Distance Matrices and n-dimensional Designs

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We consider two classes of n-dimensional designs containing all projective and polar spaces, and investigate their relations to distance matrices, Delsarte matrices and association schemes.

1. M_{n} -DESIGNS

All sets considered are finite. A design consists of a set P of points and a collection \mathscr{B} of subsets of P, called blocks. A quasilattice is a design, together with a set of subsets of P, called subspaces, such that the empty set, the sets consisting of a single point, the intersection of subspaces and the intersection of a subspace with a block are subspaces. In particular, this implies that the set of all subspaces contained in a given block, together with this block, is a lattice. A variety is either a subspace, a block or the set P. Note that if any two blocks intersect in a subspace then the varieties form an atomic lattice. A quasilattice is called short if every subspace is the intersection of two blocks.

A quasilattice is called regular of dimension n if the following axioms (L), (B), (K) and (R) are satisfied:

- (L) If x is a variety then all maximal chains $\emptyset = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_i = x$ of varieties have the same length i (we call such a variety an i-variety, and we write X_i for the set of all i-varieties).
- (B) The n-varieties are the blocks.
- (K) For $i \le n$, every i-variety contains exactly K_i points; $0 = K_0 < K_1 < \cdots < K_n$.
- (R) For $i \le n$, every *i*-variety is in exactly $R_i > 0$ blocks. Note that R_0 is the total number of blocks.
- An M_m -design is a regular quasilattice of dimension n satisfying
- (M_n) If x is an i-variety, z a block containing x, and $p \in z$ a point not in x then there is an (i+1)-variety $y \le z$ containing x and p.

Note that by the intersection property, there is (for $i \le n-2$) at most one (i+1)-variety y containing x and p; so this y is in all blocks z containing x.

It is easy to see that a regular quasilattice of dimension n is an M_n -design if and only if the lattice of subspaces of every block is a matroid (see e.g. Welsh [8] for a definition).

EXAMPLES

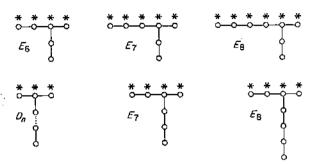
- M1. Every 1-design is an M_2 -design; in fact the two concepts are the same.
- M2. The set of all proper subsets of an (n+1)-set P is an M_n -design with $K_i = i$.
- M3. The set of all partial transversals of a partition of a v-set P into n < v classes of v/n points each is an M_n -design with $K_i = i$; blocks are the complete transversals.
- M4. The set of all proper subspaces of a projective or affine space of dimension n over a finite field GF(q) is an M_n -design with $K_i = (q^i 1)/(q 1)$.
- M5. The set of all polar subspaces of a finite polar space of polar dimension n over GF(q) is an M_n -design with $K_i = (q^i 1)/(q 1)$. Several families of polar spaces are known (Tits [7], Buckenhout and Shult [1]).

M6. For polar spaces of type D_n over GF(q) (Tits [7]), the set of varieties belonging to the nodes $\neq n$ in the diagram

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(which we shall call a half polar space) is an M_{n-1} -design with $K_i = (q^i - 1)/(q - 1)$ for i < n-1, $K_{n-1} = (q^n - 1)/(q - 1)$.

M7. In the same way, the starred nodes (*) of the diagrams for buildings of type D_n



and E_n give rise to M_i -designs (for i = number of stars). This follows from the transitivity properties of the automorphism group of the relevant buildings (Tits [7]), together with the fact that the residue of a block (= variety belonging to the rightmost starred node) is a truncated projective space, hence a matroid.

- M8. Perfect matroid designs (Welsh [8]) of dimension n are M_n -designs; in fact a matroid (normalized such that $K_0 = 0$, $K_1 = 1$) is a perfect matroid design iff it is an M_n design for the appropriate n. The only known perfect matroid designs are projective spaces, affine spaces, Steiner systems, affine triple systems and their truncations, see [8].
- M9. The regular semilattices of Type II over GF(q) defined in Delsarte [3] are M_n -designs with $K_i = (q^i 1)/(q 1)$.
- M10. For $1 \le i \le n$, the set of $\le i$ -varieties of an M_n -design is an M_{i-1} -design, and the set of $\le i$ -varieties, together with the blocks, is an M_{i+1} -design. Thus, the previous examples give rise to many others.

In 1.1-1.7, we assume that an M_n -design is given.

LEMMA 1.1. Suppose that $0 \le i \le j \le k \le n$, $i \le l \le k$, $l \le n-1$. Then, for given $x \in X_i$, $y \in X_b$, $z \in X_k$ with $x \le y \le z$, the number of l-varieties u with $u \le z$, $u \cap y = x$ is

$$N_{ii}^{kj} = \frac{(K_k - K_j)(K_k - K_{j+1}) \cdots (K_k - K_{j+l-1-i})}{(K_l - K_l)(K_l - K_{l+1}) \cdots (K_l - K_{l-1})}.$$
 (1)

PROOF. Obviously, $N_{ii}^{kj} = 1$, and for i = l the product (1) is empty. Hence we may assume by induction that i < l, and the formula holds for $N_{i,l+1}^{k,j+1}$. We count the number N of pairs $(p, u) \in X_1 \times X_l$ with $p \not\in x$, $p \in u \le z$, $u \cap y = x$. For each of the $K_k - K_l$ points $p \not\in y$ with $p \in z$, there is a unique (i+1)-variety v containing x and p, and we have $v \le u$ since $p, x \le u$. By induction there are $N_{i,l+1}^{k,l+1}$ possible u, whence $N = (K_k - K_l)N_{i,l+1}^{k,l+1}$. On the other hand, given u, p can be chosen in $K_l - K_l$ ways, whence $N = N_{il}^{k,l}(K_l - K_l)$, and (1) follows.

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COROLLARY 1.2. For given $x \in X_i$, $z \in X_k$ with $x \le z$, the number of j-varieties y with $x \le y \le z$ is

$$\mu_{ik}^{i} = \frac{(K_k - K_i)(K_k - K_{i+1}) \cdots (K_k - K_{i-1})}{(K_i - K_i)(K_i - K_{i+1}) \cdots (K_i - K_{i-1})}.$$
 (2)

COROLLARY 1.3. The number of i-varieties contained in a k-variety $(k \le n)$ is

$${k \brack i} = \frac{K_k(K_k - K_1) \cdots (K_k - K_{i-1})}{K_i(K_i - K_1) \cdots (K_i - K_{i-1})}.$$
 (3)

REMARK. For the M_n -designs of Examples M2 and M3, $\binom{k}{i}$ is the ordinary binomial coefficient, and for the M_n -designs of Examples M4 and M5, $\binom{k}{i}$ is the Gaussian binomial coefficient. This explains the notation used.

COROLLARY 1.4. The set of subspaces of a block of an M_n -design is a perfect matroid design.

PROOF. The set in question is a matroid, and by 1.2, (K), (R) are satisfied with $K'_i = K_b$, $R'_i = \mu_{in}^{n-1}$.

LEMMA 1.5. For $i \le n-1$, the number of i-varieties contained in two given blocks x and y is

$${ \mu \brace i} = \frac{\mu(\mu - K_1) \cdots (\mu - K_{i-1})}{K_i(K_i - K_1) \cdots (K_i - K_{i-1})},$$
(4)

where μ is the number of points contained in x and y.

PROOF. Will be deleted (similar to the proof of 1.1).

Note that $\begin{Bmatrix} \mu \\ i \end{Bmatrix}$ is a polynomial of degree i in μ , and

$$\mu_{ik}^{i} = \begin{bmatrix} k \\ j \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} j \\ i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k \\ i \end{bmatrix}^{-1}. \tag{6}$$

LEMMA 1.6. The intersection of two blocks is either a subspace, or a union of (n-1)-varieties.

PROOF. Let x, y be blocks. Every point of $x \cap y$ is in a maximal subspace of $x \cap y$ whence $x \cap y$ is the union of its maximal subspaces. Let z be such a maximal subspace. If z is an i-variety with $i \le n-2$, and p a point of $x \cap y$ not in z then x and y contain the unique (i+1)-variety containing z and p, whence z is not maximal. Hence there is no such p, and $x \cap y = z$.

COROLLARY 1.7. Two blocks with at most K_{n-1} common points intersect in a subspace.

We restate some of our results in matrix form. Denote by I the identity matrix of any size, by J (resp. j) any all-one matrix (resp. vector), and by $f \circ A$ (where $A = (a_{xy})$ is a matrix and f a function) the matrix $(f(a_{xy}))$.

Let us define the incidence matrices $A_{ik} = (a_{ik}(x, y))_{x \in X_i, y \in X_k}$, where $a_{ik}(x, y)$ is 1 if $x \le y$, and 0 otherwise, the intersection matrices $C_i = A_{in}^T A_{in}$ and the distance matrix $C = K_n J - C_1$. C and C_i are $b \times b$ -matrices. The off-diagonal entries of C_1 , i.e. the numbers of points in the intersections of two blocks, are called the intersection numbers of the design. The next result is an immediate consequence of the above results.

LEMMA 1.8. For an M_n -design, the following is true.

(i) For $i \le j \le k$, we have $A_{ij}A_{jk} = \mu_{ik}^{l}A_{ik}$.

(ii) For
$$i \le n-1$$
, $C_i = f_i \circ C$, where $f_i(\xi) = \begin{Bmatrix} K_n - \xi \\ i \end{Bmatrix}$.

(iii) $A_{0k} = j^T$, $C_0 = J$, $C_n = I$.

(iv)
$$A_{in}J = R_iJ$$
, $A_{in}^TJ = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}J$, $C_iJ = R_i\begin{bmatrix} n \\ i \end{bmatrix}J$.

THEOREM 1.9. A short regular lattice of dimension n is an M_n -design iff there are polynomials $f_i(\xi)$ of degree i (i = 0, ..., n-1) such that $C_i = f_i \circ C$ for i = 0, ..., n-1.

PROOF. By 1.8 (ii) every M_n -design has the stated property. Conversely, assume this property. Since $C_i = f_1 \circ C$ with linear $f_1(\xi)$, this is equivalent with the existence of polynomials $g_i(\xi)$ of degree i such that $C_i = g_i \circ C_1$. If we compare the (x, y)-entries we find that the number of i-varieties contained in two given blocks x and y is $g_i(\mu)$, where μ is the number of points contained in x and y.

Let x and y be blocks whose intersection is a j-variety. Then $\mu = K_i$. For i > j, there is no i-variety contained in x and y, and for i = j there is exactly one. Hence K_i is a zero of g_i for i > j, and $g_i(K_i) = 1$. Since g_i has degree i, $g_i(\xi = \text{const.}(\xi - K_0) \cdots (\xi - K_{i-1})$, and since $g_i(K_i) = 1$, we have $g_i(\xi) = \begin{cases} \xi \\ j \end{cases}$, as defined in (4).

In every n-dimensional regular quasilattice, (M) holds for i-varieties with i > n-2. By induction, assume that (M) holds for i-varieties x with i > j, where $j \le n-2$. For a given block z, we count the number N of triples $(p, x, y) \in X_1 \times X_j \times X_{j+1}$ with $p \not\in x \le y \le z, p \in y$. Applying the hypothesis (with x = y = z) we find $g_{j+1}(K_n)$ possibilities for y, and for each y, $g_j(K_{j+1})$ possibilities for x (since y is the intersection of two blocks). For each x, y there are $K_{j+1} - K_j$ choices for p. Hence $N = (K_{j+1} - K_j)g_j(K_{j+1})g_{j+1}(K_n) = (K_n - K_j)g_j(K_n)$, by the above formula for $g_i(\xi)$. On the other hand, there are $g_j(K_n)$ choices for x, then $K_n - K_j$ choices for p, and since we have a lattice, at most one choice for y. Since $N = (K_n - K_j)g_j(K_n)$, there is always such a y. Hence (M) holds for j-varieties x. This proves (M) for all x.

2. Delsarte Matrices and $1\frac{1}{2}$ -designs

We start with a summary of some definitions and results of Neumaier [4]. A distance matrix is a real, symmetric matrix $C = (c_{xy})$ with the properties $c_{xx} = 0$, $c_{xy} \ge 0$, $\sqrt{c_{xy}} + \sqrt{c_{yz}} \ge \sqrt{c_{xz}}$ (triangle inequality), for all rows x, y, z. A distance matrix has strength t if, for all non-negative integers i, k with $i + k \le t$, there are polynomials $f_{ik}(\xi)$ of degree $\le i$ such that

$$C^{(i)}C^{(k)} = f_{ik} \circ C;$$
 (7)

here $C^{(i)} = (c_{xy}^i)$. A Delsarte matrix is a distance matrix C without off-diagonal zeros such that C has strength t for all t.

If s is the number of distinct non-zero entries $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_s$ of a distance matrix C without off-diagonal zeros then C is a Delsarte matrix iff C has strength 2s-2, and in this case, the rows of C form an s-class association scheme, two rows x and y being ith associates iff $c_{xy} = \alpha_i$. From the proof of this result ([4], Theorem 3.4) we can easily deduce the following slightly stronger lemma.

LEMMA 2.1. A distance matrix C without off-diagonal zeros is a Delsarte matrix iff, for $0 \le i \le k \le s-1$, there are polynomials $f_{ik}(\xi)$ of degree $\le i$ such that (7) holds; here s is the number of distinct non-zero entries of C.

If A is the incidence matrix of a 1-design with block size k then $C = kJ - A^{T}A$ is a distance matrix of strength 1. C has strength 2 iff the design is a $1\frac{1}{2}$ -design, i.e. satisfies the following axiom:

(*) If x is a point and y is a block then the number of pairs (u, z) consisting of a point u and a block z with $x \le z$, $u \le z$, $u \le y$ depends only on whether x is on y or not.

We want to give sufficient conditions for the distance matrix of a $1\frac{1}{2}$ -design to be a Delsarte matrix. For $x \in X_k$, $y \in X_n$ we define $\alpha_{ik}(x, y)$ to be the number of pairs $(u, z) \in X_i \times X_n$ with $x \le z$, $u \le z$, $u \le y$. We consider the following generalization of (*):

(S) If $x \in X_k$, $y \in X_n$, $x \cap y \in X_j$ then $\alpha_{ik}(x, y) = \alpha_{ik}^j$, for all non-negative integers i, j, k with $i < n, j \le k < n$. An M_n -design with property (S) is called an S_n -design.

EXAMPLES

- S1. Every $1\frac{1}{2}$ -design is an S_2 -design; in fact the two concepts are the same. Moreover, if we apply (S) for i = k = 1, we see that the points and blocks of any S_n -design form a $1\frac{1}{2}$ -design.
- S2. The set of all $\leq n$ -subsets of a v-set is an S_n -design (Cameron [2], Delsarte [3]).
- S3. The set of all partial transversals of a partition of a v-set into n < v classes of v/n points each is an S_n -design (Delsarte [3]).
- S4. The set of all $\leq k$ -subspaces of a projective space PG(n,q) is an S_k -design (Cameron [2], Delsarte [3]).
- S5. The set of all polar subspaces of a finite polar space or half polar space of polar dimension n and odd characteristic is an S_n -design (Stanton [5]; for the case n=3, see also Thas [6]).
- S6. The regular semilattices of type II are M_n -designs (Delsarte [3]).

LEMMA 2.2. (S) implies the existence of integers β_{ik}^i such that for i < n, k < n,

$$A_{kn}C_{l} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} \beta_{ik}^{i} A_{lk}^{\mathsf{T}} A_{ln}, \tag{8}$$

$$C_{i}C_{k} = \sum_{l=0}^{k} \beta_{ik}^{l} \mu_{ln}^{k} C_{l}.$$
 (9)

PROOF. The (x, y) entry of the matrix on the left of (8) is just the number counted in (S), whence it is α_{lk}^{j} if $x \cap y$ is a *j*-variety. On the other hand, the (x, y)-entry of $A_{lk}^{T}A_{ln}$ is the number of *l*-varieties contained in $x \cap y$ which is $\begin{bmatrix} j \\ l \end{bmatrix}$. Hence (8) holds iff

$$\alpha_{ik}^{j} = \sum_{l=0}^{k} \begin{bmatrix} j \\ l \end{bmatrix} \beta_{ik}^{l}, \tag{10}$$

for all i < n, $j \le k < n$. But this is a system of linear equations for β_{ik}^{l} with a triangular matrix which has ones on the diagonal. Hence there is an integral solution. (9) is obtained from (8) by left multiplication with A_{km}^{T} where we simplify with 1.8 (i).

THEOREM 2.3. Let C be the distance matrix of an S_n -design. Then C has strength n, and if there are no repeated blocks and at most n distinct intersection numbers then C is even a Delsarte matrix.

PROOF. For i < n, C_i is a polynomial of degree i in C, whence each $C^{(i)}$ is a linear combination of C_0, \ldots, C_i . Hence (9) implies the existence of polynomials $f_{ik}(\xi)$ of degree $\le k$ with (7) for i < n, k < n. Now $C^{(n)}C^{(0)} = C^{(n)}J$ has an (x, y)-entry $\sum_z c_{xz}^n = \sum_z c_{xz}^{n-1}c_{xz}$ which is the diagonal entry of $C^{(n-1)}C = f_{n-1,1} \circ C$. Therefore $C^{(n)}C^{(0)} = f_{n-1,1}(0)J = f_{n0} \circ C$ with $f_{n0}(\xi) = f_{n-1,1}(0)$ of degree 0. Hence C has strength n. Since the entries of C are K_n minus the intersection numbers, the second part follows from Lemma 2.1.

COROLLARY 2.4. The blocks of an S_n -design without repeated blocks and with $s \le n$ distinct intersection numbers form an association scheme with s classes.

COROLLARY 2.5. The blocks of a lattice which is an S_n -design form an association scheme.

PROOF. In this case, the intersection numbers are contained in $\{K_0, K_1, \ldots, K_{n-1}\}$, whence $s \le n$.

For n=2, these are well known results, implying the existence of a strongly regular graph on the blocks for quasi-symmetric 2-designs, partial geometries and Steiner systems S(2, k, v). For n > 2, the corollary is related to Theorem 7 of Delsarte [3]. For, if a lattice is an S_n -design then it is a regular semilattice. In fact, Delsarte's $\Pi(j, r, s)$ equals α_{sr}^j if r < n, and $\begin{bmatrix} s \\ j \end{bmatrix}$ if r = n. Hence his Theorem 7 implies 2.5.

LEMMA 2.6. Let \mathcal{B} be an M_n -design with $s \le n$ distinct intersection numbers. \mathcal{B} is an S_n -design iff the following axiom holds:

(S*) The number of $z \in X_n$ with $x \le z$, $|y \cap z| = \mu$ is a constant $\gamma_k^i(\mu)$, for every $x \in X_k$, $y \in X_n$ with $x \cap y \in X_j$, every intersection number μ , and all integers j, k with $j \le k < n$.

PROOF. Suppose first that (S*) holds. In the pairs admissible in axiom (S), there are $\gamma_k^i(\mu)$ choices for z with $|y \cap z| = \mu$, and then $\begin{Bmatrix} \mu \\ i \end{Bmatrix}$ choices for u. Hence

$$\alpha_{ik}^{j} = \sum_{\mu} {\mu \brace i} \gamma_{k}^{j}(\mu), \tag{11}$$

independently of x and y. Hence (S) holds. Conversely, if (S) holds then we have (11) with $\gamma_k^i(\mu)$ possibly depending on x and y. Since (11) holds for all i, and since μ^i is a linear combination of $\begin{Bmatrix} \mu \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix}, \ldots, \begin{Bmatrix} \mu \\ i \end{Bmatrix}$, we have, for $i = 0, \ldots, s - 1, \sum_{\mu} \mu^i \gamma_k^i(\mu) = \text{independent of } x$ and y. Since these equations have a Vandermonde matrix, they have a unique solution, whence $\gamma_k^i(\mu)$ is independent of x and y.

REMARK. (S*) implies (S) for every M_n -design.

LEMMA 2.7. (S) implies the existence of polynomials $q_i(\xi)$ of degree i (for all $i \le n$) such that the matrices $J_i = q_i \circ C$ satisfy, for $i \le n$, $k \le n$,

$$J_i J_k = R_0 \delta_{ik} J_k, \tag{12}$$

$$C_i = R_0^{-1} \sum_{l=0}^{i} \beta_{il}^l J_l.$$
 (13)

PROOF. By (9), the vector space V_i generated by C_0, \ldots, C_i is an algebra. Let J_i be a non-zero matrix in the orthogonal complement of V_{i-1} in V_i , or, if $V_{i-1} = V_i$, let $J_i = 0$. Then $J_i^2 = \text{const. } J_i$ and we may normalize J_i such that $J_i^2 = R_0 J_i$. Then (12) holds and V_i is generated by J_0, \ldots, J_i . Hence $C_i = \sum_{k=0}^i d_{ik} J_k$ for appropriate $d_{ik}, d_{ii} \neq 0$. By (12) and (9), $\sum_{k=0}^i R_0 d_{ik} d_{ik} J_k = C_i C_j = \sum_{l=0}^i \beta_{il}^i \mu_{ln}^l (\sum_{k=0}^l d_{ik} J_k)$. Comparing the coefficients of J_i we obtain $R_0 d_{ij} d_{ij} = \beta_{ij}^i \mu_{in}^l d_{ij}$, and since $\mu_{in}^i = 1$, $d_{ij} = R_0^{-1} \beta_{ij}^i$, which proves (13). Finally, V_i is also generated by $C^{(0)}, \ldots, C^{(i)}$, whence $J_i = q_i \circ C$ with a polynomial $q_i(\xi)$ of degree i.

REMARK. If (γ_{ik}) is the inverse of the triangular matrix (β_{ik}^k) , with $\beta_{ik}^k = 0$ if i < k, then $J_k = \sum_{i=0}^k R_0 \gamma_{ik} C_i$, whence $q_k(\xi) = \sum_{i=0}^k R_0 \gamma_{ik} {K_n - \xi \brack i}$.

LEMMA 2.8. If there are s distinct intersection numbers then

$$\beta_{lk}^{l}\mu_{ln}^{k} = \beta_{kl}^{l}\mu_{ln}^{i} \text{ for } i, k \leq \min(s, n-1), l \leq k.$$

$$\tag{14}$$

PROOF. C_0, \ldots, C_s are linearly independent polynomials in C. Hence they commute with each other and, by comparing the coefficients of J_i in C_iC_k and C_kC_i in (9), the result follows.

LEMMA 2.9. Let f_i be the rank of J_i . Then C_k and A_{kn} have rank $f_0 + \cdots + f_k$.

PROOF. Denote by $\operatorname{Hom}(k)$ the row space of A_{kn} . Then $\operatorname{Hom}(k)$ is also the row space of $C_k = A_{kn}^T A_{kn}$ and contains the rows of all matrices $C_i = (\mu_{in}^k)^{-1} A_i^T A_{ik} A_k$ with $i \leq k$. Therefore $\operatorname{Hom}(k)$ contains the rows of all J_i , $i \leq k$, and hence its dimension is at least $f_0 + \cdots + f_k$. On the other hand, C_k is a linear combination of J_0, \ldots, J_k whence we have equality.

REMARKS

1. By Lemma 2.9, we have

$$f_0 + \dots + f_k \le |X_k|. \tag{15}$$

There are already two-dimensional examples (partial geometries) with rank $A_{12} < |X_1|$, hence strict inequality in (15) is possible. On the other hand, we have equality for Examples S1 and S4 (see Cameron [2]).

2. By (13), the rank of C_i equals the sum of the f_k with $\beta_{ik}^k \neq 0$. Hence we have

$$\beta_{ik}^{k} \neq 0 \quad \text{for all } i \geq k.$$
 (16)

THEOREM 2.10. The distance matrix of an M_n -design \mathcal{B} with exactly n distinct intersection numbers is a Delsarte matrix iff \mathcal{B} satisfies the following axiom:

(S₀) $\alpha_{ik}(x, y)$ is a linear combination of $\alpha_{0k}(x, y), \ldots, \alpha_{k-1,k}(x, y)$ and i_{xy} , for all $i, k < n(x \in X_k, y \in X_n)$.

Here $i_{xy} = 1$ if $x \le y$, $i_{xy} = 0$ otherwise.

PROOF. First we show that (S_0) is equivalent to either of the following two statements:

- (S₁) $A_{kn}C_i$ is a linear combination of $A_{kn}C_0, \ldots, A_{kn}C_{k-1}, A_{kn}$, for all i, k < n;
- (S_2) C_kC_l is a linear combination of $C_kC_0, \ldots, C_kC_{k-1}, C_k$, for all i, k < n.

In fact, (S₀) and (S₁) are equivalent since $\alpha_{ik}(x, y)$ is the (x, y)-entry of $A_{kn}C_i$, and (S₂) follows from (S₁) by left multiplication with A_{kn}^T . If (S₂) holds, say $C_kC_i = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} p_lC_kC_l + pC_k$ then define $X = A_{kn}(C_i - \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} p_lC_l - pI)$. Then $A_{kn}^TX = 0$, whence $X^TX = 0$, and so X = 0 which implies (S₁).

Now suppose that the distance matrix C of \mathcal{B} is a Delsarte matrix. Then 1.8 (ii) implies that $C_k C_i$ is a linear combination of C_0, \ldots, C_k for i, k < n; and since $\mu_m^k \neq 0$ for $l \leq k < n$, (9) holds with certain constants β_{ik}^l . Since the proofs of (12)–(16) depend only on (9) they are still valid. Hence

$$C_{k}C_{i} = \sum_{l=0}^{\min(i,k)} \beta_{kl}^{l} \beta_{il}^{l} J_{l}$$
 (17)

and induction on i proves that for $i < k, C_k C_0, \ldots, C_k C_i$ generate V_i (use (16)). Hence $C_k C_0, \ldots, C_k C_{k-1}, C_k$ generate V_k and (17) implies (S_2) .

Finally, suppose that (S_2) holds, and assume that we know already that, for all l < k and all i, C_lC_l is a linear combination of C_0, \ldots, C_l (this is true for k = 1). Since C_k and C_l commute as polynomials in C_1 , (S_2) implies by our assumption that C_kC_l is a linear combination of C_0, \ldots, C_k . Hence this holds for all k, and C is shown to be a Delsarte matrix exactly as in 2.3.

THEOREM 2.11. The distance matrix of a short regular lattice \mathcal{B} is a Delsarte matrix iff \mathcal{B} is an M_n -design satisfying (S_0) .

PROOF. If C is a Delsarte matrix then each C_i is a polynomial of degree i in C, and hence in C_1 . This implies that the hypothesis of Theorem 1.9 is satisfied. Therefore, \mathcal{B} is an M_n -design. Since \mathcal{B} is a short regular lattice, the intersection numbers are K_0, \ldots, K_{n-1} . Hence 2.10 applies. The converse follows from Theorem 2.3.

REMARKS

- 1. In the situation of Theorem 2.11, must \mathcal{B} be an S_n -design? For n=2, the answer is yes: Since $\alpha_{0k}(x, y) = R_k$, (S₀) implies (S).
- 2. Axiom (S) states that $\alpha_{ik}(x, y) = \alpha_{ik}^{j}$ if $x \cap y$ is a j-variety. By (10), (14) and (16), α_{ik}^{j} is a polynomial of degree i in K_{j} , when (S₀) is a consequence of (S).

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Received 1 August 1980 and in revised form 19 March 1981

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