NEARLY TRIPLY REGULAR HADAMARD DESIGNS AND TOURNAMENTS

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1. Introduction. Let A be a Hadamard $2 \cdot (4\lambda + 3, 2\lambda + 1, \lambda)$ design. Namely A is a (0, 1)-matrix of degree $4\lambda + 3$, where λ is a positive integer, such that

$$AA^{t} = (\lambda + 1)I + \lambda J,$$

where t denotes the transposition, and I and J are the identity and all one matrices of degree $4\lambda+3$ respectively. A Hadamard design A is called a Hadamard tournament if A satisfies the following equation

$$(2) A + A^t + I = J.$$

We choose the mode that each row vector of A is a block, or more precisely the incidence vector of a block. If A is a Hadamard tournament, then a block is an out-neighborhood of a vertex.

A Hadamard design is called nearly triply regular, if $|\alpha \cap \beta \cap \gamma|$ takes only two distinct values μ and ν for any three distinct blocks, α , β and γ , where |X| denotes the number of elements of a finite set X. We assume that $\mu > \nu$. It is known that $|\alpha \cap \beta \cap \gamma|$ takes at least two distinct values. In fact, if $|\alpha \cap \beta \cap \gamma|$ equals a constant μ , then fixing α and β and varying γ , we get the equation $(4\lambda+1)\mu=(2\lambda-1)\lambda$, which is absurd.

The concept of nearly triple regularity is first introduced by M. Herzog and K. B. Reid [2] for Hadamard tournaments. They have shown that Hadamard tournaments of quadratic residue type of orders 7 and 11 are only nearly triply regular Hadamard tournaments with $\nu=0$. However, its dual concept which is named quasi 3 has been introduced by P. Cameron several years earlier [1]. Furthermore, he showed, in particular, that only quasi 3-Hadamard designs are (i) Hadamard designs of projective geometry over GF(2) type and (ii) Hadamard designs of quadratic residue type of order 11. Since the dual (converse) of a Hadamard tournament is a Hadamard tournament, the result of M. Herzog and K. B. Reid may be regarded as a special case of the result of P. Cameron.

In the present paper we give a more direct and more elementary proof to the mentioned results of P. Cameron based on the nearly triple regularity, even though we have to separate the case $\lambda = 8$ (For this see [3]).

Now we formulate the theorem.

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Theorem. (i) Hadamard designs of projective geometry over GF(2) type are the only nearly triply regular Hadamard designs with $\mu = \lambda$. These designs are also called of affine geometry over GF(2) type, or of group type.

- (ii) Nearly triply reuglar Hadamard designs with $\mu < \lambda$ may exist only when $\lambda = 2$ and 8.
- (iii) Among the designs of (i) only the one with $\lambda=1$ is equivalent to a Hadamard tournament.
- 2. Hadamard designs of projective geometry over GF(2) type. Let V be an (n+2)-dimensional vector space over GF(2) and let PG be the (n+1)-dimensional projective space over GF(2) where a point of PG is a 1-dimensional subspace of V. Let P and B be the sets of points and hyperspaces of PG respectively. Then $D_n = (P, B)$ is a Hadamard design of projective geometry over GF(2) type with $\lambda = 2^n 1$. It is obvious that D_n is nearly triply regular with $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = (\lambda 1)/2$, and that D_n is self-dual.

Proposition 1. Let D = (P, B) be a nearly triply regular Hadamard 2- $(4\lambda+3, 2\lambda+1, \lambda)$ design with $\mu = \lambda$, where P and B denote the sets of points and blocks of D respectively. Then D is equivalent to D_n where $\lambda = 2^n-1$.

Proof. The nearly triple regularity with $\mu = \lambda$ implies that for any two distinct blocks α and β there exists a unique block γ such that $\Delta = \alpha \cap \beta = \beta \cap \gamma = \gamma \cap \alpha$. So we define an addition in $B \cup \{P\}$ as follows: P+P=P, $\alpha+\alpha=P$, $\alpha+P=\alpha$ and $\alpha+\beta=\gamma$. We notice that this addition is a natural one, namely $\alpha+\beta=(\alpha\cap\beta)\cup(\alpha^c\cap\beta^c)$, where c denotes the complementation. So the associative law holds and $(B \cup \{P\}, +)$ forms an elementary Abelian group of order $4\lambda+4$. We put $4\lambda+4=2^{n+2}$. Then $\lambda=2^n-1$. This shows that D is equivalent to the dual of D_n and, since D_n is self-dual, D is equivalent to D_n .

Remark. Proposition 1 is generalized to a general symmetric design by Blessilda Raposa in Ateneo de Manila University, the Philippines, unaware of the results of P. Cameron [4].

Proposition 2. Let D_n be equivalent to a Hadamard tournament. Then n = 1.

Proof. Assume that n>1. Then for any three distinct blocks α , β and γ , $\alpha\cap\beta\cap\gamma$ is not empty. Let α , β and γ be the out-neighborhoods of vertices a, b and c. Let d be a vertex of $\alpha\cap\beta\cap\gamma$, and consider the out-neighborhood δ of d. Then, since δ is a hyperspace, δ contains either a or b or c. This is a contradiction.

From now on we assume that $\mu < \lambda$.

3. The case where $\mu < \lambda$. Let D be a nearly triply regular Hadamard $2 \cdot (4\lambda + 3, 2\lambda + 1, \lambda)$ design with $\mu < \lambda$. Apparently we may assume that

$$\lambda \ge 3.$$

Let α and β be two distinct blocks of D and put $\Delta = \alpha \cap \beta$. Let c and d be the numbers of blocks γ and δ such that $|D \cap \gamma| = \mu$ and $|D \cap \delta| = \nu$ respectively. Then we have the following equations:

$$(4) c+d=4\lambda+1,$$

(5)
$$c \mu + d \nu = \lambda(2\lambda - 1),$$

and

(6)
$$c(\mu-1)\mu+d(\nu-1)\nu=(\lambda-2)(\lambda-1)\lambda$$

Eliminating c and d from (4), (5) and (6) we obtain that

(7)
$$(4\lambda+1)\mu\nu = \lambda \{ (\mu+\nu-1)(2\lambda-1) - (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) \}.$$

If $\nu = 0$, then we obtain that $(\mu-1)(2\lambda-1) = (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)$, which implies that $\lambda = 2$ against (3). So we may put

where A is a positive integer. Then from (7) and (8) we obtain that

(9)
$$A(4\lambda+1) = (\mu+\nu-1)(2\lambda-1)-(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2),$$

which implies that

(10)
$$12A + 3 = (2\lambda - 1)(4\mu + 4\nu + 1 - 8A - 2\lambda).$$

Since $\lambda > \mu > \nu > A$, $12A + 3 \le 12(\lambda - 3) + 3 = 12\lambda - 33$. Hence from (10) we obtain that

(11)
$$4\mu + 4\nu + 1 - 8A - 2\lambda = 1$$
, 3, or 5.

If $4\mu + 4\nu + 1 - 8A - 2\lambda = 5$, from (8), (10) and (11) we obtain that

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$$(12) 6A = 5\lambda - 4,$$

$$(13) 6\mu\nu = (5\lambda - 4)\lambda$$

and

(14)
$$6\mu + 6\nu = 13\lambda - 2.$$

So 6μ and 6ν are roots of the polynomial $F(X) = X^2 - (13\lambda - 2)X + 6\lambda(5\lambda - 4)$. Since $F(6\lambda) = -12\lambda^2 - 12\lambda < 0$, the larger root of F(X) is greater than 6λ . Since $6\nu < 6\mu < 6\lambda$, this is a contradiction.

If $4\mu + 4\nu + 1 - 8A - 2\lambda = 3$, from (8), (10) and (11) we obtain that

$$(15) 2A = \lambda - 1,$$

$$2\mu\nu = (\lambda - 1)$$

and

(17)
$$\mu + \nu = \lambda.$$

So 2μ and 2ν are roots of the polynomial $F(X) = X^2 - (3\lambda - 1)X + 2(\lambda - 1)\lambda$ = $(X-2\lambda)(X-\lambda+1)$, which implies that $\mu = \lambda$ against our assumption.

Hence we have that $4\mu+4\nu+1-8A-2\lambda=1$. From (8), (10) and (11) we obtain that

$$(18) 6A = \lambda - 2,$$

$$(19) 6\mu\nu = (\lambda - 2)\lambda$$

and

(20)
$$6\mu + 6\nu = 5\lambda - 4.$$

So 6μ and 6ν are roots of the polynomial $F(X) = X^2 - (5\lambda - 4)X + 6\lambda(\lambda - 2) = (X - 3\lambda)(X - 2\lambda + 4)$. Hence we obtain that

(21)
$$\mu = \lambda/2 \text{ and } \nu = (\lambda - 2)/3.$$

Then going back to (4) and (5) we obtain that

(22)
$$d = 9 - (36/(\lambda + 4)).$$

Hence by (3) we obtain that $\lambda = 8$, 14 or 32. Now we count the number t of trios $\{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ of blocks such that $|\alpha \cap \beta \cap \gamma| = \nu$. For each choice of pairs $|\alpha, \beta|$ of blocks there exist d blocks γ such that $|\alpha \cap \beta \cap \gamma| = \nu$. Hence we obtain that

(23)
$$t = (4\lambda + 3)(2\lambda + 1)d/3.$$

However, for $\lambda = 14$ and 32 we have that d = 7 and 8 respectively. So the right hand side of (23) is not an integer for $\lambda = 14$ and 32.

For $\lambda = 8$ we have that d = 6 and t = 1190. This completes the proof of Theorem.

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