# RELATIVE DIFFERENCE SETS ${ }^{1}$ 

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## 1. Introduction

Definition 1.1. A set $R$ of $k$ elements in a group $G$ of order $m n$ is a difference set of $G$ relative to a normal subgroup $H$ of order $n \neq m n$ 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 $m n$ 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 $\lambda=n d$; 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 $4, R\left(p^{N}, p, p^{N}, p^{N-1}\right)$ and $R\left(p^{2 N}, p^{2}, p^{2 N}, p^{2 N-2}\right)$ are constructed in an elementary Abelian $p$-group, where $p$ is an odd prime. In the elementary Abelian 2-group, two classes of $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2,2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-1}\right)$ are constructed. It will be shown in Section 6 that a relative difference set in an elementary Abelian 2 -group is, necessarily, an $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2^{s}, 2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-s}\right)$, (unless it is an $R\left(2^{6}, 2,36,10\right)$ ).

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 $R(m, n, m, d)$, $n d=m, n>1, m>2$, 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

[^0]are established; and, finally, in Section 9, it is shown that no
$$
R\left(p^{r}=4 t-1, t-1,2 t-1,1\right)
$$
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 $\sigma$ is a homomorphism of $G$ onto $\sigma(G)$ with kernel $K \subseteq H$, then $\sigma(R)$ is an $R(m, s, k, t d)$ of $\sigma(G)$ relative to $\sigma(H)$, where $n=t$ s, and $t$ is the order of $K$.

To see this, let $g \in G$ and $g \notin H$. Then there exist exactly $t d$ pairs $r, s \in R$ such that $\sigma(g)=\sigma(r)-\sigma(s)$; and, since $K \subseteq H, \sigma(r) \neq \sigma(s)$. If $g \epsilon H$ 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 $R(m, s, k, t d)$, where $t s=n$, 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 $\lambda=n d$.

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

$$
\begin{gather*}
k(k-1)=(m-1) n d,  \tag{2.1}\\
k \leq m \tag{2.2}
\end{gather*}
$$

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

Theorem 2.2. The complement in $G$ of an $R(m, n, k, d), n>1$, is an $R\left(m^{\prime}, n^{\prime}, k^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ 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 $m n$ pairs of elements $g_{1}, g_{2} \epsilon G, g=g_{1}-g_{2}$. 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 $n m-2 k+d$ pairs.

If $g \in H$, and $g \neq 0$, then for exactly $m n$ 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 $g_{1} € R$. Thus $g \in H, g \neq 0$, can be expressed as a difference of two elements neither of which is in $R$, in exactly $m n-2 k$ ways.

For $m=k$, and $n=2$, therefore, if $g \epsilon H, g \neq 0, g$ 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 $m n-2 k+d$ ways.

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

If $G=\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, \cdots, g_{m n}\right\}$, and if the elements are so arranged that

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

for $i=1,2, \cdots, m$, we may consider the $m n \times m n$ incidence matrix $A$ of $R=R(m, n, k, d)$ defined by $a_{i j}=1$, if $g_{j} \epsilon g_{i}+R, a_{i j}=0$ otherwise. Then

$$
A A^{T}=A^{T} A=k I_{m n}+d J_{m n}-d\left(I_{m} \otimes J_{n}\right)
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\operatorname{det} A)^{2}=k^{m(n-1)+2}(k-n d)^{m-1} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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, $k-n d$ 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 $a_{i} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, for $i=1, \cdots, N$, then

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

where $f(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_{i} n_{i}^{2}(\bmod p)$, is an $R\left(p^{N}, p, p^{N}, p^{N-1}\right)$ of $G$ relative to $H$.
To obtain this result, let $r(n)=(f(n), n)$, and

$$
(a, g)=\left(a, g_{1}, \cdots, g_{N}\right) \in G
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left\{2 a_{i} n_{i} g_{i}+a_{i}^{2} g_{i}^{2}\right\} \quad(\bmod p) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now there exists $g_{i} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for some $i, 1 \leq i \leq N$. Therefore, choose $n_{j}, j=1, \cdots, i-1, i+1, \cdots, N$ arbitrarily from $A_{p}$. Since $g_{i} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, 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 $R\left(p^{N}, p, p^{N}, p^{N-1}\right)$ of the theorem, there exists an $R\left(p^{N}, p, p^{N}, p^{N-1}\right)$ of $G$ relative to any subgroup of order $p$.

This result follows immediately from Theorem 2.1.
Theorem 3.2. Let $G=A_{p} \oplus A_{p} \oplus G_{2 N}$, and $H=A_{p} \oplus A_{p} \oplus\{0\}$. Let $a_{i}$ be a quadratic residue modulo $p$ for $i=2,4, \cdots, 2 N$, and a quadratic nonresidue modulo $p$ for $i=1,3, \cdots, 2 N-1$. Then

$$
R=\left\{(f(n), h(n), n) ; n=\left(n_{1}, \cdots, n_{2 N}\right) \in G_{2 N}\right\}
$$

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

To obtain this result, let $r(n)=(f(n), h(n), n)$. If $(a, b, g) \in G$, and $(a, b, g) € H$, where $g=\left(g_{1}, \cdots, g_{2 N}\right) \epsilon G_{2 N}$, then $(a, b, g)=r(n+g)-r(n)$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{2 N}\left\{2 a_{i} n_{i} g_{i}+a_{i} g_{i}^{2}\right\} \quad(\bmod p) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
b \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left\{g_{2 i-1} n_{2 i}+g_{2 i} n_{2 i-1}+g_{2 i-1} g_{2 i}\right\} \quad(\bmod p) \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Some coordinate of $g$ is non-zero, so suppose it is one of the pair $g_{2 i-1}, g_{2 i}$. Then choose $n_{j}, j=1,2, \cdots, 2 i-2,2 i+1, \cdots, 2 N$, arbitrarily in $A_{p}$. For each such choice, the conditions of the theorem ensure solutions for $n_{2 i-1}$ and $n_{2 i}$, 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 $p^{2 N-2}$ 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

$$
R^{\prime}=\left\{(h(n), n) ; n \in G_{2 N}\right\}
$$

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

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

Relative difference sets similar to those of Corollary 3.2.1 may be constructed in $A_{p} \oplus G_{2 N+1}$. 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 $G=A_{p} \oplus G_{2 N+1}$, and let $H=A_{p} \oplus\{0\}$; then

$$
R=\left\{(f(n), n) ; n=\left(n_{1}, \cdots, n_{2 N+1}\right) \epsilon G_{2 N+1}\right\}
$$

where

$$
f(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(n_{2 i-1} n_{2 i}+n_{2 N+1}^{2}\right) \quad(\bmod p)
$$

is an $R\left(p^{2 N+1}, p, p^{2 N+1}, p^{2 N}\right)$ of $G$ relative to $H$.
Again, appropriate isomorphisms give $R\left(p^{2 N+1}, p, p^{2 N+1}, p^{2 N}\right)$ 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 $G=A_{2} \oplus K_{2 N}, H=A_{2} \oplus\{0\}$, and

$$
M=\left\{g=\left(g_{1}, \cdots, g_{2 N}\right) \in K_{2 N} ; \quad \sum_{i=1}^{2 N} g_{i} \equiv 0 \quad \text { or } \quad 1 \quad(\bmod 4)\right\}
$$

Then

$$
R=\{(0, g) ; g \in M\} \cup\left\{(1, g) ; g \in K_{2 N}, g \notin M\right\}
$$

is an $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2,2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-1}\right)$ of $G$ relative to $H$.
To prove this, it is first noted that $M$ is a Menon

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

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

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

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

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

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

We have also the following $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2,2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-1}\right)$.
Theorem 4.2. If $G=A_{2} \oplus K_{2 N}$, and $H=A_{2} \oplus\{\mathbf{0}\}$, then

$$
R=\left\{(h(n), n) \in G ; n=\left(n_{1}, \cdots, n_{2 N}\right) \in K_{2 N}\right\}
$$

where $h(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} n_{2 i-1} n_{2 i}(\bmod 2)$, is an $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2,2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-1}\right)$ 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

$$
a \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left\{g_{2 i-1} n_{2 i}+g_{2 i} n_{2 i-1}+g_{2 i-1} g_{2 i}\right\} \quad(\bmod 2)
$$

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 $\left(\left(p^{N}-1\right) /(p-1),(p-1), p^{N-1}, p^{N-2}\right)$, 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

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

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

Corollary 5.1.1. There exist cyclic $R\left(\left(q^{N}-1\right) /(q-1), n, q^{N-1}, q^{N-2} d\right)$, where $n d=q-1$.

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

We now show that the Menon difference sets have no extensions in an elementary Abelian 2 -group, with the possible exception of $D\left(2^{6}, 36,20\right)$; and, further, if any relative difference set does exist in an elementary Abelian 2 -group, it is necessarily an $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2^{s}, 2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-s}\right)$, (again with the possible exception of $\left.R\left(2^{6}, 2,36,10\right)\right)$. 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 $R\left(2^{2 N}, 2^{s}, 2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-s}\right)$, except possibly an $R\left(2^{6}, 2,36,10\right)$.

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

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

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

in an elementary Abelian 2-group, $G$. The elements of $G$ may be expressed as $(2 N+1)$-tuples of ones and zeros; and, since any subgroup of order 2 may be mapped isomorphically onto $\{(i, 0, \cdots, 0) \in G ; i=0,1\}$, 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 ( $1, g_{2}, \cdots, g_{2 N+1}$ ) yields the equation

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

Solving for $t$ we obtain

$$
2 t=2^{2 N-1} \pm 2^{N-1} \pm \sqrt{ }\left(2^{2 N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}\right)
$$

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

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 $D\left(2^{2 N}, 2^{2 N-1} \pm 2^{N-1}, 2^{2 N-2} \pm 2^{N-1}\right)$ other than a $D\left(2^{6}, 36,20\right)$ 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 $g=r-r^{\prime}$ implies that $g=r^{\prime}-r, d$ must necessarily be even. This shows that the only possible extension of a $D\left(2^{6}, 36,20\right)$ is an $R\left(2^{6}, 2,36,10\right)$, 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 $D\left(2^{N}, 2^{N}-1,2^{N}-2\right)$ 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 $D\left(2^{N}, 2^{N}, 2^{N}\right)$ 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 $R\left(2^{N}, 2,2^{N}, 2^{N-1}\right)$ 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 $H=\{(i, 0,0, \cdots, 0) ; i=0,1\}$. 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 $2 t\left(2^{N}-t\right)=\left(2^{N}-1\right) 2^{N-1}$. 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 $n d=m$, 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 $n d=m$, if $n>1$ and $m>2$.

To prove this theorem, it is sufficient to consider the group $G$ of additive integers modulo $m n$. We suppose that $R=R(m, n, m, d), n d=m, n>1$, does exist, and $H=\{i m ; i=0,1, \cdots, m-1\}$. 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 $r(i) \equiv \mathrm{i}(\bmod m)$ for each $i=0,1, \cdots$, $m-1$; that is, $R=\{r(i)=i+a(i) m ; i=0,1, \cdots, m-1\}$. For each $b, 1 \leq b<m-1$,

$$
r(i+b)-r(i) \equiv b+[a(i+b)-a(i)] m(\bmod m n)
$$

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

$$
r(i+b-m)-r(i) \equiv b+[a(i+b-m)-a(i)-1] m \quad(\bmod m n)
$$

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

$$
\begin{align*}
& (-1) b \equiv d\{1+2+\cdots+(n-1)\} \quad(\bmod n) \\
& \quad \text { for each } \quad b, 1 \leq b<m-1 . \tag{6.1}
\end{align*}
$$

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

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

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 $\lambda=n d$, $k \equiv 0\left(\bmod k^{\prime}\right), k^{\prime}>d, k^{\prime}=p_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots p_{s}^{e_{s}}$, where the $p_{i}$ are distinct primes, and if there exist $f_{i}, i=1, \cdots, s$ such that $p_{i}^{f_{i}} \equiv t\left(\bmod v^{*}\right)$, 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, $F(x)=\sum_{g \epsilon \epsilon} f_{g} x^{g}$, 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 $m n$ characters of $G$ will be denoted by $\chi_{i}, i=1, \cdots, m n$, where $\chi_{1}$ is the principal character, and $\chi_{i}$, for $i=1,2, \cdots, m$, is the identity on the subgroup $H$.

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

$$
\chi_{i}(F(x))=\sum_{g \in G} f_{g} \chi_{i}(g) \quad \text { for } \quad i=1, \cdots, m n
$$

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 $(a, m n)=1$,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\chi_{1}(C(x)) \equiv(m-1) n d & (\bmod a), \\
\chi_{i}(D(x)) \equiv-n d & (\bmod a)
\end{array} \quad \text { for } \quad i=2,3, \cdots, m
$$

and

$$
\chi_{i}(C(x)) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod a) \quad \text { for } \quad i=m+1, \cdots, m n
$$

then

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

Letting $C(x)=\sum_{\sum_{g \epsilon \in} c_{g}} x^{g}$, where $c_{g} \in I$, then the inversion formula $[9,7.6]$ states that $m n c_{g}=\sum_{i=1}^{m n} \chi_{i}(C(x)) \chi_{i}\left(x^{-g}\right)$, for each $g \in G$. Hence

$$
m n c_{g} \equiv(m-1) n d-n d \sum_{i=2}^{m} \chi_{i}\left(x^{-g}\right) \quad(\bmod a)
$$

Therefore, if $g \in H$, then $c_{g} \equiv 0(\bmod a)$; and, if $g \notin H$, since the $\chi_{i}$, $i=1, \cdots, m$, may be regarded as characters on the factor group $G / H$, then $c_{g} \equiv d(\bmod a)$. Hence $C(x)=d[G(x)-H(x)]+a F(x)$, 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

$$
\begin{align*}
R\left(x^{-1}\right) R^{*}(x)=d\left[G(x)-x^{g} H(x)\right] & +k^{\prime} F(x)  \tag{7.1}\\
& \text { where } k^{\prime}>d, F(x) \in A
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{*}(x) H(x)=R(x) H(x) \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $R^{*}(x)=x^{a} R(x)$, where $a \epsilon g+H$.
To prove this, it is first noted that

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(x) R\left(x^{-1}\right)=R^{*}(x) R^{*}\left(x^{-1}\right)=d[G(x)-H(x)]+k \tag{7.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime} F(x) H(x)=k x^{q} H(x) \tag{7.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The principal character applied to (7.4) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime} \chi_{1}(F(x))=k \tag{7.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
R(x) R^{*}\left(x^{-1}\right)=d\left[G(x)-x^{-q} H(x)\right]+k^{\prime} F\left(x^{-1}\right) \tag{7.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime} F\left(x^{-1}\right) H(x)=k x^{-g} H(x) \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
k^{\prime 2} F(x) F\left(x^{-1}\right)=k^{2} \tag{7.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

As in the proof for difference sets, since $k^{\prime}>d$, 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, $k^{\prime} F(x)=k x^{a}$, for some $a \epsilon G$. Equation (7.4) yields the fact that $a \epsilon g+H$, 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 $k \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{j}\right), j>0$, and $(p, m n)=1$. If

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\chi_{i}(R(x)), p^{j}\right)=\left(\chi_{i}\left(R^{*}(x)\right), p^{j}\right) \quad \text { for } \quad i=m+1, \cdots, m n \tag{7.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
R^{*}(x) H(x)=x^{g} R(x) H(x) \quad \text { for some } \quad g \in G \tag{7.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
R\left(x^{-1}\right) R^{*}(x)=d\left[G(x)-x^{q} H(x)\right]+p^{j} F(x), \quad \text { where } \quad F(x) \in A
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi_{i}\left(R\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \chi_{i}(R(x)) \equiv \chi_{i}\left(R^{*}(x)\right) \chi_{i}\left(R^{*}\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \quad\left(\bmod p^{j}\right) \tag{7.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=m+1, \cdots, m n$.
From equations (7.9) and (7.11), we thus have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi_{i}\left(R\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \chi_{i}\left(R^{*}(x)\right) \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{j}\right) \quad \text { for } \quad i=m+1, \cdots, m n \tag{7.12}
\end{equation*}
$$ and, since the characters $\chi_{i}, i=1, \cdots, m$, may be regarded as the $m$ characters of the group $G / H$, equations (7.10) and (7.3) imply that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi_{i}\left(R\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \chi_{i}\left(R^{*}(x)\right) \equiv-\chi_{i}\left(x^{g}\right) n d \quad\left(\bmod p^{j}\right) \quad \text { for } \quad i=2, \cdots, m \tag{7.13}
\end{equation*}
$$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\chi_{1}\left(R\left(x^{-1}\right)\right) \chi_{1}\left(R^{*}(x)\right) \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod p^{j}\right) \tag{7.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now infer from Lemma 7.1.1 that

$$
x^{-g} R\left(x^{-1}\right) R^{*}(x)=d[G(x)-H(x)]+p^{j} F(x), \quad \text { where } \quad F(x) \in A
$$

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 $R\left(x^{t}\right) H(x)=x^{g} R(x) H(x)$, for some $g \epsilon G$. 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 $m n \equiv 0\left(\bmod v^{\prime}\right)$, and $m \neq 0\left(\bmod v^{\prime}\right)$, and let $p$ be a prime divisor of $k$. If there exists an $f$ such that $t p^{f} \equiv-1\left(\bmod v^{\prime}\right)$, then $k$ is exactly divisible by an even power of $p$.

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

Then $\chi\left(R(x) R\left(x^{-1}\right)\right)=k \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{j}\right)$, where $p^{j}$ 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), $k-n d>0$; 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, $(t-1, m n)=1$, 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 $(k m, n)=1$ and $(t-1, n)=n$. If $R$ is an extension of $a D(m, k, n d)=D$, and if $D$ is fixed by $t$, then $R$ is fixed by $t$.

To prove this let $t R=\{t r ; r \in R\}=\{r+a ; r \epsilon R\}$ where $a \epsilon G$. Consideration of the difference set, $D$, at once shows that $a \in H$, and, consequently, $n a=0$. However, for each $r \in R$, there exists $r^{\prime} \in R$ such that $t r=r^{\prime}+a$. Therefore, $(t-1) \pi=k a$, where $\pi=\sum_{r \in R} r$; and, since $n$ divides $t-1, k a$ has order a divisor of $m$. Now $n a=0$ and $(k m, n)=1$, hence $a=0$, proving the theorem.

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

To obtain this result, we may, by Theorem 8.2 , assume that $R=R(m, n, k, d)$ is fixed by the multiplier $t^{e}$. Since it is assumed that $m>1$, it is first noted that there exists $g \epsilon G$ of order $v^{*}$ such that $g \notin H$. For each $r \in R$, there exists $r^{\prime} \in R$ such that $t^{e} r=r^{\prime}$. Consideration of the factor group $G / H$ then reveals that $r \in r^{\prime}+H$; and, by the definition of a relative difference set, therefore, $r=r^{\prime}$. Thus, for every $r \in R,\left(t^{e}-1\right) r=0$. However, there exists $g \in G$, $g \notin H, g$ of order $v^{*}$, and $g=r-r^{\prime}$, for some $r, r^{\prime} \in R$. Thus $\left(t^{e}-1\right) g=0$, 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 $t_{1}+t_{2} \equiv t_{3}\left(\bmod v^{*}\right)$ and $t_{2} \not \equiv t_{4}\left(\bmod v^{*}\right)$, then $t_{1}+t_{4}$ is not a multiplier of $R$.

To prove this, it is again remarked that there exists $g \epsilon G, g \notin H$, 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 $G^{\prime}=\{g \in G ; t g=g\}, H^{\prime}=H \cap G^{\prime}$ and $R^{\prime}=R \cap G^{\prime}$. Then, if $H^{\prime} \neq G^{\prime}, R^{\prime}$ is an $R\left(m^{\prime}, n^{\prime}, k^{\prime}, 1\right)$ of $G^{\prime}$ relative to $H^{\prime}$ such that every multiplier of $R$ is a multiplier of $R^{\prime}$.

If, further, $R$ is cyclic, then $(t-1, m n)=m^{\prime} n^{\prime}$ and $(t-1, n)=n^{\prime}$.

## 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 $p^{N} \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, the quadratic residues of $K$ form a

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

[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 $R\left(p^{N}=4 t-1, t-1,2 t-1, d=1\right)$, where $p \neq 3$ is a prime, which are extensions of a quadratic residue

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

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 $p \neq 3$, $\left(p^{N}, t-1\right)=1$. 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 $(4 t-1) g=0$, and that $g \epsilon H$ if and only if $(t-1) g=0$.

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

Now $(2 t-1)^{2} \equiv t\left(\bmod p^{N}(t-1)\right)$; and, thus, $t$ also is a multiplier of $R$. Since some translate of $R$ is fixed by $2 t-1$, 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 $(2 t-1) r-t r=t r-r$; but $d=1$ and $r, t r,(2 t-1) r \in R$. 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 $(2 t-1)$, then $q^{2}$ is a multiplier of $D$. Also, $(2 t-1)^{2} \equiv t\left(\bmod p^{N}(t-1)\right)$ 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 $0 ¢ D$ so that $R \cap H=\emptyset$. Consider

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

We now show that $S_{1}$ consists of $2 t-1$ distinct non-zero elements of $A$. For, if $s \in S_{1}$, then $(4 t-1) s=0$ and so $s \in A$. If $(t-1) r=(t-1) r^{\prime}$ for $r, r^{\prime} \in R$, then $(t-1)\left(r-r^{\prime}\right)=0, r-r^{\prime} \in H$, and thus $r=r^{\prime}$. If $s=(t-1) r=0$, then $r \in H$, which contradicts the statement above that $R \cap H=\emptyset$.

Hence $S_{1}$ does consist of $(2 t-1)$ distinct non-zero elements of $A$. Now consider

$$
S_{2}=\left\{\left(t^{2}-1\right) r ; r \in R\right\}
$$

It is noted that $(t+1,4 t-1)=1$. Hence, if $\left(t^{2}-1\right) r=0$, 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 $\left(t^{2}-1\right) r=\left(t^{2}-1\right) r^{\prime}$, for $r, r^{\prime} \in R$, then, since $(t+1,4 t-1)=1,(t-1)\left(r-r^{\prime}\right)=0$. 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 $2 t-1$ non-zero elements of $A$.

We now show that $S_{1} \cap S_{2}=\emptyset$. Deny this; then $t r-r=t^{2} r^{\prime}$ for $r, r^{\prime} \in R$; but $d=1$, and $r, t r, r^{\prime}, t^{2} r^{\prime} \in R$, and $(t-1) r \neq 0$. Therefore, $r=r^{\prime}$ and $t r$ $=t^{2} r^{\prime}$, yielding a contradiction.

Hence $S_{1} \cap S_{2}=\emptyset$, and $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ together consist of the $4 t-2$ non-zero elements of $A$. Now consider $a=\left(t^{3}-1\right) r$, for arbitrary $r \in R$. Then $a \epsilon A$, and, if $a \in S_{1}$, then $\left(t^{3}-1\right) r=(t-1) r^{\prime} \neq 0$, for $r^{\prime} \in R$. Since $d=1$, and $r, r^{\prime}, t r^{\prime}, t^{3} r \in R$, then $r=r^{\prime}$ and $t^{3} r=t r^{\prime}$. This implies that $\left(t^{2}-1\right) r=0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $a 屯 S_{1}$. Similarly it may be shown that $a \notin S_{2}$. Therefore, $a=\left(t^{3}-1\right) r=0$; but $r$ was chosen arbitrarily, and, hence, $\left(t^{3}-1\right) r=0$ for all $\mathrm{r} \epsilon R$. There exists $g \in A$ of order $p$, and $g=r-r^{\prime}$, for $r, r^{\prime} \in R$. Hence, $\left(t^{3}-1\right) g=0$, and so $p$ divides $t^{3}-1$, and, consequently, $t^{2}+t+1$. Since $p$ also divides $4 t-1$, 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 $9^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod v^{*}\right)$. Since $H \neq\{0\}$, there exists $h \in H$ of prime order $q$, where $q$ divides $(t-1), q \neq 7$; and, therefore, $9^{3} \equiv 1(\bmod 7 q)$. This, then, yields that $q=13$, and $4 t-1=$ $7^{N} \equiv 3(\bmod 13)$.

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, $D\left(\left(r^{3}-1\right) /(r-1), r^{2}, r\right)$, 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 $R\left(p^{N}=4 t-1, t-1,2 t-1,1\right)$, when $p \neq 3$.

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