(x^t)H(x) = x^{\theta}R(x)H(x)$, for some $g \in G$. The proof of the theorem now follows exactly as for difference sets, [9, Theorem 7.3].

8. Further theorems concerning multipliers

In this section, we include some useful results concerning multipliers. Theorems 8.1, 8.2 and 8.5 are generalizations of theorems of H. B. Mann, [9, Theorem 7.2, Corollaries 7.4.1, 7.7.1], and Theorem 8.6 extends a result of Marshall Hall, Jr., [4, Theorem 4.6].

THEOREM 8.1. Let t be a multiplier of an R(m, n, k, d), where $mn \equiv 0 \pmod{v'}$, and $m \neq 0 \pmod{v'}$, and let p be a prime divisor of k. If there exists an f such that $tp^{f} \equiv -1 \pmod{v'}$, then k is exactly divisible by an even power of p.

The hypothesis of the above theorem ensures that there exists a character χ of G which maps the elements of G into v'^{th} roots of unity, and which is not the identity on H.

Then $\chi(R(x)R(x^{-1})) = k \equiv 0 \pmod{p^{i}}$, where p^{i} divides k. The proof then follows as for a difference set. We refer the reader to [9, Page 76].

We note that if R is any R(m, n, k, d) such that $k \neq m$, then from equations (2.1) and (2.2), k - nd > 0; thus, by equation (2.3), the incidence matrix of

R is non-singular. We therefore have the further analogue of a result for difference sets.

THEOREM 8.2. If t is a multiplier of R(m, n, k, d), where $m \neq k$, then some translate g + R, $g \in G$, is fixed by t.

If, further, (t - 1, mn) = 1, then this translate is fixed by all multipliers.

The following theorem concerns relative difference sets fixed by a multiplier, and this theorem is used in the proof of Theorem 9.1.

THEOREM 8.3. Let t be a multiplier of an R(m, n, k, d) = R, where (km, n) = 1 and (t - 1, n) = n. If R is an extension of a D(m, k, nd) = D, and if D is fixed by t, then R is fixed by t.

To prove this let $tR = \{tr; r \in R\} = \{r + a; r \in R\}$ where $a \in G$. Consideration of the difference set, D, at once shows that $a \in H$, and, consequently, na = 0. However, for each $r \in R$, there exists $r' \in R$ such that tr = r' + a. Therefore, $(t-1)\pi = ka$, where $\pi = \sum_{r \in R} r$; and, since n divides t-1, ka has order a divisor of m. Now na = 0 and (km, n) = 1, hence a = 0, proving the theorem.

THEOREM 8.4. If t is a multiplier of an R(m, n, k, d), and if $t^e \equiv 1 \pmod{m^*}$, where m^* is the L.C.M. of the orders of the elements of G/H, then $t^e \equiv 1 \pmod{v^*}$.

To obtain this result, we may, by Theorem 8.2, assume that R = R(m, n, k, d)is fixed by the multiplier t^{ϵ} . Since it is assumed that m > 1, it is first noted that there exists $g \in G$ of order v^* such that $g \notin H$. For each $r \in R$, there exists $r' \in R$ such that $t^{\epsilon}r = r'$. Consideration of the factor group G/H then reveals that $r \in r' + H$; and, by the definition of a relative difference set, therefore, r = r'. Thus, for every $r \in R$, $(t^{\epsilon} - 1)r = 0$. However, there exists $g \in G$, $g \notin H, g$ of order v^* , and g = r - r', for some $r, r' \in R$. Thus $(t^{\epsilon} - 1)g = 0$, giving the above result.

For the special case in which d = 1 we have two further results.

THEOREM 8.5. Let t_1 , t_2 , t_3 and t_4 be multipliers of an R(m, n, k, 1) which is fixed by all multipliers. If $t_1 + t_2 \equiv t_3 \pmod{v^*}$ and $t_2 \not\equiv t_4 \pmod{v^*}$, then $t_1 + t_4$ is not a multiplier of R.

To prove this, it is again remarked that there exists $g \in G$, $g \notin H$, and g of order v^* . The proof is now an exact analogue of that for difference sets [9, Corollary 7.7.1].

THEOREM 8.6. Let t be a multiplier of an R = R(m, n, k, d), and let R be fixed by t. Let $G' = \{g \in G; tg = g\}, H' = H \cap G'$ and $R' = R \cap G'$. Then, if $H' \neq G', R'$ is an R(m', n', k', 1) of G' relative to H' such that every multiplier of R is a multiplier of R'.

If, further, R is cyclic, then (t - 1, mn) = m'n' and (t - 1, n) = n'.

9. Further non-existence theorems

In the additive group of a Galois field K of p^N elements, where p is a prime such that $p^N \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, the quadratic residues of K form a

$$D = D(p^{N} = 4t - 1, 2t - 1, t - 1)$$

[8, Theorem 2]. Since the product of two quadratic residues is a quadratic residue, if t is any quadratic residue of K, then t is a multiplier of D and D is fixed by t. In particular, identifying the rational integers with the elements of the prime field of K, a rational integer t is a multiplier of D if t is a quadratic residue modulo p, and then, also, D is fixed by t.

We now examine relative difference sets which are extensions of quadratic residue difference sets, and are able to state the following theorem.

THEOREM 9.1. There do not exist any $R(p^N = 4t - 1, t - 1, 2t - 1, d = 1)$, where $p \neq 3$ is a prime, which are extensions of a quadratic residue

$$D(4t-1, 2t-1, t-1).$$

To prove this, suppose that R does exist and that K is the field of p^N elements in which D is defined. Now G has order $p^N(t-1)$; and, since $p \neq 3$, $(p^N, t-1) = 1$. Therefore, $G = A \oplus H$, where A is a Sylow p-subgroup of G. Thus, $A \cong G/H$, the additive group of K.

It is noted that if $g \in G$, then $g \in A$ if and only if (4t - 1)g = 0, and that $g \in H$ if and only if (t - 1)g = 0.

The case in which t is odd is considered first. Then, by Theorem 2.3, 2t - 1 is a square and is a multiplier of D. Theorem 7.2 then implies that 2t - 1 is a multiplier of R.

Now $(2t-1)^2 \equiv t \pmod{p^N(t-1)}$; and, thus, t also is a multiplier of R. Since some translate of R is fixed by 2t - 1, it may be assumed that this translate is R. Then, clearly, R is fixed by t also.

Choosing $r \in R$, $r \notin H$, then (2t - 1)r - tr = tr - r; but d = 1 and r, tr, $(2t - 1)r \in R$. Hence (t - 1)r = 0, which implies that $r \in H$, yielding a contradiction.

Now suppose that t is even. If q is any prime divisor of (2t - 1), then q^2 is a multiplier of D. Also, $(2t - 1)^2 \equiv t \pmod{p^N(t - 1)}$ and, hence, t is a multiplier of R by Theorem 7.2. By Theorem 8.3, R is fixed by t and, consequently, by t^2 which is also a multiplier.

It is noted that $0 \notin D$ so that $R \cap H = \emptyset$. Consider

$$S_1 = \{(t-1)r; r \in R\}.$$

We now show that S_1 consists of 2t - 1 distinct non-zero elements of A. For, if $s \,\epsilon \, S_1$, then (4t - 1)s = 0 and so $s \,\epsilon \, A$. If (t - 1)r = (t - 1)r' for $r, r' \epsilon R$, then $(t - 1)(r - r') = 0, r - r' \epsilon H$, and thus r = r'. If s = (t - 1)r = 0, then $r \epsilon H$, which contradicts the statement above that $R \cap H = \emptyset$. Hence S_1 does consist of (2t - 1) distinct non-zero elements of A. Now consider

$$S_{2} = \{ (t^{2} - 1)r; r \epsilon R \}.$$

It is noted that (t + 1, 4t - 1) = 1. Hence, if $(t^2 - 1)r = 0$, then (t - 1)r = 0. However, the elements of S_1 are non-zero and thus the elements of S_2 are non-zero. The elements of S_2 are also contained in A, and they are distinct; for, if $(t^2 - 1)r = (t^2 - 1)r'$, for $r, r' \in R$, then, since (t + 1, 4t - 1) = 1, (t - 1)(r - r') = 0. The elements of S_1 are distinct and thus it follows that the elements of S_2 are distinct. Therefore, S_1 and S_2 each contain 2t - 1 non-zero elements of A.

We now show that $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$. Deny this; then $tr - r = t^2 r'$ for $r, r' \in R$; but d = 1, and $r, tr, r', t^2 r' \in R$, and $(t - 1)r \neq 0$. Therefore, r = r' and $tr = t^2 r'$, yielding a contradiction.

Hence $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$, and S_1 and S_2 together consist of the 4t - 2 non-zero elements of A. Now consider $a = (t^3 - 1)r$, for arbitrary $r \in R$. Then $a \in A$, and, if $a \in S_1$, then $(t^3 - 1)r = (t - 1)r' \neq 0$, for $r' \in R$. Since d = 1, and $r, r', tr', t^3r \in R$, then r = r' and $t^3r = tr'$. This implies that $(t^2 - 1)r = 0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $a \in S_1$. Similarly it may be shown that $a \in S_2$. Therefore, $a = (t^3 - 1)r = 0$; but r was chosen arbitrarily, and, hence, $(t^3 - 1)r = 0$ for all $r \in R$. There exists $g \in A$ of order p, and g = r - r', for $r, r' \in R$. Hence, $(t^3 - 1)g = 0$, and so p divides $t^3 - 1$, and, consequently, $t^2 + t + 1$. Since p also divides 4t - 1, it may be concluded that p = 7. If p = 7, then 3 divides k, and Theorem 7.1 then implies that 9 is a multiplier of R. Applying Theorem 8.4 gives $9^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{v^*}$. Since $H \neq \{0\}$, there exists $h \in H$ of prime order q, where q divides $(t - 1), q \neq 7$; and, therefore, $9^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7q}$. This, then, yields that q = 13, and $4t - 1 = 7^N \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$.

Now N is necessarily odd, 7 is a quadratic non-residue modulo 13, giving a final contradiction, which proves the theorem.

Summary

In view of Theorem 2.1, in the search for relative difference sets and in proving their non-existence, particular attention has been paid to extensions of well-known difference sets.

Simple difference sets have obviously no extensions, and their complements, $D((r^3 - 1)/(r - 1), r^2, r)$, are, for $r \leq 1600$, a special case of the difference sets in [3], which have been shown to extend in Section 5.

The Menon difference sets have no extensions in the elementary Abelian 2-group, (with one possible exception); and, in these groups, it has been shown that only the $D(m, k, \lambda)$ with $m = k = \lambda$, may extend, (again, with one possible exception).

Trivial D(m, m, m), while extending in elementary *p*-groups, have been shown to have no extensions in the cyclic group.

Of the quadratic residue difference sets, there can be no extensions of the form $R(p^N = 4t - 1, t - 1, 2t - 1, 1)$, when $p \neq 3$.

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