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**Classification of small class association schemes coming from certain
combinatorial objects**

by

Joohyung Kim

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Program of Study Committee:
Sung-Yell Song, Co-major Professor
Ling Long, Co-major Professor
Clifford Bergman
Fritz Keinert
Jonathan D. H. Smith

Iowa State University

Ames, Iowa

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Committee Member

Signature was redacted for privacy.

Committee Member

Signature was redacted for privacy.

Committee Member

Signature was redacted for privacy.

Co-major Professor

Signature was redacted for privacy.

Co-major Professor

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ABSTRACT

We explore two- or three-class association schemes. We study aspects of the structure of the relation graphs in association schemes which are not easily revealed by their parameters and spectra. The purpose is to develop some combinatorial methods to characterize the graphs and classify the association schemes, and also to delve deeply into several specific classification problems. We work with several combinatorial objects, including strongly regular graphs, distance-regular graphs, the desarguesian complete set of mutually orthogonal Latin squares, orthogonal arrays, and symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices, all of which give rise to many small-class association schemes. We work within the framework of the theory of association schemes.

Our focus is placed on the search for all isomorphism classes of association schemes and characterization of small-class association schemes of specific order. In particular, we examine two-class association schemes (strongly regular graphs) of order 64 and their three-class fission schemes. After we collect ‘feasible’ parameter sets for the putative association schemes, we make an attempt to check the realization (existence) of the parameter sets and describe the structure of the schemes chiefly by investigating the structure of their relation graphs. In the course of this thesis, we find a new way to construct orthogonal arrays and investigate their implications for strongly regular graphs, symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices, and three-class association schemes. We obtain several results regarding the characterization and classification of two- or three-class association schemes of order 64.

CHAPTER 1. Introduction

In this chapter we first give a brief history of the theory of association schemes. We then briefly explain our motivation and then give an overview of the thesis, outlining main results. We provide the background material in Appendix A.

The concept of (symmetric) association schemes was introduced by Bose and Shimamoto (1952) in the study of experimental designs. This concept plays a fundamental role in the analysis and classification of partially balanced incomplete block designs which were originally defined by Bose and Nair (1939). A similar concept was introduced earlier in the work of Schur (1933) and developed mostly in connection with the theory of group characters and permutation groups. It was due to the work of Delsarte (1973) that association schemes were proven to be a useful tool for the study of a wide range of combinatorics including design theory, coding theory and algebraic graph theory. The theory of association schemes has been developed rapidly since then, and has been established as a branch of mathematics over the last decade or two through the work of many algebraists, combinatorialists, geometers and group theorists (cf. [1, 72, 62]).

A d -class association scheme $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ of order $v = |X|$ may be considered a decomposition of a complete (di)graph $K_v = (X, X \times X)$ of v vertices into regular digraphs $\Gamma_i = (X, R_i)$, so that R_1, R_2, \dots, R_d form a partition of $X \times X$ together with $R_0 = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$ and satisfy certain regularity conditions. If the association scheme is symmetric, that is, all relations R_i are symmetric (binary) relations, then the (non-trivial) relation graphs $\Gamma_i = (X, R_i)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, d$, are undirected simple regular graphs.

An association scheme all of whose relation graphs Γ_i are connected is called a primitive association scheme. If the relation graph of any non-trivial relation is disconnected then the

scheme is called imprimitive. Given an association scheme, sometimes we can obtain other association schemes either by merging two or more non-trivial relations into one or by refining a non-trivial relation into two or more. The former is called fusion process and the latter is called fission. A fusion scheme of a primitive association scheme is primitive, and a fission scheme of an imprimitive association scheme is imprimitive. Primitive association schemes are building blocks of many larger-class imprimitive association schemes.

Two association schemes $(X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ and $(Y, \{S_j\}_{0 \leq j \leq d})$ are isomorphic if there is a bijection $\varphi : X \rightarrow Y$ such that for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, d$, $\{(\varphi(x), \varphi(y)) : (x, y) \in R_i\} = S_j$ for some j . In this case, the bijection φ induces a permutation σ on the set $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$ such that the graphs (X, R_i) and $(Y, S_{i\sigma})$ are isomorphic for every i . So, if there is a relation graph of one scheme whose isomorphic copy is not found among the relation graphs of the other scheme, then the two schemes cannot be isomorphic. Also the automorphism group of any relation graph contains the automorphisms of the association scheme.

Recently much research has been going on in the investigation and computer classification of two or three-class association schemes by many authors including Brouwer, Coolsaet, van Dam, Degraer, Fon-Der-Flaass, Haemers, and Spence (cf. [36, 17] and [18] and their references.) In [16], van Dam described several constructions of symmetric 3-class association schemes mainly through the study of eigenvalues and multiplicities, and gave a list of feasible parameter sets for symmetric 3-class association schemes on at most 100 vertices. (Here the feasibility is subject to the known necessary conditions on the parameter sets to have an association scheme satisfying the parameter sets. This will be discussed in detail later.) The list included many feasible parameter sets whose realizability has not been checked.

The structure of relation graphs often reveals crucial information for the structure of association schemes, especially for the small-class association schemes. Thus it is important to study relation graphs in the classification of association schemes. The relation graphs of a 2-class symmetric association scheme are strongly regular graphs. In this case, two relation graphs are complementary to each other. Having a strongly regular graph is equivalent to having a symmetric 2-class association scheme.

In [47], Jørgensen, Jones, Klin and Song showed several ways to construct 3-class imprimitive non-symmetric association schemes from doubly regular (m, r) -team tournaments. Inspired by their work we have started investigating the links between orientations of the completely multipartite strongly regular graph $\overline{m \circ K_r}$ and association schemes based on characterization of doubly regular (m, r) -team tournaments.

Our aim is to verify whether each of the given feasible parameter sets is realized or not. If such a scheme exists, then we check whether the scheme is unique for the given parameter set. We do this by surveying all feasible parameter sets available in the existing literature (for example, [8, 17, 16, 46]). We explore the structure of relation graphs of existing or putative association schemes. We do this on a case by case basis for the schemes of order 64 hoping to develop a general theory in the future. There are many combinatorial structures including orthogonal arrays and Bush-type Hadamard matrices that are related to the schemes of order 64.

Our results are discussed in Chapters 2, 3, and 4. In Chapter 2, we investigate the structures of two strongly regular graphs (SRGs) with the same parameters $(v, k, \lambda, \mu) = (64, 28, 12, 12)$. We do not know how many strongly regular graphs with these parameters exist. These two cospectral graphs are the halved-folded 8-cube and the graph of ‘Latin square type’ denoted by $L_4(8)$, which comes from the orthogonal array $\text{OA}(4, 8)$. We begin the chapter with an investigation of the halved-folded Hamming 8-cube. We study some local structures of the halved-folded 8-cube, which lead us to derive necessary and sufficient conditions for any cospectral strongly regular graphs to be isomorphic to the halved-folded 8-cube. We describe a new way to construct orthogonal arrays $\text{OA}(t, n)$ and strongly regular graphs $L_t(n)$ from a complete set of mutually orthogonal Latin squares. Our new construction method will be used in the subsequent chapter in which we construct Bush-type Hadamard matrices. We then investigate the local structure of $L_4(8)$ and show the structural difference between $L_4(8)$ and the halved-folded 8-cube.

In Chapter 3, we introduce a way to construct a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix from a set of mutually orthogonal Latin squares. Whenever we have a symmetric Bush-type

Hadamard matrix, we can obtain imprimitive three-class association schemes. We discuss how to obtain such association schemes from given symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices. From a given symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix we can obtain other symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices. New Bush-type Hadamard matrices obtained from old sometimes yield cospectral but non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs. As an example we obtain another $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$ that is not isomorphic to either of the two cospectral graphs discussed in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 4, we survey the known feasible parameter sets and collect all schemes that realize each parameter set. We then classify and characterize the relation graphs of the schemes in an attempt to discover other schemes that employ non-isomorphic cospectral graphs as their relation graphs. We discover a few new schemes that realize some feasible parameter sets. We classify 3-class association schemes of order 64 according to their fusion and fission relationship to known strongly regular graphs.

In Chapter 5, we discuss a few related problems and topics that are not resolved in this thesis.

In Appendix A, we provide all the terms and basic facts that are used throughout the thesis. Appendix B consists of many tables that are used as examples.

CHAPTER 2. Strongly regular graphs with parameters (64, 28, 12, 12)

In this chapter we characterize strongly-regular graphs (SRGs) that are obtained from Hamming 8-cube via halving and folding process and its cospectral graph obtained from orthogonal array OA(4, 8). Both the halved-folded 8-cube and the strongly regular graph obtained from OA(4, 8) have the same parameters but they are not isomorphic. In doing this we also introduce an easy way to construct orthogonal arrays OA(t, q) from the desarguesian complete set of mutually orthogonal Latin squares (MOLS). The basic information not covered in this chapter can be found in Appendix A or their references.

2.1 Halved and folded Hamming cubes

The structure of Hamming n -cubes is well known in connection with Hamming codes. Hamming n -cubes, denoted by $H(n, 2)$, for $n \geq 2$, are imprimitive, bipartite, antipodal distance-regular graphs (DRGs). The halved and folded graphs of Hamming n -cubes are often called *halved n -cubes* and *folded n -cubes*, respectively. We recall some facts on halved and folded n -cubes first, and then study the structure of the halved-folded 8-cube in the following section.

The halved n -cube H_n may be defined by the words of a binary code consisting of all even weight words of length n , words being adjacent if they differ in two coordinate entries; i.e., if their Hamming distance is 2. H_n has 2^{n-1} vertices with valency $k = \binom{n}{2} = n(n-1)/2$ and diameter $d = \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$. It has the following parameters and spectrum. For $n \geq 3$,

$$b_j = \frac{1}{2}(n-2j)(n-2j-1), \quad c_j = j(2j-1);$$

$$\theta_j = \frac{1}{2}(n-2j)^2 - \frac{1}{2}n, \quad m_j = \binom{n}{j}, \quad (2j < n).$$

(If n is even, then $m_d = \frac{1}{2}\binom{n}{d}$.)

Proposition 2.1.1. [58, 68] The halved n -cubes are characterized by their intersection array.

That is, all graphs which are cospectral with the halved n -cubes are isomorphic.

For $n \geq 3$, the parameters, eigenvalues θ_j , and multiplicities m_j of the folded n -cube is given by $d = \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$,

$$b_j = n - j, \quad c_j = \begin{cases} j & \text{for } 2j < n \\ n & \text{for } 2j = n \end{cases}$$

$$\theta_j = n - 4j, \quad m_j = \binom{n}{2j}.$$

Proposition 2.1.2. [6, 69] For $n \neq 6$, the folded n -cube is uniquely characterized by its intersection array, and for the folded 6-cube, there are precisely three non-isomorphic cospectral graphs.

Example 2.1.3. Folded 7-cube. This DRG with diameter 3 has the following intersection matrices.

$$B_1 = B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 3 \\ 21 & 0 & 10 & 6 \\ 0 & 15 & 10 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 15 & 10 & 12 \\ 35 & 20 & 20 & 18 \end{bmatrix}.$$

By Proposition 2.1.2, we know that this graph is uniquely determined by its parameters (or by its spectrum). The spectrum of the graph and the character table of related P -polynomial association scheme are given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 3 & -1 & -5 \\ 1 & 21 & 35 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 21 & 35 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -5 \\ 1 & -1 & -3 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 & 9 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 35 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example 2.1.4. Halved 7-cube. This DRG is also uniquely determined by its parameters by Proposition 2.1.1. Its intersection matrices are

$$B_1 = B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 21 & 10 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 12 & 15 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 12 & 15 \\ 35 & 20 & 18 & 20 \\ 0 & 5 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 4 & 0 \\ 7 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The spectrum of this graph and the character table of the associated P -polynomial scheme are given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 21 & 1 & -3 & 9 \\ 1 & 21 & 35 & 7 \end{pmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 21 & 35 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & -5 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 9 & -5 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 35 \\ 7 \end{matrix}$$

Remark 2.1.5. The association schemes coming from the folded 7-cube and the halved 7-cube are isomorphic. Also, both of these schemes are three-class fission schemes of the two-class association scheme associated to the halved-folded 8-cube, an $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$, which will be discussed in the following section.

2.2 Local structure of the halved-folded 8-cube

The halved 8-cube (H_8) is an antipodal DRG with diameter 4, and the folded 8-cube (F_8) is a complete bipartite DRG with diameter 4. Their intersection arrays are

$$B(H_8) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 28 & 12 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 15 & 16 & 15 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 12 & 28 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B(F_8) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 8 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 0 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Although these distance-regular graphs are uniquely determined by their parameters, the folding of H_8 , which is isomorphic to the halving of F_8 , is not uniquely determined by its parameters. In this section we study this halved-folded 8-cube, and in the later section we describe its cospectral graph $L_4(8)$.

The *halved-folded $2l$ -cube*, for $l \geq 3$, is a distance-regular graph with diameter $d := \lfloor \frac{l}{2} \rfloor$ and parameters

$$b_j = (l - j)(2l - 2j - 1), \quad c_j = j(2j - 1), \quad (0 \leq j \leq d - 1)$$

$$c_d = \begin{cases} d(2d - 1), & \text{if } l \text{ is odd;} \\ 2d(2d - 1), & \text{if } l \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

The eigenvalues and multiplicities are

$$\theta_j = 2(l - 2j)^2 - l, \quad m_j = \binom{2l}{2j}.$$

Halved-folded $2l$ -cubes are characterized by their intersection array if $2l$ is sufficiently large (cf. [11]). Metsch [56] showed that the halved-folded $2l$ -cubes of diameter $d \geq 5$ and the larger halved-folded $2l$ -cube of diameter 4, are uniquely determined by their intersection arrays. The small diameter cases with $l = 8, 7, 6, 5, 4$ are remained to be studied more with regard to the characterization. We describe the halved-folded 8-cube Γ . The following theorem describes the structure of the induced subgraph on 14 vertices.

Theorem 2.2.1. Let Γ be the halved-folded graph of the Hamming cube $H(8, 2)$. Let v and w be arbitrary vertices in Γ , and let Δ be the induced subgraph on $N = \Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)$.

1. Δ is a regular graph with valency 6 if v and w are adjacent.
2. Δ is a disjoint union of two $\text{SRG}(6, 4, 2, 4)$ if v and w are non-adjacent.
3. If v and w are adjacent, then the induced subgraph on $S = N \cup \{v, w\}$ is the graph depicted in Figure 2.1.

Proof The vertices of Γ , which are equivalence classes of antipodal pairs of H_8 , can be represented by a word of length eight over $\{0, 1\}$. Let $v = x_1x_2 \cdots x_8$. Then, the vertices adjacent to v can also be represented by 8-tuples that have either two or six coordinate places different from v . Without loss of generality, let $w = x_1x_2 \cdots x_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8$ be an adjacent vertex of v . With this notation, the set $N = \Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)$ consists of all the vertices $x = a_1a_2 \cdots a_8$ where $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$ and $a_i = x_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, 8$ except for one i from $\{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$ and one i from $\{7, 8\}$. That is,

$$\begin{aligned} N = \Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w) = \{ & v_1 = \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_1 = \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \\ & v_2 = x_1\bar{x}_2x_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_2 = x_1\bar{x}_2x_3x_4x_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \\ & v_3 = x_1x_2\bar{x}_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_3 = x_1x_2\bar{x}_3x_4x_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \\ & v_4 = x_1x_2x_3\bar{x}_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_4 = x_1x_2x_3\bar{x}_4x_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \\ & v_5 = x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_5 = x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \\ & v_6 = x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7x_8 \quad w_6 = x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5\bar{x}_6x_7\bar{x}_8 \} \end{aligned}$$

For example, $v_1 = \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8$ is an element of N and v_1 has exactly 6 neighbors in N . They are the ones having the same coordinates as v_1 either except for (i) the first coordinate and one of the coordinate positions 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, or except for (ii) the seventh and eighth coordinates. Similarly, we can see that every vertex in N has valency 6 in the induced subgraph of Γ on N .

For the second part, consider the pair of vertices that are not adjacent, say $v = x_1x_2 \cdots x_8$ and $w = x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8$. Then the vertices in $N = \Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)$ have either (1) two different coordinates from v among the coordinate positions 5, 6, 7, 8, or (2) two different coordinates from w among the coordinate positions 1, 2, 3, 4. So, $N = N_1 \cup N_2$ with

$$\begin{aligned} N_1 = \{ & x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6x_7x_8, \quad x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8, \quad x_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8, \\ & x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7x_8, \quad x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5\bar{x}_6x_7\bar{x}_8, \quad x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8 \}; \\ N_2 = \{ & \bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8, \quad \bar{x}_1x_2\bar{x}_3x_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8, \quad \bar{x}_1x_2x_3\bar{x}_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8, \\ & x_1\bar{x}_2\bar{x}_3x_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8, \quad x_1\bar{x}_2x_3\bar{x}_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8, \quad x_1x_2\bar{x}_3\bar{x}_4\bar{x}_5\bar{x}_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8 \}. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that no vertex in N_1 is adjacent to any vertex in N_2 . Furthermore, every vertex $a_1a_2\cdots a_8 \in N_1$ is adjacent to others except for $a_1a_2a_3a_4\bar{a}_5\bar{a}_6\bar{a}_7\bar{a}_8$ in N_1 , and a vertex $a_1a_2\cdots a_8 \in N_2$ is adjacent to others except for $\bar{a}_1\bar{a}_2\bar{a}_3\bar{a}_4a_5a_6a_7a_8$ in N_2 . Therefore, for each $z \in N$, $|\Gamma(z) \cap N| = 4$. Also, every pair of vertices in each component N_i has either two common neighbors or four common neighbors depending on whether they are adjacent or not. For the third part, as in the part 1, let $v = x_1x_2\cdots x_8$ and $w = x_1x_2\cdots x_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8$, and consider two adjacent vertices $v_1 = \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6\bar{x}_7x_8$ and $w_1 = \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5x_6x_7\bar{x}_8$ both in N . Then, we see that all the vertices in $\{v_1, v, w\} \cup (\Gamma(v_1) \cap N) - \{w_1\}$ are adjacent to each other in Γ . Similarly, we see that all the vertices in $\{w_1, v, w\} \cup (\Gamma(w_1) \cap N) - \{v_1\}$ are adjacent to each other in Γ , too. This tells us that the vertices v and w belong to at least two cliques of size 8. However, the induced subgraph on $((\Gamma(v_1) \cup \Gamma(w_1)) \cap N) \cup \{v, w\} = S$ has only five further edges may be unnoticed in the above two cliques; they are the edges $\{v_i, w_i\}$ for $i = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$. In sum, we see that the induced subgraph on S has the configuration depicted as in the Figure 2.1. □

Corollary 2.2.2. In the halved-folded 8-cube Γ ,

1. each adjacent pair of vertices of Γ belongs to two cliques of size 8,
2. any three mutually adjacent vertices are adjacent with 6 other vertices in common,
3. any mutually adjacent four vertices have 4 other vertices in their common neighbors.

Proof It is an immediate consequence of Part 3 of Theorem 2.2.1. □

We now have the following theorem which describes the structure of the subconstituent of the halved-folded 8-cube.

Theorem 2.2.3. Let Γ be the halved-folded 8-cube. Let v be a vertex of Γ . Then the induced subgraph of Γ on $\{v\} \cup \Gamma(v)$ possesses 8 distinct cliques of size 8.

Proof Here we use the same notations as in the proof of Part 1 and 3 of the previous theorem; namely, $v = x_1x_2 \cdots x_8$, $w = x_1x_2 \cdots x_6\bar{x}_7\bar{x}_8$ and $N = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_6, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_6\}$. Consider the induced subgraph on the set $\{v, w, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_6\}$ which is a K_8 containing the pair $\{v_1, v\}$. The adjacent pair v and v_1 together with their common neighbors should form another configuration depicted by Figure 2.1, by Part 3 of the previous theorem. In fact, the five vertices

$$\begin{aligned} u_2 &= \bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2x_3x_4x_5x_6x_7x_8 & u_3 &= \bar{x}_1x_2\bar{x}_3x_4x_5x_6x_7x_8 \\ u_4 &= \bar{x}_1x_2x_3\bar{x}_4x_5x_6x_7x_8 & u_5 &= \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4\bar{x}_5x_6x_7x_8 \\ u_6 &= \bar{x}_1x_2x_3x_4x_5\bar{x}_6x_7x_8 \end{aligned}$$

which are in $\Gamma(v) - N$, together with vertices v, v_1 and w_1 form another K_8 containing v and v_1 .

Notice that u_i and v_i are also adjacent for each $i = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$. Now consider the pair v and v_2 . They belong to the clique formed by $\{v, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, w\}$. In addition to the vertices in this clique, the pair also has common neighbors w_2 and u_2 among all the vertices we have counted so far. So there will be four other vertices, that are in $\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(v_2)$ and that are not accounted for, say, t_3, t_4, t_5, t_6 , such that $v, v_2, w_2, u_2, t_3, t_4, t_5, t_6$ form another clique containing v and v_2 .

By continuing this process, we can enumerate all the vertices of $\Gamma(v)$ as well as all the cliques appeared in the induced graph on $\{v\} \cup \Gamma(v)$. The number of vertices added to the original 13 vertices in $\{w, v_1, \dots, v_6, w_1, \dots, w_6\}$ can be enumerated as $13+5+4+3+2+1+0 = 28 = |\Gamma(v)|$, which indicates that there are 8 cliques including the original two cliques and six new cliques coming with v_1 (or w_1), v_2 (or w_2), \dots , v_6 (or w_6). This completes the proof. \square

Corollary 2.2.4. Let Γ be the halved-folded 8-cube.

1. For any clique K_4 of Γ , all but four vertices of Γ are adjacent to the K_4 .
2. For any clique K_6 of Γ , all vertices of Γ are adjacent to the clique.

Proof Both can be verified by enumerating entire neighbors of the given cliques. Recall that every pair of vertices has 12 common neighbors. Also, from Part 3 of Theorem 2.2.1 and

its corollary, we know that any mutually adjacent triple has 6 common neighbors, and any mutually adjacent quadruple has 4 common neighbors. Therefore, the total number of vertices adjacent to any of the four vertices of K_4 is counted as $28 \cdot 4 - 12 \cdot 6 + 6 \cdot 4 - 4 \cdot 1 = 60$ by the inclusion and exclusion principle. For 2, the number is $28 \cdot 6 - 12 \cdot 15 + 6 \cdot 20 - 4 \cdot 15 + 3 \cdot 6 - 2 \cdot 1 = 64$, so the proof follows. \square

Having the configuration on $S = (\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)) \cup \{v, w\}$, we have seen that we could build up the induced graph on $\Gamma(v) \cup \{v\}$ by adding the other 15 adjacent vertices of v to S as in Theorem 2.2.3. In this process, the way the 15 vertices are added does not depend on the label of the vertices, but it depends on the parameters of the graph and the 14-vertex configuration depicted in Figure 2.1. In the same manner, we can then add another 15 vertices that are adjacent to w to have a combined structure on 44 vertices in $\Gamma(v) \cup \Gamma(w)$. The remaining 20 vertices in $V(\Gamma) - (\Gamma(v) \cup \Gamma(w))$ will be added as neighbors of the vertices in $\Gamma(v) \cup \Gamma(w)$. This building-up process is uniquely determined up to isomorphism according to the parameters of the graph and the 14-vertex configuration depicted in Figure 2.1. So we have the following:

Corollary 2.2.5. Let Γ be an $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$, and let v and w be two adjacent vertices of Γ . Suppose the induced subgraph on the subset $S = (\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)) \cup \{v, w\}$ of $V(\Gamma)$ has the configuration depicted in Figure 2.1. Then Γ is isomorphic to halved-folded 8-cube.

2.3 Construction of orthogonal arrays

In this section we describe how we can obtain orthogonal arrays from a set of mutually orthogonal Latin squares. We know that there are at most $n - 1$ MOLS of order n . Having a complete set of MOLS leads to many exciting consequences. For instance, it is an important observation that the existence of $n - 1$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order n is equivalent to the existence of a projective plane of order n . We will see that having a complete set of MOLS also implies many ways to construct orthogonal arrays in the current section and relevant combinatorial structures in the following sections.

As a generalization of the concept of the orthogonality of squares, we say that $m \times n$ matrices A and B are *orthogonal* if (a_{ij}, b_{ij}) are all distinct. Then clearly the following two $n \times n$ matrices R and C are orthogonal:

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & \cdots & 2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ n & n & \cdots & n \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \end{bmatrix}.$$

The two $1 \times n^2$ matrices (row vectors of length n^2)

$$R^{(1)} = [11 \dots 1 \ 22 \dots 2 \ \cdots \ nn \dots n] \quad \text{and} \quad C^{(1)} = [12 \dots n \ 12 \dots n \ \cdots \ 12 \dots n]$$

are also orthogonal. It is also clear that any Latin square of order n is orthogonal to both R and C . Conversely, if a matrix A is orthogonal to both R and C , then A is a Latin square of order n . In what follows, our alphabet is $Q = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ unless otherwise specified.

Definition 2.3.1. An *orthogonal array* $\text{OA}(t, n)$ is a $t \times n^2$ array with entries in Q such that any two rows are orthogonal; i.e., in any $2 \times n^2$ submatrix all possible columns occur precisely once; so, all pairs $(i, j) \in Q \times Q$ appear on the columns of any two rows.

The following well-known theorem gives the relation between a set of $t - 2$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares and an orthogonal array $\text{OA}(t, n)$. We sketch the proof since it shows a way to construct an orthogonal array from a set of MOLS.

Theorem 2.3.2. The existence of $t - 2$ MOLS of order n is equivalent to the existence of $\text{OA}(t, n)$.

Proof Let A_3, A_4, \dots, A_t be $t - 2$ MOLS of order n , and let $A_p = [a_{ij}^{(p)}]$, $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

for $3 \leq p \leq t$. Then we define the following $t \times n^2$ array A .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 2 & 2 & \cdots & 2 & \cdots & n & n & \cdots & n \\ 1 & 2 & \cdots & n & 1 & 2 & \cdots & n & \cdots & 1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\ a_{11}^{(3)} & a_{12}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(3)} & a_{21}^{(3)} & a_{22}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{n1}^{(3)} & a_{n2}^{(3)} & \cdots & a_{nn}^{(3)} \\ a_{11}^{(4)} & a_{12}^{(4)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(4)} & a_{21}^{(4)} & a_{22}^{(4)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(4)} & \cdots & a_{n1}^{(4)} & a_{n2}^{(4)} & \cdots & a_{nn}^{(4)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ a_{11}^{(t)} & a_{12}^{(t)} & \cdots & a_{1n}^{(t)} & a_{21}^{(t)} & a_{22}^{(t)} & \cdots & a_{2n}^{(t)} & \cdots & a_{n1}^{(t)} & a_{n2}^{(t)} & \cdots & a_{nn}^{(t)} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then the entries of A are clearly in Q . It is also clear that the mutual orthogonality between any two rows is inherited from that of the matrices $R, C, A_3, A_4, \dots, A_t$.

On the other hand, let A be a $t \times n^2$ array whose entries are in Q , and let each two rows of A be orthogonal so that $(a, b) \in Q \times Q$ appears exactly once in a fixed pair of two distinct rows. Then by permuting the indices of rows and columns we can have the first two rows $R^{(0)}$ and $C^{(0)}$ as in the above. The rest of rows will be converted into Latin squares as the rows are orthogonal to both $R^{(0)}$ and $C^{(0)}$. The mutual orthogonality of the rows will guarantee that the resulting Latin squares are mutually orthogonal. This completes the proof. \square

The above construction is available subject to the existence of $t - 2$ MOLS of order n . However, for the infinite sequence of prime powers q , orthogonal arrays $\text{OA}(t, q)$ are available for every $2 \leq t \leq q$ because there is a complete set of MOLS for every q . For the prime power order case, we find another fairly easy way to construct $\text{OA}(t, q)$ by using a desarguesian complete set of MOLS (cf. Appendix A.5). This construction of orthogonal array will be used when we construct symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices later.

Theorem 2.3.3. Let $L_1, L_\alpha, \dots, L_{\alpha^{q-2}}$ be the desarguesian complete set of MOLS of order q over $Q = \mathbb{F}_q = \{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{q-2}\}$. Let L_0 be the $q \times q$ array all of whose rows are identically $[0 \ 1 \ \alpha \ \alpha^2 \ \cdots \ \alpha^{q-2}]$. Let $A = [L_0 | L_1 | L_\alpha | \cdots | L_{\alpha^{q-2}}]$ be the $q \times q^2$ array obtained by juxtaposing the q arrays. Then (1) A is an $\text{OA}(q, q)$; (2) any t rows of A for $2 \leq t \leq q$ form an $\text{OA}(t, q)$. (This $\text{OA}(t, q)$ will be denoted by $\text{OA}_t(q)$ in what follows.)

Proof From the construction of the desarguesian complete set of MOLS, the set of polynomials $\{f_a : a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*\}$ represents the desarguesian complete set $\{L_a : a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*\}$ of MOLS via $f_a(x, y) = ax + y$. That is, each $q \times q$ block L_a in A is represented by f_a for $a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$, and each x determines each row of L_a with $\{ax + y : y \in \mathbb{F}_q\}$; in particular, different rows are created as x varies over \mathbb{F}_q . On the other hand, if we fix x and let a and y vary over \mathbb{F}_q , then $ax + y$ will fill the entries of the entire row of A corresponding to x , and this row comes from a Latin square represented by the polynomial f_x via $f_x(a, y) = xa + y$. In this correspondence, L_0 may be considered to be represented by f_0 with $a = 0$. That is, each row of A , except for the first being identified as L_0 , is also corresponding to one of MOLS L_1, L_2, \dots, L_{q-1} , and thus A is an $\text{OA}(q, q)$ constructed as in the Theorem 2.3.2. It is an immediate consequence that any t rows of this $\text{OA}(q, q)$ is an $\text{OA}_t(q)$ for any $2 \leq t \leq q$. \square

We note that at least $t - 1$ rows (after possibly except for the first row) of $\text{OA}_t(q)$ are corresponding to $t - 1$ MOLS each of which is represented by $f_x(a, y)$ for $x \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$.

2.4 Multipartite SRGs $L_t(q)$ and $\text{OA}_t(q)$

Given an $\text{OA}_t(q)$ with $2 \leq t \leq q$, we can obtain a graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(\text{OA}_t(q)) = L_t(q)$ as follows: The vertices of Γ are the q^2 columns of the orthogonal array (i.e., column vectors $[a_1 a_2 \dots a_t]^T$ of length t), and two vertices are adjacent if and only if they have the same entry in one coordinate position (cf. [28]). This graph $L_t(q)$ is often called as a Latin square graph and is a multipartite strongly regular graph as we will see. (Also see [52, Theorem 7.29].)

Theorem 2.4.1. The graph $\Gamma = L_t(q)$ defined as above is a strongly regular graph with parameters $(q^2, (q - 1)t, q - 2 + (t - 1)(t - 2), t(t - 1))$.

Proof Let A be the $\text{OA}_t(q)$. The number of columns of $\text{OA}_t(q)$ is q^2 and thus $v = q^2$.

Since every symbol $i \in Q$ occurs exactly q times in each row of A , there are q columns which have the same symbol $a \in Q$ in the i th coordinate position. This is true for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$. Therefore, given a fixed vertex $x = [x_1 x_2 \dots x_t]^T$, there are $q - 1$ distinct vertices whose i th

coordinate is x_i . These vertices do not share another common coordinate with x due to the mutual orthogonality of rows. So the valency k of Γ is $t(q-1)$.

Now for the enumeration of common neighbors of two adjacent vertices, without loss of generality, let $x = [x_1 x_2 \cdots x_t]^T$ and $y = [x_1 y_2 y_3 \cdots y_t]^T$. Then there are $q-2$ other vertices that have the first coordinate x_1 , and that are common neighbors of x and y . For each $j = 2, 3, \dots, t$, among the $q-1$ neighbors of x having the j th coordinate x_j , there is exactly one vertex which has y_i in the i th coordinate and thus being a neighbor of y for each $i \in \{2, 3, \dots, t\} - \{j\}$. This is due to the property of A that every possible combination $(x, y) \in Q \times Q$ occurs exactly once in any pair of rows. As there are $t-1$ possible j and $t-2$ choices of i for each j , we have $\lambda = (q-2) + (t-1)(t-2)$.

In the same manner, we can enumerate the common neighbors of a non-adjacent pair which is $\mu = t(t-1)$. Since all these numbers are independent from the choice of vertices, the proof follows. \square

Theorem 2.4.2. The SRG $\Gamma = L_t(q)$ with q a prime power, $2 \leq t \leq q$, is a q -partite graph with each part of size q . In particular, $L_q(q)$ is completely q -partite.

Proof For the technical convenience, we consider the SRG constructed in Theorem 2.3.3 by using the orthogonal array A obtained from the desarguesian complete set of MOLS of order q . By using the exact notations used in Theorem 2.3.3, we may write the $OA_t(q)$ by

$$A = \left[\begin{array}{ccccc|ccccc|c} 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2} & 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2} & \cdots \\ 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2} & 1 & 1+1 & 1+\alpha_1 & \cdots & 1+\alpha_{q-2} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2} & \alpha_{t-2} & \alpha_{t-2}+1 & \alpha_{t-2}+\alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{t-2}+\alpha_{q-2} & \cdots \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \cdots \\ \cdots \\ \vdots \\ \cdots \end{array} \left[\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2} \\ \alpha_{q-2} & \alpha_{q-2}+1 & \alpha_{q-2}+\alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{q-2}+\alpha_{q-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{t-2}\alpha_{q-2} & \alpha_{t-2}\alpha_{q-2}+1 & \alpha_{t-2}\alpha_{q-2}+\alpha_1 & \cdots & \alpha_{t-2}\alpha_{q-2}+\alpha_{q-2} \end{array} \right]$$

Then the first q vertices of Γ coming from the first q columns are clearly not adjacent to each other. The next q vertices coming from the columns of the Latin square L_1 are not adjacent to each other because each symbol of alphabet occurs once in each row and column of L_1 . Due to the same reason, we see that q vertices in each of the q blocks are never adjacent to each other within the blocks. So the graph is q -partite. The latter part is evident from the mutual orthogonality; i.e., one column of the i th Latin square has exactly one coordinate in common with every column of the j th Latin square for all $j \neq i$. (Thus it is imprimitive by Proposition A.2.4.) \square

When we choose $q = 2t$, the $\text{OA}_t(2t)$ gives $L_t(2t)$ which is an $\text{SRG}(4t^2, 2t^2 - t, t^2 - t, t^2 - t)$. In particular, when $q = 8$, we obtain an $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$ whose parameters coincide with those of halved-folded 8-cube. However, it will be clear that they are non-isomorphic cospectral pairs as we will see the structural description of $L_4(8)$ in the following section.

2.5 The structure of $L_4(8)$

In the previous section we have seen that the vertex set of $L_4(8)$ can be partitioned into 8 parts, V_1, V_2, \dots, V_8 such that (i) vertices in the same part are not adjacent to each other, and (ii) every vertex in V_i is adjacent to exactly four vertices in V_j for each $j \neq i$. This means that the adjacency matrix of Γ , which we denote it C , can be arranged as an 8×8 block matrix $C = [C_{ij}]$ where blocks C_{ij} are also of size 8×8 for $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 8\}$ with $C_{ii} = 0$. We know that the complement $\bar{\Gamma}$ of an $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$ is an SRG with parameters $(64, 35, 18, 20)$ and the adjacency matrix $\bar{C} = J - C - I$. If we delete the matrix $D = (I_8 \otimes J_8) - I$ from \bar{C} , then the remaining matrix $J - C - (I_8 \otimes J_8)$ must be the adjacency matrix of the graph $\Delta = \bar{\Gamma} - (8 \circ K_8)$.

Theorem 2.5.1. Let Γ be $L_4(8)$ with the partition of the vertex set $V(\Gamma) = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_8$ as above. Let Δ be the graph obtained from the complement of Γ by deleting all the edges

that link between the vertices within the same parts. Then Δ is also an SRG with parameters $(64, 28, 12, 12)$.

Proof In the graph Δ , every vertex has valency $35 - 7 = 28$ as the edges between the vertices in the same part have been eliminated from the $\bar{\Gamma}$; so, Δ is a regular graph with $k = 28$.

Any two vertices v and w that are adjacent in Δ belong to two different parts and they are adjacent in $\bar{\Gamma}$. Let $v \in V_i$ and $w \in V_j$ for $i \neq j$. Then, in Γ , $\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w) \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^8 V_k - (V_i \cup V_j)$.

Since each element $z \in \Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)$ has 4 neighbors in every part except for its own part, so in $\bigcup_{k=1}^8 V_k - (V_i \cup V_j)$, v and w have $12 = 48 - (24 + 24 - 12)$ common non-neighbors in Γ . Hence any two vertices that are adjacent in Δ have 12 common neighbors; i.e., $\lambda(\Delta) = 12$.

Any two vertices in the same part of Δ have $18 - 6 = 12$ vertices that are adjacent to both. Two vertices from two different parts that are non-adjacent in Δ (so are in $\bar{\Gamma}$) must have been adjacent in Γ . Each of these vertices had 4 adjacent vertices in each part except for the part to where it belongs. Therefore, among 48 vertices in 6 other parts to where neither belongs, they have 12 common neighbors and 12 common non-neighbors in Γ as before. Hence any two vertices belonging to two different parts that are non-adjacent in Δ have 12 common neighbors, so we have $\mu(\Delta) = 12$. \square

Theorem 2.5.2. Let Γ be an $\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$ obtained from $\text{OA}_4(8)$. Then for any $v \in V(\Gamma)$, $w \in \Gamma(v)$ the induced subgraph on $(\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)) \cup \{v, w\}$ forms a configuration depicted by Figure 2.2.

Proof Consider the $\text{OA}_4(8)$ described in the proof of Theorem 2.4.2 by replacing t and q by 4 and 8, respectively, and without loss of generality, let v be the vertex corresponding to the column $v = [a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4]^T$, $a_i \in \mathbb{F}_8$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Then there are seven other vertices each of whose first coordinate is a_1 . Let $w = [a_1 b_2 b_3 b_4]^T$, $b_j \in \mathbb{F}_8$ for $j = 2, 3, 4$, and let the other six vertices be v_1, v_2, \dots, v_6 . Then $v, w, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_6$ form a clique K_8 . There are six other vertices which are adjacent to both v and w . These six vertices have the following properties: (i) the first coordinate of any of these is not a_1 , (ii) either the second coordinate is a_2 , or the third

coordinate is a_3 , or the fourth coordinate is a_4 , and (iii) if its second coordinate is a_2 , then either the third coordinate is b_3 or the fourth coordinate is b_4 ; if its third coordinate is a_3 , then either the second coordinate is b_2 or the fourth coordinate is b_4 ; if the fourth coordinate is a_4 , then either the second coordinate is b_2 or the third coordinate is b_3 . Therefore, the six vertices are of the columns $[\square a_2 b_3 \square]^T$, $[\square a_2 \square b_4]^T$, $[\square \square a_3 b_4]^T$, $[\square b_2 a_3 \square]^T$, $[\square b_2 \square a_4]^T$, $[\square \square b_3 a_4]^T$ where each \square has a suitable element of \mathbb{F}_8 . If we label these vertices with w_1, w_2, \dots, w_6 in order, then we observe that these six vertices can not form a clique. In order to form a clique, vertices w_1, w_3, w_5 must share a common first coordinate, vertices w_2, w_4, w_6 must share a common first coordinate, w_1 and w_4 must have the same fourth coordinate, w_2 and w_5 must have the same third coordinate, and w_3 and w_6 must have the same second coordinate. However, it is impossible to fulfill all these conditions simultaneously by the mutual orthogonality of the Latin squares used. On the contrary, from the construction of the orthogonal array and the definition of Latin square, we observe that the first coordinates of the pairs w_1 and w_4 , w_2 and w_5 , and w_3 and w_6 coincide, which implies the fourth coordinates of w_1 and w_4 must be different, the third coordinates of w_2 and w_5 cannot be the same, and the second coordinates w_3 and w_6 cannot be the same either. In sum, the adjacency between these vertices indicates the configuration depicted in the bottom half of Figure 2.2. \square

Corollary 2.5.3. In the graph $\Gamma = L_4(8)$, three mutually adjacent vertices x, v, w are adjacent with either 6 or 4 other vertices in common.

Proof It can be easily observed that the adjacent triple v_1, v, w in the Figure 2.2 has six common neighbors $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, w_1$, while the triple w_1, v, w has four common neighbors v_1, w_2, w_4, w_6 . The neighbors of other triples can be counted in a similar manner. \square

Remark 2.5.4. Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2 show the difference between the local structure of $L_4(8)$ and that of halved-folded 8-cube. It shows that there are at least two non-isomorphic

SRGs with parameters $(64, 28, 12, 12)$. In the following chapter, we will see that there is another non-isomorphic cospectral SRG.

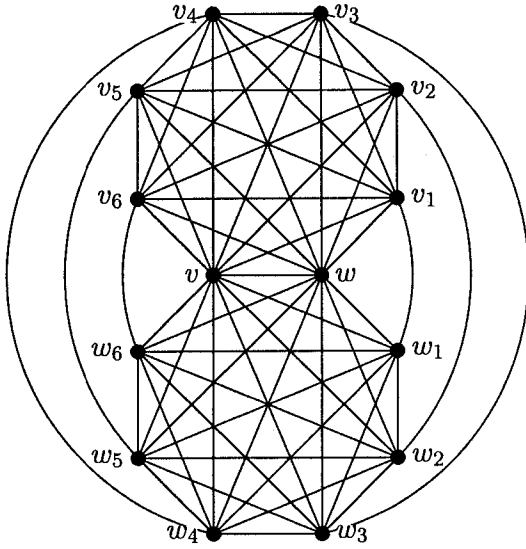


Figure 2.1 The induced subgraph on $(\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)) \cup \{v, w\}$ in halved-folded 8-cube.

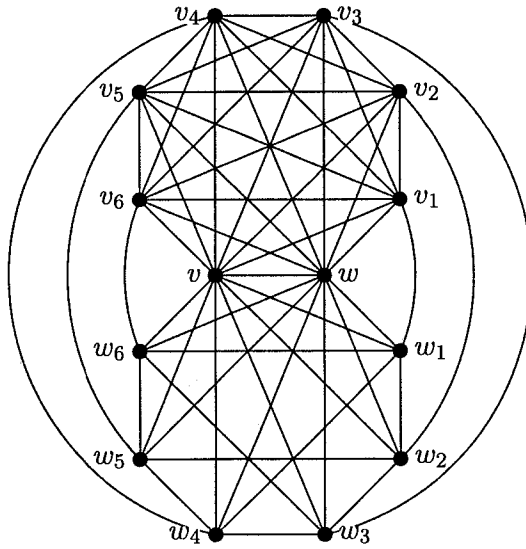


Figure 2.2 The induced subgraph on $(\Gamma(v) \cap \Gamma(w)) \cup \{v, w\}$ in $L_4(8)$.

CHAPTER 3. Symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices (SBHMs) and three-class imprimitive association schemes

An $n \times n$ matrix $H = [h_{ij}]$ with entries $h_{ij} = \pm 1$ is called a *Hadamard matrix of order n* if $HH^T = nI$. So, any two distinct rows of such H , row i and row j , satisfy $\sum_{k=1}^n h_{ik}h_{jk} = 0$. The order of Hadamard matrix must be 1 or 2 or a multiple of 4. A Hadamard matrix H is *symmetric* if $H = H^T$. A Hadamard matrix is *normalized* if all entries in its first row and first column are equal to 1. Two Hadamard matrices are *equivalent* if one can be transformed into the other by a series of row or column permutations and multiplications by -1 . In this chapter, we concentrate on a special type of Hadamard matrices, called *Bush-type Hadamard matrices* which are associated with strongly regular graphs of our interest.

Definition 3.0.5. A Hadamard matrix H of order $4n^2$ is called a *Bush-type Hadamard matrix* if $H = [H_{ij}]$, where H_{ij} are blocks of order $2n$, $H_{ii} = J_{2n}$ for all i , and $H_{ij}J_{2n} = J_{2n}H_{ij} = 0$ for all $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2n\}$, $i \neq j$.

Symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ are specially interesting because if there exists a projective plane of order $2n$, then there is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4n^2$ (cf. K. A. Bush [10]); consequently the non-existence of such a matrix of order $4n^2$ would be of great significance. Wallis [70] showed that a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ is obtained from $n - 1$ MOLS of order $2n$. Goldbach and Claasen [32] showed that certain 3-class association schemes can give rise to symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices. Recently Kharaghani and his coauthors (for example, [43, 44, 45, 50]) proved that such matrices are useful for constructions of symmetric designs and strongly regular graphs.

Symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ yield strongly regular graphs with

parameters $(4n^2, 2n^2 - n, n^2 - n, n^2 - n)$. In this chapter we explore construction methods of Bush-type Hadamard matrices and associated strongly regular graphs, and then investigate the structure of strongly regular graphs and that of three-class fission schemes of the SRGs. Our aim is to construct two types of three-class fission schemes, namely symmetric three-class association schemes and non-symmetric three-class association schemes related to $(2n, 2n)$ -team tournaments of type II. As a source of such association schemes, we construct symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices and obtain several non-isomorphic cospectral strongly regular graphs from such matrices.

3.1 Construction of SBHMs

In [70], Wallis gave a graphical interpretation of a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4n^2$, and gave two construction methods as in the following two theorems:

Theorem 3.1.1. Given an integer n , having a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4n^2$ is equivalent to have a strongly regular graph with parameters $(4n^2, 2n^2 - n, n^2 - n, n^2 - n)$ whose vertex set can be partitioned into $2n$ sets of size $2n$, such that (i) no vertices in the same set are adjacent and (ii) a vertex in a given set is adjacent to exactly n of the vertices in any other set.

Remark 3.1.2. The proof is straightforward from the definition. Given a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix H , we can obtain such an SRG; namely, the vertices of the graph correspond to the rows of H , the vertices i and j are adjacent if and only if H has (i, j) entry -1 . On the other hand, given the adjacency matrix A of such a $2n$ -partite SRG, if we set $H = J - 2A$, then H is equivalent to the desired Hadamard matrix.

Theorem 3.1.3. (1) If there exist $n - 1$ MOLS of order $2n$, then there is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4n^2$.

(2) If there exists a Hadamard matrix of order $4n$, then there is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $16n^2$.

Remark 3.1.4. For (1), the existence of such a Hadamard matrix is guaranteed by the construction of the corresponding strongly regular graph described in the previous theorem. Suppose L_1, L_2, \dots, L_{n-2} are $n-2$ MOLS of order $2n$. We construct a graph Γ whose vertices are the $4n^2$ ordered pairs $(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (2n, 2n)$. Two distinct vertices (a, b) and (c, d) are adjacent if and only if (i) $a = c$, (ii) $b = d$, or (iii) L_i has the same entry in positions (a, b) and (c, d) for some $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-2\}$. This construction is similar to the construction of $L_n(2n)$. It is easy to check that the graph is an $\text{SRG}(4n^2, 2n^2 - n, n^2 - n, n^2 - n)$. Assume that $n-1$ MOLS exist of order $2n$; denote by Γ the graph constructed using $n-2$ of them, and let L be the remaining unused square. Partition the vertex set $V(\Gamma)$ into sets V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{2n} where V_j contains all pairs (a, b) such that the (a, b) entry of L is j . Then it is clear that no two vertices in the same set are adjacent, that is Γ is a $2n$ -partite graph with each part of size $2n$. It is also clear that for any vertex $(a, b) \in V_i$, (a, b) is adjacent to exactly n vertices in V_j , $i \neq j$.

For the proof of (2), we use the Kharaghani's construction (cf. [49]). Let K be a normalized Hadamard matrix of order $4n$. Let c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{4n} be the columns of K . Considering the columns as $4n \times 1$ column matrices, we have $4n \times 4n$ rank-one matrices $c_i c_i^T$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 4n$. Let C_i be $c_i c_i^T$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, 4n$. (or if we let $C_1 = c_1 c_1^T$ and C_i be either $c_i c_i^T$ or $-c_i c_i^T$ for $i = 2, 3, \dots, 4n$) Then the following are easily verified.

- (1) $C_i^T = C_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 4n$;
- (2) $C_1 = J_{4n}$, $C_i J_{4n} = J_{4n} C_i = 0$, for $i = 2, 3, \dots, 4n$ since for each C_i the number of positive ones and that of negative ones are equally $2n$;
- (3) $C_i C_j^T = 0$ for $i \neq j$, $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 4n\}$ since the dot product of c_i and c_j equals zero for $i \neq j$, $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 4n\}$;
- (4) $\sum_{i=1}^{4n} C_i C_i^T = 16n^2 I_{4n}$ since $\sum_{i=1}^{4n} C_i C_i^T = 4n \sum_{i=1}^{4n} C_i = 4n K K^T$ and $K K^T = 4n I_{4n}$.

Now consider a symmetric Latin square L of order $4n$ with entries $1, 2, \dots, 4n$ with constant diagonal 1. (We can always find such a Latin square.) Replace each entry i of L by C_i . We then obtain a Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $16n^2$. This completes the construction.

Kharaghani [50] conjectured that Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ exist for every odd integer n . Although we can always construct a Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $16n^2$ whenever there is a Hadamard matrix of order $4n$, it is not much obvious about the existence of Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ for certain n , especially for odd n . Examples are known for $n = 3, 5, 9$ by Janko, Kharaghani and Tonchev. (See [43, 44, 45] for the details.) Muzychuk and Xiang [57] have constructed symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4m^4$ for all odd integers m by using reversible Hadamard difference sets. Yet there are many cases that are open. Nevertheless, for any n being of power of 2, we know fairly easy way to construct symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix from the $\text{OA}_t(2t)$, for $t = 2^l$, $l \geq 1$ that is constructed in 2.3.3 from the desarguesian complete set of MOLS of order $2t$.

Theorem 3.1.5. Let $t = 2^l$ for some $l \geq 1$, and let A be the adjacency matrix of $2t$ -partite strongly regular graph $\Gamma = L_t(2t) = \Gamma(\text{OA}_t(2t))$ constructed in 2.4.1 using an $\text{OA}_t(2t)$ constructed in 2.3.3. Then the matrix $H = J - 2A$ is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4t^2$.

Proof First we note that $\Gamma = \text{SRG}(4t^2, t(2t-1), t(t-1), t(t-1))$. Let $H = J - 2A = [H_{ij}]$, where H_{ij} are blocks of order $2t$. Then clearly all the entries of H are ± 1 . $HH^T = (J - 2A)(J - 2A)^T = (J - 2A)(J - 2A) = J^2 - 4AJ + 4A^2 = 4t^2J - 4t(2t-1)J + 4\{t(2t-1)I + t(t-1)A + t(t-1)(J - I - A)\} = 4t^2I$ since $AJ = kJ$ and by Part (b) in Proposition A.2.5 in Appendix A. Thus H is a Hadamard matrix of order $4t^2$.

Now from the structure of the adjacency matrix of Γ , we see that H is symmetric. $H_{ii} = J_{2t}$ for $1 \leq i \leq 2t$. By the construction of Γ obtained from $\text{OA}_t(2t)$ each row in H_{ij} for $i \neq j$ has exactly the same number of positive ones and negative ones. Thus $H_{ij}J_{2t} = J_{2t}H_{ij} = 0$ for all $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2t\}$ with $i \neq j$. Therefore, H is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4t^2$. \square

Remark 3.1.6. Let H be the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4t^2$ and let Γ denote the corresponding $L_t(2t)$. Consider the matrix $\hat{H} = -H + 2D$ where $D = I_{2t} \otimes J_{2t}$. Then

$$\hat{H}\hat{H}^T = (-H + 2D)(-H + 2D)^T = HH^T - 4DH + 4D^2 = HH^T.$$

That is, if we switch the plus and minus signs for all entries except for those in the diagonal blocks of H , then we have another symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix \hat{H} of order $4t^2$. This Bush-type Hadamard matrix \hat{H} also has a corresponding SRG $L_t(2t)$, say $\hat{\Gamma}$. It is also easy to see that $\hat{\Gamma}$ is obtained from the complement $\bar{\Gamma}$ of Γ by deleting all the edges between the vertices in each part corresponding to each diagonal block H_{ii} of H for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 2t$; i.e.,

$$\hat{\Gamma} = \bar{\Gamma} - ((2t) \circ K_{2t}).$$

where $(2t) \circ K_{2t}$ denotes the disjoint union of $2t$ copies of the complete graph on $2t$ vertices. $\hat{\Gamma}$ is not isomorphic to Γ in general (cf. [22]). However, for the case with $t = 4$, we can easily see that $\hat{\Gamma}$ is isomorphic to Γ . This is because when the four rows of $\text{OA}_8(8)$ are associated to Γ the remaining four rows of $\text{OA}_8(8)$ give rise to $\hat{\Gamma}$; it can be shown that every column in the four rows associated to Γ can be found from the set of columns of the remaining four rows or that of columns of a permutation of the remaining four rows (associated to $\hat{\Gamma}$).

Whenever we obtain a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix H , we have \hat{H} , and thus, we have a pair of strongly regular graphs with the same parameters. Such a pair, Γ and $\hat{\Gamma}$, are called ‘twin’ by Kharaghani. We note that Bonato, Holzmman, and Kharaghani [5] have also observed that given a Bush-type Hadamard matrix H of order $4n^2$, the matrix $M = H - I_{2n} \otimes J_{2n}$ contains two $\text{SRG}(4n^2, 2n^2 - n, n^2 - n, n^2 - n)$. From these twin pairs, we can always obtain imprimitive symmetric three-class association schemes. We will discuss more about this later in this chapter.

Remark 3.1.7. The symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix H constructed in Theorem 3.1.5 also has the properties that are satisfied by the one constructed by Kharaghani in Remark 3.1.4. Let $H = [H_{ij}]$ of order $4t^2$ be the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix constructed

in Theorem 3.1.5. Then, for $i, j, k, l \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2t\}$,

- (i) H_{ij} are $2t \times 2t$ symmetric arrays with entries $1, -1$;
- (ii) $H_{ii} = J_{2t}$, $H_{ij}J_{2t} = J_{2t}H_{ij} = 0$, for all i, j with $i \neq j$;
- (iii) $H_{ij}H_{ik}^T = 0$ for all $j \neq k$;
- (iv) for any i and k , $\{H_{ij} : j \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2t\}\} = \{H_{kl} : l \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2t\}\}$.

The first two follow easily by the way of construction of the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices in Theorem 3.1.5.

For (iii), if $i = j$ or $i = k$, then it follows from (ii). Suppose $i \neq j$ and $i \neq k$. Then from the construction of $\text{OA}_t(2t)$ in Theorem 2.3.3, $\text{OA}_t(2t)$ consists of $2t$ parts of size $t \times 2t$. Recall that the $2t$ -partite strongly regular graph $L_t(2t)$ has parameters $(4t^2, 2t^2 - t, t^2 - t, t^2 - t)$ and let $A = [A_{ij}]$ be its adjacency matrix where each A_{ij} is a $2t \times 2t$ block matrix. Then each row of A_{ij} has $\frac{t}{2}$ common positive ones with each row of A_{ik} for $j \neq k$. This implies that each pair of rows of H_{ij} and H_{ik} has t entries with the same signs and t entries with opposite signs. Hence $H_{ij}H_{ik}^T = 0$ for all $j \neq k$.

(iv) follows directly from the relationship between the Latin squares in the desarguesian complete set of MOLS.

3.2 Examples of SBHMs

Example 3.2.1. We give an example of a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order 64 with the way of Part (2) in Remark 3.1.4. Let K and L be the following normalized Hadamard matrix of order 8 and a symmetric Latin square of order 8 respectively.

Define H_1 as follows:

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = [c_1 | c_2 | \cdots | c_8]$$

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 6 & 5 & 8 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 & 7 & 8 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 8 & 7 & 6 & 5 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 6 & 5 & 8 & 7 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \\ 7 & 8 & 5 & 6 & 3 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 8 & 7 & 6 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 & C_3 & C_4 & C_5 & C_6 & C_7 & C_8 \\ C_2 & C_1 & C_4 & C_3 & C_6 & C_5 & C_8 & C_7 \\ C_3 & C_4 & C_1 & C_2 & C_7 & C_8 & C_5 & C_6 \\ C_4 & C_3 & C_2 & C_1 & C_8 & C_7 & C_6 & C_5 \\ C_5 & C_6 & C_7 & C_8 & C_1 & C_2 & C_3 & C_4 \\ C_6 & C_5 & C_8 & C_7 & C_2 & C_1 & C_4 & C_3 \\ C_7 & C_8 & C_5 & C_6 & C_3 & C_4 & C_1 & C_2 \\ C_8 & C_7 & C_6 & C_5 & C_4 & C_3 & C_2 & C_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, 8$, let $C_i = c_i c_i^T$.

Then H_1 is a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order 64.

Example 3.2.2. Let A be the adjacency matrix of $L_4(8)$, the strongly regular graph obtained from $OA_4(8)$ described in Section 2.4, and $H_2 = -(J - 2A) + 2(I_8 \otimes J_8)$ be the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order 64 constructed as in Remark 3.1.6.

Then

$$H_2 = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_5 & C_2 & C_8 & C_3 & C_6 & C_7 & C_4 \\ C_5 & C_1 & C_8 & C_2 & C_6 & C_3 & C_4 & C_7 \\ C_2 & C_8 & C_1 & C_5 & C_7 & C_4 & C_3 & C_6 \\ C_8 & C_2 & C_5 & C_1 & C_4 & C_7 & C_6 & C_3 \\ C_3 & C_6 & C_7 & C_4 & C_1 & C_5 & C_2 & C_8 \\ C_6 & C_3 & C_4 & C_7 & C_5 & C_1 & C_8 & C_2 \\ C_7 & C_4 & C_3 & C_6 & C_2 & C_8 & C_1 & C_5 \\ C_4 & C_7 & C_6 & C_3 & C_8 & C_2 & C_5 & C_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where C_i 's are the same C_i 's used in Example 3.2.1.

Example 3.2.3. Here is another symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix we obtained from Kharaghani's matrix H_1 by permuting the positions of blocks C_2, C_3, C_5 .

$$H_3 = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_5 & C_2 & C_4 & C_3 & C_6 & C_7 & C_8 \\ C_5 & C_1 & C_4 & C_2 & C_6 & C_3 & C_8 & C_7 \\ C_2 & C_4 & C_1 & C_5 & C_7 & C_8 & C_3 & C_6 \\ C_4 & C_2 & C_5 & C_1 & C_8 & C_7 & C_6 & C_3 \\ C_3 & C_6 & C_7 & C_8 & C_1 & C_5 & C_2 & C_4 \\ C_6 & C_3 & C_8 & C_7 & C_5 & C_1 & C_4 & C_2 \\ C_7 & C_8 & C_3 & C_6 & C_2 & C_4 & C_1 & C_5 \\ C_8 & C_7 & C_6 & C_3 & C_4 & C_2 & C_5 & C_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where C_i 's are the same C_i 's used in Example 3.2.1.

Remark 3.2.4. One interesting observation we can make is that the strongly regular graphs we obtain from the above three symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices are not isomorphic to each other. The twin graphs obtained from H_1 are isomorphic to halved-folded 8-cube.

(cf. Appendix B.1.) The twin graphs obtained from H_2 are isomorphic to $L_4(8)$. Recall that in Chapter 2, we have seen that every pair of adjacent vertices in halved-folded 8-cube and in $L_4(8)$ lies in a clique of size 8. However, the local structure of the third graph obtained from H_3 reveals that there are six vertices in the neighbors of a vertex v , none of which belongs to a clique of size 8 together with v . Neither of the twin graphs obtained from H_3 are isomorphic to the ones obtained from H_1 and H_2 . So we have seen that there exist at least three non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs with parameters $(64, 28, 12, 12)$.

3.3 Non-symmetric 3-class schemes coming from SBHMs

Let $m \circ K_r$ denote the disjoint union of m copies of the complete graph on r vertices and let $\overline{m \circ K_r}$ denote its complement, the complete multipartite graph with m independent sets of size r . Let Γ be an orientation of $\overline{m \circ K_r}$, i.e., every edge $\{x, y\}$ in $\overline{m \circ K_r}$ is replaced by one of the arcs (x, y) or (y, x) . Then we say that Γ is an (m, r) -team tournament.

Definition 3.3.1. An (m, r) -team tournament Γ with adjacency matrix A is said to be *doubly regular* if there exist integers k, α, β, γ such that

- (i) Γ is regular with valency k ,
- (ii) $A^2 = \alpha A + \beta A^T + \gamma(J - I - A - A^T)$.

Note that A^T is the adjacency matrix of the graph obtained from Γ by reversing the direction of all arcs and that $J - I - A - A^T$ is the adjacency matrix of $m \circ K_r$. Since A^2 counts the number of directed paths of length 2, the equation $A^2 = \alpha A + \beta A^T + \gamma(J - I - A - A^T)$ means that the number of directed paths of length 2 from a vertex x to a vertex y is α if $(x, y) \in \Gamma$, β if $(y, x) \in \Gamma$, and γ if $\{x, y\} \in m \circ K_r$.

Lemma 3.3.2. [47] Let Γ be a doubly regular (m, r) -team tournament and let α, β, γ be as in definition 3.3.1. Let $V(\Gamma) = V_1 \cup \dots \cup V_m$ be the partition of the vertex set into m independent sets of size r . For $x \in V_i$, let $d_j(x) = |\Gamma^+(x) \cap V_j|$ be the number of out-neighbors of x in V_j .

- (1) If $x \in V_i, y \in V_j$ and $(x, y) \in E(\Gamma)$, then $d_j(x) - d_i(y) = \beta - \alpha$.

- (2) For each pair (i, j) , $i \neq j$, either (i) there exists a constant c_{ij} so that $d_j(x) = c_{ij}$ for every $x \in V_i$ or else (ii) V_i is partitioned into two non-empty sets $V_i = V_i' \cup V_i''$ so that all edges are directed from V_i' to V_j and from V_j to V_i'' .

Let Δ be a finite doubly regular tournament of order m and let A be its adjacency matrix. The digraph with adjacency matrix $A \otimes J_r$ is denoted by $C_r(\Delta)$; so, it is a coclique extension of Δ . It is shown that if $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and r are positive integers, then $C_r(\Delta)$ is a doubly regular (m, r) -team tournament.

Theorem 3.3.3. [47] Let Γ be a doubly regular (m, r) -team tournament. Then Γ satisfies one of the following.

- (Type I.) $\beta - \alpha = r$ and Γ is isomorphic to $C_r(\Delta)$ for some doubly regular tournament Δ .
- (Type II.) $\beta - \alpha = 0$, r is even and $d_i(x) = \frac{r}{2}$ for all $x \in V(\Gamma) - V_i$.
- (Type III.) $\beta - \alpha = \frac{r}{2}$ and for every pair $\{i, j\}$ either V_i is partitioned into two sets V_i' and V_i'' of size $\frac{r}{2}$ so that all edges between V_i and V_j are directed from V_i' to V_j and from V_j to V_i'' or similarly with i and j interchanged.

Theorem 3.3.4. [47] Let R_1 be a doubly regular (m, r) -team tournament of Type I or Type II. Let $R_2 = R_1^T$ and $R_3 = \overline{R_1 \cup R_2}$. Then $(V(R_1), \{R_0, R_1, R_2, R_3\})$ is an imprimitive three-class association scheme.

Jørgensen proved the following relation between class of association schemes and Bush-type Hadamard matrices.

Theorem 3.3.5. [46] There exists an imprimitive 3-class association scheme of Type II (as in Theorem 3.3.3) and with $r = m$ even, if and only if there exists a Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order m^2 with the property that $H_{ij} = -H_{ji}$ for all pairs i, j with $i \neq j$.

Due to this theorem, we can obtain many imprimitive non-symmetric three-class association schemes of Type II from orthogonal arrays $\text{OA}_{\frac{m}{2}}(m)$ via symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order m^2 for $m = 2^l$. We state this as follows.

Theorem 3.3.6. There exists an imprimitive non-symmetric 3-class association scheme of type II with $m = r = 2^l$ for each $l \geq 2$.

Proof By Theorem 3.1.5, we can construct symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order m^2 . Let $H = [H_{ij}]$ be a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order m^2 constructed in Theorem 3.1.5. Let $\tilde{H} = [\tilde{H}_{ij}]$ be the matrix obtained from H by multiplying every entry of H_{ij} by -1 for all i, j with $i > j$. So in \tilde{H} , $\tilde{H}_{ij} = -\tilde{H}_{ji}$ for all $i \neq j$. In order to show that \tilde{H} is a Bush-type Hadamard matrix, it is enough to verify that $\tilde{H}_{ik}\tilde{H}_{jk} = 0$ for $i \neq j$ and $1 \leq k \leq m$. However, it follows from Part (iii) of Remark 3.1.7. Hence by Theorem 3.3.5, we have an imprimitive non-symmetric 3-class association scheme of type II with $m = r$. \square

Remark 3.3.7. We construct three imprimitive non-symmetric 3-class association schemes of order 64 of type II. Their relation matrices are found in Appendix B.5.

3.4 Symmetric 3-class schemes coming from SBHMs

In Remark 3.1.6, we have seen that given a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order $4n^2$, we can obtain twin strongly regular graphs with the same parameters $(4n^2, 2n^2 - n, n^2 - n, n^2 - n)$. The adjacency matrices A and \hat{A} of these twin graphs may be expressed as $\hat{A} = J - A - (I_{2n} \otimes J_{2n})$. Thus the matrices I_{4n^2} , A , \hat{A} , and $I_{2n} \otimes J_{2n} - I_{4n^2}$ form a decomposition of all-1 matrix of size $4n^2$. It is easy to verify that these are the adjacency matrices of a symmetric three-class association scheme. Furthermore this association scheme is a fission scheme of the 2-class association scheme (the strongly regular graph Γ) with the adjacency matrices I , A and $J - A - I$. We now state it as follows.

Theorem 3.4.1. There exists an imprimitive symmetric 3-class association scheme of order n^2 for each $n = 2^l$, $l \geq 2$.

Proof Let A be the adjacency matrix of strongly regular graph $\Gamma = L_{\frac{n}{2}}(n)$ obtained from $\text{OA}_{\frac{n}{2}}(n)$. Let H be the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix obtained as in Theorem 3.1.5. Then the following are the adjacency matrices of the 3-class symmetric fission scheme of Γ that we desired.

$$A_0 = I_{n^2}$$

$$A_1 = \frac{1}{2}(J - H)$$

$$A_2 = \frac{1}{2}(J + H - 2(I_n \otimes J_n))$$

$$A_3 = (I_n \otimes J_n) - I_{n^2}.$$

□

Remark 3.4.2. We construct three imprimitive symmetric 3-class association schemes of order 64. Their relation matrices are found in Appendix B.4.

CHAPTER 4. Three-class association schemes of order 64

In this chapter we provide the list of all feasible parameter sets of three-class association schemes of order 64 that appear in van Dam [16] and other existing literature (for example, [17, 46, 18]). We then discuss the classification of several cases of three-class association schemes of order 64. Many parameter sets are realized and some of the association schemes with such parameter sets are well-known. In order to understand their construction we survey some known association schemes.

The amorphic 3-class association schemes are precisely the 3-class association schemes in each of which all three relation graphs are strongly regular graphs, and that are not generated by one of their relations. In this case it is shown that the parameters of the graphs are either all of Latin square type, or all of negative Latin square type. Higman [41] was the first author proved this. The same results can also be found in [33], where also all such schemes on at most 25 vertices can be found.

Theorem 4.0.3. If all three relations of a 3-class association scheme are strongly regular graphs, then they either have parameters $(n^2, l_i(n-1), n-2+(l_i-1)(l_i-2), l_i(l_i-1))$ or $(n^2, l_i(n+1), -n-2+(l_i+1)(l_i+2), l_i(l_i+1))$. Here l_i , $1 \leq i \leq 3$, are positive integers such that $l_1 + l_2 + l_3 = n+1$ in the first case and $l_1 + l_2 + l_3 = n-1$ in the second case.

A large family of 3-class amorphic schemes comes from orthogonal arrays. Such schemes are often known as the *Latin square schemes* $L_{i,j}(n)$. Suppose that we have $l-2$ MOLS, or equivalently an orthogonal array $OA(l, n)$, an $l \times n^2$ array $A = [A_{st}]$, $s \in I_R = \{1, 2, \dots, l\}$, $t \in I_C = \{1, 2, \dots, n^2\}$ such that for any two rows a, b we have that $\{(A_{ai}, A_{bi}) : i \in I_C\} = \{(i, j) : i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$. The relations of the scheme $L_{i,j}(n)$ are defined on the set I_C . Let S_1 and S_2 be two disjoint non-empty subsets of I_R of sizes i and j , respectively. Two distinct

elements $x, y \in I_C$ are in relation R_h for $h = 1, 2$ if and only if $A_{rx} = A_{ry}$ for some $r \in S_h$, otherwise they are in third relation R_3 . (For more information on Latin square schemes, we refer to [54] or [16].)

If q is a prime power, and $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, we can define the 3-class *cyclotomic* association scheme $Cycl(q)$ as follows. Let α be a primitive element of $GF(q)$. As vertices we take the elements of $GF(q)$. Two vertices will be in relation R_i if their difference equals α^{3t+i} for some t for $i = 1, 2, 3$.

The *rectangular scheme* $R(m, n)$ has as vertices the ordered pairs (i, j) , with $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$. For two distinct pairs we can have the following three situations. They agree in the first coordinate, or in the second coordinate, or in neither coordinate, and the relations are defined accordingly. Note that the graph of the third relation is the complement of the line graph of the complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$. The scheme is characterized by its parameters. van Dam [16] gave the first eigenmatrix P and intersection matrices B_1, B_2, B_3 of this 3-class association scheme.

The property that one of the relations of a d -class association scheme forms a distance-regular graph with diameter d is equivalent to the scheme being *P-polynomial* that is, the relations can be ordered such that the adjacency matrix A_i of relation R_i is a polynomial of degree i in A_1 for every i . This is also equivalent to the conditions $p_{i+1}^i > 0$ and $p_{1j}^i = 0$ for $j > i + 1, i = 0, 1, \dots, d - 1$. For a 3-class association scheme the conditions are equivalent to $p_{13}^1 = 0, p_{12}^1 > 0$ and $p_{13}^2 > 0$ for some ordering of the relations. Dually we say that the association scheme is a *Q-polynomial scheme* if the primitive idempotents can be ordered such that the idempotent E_i is a polynomial of degree i in E_1 with respect to entry-wise multiplication for every i . Equivalent conditions are $q_{i+1}^i > 0$ and $q_{1j}^i = 0$ for $j > i + 1, i = 0, 1, \dots, d - 1$. In the case of a 3-class association scheme these conditions are equivalent to $q_{13}^1 = 0, q_{12}^1 > 0$ and $q_{13}^2 > 0$ for some ordering of the idempotents. (In this case, we say that the association scheme has *Q-polynomial* of ordering 123, i.e., *Q-123*.) For more details refer [1].

There is a formal duality between ordinary multiplication, the numbers p_{ij}^h and the matrices

A_i and P on the one hand, and Hadamard (or Schur) product, the numbers q_{ij}^h and the matrices E_i and Q on the other hand. If two association schemes have the property that the intersection numbers of one are the Krein parameters of the other, then the converse is also true. Two such association schemes are said to be *formally dual* to each other. An association scheme is called *formally self-dual* if the eigenmatrices P and Q coincide for some ordering of the primitive idempotents; it follows that the multiplicities m_i are equal to the valencies k_i and $q_{ij}^h = p_{ij}^h$.

In the rest of the chapter we list the feasible parameter sets and current status of the existence and non-existence results on the association schemes realizing the parameter sets. In the list, each parameter set is labeled according to the following schemes: ‘ S ’ for symmetric, ‘ N ’ for non-symmetric, ‘ P ’ for primitive, and ‘ I ’ for imprimitive. Then the first three matrices are the intersection matrices $B_i = [p_{ij}^h]$, $(B_i)_{jh} = p_{ij}^h$, for $i = 1, 2, 3$. The last matrix is the character table P of the association scheme with the given intersection matrix, which is augmented by the column of the multiplicities of the corresponding eigenvalues. Followed by the matrices, the number of known isomorphic classes of association schemes and some relevant information of the scheme with the given intersection matrices are provided.

4.1 Symmetric primitive 3-class schemes of order 64

The feasible parameter sets for the schemes in this category are as follows.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 SP1. \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 35 & 18 & 20 & 20 \\ 0 & 8 & 5 & 10 \\ 0 & 8 & 10 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 5 & 10 \\ 14 & 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 8 & 10 & 5 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 14 & 2 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 35 & 14 & 14 \\ 1 & 3 & -2 & -2 \\ 1 & -5 & 6 & -2 \\ 1 & -5 & -2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{l} 1 \\ 35 \\ 14 \\ 14 \end{array} \\
 \\
 SP2. \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 9 & 8 & 12 \\ 0 & 6 & 8 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 8 & 12 \\ 21 & 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 0 & 6 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 8 & 4 \\ 0 & 6 & 4 & 3 \\ 14 & 2 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 28 & 21 & 14 \\ 1 & 4 & -3 & -2 \\ 1 & -4 & 5 & -2 \\ 1 & -4 & -3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{l} 1 \\ 28 \\ 21 \\ 14 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

$$SP3. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 27 & 10 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 8 & 9 & 6 \\ 0 & 8 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 & 9 & 6 \\ 18 & 6 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 8 & 6 & 9 \\ 0 & 4 & 6 & 6 \\ 18 & 6 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 27 & 18 & 18 \\ 1 & -5 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & -6 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 27 \\ 18 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$SP4. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 21 & 8 & 6 & 6 \\ 0 & 6 & 6 & 9 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 6 & 9 \\ 21 & 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 6 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 6 \\ 21 & 6 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 21 & 21 & 21 \\ 1 & 5 & -3 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & 5 & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 21 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$SP5. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 3 \\ 21 & 0 & 10 & 6 \\ 0 & 15 & 10 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 & 4 \\ 0 & 15 & 10 & 12 \\ 35 & 20 & 20 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 21 & 35 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -5 \\ 1 & -1 & -3 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 & 9 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 35 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$SP6. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 21 & 10 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 12 & 15 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 12 & 15 \\ 35 & 20 & 18 & 20 \\ 0 & 5 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 4 & 0 \\ 7 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 21 & 35 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & -5 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 9 & -5 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 35 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$SP7. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 9 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 4 & 3 \\ 27 & 12 & 10 & 12 \\ 0 & 9 & 12 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 6 \\ 0 & 9 & 12 & 12 \\ 27 & 18 & 12 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 & 27 & 27 \\ 1 & 5 & 3 & -9 \\ 1 & 1 & -5 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 9 \\ 27 \\ 27 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remark 4.1.1. All the above parameter sets are realized. The number of non-isomorphic schemes are the following:

Schemes from	$SP1$	$SP2$	$SP3$	$SP4$	$SP5^{(1)}$	$SP6^{(2)}$	$SP7^{(3)}$
Number of isomorphism classes	≥ 1	≥ 1	≥ 1	≥ 1	1	1	2

⁽¹⁾ $SP5$ is realized as the P -polynomial scheme coming from folded 7-cube. This is uniquely

determined by their intersection array for by Brouwer [6] and Terwilliger [69].

(2) $SP6$ is realized as the P -polynomial scheme obtained from the halved 7-cubes and is characterized by their intersection array by Neumaier [58] and Terwilliger [68].

(3) $SP7$ is realized as the parameter sets for two DRGs, the Hamming graph $H(3, 4)$ and the direct product of K_4 and Shrikhande graph. These two DRGs are the only graphs with the given parameters.

(1) The schemes realizing the parameter sets $SP1$, $SP2$, $SP3$, and $SP4$ are all amorphic schemes. In particular, the schemes for $SP1$, $SP2$ and $SP4$ are Latin square schemes and $SP4$ is also realized as a cyclotomic scheme $Cycl(64)$. Their relation graphs are all strongly regular graphs that are obtained as ‘decompositions’ of strongly regular graphs with higher valencies; that is, the edge set of the original SRG splits into two disjoint subsets each of which defines an SRG with a smaller valency as follows.

$$(SP1) \ L_{2,2}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 14, 6, 2) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 14, 6, 2)];$$

$$L_{2,5}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 49, 36, 42) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 35, 18, 20) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 14, 6, 2)].$$

$$(SP2) \ L_{2,3}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 35, 18, 20) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 21, 8, 6) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 14, 6, 2)];$$

$$L_{2,4}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 42, 26, 30) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 14, 6, 2)];$$

$$L_{3,4}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 49, 36, 42) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 21, 8, 6)].$$

$$(SP3) \ \text{SRG}(64, 36, 20, 20) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 18, 2, 6) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 18, 2, 6) ;$$

$$\text{SRG}(64, 45, 32, 30) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 18, 2, 6) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 27, 10, 12)$$

$$(SP4) \ L_{3,3}(8): [\text{SRG}(64, 42, 26, 30) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64, 21, 8, 6) \uplus \text{SRG}(64, 21, 8, 6)].$$

(2) Association schemes from $SP1, SP2, SP3, SP4, SP6$, and $SP7$ are formally self-dual since $P = Q$. Thus the multiplicities are equal to the valencies and $q_{ij}^h = p_{ij}^h$.

(3) Association schemes from $SP5, SP6$, and $SP7$ are 3-class fission schemes with four integral eigenvalues.

(4) Association schemes from $SP5, SP6$, and $SP7$ are P - and Q -polynomial association schemes. $SP5$ and $SP6$ have two Q -polynomial structures [8].

Remark 4.1.2. We can also obtain $SP5$ and $SP6$ from halved-folded 8-cube Γ as follows: Let us represent the vertices (classes of antipodal pairs) of halved-folded 8-cube as opposite-pairs $\underline{x} = \underline{a} \vee \bar{\underline{a}} = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_8 \vee \bar{a}_1 \bar{a}_2 \cdots \bar{a}_8$ of even weight length 8 words \underline{a} and $\bar{\underline{a}}$. Suppose we delete the first coordinate a_1 and its opposite \bar{a}_1 from every vertex \underline{x} of Γ and have remaining pair of words of length 7. Considering the resulting pairs of length 7 words as vertices, we denote the vertices as $x = a \vee \bar{a} = a_2 a_3 \cdots a_8 \vee \bar{a}_2 \bar{a}_3 \cdots \bar{a}_8$ and $y = b \vee \bar{b} = b_2 b_3 \cdots b_8 \vee \bar{b}_2 \bar{b}_3 \cdots \bar{b}_8$ and define new relations on them by using the distance $\partial(x, y) = \min\{\partial_H(a, b), \partial_H(a, \bar{b})\}$ where $\partial_H(a, b)$ indicates the usual Hamming distance between two words.

- (i) If we define relations between two vertices x, y by $(x, y) \in R_1$ iff the distance $\partial(x, y) = 1$, $(x, y) \in R_2$ iff $\partial(x, y) = 2$, and $(x, y) \in R_3$ otherwise, then we obtain the P -polynomial association scheme $SP5$ which is isomorphic to the folded 7-cube. (See Appendix B.2.)
- (ii) If we define relations between two vertices x, y by $(x, y) \in R_1$ iff the distance $\partial(x, y) = 2$, $(x, y) \in R_3$ iff $\partial(x, y) = 1$, and $(x, y) \in R_2$ otherwise, then we obtain the P -polynomial association scheme $SP6$ which is isomorphic to the halved 7-cube. (See Appendix B.2.)

4.2 Symmetric imprimitive 3-class schemes of order 64

Known feasible parameter sets in this category are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 SI1. \quad & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 49 & 36 & 42 & 42 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 6 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 7 \\ 7 & 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 49 & 7 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -7 & 7 & -1 \\ 1 & -7 & -1 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 49 \\ 7 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \\
 SI2. \quad & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 42 & 26 & 30 & 30 \\ 0 & 10 & 6 & 12 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 6 & 12 \\ 14 & 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 42 & 14 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 & -1 \\ 1 & -6 & 6 & -1 \\ 1 & -6 & -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 42 \\ 14 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$SI3. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 35 & 18 & 20 & 20 \\ 0 & 12 & 10 & 15 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 10 & 15 \\ 21 & 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 35 & 21 & 7 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & -1 \\ 1 & -5 & 5 & -1 \\ 1 & -5 & -3 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 35 \\ 21 \\ 7 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI4. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 12 & 12 & 16 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 12 & 16 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 28 & 28 & 7 \\ 1 & 4 & -4 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & 4 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 28 \\ 28 \\ 7 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI5. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 14 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 12 & 8 & 12 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 8 & 12 \\ 42 & 24 & 28 & 30 \\ 0 & 6 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 5 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 14 & 42 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & -6 & 7 \\ 1 & -6 & 6 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 42 \\ 7 \\ 14 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI6. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 15 & 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 10 & 15 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 10 & 15 \\ 45 & 30 & 32 & 30 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 15 & 45 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & -3 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -3 & 3 \\ 1 & -5 & 5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 30 \\ 15 \\ 18 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI7. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 30 & 14 & 18 & 10 \\ 0 & 9 & 0 & 10 \\ 0 & 6 & 12 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 0 & 10 \\ 15 & 0 & 14 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 12 & 10 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 5 \\ 18 & 6 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 30 & 15 & 18 \\ 1 & 6 & -1 & -6 \\ 1 & -2 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & -10 & 15 & -6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 15 \\ 45 \\ 3 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI8. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 14 & 3 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 9 & 9 & 12 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 9 & 9 & 12 \\ 42 & 27 & 27 & 30 \\ 0 & 6 & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 5 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 14 & 42 & 7 \\ 1 & -2 & -6 & 7 \\ 1 & 2\sqrt{3} & -2\sqrt{3} & -1 \\ 1 & -2\sqrt{3} & 2\sqrt{3} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ 28 \\ 28 \end{matrix}$$

$$SI9. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 30 & 14 & 14 & 10 \\ 0 & 14 & 14 & 20 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 14 & 14 & 20 \\ 30 & 14 & 14 & 10 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 30 & 30 & 3 \\ 1 & -2 & -2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2\sqrt{5} & -2\sqrt{5} & -1 \\ 1 & -2\sqrt{5} & 2\sqrt{5} & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 15 \\ 24 \\ 24 \end{matrix}$$

Remark 4.2.1. All the above feasible parameter sets are realized except for *SI8* and *SI9*.

The number of non-isomorphic association schemes with the given parameters are as follows.

Schemes from	<i>SI1</i>	<i>SI2</i>	<i>SI3</i>	<i>SI4</i>	<i>SI5</i>	<i>SI6</i>	<i>SI7</i>	<i>SI8</i>	<i>SI9</i>
Number of isomorphism classes	1	1676267*	≥ 1	≥ 3	≥ 1	94*	12	?	?

*, * are due to [14] and [55], respectively.

- (1) Association schemes from *SI1*, *SI2*, *SI3*, and *SI4* are amorphic, especially they are Latin square schemes.

$$(SI1) \ L_{1,1}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,14,6,2) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)];$$

$$L_{1,7}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,56,48,56) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,49,36,42) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)].$$

$$(\text{Note: } L_{1,1}(8) \cong R(8,8))$$

$$(SI2) \ L_{1,2}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,21,8,6) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,14,6,2) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)];$$

$$L_{2,6}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,56,48,56) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,42,26,30) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,14,6,2)];$$

$$L_{1,6}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,49,36,42) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,42,26,30) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)].$$

$$(SI3) \ L_{1,3}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,28,12,12) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,21,8,6) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)];$$

$$L_{3,5}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,56,48,56) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,35,18,20) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,21,8,6)];$$

$$L_{1,5}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,42,26,30) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,35,18,20) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)].$$

$$(SI4) \ L_{1,4}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,35,18,20) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,28,12,12) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,7,6,0)];$$

$$L_{4,4}(8): [\text{SRG}(64,56,48,56) \rightsquigarrow \text{SRG}(64,28,12,12) \uplus \text{SRG}(64,28,12,12)].$$

- (2) Association schemes from *SI1*, *SI2*, *SI3*, and *SI4* are formally self-dual since $P = Q$.

Thus the multiplicities are equal to the valencies and $q_{ij}^h = p_{ij}^h$.

- (3) As we have obtained three non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs of the same parameters, we can also obtain the association scheme $SI4$ from halved-folded 8-cube and the one from the strongly regular graph obtained in Remark 3.2.4. These are not isomorphic to $L_{1,4}(8)$ or $L_{4,4}(8)$. (See Appendix B.4.)
- (4) Association schemes from $SI5$, $SI6$, and $SI7$ are 3-class fission schemes with four integral eigenvalues.

- (a) The fusion scheme of the scheme from $SI5$ is a symmetric imprimitive 2-class scheme from $SRG(64,56,48,56)$.
- (b) The fusion scheme of the scheme from $SI6$ is a symmetric primitive 2-class scheme from $SRG(64,18,2,6)$. (There are 167 non-isomorphic $SRG(64,18,2,6)$ [36].) Association scheme from $SI6$ is a P -polynomial scheme obtained from DRG with valency 15. The second relation graph is an $SRG(64,45,32,30)$.

There are 94 non-isomorphic cospectral three-class association schemes from $SI6$ [18], where only 5 examples were known before. The authors of [18] applied generation algorithm techniques based on backtracking with forward checking and dynamic variable ordering. Among the association schemes found in [18], 5 association schemes correspond to spreads in the unique generalized quadrangle $GQ(3, 5)$. (Brouwer and Koolen have shown that there are exactly 5 non-isomorphic spreads in $GQ(3, 5)$, with exactly one of them corresponding to a planar ovoid in $GQ(3, 5)$ and exactly one serendipitous spread [48, p.44].) The authors of [18] have verified by computer that at least 80 of the generated schemes can be constructed by means of the method described by D. G. Fon-Der-Flaass in [24, Construction 4]. The first relation graph is a distance regular antipodal cover of K_{16} .

- (c) The fusion scheme of association scheme from $SI7$ is a symmetric primitive 2-class scheme from $SRG(64,45,32,30)$. Association scheme from $SI7$ is Q -polynomial scheme, $Q = 123$. The third relation graph is an $SRG(64,18,2,6)$.
- (5) The parameter sets $SI8$ and $SI9$ are feasible for 3-class association schemes with two

integral eigenvalues. It is not known whether they are realizable or not though.

- (a) If there is a scheme with *SI8*, it must have a fusion scheme which is isomorphic to a symmetric imprimitive 2-class scheme from $\text{SRG}(64, 56, 48, 56)$. (i.e, $\text{SRG}(64, 56, 48, 56) \cong L_8(8) \rightsquigarrow$ [two regular graphs on 64 vertices with degree 14 and 42].)
- (b) If there is a scheme with *SI9*, it must have a fusion scheme which is isomorphic to a symmetric imprimitive 2-class scheme from $\text{SRG}(64, 60, 56, 60)$.

These schemes must have the following Krein parameters.

$$\text{SI8. } B_1^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 28 & 12 & \alpha & \alpha^- \\ 0 & 16 & \alpha^- & \alpha \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_3^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 16 & \alpha^- & \alpha \\ 28 & 12 & \alpha & \alpha^- \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\alpha = 12 + \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{3}$ and $\alpha^- = 12 - \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{3}$.

$$\text{SI9. } B_1^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 15 & 14 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 8 \\ 24 & \frac{56}{5} & 8 & 8 \\ 0 & \frac{64}{5} & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_3^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 7 \\ 0 & \frac{64}{5} & 8 & 8 \\ 24 & \frac{56}{5} & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

4.3 Non-symmetric primitive 3-class schemes of order 64

In this section, we check the feasibility and realizability of the non-symmetric primitive 3-class fission schemes from the 2-class symmetric primitive association schemes from the existing 5 pairs of strongly regular graphs on 64 vertices listed in [7].

(NP1) Fission of $\Gamma = \text{SRG}(64, 28, 12, 12)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 15 & 16 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 15 & 16 \\ 35 & 20 & 18 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 28 & 35 \\ 1 & 4 & -5 \\ 1 & -4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield the following feasible parameter set for a non-symmetric 3-class fission scheme.

$$NP1. \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 4 \\ 14 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 & 10 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 14 & 4 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 10 & 5 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 5 & 10 & 8 \\ 0 & 10 & 5 & 8 \\ 35 & 20 & 20 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 14 & 14 & 35 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & -5 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & -5 \\ 1 & -2 & -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 14 \\ 14 \\ 35 \end{matrix}$$

where $\rho = 2 + 4i$.

(NP2) Fission of $\Gamma = SRG(64, 42, 26, 30)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 42 & 26 & 30 \\ 0 & 15 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 15 & 12 \\ 21 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 42 & 21 \\ 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 1 & -6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield the following feasible parameter set.

$$NP2. \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 5 & 9 \\ 21 & 7 & 7 & 6 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 21 & 7 & 7 & 6 \\ 0 & 5 & 7 & 9 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 6 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 6 \\ 21 & 6 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 21 & 21 & 21 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & -3 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & -3 \\ 1 & -3 & -3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 21 \\ 21 \\ 21 \end{matrix}$$

where $\rho = 1 + 4i$.

(NP3) Fission of $\Gamma = SRG(64, 36, 20, 20)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 36 & 20 & 20 \\ 0 & 15 & 16 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 15 & 16 \\ 27 & 12 & 10 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 36 & 27 \\ 1 & -4 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield the following feasible set.

$$NP3. \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 8 & 4 \\ 18 & 4 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 18 & 4 & 4 & 6 \\ 0 & 8 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 9 & 6 & 8 \\ 0 & 6 & 9 & 8 \\ 27 & 12 & 12 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 18 & 18 & 27 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & 3 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 18 \\ 18 \\ 27 \end{matrix}$$

where $\rho = -2 + 4i$.

(NP4) Fission of $\Gamma = SRG(64, 14, 6, 2)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 14 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 7 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 7 & 12 \\ 49 & 42 & 36 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 14 & 49 \\ 1 & 6 & -7 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield the following fission character table, but it is not feasible since some putative intersection numbers calculated from this character table are negative. (For example, $\hat{p}_{11}^2 = -3$.)

$$\hat{P}_\rho = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 7 & 7 & 49 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & -7 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & -7 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } \rho = 3 + 4i$$

(NP5) Fission of $\Gamma = SRG(64, 18, 2, 6)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 18 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 15 & 12 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 15 & 12 \\ 45 & 30 & 32 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 18 & 45 \\ 1 & -6 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield the following fission table, but it is not feasible since the intersection number \hat{p}_{11}^1 appears to be -1 .

$$\hat{P}_\rho = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 & 9 & 45 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & 5 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } \rho = -3 + 4i$$

- Remark 4.3.1.** (1) $NP1, NP2, NP3$ are all formally self-dual. (This can be checked by calculating Krein parameters using Theorem II.3.5 in [1].)
- (2) Enomoto and Mena in [21] constructed a scheme with this parameter set $NP1$. It is not known if there are others.
- (3) The parameter sets $NP2$ and $NP3$ are feasible, but it is not known whether they are realizable.

4.4 Non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class schemes of order 64

(NI1) Fission of $\Gamma = SRG(64, 56, 48, 56)$;

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 56 & 48 & 56 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 56 & 7 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -8 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

These yield one feasible parameter set for a 3-class fission. This is realized and there are at least three non-isomorphic schemes.

$$NI1. \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 12 & 12 & 16 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 28 & 12 & 12 & 12 \\ 0 & 12 & 12 & 16 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 28 & 28 & 7 \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & -1 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & -4 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 28 \\ 28 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\rho = 4i$.

Remark 4.4.1. As we have seen earlier, there are three cospectral non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs with parameters $(64, 28, 12, 12)$. They are halved-folded 8-cube, $L_4(8)$, and the strongly regular graph discussed in Remark 3.2.4. Thus the number of non-isomorphic symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes with the parameter set $SI4$ in Section 4.2 is greater than or equal to 3. We also note that these three cospectral non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs are corresponding to three symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices as we have discussed in Section 3.2. By Theorem 3.3.6, we can obtain three non-isomorphic non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class fission schemes from these three non-isomorphic strongly regular graphs as well; so, there are at least 3 schemes with the parameter set $NI1$. (See Appendix B.5 for the relation matrices of the three-class association schemes.)

CHAPTER 5. Future research problems

We provide a few remarks in this final chapter. This includes a few problems and related topics.

Remark 5.1. We have constructed the third non-isomorphic cospectral strongly regular graph with parameters $(64, 28, 12, 12)$ from the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix H_3 given in Example 3.2.3. We have seen that the matrix H_3 has been obtained by permuting the positions of some blocks of other symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices which are associated with other cospectral strongly regular graphs. (While I am writing up this dissertation, we have discovered many more cospectral strongly regular graphs from distinct SBHMs. We have not yet completely examined how many other non-isomorphic cospectral strongly regular graphs coming from other symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order 64 would be. It will be discussed fully in [22].) We hope to find all symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices and their associated strongly regular graphs. Once we settle the case on the order 64, then the obvious next step would be to look for the construction of all symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of different order and their associated graphs.

Remark 5.2. With regard to the construction of symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices, we have discussed the following in Chapter 3: Kharaghani [50] conjectured that Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4n^2$ exist for every odd integer n . While the construction of Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $16n^2$ is provided for which a Hadamard matrix of order $4n$ exists, it is not much obvious about the existence or non-existence of such matrices of order $4n^2$ for certain n , especially for odd n . Examples are known for $n = 3, 5, 9$ by Janko, Kharaghani

and Tonchev. (See [43, 44, 45].) In [57], Muzychuk and Xiang constructed symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4m^4$ for all odd integers m by using reversible Hadamard difference sets. Yet there are many cases that are open. Nevertheless, for any n being of power of 2, we know a fairly easy way to construct a symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix from the $\text{OA}(t, 2t)$, for $t = 2^l$, $l \geq 1$ that is constructed in 2.3.3 from the desarguesian complete set of MOLS of order $2t$. We see a possibility of implementation of these constructions to find some non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes of type II due to [46].

In fact, in [46], Jørgensen obtained two non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes of order 36 of type II with $m = r = 6$ by using non-symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices satisfying conditions in Theorem 3.3.5. Non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes of order 100 of type II with $m = r = 10$ have not been constructed yet although a non-symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrix of order 100 was constructed in [44]. From the symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices of order $4m^4$ constructed by Muzychuk and Xiang, we can easily construct non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes of type II if the matrices satisfy conditions in Theorem 3.3.5. In order to construct non-symmetric imprimitive 3-class association schemes of type II for other open cases it would be useful to find all Bush-type Hadamard matrices satisfying the conditions in Theorem 3.3.5.

Remark 5.3. In Section 4.3, we have found two feasible parameter sets $NP2$ and $NP3$ for non-symmetric primitive 3-class association schemes, but we have not been able to determine whether they are realizable. It will be interesting to know whether there exist such association schemes as the non-symmetric case is linked to many combinatorial objects. It is not easy to find primitive association schemes in general. So, we need to look at more examples of primitive non-symmetric association schemes of small class. For class 3 case, the smallest example of such a scheme is of order 36 which comes from the action of $\text{PSU}(3, 3)$ on 36 points and have valencies 7, 7, 21. It was first discovered by Ivanov, Faradžev and Klin in 1982 whose description appeared in [23, p.115]. This was rediscovered by Goldbach and Classen [31]. It is interesting to know whether there is a way to construct such schemes from certain digraphs.

APPENDIX A. Preliminaries

In this appendix we recall some basic terminologies and facts about regular graphs, strongly regular graphs, distance-regular graphs, association schemes, and Latin squares, which are not our results and which are included for reference purposes. For more information we refer to, for example, [1, 4, 8].

A.1 Graphs, digraphs and tournaments

A *graph* $\Gamma = (V, E)$ is a set V of vertices and a subset E of the unordered pairs of vertices, called edges. In this dissertation, a graph is finite, undirected, and simple, i.e., without loops and multiple edges, unless indicated otherwise. We say that two vertices x and y are *adjacent* if the pair $\{x, y\}$ is an edge; i.e., $\{x, y\} \in E$. Given a graph Γ , sometimes the vertex set and edge set of Γ are denoted by $V(\Gamma)$ and $E(\Gamma)$, respectively.

The vertices adjacent to a given vertex x are called *neighbors* of x . Let $k(x) := |\Gamma(x)| = |\{y \in V(\Gamma) : \{x, y\} \in E(\Gamma)\}|$; the number of neighbors of x , which is called the *degree* or *valency* of x . A graph is *regular* with degree k if $k(x) = k$ for all $x \in V(\Gamma)$. This is the most obvious kind of combinatorial regularity, and it has interesting consequences for the eigenvalues of the graph as it will be seen shortly.

A graph is *complete* if any two vertices are adjacent. So a complete graph on n vertices has $n(n-1)/2$ edges. In a complete graph on n vertices, every vertex has degree $n-1$. The complement $\bar{\Gamma}$ of a graph Γ is the graph on the same vertices, but with complementary edge set; i.e., two vertices are adjacent in $\bar{\Gamma}$ if and only if they are not adjacent in Γ .

Given a graph $\Gamma = (X, R)$, and a subset Y of X , the *induced subgraph* of Γ on Y is the graph with its vertex set Y and edge set $S \subset R$ consisting of all edges between the vertices of

Y. A *clique* is an induced subgraph that is a complete graph.

A *walk* of length l between two vertices x, y is a sequence of vertices $x = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_l = y$ such that for any i the vertices x_i and x_{i+1} are adjacent. If all vertices in the sequence are distinct then the walk is called a *path*. The length of the path x_0, x_1, \dots, x_l is l , the number of edges connecting the initial vertex x_0 and the terminal vertex x_l . If there is a path between any two vertices of the graph, then the graph is called *connected*. Otherwise the graph is called *disconnected*.

The *adjacency matrix* $A = A(\Gamma)$ of a graph $\Gamma = (X, E)$ is the $|X| \times |X|$ matrix with rows and columns are indexed by the vertices, with its (x, y) -entry $A_{xy} = 1$ if $\{x, y\} \in E$ and $= 0$ otherwise. It is a symmetric matrix with entries 0 or 1. The eigenvalues, eigenvectors and spectrum of this matrix are also called those of the graph Γ , respectively.

Lemma A.1.1. Let Γ be a regular graph of degree k . Then: (a) k is an eigenvalue of Γ , (b) the multiplicity of k is 1 if Γ is connected, and (c) for any eigenvalue λ of Γ , we have $|\lambda| \leq k$.

A *directed graph* or *digraph* D consists of a vertex set $V(D)$ and an arc set $E(D)$, where each arc is an ordered pair of vertices. We write (x, y) for the arc. The adjacency matrix $A = A(D)$ is defined as $A_{xy} = 1$ if $(x, y) \in E(D)$ and $= 0$ otherwise. Let $D^+(x) := \{y \in V(D) : (x, y) \in E(D)\}$ denote the set of *out-neighbors* of x and $D^-(x)$ denote the set of *in-neighbors* of x . Let $d^+(x)$ denote the *outdegree*, the number of out-neighbors of x , and let $d^-(x)$ denote the *indegree* of x .

A *tournament* is a directed graph T with the property that for any two vertices x and y , exactly one of the arcs (x, y) or (y, x) belongs to $E(T)$. In terms of the adjacency matrix A , a tournament is a graph with the property that $A + A^t + I = J$, where I and J denote the identity and all-one matrices, respectively. If every vertex in a tournament T with n vertices has outdegree k then every vertex has indegree $n - k - 1$ and so $k = n - k - 1$, i.e., $n = 2k + 1$, and thus such a tournament is a regular directed graph of degree k .

An *orientation* of a graph Γ is a (simple) digraph D obtained from Γ by choosing an arc either (x, y) or (y, x) (but not both) for each edge $\{x, y\} \in E(\Gamma)$. An oriented graph is an orientation of a simple graph and it is the same thing as a loopless simple digraph. A

tournament is an orientation of a complete graph. A tournament T is called *doubly regular* if it is regular and for every vertex x in T the out-neighbors of x span a regular tournament.

Definition A.1.2. Let Γ and Γ' be (di)graphs. An *isomorphism* $\phi : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma'$ is a bijection from $V(\Gamma)$ to $V(\Gamma')$ which induces a bijection from $E(\Gamma)$ to $E(\Gamma')$; that is, $(x, y) \in E(\Gamma)$ if and only if $(\phi(x), \phi(y)) \in E(\Gamma')$. An automorphism of a (di)graph Γ is an isomorphism $\phi : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma$.

A.2 Strongly regular and distance-regular graphs

A regular graph in which the number of vertices adjacent to two vertices x and y depends only on whether x and y are adjacent or not, is called a *strongly regular graph*. In terms of parameters we have the following definition.

Definition A.2.1. A *strongly regular graph* with parameters (v, k, λ, μ) is a graph, Γ , with v vertices, which is neither complete nor the complement of a complete graph, in which

$$|\Gamma(x) \cap \Gamma(y)| = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } x = y \\ \lambda & \text{if } \{x, y\} \in E(\Gamma) \\ \mu & \text{if } \{x, y\} \notin E(\Gamma) \end{cases}$$

Such a graph will be denoted by $\text{SRG}(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$.

Lemma A.2.2. If Γ is an $\text{SRG}(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$, then $k(k - \lambda - 1) = (v - k - 1)\mu$.

Lemma A.2.3. The complement $\bar{\Gamma}$ of an SRG Γ with parameters (v, k, λ, μ) is also an SRG with parameters

$$(\bar{v}, \bar{k}, \bar{\lambda}, \bar{\mu}) = (v, v - 1 - k, v - 2 - 2k + \mu, v - 2k + \lambda).$$

We call a strongly regular graph Γ *primitive* if both Γ and its complement $\bar{\Gamma}$ are connected, and if it is not primitive we say it is *imprimitive*. We will recall these concepts as a little bit general manner when we deal with distance-regular graph. It follows the next result that an imprimitive strongly regular graph is either a complete multipartite graph or the disjoint union of a number of copies of a complete graph.

Proposition A.2.4. A strongly regular graph Γ with parameters (v, k, λ, μ) is imprimitive if and only if $\mu = k$ or $\mu = 0$.

Proof See [27]. □

By Lemma A.1.1, the adjacency matrix of a regular graph with degree k has an eigenvalue k with eigenvector $\mathbf{1}$ (the all-one vector). For convenience we call an eigenvalue *restricted* if it has an eigenvector perpendicular to $\mathbf{1}$.

Proposition A.2.5. For a graph Γ of order n , not complete or empty, with adjacency matrix A , the following are equivalent:

- (a) Γ is an $\text{SRG}(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$ for certain non-negative integers k, λ , and μ .
- (b) $A^2 = kI + \lambda A + \mu(J - I - A)$ for certain reals k, λ , and μ .
- (c) A has precisely two distinct restricted eigenvalues.

Proof See [34, Theorem 1.1]. □

Next result is known as the *integrality condition*, and depends on an analysis of the eigenvalues of the graph.

Proposition A.2.6. If there is an $\text{SRG}(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$ with adjacency matrix A and let f and g be respective multiplicities of restricted eigenvalues of A , then the numbers

$$f, g = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (v-1) \pm \frac{(v-1)(\mu-\lambda)-2k}{\sqrt{(\mu-\lambda)^2 + 4(k-\mu)}} \right\}.$$

are non-negative integers.

Proof See [12, Theorem 3.1] or [34, Theorem 1.2]. □

The *distance* $\partial(x, y)$ between two vertices x and y in a graph Γ is the length of the shortest path from x to y . The *diameter* of a graph Γ is the maximum distance between two distinct vertices.

Definition A.2.7. Let $\Gamma = (V, E)$ be a connected regular graph. Γ is called a *distance-regular graph* (DRG) with diameter d if it satisfies the following distance-regularity condition:

For all $h, i, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$, and x, y with $\partial(x, y) = h$, the number

$$p_{ij}^h = |\{z \in V : \partial(x, z) = i, \partial(z, y) = j\}|$$

is constant in that it depends only on h, i, j but does not depend on the choice of x and y . If $\Gamma_i(x) = \{y \in V : \partial(x, y) = i\}$, then $p_{ij}^h := |\Gamma_i(x) \cap \Gamma_j(y)|$ for all $x, y \in V(\Gamma)$ with $\partial(x, y) = h$. This number is called the *intersection number*.

Let $\partial(x, y) = i$ and define

$$a_i := p_{11}^i = |\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_i(y)|$$

$$b_i := p_{1\ i+1}^i = |\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i+1}(y)|$$

$$c_i := p_{1\ i-1}^i = |\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i-1}(y)|$$

Then $b_0 = p_{11}^0 = |\Gamma(x)| = k$; the degree of Γ , and we will define $c_0 := 0$, $b_d := 0$, and $a_0 := 0$.

The following matrix is called the *intersection array* (matrix) for the DRG of diameter d .

$$B (= B_1) = \begin{pmatrix} a_0 & c_1 & & & \\ b_0 & a_1 & c_2 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & c_d & \\ & & & b_{d-1} & a_d \end{pmatrix}.$$

The $d + 1$ intersection matrices $B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_d$ of Γ are defined as follows:

$$B_i = [(B_i)_{jh}] \quad \text{where} \quad (B_i)_{jh} = p_{ij}^h.$$

For a graph Γ of diameter d we define the i -th *distance graph* Γ_i to be the graph with the same vertex set as Γ , and with two vertices adjacent if and only if they are at distance i in the graph Γ . We call Γ *imprimitive* if for some i , ($1 \leq i \leq d$), the graph Γ_i is disconnected. A graph which is not imprimitive is called *primitive*. Denote by k_i ($0 \leq i \leq d$) the number of vertices in $\Gamma_i(x)$ for any vertex x ; in particular $k_0 = 1$ and $k_1 = k$. The following result gives us the basic properties of the parameters a_i , b_i , c_i , and k_i of a distance-regular graph, see [8] for the details.

Proposition A.2.8. Let Γ be a distance-regular graph with degree k and diameter d . Then the following hold:

- (a) $k_{i-1}b_{i-1} = k_i c_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, d$.
- (b) $1 = c_1 \leq c_2 \leq \dots \leq c_d$.
- (c) $k = b_0 \geq b_1 \geq \dots \geq b_{d-1} > 0$.
- (d) $c_i + a_i + b_i = k$ for $0 \leq i \leq d$.

All DRGs with diameter 2 are SRGs. Conversely, all connected SRGs are DRGs with diameter 2. The DRGs form a class of P -polynomial association schemes, and SRGs form a special class of symmetric association schemes of class two.

Definition A.2.9. Let F be a set of q -elements ($q \geq 2$), and let $X = F^n$; the set of ordered n -tuples of elements of F . A *Hamming graph*, $\Gamma = H(n, q)$, is a graph whose vertex set is given by $V(\Gamma) = X = \{x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in F^n\}$, and whose edge set, $E(\Gamma)$, is defined by

$$\{x, y\} \in E(\Gamma) \text{ if and only if } x_i = y_i \text{ for all but one } i$$

where $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in V(\Gamma)$. The Hamming graph is a DRG with diameter $d = n$.

In $\Gamma = H(n, q)$, the degree of Γ is $k = |\Gamma(x)| = b_0 = n(q-1)$, and the intersection numbers of $H(n, q)$ are given by

$$c_i = i, \quad b_i = (n-i)(q-1),$$

$$a_i = k - b_i - c_i = n(q-1) - i - (n-i)(q-1) = i(q-2),$$

and,

$$p_{ij}^h = \sum_{l=0}^n (q-2)^{j+2l-i-h} (q-1)^{i-l} \binom{l}{j+2l-i-h} \binom{h}{l} \binom{n-h}{i-l}.$$

When $q = 2$ and $F = \mathbb{F}_2 = \{0, 1\}$, the Hamming graphs are known as *Hamming cubes*.

The *direct product* of two graphs $\Gamma_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $\Gamma_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ is the graph defined on the vertex set $V_1 \times V_2$ such that two vertices $(x_1, x_2), (y_1, y_2) \in V_1 \times V_2$ are adjacent if and only if either $x_1 = y_1$ and $\{x_2, y_2\} \in E_2$, or $\{x_1, y_1\} \in E_1$ and $x_2 = y_2$. Hamming graphs $H(d, q)$ is the direct power K_q^d of d -copies of K_q .

Cospectral graphs are the graphs with the same spectrum. There are many non-isomorphic cospectral distance-regular graphs. Among the small distance-regular graphs, the Hamming $H(2, 4)$ graph, which is also known as the ‘lattice graph, $L_2(4)$ ’, and the line graph $L(K_{4,4})$ of the complete bipartite graph $K_{4,4}$, has a cospectral graph known as the ‘Shrikhande graph’.(cf. [8, p.105].) Doob graphs which are obtained by taking the direct product of copies of $H(2, 4)$ and the Shrikhande graph are all cospectral as long as the number of factors is the same.

A.3 Halved and folded distance-regular graphs

A graph $\Gamma = (V, E)$ is called *bipartite* if the vertex set V is partitioned into two parts X and Y such that $E \subseteq \{\{x, y\} : x \in X, y \in Y\}$. In particular, if $E = \{\{x, y\} : x \in X, y \in Y\}$, then Γ is called a *complete bipartite* graph. The adjacency matrix of a bipartite graph is congruent to a matrix of the form $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$ where A and D are $|X| \times |X|$ and $|Y| \times |Y|$ zero matrices, respectively. Similarly, we call a graph $\Gamma = (V, E)$ a *multipartite* or *m-partite graph* if V is partitioned into m non-empty subsets, say, $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_m$ (with $m > 2$) and no two vertices in the same part is adjacent.

Definition A.3.1. Let Γ be a bipartite distance-regular graph with bipartition $V(\Gamma) = X \cup Y$. Let $V(\Gamma') = X$, and for $x, y \in X$, let x and y be adjacent in Γ' if and only if $\partial(x, y) = 2$ in Γ . Γ' is distance-regular and is called the *halved graph* of Γ .

We note that Γ has another halved graph with vertex set Y which need not be isomorphic to Γ' unless Γ is a bipartite ‘distance-transitive graph’, however, this fact has no bearing on what follows. Let the parameters of a bipartite distance-regular graph Γ be designated as a_i, b_i, c_i . Those of its halved graph Γ' will be designated a'_i, b'_i, c'_i . Since Γ is a bipartite graph, it has no odd cycles, which forces $a_i = 0$, for all i . As a result, $b_i + c_i = k$, the degree of Γ . Due to Gardiner [26], we get: If $c_3 = c_2$, then $c_3 = c_2 = 1$, and by Hemmeter [38], we have:

Lemma A.3.2. $b'_i = \frac{b_{2i}b_{2i+1}}{c_2}$ and $c'_j = \frac{c_{2j}c_{2j-1}}{c_2}$.

Proof Let x and y be vertices of Γ' such that $x \in \Gamma_{2i}(y)$. Count the number of pairs (w, z) with $w \in \Gamma_1(y) \cap \Gamma_{2i+1}(x)$ and $z \in \Gamma_1(w) \cap \Gamma_{2i+2}(x)$. There are b_{2i} such w , each of which has b_{2i+1} such z . Counting z ’s first gives $b'_i c_2$. This implies the former. The latter can be proved in the same manner, with x, y being as above, by counting the pairs (w, z) with $w \in \Gamma_1(y) \cap \Gamma_{2j-1}(x)$, $z \in \Gamma_1(w) \cap \Gamma_{2j-2}(x)$. \square

Lemma A.3.3. [39] Suppose Γ' is not a complete graph. Then for every $y \in Y$, $\Gamma(y)$ is a maximal clique in Γ' . Furthermore, if $y_1 \neq y_2$, then $\Gamma(y_1) \neq \Gamma(y_2)$.

We now introduce another class of distance-regular graphs that are obtained from antipodal distance-regular graphs.

Definition A.3.4. Let Γ be a distance-regular graph with diameter d . For x and y in $V(\Gamma)$, we say that x is *opposite* to y if $\partial(x, y) = d$, or $x = y$. The graph Γ is called *antipodal* if being opposite is an equivalence relation on Γ ; i.e., $x \sim y$ in Γ if and only if x and y are opposite. For an antipodal graph Γ , we can define a graph $\check{\Gamma}$ whose vertices are the equivalence classes of Γ . If \bar{x} and \bar{y} are in $V(\check{\Gamma})$, we say that $\{\bar{x}, \bar{y}\} \in E(\check{\Gamma})$ if for some $x \in \bar{x}$ and $y \in \bar{y}$, $\{x, y\} \in E(\Gamma)$. Then $\check{\Gamma}$ is distance-regular, and is called the *folded graph*, or *antipodal quotient* of Γ . In this case, Γ is called the *antipodal cover* of $\check{\Gamma}$.

Let Γ be an antipodal distance-regular graph, and let $\check{\Gamma}$ be its folded graph. Then we have the canonical surjective map ϕ defined by $x \mapsto \bar{x}$. With this, we have:

Lemma A.3.5. [39] Let $x \in V(\Gamma)$ and Υ be the subgraph induced by $\bigcup_{j=0}^{\lfloor \frac{d}{2} \rfloor - 1} \Gamma_j(x)$. Then ϕ restricted to Υ is an isomorphism onto $\phi(\Upsilon)$. If $d \geq 4$, $\phi(\Upsilon)$ contains all of the neighbors of \bar{x} .

Corollary A.3.6. [39] If $d \geq 4$, then the structure of the cliques which contain a vertex $\bar{x} \in V(\check{\Gamma})$ is isomorphic to the structure of the cliques containing the vertex $x \in V(\Gamma)$.

It is easy to see that bipartite and antipodal distance-regular graphs of diameter $d \geq 2$ are imprimitive graphs. In fact, if Γ is a bipartite or an antipodal graph, then Γ_2 or Γ_d are disconnected, respectively. It is clear that when Γ is connected bipartite graph of diameter $d \geq 2$, then Γ_2 has two components, and the graphs induced on these components by Γ_2 are halved graphs of Γ . Also recall that if Γ is an antipodal DRG, then we define the folded graph of Γ by taking connected components of Γ_d as vertices where two components (equivalence classes) are adjacent whenever they contain adjacent vertices in Γ . The following theorem is due to Smith, Martinov, and Gardiner. (cf.[8, p.140])

Theorem A.3.7. An imprimitive distance-regular graph of valency $k > 2$ is bipartite or antipodal (or both).

Proof Let Γ be a imprimitive distance-regular graph of valency $k > 2$ and diameter d . Since if $d = 2$ then it is clear, so we may assume that $d \geq 3$. Let i be the smallest positive integer such that Γ_i is disconnected. If $x, y, z \in V(\Gamma)$ form a triple of type (j, i, i) ; i.e., $\partial(x, y) = j, \partial(x, z) = \partial(y, z) = i$, then $p_{ii}^j > 0$ whence any path in Γ_j gives rise to a path in Γ_i . Hence the minimality of i implies that $j \geq i$; so Γ contains no triples of type (j, i, i) with $j < i$.

Suppose $i = 2 < d$. Then pick z_0 and z_3 at distance 3 and consider the path z_0, z_1, z_2, z_3 . If $y \in \Gamma(z_0) \cap \Gamma(z_1)$ then either the triple y, z_0, z_2 or y, z_1, z_3 is a triple of forbidden type $(1, 2, 2)$; so $a_1 = 0$ and there are no triangles. If there is a closed cycle C of odd length greater than 3, then all vertices of C lie in the same connected component Δ of Γ_2 ; in particular, Δ contains edges of Γ . Now for any $y, z \in \Delta$ which are adjacent in Γ , all points adjacent in Γ to y and z are in Δ . This implies $\Delta = \Gamma$ as Γ is connected. This is a contradiction. Therefore, Γ has no

closed odd cycles if $i = 2$, and thus Γ is bipartite.

Suppose $2 < i < d$. Then pick z_0, z_d at distance d , and let z_0, z_1, \dots, z_d be a path of length d . Since $k \geq 3$, there is $y \in \Gamma$ such that $y \in \Gamma(z_{i+1}) - \{z_i, z_{i+2}\}$. But then $\partial(y, z_0) = i + l$ with $l \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ and y, z_{i+l}, z_l is a triple of forbidden type (j, i, i) , $j \leq 2$, which is a contradiction. Finally, if $i = d$, then all triples (j, d, d) with $j < d$ are forbidden whence Γ_d is a disjoint union of cliques, hence Γ is antipodal. \square

Corollary A.3.8. Let Γ be an imprimitive distance-regular graph of valency $k > 2$ and diameter d . Let I be a subset of $\{0, 1, \dots, d\}$ such that having distance in I is an equivalence relation on $V(\Gamma)$. Then I is one of the sets $\{0\}$, $\{0, d\}$, $\{0, 2, 4, \dots\}$, or $\{0, 1, \dots, d\}$.

Proof Straightforward from the proof of A.3.7. \square

The following easy observations are useful.

Lemma A.3.9. [8, p.141]

- (1) Let Γ be an antipodal graph with folded graph $\check{\Gamma}$. Then $\check{\Gamma}$ is not antipodal except when the diameter $d(\Gamma) \leq 3$, in which case $\check{\Gamma}$ is complete, or when Γ is bipartite of $d(\Gamma) = 4$, in which case $\check{\Gamma}$ is complete bipartite.
- (2) If Γ is a bipartite distance-regular graph with $k > 2$ and its halved graph Γ' , then Γ' is not bipartite.

A.4 Commutative association schemes

In this section, we will recall the basic facts about association schemes. (cf. [1], [8], [19])

Definition A.4.1. Let X be a finite set of cardinality v and R_0, R_1, \dots, R_d be a (non-empty) binary relation of X ; i.e., $R_i \subseteq X \times X = \{(x, y) : x, y \in X\}$. The configuration $(X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ is called a d -class (*commutative*) *association scheme* if it satisfies the following axioms:

- (1) $R_0 = \{(x, x) : x \in X\}$, the diagonal relation
- (2) $R_0 \dot{\cup} R_1 \dot{\cup} \dots \dot{\cup} R_d = X \times X$
- (3) $R_i^T = \{(y, x) : (x, y) \in R_i\}$ must be a member of $\{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_d\}$. Denote $R_i^T = R_{i'}$ for some $i' \in \{1, 2, \dots, d\}$
- (4) For any $h, i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, d\}$, and for any $(x, y) \in R_h$, the number

$$p_{ij}^h = |\{z \in X : (x, z) \in R_i, (z, y) \in R_j\}|$$

does not depend on the choice of x and y , but depends only on i, j, h .

- (5) $p_{ij}^h = p_{ji}^h$ for all $h, i, j = 0, 1, \dots, d$,

Furthermore, an association scheme $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ is called *symmetric* if $R_i^T = R_i$ for all i . A symmetric association scheme is necessarily commutative but not vice versa. The numbers p_{ij}^h are called the *intersection numbers* or *parameters* of \mathcal{X} . The number of elements that are in i th relation from a fixed element x is called the i th *valency* and denoted by k_i ; so $k_i = |\{z \in X : (x, z) \in R_i\}|$ for any $x \in X$.

Lemma A.4.2. In a d -class association scheme $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$,

1. (a) $k_i = p_{ii}^0$, $0 \leq i \leq d$, (b) $k_0 = 1$, $k_i > 0$, (c) $k_i = k_{i'}$, and (d) $v = \sum_{i=0}^d k_i$.
2. The intersection numbers have the following identities:

- (a) $p_{0j}^h = \delta_{jh}$, $p_{i0}^h = \delta_{ih}$
- (b) $p_{ij}^0 = \delta_{ij'} k_i$
- (c) $p_{ij}^h = p_{i'j'}^h$
- (d) $\sum_{j=0}^d p_{ij}^h = k_i$
- (e) $k_h p_{ij}^h = k_j p_{i'h}^j = k_i p_{hj'}^i$
- (f) $\sum_{\alpha=0}^d p_{\alpha r}^h p_{ij}^\alpha = \sum_{\beta=0}^d p_{i\beta}^h p_{jr}^\beta$

Given a d -class association scheme $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$, let A_0, A_1, \dots, A_d be adjacency matrices of \mathcal{X} . Then by the definition, we have

- (1) $A_0 = I$
- (2) $A_0 + A_1 + \dots + A_d = J$
- (3) $A_i^T = A_{i'}$ for some $i' \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$
- (4) $A_i A_j = \sum_{h=0}^d p_{ij}^h A_h$
- (5) $A_i A_j = A_j A_i$
- (6) \mathcal{X} is symmetric if and only if $A_i^T = A_i$ for all i .

So A_0, A_1, \dots, A_d generate a $(d+1)$ -dimensional commutative \mathbb{C} -algebra \mathcal{U} of $v \times v$ matrices called the *Bose-Mesner algebra* of \mathcal{X} . Since A_0, A_1, \dots, A_d are pairwise commutative normal matrices, they can be diagonalized simultaneously, and thus we have the decomposition $\mathbb{C}^v = V_0 \oplus V_1 \oplus \dots \oplus V_d$, where each V_j is a common eigenspace for the matrices A_i . We may suppose that V_0 is the 1-dimensional eigenspace corresponding to the eigenvalue v . Let E_i be the orthogonal projection $\mathbb{C}^v \rightarrow V_i$ expressed in a matrix form with respect to the standard basis $\{e_x : x \in X\}$. Then $E_0 + E_1 + \dots + E_d = I$, $E_i E_j = \delta_{ij} E_i$, and $E_0 = \frac{1}{|X|} J$. By the theorem II.3.1[1], E_0, E_1, \dots, E_d form a basis of the primitive idempotents of \mathcal{U} . Let $p_i(j)$ be the eigenvalue of A_i on V_j . Then $A_i = \sum_{j=0}^d p_i(j) E_j$. Let $E_i = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{j=0}^d q_i(j) A_j$ and set $P = (p_i(j))$ and $Q = (q_i(j))$ where the (j, i) entry of P is $p_i(j)$ and the (j, i) entry of Q is $q_i(j)$. The matrices P and Q of degree $d+1$ are called the *first* and *second eigenmatrices* of \mathcal{X} respectively. We also call P the *character table* of \mathcal{X} . Note that $PQ = QP = vI$. Let $m_i = \dim V_i = \text{rank } E_i$. The positive integer m_i are called the *multiplicities* of \mathcal{X} .

Theorem A.4.3. Let $P = (p_i(j))$ and $Q = (q_i(j))$ be the first and second eigenmatrices of a commutative association scheme \mathcal{X} respectively. Then the following hold:

- (1) $p_0(i) = 1, p_i(0) = k_i,$
- (2) $q_0(i) = 1, q_i(0) = m_i,$

- (3) $p_{i'}(j) = \overline{p_i(j)}$, where $\overline{p_i(j)}$ is the complex conjugate of $p_i(j)$,
- (4) $q_j(i)/m_j = \overline{p_i(j)}/k_i$,
- (5) (The First Orthogonality Relation) $\sum_{r=0}^d \frac{1}{k_r} p_r(i) \overline{p_r(j)} = \frac{|X|}{m_i} \delta_{ij}$,
- (6) (The Second Orthogonality Relation) $\sum_{r=0}^d m_r p_i(r) \overline{p_j(r)} = |X| k_i \delta_{ij}$,
- (7) $p_i(r) p_j(r) = \sum_{h=0}^d p_{ij}^h p_h(r)$ ($i, j, r \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$),
- (8) $\sum_{i=0}^d p_i(j) = 0$ for all $1 \leq j \leq d$.

The multiplicities, the Krein parameters, and the intersection numbers are calculated from the character table as in the following theorem:

Theorem A.4.4. The following hold:

- (1) $m_i = |X| \left(\sum_{j=0}^d \frac{|p_j(i)|^2}{k_j} \right)^{-1}$,
- (2) $p_{ij}^h = \frac{1}{|X| k_h} \sum_{r=0}^d p_i(r) p_j(r) \overline{p_h(r)} m_r = \frac{k_i k_j}{|X|} \sum_{r=0}^d q_r(i) q_r(j) \overline{q_r(h)} / m_r^2$,
- (3) $q_{ij}^h = \frac{m_i m_j}{|X|} \sum_{r=0}^d p_r(i) p_r(j) \overline{p_r(h)} / k_r^2$.

For matrices A, B of the same size, $A \circ B$ is, by definition, the matrix obtained by the entry-wise product of A and B , i.e., $(A \circ B)_{ij} = A_{ij} B_{ij}$. We call $A \circ B$ the *Hadamard product* of A and B . Note that $A_0 + A_1 + \dots + A_d = J$, $A_i \circ A_j = \delta_{ij} A_i$. It follows that \mathcal{U} is closed under the Hadamard product. This commutative algebra with respect to the Hadamard product is denoted by $\hat{\mathcal{U}}$ and A_0, A_1, \dots, A_d are the primitive idempotents. The numbers q_{ij}^h which satisfy $E_i \circ E_j = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{h=0}^d q_{ij}^h E_h$ are called the *Krein parameters*. $\hat{\mathcal{U}}$ together with the basis E_0, E_1, \dots, E_d is a dual of \mathcal{U} together with the basis A_0, A_1, \dots, A_d in the sense that

- (1) $|X| E_0 = J$, the identity of $\hat{\mathcal{U}}$,
- (2) $E_0 + E_1 + \dots + E_d = I$, the identity of \mathcal{U} ,
- (3) $E_i^T = E_{i'}$ for some $i' \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}$,

$$(4) E_i \circ E_j = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{h=0}^d q_{ij}^h E_h,$$

$$(5) E_i \circ E_j = E_j \circ E_i,$$

$$(6) E_i^T = E_i \text{ for all } i \text{ if it is symmetric.}$$

Proposition A.4.5. The following hold:

$$(1) q_{0j}^h = \delta_{jh}, \quad q_{i0}^h = \delta_{ih},$$

$$(2) q_{ij}^0 = \delta_{ij'} m_i,$$

$$(3) q_{ij}^h = q_{i'j'}^{h'},$$

$$(4) \sum_{j=0}^d q_{ij}^h = m_i,$$

$$(5) m_h q_{ij}^h = m_j q_{i'h}^j = m_i q_{hj'}^i,$$

$$(6) \sum_{\alpha=0}^d q_{ij}^\alpha q_{h\alpha}^l = \sum_{\beta=0}^d q_{ki}^\beta q_{\beta j}^l,$$

$$(7) q_i(r) q_j(r) = \sum_{h=0}^d q_{ij}^h q_h(r) \quad (i, j, r \in \{0, 1, \dots, d\}).$$

Let $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ be a commutative association scheme of class d . Let $\Gamma_i = (X, R_i)$ be the graph whose vertex and edge sets are X and R_i respectively. These graphs are called the *relation graphs* of the association scheme. \mathcal{X} is said to be *primitive* if all the Γ_i are connected ($i = 1, 2, \dots, d$). \mathcal{X} is said to be *imprimitive* if it is not primitive. Let \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} be two association schemes. Then they are *isomorphic* if there is a permutation matrix Π such that the matrices $\Pi A_i \Pi^T$ are the adjacency matrices of \mathcal{Y} where A_i are adjacency matrices of \mathcal{X} .

Now we will review briefly about fusion and fission of a commutative association scheme. Let $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq d})$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{X}} = (X, \{\tilde{R}_\alpha\}_{0 \leq \alpha \leq e})$ be commutative association schemes defined on X . If for every $i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, d\}$, $R_i \subseteq \tilde{R}_\alpha$ for some $\alpha \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, e\}$, then we say that $\tilde{\mathcal{X}}$ is a *fusion* scheme of \mathcal{X} , and \mathcal{X} is a *fission* scheme of $\tilde{\mathcal{X}}$. For several equivalent criteria for fusion refer [2], [3], and [64]. The character table of a commutative fission scheme of class 3 can be calculated as follows:

Proposition A.4.6. [3, Theorem 2.3] Let $\mathcal{X} = (X, \{R_i\}_{0 \leq i \leq 2})$ be a symmetric association scheme of class 2 with character table

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & k_1 & k_2 \\ 1 & r & t \\ 1 & s & u \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ m_1 \\ m_2 \end{matrix}$$

Suppose $\hat{\mathcal{X}} = (X, \{\hat{R}_j\}_{0 \leq j \leq 3})$ is a non-symmetric fission scheme of \mathcal{X} with three classes such that $\hat{R}_2 = \hat{R}'_1$, $\hat{R}_1 \cup \hat{R}_2 = R_1$, $\hat{R}_3 = R_2$, $\hat{E}_1 \cup \hat{E}_2 = E_1$, $\hat{E}_3 = E_2$. Then the character table \hat{P} of $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$ is given by

$$\hat{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2}k_1 & \frac{1}{2}k_1 & k_2 \\ 1 & \rho & \bar{\rho} & t \\ 1 & \bar{\rho} & \rho & t \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2}s & \frac{1}{2}s & u \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}m_1 = \hat{m}_1 \\ \frac{1}{2}m_1 = \hat{m}_2 \\ m_2 = \hat{m}_3 \end{matrix}$$

where $\rho = \frac{1}{2}(r + \sqrt{-vk_1/\sqrt{m_1}})$.

Remark A.4.7. For a given symmetric association scheme \mathcal{X} of class 2, we can calculate several putative fission tables \hat{P} using the above proposition A.4.6 without knowing the existence of such fission schemes of class 3 in advance. We shall call a character table \hat{P} *feasible* if it satisfies the following necessary conditions:

- (1) All the multiplicities \hat{m}_j are integers.
- (2) All the intersection numbers \hat{p}_{ij}^h (including the $\hat{k}_i = \hat{p}_{ii}^0$) are non-negative integers.
- (3) All the Krein parameters \hat{q}_{ij}^h are non-negative real numbers.

The fission scheme $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$ of \mathcal{X} is *realizable* if $\hat{\mathcal{X}}$ exists.

A.5 Mutually orthogonal Latin squares

Definition A.5.1. A *Latin square* of order n over an alphabet $Q = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is an $n \times n$ array of elements from Q , that satisfies each element of the alphabet appears exactly once in any column and row.

It is easily seen that a Latin square of order n exists for every positive integer n . For example, one may label the rows and columns by $1, 2, \dots, n$, and take the entry in row i and column j to be $i + j$, where the addition is modulo n .

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be two Latin squares of order n over the alphabet Q . We say that A and B are *orthogonal* if n^2 ordered pairs (a_{ij}, b_{ij}) , for $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ are distinct in $Q \times Q$; so, as a set, $\{(a_{ij}, b_{ij}) : i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\} = Q \times Q$. A set \mathcal{L} of Latin squares is called *mutually orthogonal* if every pair of Latin squares in \mathcal{L} is orthogonal. The maximum number $N(n)$ of mutually orthogonal Latin squares (MOLS) of order n is not known in general. However, it is easy to see that $N(n) \leq n - 1$.

A set of $n - 1$ MOLS of order n is called a *complete set* of MOLS. It is not known whether there exists a complete set of MOLS of order n for any n that is not a power of a prime number. For any prime power q , one can easily construct a complete set of $q - 1$ MOLS of order q .

The following lemma gives a useful tool when we play with MOLS.

Lemma A.5.2. Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ be two orthogonal Latin squares over the alphabet $Q = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. For any permutation σ, τ on Q , A^σ and B^τ are orthogonal where the action of the permutations is entrywise; i.e., $A^\sigma = [a_{ij}^\sigma]$.

Proof Suppose we deny the conclusion. Then there exist two distinct pairs (i, j) and (k, l) such that $(a_{ij}^\sigma, b_{ij}^\tau) = (a_{kl}^\sigma, b_{kl}^\tau)$. This implies that $a_{ij}^\sigma = a_{kl}^\sigma$ and $b_{ij}^\tau = b_{kl}^\tau$ which in turn implies that $a_{ij} = a_{kl}$ and $b_{ij} = b_{kl}$ which contradicts to the orthogonality of A and B . \square

We now sketch the proof of the following.

Theorem A.5.3. For every $n > 1$, $1 \leq N(n) \leq n - 1$.

Proof Let L_1, L_2, \dots, L_t be MOLS of order n . Choose $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_t$ permutations on $Q = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $L_i^{\sigma_i}$ has $[1, 2, \dots, n]$ in its first row for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$. Then by the above lemma $L_1^{\sigma_1}, L_2^{\sigma_2}, \dots, L_t^{\sigma_t}$ are MOLS. Now consider the symbols that can be $(2, 1)$ -entries of these MOLS. The $(2, 1)$ -entries must be all distinct by the mutual orthogonality, and they

must come from the set $\{2, 3, \dots, n\}$ being Latin squares. Therefore, t cannot exceed $n - 1$. \square

Suppose we take the finite field \mathbb{F}_q of order q as an alphabet Q . Construct $q - 1$ MOLS $\{L_a : a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*\}$ of order q as follows. Consider the $q - 1$ polynomials of the form $f_a(x, y) = ax + y$ for $a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$, and define (x, y) -entry of L_a by $ax + y$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_q$. Then it is straightforward to verify that each L_a is a Latin square and the set $\{L_a : a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*\}$ is a complete set of $q - 1$ MOLS. (cf. for example, [37, Theorem 8.3].) This set of MOLS is called the *desarguesian* complete set of MOLS of order q . So we have:

Theorem A.5.4. If $q = p^e$ is a prime power, then $N(q) = q - 1$.

One might ask whether for a given prime power q there exist other complete sets of $q - 1$ MOLS of order q that are different from the desarguesian complete set of MOLS constructed above. The previous lemma A.5.2 indicates that there are indeed other complete sets, if by different one only means that, as matrices, the squares are different. For example if we simply permute the symbols of any of the $q - 1$ squares, the resulting set of squares is still orthogonal. Such squares are of course very similar to the original ones, and so we ask is there a set which is “structurally different” in some fundamental sense? This requires precise meaning to the notion of different complete sets of MOLS, where we assume that all are based on the same set of symbols. Two complete sets of MOLS of the same order are said to be *isomorphic* if the squares of one set can be obtained from the squares of the other set by applying a fixed permutation to the rows of all of the squares of the first set, then by similarly applying a fixed permutation to the columns of the resulting squares, and finally by applying a third permutation to the symbols. The key point is that the three permutations must be applied to each square of the first set. It is known that for all prime powers $q = p^e > 8$ with $e > 1$, there are at least two non-isomorphic sets of MOLS of order q . Thus for such q there is always at least one non-desarguesian complete set of MOLS of order q . However, for each of the prime powers $q = 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8$, any complete set of MOLS of order q is isomorphic to those obtained from Theorem A.5.4; see [20]. Lam, Kolesova, and Thiel [51] have recently shown that there

are exactly 4 non-isomorphic complete sets of MOLS of order 9. (In this thesis, we have used only the desarguesian complete set when we need a complete set of MOLS.)

APPENDIX B. Adjacency and relation matrices of relevant graphs and association schemes

B.1 Adjacency matrices of halved-folded 8-cube, $L_4(8)$ and some induced subgraphs

Vertex labeling and adjacency matrix of halved-folded 8-cube

Vertices of halved-folded 8-cube

1 00000000 11111111	2 00000011 11111100
3 00000101 11111010	4 00000110 11111001
5 00001001 11110110	6 00001010 11110101
7 00001100 11110011	8 00010001 11101110
9 00010010 11101101	10 00010100 11101011
11 00011000 11100111	12 00100001 11011110
13 00100010 11011101	14 00100100 11011011
15 00101000 11010111	16 00110000 11001111
17 01000001 10111110	18 01000010 10111101
19 01000100 10111011	20 01001000 10110111
21 01010000 10101111	22 01100000 10011111
23 11000000 00111111	24 10100000 01011111
25 10010000 01101111	26 10001000 01110111
27 10000100 01111011	28 10000010 01111101
29 10000001 01111110	30 00001111 11110000
31 00010111 11101000	32 00011011 11100100
33 00011101 11100010	34 00011110 11100001

35 00100111 11011000	36 00101011 11010100
37 00101101 11010010	38 00101110 11010001
39 00110011 11001100	40 00110101 11001010
41 00110110 11001001	42 00111001 11000110
43 00111010 11000101	44 00111100 11000011
45 01000111 10111000	46 01001011 10110100
47 01001101 10110010	48 01001110 10110001
49 01010011 10101100	50 01010101 10101010
51 01010110 10101001	52 01011001 10100110
53 01011010 10100101	54 01011100 10100011
55 01100011 10011100	56 01100101 10011010
57 01100110 10011001	58 01101001 10010110
59 01101010 10010101	60 01101100 10010011
61 01110001 10001110	62 01110010 10001101
63 01110100 10001011	64 01111000 10000111

Adjacency matrix of halved-folded 8-cube

[illegible]

1101010010001000010000111110100010001001010100100101010101011
1110100100010000100000111111000001000100101100010010110010110111
011111100000000100001111110000011111110000001111000000000001111
0111000111000010000101110100010111100011100010001110000001110001
0100110110100100001001110010011011010010011001001001100110010010
0010101101101000010001110001011101001001010100100101011010100100
0001011011110000100001110000111110000100101100010010111101001000
0111000000111100000110101100011000011111100010000001111110000001
0100110001011010001010101010010100101110011001000110011001100010
00101010100101100100101010010100101101010101001010100101010100
0001011100001110100010101000110001111000101100011101000010111000
0100001110011001001100100110001100110001111000111000011000011100
00100101010101010101001001010010101010110101010100100100101010
0001100011001101100100100100101001100111001101100011000011000110
0001100100110011011000100011000110011011001110010011000011001001
001001001010101110100010001010010101011011011010010010010010101
0100001001100111110000100001100011001101111011001000011000010011
0111000000100011111000011100011000100000011101111110001110000001
0100110001000101110100011010010100010001100110111001101001100010
00101010100010011011000110010100100010101010110101010101010100
0001011100010001011100011000110001000111010011100010110010111000
0100001110000110110010010110001100001110000111000111101000011100
0010010101001010101010010101001010010101001010101011010100101010
0001100011010010011010010100101001011000110010011100110011000110
0001100100101100100110010011000110100100110001101100110011001001
0010010010110100010110010010100101101001001001011011010100100101
0100001001111000001110010001100011110010000100110111101000010011
0100001001111000110001001110000011110010000111001000010111101100

0010010010110100101001001101000101101001001010100100101011011010
0001100100101100011001001100100110100100110010010011001100110110
0001100011010010100101001011001001011000110001100011001100111001
0010010101001010010101001010101010010101001001010100101011010101
0100001110000110001101001001101100001110000100111000010111100011
0001011100010001100011000111010001000111010000011101001101000111
0010101010001001010011000110110010001010101000101010101010101011
0100110001000101001011000101110100010001100101000110010110011101
0111000000100011000111000011111000100000011110000001110001111110

Vertex labeling and the adjacency matrix of $OA_4(8)$

Vertices of $OA_4(8)$

1	0000	2	1111	3	2222	4	3333	5	4444	6	5555	7	6666	8	7777
9	0123	10	1032	11	2301	12	3210	13	4567	14	5476	15	6745	16	7654
17	0246	18	1357	19	2064	20	3175	21	4602	22	5713	23	6420	24	7531
25	0365	26	1274	27	2147	28	3056	29	4721	30	5630	31	6503	32	7412
33	0451	34	1540	35	2673	36	3762	37	4015	38	5104	39	6237	40	7326
41	0572	42	1463	43	2750	44	3641	45	4136	46	5027	47	6314	48	7205
49	0617	50	1706	51	2435	52	3524	53	4253	54	5342	55	6071	56	7160
57	0734	58	1625	59	2516	60	3407	61	4370	62	5261	63	6152	64	7043

Adjacency matrix of $OA_4(8)$

00000000	11110000	10101010	10010110	11001100	10100101	11000011	10011001	11001100	10101010
00001111	00000000	01101001	01010101	10100101	00110011	10011001	11000011	11000011	00001111
00001111	00000000	10010110	10101010	01011010	00110011	01100110	11000011	11000011	00001111
00001111	00000000	10010110	01010101	10100101	11001100	01100110	00111100	00001111	00000000
00001111	00000000	01101001	10101010	01011010	11001100	10011001	00111100	00001111	00000000
11110000	00000000	10010110	01010101	01011010	00110011	10011001	00111100	11110000	00000000
11110000	00000000	01101001	10101010	10100101	00110011	01100110	00111100	11110000	00000000
11110000	00000000	01101001	01010101	01011010	11001100	11001100	01100110	11110000	00000000
11110000	00000000	10010110	10101010	10100101	11001100	10011001	11000011	11110000	00000000
00000000	00001111	01010101	01101001	00110011	10100101	11000011	10011001	00000000	00001111
00000000	00001111	10101010	10010110	00110011	01011010	11000011	01100110	00000000	00001111
00000000	00001111	01010101	10010110	11001100	10100101	00111100	01100110	00000000	00001111
00000000	00001111	10101010	01101001	11001100	01011010	00111100	10011001	00000000	00001111
00000000	11110000	01010101	10010110	00110011	01011010	00111100	10011001	00000000	11110000
00000000	11110000	10101010	01101001	00110011	10100101	00111100	01100110	00000000	11110000
00000000	11110000	01010101	01101001	11001100	01011010	11000011	01100110	00000000	11110000
00000000	11110000	10101010	10010110	11001100	10100101	11000011	10011001	00000000	11110000

01010101 10010110 00000000 11110000 00111100 10011001 00110011 01011010
01010101 01101001 00000000 00001111 00111100 10011001 11001100 01011010
01010101 10010110 00000000 00001111 00111100 01100110 11001100 10100101
01010101 10010110 00000000 00001111 11000011 01100110 00110011 01011010
01010101 01101001 00000000 00001111 11000011 10011001 00110011 10100101
10010110 10101010 11110000 00000000 10011001 11000011 10100101 11001100
01101001 01010101 11110000 00000000 01100110 01100011 11000011 01011010
01101001 10101010 11110000 00000000 01100110 00111100 10100101 00110011
10010110 01010101 11110000 00000000 10011001 00111100 01011010 00110011
01101001 10101010 00001111 00000000 10011001 00111100 01011010 11001100
10010110 01010101 00001111 00000000 01100110 00111100 10100101 11001100
10010110 01010101 00001111 00000000 01100110 11000011 01011010 00110011
01101001 01010101 00001111 00000000 10011001 11000011 10100101 00110011
11001100 10100101 11000011 10011001 00000000 11110000 10101010 10010110
11001100 01011010 11000011 01100110 00000000 11110000 01010101 01101001
00110011 10100101 00111100 01100110 00000000 11110000 10101010 01101001
01100110 01011010 00111100 10011001 00000000 11110000 01010101 10010110
11001100 01011010 00111100 10011001 00000000 00001111 10101010 01101001
11001100 01010101 00111100 01100110 00000000 00001111 01010101 10010110
00110011 01011010 11000011 01100110 00000000 00001111 10101010 10010110
10010110 10100101 11000011 10011001 00000000 00001111 01010101 01101001
10100101 11001100 10011001 11000011 11110000 00000000 10010110 10101010
01010101 11001100 01100110 11000011 11110000 00000000 01101001 01010101
01010101 00110011 01100110 00111100 11110000 00000000 01010101 10010101
01010101 00110011 10011001 00111100 00000000 00001111 10101010 01011010
01010101 11001100 01100110 00111100 00000000 11110000 10010110 01010101
01010101 00110011 01100110 11000011 00001111 00000000 10010110 10101010

10011001 11001100 01100110 00111100 00001111 11110000 10010101 01010101
01011010 00110011 11000111 00000000 10010101 01010101 01010101 01010101
01001100 00111100 10010101 11001100 10010101 01010101 01010101 01010101
10011001 00111100 00011100 01010101 11001100 01010101 10010101 01010101
01001100 00111100 10010101 01010101 01010101 01010101 11110000 00000000
01001100 00111100 10010101 01010101 11001100 10010101 01010101 01010101
10011001 11000011 01010101 11110000 00000000 10010101 01010101 01010101
10011001 10011001 00110011 10100101 01010101 01010101 01010101 00001111
11000011 01100110 01010101 01010101 10010101 01010101 01010101 00001111
00111100 01100110 11001100 10010101 10010101 01010101 10010101 00001111
10011100 10011001 11001100 01010101 01010101 01010101 01010101 00001111
00111100 10011001 00110011 01010101 01010101 01010101 10010101 11110000
00111100 01100110 01010101 10010101 10010101 11001100 10010101 00111100
11000011 01100110 11001100 01010101 01010101 01010101 01010101 11110000
10011001 10011001 11001100 10010101 10010101 01010101 10010101 11110000
10100101 00110011 11001100 10010101 11000011 00001111 00000000 01101001 01010101
01011010 00110011 01100110 11000011 00001111 00000000 10010101 01010101
10010101 11001100 01100110 00111100 00001111 00000000 10010101 01010101

Adjacency matrix of induced subgraph on $\Gamma(v) \cup \{v\}$ in halved-folded 8-cube

```

0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0
1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0
1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0
1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0
1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0
0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0
1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0
1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0
0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1
0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1
1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0
0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0
0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1
0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1

```

11010010000000110000011111101
0000000000111110000011111110

Adjacency matrix of induced subgraph on $\Gamma(v) \cup \{v\}$ in Kharaghani's one of

twin SRGs with parameters (64, 28, 12, 12)

```

0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0
1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0
1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0
0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0
1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0
1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0
0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0
1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0
1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1
0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1
1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0
0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0
1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1
1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1

```

01110001000010001000011111011
1100010010000100000011111101
00000000001111100100011111110

Adjacency matrix of induced subgraph on $\Gamma(v) \cup \{v\}$ in Kharaghani's the other

twin SRG(64, 28, 12, 12)

```

0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0
1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1
1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0
1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1
1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0
0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1
1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0
1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0
0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1
0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0
0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 0 0
0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0
1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0
0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0
1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0
1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0
0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1
1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1
1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1

```

00101100011000010000011111011
0000001111001000000101111101
0101010010010000000011111110

13113313313331333313332220223323332332332233233223322332232
11313133133313333133332222023323332332323323323232322322
111313313331333313333322222033323332332322332332322332322322
3222223333333133331122233330222222333332222333333333331111
32223322233313333131223233320222333222333233222333331113331
3233223223313333133122332332022323323322332332233113313313
3323223223133331333122333232202332332323323323231313133133
333232232213333133331223332222033323323223323323221131331333
32223333312223333311323223332233302222233323333331112223333331
32332233313223233313132323233232332022332233233311331233223313
33232323133232233133132323323233220232323233231313133232323133
333232213333222313331323233322333222033232233321131333323221333
3233331223322332331133233223332233223302222333112333312333312233
3323313232323232313133233232332323232320223231313233133233132323
33321333223322321331332332332323223322032231133321333321333223
333123323322332231133323332233322332232302213313312333312332332
3313323323232322131333233323233232323220213133133233133233232
313333233223322211333323333223332233223222011331333321333323322
322233333313331122233332223332233323333331110222223332223333331
3233223331333131223233322323323233323331133120222332232332233313
33232323133313312322333223323233233323131313220232323232323133
333232213331333132223332233322333233321131332203323223323221333
323333122333311322332332322333223333112333312233022232333312233
33233132323313132323233232323323233313132331323232022323233132323
333213332231331332232332323323233231133321332332203223321333223
333123323323113323322332332233322313313312333223230223312332332
3313323323213133323223323323233232131331332332322322023133233232
31333323322113333322233233322333221133133332322322201333323322

323333133112233322333233222333311223323333122332333310222232233
3323313313123233232332332232333131232332331323233233132022322323
3332133133132233322332332233233113233233213323323321332203223223
3331233311323323233232332322331331322333123332233312332230222332
3313323131332323323232332323231313323231332332323133232322023232
3133332113333223332232332332231133332213333233221333323222203322
3331311233323332233322333222313331333122323333312232332232330222
3313131323332332323322333223213313331323232333132323232323232022
3133113332333232332322333232213133313332233231333223323223322202
3111333333233322333222333322211333133333322213333332223332222220

The one isomorphic to Halved 7-cube

33232322322232223222111110122212221221212122122121212121211
 3332322322232223222211111022221222122121122212212112212112111
 211111122222223222331112222011111112222221111222222222223333
 21112221112222322232311212221011112221112221222111222223332223
 212211211212232223223112212211011212212211221221221122332232232
 221212112112322232223112221211101221221212122122121213232322322
 22212112111322223222311222211110222122121122212212113323223222
 211122222311122223321211222112220111112221222223331112222223
 2122112223211212223232121212212122101112211221222332231221122232
 2212121232212112232232121221212212110121212122123232322121212322
 222121132222111232223212122211222111022121122213323222212113222
 2122223112211221223322122112221122112201111222331222231222231122
 22122321212121212323221221212212121210112123232122322122321212
 2221322211221121322322122122121221122111021123322213222213222112
 2223122122112211233222122211222112211211201132232231222231221221
 2232212212121211323222122212122121212112110132322322122322122121
 2322221221122111332222122221122211221121111033223222213222212211
 2111222223222331112222111222112221222223330111112221112222223
 2122112223222323112122211212212122212223322310111221121221122232
 2212121232223223121122211221212212221232323211012121212121212322
 2221211322232223211122211222112221222133232211102212112212113222
 2122223112222332112212212112221122223312222311220111121222231122
 2212232121223232121212212121221212232321223212121011212122321212
 2221322211232232211212212122121221233222132212211102112213222112
 2223122122123322122112212211222112322322312221121120112231221221
 2232212212132322212112212212122121323223221221211211012322122121
 2322221221133222221112212221122211332232222122112111103222212211
 2122223223311222112221221112222233112212222311221222230111121122

2212232232312122121221221121222323121221223212122122321011211212
2221322322321122211221221122122332122122132212212213221102112112
2223122233212212122121221211223223211222312221122231221120111221
2232212323221212212121221212123232212123221221212322121211012121
2322221332222112221121221221123322221132222122113222212111102211
2223233122212221122211222111232223222311212222231121221121220111
22323232122212212122112221121322322232121212223212121212121011
2322332221222121221211222121132322232221122123222112212112211101
23332222212221122211122221113322232222221113222222111222111110

B.3 Symmetric Bush-type Hadamard matrices (SBHMs) of order 64

The symbol '5' in the table indicates the entry -1 throughout this section.

The SBHMs H_1, H_2, H_3 are the ones discussed in Section 3.2.

SBHM H_1

```

11111111 15151515 11551155 15511551 11115555 15155151 11555511 15515115
11111111 51515151 11551155 51155115 11115555 51511515 11555511 51151551
11111111 15151515 55115511 51155115 11115555 15155151 55111155 51151551
11111111 51515151 55115511 15511551 11115555 51511515 55111155 15515115
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SBHM H_2

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SBHM H_3

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B.4 Relation Matrices of 3-class imprimitive symmetric schemes obtained from SBHMs of order 64

The SBHMs H_1, H_2, H_3 are the ones discussed in Section 3.2.

Scheme from SBHM H_1

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11221122 21122112 33333033 21212121 22111122 12212112 22221111 12122121

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Scheme from SBHM H_2

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Scheme from SBHM H_3

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11222211 21121221 22112211 12122121 21212121 12211221 33333330 22221111
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12212112 11222211 21211212 22112211 21122112 12121212 22221111 33333303
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B.5 Relation matrices of 3-class imprimitive non-symmetric schemes obtained from SBHMs of order 64

The SBHMs H_1, H_2, H_3 are the ones discussed in Section 3.2.

Scheme from SBHM H_1

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Scheme from SBHM H_2

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Scheme from SBHM H_3

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