

Coherent Configurations and Association Schemes. Part I

Definitions, examples, simple facts

Mikhail Klin

Department of Mathematics

Ben Gurion University of the Negev

Beer Sheva, Israel

Special Semester on Gröbner bases and Related
Methods,

Linz, May 2006

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Acknowledgments

References

1. Graphs, relations and matrices

- A (*directed*) graph $\Gamma = (X, R)$, where X is a finite set of vertices of cardinality n , and $R \subseteq X^2$ is a set of arcs (a binary relation). Usually, $X = \{1, 2, \dots, n\} = [1, n]$ or $X = [0, n - 1]$.
- A (*complete*) colour graph $(X, \{R_l\}_{1 \leq l \leq r})$ is defined by a partition of X^2 into r binary relations. Usually each index, i , is regarded as a *colour*.
- Adjacency matrix $A_l = A(\Gamma_l)$ for $\Gamma_l = (X, R_l)$ is a $(0, 1)$ -matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ such that

$$a_{ij} = 1 \iff (i, j) \in R_l$$

In this case, R_l is called *support* of A_l .

- Let H be a group, $S \subseteq H$.

A graph $\Gamma = \text{Cay}(H, S)$ is defined as follows:

$\Gamma = (H, R)$, where

$$R = \{(x, x + h) \mid x \in H, h \in S\}$$

Γ is called *Cayley graph* over H with a *connection set* S .

No loops in $\Gamma \iff 0 \notin S$.

Γ is undirected $\iff S = -S$, where

$$-S = \{-x \mid x \in S\}.$$

- A partition $\{S_0, S_1, \dots, S_d\}$ of H such that $S_0 = \{0\}$ defines a complete colour Cayley graph over H .

- Let $R, S \subseteq X^2$, we can define $R \circ S$ (*product* of two relations) as a multi-subset of X^2 :

A pair (a, b) appears in $R \circ S$ with the multiplicity $m(a, b)$ where

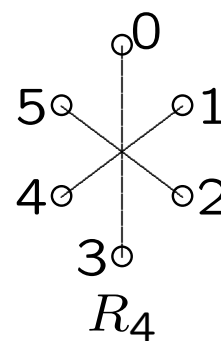
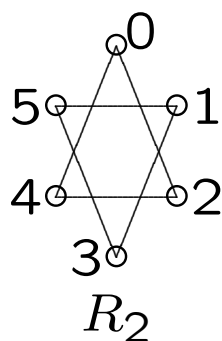
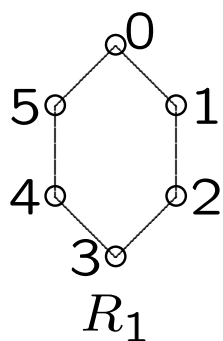
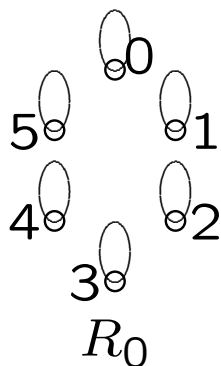
$$m(a, b) = |\{c \in X \mid (a, c) \in R \wedge (c, b) \in S\}|$$

- This multi-subset, $R \circ S$, may be regarded as a colour graph over X .
- Clearly in this case we get for $\Gamma_1 = (X, R)$, $\Gamma_2 = (X, S)$,

$$A(\Gamma_1) \cdot A(\Gamma_2) = B$$

where B is the linear combination of the adjacency matrices of "partial" relations in $R \circ S$.

Example 1. a) Graphs:



b) Connection sets of Cayley graphs over \mathbb{Z}_6 :

$$S_0 = \{0\}, \quad S_1 = \{1, 5\}, \quad S_2 = \{2, 4\}, \quad S_3 = \{3\}$$

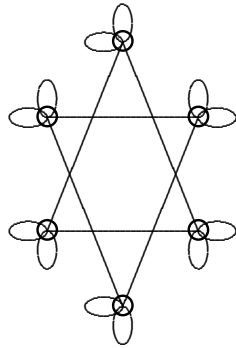
c) Matrices (0 is substituted by 6)

$$A_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Multiplication:

(i)



$$R_1 \circ R_1 \quad A_1^2 = 2A_0 + A_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{S_1} \circ \underline{S_1} &= \underline{1, 5} \circ \underline{1, 5} = \\ &= \underline{1 + 1, 1 + 5, 5 + 1, 5 + 5} = \\ &= \underline{2, 0, 0, 4} = 2 \cdot \underline{0} + \underline{2, 4} = \\ &= 2\underline{S_0} + \underline{S_2} \end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \quad A_1 \cdot A_2 = A_1 + 2A_3$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{S_1} \circ \underline{S_2} &= \underline{1, 5} \circ \underline{2, 4} = \\ &= \underline{3, 5, 1, 3} = \underline{S_1} + 2\underline{S_3} \end{aligned}$$

Here $\underline{x_1, \dots, x_k}$ is element of group algebra over group H for $x_1, \dots, x_k \in H$. (More about this in part II).

2. 2-orbits of permutation groups

- *Permutation* g of a finite set X is a bijection on set X .

For $x \in X$ and permutation g , x^g denotes image of x under g .

For permutations g_1, g_2 on X , their *composition* (product) $g = g_1g_2$ is $x^g = x^{g_1g_2} = (x^{g_1})^{g_2}$ for $x \in X$.

$S(X)$ is *Symmetric group* of X , if $|X| = n$, we denote it by S_n .

- A *permutation group* (G, X) of degree n is a subgroup G of the symmetric group $S(X)$; G acts on set X .
- A subset $G \subseteq S(X)$ is a permutation group $\iff G$ is closed under composition.

- For $x \in X$ and permutation group (G, X) , the *orbit* $Orb(x)$ is $Orb(x) = x^G = \{x^g | g \in G\}$.
 $Orb(G, X)$ is the set of all orbits of (G, X) .
Transitive group $(G, X) \iff Orb(G, X) = \{X\}$.
- For (G, X) we consider induced action (G, X^2) :
For $(a, b) \in X^2$, $(a, b)^g = (a^g, b^g)$.
Orbits of this induced action are called (following H. Wielandt) *2-orbits* of (G, X) .
 $2 - Orb(G, X)$ is the set of all 2-orbits.
- Pair $(X, 2 - Orb(G, X))$ is a complete colour graph with the vertex set X .

Example 1. (Revisited) Let D_6 be the dihedral group of degree 6 and order 12,

$$D_6 = \langle (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), (1, 5)(2, 4) \rangle$$

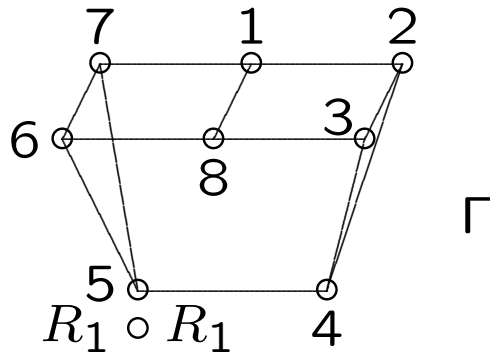
Clearly, D_6 is transitive. Then,

$$2 - \text{orb}(D_6, [0, 5]) = \{R_0, R_1, R_2, R_3\}$$

Here all graphs defined by the 2-orbits (orbital graphs in alternative terminology) are regular undirected graphs. The rank r of a permutation group is $|2 - \text{Orb}(G, X)|$, thus

$$r(D_6, [0, 5]) = 4$$

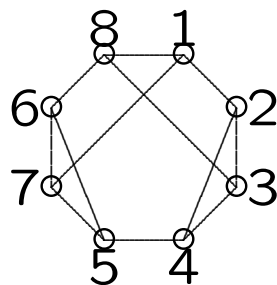
Example 2.



"Chemical" graph *cuneane*=*wedge*=КЛИН (determines a synthesized compound).

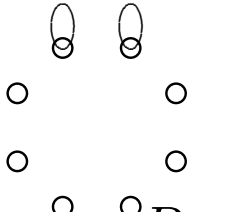
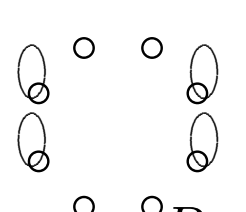
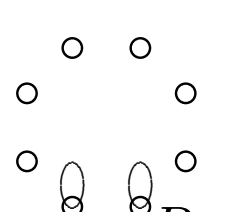
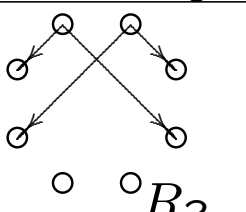
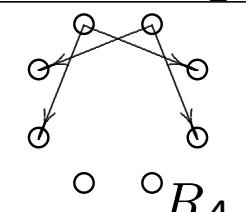
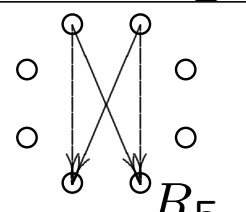
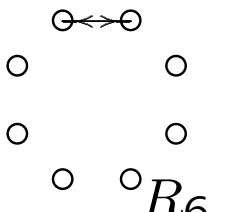
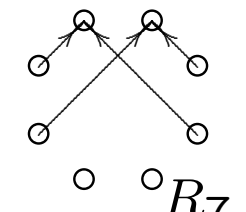
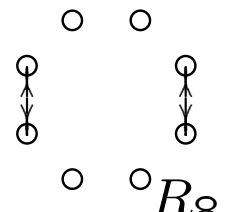
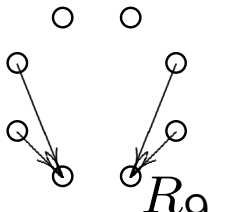
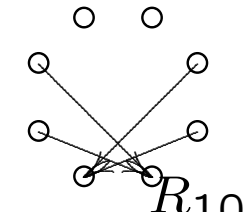
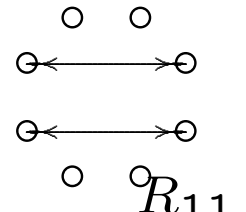
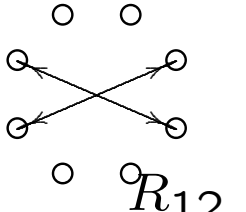
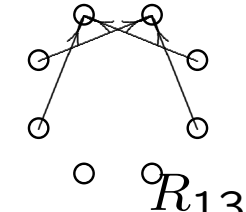
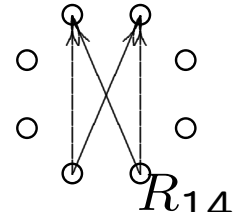
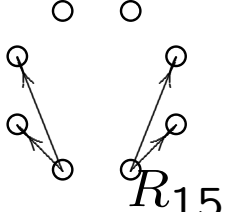
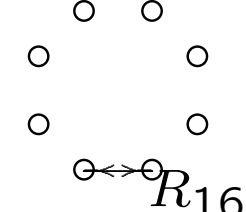
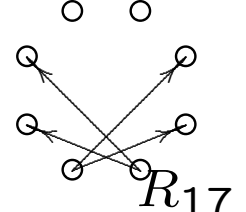
$G = \text{Aut}(\Gamma) = \{e, g_2, g_3, g_4\}$, where e is the identity permutation, $g_2 = (1, 8)(2, 3)(6, 7)$, $g_3 = (2, 7)(3, 6)(4, 5)$, $g_4 = (1, 8)(2, 6)(3, 7)(4, 5)$. $\text{Orb}(G, [1, 8]) = \{\{1, 8\}, \{2, 3, 6, 7\}, \{4, 5\}\}$. Using the orbit counting lemma we get

$$r(G, [1, 8]) = \frac{1}{4}(8^2 + 2 \cdot 2^2 + 0^2) = 18$$



Cuneane again:

2-orbits of $(G, [1, 8])$:

- Let $g \in S(X)$ denote by $M(g)$ a permutation matrix of order $n = |X|$,

$$M(g) = (m_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$$

where $m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & j = i^g \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$.

Clearly, $M(g^{-1}) = (M(g))^{-1} = (M(g))^t$, where M^t is the matrix transposed to M .

- Let K be a ring or a field. Let $M_n(K)$ be the ring (algebra) of all square matrices of order n over K . Define for a permutation group (G, X) ,

$$V_K(G, X) = \{A \in M_n(K) \mid \forall g \in G \ AM(g) = M(g)A\}$$

- $V_K(G, X)$ is a ring (algebra) which is called the *centralizer ring* (algebra) of (G, X) . (Most important cases for us are $K = \mathbb{Z}$, $K = \mathbb{C}$. Usually sign K is omitted.)

• **Theorem** Let (G, X) be a permutation group of degree n and rank r . Then

a) $V_K(G, X)$ as a vector space over K has dimension r ;

b) $V_K(G, X)$ has a special basis which consists of $(0, 1)$ -matrices;

c) The members of this *standard basis* are in bijective correspondence with the set $2 - Orb(G, X)$.

• To prove this theorem we have to detect that if

$$2 - Orb(G, X) = (R_1, \dots, R_r)$$

then $V(G, X) = \langle A_1, \dots, A_r \rangle$ where $A_i = A(\Gamma_i)$, $\Gamma_i = (X, R_i)$, $1 \leq i \leq r$.

Example 1. (Revisited)

$$V(D_6, [0, 5]) = \langle A_0, A_1, A_2, A_3 \rangle$$

Multiplication table: $R_i \cdot R_j = \sum_{k=0}^3 p_{ij}^k R_k$

$R_i \backslash R_j$	R_0	R_1	R_2	R_3	control sum
R_0	1	0	0	0	1
	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	1	1
R_1	0	2	0	0	2
	1	0	1	0	2
	0	1	0	1	2
	0	0	2	0	2
R_2	0	0	2	0	2
	0	1	0	1	2
	1	0	1	0	2
	0	2	0	0	2
R_3	0	0	0	1	1
	0	0	1	0	1
	0	1	0	0	1
	1	0	0	0	1

Example 2. Here $V(G, X)$ has rank 18, thus it has 18 basis matrices. All these matrices are presented in a compact form as a colour matrix

$$A(V(G, X)) = \sum_{i=0}^{17} iA_i$$

where A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{17} is the standard basis of $V(G, X)$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 6 \\ 7 & 1 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 & 13 \\ 13 & 8 & 1 & 9 & 10 & 12 & 11 & 7 \\ 14 & 15 & 15 & 2 & 16 & 17 & 17 & 14 \\ 14 & 17 & 17 & 16 & 2 & 15 & 15 & 14 \\ 13 & 11 & 12 & 10 & 9 & 1 & 8 & 7 \\ 7 & 12 & 11 & 10 & 9 & 8 & 1 & 13 \\ 6 & 4 & 3 & 5 & 5 & 3 & 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

3. Coherent configurations

- We are now giving an axiomatic analogue of $2 - Orb(G, X)$ and $V(G, X)$ for an arbitrary permutation group.
- Let $X = [1, n]$, $\mathfrak{R} = \{R_1, \dots, R_r\}$ a collection of binary relations on X such that:

$$\text{CC1 } R_i \cap R_j = \emptyset \text{ for } 1 \leq i \neq j \leq r;$$

$$\text{CC2 } \bigcup_{i=1}^r R_i = X^2;$$

$$\text{CC3 } \forall i \in [1, r] \exists i' \in [1, r] R_i^t = R_{i'}, \text{ where } R_i^t = \{(y, x) | (x, y) \in R_i\};$$

$$\text{CC4 } \exists I' \subseteq [1, r] \bigcup_{i \in I'} R_i = \Delta, \text{ where } \Delta = \{(x, x) | x \in X\};$$

$$\text{CC5 } \forall i, j, k \in [1, r] \forall (x, y) \in R_k | \{z \in X | (x, z) \in R_i \wedge (z, y) \in R_j\} | = p_{ij}^k$$

$\mathfrak{M} = (X, R)$ is called a *coherent configuration* (D. G. Higman, 1970).

- The numbers p_{ij}^k are *intersection numbers*.
- Switching to matrix language: Let $W \subseteq M_n(\mathbb{C})$ be a matrix algebra over \mathbb{C} such that

CA1 W as a linear space over \mathbb{C} has some basis, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r , consisting of $(0, 1)$ -matrices;

CA2 $\sum_{i=1}^r A_i = J_n$, where J_n is the matrix of order n all entries of which are equal to 1;

CA3 $\forall i \in [1, r] \exists i' \in [1, r] A_i^t = A_{i'}$;

Then W is called a *coherent algebra* of rank r and order n with the *standard basis* A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r . We write $W = \langle A_1, \dots, A_r \rangle$.

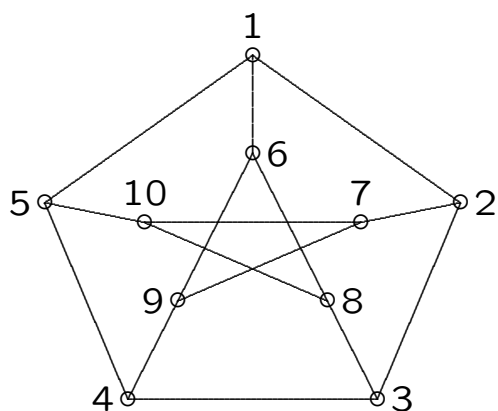
Remark: similar notion of a *cellular algebra* (B. Weisfeiler, A. A. Leman, 1968).

- To each coherent configuration $\mathfrak{M} = (X, \mathfrak{R})$ we associate its *adjacency algebra* $W = \langle A_i = A(X, R_i) \mid R_i \in \mathfrak{R} \rangle$ which is a coherent algebra.
- **Proposition:** For each permutation group (G, X) its centralizer algebra $V(G, X)$ is a coherent algebra.
- Remark: Converse proposition is not true: there are many examples of coherent algebras which are not centralizer algebras of a suitable permutation group.

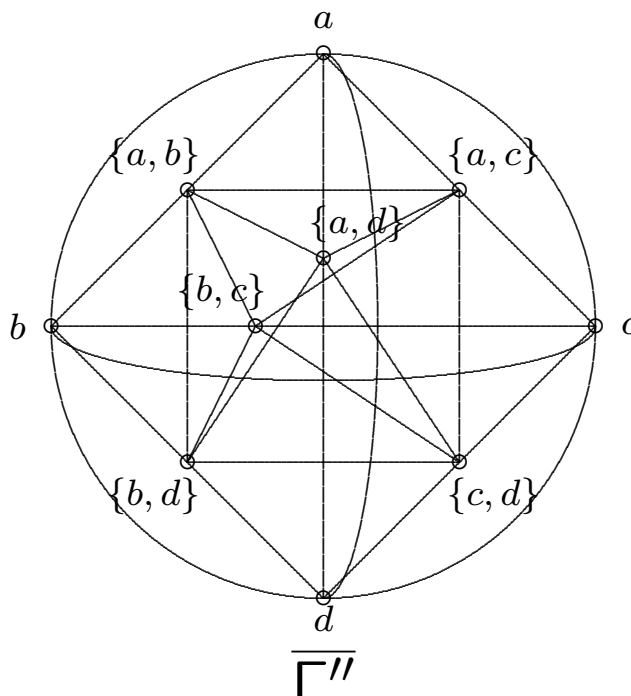
- **Theorem** A matrix algebra W is a coherent algebra $\iff W$ is closed with respect to Schur-Hadamard (entry-wise) multiplication, transposition, and contains matrices I, J , where I is the identity matrix.
- Remark An equivalent formulation uses closure with respect to the Hermitean adjoint instead of transposition.
- **Corollary** If W_1 and W_2 are two coherent algebras of the same order n , then $W = W_1 \cap W_2$ is also a coherent algebra of order n .

(More details in part II.)

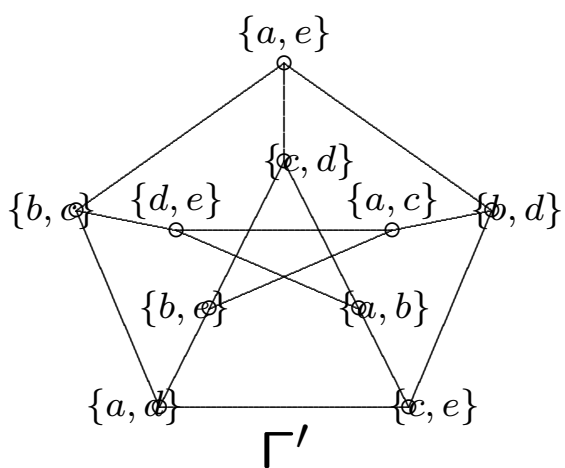
Example 3. Part a)



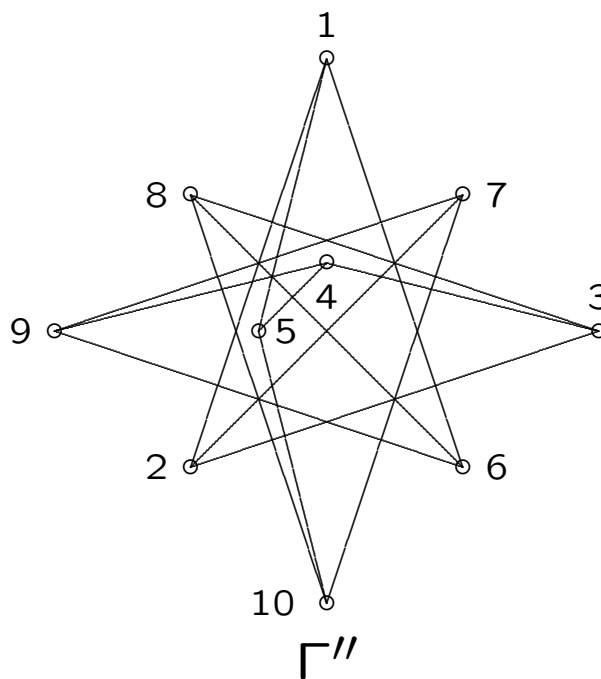
Γ'
 $D_5 \leq \text{Aut}(\Gamma')$



$\overline{\Gamma''}$
 $S_4 \leq \text{Aut}(\overline{\Gamma''}) = \text{Aut}(\Gamma'')$



Γ'



Γ''

$\Gamma' = \Gamma'' = \Gamma = \text{Petersen graph}$. $|\text{Aut}(\Gamma)| \geq \text{gcd}(10, 24) = 120$. In fact, $\text{Aut}(\Gamma) \simeq S_5$.

Part b)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 5 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 3 & 5 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 6 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 6 & 5 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 6 & 6 & 5 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 5 & 4 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 & 9 & 8 & 1 & 10 & 11 & 11 & 10 \\ 8 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 9 & 10 & 1 & 10 & 11 & 11 \\ 9 & 8 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 11 & 10 & 1 & 10 & 11 \\ 9 & 9 & 8 & 7 & 8 & 11 & 11 & 10 & 1 & 10 \\ 8 & 9 & 9 & 8 & 7 & 10 & 11 & 11 & 10 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W' = V(D_5, [1..10]), \text{rank}(W') = \frac{1}{10}(10^2 + 5 \cdot 2^2) = 12$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 4 & 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 5 & 1 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 6 & 7 & 6 & 8 & 8 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 8 & 6 & 5 & 1 & 7 & 6 & 6 & 6 & 5 & 8 \\ 5 & 6 & 8 & 7 & 1 & 6 & 6 & 6 & 8 & 5 \\ 5 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 6 & 1 & 6 & 7 & 5 & 8 \\ 8 & 7 & 8 & 6 & 6 & 6 & 1 & 6 & 5 & 5 \\ 8 & 6 & 5 & 6 & 6 & 7 & 6 & 1 & 8 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 4 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 3 & 4 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W'' = V(S_4, [1, 10]), \text{rank}(W'') = \frac{1}{24}(10^2 + 6 \cdot 4^2 + 3 \cdot 2^2 + 8 \cdot 1^2) = 9$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W = W' \cap W'' = V(\text{Aut}(\Gamma)) = V(S_5, [1, 10])$$

$\text{rank}(W) = 3.$

There exists a nice simple purely combinatorial algorithm which allows to construct W from W' and W'' .

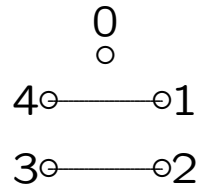
- If $W' \subseteq W$ are coherent algebras of the same order then W' is called a *coherent subalgebra* of W .
- If \mathfrak{M}' is a coherent configuration with adjacency algebra W' and \mathfrak{M} corresponds to W then in this case \mathfrak{M}' is called *fusion* coherent configuration of \mathfrak{M} or *merging* of relations (classes) of \mathfrak{M} .
- Enumeration of coherent subalgebras of a given coherent algebra is an important task (see further talks).

- *Diagonal relation* $\Delta = \{(x, x) | x \in X\}$ is splitted in a coherent configuration \mathfrak{M} into (one or more) basis relations. Each such basis relation uniquely defines a *fiber* of \mathfrak{M} . (See more precise definition in abstract).
- Fiber is a combinatorial analogue of an orbit of a permutation group. Coherent configurations with one fiber are analogues of transitive permutation groups.
- Coherent configurations with one fiber is a *homogeneous coherent configuration* or an *association scheme* (not obligatory commutative).

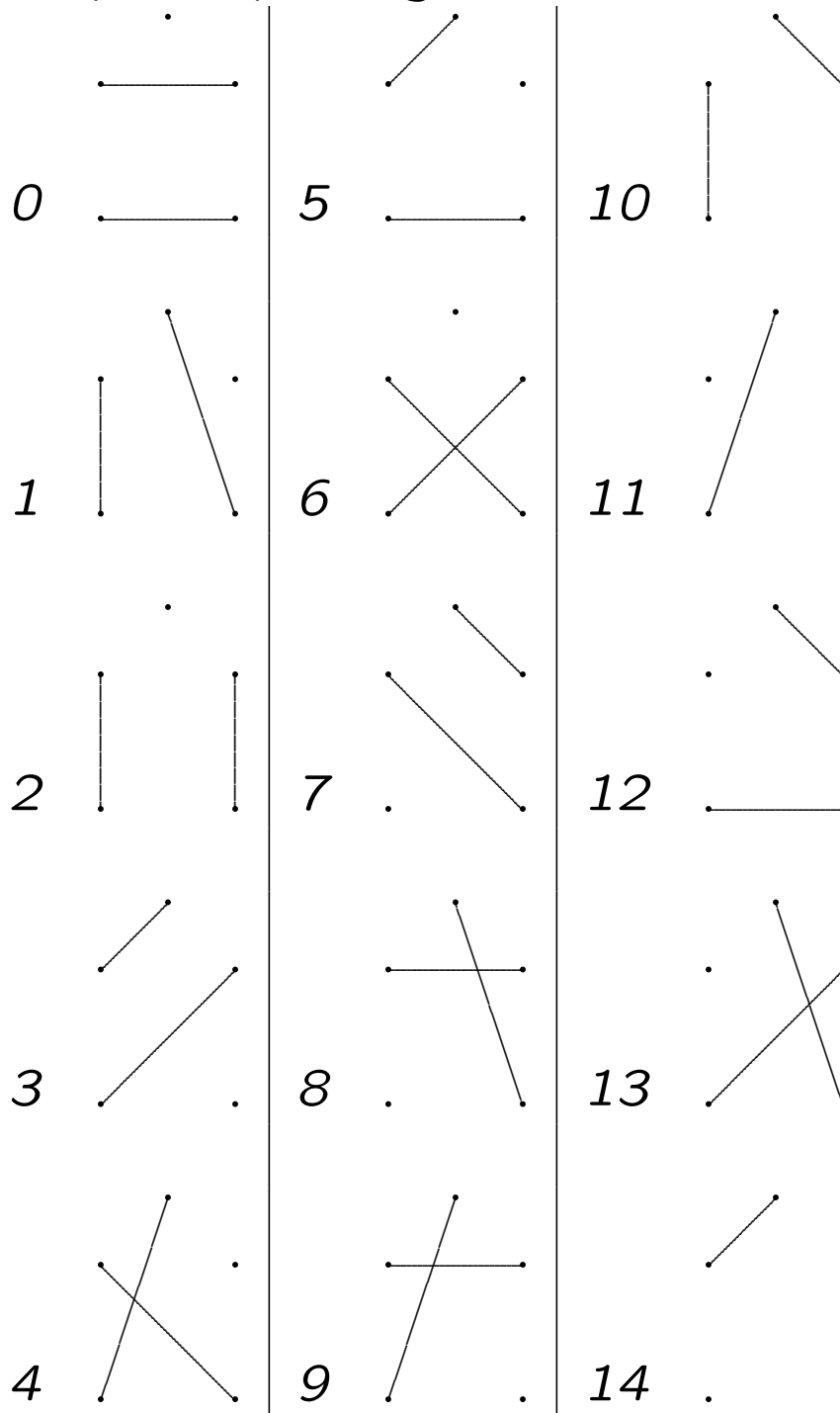
4. Association schemes

- Again: homogeneous coherent configuration = association scheme = coherent configuration with one fiber = diagonal relation Δ is one of basis relations = all basis graphs are regular.
- In this context association scheme is a very natural combinatorial analogue of a transitive permutation group.
- *Schurian* association scheme \mathfrak{M} corresponds to pair $(X, 2 - \text{Orb}(G, X))$ for a suitable transitive permutation group (G, X) ; otherwise, \mathfrak{M} is *non-Schurian*.


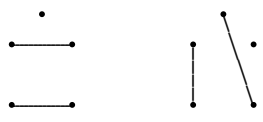
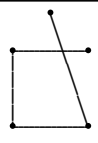

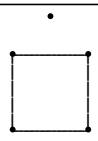

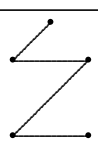

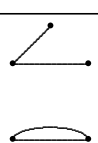
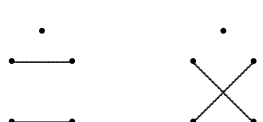
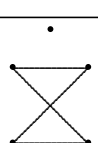
Example 4. Let us start with $(A_5, [0, 4])$, the alternating group of degree 5 and order 60. Let X be set of all labeled graphs of form



$|X| = 15$. A_5 acts transitively on X . Labeling produced by computer package COCO:

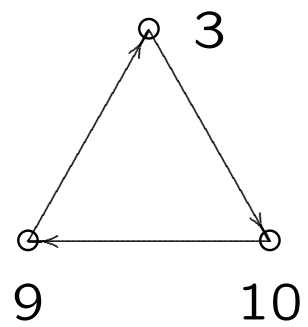
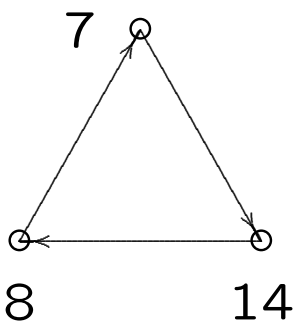
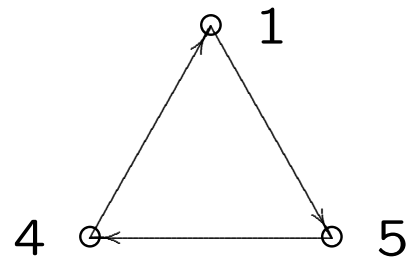
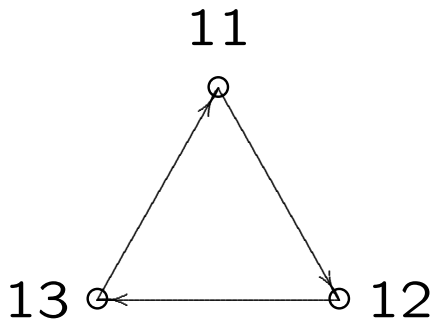
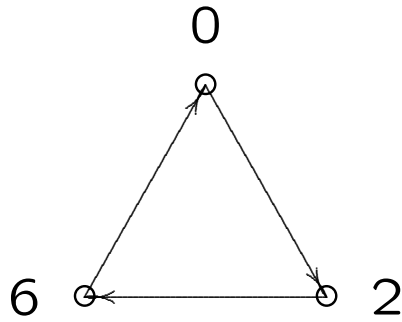


"Typical" representatives of 2-orbits:

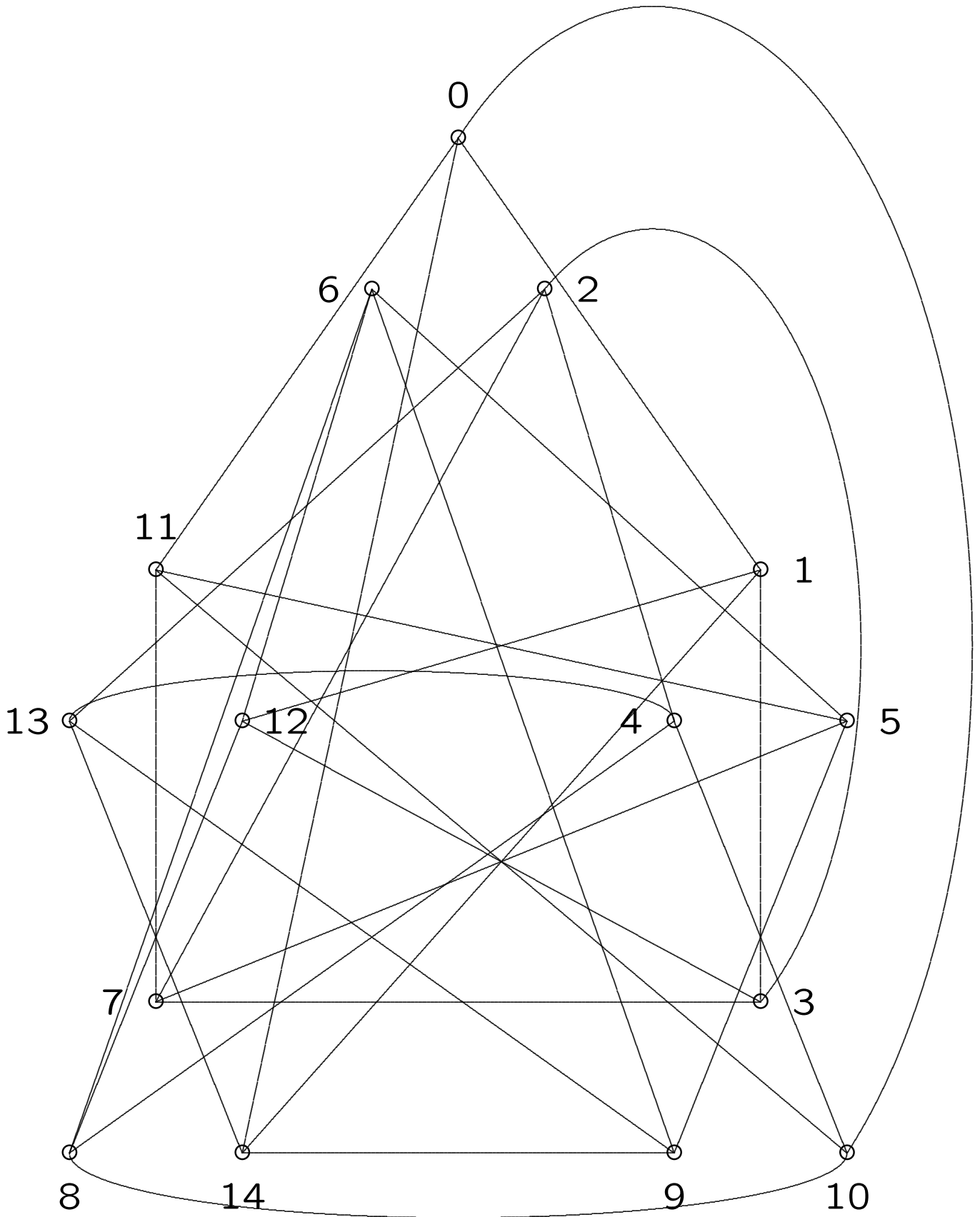
R_i	Pair	Picture	Valency	Comments
R_0	(0, 0)		1	<i>diagonal</i>
R_1	(0, 1)		4	
R_2	(0, 2)		1	
R_3	(0, 3)		4	
R_4	(0, 5)		4	
R_5	(0, 6)		1	
		<i>Total:</i>	<i>15</i>	

Remark: distinction between R_1 and R_3 , R_2 and R_5 requires "chirality vision".

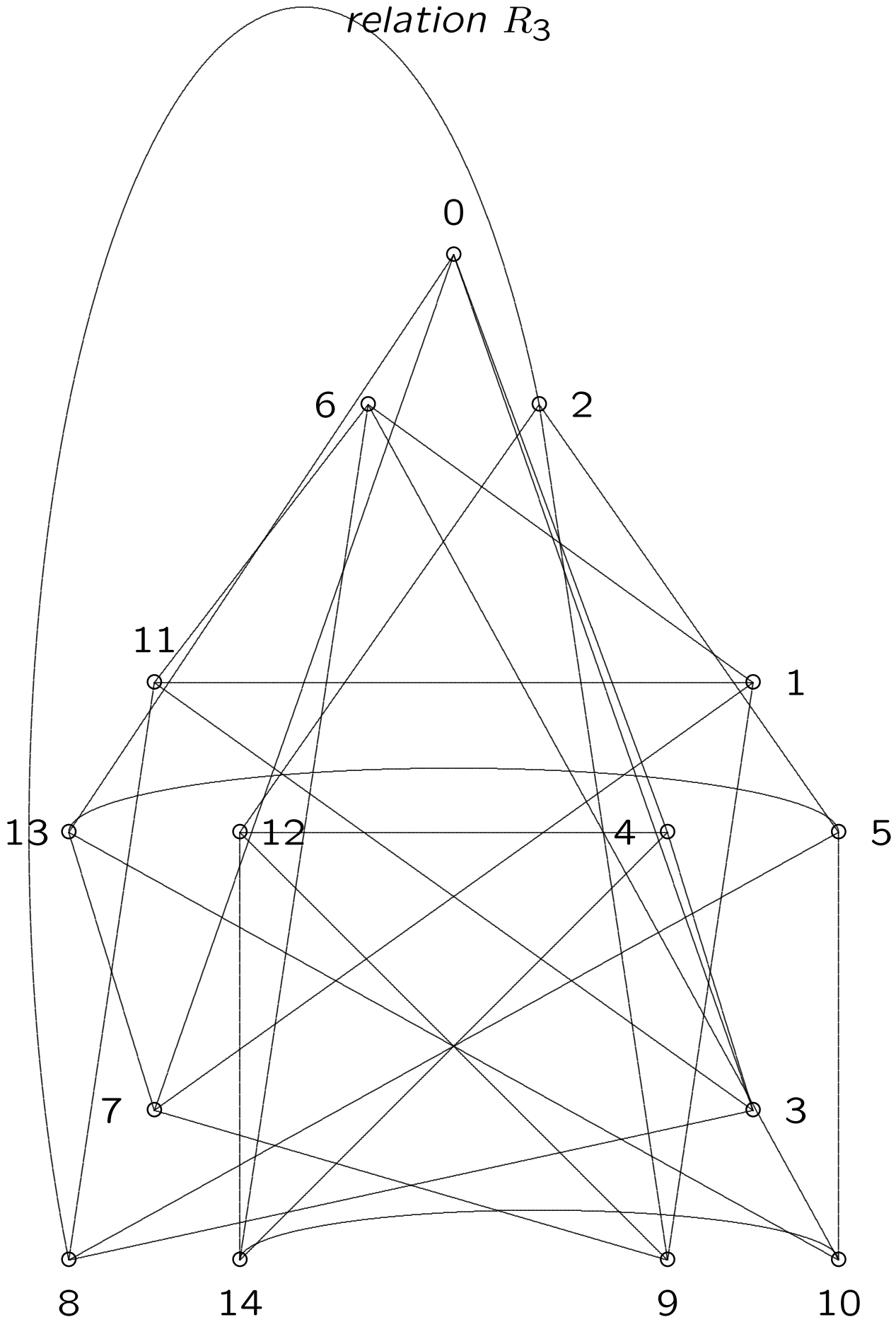
relation R_2 ($R_5 = R_2^t$)



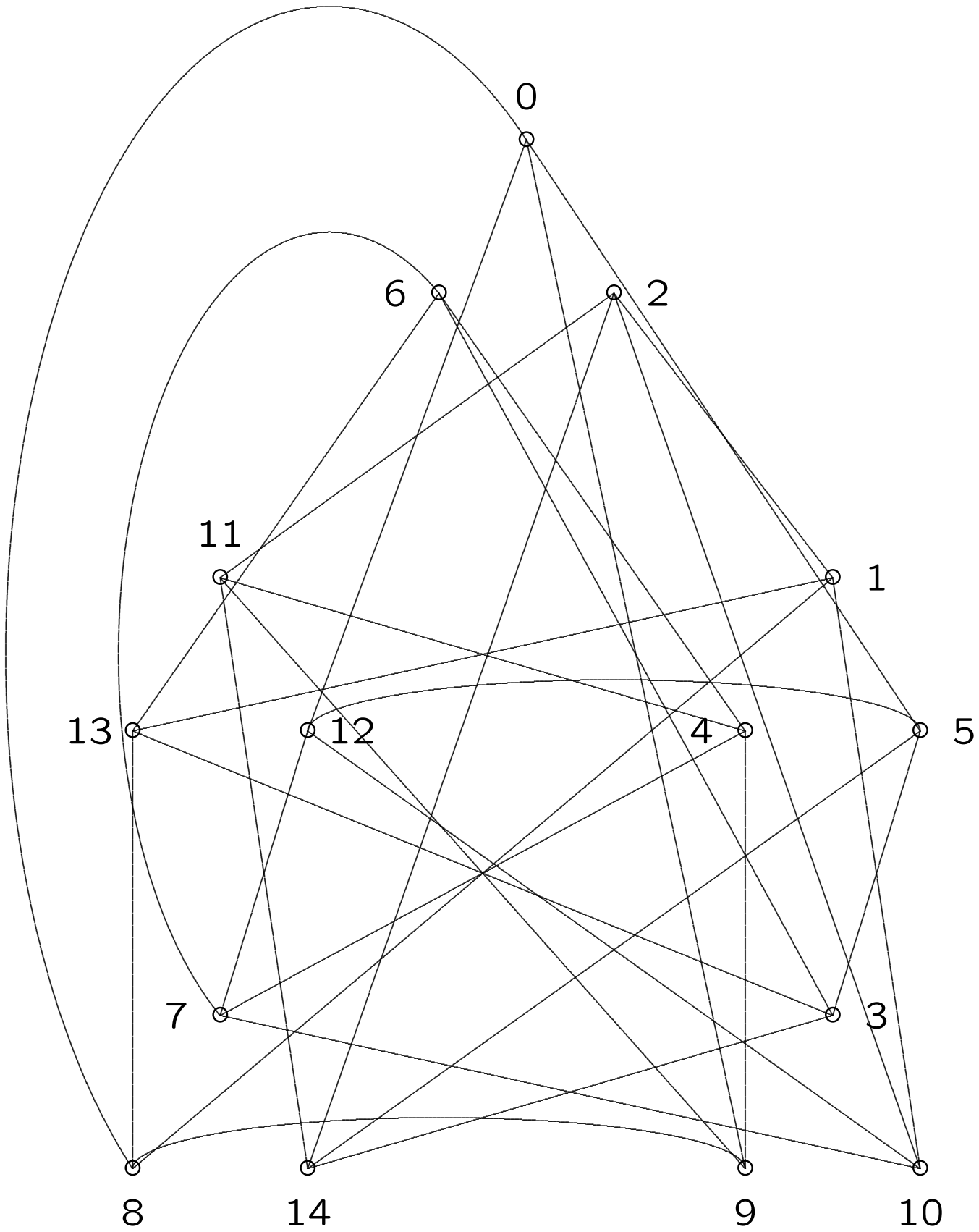
relation R_1



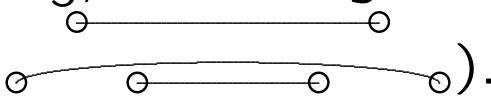
relation R_3



relation R_4



Comments

1. We have 3 times the same situation: 3-fold covering of K_5 (triangles in R_2 are vertices of K_5 ; each edge of K_5 is "blown-up" to 1-factor ).

2. The scheme is not commutative.

3. This is the first member of an exceptional infinite series of so-called *Siamese* association schemes on $(q + 1)(q^2 + 1)$ vertices, q is a prime power (here, $q = 2$).

5. Adjacency and intersection algebras

- Recall that structure constants form a 3-dimensional tensor.

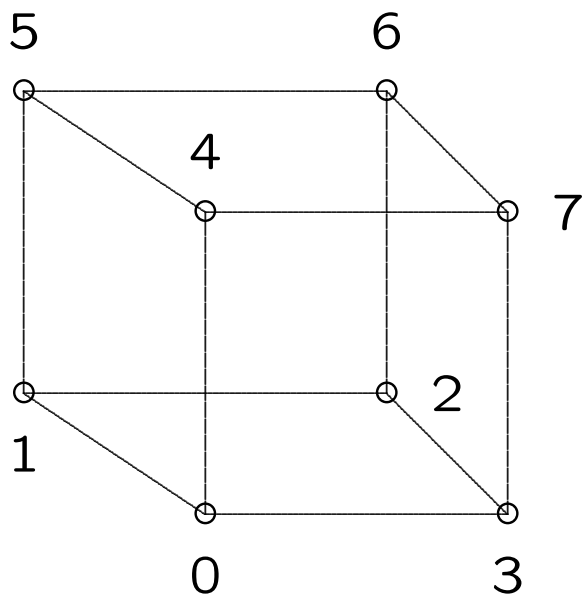
Let $\mathfrak{M} = (X, \{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_d\})$ be an association scheme with d classes (diagonal relation R_0 does not have status of a class). Let us arrange all structure constants P_{ij}^k into $d + 1$ matrices B_0, B_1, \dots, B_d

$$B_i = \begin{pmatrix} p_{i0}^0 & p_{i0}^1 & \cdots & p_{i0}^d \\ p_{i1}^0 & p_{i1}^1 & \cdots & p_{i1}^d \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ p_{id}^0 & p_{id}^1 & \cdots & p_{id}^d \end{pmatrix} \quad 0 \leq i \leq d$$

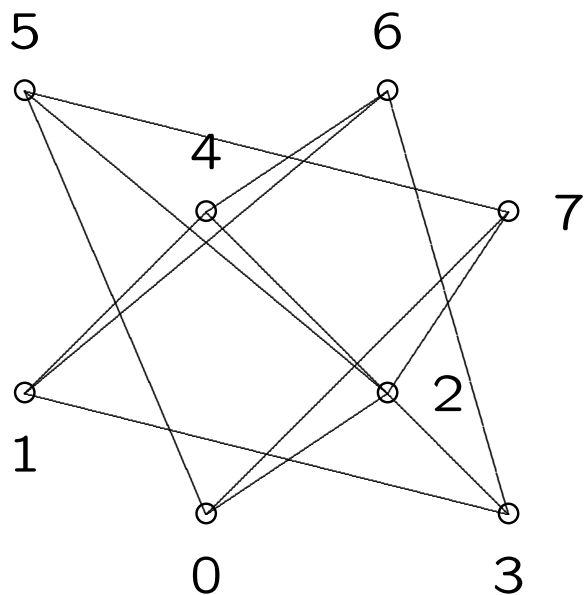
Let $\mathfrak{B} = \ll B_0, B_1, \dots, B_d \gg$ be the subalgebra of $M_{d+1}(\mathbb{C})$ generated by B_0, B_1, \dots, B_d .

- **Theorem** The adjacency algebra of \mathfrak{M} and algebra \mathfrak{B} are anti-isomorphic; the isomorphism is established by correspondence $A_i \rightarrow B_i$. As a result, in particular, matrices A_i and B_i have the same minimal polynomial.
- **Corollary** In commutative case, both algebras are isomorphic.
- The algebra \mathfrak{B} is called *the intersection algebra* of association scheme \mathfrak{M} .
- Remark Similar theorem is valid for coherent configurations.

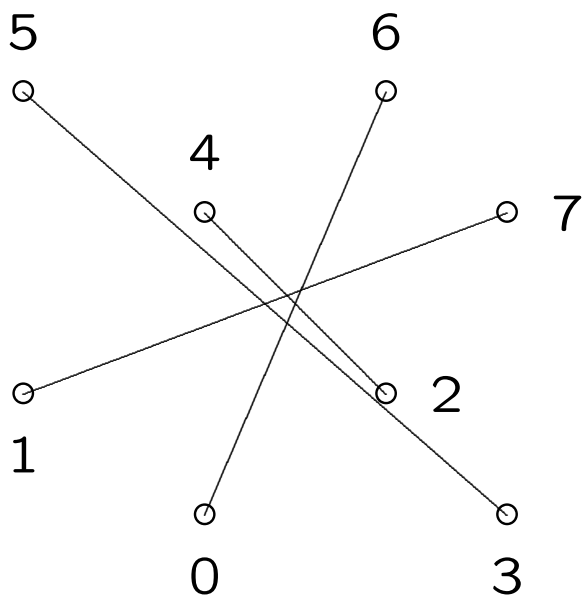
Example 5. Metric association scheme with 3 classes, generated by 3-dimensional cube Q_3 .



R_1



R_2



R_3

Table of multiplication

$\begin{matrix} \backslash R_j \\ R_i \backslash \end{matrix}$	R_0	R_1	R_2	R_3
R_0	1	0	0	0
	0	1	0	0
	0	0	1	0
	0	0	0	1
R_1	0	3	0	0
	1	0	2	0
	0	2	0	1
	0	0	3	0
R_2	0	0	3	0
	0	2	0	1
	1	0	2	0
	0	3	0	0
R_3	0	0	0	1
	0	0	1	0
	0	1	0	0
	1	0	0	0

$$B_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad B_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

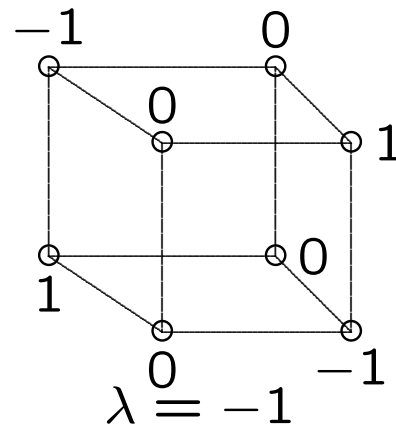
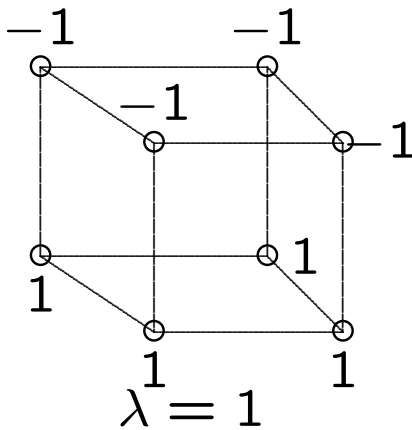
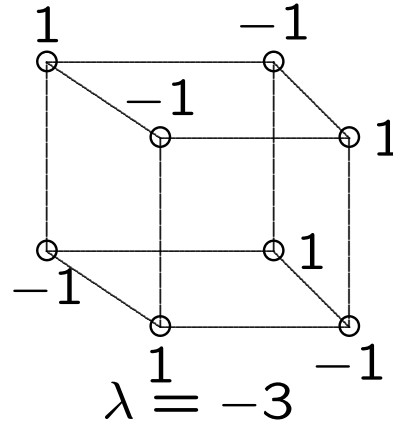
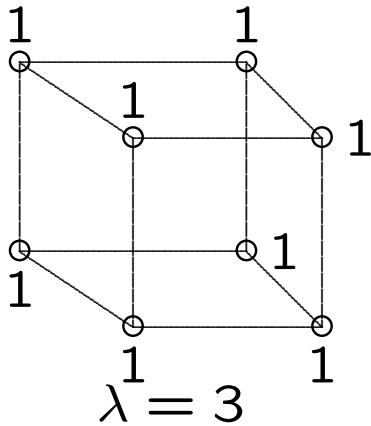
For example, $A_1^2 = 3A_0 + 2A_2$ (easy combinatorial inspection)

$$\begin{aligned} B_1^2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 & 6 \\ 6 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 6 \\ 6 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 3B_0 + 2B_2 \end{aligned}$$

Why this knowledge is helpful?

We want to get $\text{Spec}(Q_3)$.

Way 1 Tricks a la C. Godsil.



Way 2

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & \lambda & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & \lambda & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda \begin{vmatrix} \lambda & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & \lambda & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} + \lambda \begin{vmatrix} -3 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & -3 \\ 0 & -1 & \lambda \end{vmatrix} = \\
 & = \lambda(\lambda(\lambda^2 - 3) + 2(-2\lambda)) - 3(\lambda^2 + 3) = \lambda^4 - 10\lambda^2 - 9 = \\
 & = (\lambda^2 - 9)(\lambda^2 - 1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Eigenvalues are $-1, 1, 3, -3$.

(More about spectrum in part II).

6. Strongly regular graphs

- A graph $\Gamma = (V, E)$ is *strongly regular* if it is regular of valency k and each pair of adjacent (unadjacent) vertices has exactly λ (μ) common neighbours.

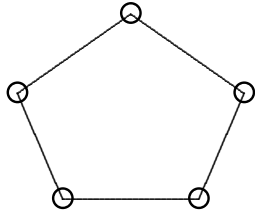
In this case we write $SRG(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$, where $v = |V|$.

- Γ is an srg \iff

$$\begin{cases} A^2 = kI + \lambda A + \mu(J - A - I) \\ AJ = JA = kJ \end{cases}$$

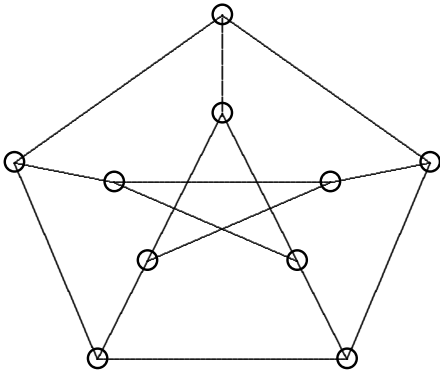
- Γ is an srg $\iff \mathfrak{M}(\Gamma) = (V, \langle \Delta, E, \bar{E} \rangle)$ is a symmetric association scheme with 2 classes, here $\bar{\Gamma} = (V, \bar{E})$ is graph *complementary* to Γ .

Example 6. a) Pentagon



$$SRG(5, 2, 0, 1)$$

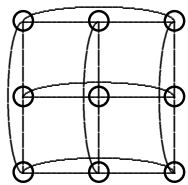
b) Petersen graph



$$SRG(10, 3, 0, 1)$$

c) $l \circ K_m$: disjoint union of l copies of complete graph with m vertices. $SRG(lm, m - 1, m - 2, 0)$.

d) Lattice square graph $L_2(3)$.



$$SRG(9, 4, 1, 2)$$

- SRG Γ is called *primitive* if both Γ and $\bar{\Gamma}$ are connected graphs.
- Using association scheme $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma)$ with 2 classes (that is of dimension 3) it is easy to prove that an undirected regular Γ is an SRG $\iff \Gamma$ has exactly 3 distinct eigenvalues.
- There are various combinatorial and spectral equations and restrictions for sequence (v, k, λ, μ) of parameters of an SRG \Rightarrow feasible set of parameters.
- a central question: existence of an SRG with a given feasible set of parameters.

- Rank 3 graph $\Gamma \iff \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$ is acting transitively on vertices, ordered pairs of adjacent and non-adjacent vertices.
- Rank 3 graph $\Gamma \iff$ for $G = \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$, $2 - \text{Orb}(G, V) = \{\Delta, E, \bar{E}\}$.
- Rank 3 graph $\Gamma \Rightarrow \Gamma$ is an SRG.
- All rank 3 graphs are described via the use of classification of finite simple groups.

Two most known infinite series of SRG's:

- Triangular graph $T(m) =$ line graph of K_m is $SRG(\frac{m(m-1)}{2}, 2(m-2), 1, 4)$. For $m \neq 8$ is uniquely determined by parameters.
- Lattice square graph $L_2(m) =$ line graph of the complete bipartite graph $K_{m,m}$ is

$$SRG(m^2, 2(m-1), 0, 2)$$

For $m \neq 4$ is uniquely determined by parameters.

- Many other infinite series and sporadic examples are known.
- Origins in design of statistical experiments and partial geometries (R. C. Bose, 1963).
- Important and beautiful links with coding theory and finite geometries. In particular, poster by Axel Kohnert.
- Diverse behaviour:
 - for some parameter sets there exists "prolific" constructions;
 - for some parameter sets uniqueness is proved.

Example 7. A non-rank-3 SRG on 280 vertices = non-Schurian association scheme with 2 classes (A.A. Ivanov, Klin, Faradžev, 1984), (Mathon-Rosa, 1985).

- Consider the symmetric group S_9 acting on the partitions of 9-set into 3 subsets of size 3;
- Degree is $\frac{9!}{(3!)^4} = 280$;
- Rank is 5 with subdegrees 1, 27, 36, 54, 162 (any two partitions have 3, 5, 9, 6, 7 non-empty intersections).
- The relation defined by 7 intersections gives

$$\Gamma = SRG(280, 162, 96, 90)$$

$$\left(\overline{\Gamma} = SRG(280, 117, 44, 52)\right)$$

Problem Classify all SRG's Γ such that $Aut(\Gamma)$ is a primitive permutation group representation of the symmetric group S_n .

Known examples:

- K_n (trivial);
- $T(m)$ ($m \neq 4$);
- a few sporadic examples, including the above one are known (Klin et al).

(Certain progress was achieved by Muzychuk and his followers.)

7. Distance regular graphs and metric schemes

- $\Gamma = (V, E)$ is (undirected) connected regular graph of valency k ;
for $x, y \in V$, $d(x, y)$ is a *distance* between vertices x and y , that is, the length of shortest path in Γ with the ends x, y ;
 $d = d(\Gamma)$ is *diameter* of Γ .
- for $0 \leq i \leq d$ the *distance graph* $\Gamma_i = (V, R_i)$ has the same vertex set V ; x, y are adjacent in $\Gamma_i \iff d(x, y) = i$;
 $\Gamma_0 = \Delta$, $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma$.
- Consider colour graph $(V, \{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_d\})$: in general it does not form an association scheme.

- Graph Γ is called a *distance regular graph* (DRG) if $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma) = (V, \{R_0, R_1, \dots, R_d\})$ is an association scheme with d classes. In this case, $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma)$ is called *metric* association scheme.
- Let W be an adjacency algebra of a metric association scheme. In this case W is generated by one matrix $A = A(\Gamma)$, moreover the generating process is in a sense canonical (cf talk by S. Reichard).
- We may associate to DRG Γ certain sequence of parameters (a part of intersection numbers of $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma)$), which is called *intersection array*.

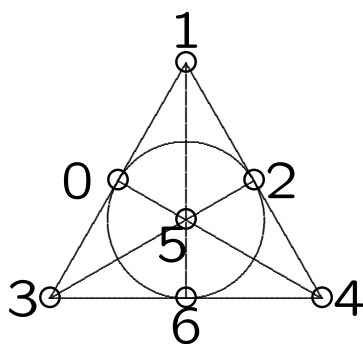
- A distance regular graph of diameter 2 = strongly regular graph.
- DRG Γ is called *primitive* if all distance graphs Γ_i , $1 \leq i \leq d$ are connected, otherwise Γ is *imprimitive*.
- DRG Γ is called *antipodal* if $\Gamma_d = m \circ K_l$ (a disjoint union of complete graphs, $v = |V| = ml$).
- **Theorem** Each imprimitive DRG is bipartite or antipodal.

- Graph Γ is called *distance transitive* (DTG) if for $G = \text{Aut}(\Gamma)$ the centralizer algebra $V(\text{Aut}(\Gamma))$ has rank $d + 1$ (in other words, G acts transitively on ordered pairs of equidistant vertices).
- Each DTG is DRG. There are many examples of DRG's which are not DTG's.
- Classification of DTG is one of the most monumental projects in algebraic graph theory (using CFSG): many infinite series and a lot of striking sporadic examples. This project is close to completion.

- Simplest non-trivial examples of imprimitive DRG's are coming from 3-dimensional euclidean geometry:
 - cube Q_3 ($k = 3$ $d = 3$, antipodal and bipartite),
 - icosahedron ($k = 5$, $d = 3$, antipodal),
 - dodecahedron ($k = 3$, $d = 6$, antipodal).

Example 8. (*Primitive graph on 21 vertices*)

a) *begin with Fano plane = PG(2, 2):*



$$\{1, 2, 4\} = 7$$

$$\{2, 3, 5\} = 8$$

$$\{3, 4, 6\} = 9$$

$$\{4, 5, 0\} = 10$$

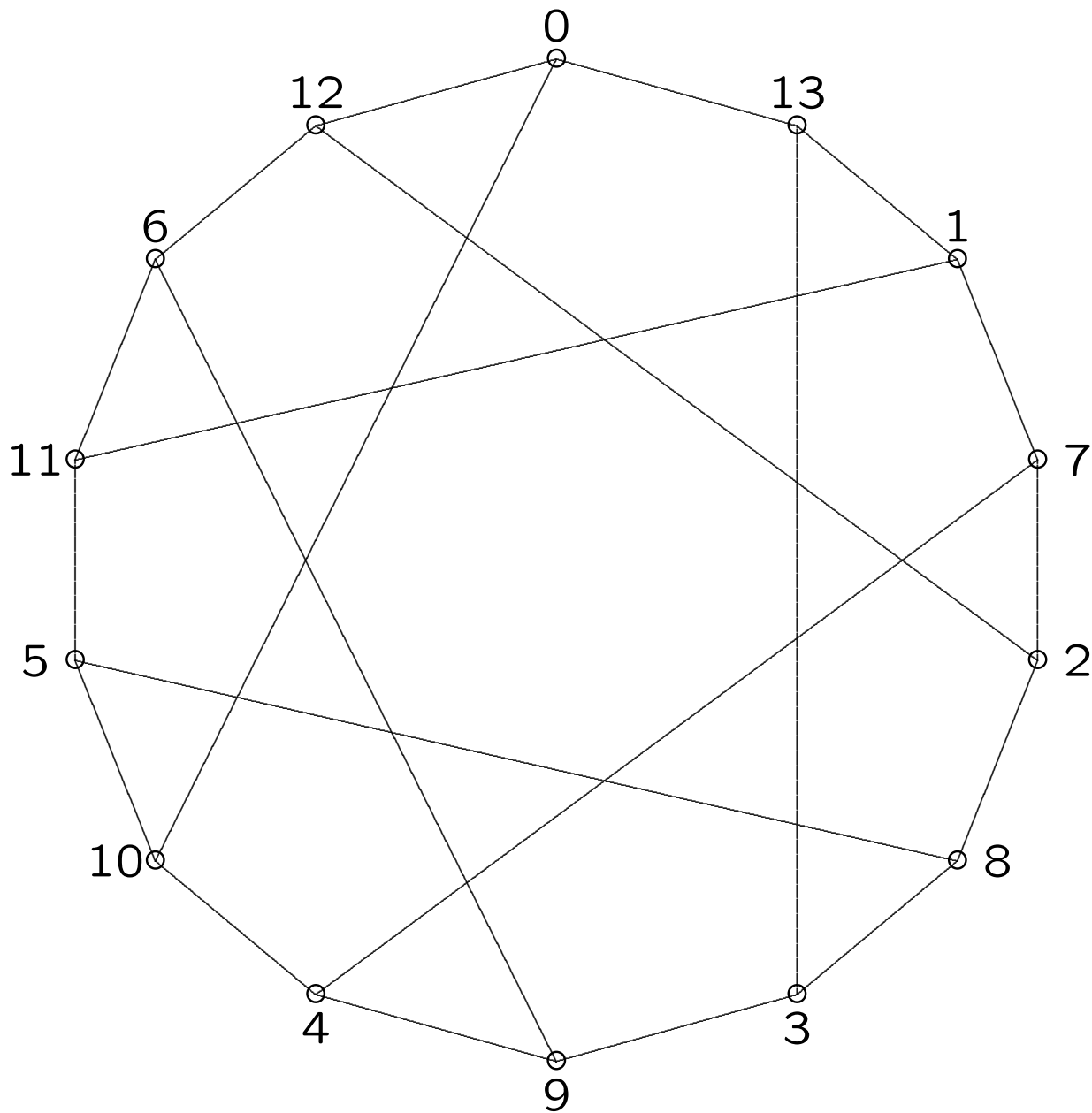
$$\{5, 6, 1\} = 11$$

$$\{6, 0, 2\} = 12$$

$$\{0, 1, 3\} = 13$$

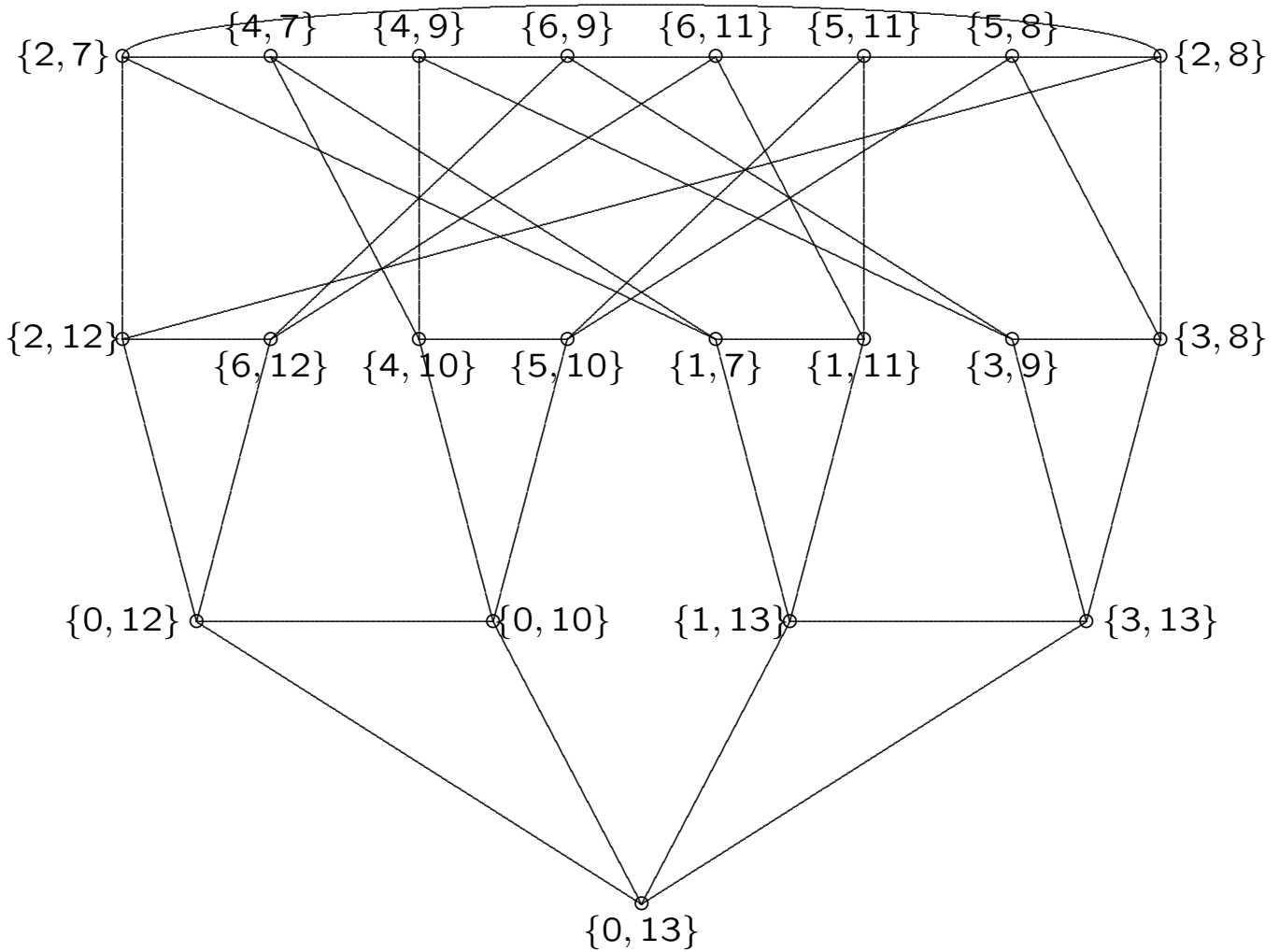
b) Construct its Levi graph: vertices are points and lines, adjacency=incidence.

Get Heawood graph H on 14 vertices:

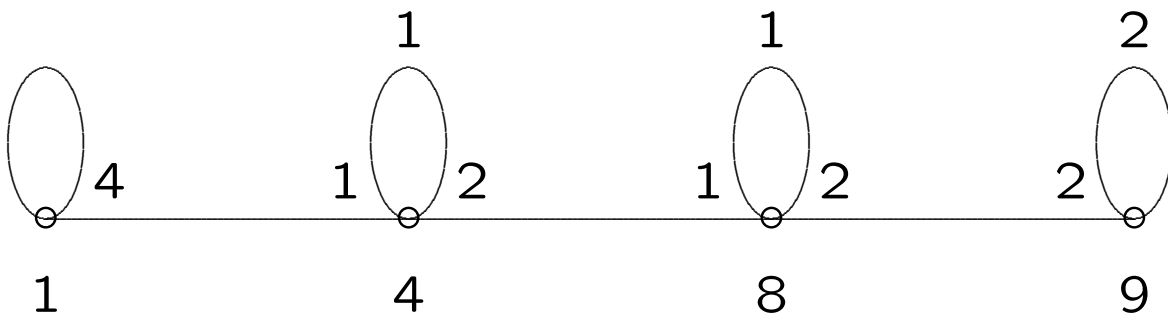


H itself is antipodal DRG ($k = 3, d = 3$).

c) Construct the line graph $L(H)$ - vertices are edges of H , adjacency = common ends of edges:



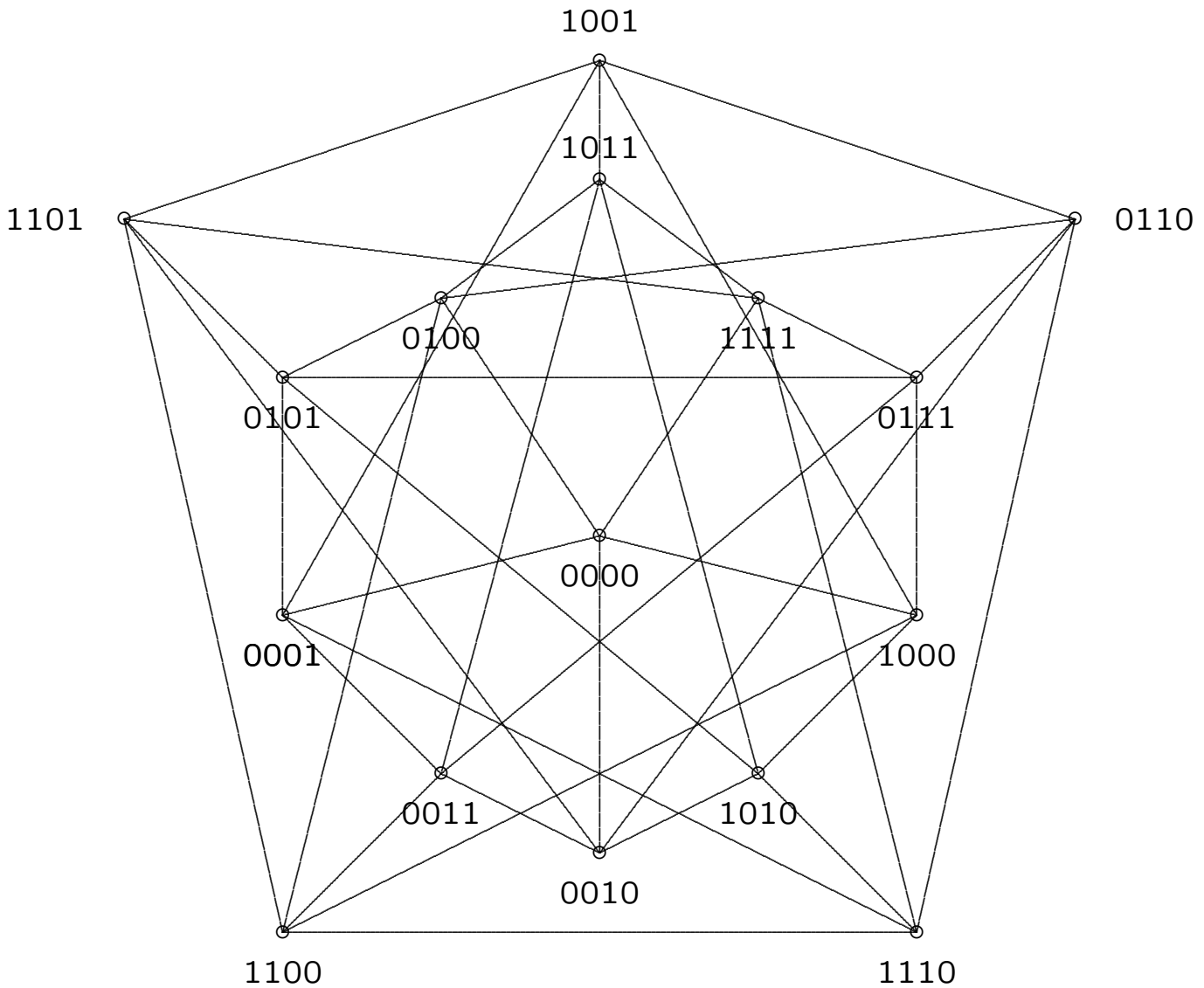
Intersection Diagram:



does not depend on a selection of vertex.

- A very famous family of DRG's is *n-dimensional cubes* Q_n with 2^n vertices which define *Hamming* (metric) association scheme $H(n, 2)$ with n classes.
- merging of classes in various metric schemes will be a subject of PART II.
- Now we consider just one example of merging in $H(4, 2)$.

Example 9. Clebsch graph \square_5 is defined as merging of classes Γ_1 and Γ_4 in Q_4 :



Alternative way:

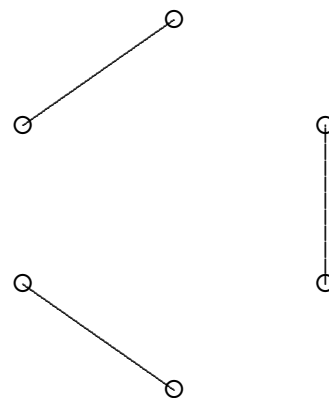
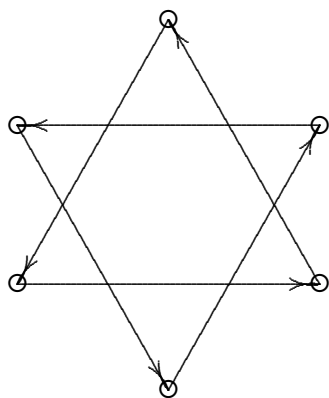
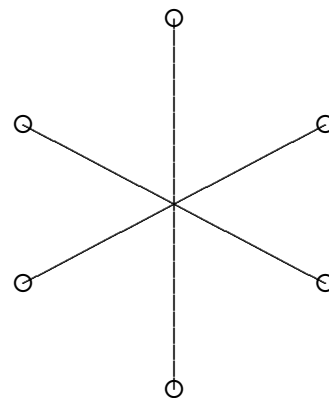
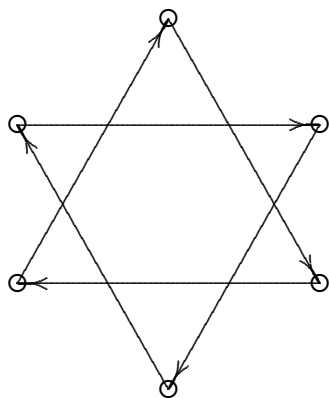
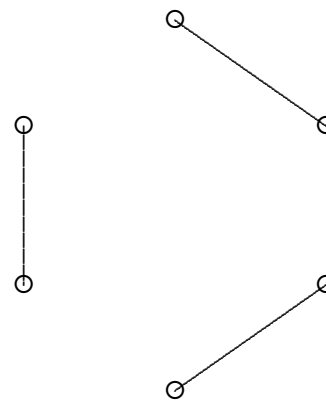
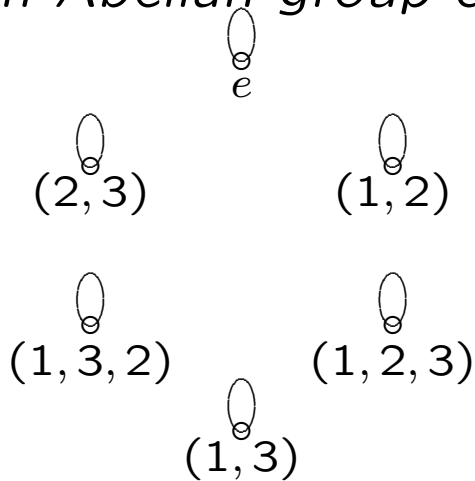
$$\square_5 = \text{CAY}(E_{24}, \{0001, 0010, 0100, 1000, 1111\})$$

is an SRG(16, 5, 0, 1).

8. Dihedral association schemes

- Metric association schemes have in a sense one natural generator - a corresponding DRG.
- We now introduce a family of association schemes with two generators (*dihedral* schemes according to Zieschang).
- The name goes back to a simple example of a so-called *thin* scheme (all valencies of basis graphs are equal to 1).

Example 10. Regular action of group $S_3 = D_3$, a non-Abelian group of order 6:



Cayley graphs with respect to elements of S_3 . Any two involutions generate the scheme.

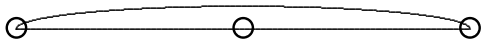
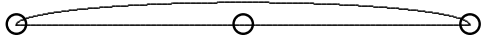
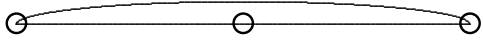
Example 11.

- Consider action of S_n on ordered pairs of distinct elements from $[1, n]$, $n \geq 4$.
- Get permutation group (S_n, X) of degree $n(n-1)$.
- Describe $2 - \text{Orb}(S_n, X)$ via typical pairs of points:
 $R_0: ((a, b), (a, b))$
 $R_1: ((a, b), (a, c))$
 $R_2: ((a, b), (c, b))$
 $R_3: ((a, b), (b, c))$
 $R_4: ((a, b), (c, a))$
 $R_5: ((a, b), (c, d))$
 $R_6: ((a, b), (b, a))$
Here R_1 and R_2 generate association scheme $(X, 2 - \text{Orb}(S_n, X))$.
- More examples in part 3.
(challenge for GB methods!)

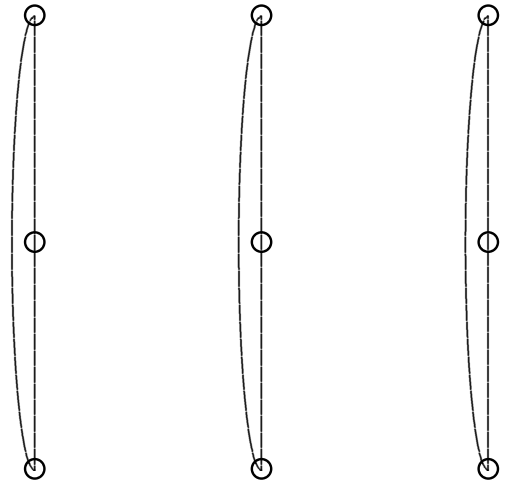
9. Amorphic association schemes

- Association scheme is called *amorphic* if any partition of its classes leads to a fusion scheme.
- A necessary condition: each basic graph is an SRG.
- **Theorem** (D.G. Higman, A.V. Ivanov)
 - a) If number of classes is at least 3, then number of points is n^2 , $n \in \mathbb{N}$;
 - b) Each basis graph is of a positive (negative) Latin square type graph.
- "Generic" examples: complete affine scheme of order n^2 with $n + 1$ classes.

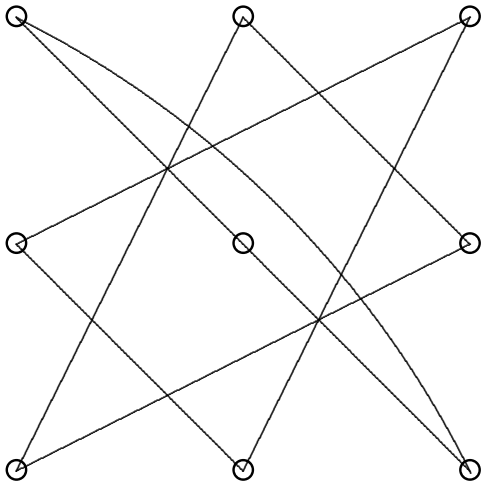
Example 12. $n = 3$



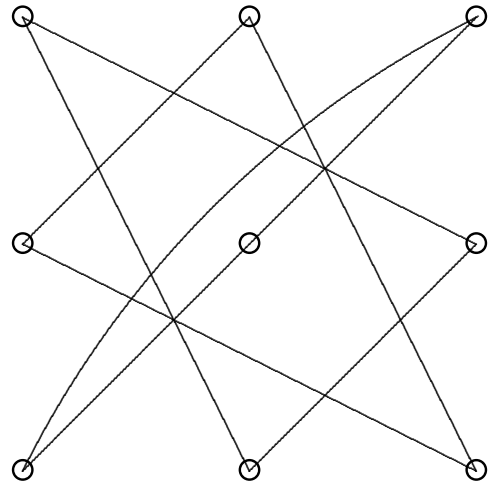
Γ_1



Γ_2



Γ_3



Γ_4

*Here scheme is generated by arbitrary 3 basis relations
(In general we need n generators).*

Acknowledgments

- Boris Weisfeiler is indeed alive in our memory.
- Fruitful long-standing collaboration with:
 - late Ja. Ju. Golfand;
 - I. A. Faradžev, A. A. Ivanov, A. V. Ivanov, M. Muzychuk and other colleagues from former USSR;
- New helpful input of young generation:
F. Fiedler, A. Heinze, Ch. Pech, S.Reichard;
- Permanent support of A. Woldar;
- Technical assistance in this lecture of Matan Ziv-Av.

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