

DISCRETE APPLIED MATHEMATICS

Discrete Applied Mathematics 105 (2000) 183–192

# On (n,k)-sequences $\stackrel{\triangle}{}$

## Hong-Yeop Song<sup>a, \*</sup>, June Bok Lee<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Yonsei University, Seoul 120-749, South Korea <sup>b</sup> Department of Mathematics, Yonsei University, Seoul 120-749, South Korea

Received 7 April 1999; revised 21 December 1999; accepted 22 December 1999

#### Abstract

An (n,k)-sequence has been studied. A permutation  $a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_{kn}$  of  $0,1,\ldots,kn-1$  is an (n,k)-sequence if  $a_{s+d}-a_s\not\equiv a_{t+d}-a_t\pmod n$  whenever  $\lfloor a_{s+d}/n\rfloor = \lfloor a_s/n\rfloor$  and  $\lfloor a_{t+d}/n\rfloor = \lfloor a_t/n\rfloor$  for every s,t and d with  $1\leqslant s< t< t+d\leqslant kn$ , where  $\lfloor x\rfloor$  is the integer part of x. We recall the "prime construction" of an (n,k)-sequence using a primitive root modulo p whenever kn+1=p is an odd prime. In this paper we show that (n,k)-sequences from the prime construction for a given p are "essentially the same" with each other regardless of the choice of primitive roots modulo p. Further, we study some interesting properties of (n,k)-sequences, especially those from prime construction. Finally, we present an updated table of essentially distinct (n,2)-sequences for  $n\leqslant 13$ . The smallest n for which the existence of an (n,2)-sequences is open now becomes 16. © 2000 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: ; (n,k)-Sequences; Difference triangles; Singly periodic Costas sequences; Florentine and Vatican arrays; Frequency hopping codes

## 1. Introduction

Consider the sequence 0, 3, 4, 6, 7, 1, 5, 2 of length 8 ( $a_i$  for  $1 \le i \le 8$ ) and its difference (mod 4) triangle in Fig. 1, where the difference  $a_j - a_i \pmod{4}$  for  $1 \le i < j \le 8$  is calculated whenever  $a_i, a_j < 4$  or  $a_i, a_j \ge 4$ . We designate such a pair ( $a_i, a_j$ ) as "comparable". The asterisk \* in the triangle represents an incomparable situation. Observe that in any row of this triangle the differences are all distinct modulo 4. We call this sequence  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_8$  a "(4,2)-sequence".

More generally, we can define "comparability" of a pair  $(a_i, a_j)$  to mean that the integer parts of both  $a_i/n$  and  $a_i/n$  are the same [10].

E-mail addresses: hysong@yonsei.ac.kr (H.-Y. Song), leejb@yonsei.ac.kr (J.B. Lee).

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 $<sup>^{\</sup>dot{n}}$  The authors wish to acknowledge the financial support of the Korea Research Foundation made in the program year of 1997.

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Fax: +82 2 3124584.

0		3		4		6		7		1		5		2
	3		*		2		1		*		*		*	
		*		*		3		*		2		1		
			*		*		*		3		*			
				*		$^{2}$		1		*				
					1		*		*					
						*		3						
							2							

Fig. 1. Difference triangle (mod 4) of a (4,2)-sequence 0, 3, 4, 6, 7, 1, 5, 2.

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 4 & 6 & 7 & 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 5 & 7 & 4 & 2 & 6 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 6 & 4 & 5 & 3 & 7 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 7 & 5 & 6 & 0 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Fig. 2. A 4 × 8 Vatican array having cyclic columns.

**Definition 1.** Let  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_{kn}$  be a permutation of 0, 1, 2, ..., kn - 1. Let  $(a_i, a_j)$  be called a "comparable pair" if  $\lfloor a_i/n \rfloor = \lfloor a_j/n \rfloor$ , where  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  is the integer part of x. Then,  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_{kn}$  is called an "(n, k)-sequence" if

$$a_{s+d} - a_s \not\equiv a_{t+d} - a_t \pmod{n}$$

whenever  $(a_s, a_{s+d})$  and  $(a_t, a_{t+d})$  are comparable pairs for every s, t and d with  $1 \le s < t < t + d \le kn$ .

From the (4,2)-sequence shown in Fig. 1, one can construct the following  $4 \times 8$  array V of 8 symbols in which the top row is  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_8$  and the columns are cyclic shifts of either 0,1,2,3 or 4,5,6,7, as shown in Fig. 2. The array V has the two properties that (1) each row is a permutation of  $0,1,2,\ldots,7$  and (2) for any two symbols a and b and for any integer m from 1 to 7 there exists at most one row in which b is m steps to the right of a. A  $k \times n$  array which satisfies these properties is known as a "Florentine array" [4]. Further, the array V is actually a "Vatican array", which is defined to be a Florentine array such that no two symbols are the same in any column [4].

The original motivation for (n,k)-sequences [10] was to construct Vatican arrays (and hence, Florentine arrays) of size  $k \times nk$  as illustrated above, and this paper is to report any further results after [8,10,11].

Florentine and/or Vatican arrays (or squares) were extensively studied in [4,1,2,8, 13,9]. These combinatorial structures have a wide range of applications in communications engineering: design of frequency hopping patterns for multiple-access communications environments [5,9,12,13], design of radar and sonar arrays for improved

range-Doppler measurements [3], and design of modulation signals for optical PPM modulations [6]. They also find applications in the area of design of experiments [4,8] and in extremal graph theory such as edge-decompositions of complete directed graphs [1,2,14].

In [1,2], the polygonal-path construction for Florentine squares is introduced, in which the columns are cyclic shifts of each other. It was also proved that a polygonal-path Florentine square of size  $n \times n$  exists if and only if there exists a "singly periodic Costas array" of size  $n \times n$ , or equivalently, a singly periodic Costas sequence of length n (which is an (n,1)-sequence in our terminology). Similarly, it was proved in [10] that if there exists an (n,k)-sequence of length kn then we can construct an  $n \times kn$  Vatican array and hence an  $n \times (kn+1)$  Florentine array.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we recall the main construction [10] of (n,k)-sequences whenever nk+1=p is an odd prime, and now prove that all such sequences of length nk are equivalent without regard to the choice of primitive roots mod p. In Section 3, we will investigate some futher properties of (n,k)-sequences, especially, those from the "prime construction." We were able to solve some of open problems posed in [10]. Finally, we present an updated table of (n,2)-sequences for  $n \le 13$  in Section 4.

## 2. Main construction and equivalence

Let  $\{a_i \mid 1 \le i \le nk\}$  be an (n,k)-sequence. For each  $j=0,1,\ldots,k-1$ , let  $S_j=\{a_i \mid nj \le a_i \le n(j+1)-1\}$ . Then,  $S_j$  is a set of comparable pairs each other and a partition of the (n,k)-sequence. We will call  $S_j$  the jth comparable part of the (n,k)-sequence. For each  $j=0,1,\ldots,k-1$  any member  $a_i$  of  $S_j$  can be written as  $a_i=nj+t;\ t=0,1,\ldots,n-1$ . Given an (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i \mid 1 \le i \le nk\}$  we can obtain another (n,k)-sequence  $\{b_i \mid 1 \le i \le nk\}$  by the following transformations [10]:

- (A) For some  $S_j$ ,  $b_i$  is obtained by adding some constant c to all the  $a_i \in S_j$  so that  $b_i = nj + d_i$  where  $d_i \equiv a_i + c \pmod{n}$ ,  $0 \le d_i \le n 1$ .
- (M) Let m be a constant which is relatively prime to n. For all  $S_j$ ,  $b_i$  is obtained by multiplying m to all the  $a_i \in S_j$  so that  $b_i = nj + d_i$  where  $d_i \equiv a_i m \pmod n$ ,  $0 \le d_i \le n 1$ .
- (**P**) For each j, l with  $0 \le j < l \le k-1$  we replace  $a_i = nj + d_i \in S_j$  by  $b_i = nl + d_i \in S_l$  and replace  $a_i = nl + d_i \in S_l$  by  $b_i = nj + d_i \in S_j$ .
- (**R**)  $b_i$  is obtained by the reverse order of  $a_i$ , namely  $b_i = a_{nk-i+1}$  for all i = 1, 2, ..., nk. It is easy to check that  $\{b_i \mid 1 \le i \le nk\}$  which is obtained by the above transformations is an (n, k)-sequence. We say that these two (n, k)-sequences  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{b_i\}$  are "essentially the same".

**Theorem 2** (Main construction and equivalence). Let g be a primitive root modulo p = kn + 1 > 2 where p is a prime. For i = 1, 2, ..., kn, let  $Ind_g i$  be the index of i with repect to g namely,  $Ind_g i = j$  iff  $i = g^j$  for some j = 0, ..., kn - 1. Let  $q_i$  and

 $r_i$  be integers such that  $\operatorname{Ind}_g i = kq_i + r_i$ , where  $0 \le r_i \le k - 1$ . Then,  $a_i = q_i + nr_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., kn is an (n, k)-sequence. Further, if h is another primitive root modulo p and  $\{b_i\}$  is the (n, k)-sequence constructed likewise then, two (n, k)-sequences  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{b_i\}$  are "essentially the same".

**Proof.** See [10] for proof of the construction. Briefly, if  $(a_i, a_j)$  is a comparable pair then  $r_i = \lfloor a_i/n \rfloor = \lfloor a_j/n \rfloor = r_j$  and thus  $g^{ka_i}/g^{ka_j} \equiv i/j \pmod{p}$ . Therefore, if  $a_{s+d} - a_s \equiv a_{t+d} - a_t \pmod{n}$ , we have  $k(a_{s+d} - a_s) \equiv k(a_{t+d} - a_t) \pmod{kn}$ , and hence we obtain  $g^{k(a_{s+d} - a_s)} \equiv g^{k(a_{t+d} - a_t)} \pmod{p}$ . This implies that  $d \equiv 0$  or  $s \equiv t \pmod{p}$ .

Now, if h is another primitive root modulo p then, we have an (n,k)-sequence  $\{b_i\}$  where  $b_i = q_i' + nr_i'$  for which  $\operatorname{Ind}_h i = kq_i' + r_i'$  with  $0 \le r_i' \le k - 1$ . Since h is a primitive root,  $h = g^l$  for some l which is relatively prime to p - 1 = kn and  $1 \le l < kn$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ind}_h i = \operatorname{Ind}_{q^l} i = kq_i' + r_i'$  we have that

$$lkq_i' + lr_i' \equiv kq_i + r_i \pmod{kn}$$
.

Then, there are some integers e and f such that  $r_i = lr'_i - ek$  and  $q_i = lq'_i + e - fn$ . Hence,

$$a_i = q_i + nr_i = (lq'_i + e - fn) + n(lr'_i - ek) = l(q'_i + nr'_i) + e - fn - enk.$$

This implies that  $a_i$  is obtained from  $b_i$  by multiplying l and adding e - fn - enk. Since l is relatively prime to kn, (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i\}$  is obtained from (n,k)-sequence  $\{b_i\}$  by transformations (A), (M), and (P). Thus two (n,k)-sequences  $\{a_i\}$  and  $\{b_i\}$  are "essentially the same".  $\square$ 

**Example 3.** For the prime p=13 one can construct (n,k)-sequences of the parameters (12,1), (6,2), (4,3), (3,4), (2,6), and (1,12) using primitive roots 2,  $2^5$ ,  $2^7$ , and  $2^{11}$ . Fig. 3 shows that (4,3) and (3,4)-sequences using primitive roots 2 and  $2^5$ . Consider the (4,3)-sequence using a primitive root  $2^5$ . Take a partition with  $S_0 = \{0,3,1,2\}$ ,  $S_1 = \{7,4,6,5\}$ , and  $S_2 = \{9,10,8,11\}$  and multiply this sequence by 5 modulo 4 and add 0 modulo 4 in  $S_0$ , 1 modulo 4 in  $S_1$ , and 3 modulo 4 in  $S_2$  and then using transformation (P) we replace  $a_i \in S_1$  by  $b_i \in S_2$  and  $a_i \in S_2$  by  $b_i \in S_1$  so that we can obtain an (4,3)-sequence  $\{b_i\} = \{0,4,5,8,3,9,11,1,10,7,6,2\}$  which is already obtained by using a primitive root 2.

## 3. Other properties of (n,k)-sequences

Now, we study some properties of the (n,k)-sequences determined by the construction in Theorem 2.

For  $l=1,2,\ldots,n-1$  let  $N_l$  be the number of l's in the difference  $(\bmod n)$  triangle of an (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i\}$ , and let  $N=\sum_{l=1}^{n-1}N_l$ . For each  $j=0,1,\ldots,k-1$  let  $S_j$  be the jth comparable part of  $\{a_i\mid 1\leqslant i\leqslant nk\}$  i.e.,  $S_j=\{a_i\mid a_i=nj+t;\ t=0,1,\ldots,n-1\}$ . Then, for each  $l=1,2,\ldots,n-1$ , since  $S_j$  contains every residue  $\bmod n$  exactly once,

(n,k) = (4,3)	$r_i$	0	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	2	1	1	0
g=2	$q_i$	0	0	1	0	3	1	3	1	2	3	2	2
	$a_i = q_i + 4r_i$	0	4	5	8	3	9	11	1	10	7	6	2
(n,k) = (4,3)	$r_i$	0	2	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	2	0
$g = 2^5$	$q_i$	0	1	2	3	3	0	2	1	1	0	3	2
	$a_i = q_i + 4r_i$	0	9	10	7	3	4	6	1	5	8	11	2
(n,k) = (3,4)	$r_i$	0	1	0	2	1	1	3	3	0	2	3	2
g=2	$q_i$	0	0	1	0	2	1	2	0	2	2	1	1
	$a_i = q_i + 4r_i$	0	3	1	6	5	4	11	9	2	8	10	7
(n,k) = (3,4)	$r_i$	0	1	0	2	1	1	3	3	0	2	3	2
$g = 2^5$	$q_i$	0	1	2	2	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	1
	$a_i = q_i + 4r_i$	0	4	2	8	5	3	10	9	1	6	11	7

Fig. 3. Examples of (n, k)-sequences for p = 13.

the residue t+1 occurs either to the right of t or to the left of t (not both) exactly once for all  $t=0,1,\ldots,n-1$ . This shows that for each  $l=1,2,\ldots,n-1$ 

$$N_l + N_{n-l} = kn$$
 and hence  $N = kn(n-1)/2$ .

Note that the sequence  $\{a_i\}$  does not have to be an (n,k)-sequence in order to obtain the above result. That is, it is sufficient that  $\{a_i\}$  is a permutation of 0, 1, 2, ..., nk - 1.

**Theorem 4.** Let p=nk+1 be a prime, and  $\{a_i\}$  be an (n,k)-sequence determined by the construction in Theorem 2. In the difference (mod n) triangle we have  $N_l = kn/2$  for  $l=1,2,\ldots,n-1$ . Further, if n is even then the middle column in the difference (mod n) triangle contains n/2 exactly nk/2 times and if n is odd then the middle column in the difference (mod n) triangle does not contain any number.

**Proof.** For each i and d with  $1 \le i < i + d \le kn$ , let  $i = g^j$ ,  $i + d = g^{j_1}$ ,  $p - i = g^{j'}$  and  $p - (i + d) = g^{j'_1}$  where g is a primitive root modulo p and  $0 \le j, j_1, j', j'_1 \le nk - 1$ . From  $i = g^j$  and  $p - i = g^{j'}$  we have that

$$g^{j'} = p - i = -g^j = g^{(p-1)/2}g^j = g^{(p-1)/2+j} = g^{nk/2+j}$$

and hence

$$\frac{nk}{2} + j \equiv j' \pmod{nk}. \tag{1}$$

Similarly,  $g^{j'_1} = p - (i + d) = g^{nk/2 + j_1}$  implies that

$$\frac{nk}{2} + j_1 \equiv j_1' \pmod{nk}. \tag{2}$$

Hence,  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+d}$  are comparable if and only if  $j \equiv j_1 \pmod{k}$  iff  $j' \equiv j'_1 \pmod{k}$  iff  $a_{p-i}$  and  $a_{p-i-d}$  are comparable. Thus, if  $(a_i, a_{i+d})$  is a comparable pair then we have

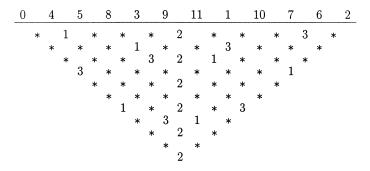


Fig. 4. Difference triangle of (4,3)-sequence.

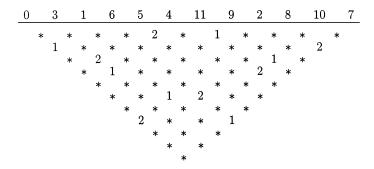


Fig. 5. Difference triangle of (3,4)-sequence.

that

$$a_{i+d} - a_i \equiv \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{Ind}_g \frac{i+d}{i} \pmod{n},$$

$$a_{p-i} - a_{p-i-d} \equiv \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{Ind}_g \frac{p-i}{p-i-d} \equiv \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{Ind}_g \frac{i}{i+d} \pmod{n}.$$

Therefore,  $(a_{i+d} - a_i) + (a_{p-i} - a_{p-i-d}) = n$ . Since  $N_l + N_{n-l} = kn$ , we have that  $N_l = N_{n-l} = kn/2$  for l = 1, 2, ..., n-1. Now if n is even then from (1) we have that  $j \equiv j' \pmod{k}$  and thus  $a_i$  and  $a_{p-i}$  are comparable for all i = 1, 2, ..., nk. Thus, the middle column in the difference  $\pmod{n}$  triangle contains the number

$$a_{p-i} - a_i = \frac{1}{k} \operatorname{Ind}_g(-1) = \frac{n}{2}.$$

exactly nk/2 times. On the other hand, if n is odd then (1) shows that  $a_i$  and  $a_{p-i}$  are not comparable for all i = 1, 2, ..., nk. Thus, the middle column in the difference (mod n) triangle does not contain any number.  $\square$ 

We have (4,3), and (3,4)-sequences in Fig. 3. Using these two sequences we obtain the difference triangles of (4,3)-, and (3,4)-sequences (Figs. 4–6) which explain the results in Theorem 4.

0		6		1		11		10		8		4		5		2		7		9		3_
	*		*		*		5		4		*		1		3		*		2		*	
		1		5		*		3		*		*		4		*		*		*		
			*		4		*		*		*		*		*		*		1			
				*		$^{2}$		3		*		*		5		*		4				
					*		*		4		*		3		1		5					
						4		*		1		$^{2}$		5		*						
							5		*		*		4		*							
								2		1		*		*								
									*		3		$^{2}$									
										*		*										
											3											

Fig. 6. Difference triangle of (6,2)-sequence.

However, Theorem 4 does not hold for some (n, k)-sequences which are not constructed by using a primitive root modulo p. For instance, a (6, 2)-sequence in Fig. 6 shows that  $N_1 = 6$ ,  $N_2 = 5$ ,  $N_3 = 6$ ,  $N_4 = 7$ , and  $N_5 = 6$ .

Given an (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i\}$  of length nk, let  $\{c_i\}$  be the k-ary sequence of length nk determined by the rule  $c_i = j$  for some  $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k-1$  if  $a_i \in S_j$  where  $S_j$  is the jth comparable part of the (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i\}$ . In this k-ary sequence t consecutive i's surrounded by symbols other than i on the left and right is called a "run" of length t. Now,  $(a_i, a_j)$  is a comparable pair if and only if  $c_i = c_j$ , and in this case we also call  $(c_i, c_j)$  comparable. In this sequence of  $c_j$ 's, let R be the total number of runs,  $R_i$  the number of runs of length i, and  $C_i$  the number of comparable pairs of the form  $(c_s, c_{s+i})$ .

**Theorem 5.** Let  $\{a_i\}$  be an (n,k)-sequence and  $\{c_i\}$  be the corresponding k-ary sequence. Then, in the sequence of  $c_i$ 's, the total number R of runs is at least n(k-1)+1 and at most  $((k+1)/2)n + ((R_1-1)/2)$ . Further, we have  $((k-1)/2)n - ((R_1-1)/2) \le C_1 \le n-1$  and  $n(k-1)+1-(R_1+R_2) \le C_2 \le n-1$ .

**Proof.** Since there are R runs in the sequence  $\{c_i\}$  if and only if there are R-1 incomparable adjacent pairs, we have that  $C_1 = (nk-1) - (R-1) = nk - R$ . But obviously  $C_1 \le n-1$  and hence  $R \ge n(k-1)+1$ . To obtain the upper bound on R we compute the following:

$$nk - R = \sum_{i \ge 1} iR_i - \sum_{i \ge 1} R_i = \sum_{i \ge 2} (i - 1)R_i \ge R_2$$

and hence we obtain  $R \leq nk - R_2$ , also from the following inequality:

$$n-1 \geqslant C_2 \geqslant \sum_{i\geqslant 3} (i-2)R_i$$
  
=  $R + \sum_{i\geqslant 4} (i-3)R_i - (R_1 + R_2)$   
 $\geqslant R - (R_1 + R_2),$ 

we obtain that  $R \le (n-1) + R_1 + R_2$ . Thus, we have that  $R \le ((k+1)/2)n + ((R_1-1)/2)$ . Further,  $((k-1)/2)n - ((R_1-1)/2) \le C_1 \le n-1$  since  $C_1 = nk - R$  and we have that

$$n-1 \ge C_2 \ge R - (R_1 + R_2) \ge n(k-1) + 1 - (R_1 + R_2).$$

Thus, the proof is completed.  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 6.** Let p = nk + 1 be an odd prime,  $\{a_i\}$  be an (n,k)-sequence constructed using a primitive root modulo p, and  $\{c_i\}$  be the corresponding k-ary sequence. Then we have that

- (1)  $C_i \leq n-1$  for  $i=1,2,\ldots,p-2$ .
- (2)  $C_1 = n 1$  and hence R = n(k 1) + 1.
- (3)  $C_2 = n 1$  if *n* is odd and  $C_2 = n 2$  if *n* is even.

**Proof.** Statement (1) is obvious. For (2) and (3), we proceed as follows. An (n,k)-sequence  $\{a_i\}$  can be partitioned into comparable parts

$$S_j = \{jn, jn+1, jn+2, \dots, jn+(n-1)\}$$
 for  $j = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$ .

Let *g* be a primitive root modulo *p*. If  $\{a_i\}$  is constructed from *g* as in Theorem 2, then we have  $a_i = q_i + nr_i \in S_j$  iff  $j = r_i$  and  $(q_i, r_i) \in \{(0, j), (1, j), ..., (n - 1, j)\}$  iff  $\mathrm{Ind}_g(i) \in \{j, k + j, 2k + j, ..., (n - 1)k + j\}$  iff  $i \in \{g^j, g^{k+j}, ..., g^{(n-1)k+j}\}$ . Therefore, the partition  $S_0, S_1, ..., S_{k-1}$  of  $\{0, 1, 2, ..., kn - 1\}$  induces a partition  $E_0, E_1, ..., E_{k-1}$  of  $\{1, 2, ..., kn\}$  as follows:  $a_i \in S_j$  iff  $i \in E_j = \{g^j, g^{k+j}, ..., g^{(n-1)k+j}\}$ .

Now, since  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+d}$  are comparable iff both  $a_i$  and  $a_{i+d}$  belong to  $S_j$  for some j iff both i and i+d belong to  $E_j$  for some j, we need to compute the number of disjoint pairs (m,t) satisfying  $g^t-g^{t+mk}=\pm 1$  where  $0 \le t \le nk-1$ ,  $1 \le m \le n-1$ . Obviously, for each  $m(1 \le m \le n-1)$ , there exists unique integer  $t(0 \le t \le nk-1)$  for which  $g^t(1-g^{mk})=1$ . However, we have that

$$g^{t}(1-g^{mk}) = 1 = g^{nk/2+t+mk}(1-g^{(n-m)k}).$$

Thus we have at most  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  solutions for which  $g^t(1-g^{mk})=1$ . Similarly, we have at most  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$  solutions for which  $g^t(1-g^{mk})=-1$ . If n is even, then  $g^t(1-g^{nk/2})=1$  implies that  $g^{t+nk/2}(1-g^{nk/2})=-1$ . Therefore, we have at most n-1 solutions (m,t) to  $g^t(1-g^{mk})=\pm 1$  with  $1 \le m \le \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ . It is easy to check that each one of n-1 solutions (m,t) contributes to a comparable pair of length 1. Thus,  $C_1=n-1$  and hence R=n(k-1)+1. This proves (2). Similarly, we have n-1 solutions to  $g^t(1-g^{mk})=\pm 2$ . However, in this case we counted the pair  $(a_1,a_{nk})$  since  $nk-1=-2 \pmod p$ . Of course, it is not a pair of length 2. But, we know that  $(a_1,a_{nk})$  is a comparable pair if and only if n is even. Thus we have proved (3).  $\square$ 

## 4. Number of (n, 2)-sequences

Finally, we present an updated table of essentially distinct (n, 2)-sequences for n up to 13 in Table 1. The number  $w_2(n)$  is the number of essentially distinct (n, 2)-sequences

Table 1 The number  $w_2(n)$  of essentially distinct (n, 2)-sequences

n	2 <i>n</i>	$w_2(n)$	CPU time	$(n,2)$ -sequences $\{a_i\}$
1	2	1		01 <sup>a</sup>
2	4	1		0231 <sup>a</sup>
3	6	2		013254 <sup>a</sup>
				035124
4	8	$2^{\mathrm{b}}$		01465372
				04217563
5	10	5		0159738246
				0513476928
				0514367928a
				0589173246
				0596184237
6	12	4	$\sim 0.0~\mathrm{s}$	026B831A4957
				06218A7B4593
				0621A8B74593a
				061BA8452793
7	14	8	$\sim 2.0 \text{ s}$	017B24D5CA3698
				017B64C3D825A9
				07148AB6539D2C
				071CA524D986B3
				07A124958DC63B
				07B1395A48D62C
				0791AB8365D42C
				079A14D28C653B
8	16	6 <sup>b</sup>	$\sim$ 1.6 min	0182AFD379BE6C54
				0182E9B37FDA6C54a
				018AD3B26F79EC54
				018EB3D2697FAC54
				089F27E51A36BDC4
				089F61E37A52BDC4
9	18	1	$\sim 5 \text{ min}$	2n + 1 = 19 is prime
10	20	0	$\sim 140 \text{ min}$	NONE
11	22	1 <sup>b</sup>	$\sim 7~\mathrm{h}$	2n + 1 = 23 is prime
12	24	$0_{\rm p}$	$\sim$ 14 days	NONE
13	26	$0_{\rm p}$	$\sim$ 130 days	NONE
14	28	≥1	?	2n + 1 = 29 is prime
15	30	≥1	?	2n + 1 = 31 is prime
16	32	?	?	?
<sup>a</sup> Indicates	that it is from the	e prime construction i	n Theorem 2.	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Indicates that it is from the prime construction in Theorem 2.

[10] and appears also in [7] with ID number A007281 for n up to 10. Table 1 shows two corrections,  $w_2(4)$  and  $w_2(8)$ , and three more terms based on some extensive computations. These are represented by footnote b. The horizontal lines between the sequences inside the same n signifies distinct binary sequences induced from  $\{a_i\}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Two corrections,  $w_2(4)$  and  $w_2(8)$ , three more terms based on some extensive computations.

The footnote a indicates that it is from the prime construction in Theorem 2. For  $n \ge 10$ , the symbol A, B, C, ... are used to denote 10, 11, 12, ..., etc. CPU time is based on DEC-Alpha PC with 533 MHz clock speed. The smallest n for which the existence is open now becomes 16, and the smallest n for which the exact value of  $w_2(n)$  is not yet determined becomes 14.

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