

Hadamard and conference matrices

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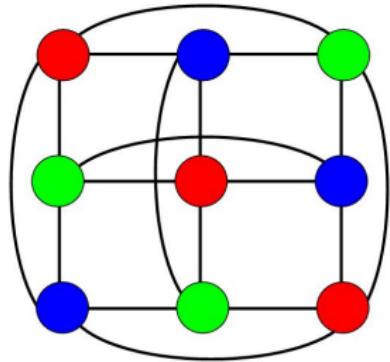
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with input from Rosemary Bailey, Katarzyna Filipiak,
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Will Orrick, Gordon Royle

Happy Birthday, MSG!!



and many happy returns ...

Hadamard's theorem

Let H be an $n \times n$ matrix, all of whose entries are at most 1 in modulus. How large can $\det(H)$ be?

Now $\det(H)$ is equal to the volume of the n -dimensional parallelepiped spanned by the rows of H . By assumption, each row has Euclidean length at most $n^{1/2}$, so that $\det(H) \leq n^{n/2}$; equality holds if and only if

- ▶ every entry of H is ± 1 ;
- ▶ the rows of H are orthogonal, that is, $HH^\top = nI$.

A matrix attaining the bound is a **Hadamard matrix**.

This is a nice example of a continuous problem whose solution brings us into discrete mathematics.

Remarks

- ▶ $HH^\top = nI \Rightarrow H^{-1} = n^{-1}H^\top \Rightarrow H^\top H = nI$, so a Hadamard matrix also has orthogonal columns.
- ▶ Changing signs of rows or columns, permuting rows or columns, or transposing preserve the Hadamard property.

Examples of Hadamard matrices include

$$(+) \text{, } \begin{pmatrix} + & + \\ + & - \end{pmatrix} \text{, } \begin{pmatrix} + & + & + & + \\ + & + & - & - \\ + & - & + & - \\ + & - & - & + \end{pmatrix}.$$

Orders of Hadamard matrices

Theorem

The order of a Hadamard matrix is 1, 2 or a multiple of 4.

We can ensure that the first row consists of all +s by column sign changes. Then (assuming at least three rows) we can bring the first three rows into the following shape by column permutations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \overbrace{+ \dots +}^a & \overbrace{+ \dots +}^b & \overbrace{+ \dots +}^c & \overbrace{+ \dots +}^d \\ \overbrace{+ \dots +}^a & \overbrace{+ \dots +}^b & \overbrace{- \dots -}^c & \overbrace{- \dots -}^d \\ \overbrace{+ \dots +}^a & \overbrace{- \dots -}^b & \overbrace{+ \dots +}^c & \overbrace{- \dots -}^d \end{pmatrix}$$

Now orthogonality of rows gives

$$a + b = c + d = a + c = b + d = a + d = b + c = n/2,$$

so $a = b = c = d = n/4$.

The Hadamard conjecture

The **Hadamard conjecture** asserts that a Hadamard matrix exists of every order divisible by 4. The smallest multiple of 4 for which no such matrix is currently known is 668, the value 428 having been settled only in 2005.

Symmetric Hadamard matrices

A particularly attractive class of Hadamard matrices are those which are symmetric, have constant diagonal and constant row sum.

Such matrices must have square order $4s^2$; the row sums are $\pm 2s$. [For the row sum σ is an eigenvalue of H , and hence σ^2 is an eigenvalue of $H^2 = HH^\top$: thus $\sigma^2 = n$.]

They give rise to symmetric $2-(4s^2, 2s^2 \pm s, s^2 \pm s)$ designs and strongly regular graphs.

In the case where the order is a power of 2, these matrices can be constructed from **bent functions** (functions on a vector space whose distance from the space of linear functions is maximal).

There are connections with coding theory and cryptography.

Skew-Hadamard matrices

A matrix A is **skew** if $A^\top = -A$.

A Hadamard matrix can't really be skew, since in characteristic not 2, a skew matrix has zero diagonal. So we compromise and define a **skew-Hadamard matrix** H to be one which has constant diagonal $+1$ and such that $H - I$ is skew.

The property is preserved by simultaneous row and column sign changes, so we can normalise the matrix so that its first row is $+1$ and its first column (apart from the first entry) is -1 . It is conjectured that skew-Hadamard matrices of all orders divisible by 4 exist. The smallest unsolved case is 188.

Doubly regular tournaments

If we delete the first row and column of a skew-Hadamard matrix, and replace the diagonal 1s by 0s, we obtain the adjacency matrix of a **doubly regular tournament**. This means a tournament on $n = 4t + 3$ vertices, in which each vertex has in- and out-degree $2t + 1$, and for any two distinct vertices v and w , there are t vertices z with $v \rightarrow z$ and $w \rightarrow z$.

Conversely, any doubly regular tournament on n vertices gives a skew-Hadamard matrix on $n + 1$ vertices.

In a forthcoming paper, Bailey, Cameron, Filipiak, Kunert and Markiewicz use Hamiltonian decompositions of doubly regular tournaments to construct universally optimal circular repeated-measurements designs.

Problem

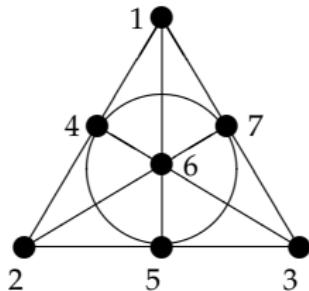
Does every doubly regular tournament have a Hamiltonian decomposition?

Indeed, Kelly conjectured in the 1960s that every regular tournament has a Hamiltonian decomposition.

An example

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & + & + & - & + & - & - \\ - & 0 & + & + & - & + & - \\ - & - & 0 & + & + & - & + \\ + & - & - & 0 & + & + & - \\ - & + & - & - & 0 & + & + \\ + & - & + & - & - & 0 & + \\ + & + & - & + & - & - & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} + & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\ - & + & + & + & - & + & - & - \\ - & - & + & + & + & - & + & - \\ - & - & - & + & + & + & - & + \\ - & + & - & - & + & + & + & - \\ - & - & + & - & - & + & + & + \\ - & + & - & + & - & - & + & + \\ - & + & + & - & + & - & - & + \end{pmatrix}$$

This is related to the **Fano plane**:



Paley tournaments

The simplest construction of doubly regular tournaments starts with a finite field of order $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. The vertices are the elements of the field, and there is an arc $x \rightarrow y$ if and only if $y - x$ is a square. (This is a tournament because -1 is a non-square, and therefore $y - x$ is a square if and only if $x - y$ is not.)

If q is prime, then there is an obvious Hamiltonian decomposition: for each non-zero square s , take the Hamiltonian cycle

$$(0, s, 2s, 3s, \dots, -s).$$

However, if q is not a prime, it is not so obvious how to proceed.

Conference matrices

A **conference matrix** of order n is an $n \times n$ matrix C with diagonal entries 0 and off-diagonal entries ± 1 which satisfies $CC^\top = (n - 1)I$.

We have:

- ▶ The defining equation shows that any two rows of C are orthogonal. The contributions to the inner product of the i th and j th rows coming from the i th and j th positions are zero; each further position contributes $+1$ or -1 ; there must be equally many (namely $(n - 2)/2$) contributions of each sign. So n is even.
- ▶ The defining equation gives $C^{-1} = (1/(n - 1))C^\top$, whence $C^\top C = (n - 1)I$. So the columns are also pairwise orthogonal.
- ▶ The property of being a conference matrix is unchanged under changing the sign of any row or column, or simultaneously applying the same permutation to rows and columns.

Symmetric and skew-symmetric

Using row and column sign changes, we can assume that all entries in the first row and column (apart from their intersection) are $+1$; then any row other than the first has $n/2$ entries $+1$ (including the first entry) and $(n - 2)/2$ entries -1 . Let C be such a matrix, and let S be the matrix obtained from C by deleting the first row and column.

Theorem

If $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ then S is symmetric; if $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ then S is skew-symmetric.

Proof of the theorem

Suppose first that S is not symmetric. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $S_{12} = +1$ while $S_{21} = -1$. Each row of S has m entries $+1$ and m entries -1 , where $n = 2m + 2$; and the inner product of two rows is -1 .

Suppose that the first two rows look as follows:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 0 & + & +\cdots+ & +\cdots+ & -\cdots- & -\cdots- \\ - & 0 & \underbrace{+\cdots+}_a & \underbrace{-\cdots-}_b & \underbrace{+\cdots+}_c & \underbrace{-\cdots-}_d \end{array}$$

Now row 1 gives $a + b = m - 1$, $c + d = m$;
row 2 gives $a + c = m$, $b + d = m - 1$;
and the inner product gives $a + d = m - 1$, $b + c = m$.
From these we obtain

$$a = \frac{1}{2}((a + b) + (a + c) - (b + c)) = (m - 1)/2,$$

so m is odd, and $n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

The other case is similar.

By slight abuse of language, we call a normalised conference matrix C *symmetric* or *skew* according as S is symmetric or skew (that is, according to the congruence on $n \pmod 4$). A “symmetric” conference matrix really is symmetric, while a skew conference matrix becomes skew if we change the sign of the first column.

Symmetric conference matrices

Let C be a symmetric conference matrix. Let A be obtained from S by replacing $+1$ by 0 and -1 by 1 . Then A is the incidence matrix of a *strongly regular graph* of Paley type: that is, a graph with $n - 1$ vertices in which every vertex has degree $(n - 2)/2$, two adjacent vertices have $(n - 6)/4$ common neighbours, and two non-adjacent vertices have $(n - 2)/4$ common neighbours. The matrix S is called the *Seidel adjacency matrix* of the graph.

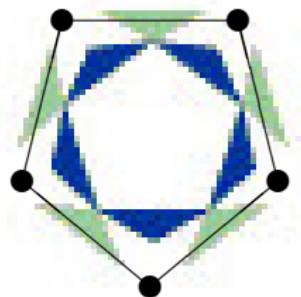
The complementary graph has the same properties.

Symmetric conference matrices are associated with other combinatorial objects, among them regular two-graphs, sets of equiangular lines in Euclidean space, switching classes of graphs. A conference matrix can produce many different strongly regular graphs by choosing different rows and columns for the normalisation.

Again the Paley construction works, on a field of order $q \equiv +1 \pmod{4}$; join x to y if $y - x$ is a square. (This time, -1 is a square, so $y - x$ is a square if and only if $x - y$ is.)

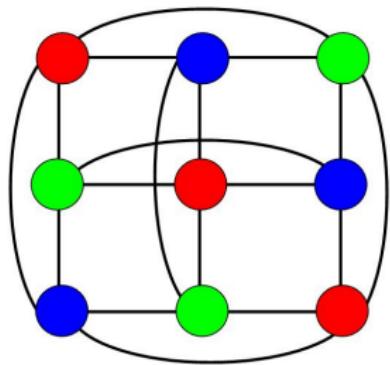
An example

The Paley graph on 5 vertices is the 5-cycle. We obtain a symmetric conference matrix by bordering the Seidel adjacency matrix as shown.



$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & + & + & + & + & + \\ + & 0 & - & + & + & - \\ + & - & 0 & - & + & + \\ + & + & - & 0 & - & + \\ + & + & + & - & 0 & - \\ + & - & + & + & - & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Another example



$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & - & - & - & + & + & - & + & + \\ - & 0 & - & + & - & + & + & - & + \\ - & - & 0 & + & + & - & + & + & - \\ - & + & + & 0 & - & - & - & + & + \\ + & - & + & - & 0 & - & + & - & + \\ + & + & - & - & - & 0 & + & + & - \\ - & + & + & - & + & + & 0 & - & - \\ + & - & + & + & - & + & - & 0 & - \\ + & + & - & + & + & - & - & - & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

A new first row and column, with 0 in the (1, 1) position and other entries +, gives a symmetric conference matrix of order 10.

The MSG logo is the Paley graph on GF(9). (**Exercise:** Prove this!)

A theorem of van Lint and Seidel asserts that, if a symmetric conference matrix of order n exists, then $n - 1$ is the sum of two squares. Thus there is no such matrix of order 22 or 34. They exist for all other orders up to 42 which are congruent to 2 (mod 4), and a complete classification of these is known up to order 30.

The simplest construction is that by Paley, in the case where $n - 1$ is a prime power: the matrix S has rows and columns indexed by the finite field of order $n - 1$, and the (i, j) entry is $+1$ if $j - i$ is a non-zero square in the field, -1 if it is a non-square, and 0 if $i = j$.

Symmetric conference matrices first arose in the field of conference telephony.

Skew conference matrices

Let C be a “skew conference matrix”. By changing the sign of the first column, we can ensure that C really is skew: that is, $C^\top = -C$. Now $(C + I)(C^\top + I) = nI$, so $H = C + I$ is a Hadamard matrix. It is a **skew-Hadamard matrix**, as defined earlier; apart from the diagonal, it is skew. Conversely, if H is a skew-Hadamard matrix, then $H - I$ is a skew conference matrix.

If C is a skew conference matrix, then S is the adjacency matrix of a doubly regular tournament, as we saw earlier. (Recall that this is a directed graph on $n - 1$ vertices in which every vertex has in-degree and out-degree $(n - 2)/2$ and every pair of vertices have $(n - 4)/4$ common in-neighbours (and the same number of out-neighbours).

Again this is equivalent to the existence of a skew conference matrix.

Dennis Lin's problem

Dennis Lin is interested in skew-symmetric matrices C with diagonal entries 0 (as they must be) and off-diagonal entries ± 1 , and also in matrices of the form $H = C + I$ with C as described. He is interested in the largest possible determinant of such matrices of given size. Of course, it is natural to use the letters C and H for such matrices, but they are not necessarily conference or Hadamard matrices. So I will call them *cold matrices* and *hot matrices* respectively.



Of course, if n is a multiple of 4, the maximum determinant for C is realised by a skew conference matrix (if one exists, as is conjectured to be always the case), and the maximum determinant for H is realised by a skew-Hadamard matrix. In other words, the maximum-determinant cold and hot matrices C and H are related by $H = C + I$.

In view of the skew-Hadamard conjecture, I will not consider multiples of 4 for which a skew conference matrix fails to exist. A skew-symmetric matrix of odd order has determinant zero; so there is nothing interesting to say in this case. So the remaining case is that in which n is congruent to 2 (mod 4).

Lin made the first half of the following conjecture, and the second half seems as well supported:

Conjecture

For orders congruent to 2 (mod 4), if C is a cold matrix with maximum determinant, then $C + I$ is a hot matrix with maximum determinant; and, if H is a hot matrix with maximum determinant, then $H - I$ is a cold matrix with maximum determinant.

Of course, he is also interested in the related questions:

- ▶ What is the maximum determinant?
- ▶ How do you construct matrices achieving this maximum (or at least coming close)?

Hot matrices

Ehlich and Wojtas (independently) considered the question of the largest possible determinant of a matrix with entries ± 1 when the order is not a multiple of 4. They showed:

Theorem

For $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, the determinant of an $n \times n$ matrix with entries ± 1 is at most $2(n-1)(n-2)^{(n-2)/2}$.

Of course this is also an upper bound for the determinant of a hot matrix.

We believe there should be a similar bound for the determinant of a cold matrix.

Meeting the Ehlich–Wojtas bound

Will Orrick (personal communication) showed:

Theorem

A hot matrix of order n can achieve the Ehlich–Wojtas bound if and only if $2n - 3$ is a perfect square.

This allows $n = 6, 14, 26$ and 42 , but forbids, for example, $n = 10, 18$ and 22 .

Computational results

These are due to me, Will Orrick, and Gordon Royle. Lin's conjecture is confirmed for $n = 6$ and $n = 10$. The maximum determinants of hot and cold matrices are $(160, 81)$ for $n = 6$ (the former meeting the EW bound) and $(64000, 33489)$ for $n = 10$ (the EW bound is 73728). In each case there is a unique maximising matrix up to equivalence. Random search by Gordon Royle gives strong evidence for the truth of Lin's conjecture for $n = 14, 18, 22$ and 26 , and indeed finds only a few equivalence classes of maximising matrices in these cases.

Will Orrick searched larger matrices, assuming a special bi-circulant form for the matrices. He was less convinced of the truth of Lin's conjecture; he conjectures that the maximum determinant of a hot matrix is at least $cn^{n/2}$ for some positive constant c , and found pairs of hot matrices with determinants around $0.45n^{n/2}$ where the determinants of the corresponding cold matrices are ordered the other way.