

# A Remark on the Intersection Arrays of Distance-Regular Graphs

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It is shown that the number of columns of type  $(1, 1, k-2)$  in the intersection array of a distance-regular graph with valency  $k$  and girth  $> 3$  is at most four.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a connected graph with vertex set  $V$  and edge set  $E$ , and let  $\partial$  denote the usual metric on  $V$ . For two vertices  $u, v$ , let  $p_j^i(u, v)$  denote the number of vertices  $x$  which satisfies  $\partial(x, u) = i$  and  $\partial(x, v) = j$ . If  $p_j^i(u, v)$  depends only on the distance between  $u$  and  $v$ , rather than the individual vertices, then  $G$  is said to be *distance-regular*. In this case, we write  $p_{jm}^i = p_j^i(u, v)$ , where  $m = \partial(u, v)$ . Let  $d = d(G)$  be the diameter of  $G$  and  $k$  be the valency of  $G$ , and let

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & c_1 & \cdots & c_{d-1} & c_d \\ 0 & a_1 & \cdots & a_{d-1} & a_d \\ k & b_1 & \cdots & b_{d-1} & * \end{pmatrix}$$

be the *intersection array* of  $G$ , where  $a_i = p_{1i}^i$ ,  $b_i = p_{1i}^{i+1}$ ,  $c_i = p_{1i}^{i-1}$ . By way of recourse to the inequalities  $c_i \leq c_{i+1}$  and  $b_i \geq b_{i+1}$ , we may write the intersection array of  $G$  in the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} * & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & \cdots \\ k & k-1 & \cdots & k-1 & k-2 & \cdots & k-2 & \cdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

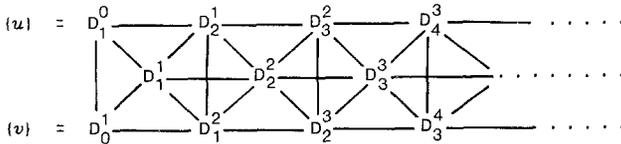
Let  $r$  and  $s$  be the number of columns of type  $(1, 0, k - 1)$ ,  $(1, 1, k - 2)$ , respectively. We obtained the following theorem.

**THEOREM.** *If  $r > 0$  then  $s < 5$ .*

Recently Biggs, Boshier, and Shawe-Taylor completed the classification of distance-regular graphs of valency three (see [3]). The key of their proof is to show that  $s < 4$  if  $r > 0$  in the case of  $k = 3$ . Our result is a partial extension of this fact. In Section 2, we shall introduce the intersection diagram of a distance-regular graph which we have used in our previous paper [2]. The intersection diagram seems to be a powerful tool in the theory of distance-regular graphs. For example, we have simple proofs of [3] and [4] using the intersection diagrams. In Section 3, we shall prove the above theorem using the intersection diagrams.

### 2. THE INTERSECTION DIAGRAMS

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a distance-regular graph. For a vertex  $u$ , let  $\Gamma_i(u)$  denote the set of all vertices  $x$  that satisfies  $\partial(x, u) = i$ . For any edge  $(u, v)$  we put  $D_j^i(u, v) = \Gamma_i(u) \cap \Gamma_j(v)$ . Remark that  $D_j^i(u, v)$  is empty if  $|i - j| > 1$ , and that there is no edge between  $D_j^i(u, v)$  and  $D_{j'}^{i'}(u, v)$  if  $|i - i'| > 1$  or  $|j - j'| > 1$ . The family  $\{D_j^i(u, v)\}_{i,j}$  is called the *intersection diagram* of  $G$  with respect to the edge  $(u, v)$ . It is helpful to draw the intersection diagram in the form



where  $D_j^i(u, v)$  is denoted simply by  $D_j^i$ . In this intersection diagram, a line between  $D_j^i$  and  $D_{j'}^{i'}$  indicates possibility of existence of edges between them. In the following,  $E(A, B)$  denotes the set of all edges between subsets  $A, B$  of  $V$ , and  $e(A, B)$  denotes the size of  $E(A, B)$ . Let  $(u, v)$  be a fixed edge and  $\{D_j^i\}$  be the intersection diagram of  $G$  with respect to the edge  $(u, v)$ .

**LEMMA 1.** *Let  $x \in D_{i+1}^{i+1}$ , then*

- (1)  $e(x, D_{i+1}^i) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}) = b_i,$
- (2)  $e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}) = b_{i+1},$
- (3)  $e(x, D_{i-1}^i) = c_i,$
- (4)  $e(x, D_{i-1}^i) + e(x, D_i^i) + e(x, D_{i+1}^i) = c_{i+1}.$

*Proof.* (1) Since  $\partial(v, x) = i$ , we have

$$b_i = |\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i+1}(v)|.$$

Here

$$\Gamma_{i+1}(v) = D_{i+1}^i \cup D_{i+1}^{i+1} \cup D_{i+1}^{i+2}.$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} b_i &= |(\Gamma_1(x) \cap D_{i+1}^i) \cup (\Gamma_1(x) \cap D_{i+1}^{i+1}) \cup (\Gamma_1(x) \cap D_{i+1}^{i+2})| \\ &= e(x, D_{i+1}^i) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}). \end{aligned}$$

(2) Since  $\partial(u, x) = i + 1$ , we have

$$b_{i+1} = |\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i+2}(u)|.$$

But

$$\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i+2}(u) \subset D_{i+1}^{i+2}.$$

Therefore we have

$$\Gamma_1(x) \cap \Gamma_{i+2}(u) = \Gamma_1(x) \cap D_{i+1}^{i+2}.$$

Hence

$$b_{i+1} = e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}).$$

(3) and (4) Similar to (1) and (2).

LEMMA 2. Let  $x \in D_i^i$ ,  $i > 0$ . Then

$$(1) \quad e(x, D_{i+1}^i) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) = e(x, D_i^{i+1}) + e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) = b_i.$$

$$(2) \quad e(x, D_i^{i-1}) + e(x, D_{i-1}^i) = e(x, D_{i-1}^i) + e(x, D_{i-1}^i) = c_i.$$

*Proof.* As in the proof of Lemma 1.

LEMMA 3. (1)  $b_i = b_{i+1}$  if and only if

$$e(D_i^{i+1}, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) = e(D_i^{i+1}, D_{i+1}^i) = 0.$$

(2)  $c_i = c_{i+1}$  if and only if

$$e(D_i^{i+1}, D_i^i) = e(D_i^{i+1}, D_{i+1}^i) = 0.$$

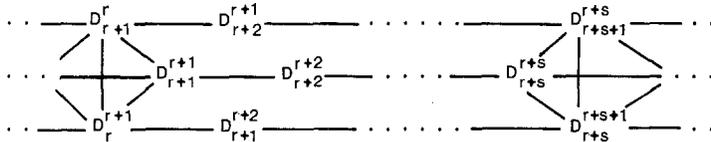
*Proof.* These are direct consequences of Lemma 1.

LEMMA 4. Let  $x \in D_i^i, i > 0$ . Then

- (1)  $e(x, D_{i+1}^i) = e(x, D_i^{i+1})$ .
- (2)  $e(x, D_i^{i-1}) = e(x, D_{i-1}^i)$ .

*Proof.* Immediate from Lemma 2.

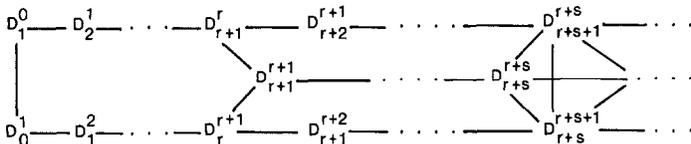
LEMMA 5. Let  $r, s$  be positive integers. If  $b_{r+1} = b_{r+2} = \dots = b_{r+s}$  and  $c_{r+1} = c_{r+2} = \dots = c_{r+s}$ , then the intersection diagram of  $G$  takes the form



*Proof.* Use Lemma 3 repeatedly.

### 3. PROOF OF THEOREM

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a distance-regular graph with valency  $k \geq 3$ . Number of columns of type  $(1, 0, k - 1), (1, 1, k - 2)$  in the intersection array will be denoted by  $r$  and  $s$ , respectively. We assume  $r > 0$ . Then the intersection diagram of  $G$  takes the form



by the Lemmas in the previous section.

By way of contradiction, we assume  $s > 4$ . Note that  $r + 1 \geq s$  by Ivanov's theorem (see [4]).

First, we determine the numbers  $e(x, D_i^i)$  for various  $x$ .

PROPOSITION. (1) If  $x \in D_i^{i+1}$  for  $0 < i < r$ , then

$$e(x, D_{i-1}^i) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}) = k - 1.$$

(2) If  $x \in D_r^r$  then

$$e(x, D_{r-1}^r) = e(x, D_{r+1}^{r+1}) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad e(x, D_{r+1}^{r+2}) = k - 2.$$

(3) If  $x \in D_i^{i+1}$  for  $r < i < r + s$  then

$$e(x, D_{i-1}^i) = e(x, D_i^{i+1}) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+2}) = k - 2.$$

(4) If  $x \in D_{r+1}^{r+1}$  then

$$e(x, D_r^{r+1}) = e(x, D_{r+1}^r) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad e(x, D_{r+2}^{r+2}) = k - 2.$$

(5) If  $x \in D_i^i$  for  $r + 1 < i < r + s$  then

$$e(x, D_{i-1}^{i-1}) = e(x, D_i^i) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad e(x, D_{i+1}^{i+1}) = k - 2.$$

*Proof.* We shall only prove (4), the other cases follow along similar lines. Let  $x \in D_{r+1}^{r+1}$ . By Lemma 2,

$$e(x, D_{r+2}^{r+1}) + e(x, D_{r+2}^{r+2}) = b_{r+1} = k - 2.$$

Since there is no edge between  $D_{r+1}^{r+1}$  and  $D_{r+2}^{r+1}$ , we have

$$e(x, D_{r+2}^{r+1}) = 0.$$

Therefore

$$e(x, D_{r+2}^{r+2}) = k - 2.$$

Again by Lemma 2,

$$e(x, D_{r+1}^r) + e(x, D_r^r) = c_r = 1.$$

But now  $D_r^r$  is empty. Thus,

$$e(x, D_{r+1}^r) = 1.$$

Similarly we get also

$$e(x, D_r^{r+1}) = 1.$$

For a cycle

$$C: x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{m-1}$$

in  $G$ , we consider the profile of  $C$  which has been defined in [3]. We give a slightly different definition. Let  $\{D_j^i\}$  be the intersection diagram of  $G$  with respect to the edge  $(x_0, x_1)$ . Then each  $x_t$  ( $0 \leq t < m$ ) is contained in some  $D_j^i$ . Put  $D(t) = D_j^i$ . Then we get a series

$$D(0), D(1), \dots, D(m-1)$$

which will be called the *profile* of the cycle  $C$  with respect to  $(x_0, x_1)$ .

For example, take an edge  $(x_0, x_1)$  of  $G$  and consider the intersection diagram  $\{D_j^i\}$  with respect to  $(x_0, x_1)$ . Take an edge  $(x_{r+2}, x_{r+3})$  in  $D_{r+1}^{r+2}$ ,

take  $x_{r+4}$  in  $\Gamma_1(x_{r+3}) \cap D_r^{r+1}$  and take  $x_{r+5}$  in  $\Gamma_1(x_{r+4}) \cap D_{r+1}^{r+1}$ . Connect  $x_1$  and  $x_{r+2}$  by a  $(r+1)$ -path

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{r+2}$$

and connect  $x_{r+5}$  and  $x_0$  by a  $(r+1)$ -path

$$x_{r+5}, \dots, x_{2r+5}, x_0.$$

Then we get a  $(2r+6)$ -cycle

$$C: x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{2r+5}$$

and the profile of  $C$  with respect to  $(x_0, x_1)$  is

$$D_1^0, D_0^1, \dots, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, \dots, D_2^1.$$

Now we determine the profiles of  $C$  in the above example with respect to  $(x_0, x_1)$ ,  $(x_1, x_2)$ ,  $(x_2, x_3), \dots$ . By the form of the intersection diagram and by the proposition, the profile of  $C$  with respect to  $(x_1, x_2)$  is

$$D_1^0, D_0^1, \dots, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^r, D_{r+2}^{r+1}, D_{r+2}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^r, \dots, D_2^1,$$

where  $\{D_j^i\}$  denotes the intersection diagram with respect to  $(x_1, x_2)$ . The profile of  $C$  with respect to  $(x_2, x_3)$  is

$$D_1^0, D_0^1, \dots, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+2}^{r+2}, D_{r+2}^{r+2}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^r, \dots, D_2^1,$$

and the profile with respect to  $(x_3, x_4)$  is

$$D_1^0, D_0^1, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^r, \dots, D_2^1.$$

But the profile with respect to  $(x_3, x_4)$  is same as the profile with respect to  $(x_0, x_1)$ . This means the length of the cycle must be a multiple of 3. Hence we have  $2r+6 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ ,  $r \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ .

To get another condition on  $r$ , we take a  $(2r+13)$ -cycle

$$C': y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{2r+12},$$

whose profile with respect to  $(y_0, y_1)$  is

$$D_1^0, D_0^1, \dots, D_r^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_{r+2}^{r+3}, D_{r+2}^{r+3}, D_{r+1}^{r+2}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, \\ D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+2}^{r+2}, D_{r+3}^{r+3}, D_{r+3}^{r+3}, D_{r+2}^{r+2}, D_{r+1}^{r+1}, D_{r+1}^r, \dots, D_2^1.$$

We calculate the profile of  $C'$  with respect to  $(y_1, y_2)$ ,  $(y_2, y_3), \dots$ . The profiles with respect to  $(y_1, y_2)$  and  $(y_2, y_3)$  are determined uniquely. But the profile with respect to  $(y_3, y_4)$  has two possibilities, and we must

calculate the profiles with respect to  $(y_3, y_4)$ ,  $(y_4, y_5)$ ,... in each case separately. Fortunately, the profiles with respect to  $(y_7, y_8)$  coincide in each case. Thus, the profiles with respect to  $(y_7, y_8)$  and  $(y_8, y_9)$  are uniquely determined. Again the profiles with respect to  $(y_9, y_{10})$ ,...,  $(y_{12}, y_{13})$  have two possibilities. But the profiles with respect to  $(y_{13}, y_{14})$  are coincident, and the profiles with respect to  $(y_{13}, y_{14})$ ,  $(y_{14}, y_{15})$ , and  $(y_{15}, y_{16})$  are uniquely determined. The profile with respect to  $(y_{15}, y_{16})$  coincides with the profile with respect to  $(y_0, y_1)$ . Therefore  $2r + 13 \equiv 0 \pmod{15}$ ,  $r \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ . This is a contradiction.

*Remark.* Two cycles in the above proof are the same as those used in [3]. But the profiles of the  $(2r + 13)$ -cycle are not uniquely determined in our case, i.e., that do not have a *good profile* in terms of [3].

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