

From a 1-rotational RBIBD to a Partitioned Difference Family *

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Abstract

Generalizing the case of $\lambda = 1$ given by Buratti and Zuanni [*Bull Belg. Math. Soc.* (1998)], we characterize the 1-rotational difference families generating a 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -RBIBD, that is a (v, k, λ) resolvable balanced incomplete block design admitting an automorphism group G acting sharply transitively on all but one point ∞ and leaving invariant a resolution \mathcal{R} of it. When G is transitive on \mathcal{R} we prove that removing ∞ from a parallel class of \mathcal{R} one gets a partitioned difference family, a concept recently introduced by Ding and Yin [*IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory*, 2005] and used to construct optimal constant composition codes. In this way, by exploiting old and new results about the existence of 1-rotational RBIBDs we are able to derive a great bulk of previously unnoticed partitioned difference families. Among our RBIBDs we construct, in particular, a $(45, 5, 2)$ -RBIBD whose existence was previously in doubt.

Keywords. 1-rotational RBIBD; 1-rotational difference family; partitioned difference family; constant composition code.

1 Introduction

Throughout the paper, every union will be understood as *multiset union*. The union of μ copies of a multiset A will be denoted by ${}^\mu A$. Of course ${}^\mu A$ has a different meaning from ${}^\mu\{A\}$; as an example, if $A = \{a, b, c\}$, then ${}^2A = \{a, a, b, b, c, c\}$ while ${}^2\{A\} =$

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$\{\{a, b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$. Given some integers k_1, \dots, k_t , sometimes we will write $[\mu^1 k_1, \dots, \mu^t k_t]$ instead of $\mu^1 \{k_1\} \cup \dots \cup \mu^t \{k_t\}$. As usual, the list of differences of a subset B of an additive group G will be denoted by ΔB .

A *difference family* in a group G that is *relative* to a subgroup N of G is a collection \mathcal{F} of subsets of G (*base blocks*) whose lists of differences are disjoint with N and cover, altogether, every element of $G - N$ a constant number λ of times: $\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} \Delta B = {}^\lambda(G - N)$. If K is the multiset of block sizes of \mathcal{F} one briefly says that \mathcal{F} is a (G, N, K, λ) -DF. We write (G, K, λ) -DF instead of $(G, \{0\}, K, \lambda)$ -DF, and (G, N, k, λ) -DF instead of $(G, N, [\mu k], \lambda)$ -DF whatever is μ . Thus, a (G, k, λ) -DF is a collection of k -subsets of G whose differences cover every non-zero element of G exactly λ times.

Speaking of a (v, n, K, λ) -DF we mean a (G, N, K, λ) -DF where $G = \mathbf{Z}_v$ and N is the subgroup of \mathbf{Z}_v of order n , namely $N = \frac{v}{n}\mathbf{Z}_v$. We recall, in particular, that a $(v, n, k, 1)$ -DF can be viewed as a special kind of *optical orthogonal code* that is called *n-regular* in [37] and that is *optimal* in the case that $n \leq k(k - 1)$.

A (v, N, K, λ) -DF is said to be *disjoint* (DDF for short) when its base blocks are mutually disjoint. If, in addition, none of them meets N we will speak of a *strictly disjoint* difference family and we will write SDDF instead of DDF. There is a number of papers concerning DDFs with constant block size; in particular, it was proved the existence of a $(v, 3, 1)$ -DDF for any $v \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ [24], the existence of a $(v, 3, 3, 1)$ -SDDF for any $v \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$ [25, 14] and the existence of a $(\mathbb{F}_q, 4, \lambda)$ -DDF for any admissible pair (q, λ) with $\lambda \leq 2$ [36] where \mathbb{F}_q denotes the elementary abelian group of order q . We also observe that any *radical* $(\mathbb{F}_q, k, 1)$ -DF (see [9]) with k odd is a DDF.

A (G, K, λ) -DF whose base blocks partition the whole group G is defined to be *partitioned* (PDF). This concept was recently introduced by Ding and Yin and used to construct optimal constant composition codes [22, 38]. It is clear that every PDF is disjoint but not strictly disjoint since it is relative to $N = \{0\}$ and, by definition, there is a base block of the family containing 0.

It is very elementary to see that every DDF gives rise to a PDF if we allow to have some base blocks of size one. It is also trivial to see that a PDF having all blocks of the same size cannot exist. What about PDFs having exactly two block sizes? As an easy example we have all pairs $\{D, \overline{D}\}$ with D a *difference set* (see [8]) and \overline{D} its complement; if D has parameters (v, k, λ) , the resultant PDF has parameters $(v, [k, v - k], v - 2k + 2\lambda)$. Thus, for instance, the so called $(2k - 1, k - 1, \frac{k}{2} - 1)$ *Paley difference set* gives rise to a $(2k - 1, [k - 1, k], k - 1)$ -PDF.

In this paper we focus our attention to PDFs having, as in the above example, exactly two block sizes $k - 1$ and k . We first show that such PDFs necessarily have exactly one block of size $k - 1$.

Proposition 1.1 *If there exists a $(v, [{}^x(k - 1), {}^y k], \lambda)$ -PDF with $x \neq 0 \neq y$, we necessarily have $v \equiv -1 \pmod{k}$, $x = 1$, $y = (v - k + 1)/k$ and $\lambda = k - 1$.*

Proof. By definition of a PDF we must have

$$(k - 1)(k - 2)x + k(k - 1)y = \lambda[(k - 1)x + ky - 1].$$

Solving this identity with respect to x we obtain

$$x = \frac{ky(k-1) - \lambda(ky-1)}{(k-1)(\lambda-k+2)} = \frac{ky + \lambda}{(k-1)(\lambda-k+2)} - \frac{ky}{k-1}.$$

Thus $\lambda - k + 2$ is positive, that is $\lambda > k - 2$, otherwise x would be negative. If $\lambda = k - 1$, we see that $x = 1$. Now assume that $x > 1$ so that, consequently, $\lambda \geq k$. In this case we have $ky(k-1) - \lambda(ky-1) > (k-1)(\lambda-k+2)$ which implies $ky(k-1) - \lambda y(k-1) > (k-1)(\lambda-k+2)$ since it is obvious that $\lambda(ky-1) \geq \lambda y(k-1)$. Dividing by $k-1$ we get $(k-\lambda)y > \lambda-k+2$, namely $(k-\lambda)(y+1) > 2$, that is absurd since $k-\lambda \leq 0$. The assertion easily follows. \square

In view of the above proposition there is no ambiguity in speaking of a $(v, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF without specifying the multiplicity of $k-1$ and k in the multiset of block-sizes. Besides *starters* (see [23]), that can be equivalently viewed as $(2n+1, \{1, 2\}, 1)$ -PDFs, there are other combinatorial designs such as **Z**-cyclic whist tournaments and **Z**-cyclic generalized whist tournaments [7] that are strictly related with PDFs. For instance, any **Z**-cyclic whist tournament of order $4t$ (briefly $\text{Wh}(4t)$) can be seen as a partition of $\mathbf{Z}_{4t-1} \cup \{\infty\}$ into t ordered quadruples such that every non-zero element of \mathbf{Z}_{4t-1} can be expressed as a *partner* (resp. *opponent*) difference of some quadruples in exactly one (resp. two) ways, where the partner differences of a quadruple (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) are $\pm(x_1 - x_3)$ and $\pm(x_2 - x_4)$, while the opponent differences are all the remaining ones. It is then clear that a **Z**-cyclic $\text{Wh}(4t)$ determines a $(4t-1, \{3, 4\}, 3)$ -PDF though the converse is not generally true.

In general, for a deep study of $(v, \{k, k-1\}, k-1)$ -PDFs we have to focus our attention on *1-rotational resolvable balanced incomplete block designs* that we are going to define below. First recall that a (v, k, λ) -BIBD is a pair (V, \mathcal{B}) where V is a set of v points and \mathcal{B} is a collection of k -subsets of V (*blocks*) such that each pair of distinct points of V occurs in exactly λ blocks. Such a BIBD is *resolvable* if there exists a partition \mathcal{R} of \mathcal{B} (*resolution*) into classes (*parallel classes*) each of which is a partition of V . In this paper, speaking of a (v, k, λ) -RBIBD we mean a *resolved* (v, k, λ) -BIBD, i.e., a triple $(V, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{R})$ such that (V, \mathcal{B}) is a resolvable (v, k, λ) -BIBD admitting \mathcal{R} as a specific resolution of it.

An automorphism group of a BIBD or RBIBD as above is a group of permutations on V leaving invariant \mathcal{B} or \mathcal{R} , respectively. In particular, a BIBD or RBIBD is said to be *1-rotational* under G if it admits G as an automorphism group fixing one point and acting sharply transitively on the others.

In this paper we characterize 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -RBIBDs with an arbitrary λ in terms of *1-rotational difference families*, generalizing the important case of $\lambda = 1$ that was treated in [17]. We will prove that a 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -RBIBD under a group G acting transitively on its resolution is completely equivalent to a $(v, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF. In this way, exploiting old and new results on 1-rotational RBIBDs we are able to give constructions of many infinite classes of $(v, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDFs. In particular, we establish that for any $k > 1$ there are infinitely many values of v for which there exists a 1-rotational $(v, k, 1)$ -RBIBD and, consequently, a $(v, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF.

We finally point out that in Example 2.9 we give a $(45, 5, 2)$ -RBIBD. We emphasize this fact since, up to now, no RBIBD with this parameters was known.

2 Resolvable 1-rotational difference families

From now on, G is an additive (but not necessarily abelian) group and ∞ is a symbol not in G . It will be understood that the action of G on $G \cup \{\infty\}$ is the addition on the right under the rule that $\infty + g = \infty$ for every $g \in G$.

For a given collection \mathcal{P} of subsets of $G \cup \{\infty\}$, the G -stabilizer of \mathcal{P} is the subgroup $G_{\mathcal{P}}$ of G of all elements g such that $B + g = B$. The G -orbit of \mathcal{P} is the set \mathcal{P}^G of all distinct translates of \mathcal{P} . In the case that $\mathcal{P} = \{B\}$ is a singleton we will write G_B and B^G rather than $G_{\{B\}}$ and $\{B\}^G$. We say that B is *full* when its G -orbit has full length $|G|$, i.e., when $G_B = \{0\}$. Observe that B is union of left cosets of G_B and possibly $\{\infty\}$. It follows, in particular, that if the size of $B - \{\infty\}$ is coprime with the order of G , then B is full.

Given $B \subset G$, it is easy to see that we have $\Delta B = {}^{|G_B|}\partial B$ for a suitable multiset ∂B that is defined to be the *list of partial differences of B* . The definition is extended to subsets of $G \cup \{\infty\}$ by setting $\partial(B \cup \{\infty\}) = \partial B \cup {}^{|B|/|G_B|}\{\infty\}$. Up to isomorphism, (V, \mathcal{B}) is a 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -BIBD under G if $V = G \cup \{\infty\}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} B^G$ for a suitable collection $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{B}$ that is called a 1-rotational (G, k, λ) difference family. As pointed out in [2], a collection \mathcal{F} of k -subsets of $G \cup \{\infty\}$ is a 1-rotational (G, k, λ) difference family if and only if $\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} \partial B$ covers exactly λ times all non-zero elements of $G \cup \{\infty\}$.

Definition 2.1 We say that a 1-rotational (G, k, λ) difference family \mathcal{F} is resolvable if it is partitionable into subfamilies $\mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_t$ each of which is of the form:

$$\mathcal{F}_i = {}^{|G_{A_i}:N_i|}\{A_i\} \cup \{B_{ij} \mid 1 \leq j \leq \ell_i\}$$

with

$$G_{\mathcal{F}_i} = \{0\}, \quad \infty \in A_i, \quad N_i \leq G_{A_i}, \quad \ell_i = \frac{|G| - k + 1}{k|N_i|}, \quad G_{B_{ij}} = \{0\} \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq \ell_i,$$

$\bigcup_{j=1}^{\ell_i} B_{ij}$ is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of N_i in G that are not contained in A_i .

Every partition $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{F}_t$ with the \mathcal{F}_i 's as above will be said a resolution of \mathcal{F} .

The following theorem generalizes Theorem 2.1 in [17]

Theorem 2.2 There exists a 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -RBIBD under G if and only if there exists a resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ) -DF.

Proof. (\implies) Let $\mathcal{D} = (V, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{R})$ be a 1-rotational (v, k, λ) -RBIBD under G . Of course v is a multiple of k so that the order of G , that is $v - 1$, is necessarily coprime with k . It follows that any block B of \mathcal{D} not passing through ∞ is full, i.e., with trivial G -stabilizer.

Let $\{\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_t\}$ be a complete system of representatives for the G -orbits of the parallel classes of \mathcal{R} . Set $G_{\mathcal{P}_i} = N_i$ and let A_i be the block of \mathcal{P}_i through ∞ . Observe that N_i is

necessarily a subgroup of G_{A_i} so that $A_i - \{\infty\}$ is a union of left cosets of N_i in G . Of course the N_i -orbit of any block of \mathcal{P}_i must be contained in \mathcal{P}_i . Thus, considering that the N_i -orbit of A_i is the singleton $\{A_i\}$ and that any $B \in \mathcal{P}_i - \{A_i\}$ is full, we can write

$$\mathcal{P}_i = \{A_i\} \cup \{B_{ij} + n \mid 1 \leq j \leq \ell_i; n \in N_i\}$$

for suitable full blocks $B_{i1}, \dots, B_{i,\ell_i}$ with $\ell_i = \frac{v-k}{k|N_i|}$.

Considering that the blocks of \mathcal{P}_i form a partition of $G \cup \{\infty\}$ we also have that for any fixed i the union of the B_{ij} 's is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of N_i that are not contained in A_i . Now note that $\mathcal{P}_i^G = \{\mathcal{P}_i + s \mid s \in S_i\}$ where S_i is a complete system of representatives for the right cosets of N_i in G . Thus we can write

$$\bigcup_{\mathcal{P} \in \mathcal{P}_i^G} \mathcal{P} = A_i \cup \mathcal{B}_{i1} \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{B}_{i,\ell_i}$$

where

$$A_i = \{A_i + s \mid s \in S_i\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{B}_{ij} = \{B_{ij} + n + s \mid n \in N_i; s \in S_i\} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq \ell_i.$$

Observe that $A_i = |G_{A_i}:N_i|(A_i^G)$ and that $\mathcal{B}_{ij} = B_{ij}^G$. Thus, setting

$$\mathcal{F}_i = |G_{A_i}:N_i|\{A_i\} \cup \{B_{i1}, \dots, B_{i,\ell_i}\},$$

we can write

$$\bigcup_{\mathcal{P} \in \mathcal{P}_i^G} \mathcal{P} = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}_i} B^G.$$

We conclude that we have:

$$\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{\mathcal{P} \in \mathcal{R}} \mathcal{P} = \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq t; \mathcal{P} \in \mathcal{P}_i^G} \mathcal{P} = \bigcup_{1 \leq i \leq t; B \in \mathcal{F}_i} B^G = \bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} B^G$$

where

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{F}_t.$$

This means that \mathcal{F} is a 1-rotational difference family generating the underlying BIBD of \mathcal{D} . Also, it is clear that the subfamilies $\mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_t$ satisfy the properties of Definition 2.1 so that \mathcal{F} is resolvable.

(\Leftarrow) Let \mathcal{F} be a resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ) difference family. Thus there exists a partition of \mathcal{F}

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_1 \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{F}_t$$

with each \mathcal{F}_i as in Definition 2.1. Set, for $i = 1, \dots, t$,

$$\mathcal{P}_i = \{A_i\} \cup \{B_{ij} + n \mid 1 \leq j \leq \ell_i; n \in N_i\}.$$

It is immediate to see that each \mathcal{P}_i is a parallel class of the BIBD generated by \mathcal{F} and that $\mathcal{P}_1^G \cup \dots \cup \mathcal{P}_t^G$ is a G -invariant resolution of it. \square

Example 2.3 Consider the following 5-subsets of $\mathbf{Z}_{24} \cup \{\infty\}$:

$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 11\}; & B_2 &= \{1, 5, 10, 14, 21\}; \\ B_3 &= \{1, 11, 14, 16, 21\}; & B_4 &= \{1, 14, 15, 17, 22\}. \end{aligned}$$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta B_1 &= \pm\{^3 1, ^2 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10\}; & \Delta B_2 &= \pm\{^3 4, 5, 7, 8, ^2 9, ^2 11\}; \\ \Delta B_3 &= \pm\{2, 3, 4, ^2 5, 7, 9, ^2 10, 11\}; & \Delta B_4 &= \pm\{1, 2, ^2 3, 5, 7, ^2 8, 10, 11\}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it is readily seen that $\bigcup_{i=1}^4 \Delta B_i = {}^4(\mathbf{Z}_{24} - N)$ where $N = \{0, 6, 12, 18\}$ is the subgroup of order 4 of \mathbf{Z}_{24} . This means that $\{B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4\}$ is a $(24, 4, 5, 4)$ -DF. Set $A = \{\infty, 0, 6, 12, 18\}$, observe that $G_A = N$ and hence that $\partial A = \{6, 12, 18, \infty\}$. Thus, considering that each B_i is full (so that $\partial B_i = \Delta B_i$) we can say that $\mathcal{F} = \{A, B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4\}$ is a 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_{24}, 5, 4)$ -DF. Of course we can write $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_1 \cup \mathcal{F}_2 \cup \mathcal{F}_3 \cup \mathcal{F}_4$ with $\mathcal{F}_i = \{A, B_i\}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 4$. Now note that the reduction (mod 6) of each B_i is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ that is equivalent to say that each B_i is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of N that are not contained in A . We conclude that \mathcal{F}_i satisfies the conditions given in Definition 2.1 with $N_i = N$ for each i and hence \mathcal{F} is resolvable. Following the proof of Theorem 2.2 we can finally say that the above resolution of \mathcal{F} gives rise to a 1-rotational $(25, 5, 4)$ -RBIBD whose starter parallel classes are $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_4$ where $\mathcal{P}_i = \{A, B_i, B_i + 6, B_i + 12, B_i + 18\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, 4$.

Definition 2.4 A 1-rotational DF will be said *elementarily resolvable* if it admits a resolution of size 1.

Looking at the proof of Theorem 2.2 it is obvious that the following holds.

Proposition 2.5 An elementarily resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ) -DF is completely equivalent to a $(|G| + 1, k, \lambda)$ -RBIBD that is 1-rotational under G with G acting transitively on the resolution.

The following example is taken from [2].

Example 2.6 Consider the collection $\mathcal{F} = \{A, B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4\}$ of 7-subsets of $\mathbf{Z}_{62} \cup \{\infty\}$ whose blocks are:

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \{\infty, 11, 24, 27, 42, 55, 58\}; \\ B_1 &= \{6, 14, 32, 44, 49, 51, 52\} & B_2 &= \{7, 8, 12, 30, 34, 36, 59\}; \\ B_3 &= \{26, 35, 40, 46, 47, 56, 60\}; & B_4 &= \{0, 2, 10, 17, 23, 50, 53\}. \end{aligned}$$

We have $G_A = \{0, 31\}$ and $\partial A = \pm\{3, 13, 15, 16, 18, 28\} \cup \{^3 31\}$. We also have:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial B_1 &= \Delta B_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, ^2 8, 12, 16, ^2 17, 18, ^2 19, 20, ^2 24, 25, 26, 27, 30\}; \\ \partial B_2 &= \Delta B_2 = \{1, 2, ^2 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 15, 18, ^2 22, ^2 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, ^2 29\}; \end{aligned}$$

$$\partial B_3 = \Delta B_3 = \{1, 4, 5, 6, 7, {}^2 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, {}^2 14, 16, {}^2 20, {}^2 21, 25, 28, 30\};$$

$$\partial B_4 = \Delta B_4 = \{2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 22, 23, 26, 27, 29, 30\}.$$

Also here it is readily seen that \mathcal{F} is a 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_{62}, 7, 3)$ difference family. Now check that the reduction (mod 31) of $\bigcup_{i=1}^4 B_i$ gives $\mathbf{Z}_{31} - \{11, 24, 27\}$. Then, considering that the cosets of $\{0, 31\}$ contained in A are exactly those represented by 11, 24 and 27, we can say that the union of the B_i 's is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of $N = \{0, 31\}$ in G that are not contained in A . Hence we conclude that \mathcal{F} is elementarily resolvable and that a resolution of the corresponding $(63, 7, 3)$ -RBIBD is the orbit under \mathbf{Z}_{62} of the single parallel class $\mathcal{P} = \{A, B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4, B_1 + 31, B_2 + 31, B_3 + 31, B_4 + 31\}$.

Definition 2.7 We say that a (G, N, k, λ) -DF with $|N| = k - 1$ is resolvable (and we write (G, N, k, λ) -RDF) if there is a suitable $N' \leq N$ such that $|N : N'| = \lambda$ and the union of the base blocks of \mathcal{F} is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of N' in G that are not contained in N .

The above terminology is justified by the following proposition.

Proposition 2.8 If there exists a (G, N, k, λ) -RDF, then there exists an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ') -DF for a suitable divisor λ' of λ . Moreover, if N is abelian, there exists a (G, N, k, μ) -RDF for every μ such that $\lambda \mid \mu \mid k - 1$.

Proof. Let \mathcal{F} be a (G, N, k, λ) -RDF so that there is $N' \leq N$ satisfying the conditions prescribed by Definition 2.1. The blocks of $\mathcal{P} := \{N\} \cup \{B + n' \mid B \in \mathcal{F}; n' \in N'\}$ partition G by assumption. Considering that N is the unique subset of \mathcal{P} of size $k - 1$, it is obvious that $G_{\mathcal{P}}$ fixes N and hence $G_{\mathcal{P}} \leq G_N = N$. It is also obvious that $N' \leq G_{\mathcal{P}}$ so that we have $N' \leq G_{\mathcal{P}} \leq N$ and the index λ' of $G_{\mathcal{P}}$ in N is a divisor of λ . Now note that $\gcd(|G|, k) = 1$. In fact we have $|G| = (k - 1)t$ for a suitable t and hence $|\mathcal{F}| = \frac{\lambda|G - N|}{k(k - 1)} = \frac{\lambda(t - 1)}{k}$. On the other hand $\gcd(\lambda, k) = 1$ since λ is a divisor of $|N| = k - 1$. Hence we have $|G| = (k - 1)(ku + 1)$ for a suitable u . It follows that the G -stabilizer of every block of $\mathcal{P} - \{N\}$ is trivial and hence we can write $\mathcal{P} = \{N\} \cup \{B + g \mid B \in \mathcal{F}'; g \in G_{\mathcal{P}}\}$ where \mathcal{F}' is a complete system of representatives for the $G_{\mathcal{P}}$ -orbits on the blocks of $\mathcal{P} - \{N\}$. The fact that the blocks of \mathcal{P} partition G is equivalent to say that the union of the blocks of \mathcal{F}' is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of $G_{\mathcal{P}}$ in G that are not contained in N . It is now easy to recognize that setting $A = N \cup \{\infty\}$ we have that ${}^{\lambda'}\{A\} \cup \mathcal{F}'$ is an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ') -DF.

Finally, observe that $\{B + n \mid B \in \mathcal{F}; n \in N' - N''\}$ is a $(G, N, k, |N : N''|)$ -RDF for every subgroup N'' of N' . The second part of the statement immediately follows. \square

Example 2.9 Check that

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ \{12, 36, 40, 8, 9\}, \{24, 1, 26, 38, 7\}, \{28, 37, 42, 19, 43\}, \{13, 5, 10, 3, 39\} \right\}$$

is a $(44, 4, 5, 2)$ -DF, namely a $(G, N, 5, 2)$ -DF with $G = \mathbf{Z}_{44}$ and $N = \{0, 22, 11, 33\}$.

Looking at the reduction (mod 22) of the blocks of \mathcal{F}

$$\{12, 14, 18, 8, 9\}, \{2, 1, 4, 16, 7\}, \{6, 15, 20, 19, 21\}, \{13, 5, 10, 3, 17\}$$

we immediately see that their union is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $N' = \{0, 22\}$ not contained in N . Thus, having $|N : N'| = 2$, we can say that \mathcal{F} is resolvable and that the orbit of

$$\mathcal{P} := \left\{ \{\infty, 0, 22, 11, 33\}, \{12, 36, 40, 8, 9\}, \{34, 14, 18, 30, 31\}, \{24, 1, 26, 38, 7\}, \{2, 23, 4, 16, 29\}, \right. \\ \left. \{28, 37, 42, 19, 43\}, \{6, 15, 20, 41, 21\}, \{13, 5, 10, 3, 39\}, \{35, 27, 32, 25, 17\} \right\}$$

is a 1-rotational $(45, 5, 2)$ -RBIBD.

The above example deserves particular attention since according to the last tables of small BIBDs [32] no resolvable $(45, 5, 2)$ -RBIBD was known before. See also Table 7.38 in [1].

In [12] there are many classes of 1-rotational RBIBDs coming from suitable (G, N, k, λ) -DFs which, however, are not resolvable in the sense of Definition 2.1. In fact, in those DFs we have $|N| = k - 1$ but λ is not a divisor of $k - 1$. No RBIBD given in that paper is 1-rotational under a group acting transitively on the parallel classes.

In the next sections we will always consider DF's under the cyclic group.

3 Resolvable $((k - 1)p, k - 1, k, 2)$ -DFs with p a prime and $k = 3, 5$ or 7

Given k odd, for the existence of a $((k - 1)p, k - 1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF with p a prime and $\lambda = 1$ or 2 it is trivially necessary that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{2k}$. When $\lambda = 1$ this is not always sufficient since, for instance, an exhaustive computer search allows us to see that there is no $(44, 4, 5, 1)$ -RDF. On the other hand, as far as the authors are aware, for the time being there is no example of a pair (p, k) with k odd and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{2k}$ a prime for which it is known that a $((k - 1)p, k - 1, k, 2)$ -RDF does not exist. Indeed in this section we will prove that such an RDF always exists for $k = 3$ and 5 . We point out, however, that the difficulty of constructing such RDF's increases a lot with k . In fact, for $k = 7$, we will be able to obtain only partial results.

$(2p, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF's with p prime and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$

The existence of a $(2p, 2, 3, 1)$ -RDF, and hence that of a 1-rotational *Kirkman triple system* of order $2p + 1$, has been determined in [17] for any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$. For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ but $p \not\equiv 1 \pmod{12}$, namely for $p \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$, such a DF does not exist since in this case a 1-rotational *Steiner triple system* of order $2p + 1$ not even exists (see [34], Theorem 2.2). On the other hand now we show that a $(2p, 2, 3, 2)$ -DF exists for any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$.

Theorem 3.1 *There exists a $(2p, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF for any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$*

Proof. Using the Chinese Remainder Theorem we identify \mathbf{Z}_{2p} and its subgroup $p\mathbf{Z}_{2p}$ of order 2 with $G = \mathbf{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ and $N = \mathbf{Z}_2 \oplus \{0\}$, respectively.

Let ϵ be a primitive cubic root of unity of \mathbf{Z}_p and take the following 3-subsets of G :

$$B_1 = \{(0, 1), (0, \epsilon), (0, \epsilon^2)\}, \quad B_2 = \{(1, \epsilon), (1, -\epsilon), (0, -1)\},$$

$$B_3 = \{(1, \epsilon^2), (1, -\epsilon^2), (0, -\epsilon)\}, \quad B_4 = \{(1, 1), (1, -1), (0, -\epsilon^2)\}$$

where $\langle -\epsilon \rangle$ is the multiplicative group generated by $-\epsilon$, namely the group of 6th roots of unity of \mathbf{Z}_p . We have:

$$\bigcup_{h=1}^4 \Delta B_h = \{0\} \times (\langle -\epsilon \rangle \cdot \{\epsilon - 1, 2\}) \cup \{1\} \times (\langle -\epsilon \rangle \cdot \{\epsilon - 1, \epsilon + 1\}).$$

Thus, if S is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $\langle -\epsilon \rangle$ in \mathbf{Z}_p^* , we see that

$$\mathcal{F} = \{B_h \cdot (1, s) \mid 1 \leq h \leq 4; s \in S\}$$

is a $(G, N, 5, 2)$ -DF. Now note that we have:

$$\bigcup_{h=1}^4 B_h = \mathbf{Z}_2 \times \langle -\epsilon \rangle$$

so that the union of all the base blocks of \mathcal{F} gives $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ that trivially is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $N' = \{(0, 0)\}$ that are not contained in N . Thus \mathcal{F} is resolvable and the assertion follows. \square

$(4p, 4, 5, 2)$ -RDF's with p prime and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$

There are some papers of the 90's [6, 11, 30] dealing with the construction of a 1-rotational $(G, N, 5, 1)$ -DF with $G = \mathbf{Z}_2^2 \oplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ and $N = \mathbf{Z}_2^2 \oplus \{0\}$ where $p = 10n + 1$ is a prime. In particular, the existence has been proved for $41 \leq p \leq 1151$ in [6] and for p sufficiently large in [30]. Constructions for 1-rotational $(4p, 4, 5, 1)$ -DF's with p as above, namely for 1-rotational $(G, N, 5, 1)$ -DF with $G = \mathbf{Z}_{4p}$ and $N = p\mathbf{Z}_{4p}$, have been considered in [11]. In this case the existence has been proved for $p \equiv 31 \pmod{60}$ if certain cyclotomic conditions are satisfied but, still now, to solve the existence problem for every prime p does not seem to be easy. On the other hand here we are able to prove the existence of a $(4p, 4, 5, \mathbf{2})$ -DF for any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$. This will be achieved by using the following application of the Theorem of Weil on multiplicative character sums (see [31], Theorem 5.41) obtained in [15] (see also [20]).

Theorem 3.2 *Given a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{e}$, a t -subset $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_t\}$ of \mathbf{Z}_p , and a t -tuple $(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t)$ of \mathbf{Z}_e^t , the existence of an element $x \in \mathbf{Z}_p$ satisfying the t cyclotomic conditions $x - b_i \in C_{\beta_i}^e$ ($i = 1, \dots, t$) is guaranteed for $p > Q(e, t)$ where*

$$Q(e, t) = \frac{1}{4} \left(U + \sqrt{U^2 + 4te^{t-1}} \right)^2 \quad \text{with } U = \sum_{h=1}^t \binom{t}{h} (e-1)^h (h-1).$$

In the above statement we have used the standard notation according to which C^e is the subgroup of index e of the multiplicative group \mathbf{Z}_p^* of \mathbf{Z}_p , and C_i^e is the coset of C^e represented by r^i where r is a fixed generator of \mathbf{Z}_p^* .

Theorem 3.3 *There exists a $(4p, 4, 5, 2)$ -RDF for any prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$.*

Proof. Using the Chinese Remainder Theorem we identify \mathbf{Z}_{4p} and its subgroup $p\mathbf{Z}_{4p}$ of order 4 with $G = \mathbf{Z}_4 \oplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ and $N = \mathbf{Z}_4 \oplus \{0\}$, respectively.

Take four 5-subsets B_1, \dots, B_4 of G of the following form:

$$B_1 = \{(0, 1), (0, -1), (1, a), (1, -a), (2, b)\}; \quad B_2 = \{(0, c), (0, -c), (0, d), (1, -d), (2, -b)\};$$

$$B_3 = \{(3, 1), (3, -1), (2, a), (2, -a), (1, b)\}; \quad B_4 = \{(3, c), (3, -c), (3, d), (2, -d), (1, -b)\}.$$

Note that $B_3 = \phi(B_1)$ and $B_4 = \phi(B_2)$ where $\phi : (x, y) \in G \longrightarrow (3x + 3, y) \in G$. We have:

$$\bigcup_{h=1}^4 \Delta B_h = \bigcup_{i=0}^3 \{i\} \times (\{1, -1\} \cdot \Delta_i) \tag{1}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_0 &= {}^2\{2, 2a, 2c, c - d, c + d\}; \\ \Delta_1 = \Delta_3 &= \{a - 1, a - 1, a + 1, a + 1, a - b, a + b, c + d, c - d, 2d, b - d\}; \\ \Delta_2 &= {}^2\{b - 1, b + 1, b + c, b - c, b + d\}. \end{aligned}$$

Assume that the quadruple (a, b, c, d) satisfies the following conditions:

$$\text{each } \Delta_i \text{ has exactly two elements in each coset of } C^5; \tag{2}$$

$$\{1, a, b, c, d\} \text{ has exactly one element in each coset of } C^5. \tag{3}$$

Denoted by S a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $\{1, -1\}$ in C^5 , condition (2) implies that $\{1, -1\} \cdot \Delta_i \cdot S = {}^2\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ for each i and hence, by (1), we have that

$$\mathcal{F} = \{B_h \cdot (1, s) \mid 1 \leq h \leq 4; s \in S\}$$

is a $(G, N, 5, 2)$ -DF. Now note that

$$\bigcup_{B \in \mathcal{F}} B = \{0, 3\} \times (\{\pm 1, \pm c, d\} \cdot S) \cup \{1, 2\} \times (\{\pm a, \pm b, -d\} \cdot S).$$

Thus, since (3) implies that $\{\pm 1, \pm a, \pm b, \pm c, \pm d\} \cdot S = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$, we see that the union of the blocks of \mathcal{F} is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $N' := \{(0, 0), (2, 0)\}$ that are not contained in N (namely of the cosets of N' distinct from N' itself and from $\{(1, 0), (3, 0)\}$). This means that \mathcal{F} is resolvable.

In view of the above discussion, the theorem will be proved if we are able to find at least one *good* quadruple of \mathbf{Z}_p , namely a quadruple (a, b, c, d) of elements of \mathbf{Z}_p for

Table 1: Good quadruples (a, b, c, d) for $71 \leq p < 1,000$

| p | a | b | c | d | p | a | b | c | d |
|-----|----|----|----|----|-----|----|----|----|----|
| 71 | 10 | 27 | 31 | 4 | 521 | 17 | 30 | 33 | 93 |
| 101 | 7 | 9 | 33 | 73 | 541 | 13 | 21 | 37 | 91 |
| 131 | 10 | 34 | 50 | 95 | 571 | 5 | 15 | 83 | 50 |
| 151 | 44 | 48 | 67 | 72 | 601 | 42 | 60 | 63 | 95 |
| 181 | 3 | 33 | 42 | 66 | 631 | 47 | 51 | 70 | 71 |
| 191 | 7 | 9 | 27 | 62 | 641 | 11 | 68 | 13 | 81 |
| 211 | 4 | 27 | 86 | 92 | 661 | 4 | 69 | 93 | 15 |
| 241 | 14 | 39 | 46 | 93 | 691 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 64 |
| 251 | 19 | 42 | 66 | 96 | 701 | 11 | 12 | 57 | 90 |
| 271 | 27 | 34 | 64 | 71 | 751 | 2 | 8 | 16 | 44 |
| 281 | 3 | 31 | 56 | 75 | 761 | 10 | 95 | 42 | 35 |
| 311 | 2 | 29 | 34 | 39 | 811 | 24 | 33 | 37 | 59 |
| 331 | 8 | 58 | 64 | 82 | 821 | 2 | 7 | 54 | 62 |
| 401 | 4 | 38 | 47 | 73 | 881 | 3 | 14 | 19 | 59 |
| 421 | 3 | 49 | 66 | 82 | 911 | 5 | 36 | 84 | 67 |
| 431 | 28 | 45 | 44 | 75 | 941 | 10 | 27 | 51 | 85 |
| 461 | 2 | 6 | 15 | 58 | 971 | 9 | 94 | 43 | 88 |
| 491 | 6 | 19 | 20 | 63 | 991 | 8 | 26 | 29 | 53 |

which (2) and (3) hold. By applying repeatedly Theorem 3.2 as done, for instance, in Application 2 of [15], we deduce that a such a good quadruple certainly exists for $p > Q(5, 5) = 87, 915, 625$.

If C_i^5 is the coset of C^5 containing 2, it is easy to see that (a, b, c, d) is good if (but not “only if”!) we have:

$$a \in C_1^5; \quad a - 1 \in C_i^5; \quad a + 1 \in C_{i+1}^5;$$

$$b \in C_4^5; \quad a - b \in C_{i+2}^5; \quad a + b \in C_{i+2}^5; \quad b - 1 \in C_0^5; \quad b + 1 \in C_1^5;$$

$$c \in C_2^5; \quad b + c \in C_2^5; \quad b - c \in C_3^5;$$

$$d \in C_3^5; \quad c - d \in C_{i+3}^5; \quad c + d \in C_{i+4}^5; \quad b - d \in C_{i+4}^5; \quad b + d \in C_4^5.$$

Using a computer we have found a good quadruple (a, b, c, d) also for $p < Q(5, 5)$ with the only exceptions of $p \in \{11, 31, 41, 61\}$. In Table 1 we report the computer results for $p < 1,000$.

Since a $(4 \cdot 11, 4, 5, 2)$ -DF has been already determined in Example 2.9, it remains only to exhibit a $(4p, 4, 5, 2)$ -DF for $p = 31, 41$ and 61 . Such DF’s can be also realized of the form $\{(1, s) \cdot B_i, (1, s) \cdot \phi(B_i) \mid s \in S; i = 1, 2\}$ where, again, S is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of $\{1, -1\}$ in C^5 and ϕ is the permutation on G defined by

the rule $\phi(x, y) = (3x + 3, y)$. It suffices to take B_1 and B_2 as follows:

| p | B_1 | B_2 |
|-----|--|---|
| 31 | $\{(0, 5), (0, 14), (0, 17), (1, 26), (2, 27)\}$ | $\{(0, 3), (0, 4), (1, 10), (1, 21), (2, 28)\}$ |
| 41 | $\{(0, 2), (2, 8), (3, 14), (3, 15), (3, 39)\}$ | $\{(0, 19), (1, 22), (1, 26), (3, 27), (3, 33)\}$ |
| 61 | $\{(0, 2), (0, 5), (0, 12), (1, 41), (2, 56)\}$ | $\{(0, 11), (0, 20), (1, 49), (1, 50), (2, 59)\}$ |

□

$(6p, 6, 7, 2)$ -RDF's with p prime and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$

In the following, given a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ we will say that p is *good* if, denoted by ϵ a primitive 7th root of unity of \mathbf{Z}_p , then $\epsilon - 1$, $\epsilon^2 - 1$ and $\epsilon^3 - 1$ are in pairwise distinct cosets of C^4 . As an application of a general construction, in [17] it is proved the existence of a $(6p, 6, 7, 1)$ -RDF for any good prime $p = 56t + 1$ not exceeding 10,000. Here we prove the existence of a $(6p, 6, 7, 2)$ -RDF for any good prime $p = 28t + 1 < 100,000$ and for any good prime p sufficiently large.

Theorem 3.4 *There exists a $(6p, 6, 7, 2)$ -RDF for any good prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ with $p > Q(4, 7)$ or $p < 100,000$.*

Proof. Apply, again, the Chinese Remainder Theorem and identify \mathbf{Z}_{6p} and its subgroup of order 6 with $G = \mathbf{Z}_6 \oplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ and $N = \mathbf{Z}_6 \oplus \{0\}$, respectively. Let ϵ be a primitive 7th root of unity in \mathbf{Z}_p and consider eight 7-subsets B_0, B_1, \dots, B_7 of G of the following form:

$$B_i = \{(0, \epsilon^i a), (1, \epsilon^i b), (2, \epsilon^i c), (3, \epsilon^i d), (4, \epsilon^i e), (5, \epsilon^i f), (5, \epsilon^i g)\} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq 6;$$

$$B_7 = \{(0, 1), (0, \epsilon), (0, \epsilon^2), (0, \epsilon^3), (0, \epsilon^4), (0, \epsilon^5), (0, \epsilon^6)\}.$$

An easy counting shows that

$$\bigcup_{h=0}^7 \Delta B_h = \bigcup_{i=0}^5 \{i\} \times (\langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \Delta_i) \tag{4}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_0 &= \pm\{f - g, \epsilon - 1, \epsilon^2 - 1, \epsilon^3 - 1\}; \\ \Delta_1 &= \Delta_5 = \{b - a, c - b, d - c, e - d, f - e, g - e, a - f, a - g\}; \\ \Delta_2 &= \Delta_4 = \{c - a, d - b, e - c, f - d, g - d, a - e, b - f, b - g\}; \\ \Delta_3 &= \pm\{a - d, b - e, c - f, c - g\}. \end{aligned}$$

We also have

$$\bigcup_{h=0}^7 B_h = \bigcup_{i=0}^5 \{i\} \times (\langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot L_i)$$

where: $L_0 = \{1, a\}$; $L_1 = \{b\}$; $L_2 = \{c\}$; $L_3 = \{d\}$; $L_4 = \{e\}$; $L_5 = \{f, g\}$. Thus, denoted by N' the subgroup of N of index $\lambda = 2$, namely $N' = \{(0, 0), (2, 0), (4, 0)\}$, we can write

$$\bigcup_{h=0}^7 B_h = \{0, 2, 4\} \times \langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \{1, a, c, e\} \cup \{1, 3, 5\} \times \langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \{b, d, f, g\} \pmod{N'}. \quad (5)$$

Assume that (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) is a 7-tuple of elements of \mathbf{Z}_p such that the following conditions hold:

$$\text{each } \Delta_i \text{ has exactly two elements in each coset of } C^4; \quad (6)$$

$$\text{both } \{1, a, c, e\} \text{ and } \{b, d, f, g\} \text{ have exactly one element in each coset of } C^4. \quad (7)$$

Let S be complete system of representatives for the cosets of $\langle \epsilon \rangle$ in C^4 . Condition (6) implies that $\langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \Delta_i \cdot S = {}^2\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ for $0 \leq i \leq 5$ and hence, by (4), we deduce that

$$\mathcal{F} = \{B_h \cdot (1, s) \mid 0 \leq h \leq 7; s \in S\}$$

is a $(G, N, 7, 2)$ -DF.

Condition (7) implies that $\langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \{1, a, c, e\} \cdot S = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ and $\langle \epsilon \rangle \cdot \{b, d, f, g\} \cdot S = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ so that, by (5), we see that the union of all the base blocks of \mathcal{F} is a complete system of representatives for the cosets of N' that are not contained in N , namely \mathcal{F} is resolvable.

Thus the theorem is proved if one finds a *good* 7-tuple (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) of elements of \mathbf{Z}_p satisfying (6) and (7). It is obvious that a necessary condition for the existence of such a good 7-tuple is that the three elements $\epsilon - 1$, $\epsilon^2 - 1$ and $\epsilon^3 - 1$ lie in pairwise distinct cosets of C^4 since otherwise Δ_0 would not satisfy (6). This is the reason for which it is fundamental to assume the *goodness* of p . For p good one can see, also here, that an iterated application of Theorem 3.2 guarantees the existence of a good 7-tuple for $p > Q(4, 7) = 4, 848, 810, 000$. This is a quite huge number so that to test all primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ that are smaller than it does not seem to be feasible. We have easily checked, however, that there is at least one good 7-tuple for every good $p < 100, 000$. We report our computer results for $p < 5, 000$ in Table 2. \square

4 Asymptotic existence of $((k - 1)p, k - 1, k, 1)$ -RDF's with p a prime

We recall that a (n, k, μ) *strong difference family* (SDF) is a collection of multisets (*blocks*) of size k with elements in \mathbf{Z}_n whose lists of differences cover all of \mathbf{Z}_n (zero included!) exactly μ times. It is trivial that every (n, k, μ) -SDF has μ necessarily even and that the number of its blocks is $\frac{\mu n}{k(k-1)}$. Hence, in particular, a $(k - 1, k, \mu)$ -SDF has $\mu = kt$ even and the number of its blocks is t .

The concept of an SDF, introduced in [12] and revisited in [33], is very useful for the construction of relative difference families. Indeed most direct constructions for (np, n, k, λ) -DFs with p a prime that one can find in the literature have been obtained via the more or less explicit use of a suitable (n, k, μ) -SDF. For instance, the reader may

Table 2: Good 7-tuples (a, b, c, d, e, f, g) for good primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$, $p < 5,000$

| p | a | b | c | d | e | f | g |
|------|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 29 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 10 | 12 | 5 | 23 |
| 113 | 3 | 17 | 25 | 35 | 40 | 51 | 64 |
| 281 | 5 | 17 | 27 | 35 | 48 | 52 | 65 |
| 953 | 8 | 10 | 20 | 35 | 46 | 53 | 66 |
| 1009 | 3 | 15 | 43 | 48 | 61 | 86 | 92 |
| 1877 | 4 | 11 | 27 | 39 | 45 | 56 | 65 |
| 1933 | 2 | 14 | 29 | 34 | 40 | 51 | 63 |
| 2129 | 7 | 16 | 21 | 36 | 48 | 57 | 69 |
| 2297 | 3 | 11 | 21 | 36 | 52 | 57 | 78 |
| 2381 | 2 | 1 | 11 | 50 | 21 | 9 | 18 |
| 2969 | 3 | 2 | 37 | 30 | 52 | 9 | 26 |
| 3137 | 3 | 4 | 34 | 20 | 51 | 30 | 71 |
| 3697 | 5 | 1 | 31 | 41 | 47 | 25 | 46 |
| 4649 | 3 | 17 | 28 | 19 | 15 | 9 | 6 |
| 4733 | 5 | 7 | 13 | 18 | 2 | 40 | 14 |
| 4957 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 35 | 26 | 21 | 8 |

recognize that in the construction of the $(4p, 4, 5, 2)$ -RDF's given in the previous section we implicitly used the $(4, 5, 10)$ -SDF whose blocks are the multisets $\{0, 0, 1, 1, 2\}$ and $\{0, 0, 0, 1, 2\}$.

In [15] it was proved that every (n, k, μ) -SDF implies the existence of a $(np, n, k, 1)$ -DF for every prime $p \equiv \mu + 1 \pmod{2\mu}$ sufficiently large. The aim of this section is to prove, with a quite similar reasoning, that given any integer k there exists a $((k-1)p, k-1, k, 1)$ -RDF for any prime $p \equiv k^2 + k + 1 \pmod{2k^2 + 2k}$ sufficiently large.

Theorem 4.1 *If there exists a $(k-1, k, kt)$ -SDF, then there exists a $((k-1)p, k-1, k, 1)$ -RDF for any prime $p \equiv kt + 1 \pmod{2kt}$ with $p > Q(kt, k)$.*

Proof. Let $\{X_1, \dots, X_t\}$ be a $(k-1, k, kt)$ -SDF and set $X_i = \{x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik}\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, t$. Let p be a prime as in the statement so that we have $p = ktn + 1$ with n odd. Once again we identify $\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)p}$ and $p\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)p}$ with $G = \mathbf{Z}_{k-1} \oplus \mathbf{Z}_p$ and $N = \mathbf{Z}_{k-1} \oplus \{0\}$, respectively. For each $i = 1, \dots, t$, take a k -subset $Y_i = \{y_{i1}, \dots, y_{ik}\}$ of \mathbf{Z}_p^* and consider the k -subsets B_1, \dots, B_t of G defined by $B_i = \{(x_{i1}, y_{i1}), \dots, (x_{ik}, y_{ik})\}$ for $i = 1, \dots, t$. It is immediate to see that

$$\bigcup_{h=1}^t \Delta B_h = \bigcup_{i=0}^{k-2} \{i\} \times \Delta_i$$

where each Δ_i is a list of kt elements of \mathbf{Z}_p^* . It is also obvious that $Y := \bigcup_{i=1}^t Y_i$ is, again, a list of kt elements of \mathbf{Z}_p^* that is the projection of the union of the B_i 's on \mathbf{Z}_p^* .

The hypothesis that $p > Q(kt, k)$ and an iterated use of Theorem 3.2 allow us to see that it is possible to choose the y_{ij} 's in such a way that the following condition holds:

each of the lists $\Delta_0, \Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_{k-2}, Y$ has exactly one element in each coset of C^{kt} .

The above condition immediately implies that

$$\mathcal{F} = \{B_h \cdot (1, s) \mid 1 \leq h \leq t; s \in C^{kt}\}$$

is a $(G, N, k, 1)$ -RDF and hence the assertion follows. \square

It is the case to observe that in the proof of the above theorem the hypothesis that n is odd is fundamental. In fact, the crucial condition on the y_{ij} 's cannot be satisfied for n even since in this case $-1 \in C^{kt}$ and hence, considering that $-\delta \in \Delta_0$ for every $\delta \in \Delta_0$, we would have pairs of elements of Δ_0 lying in the same coset of C^{kt} .

Corollary 4.2 *For any integer k and any prime $p \equiv k(k+1) + 1 \pmod{2k(k+1)}$ sufficiently large there exists a $((k-1)p, k-1, k, 1)$ -RDF.*

Proof. It is enough to apply Theorem 4.1 using the $(k-1, k, k(k+1))$ -SDF whose $k+1$ blocks are ${}^k\{0\}$ and $\mathbf{Z}_{k-1} \cup \{0\}$ repeated k times. \square

5 Characterizing PDFs by 1-rotational RBIBDs

Now we establish a very strong link between partitioned difference families and 1-rotational RBIBDs.

Theorem 5.1 *There exists a $(G, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF in G if and only if there exists an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ) -DF for a suitable λ .*

Proof. Assume that \mathcal{P}^* is a $(G, \{k-1, k\}, \lambda)$ -PDF, let A^* be its unique base block of size $k-1$, and set $N = G_{\mathcal{P}^*}$. The order of G , that is $k(|\mathcal{P}^*| - 1) + (k-1) = k|\mathcal{P}^*| - 1$, is coprime with k so that each block of \mathcal{P}^* distinct from A^* has trivial G -stabilizer. Also, it is obvious that N fixes A^* so that A^* is union of left cosets of N in G . This implies, in particular, that $|N|$ is a divisor of $k-1$, say $k-1 = \lambda|N|$. It is clear that we can write

$$\mathcal{P}^* = \{A^*\} \cup \{B_1 + n, \dots, B_\ell + n \mid n \in N\}$$

where $\{B_1, \dots, B_\ell\}$ is a complete system of representatives for the N -orbits on the blocks of $\mathcal{P}^* - \{A^*\}$ and hence $\ell = \frac{|\mathcal{P}^*| - 1}{|N|} = \frac{|G| - k + 1}{k|N|}$.

Set $A = A^* \cup \{\infty\}$. We have:

$$|N|(|G_A:N|\partial A) = |G_A|\partial A = |G_A|\partial A^* \cup |G_A|({}^{(k-1)/|G_A|}\{\infty\}) = \Delta A^* \cup {}^{\lambda|N|}\{\infty\}. \quad (8)$$

It is trivial that

$$\Delta(B_i + n) = \Delta B_i = \partial B_i \quad \text{for every pair } (i, n) \in \{1, \dots, \ell\} \times N$$

so that we have

$$\bigcup_{n \in N} [\Delta(B_1 + n) \cup \dots \cup \Delta(B_\ell + n)] = |N|(\partial B_1 \cup \dots \cup \partial B_\ell). \quad (9)$$

By assumption the ordinary differences of all the blocks of \mathcal{P}^* cover all non-zero elements of G exactly $k - 1 = \lambda|N|$ times and hence we can write

$$\bigcup_{n \in N} [\Delta(B_1 + n) \cup \dots \cup \Delta(B_\ell + n)] \cup (\Delta A^* \cup \lambda|N|\{\infty\}) = \lambda|N|[(G \cup \{\infty\}) - \{0\}]$$

which compared with (8) and (9) gives

$$|N|(|G_A:N|\partial A \cup \partial B_1 \cup \dots \cup \partial B_\ell) = \lambda|N|[(G \cup \{\infty\}) - \{0\}].$$

This means that the partial differences of $\mathcal{F} := |G_A:N|\{A\} \cup \{B_1, \dots, B_\ell\}$ cover all non-zero elements of $G \cup \{\infty\}$ exactly λ times, i.e., \mathcal{F} is a 1-rotational (G, k, λ) difference family.

Now note that the hypothesis that \mathcal{P}^* is partitioned implies that $B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_\ell$ is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of N in G that are not contained in A . It is finally obvious that \mathcal{F} has trivial G -stabilizer. We conclude that \mathcal{F} is elementarily resolvable.

Conversely, assume that \mathcal{F} is an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational (G, k, λ) -DF. Thus we have $\mathcal{F} = |G_A:N|\{A\} \cup \{B_1, \dots, B_\ell\}$ where A is the block of \mathcal{F} through ∞ , $N \leq G_A$, $\ell = \frac{|G| - k + 1}{k|N|}$, $G_{\mathcal{F}} = G_{B_1} = \dots = G_{B_\ell} = \{0\}$ and $B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_\ell$ is a complete system of representatives for the left cosets of N in G that are not contained in A . Then, setting $A^* = A - \{\infty\}$ and reasoning as in the “if part” one can see that

$$\mathcal{P}^* = \{A^*\} \cup \{B_1 + n, \dots, B_\ell + n \mid n \in N\}$$

is a $(G, \{k - 1, k\}, k - 1)$ -PDF. □

Looking at the proof of the above theorem we see, in particular, that the following corollary holds.

Corollary 5.2 *Every $((k - 1)v, k - 1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF determines a $((k - 1)v, \{k - 1, k\}, k - 1)$ -PDF whose block of size $k - 1$ is $v\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)v}$.*

Theorem 5.1 together with Propositions 1.1 and 2.5 allow us to state the following characterization of partitioned difference families with exactly two block sizes $k - 1$ and k .

Theorem 5.3 *The partitioned difference families having exactly two block sizes $k - 1$ and k are precisely those obtainable by deleting ∞ by a parallel class of a RBIBD with block size k that is 1-rotational under a group acting transitively on its resolution.*

6 Recursive constructions for partitioned difference families

We recall that a $(w, k, 1)$ *difference matrix* (DM for short) in an additive group H of order w is a $k \times w$ matrix M with entries in H such that the difference of any two distinct rows of M is a permutation of the elements of H . It is *good* or *homogeneous* if every row is also a permutation of the elements of H . If the group H is not specified, it is understood that $H = \mathbf{Z}_w$. For general background on difference matrices we refer to [21]. Here, we only recall that if $\gcd(w, k!) = 1$, namely if the least prime factor of w is greater than k , then the $k \times w$ matrix $M = (m_{ij})$ with $m_{ij} = ij$ trivially is a homogeneous $(w, k, 1)$ -DM.

Difference matrices are very often useful for the recursive constructions of difference families [11]. In this section we use them for getting composition constructions for partitioned difference families.

Theorem 6.1 *If there exist a (nv, n, K, λ) -SDDF and a homogeneous $(w, k_{\max}, 1)$ -DM with k_{\max} the maximum integer in K , then there exists a $(nvw, nw, {}^wK, \lambda)$ -SDDF.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{A_1, \dots, A_t\}$ be a (nv, n, K, λ) -DF with $A_i = \{a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{ik_i}\}$, and let $M = (m_{ij})$ be a $(w, k_{\max}, 1)$ -DM. Then the following subsets of \mathbf{Z}_{nvw}

$$A'_{ij} = \{a_{i1} + nvm_{1j}, a_{i2} + nvm_{2j}, \dots, a_{ik_i} + nvm_{k_{ij}}\} \quad 1 \leq i \leq t; 1 \leq j \leq w$$

form a $(nvw, nw, {}^wK, \lambda)$ -DF. It is straightforward to check that this difference family is strictly disjoint in the hypothesis that \mathcal{F} is also strictly disjoint and M is homogeneous. \square

Theorem 6.2 *Assume that there exist:*

- (i) a (nv, n, K, λ) -SDDF whose base blocks partition $\mathbf{Z}_{nv} - v\mathbf{Z}_{nv}$;
- (ii) a homogeneous $(w, k_{\max}, 1)$ -DM with $k_{\max} = \max\{k \mid k \in K\}$;
- (iii) a (nw, K', λ) -PDF.

Then there exists a $(nvw, {}^wK \cup K', \lambda)$ -PDF.

Proof. Let \mathcal{F} be a PDF as in (i) so that we have $\sum_{k \in K} k = |\mathbf{Z}_{nv} - v\mathbf{Z}_{nv}| = n(v-1)$. Let \mathcal{F}' be a $(nvw, nw, {}^wK, n)$ -SDDF obtainable using Theorem 6.1. The number of elements covered by its blocks is given by $\sum_{k \in {}^wK} k = w \sum_{k \in K} k = nw(v-1)$ that is just the size of $\mathbf{Z}_{nvw} - v\mathbf{Z}_{nvw}$. Recalling that the blocks of \mathcal{F}' do not meet $v\mathbf{Z}_{nvw}$ by definition of a SDDF, we deduce that these blocks partition $\mathbf{Z}_{nvw} - v\mathbf{Z}_{nvw}$. Now, let \mathcal{F}'' be a PDF as in (iii) and set $\hat{\mathcal{F}}'' = \{vB \mid B \in \mathcal{F}''\}$. Interpreting the blocks of $\hat{\mathcal{F}}''$ as subsets of \mathbf{Z}_{nvw} , we see that $\hat{\mathcal{F}}''$ is a (nw, K', λ) -PDF in $v\mathbf{Z}_{nvw}$. It is then immediate that $\mathcal{F}' \cup \hat{\mathcal{F}}''$ is a $(nvw, {}^wK \cup K', \lambda)$ -PDF. \square

Corollary 6.3 *Let k, v be positive integers with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{k}$ for any prime p dividing v . Also assume that there exist a $(w, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF and a homogeneous $(w, k, 1)$ -DM. Then there exists a $(vw, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF.*

Proof. There is a very well known result by Wilson [35] according to which if p is a prime and k is a divisor of $p-1$, then the set of all cosets of the k -th roots of unity in \mathbf{Z}_p is a $(p, k, k-1)$ -SDDF. This fact and an iterated use of Theorem 6.1 easily allow us to deduce the existence of a $(v, k, k-1)$ -SDDF, namely a $(1 \cdot v, 1, k, k-1)$ -DF whose base blocks partition $\mathbf{Z}_v - \{0\} = \mathbf{Z}_v - v\mathbf{Z}_v$. The assertion then follows by applying Theorem 6.2 with $n = 1$ and $\lambda = k-1$. \square

Corollary 6.4 *If there exist a $((k-1)v, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF, a $((k-1)w, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF and a homogeneous $(w, k, 1)$ -DM, then there exists a $((k-1)vw, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF.*

Proof. By Corollary 5.2, the existence of a $((k-1)v, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF implies that of a $((k-1)v, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF whose block of size $k-1$ is $v\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)v}$. It is then obvious that the remaining blocks partition $\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)v} - v\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)v}$ and form a $((k-1)v, k-1, k, k-1)$ -DDF. Hence we get the assertion by applying Theorem 6.2 with $n = \lambda = k-1$. \square

It is also worth noting the following result generalizing a construction for 1-rotational resolvable Steiner 2-designs given by Jimbo and Vanstone [28] and revisited in [17].

Theorem 6.5 *If there exist a $((k-1)v, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF, a $((k-1)w, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF and a homogeneous $(w, k, 1)$ -DM, then there exists a $((k-1)vw, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF.*

Proof. First, starting from a $((k-1)v, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF, apply the construction given by Theorem 6.1 obtaining in this way a $((k-1)vw, (k-1)w, k, \lambda)$ -SDDF, say \mathcal{F} . Now take a $((k-1)w, k-1, k, \lambda)$ -RDF, say \mathcal{F}' , and consider the collection \mathcal{F}'' of k -subsets of $\mathbf{Z}_{(k-1)vw}$ defined by $\mathcal{F}'' = \{vB \mid B \in \mathcal{F}'\}$. It is not difficult to see that $\mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{F}''$ is the required $((k-1)vw, k-1, k, k-1)$ -RDF. \square

Taking into account the main results obtained in the third section, we have the following immediate corollaries.

Corollary 6.6 (i) *There exists a $(2u, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF for any integer u whose prime factors are all congruent to 1 (mod 6).*

(ii) *There exists a $(4u, 4, 5, 2)$ -RDF for any integer u whose prime factors are all congruent to 1 (mod 10).*

(iii) *There exists a $(6u, 6, 7, 2)$ -RDF if for every prime factor p of u we have: $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ is good and either $p < 10^5$ or $p > Q(4, 7)$.*

7 Infinite classes of partitioned difference families

We conclude by giving a great bulk of previously unnoticed partitioned difference families that we obtain combining direct and recursive constructions.

Theorem 7.1 *There exists a $(u, \{k-1, k\}, k-1)$ -PDF for each pair (u, k) of the following forms:*

- (i) $u = (2k - 1)v$ with k even, $2k - 1$ a prime and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{k}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (ii) $u = vw$ and $k = 3$ with $w \in \{2, 8, 11, 17, 23, 29, 32, 35, 41\}$, and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (iii) $u = 4n - 1$ and $k = 4$ for every n for which a \mathbf{Z} -cyclic $Wh(4n)$ is known;
- (iv) $u = vw$ and $k = 5$ with $w \in \{4, 19, 29, 39\}$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (v) $u = vw$ and $k = 6$ with $w \in \{11, 23, 29, 41\}$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (vi) $u = 5v$ and $k = 6$ with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ but $p \notin \{13, 37\}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (vii) $u = 41v$ and $k = 7$ with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{14}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (viii) $u = 6v$ and $k = 7$ with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ good, $p < 10^5$ or $p > Q(4, 7)$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (ix) $u = 7v$ and $k = 8$ with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ but $p \notin \{17, 89\}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (x) $u = vw$ and $k = 8$ with $w \in \{31, 47, 71, 79, 103\}$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ for all prime factors p of v ;
- (xi) $u = q^n - 1$ and $k = q$ with q a prime power and n a positive integer.

Proof. (i). As observed in the introduction, for k even and $2k - 1$ prime, there exists a $(2k - 1, \{k - 1, k\}, k - 1)$ -PDF (this is also a special case of Theorem 3.6 in [38]). Also, it is trivial that there exists a $(2k - 1, k, 1)$ -DM. Hence the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3.

(ii). The case of $w = 2$ follows combining Corollary 6.6(i) and Corollary 5.2.

Among Examples 16.81 of [2] one can find an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_w, 3, 2)$ -DF for $w \in W := \{11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 41\}$ and hence there exists a $(w, \{2, 3\}, 2)$ -PDF for every $w \in W$. Thus the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3 considering that a homogeneous $(w, 3, 1)$ -DM trivially exists for each $w \in W$.

The main result in [19] gives us a 1-rotational $(8v + 1, 3, 1)$ -RBIBD for every v as in the statement, which is equivalent to a $(8v, 2, 3, 1)$ -RDF. The case of $w = 8$ then follows from Corollary 5.2.

It is known that there exists a 1-rotational $(33, 3, 1)$ -RBIBD. The number of such RBIBDs up to isomorphism was determined in [18] but the very first example was given in [29]. Thus there exists a $(2 \cdot 16, 2, 3, 1)$ -RDF and hence a $(2 \cdot 16, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF too. By Corollary 6.6(i) we also have a $(2v, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF for every v as in the statement. Thus,

considering that a homogeneous $(v, 3, 1)$ -DM trivially exists, we get a $(2 \cdot 16v, 2, 3, 2)$ -RDF by applying Theorem 6.5.

(iii). As observed in the introduction, any $\text{Wh}(4n)$ determines a $(4n-1, \{3, 4\}, 3)$ -PDF.

(iv) The case of $w = 4$ follows combining Corollary 6.6(ii) and Corollary 5.2.

Among Examples 16.85 of [2] one can find an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_w, 5, 4)$ -DF for $w \in W := \{19, 29, 39\}$ and hence there exists a $(w, \{4, 5\}, 4)$ -PDF for every $w \in W$. Thus the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3 considering that there also exists a homogeneous $(w, 5, 1)$ -DM for each $w \in W$. This is trivial for $w = 19, 29$ and a homogeneous $(39, 5, 1)$ -DM can be found in [5].

(v) The case of $w = 11$ follows from (i). Among Examples 16.86 of [2] one can find an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_w, 6, 5)$ -DF for $w \in W := \{11, 23, 29, 41\}$ and hence there exists a $(w, \{5, 6\}, 5)$ -PDF for every $w \in W$. Thus the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3 considering that a homogeneous $(w, 5, 1)$ -DM trivially exists for each $w \in W$.

(vi) It is known that there exists a $(5v, 5, 6, 1)$ -RDF for any v as in the statement [13, 27]. Then the assertion follows from Corollary 5.2.

(vii) Among Examples 16.87 in [2] there is an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational $(42, 7, 6)$ -RBIBD and, consequently, a $(41, \{6, 7\}, 6)$ -PDF. Thus the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3 considering that a homogeneous $(41, 5, 1)$ -DM trivially exists.

(viii) It is enough to combine Corollary 6.6(iii), giving a $(6v, 7, 6, 2)$ -RDF, and Corollary 5.2.

(ix) It is known that there exists a $(7v, 7, 8, 1)$ -RDF for any v as in the statement [13, 27]. Then the assertion follows from Corollary 5.2.

(x) Partly from Examples 16.87 of [2] and partly from Appendix II in [4], one can deduce the existence of an elementarily resolvable 1-rotational $(\mathbf{Z}_w, 8, 7)$ -DF, and hence the existence of a $(w, \{7, 8\}, 7)$ -PDF, for $w \in W := \{31, 47, 71, 79, 103\}$. Thus the assertion follows from Corollary 6.3 considering that a homogeneous $(w, 8, 1)$ -DM trivially exists for every $w \in W$.

(xi) Let \mathcal{L} be the set of lines of the affine space of order n over the field \mathbb{F}_q of order q , and let \mathcal{R} be the partition of \mathcal{L} into parallel classes. It is clear that $\mathcal{D} = (\mathbb{F}_{q^n}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R})$ is a $(q^n, q, 1)$ -RBIBD admitting the multiplication by a primitive element of \mathbb{F}_{q^n} as an automorphism of order $q^n - 1$ fixing 0. Thus \mathcal{D} is 1-rotational under \mathbf{Z}_{q^n-1} so that it is generated by a $(q^n - 1, q - 1, q, 1)$ -RDF. The assertion follows from Corollary 5.2. \square

Regarding Theorem 7.1(iii), as far as the authors are aware the last up date about the known values of n for which a \mathbf{Z} -cyclic $\text{Wh}(4n)$ exists is given in [7]. Concerning the set of values of n for which a \mathbf{Z} -cyclic $\text{Wh}(4n+1)$ is known (and hence a $(4n+1, [1, {}^n 4], 3)$ -PDF is known too) we also refer to [7] but some recent new results can be found in [3, 15, 26].

Finally, as a consequence of the results obtained in the fourth section we can state the following theorem.

Theorem 7.2 *For any fixed $k > 1$ there are infinitely many values of v for which there exists a $(v, \{k - 1, k\}, k - 1)$ -PDF.*

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