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# Intersection Matrices for Finite Permutation Groups\*

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In this paper we study finite transitive groups G acting on a set  $\Omega$ . The results, which are trivial for multiply-transitive groups, directly generalize parts of the discussion of rank-3 groups in [4] and [5]. There are close connections with Feit and Higman's paper [2].

For each  $a \in \Omega$  let us choose a  $G_a$ -orbit  $\Delta(a) \neq \{a\}$  so that  $\Delta(a)^g = \Delta(a^g)$ for all  $a \in \Omega$  and  $g \in G$ . Relative to  $\Delta$  we introduce a *distance* in  $\Omega$  based on taking the points of  $\Delta(a)$  to be at distance 1 from *a* (see Section 1). The maximum distance we call the *diameter* of *G*. A necessary and sufficient condition for *G* to be primitive is that the diameter be finite with respect to every  $\Delta$ . It is important to note, however, that finiteness of the diameter with respect to a single  $\Delta$  does not imply primitivity.

We study the matrix M of *intersection numbers* of  $\Delta$  (defined in Section 4). M is irreducible if and only if G has finite diameter with respect to  $\Delta$ , and in this case the subdegrees and diameter are determined by M. The minimum polynomial of M is shown to coincide with that of the incidence matrix A of  $\Delta$ , and it is shown how to compute the trace of  $A^{\alpha}$ ,  $q \ge 0$ , in terms of M. This means that if  $\rho(x)$  is a polynomial such that  $\rho(M) = 0$  and if  $\theta$  is a root of  $\rho(x)$ , then the multiplicity of  $\theta$  as an eigenvalue of A is determined by M. In case the minimum and characteristic polynomials of M coincide, we show that M has simple eigenvalues, from which it follows that the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation have multiplicity 1 and that the degrees of these constituents are determined by M. In this case there is a one-to-one correspondence between the eigenvalues of M and the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation, which preserves conjugacy.

The new simple group of order 750, 560 discovered by Janko [6] provides an example in which two of the constituents are conjugate even though the subdegrees are distinct.

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Our considerations apply to groups G of maximal diameter, i.e., of diameter r-1 with respect to a self-paired orbit, r being the rank, for in this case M is an irreducible tridiagonal matrix and so has simple (real) eigenvalues. As examples of such groups we mention that (1) any rank-3 group has diameter 2 with respect to one of the two nontrivial  $G_a$ -orbits, (2) in some cases the representation relative to a maximal parabolic subgroup of a group admitting a (B, N)-pair in the sense of Tits ([8], [2]) has maximal diameter with respect to a suitable orbit (this can already be decided by looking at the Weyl group; cf. [1]), and (3) Janko's new simple group refered to above has a representation as a primitive rank-5 group of degree 266 and diameter 4.

In a final section we consider two special possibilities for M closely related to the paper by Feit and Higman [2]. The extent to which ideas from [2] have been used in the present paper will be clear to the reader.

NOTATION. For the theory of finite permutation groups we refer the reader to Wielandt [9]. For the most part we adhere to the notation of that book.

We consider a transitive permutation group G on a set  $\Omega$  and assume the degree  $n = |\Omega|$  of G is finite. We denote the rank of G by r; this means that for each  $a \in \Omega$ ,  $\Omega$  decomposes into exactly r  $G_a$ -orbits,

$$\Omega = \Gamma_0(a) + \Gamma_1(a) + \cdots + \Gamma_{r-1}(a), \ \Gamma_0(a) = \{a\},$$

where  $G_a$  denotes the stabilizer of a. The notation is chosen so that

$$\Gamma_i(a)^g = \Gamma_i(a^g)$$
 for all  $a \in \Omega$ ,  $g \in G, i = 0, 1, ..., r - 1$ .

It is convenient to define an *orbital* of G to be a mapping  $\Delta$  from  $\Omega$  into the subsets of  $\Omega$  such that

(1)  $\Delta(a)$  is a  $G_a$ -orbit for  $a \in \Omega$ , and

(2) 
$$\Delta(a)^g = \Delta(a^g)$$
 for all  $a \in \Omega, g \in G$ .

The number  $|\Delta(a)|$ , which is clearly independent of  $a \in \Omega$ , we call the *length*  $|\Delta|$  of  $\Delta$ . In this terminology,  $\Gamma_0$ ,  $\Gamma_1$ ,...,  $\Gamma_{r-1}$  are the orbitals of G. The lengths  $l_i = |\Gamma_i|$ , i = 0, 1, ..., r - 1 are called the *subdegrees* of G, their sum is the degree of G,  $n = l_0 + l_1 + \cdots + l_{r-1}$ .

Each orbital  $\varDelta$  of G has a mirror-image  $\varDelta'$  defined by

$$\Delta'(a) = \{a^{g^{-1}} \mid a^g \in \Delta(a)\} \qquad (a \in \Omega)$$

([9], Section 16).  $\Delta'$  is again an orbital of G of the same length as  $\Delta$ , and  $\Delta'' = \Delta$ . The correspondence  $\Delta \leftrightarrow \Delta'$  is a pairing of the orbitals of G.

A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a self-paired orbital is that |G| be even ([9], Theorem 16.5).

## 1. DISTANCE

Relative to a particular orbital  $\Delta \neq \Gamma_0$  we define a *path* of length q from a to b to be a sequence  $x_0$ ,  $x_1$ ,...,  $x_q$  of q + 1 points of  $\Omega$  such that  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_q = b$  and  $x_i \in \Delta(x_{i-1})$ , i = 1,...,q. We define

 $\rho(a, b) =$  the length of the shortest path from a to b, or  $\infty$  if there is no path from a to b.

Then we have at once that

$$\rho(a, b) = 0 \text{ if and only if } a = b \tag{1.1}$$

and

$$\rho(a, b) + \rho(b, c) \geqslant \rho(a, c). \tag{1.2}$$

If we define  $\rho'$  in the same way as  $\rho$ , with  $\Delta'$  in place of  $\Delta$ , then

$$\rho(a, b) = \rho'(b, a). \tag{1.3}$$

This is because  $a \in \Delta(b)$  implies  $b \in \Delta'(a)$ .

From the relation  $\Delta(a)^{g} = \Delta(a^{g})$  we see that G is a group of isometries of  $\rho$ , that is,

(1.4)  $\rho(a^g, b^g) = \rho(a, b)$  for  $g \in G$ .

By (1.4), for any orbital  $\Gamma$ , if  $a^g \in \Gamma(a)$ , then

$$\rho(a, \Gamma(a)) = \rho(a, a^g) = \rho(a^{g^{-1}}, a) = \rho(\Gamma'(a), a),$$

that is,

$$\rho(a, \Gamma(a)) = \rho(\Gamma'(a), a). \tag{1.5}$$

Now put

$$\Lambda_q(a) = \{x \in \Omega \mid \rho(a, x) = q\}, \Lambda_q'(a) = \{x \in \Omega \mid \rho(x, a) = q\}.$$

These are the two types of circles of radius q with center at a. Clearly

1.6) 
$$\Lambda_q(a)^g = \Lambda_q(a^g)$$
 and  $\Lambda_q'(a)^g = \Lambda_q'(a^g)$  for  $g \in G$ ,

(1 and

(1.7)  $\Lambda_q(a)$  is a union of  $G_a$ -orbits while  $\Lambda'_q(a)$  is the union of the  $G_a$ -orbits paired with those in  $\Lambda_q(a)$ .

Moreover,

$$\Lambda_{q+1}(a) \subseteq \sum_{x \in \Lambda_q(a)} \Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \leqslant q+1} \Lambda_{\alpha}(a)$$
(1.8)

and

$$\sum_{x\in A_q'(a)} \Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \geqslant q-1} A_{\alpha}'(a).$$

**Proof.** If  $y \in \Lambda_{a+1}(a)$  then there is an  $x \in \Lambda_a(a)$  such that  $\rho(x, y) = 1$ , i.e., such that  $y \in \Delta(x)$ . Thus  $\Lambda_{a+1}(a) \subseteq \sum_{x \in \Lambda_a(a)} \Delta(x)$ .

If  $x \in \Lambda_q(a)$  and  $b \in \Delta(x)$  then  $\rho(x, b) = 1$  so

$$\rho(a, b) \leqslant \rho(a, x) + \rho(x, b) = q + 1.$$

That is,  $\Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \leqslant q+1} \Lambda_{\alpha}(a)$ .

If  $x \in \Lambda_q'(a)$  and  $b \in \Delta(x)$  then  $q = \rho(x, a) \le \rho(x, b) + \rho(b, a) = 1 + \rho(b, a)$ so  $\rho(b, a) \ge q - 1$ . That is  $\Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \ge q-1} \Lambda_{\alpha}'(a)$ .

We now define the diameter of G relative to  $\Delta$  to be

$$\max \rho(a, b) = \max \rho'(a, b),$$

the maximum being taken over all  $a, b \in \Omega$ . Clearly if the diameter is finite it is just the number of circles of positive radius with a given center. Hence

(1.9) If G has finite diameter then the diameter is at most r - 1. If G has diameter r - 1 then every  $G_a$ -orbit is a circle with center a.

Now put  $\Lambda(a) = \{x \in \Omega \mid \rho(a, x) < \infty\}$ . Then  $\Lambda(a)^g = \Lambda(a^g)$  for all  $a \in \Omega$ ,  $g \in G$ , and if  $x \in \Lambda(a)$  we have  $\Lambda(x) \subseteq \Lambda(a)$  by (1.2) so that  $\Lambda(x) = \Lambda(a)$ since  $|\Lambda(x)| = |\Lambda(a)|$ . Thus  $\Lambda(a) \cap \Lambda(a)^g \neq \emptyset$ ,  $g \in G$ , implies  $\Lambda(a) = \Lambda(a)^g$ so that  $\Lambda(a)$  is a block for G in the terminology of Wielandt ([9], Section 6), and therefore  $\Lambda(a) = a^H$  with H a subgroup of G containing  $G_a$ . In fact,  $\Lambda(a)$  is the smallest block containing a and  $\Lambda(a)$  and H is the smallest subgroup of G containing  $G_a$  such that  $a^H \cap \Lambda(a) \neq \emptyset$ . Writing

$$\Lambda'(a) = \{x \in \Omega \mid \rho'(a, x) < \infty\}$$

we have

(1.10)  $\Lambda(a) = \Lambda'(a)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\Delta(a) \subseteq \Lambda(a)$  there exists  $h \in H$  such that  $a^h \in \Delta(a)$ . Then  $a^{h^{-1}} \in \Delta'(a)$  and hence  $\Delta'(a) \subseteq \Lambda(a)$ . But this implies that

$$\Delta'(x) \subseteq \Lambda(x) = \Lambda(a)$$

for all  $x \in \Lambda(a)$ , and therefore  $\Lambda'(a) \subseteq \Lambda(a)$ . The reverse inclusion follows by symmetry.

(1.11) The following conditions are equivalent.

(1) G has infinite diameter with respect to  $\Delta$ .

(2)  $\Lambda(a)$  is a system of imprimitivity for G.

(3) there exists a system  $\Sigma$  of imprimitivity for G such that  $a \in \Sigma$  and  $\Sigma \cap \Delta(a) \neq \emptyset$ .

(4) there exists a subgroup H of G such that  $G_a \leq H \neq G$  and  $a^H \cap \Delta(a) \neq \emptyset$ .

*Proof.* (1) *implies* (2): The assumption that G be of infinite diameter means that  $\Lambda(a) \neq \Omega$ . Since  $\Lambda(a)$  is a block and  $|\Lambda(a)| > 1$  this means that  $\Lambda(a)$  is a system of imprimitivity for G.

(2) implies (3) trivially.

(3) implies (4): This follows from the fact that if the systems of imprimitivity containing a are the sets of the form  $a^H$  with H a subgroup of  $G, \neq G$ , and properly containing  $G_a$ .

(4) *implies* (1): Suppose given a subgroup H as in (4). Then  $a^H$  is a system of imprimitivity for G and  $\Delta(a) \leq a^H$ . Consequently,  $\Delta(x) \subseteq x^H = a^H$  for all  $x \in a^H$ , and therefore  $\Lambda(a) \subseteq a^H$ . This means that  $\Lambda(a) \neq \Omega$ , and hence that G has infinite diameter.

An immediate consequence of (1.11) is

(1.12) G is primitive if and only if G has finite diameter with respect to every orbital  $\neq \Gamma_0$ .

 $\rho$  is an actual metric precisely when  $\Delta$  is self-paired, for by (1.3),

(1.13)  $\rho$  is symmetric if and only if  $\Delta$  is self-paired.

In this case the circles  $\Lambda_a(a)$  and  $\Lambda_a'(a)$  coincide, so by (1.7) and (1.8),

(1.14) If  $\Delta$  is self-paired then the mirror-image of a  $G_a$ -orbit contained in  $\Lambda_q(a)$  is contained in  $\Lambda_q(a)$ ,

and

(1.15) If  $\Delta$  is self-paired then

$$\Lambda_{q+1}(a)\subseteq \sum_{x\in \Lambda_q(a)} \Delta(x)\subseteq \Lambda_{q-1}(a)+\Lambda_q(a)+\Lambda_{q+1}(a).$$

Note also that, by (1.5) and (1.9),

(1.16) If  $\Delta$  is self-paired and G has maximal finite diameter (i.e., diameter r-1) relative to  $\Delta$  then every  $G_a$ -orbit is self-paired.

### 2. INCIDENCE MATRICES AND INCIDENCE STRUCTURES

The incidence matrix  $B_i = (\beta_{ab}^{(i)})$  for the orbital  $\Gamma_i$  of G is defined by

$$\beta_{ab}^{(i)} = \frac{1 \text{ if } a \in \Gamma_i(b),}{0 \text{ otherwise.}}$$

The rows and columns of  $B_i$  are indexed by the points of  $\Omega$  in some given order. Clearly

(2.1)  $B_0 = I$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} B_i = F$  (where F is the matrix with all entries 1). Moreover - cf. [9], Theorem (28.4) -

(2.2)  $B_0$ ,  $B_1$ ,...,  $B_{r-1}$  is a basis for the commuting algebra of the permutation representation of G,

and

(2.3) If  $\Gamma_{i}' = \Gamma_{i'}$ , then  $B_{i}^{t} = B_{i'}$ .

Let us consider a particular orbital  $\Delta \neq \Gamma_0$ , say  $\Delta = \Gamma_1$ , and put  $A = B_1$ ,  $\alpha_{ab} = \beta_{ab}^{(1)}$ , so that

$$\alpha_{ab} = \frac{1 \text{ if } a \in \Delta(b),}{0 \text{ otherwise.}}$$

A is the incidence matrix of the block design **A** whose points and blocks are both the elements of  $\Omega$ , with a point a and a block b being incident if  $a \in \Delta(b)$ ; the rows (resp. columns) of A are indexed by the elements of  $\Omega$ regarded as the points (resp. blocks) of **A**. The group G is represented as a group of collineations of **A** according to the action of G on  $\Omega \times \Omega$ . The group  $\mathfrak{G}$  of all permutations of  $\Omega$  which induce collineations of **A** is just the group having  $\Delta$  as an orbital, i.e., the isometries of  $\rho$ . The diameter of  $\mathfrak{G}$  with respect to  $\Delta$  is equal to that of G. The collineations induced by  $\mathfrak{G}$ are those which commute with the correspondence  $a \leftrightarrow a$  between points and blocks.  $\mathfrak{G}$  is isomorphic with the group of all  $n \times n$  permutation matrices which commute with A.

The assumption that  $\Delta$  is self-paired is equivalent to the assumption that A is symmetric, and means precisely that the correspondence  $a \leftrightarrow a$  is a polarity of **A**.

Assume now that  $\Delta$  is self-paired. Given distinct points a and b we define the *line* a + b joining them by

$$a + b = \bigcap_{a,b \in x} x^{\perp}$$
, where  $x^{\perp} = \{x\} + \Delta(x)$ .

Here we are concerned only with the totally singular lines, i.e., the lines

a + b with  $b \in \Delta(a)$ . Clearly  $G_a$  is transitive on the set of totally singular lines through a and hence G is transitive on the set of all totally singular lines. Two totally singular lines have at most one point in common. For if  $c \in a + b, c \neq a$ , then a + c is a totally singular line and  $a + c \leq a + b$ , whence a + c = a + b. It follows that  $G_{a+b}$  is doubly transitive on the points of a + b unless  $a + b = \{a, b\}$ . If we put

s + 1 = the number of points on a totally singular line, and

t + 1 = the number of totally singular lines through a point,

then, since  $\Delta(a)$  is the set of those points joined to a by totally singular lines, putting  $k = |\Delta|$ , we have

$$k = s(t + 1).$$
 (2.4)

(Note that if G has rank 2 then s = n - 1, t = 0.)

We may consider the incidence structure **P** having as points the points of  $\Omega$  and as lines the totally singular lines, with the obvious incidence. If P is an incidence matrix for **P** with the rows indexed by the points and the columns by the lines then  $PP^t = A + (t + 1)I$ . The structure **P** will be used in making explicit the connection between our discussion and that of [2].

## 3. A BOUND FOR THE DEGREE

Let us assume that G has finite diameter d with respect to a self-paired orbital  $\Delta \neq \Gamma_0$ . We observe that

$$|\Lambda_{q+1}(a)| \leqslant st |\Lambda_q(a)| \leqslant (k-1)|\Lambda_q(a)|, \qquad q \ge 1. \tag{3.1}$$

In fact, if  $x \in \Lambda_q(a)$ , there exists a  $y \in \Lambda_{q-1}(a)$  such that  $x \in \Delta(y)$ . Then

$$x + y \subseteq \{y\} + \Delta(y) \subseteq \Lambda_{q-2}(a) + \Lambda_{q-1}(a) + \Lambda_q(a)$$

by (1.15). Thus at most s(t + 1) - s = st points of  $\Delta(x)$  lie in  $\Lambda_{q+1}(a)$  so the first inequality of (3.1) follows by (1.15). Since k = s(t + 1) > st by (2.4), the second inequality is immediate.

Now  $|A_1(a)| = |\Delta(a)| = s(t+1)$ , so (3.1) gives

$$|\Lambda_q(a)| \leqslant s^q t^{q-1}(t+1)$$

from which we obtain a bound in the degree n of G, namely

(3.2) THEOREM. If G has finite diameter d with respect to the self-paired orbital  $\Delta \neq \Gamma_0$  then

$$n \leq 1 + s(t+1) \frac{(st)^d - 1}{st-1} \leq 1 + k \frac{(k-1)^d - 1}{k-2}.$$

Here  $k = s(t + 1) = |\Delta|$ , and s and t are as defined in Section 2.

If we drop the assumption that  $\Delta$  is self-paired, then in place of (3.1) we have only that

$$| \Lambda_{q+1}(a) | \leqslant k | \Lambda_q(a) |;$$

so

$$n\leqslant \frac{k^{d+1}-1}{k-1}.$$

The remarks in this section include Theorem (17.4) of [9].

## 4. INTERSECTION MATRICES

The intersection numbers relative to an orbital  $\Gamma_{\alpha}$  are defined by

 $\mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = |\Gamma_{\alpha}(b) \cap \Gamma_{i}(a)| \qquad [b \in \Gamma_{j}(a)].$ 

It is evident that these numbers depend only on  $\alpha$ , *i*, and *j*, and we see that

$$\sum_{i} \mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = l_{\alpha}, \sum_{\alpha} \mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = l_{i}, \mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = \mu_{\alpha j'}^{(i)},$$

$$\mu_{i0}^{(\alpha)} = \delta_{i_{\alpha} \alpha}, \mu_{0i}^{(\alpha)} = \delta_{i_{\alpha'}},$$
(4.1)

and

(where  $\Gamma_{\alpha'} = \Gamma_{\alpha'}$ , the orbital paired with  $\Gamma_{\alpha}$ ). Moreover,<sup>1</sup>

(4.2)  $l_{j}\mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = l_{i}\mu_{ji}^{(\alpha')}$  and  $l_{i}\mu_{k'i}^{(j)} = l_{j}\mu_{i'j}^{(k)} = l_{k}\mu_{j'k}^{(i)}$ .

**Proof.** A pair (b, c) is such that  $b \in \Gamma_j(a)$  and  $c \in \Gamma_{\alpha}(b) \cap \Gamma_i(a)$  if and only if  $c \in \Gamma_i(a)$  and  $b \in \Gamma_{\alpha'}(c) \cap \Gamma_j(a)$ . Counting these pairs gives  $l_j \mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = l_i \mu_{ji}^{(\alpha')}$ , and combining this with  $\mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = \mu_{\alpha j'}^{(i)}$  from (4.1) [or directly, counting the triplets (a, b, c) with  $b \in \Gamma_i(a)$ ,  $c \in \Gamma_j(b)$  and  $a \in \Gamma_k(c)$ ] gives the rest of (4.2).

Included in (4.2) is Lemma 5 of [4] and part of a Theorem of Manning ([9], Theorem 17.7).

The  $r \times r$  matrix  $M_{\alpha} = (\mu_{ij}^{(\alpha)})_{i,j}$  will be called the *intersection matrix* of  $\Gamma_{\alpha}$ . By (4.1) we have

(4.3)  $M_{\alpha}$  has column sum  $l_{\alpha}$ . The matrices  $M_0$ ,  $M_1$ ,...,  $M_{r-1}$  are linearly independent and  $\sum_{\alpha} M_{\alpha} = \hat{F}$ , the matrix whose ith row is  $(l_i, l_i, ..., l_i)$ , i = 0, 1, ..., r - 1.

Focusing attention on a particular orbital  $\Delta \neq \Gamma_0$ , say  $\Delta = \Gamma_1$ , we put  $M = M_1$  and write  $\mu_{ij} = \mu_{ij}^{(1)}$ . As before we put  $k = l_1$  and  $A = B_1$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The author is indebted to M. Suzuki for pointing out this improvement of his original statement.

Arrange the  $G_a$ -orbits into circles of increasing radius about a (with respect to  $\Delta$ ) and number the orbitals accordingly, so that

$$\Lambda_q(a) = \sum_{c_q \leqslant i < c_{q+1}} \Gamma_i(a) \quad (1 \leqslant q \leqslant m) \tag{4.4}$$

and  $\rho(a, \Gamma_i(a)) = \infty$  for  $i \ge c_{m+1}$ . Recall that

$$\Lambda(a) = \sum_{q=0}^{m} \Lambda_q(a)$$

is a system of imprimitivity for G unless G has finite diameter with respect to  $\Delta$  [by (1.11)].

(4.5) With respect to the described arrangement of the  $G_a$ -orbits, M takes the form  $M = \begin{pmatrix} X & 0 \\ 0 & Y \end{pmatrix}$  with  $X = (\lambda_{ij})_{1 \le i, j \le m}$  and

$$\lambda_{ij} = (\mu_{lphaeta})_{c_i \leqslant c < c_{i+1}: c_j \leqslant eta < c_{j+1}}$$

such that

- (a)  $\lambda_{ij} = 0$  if i > j + 1,
- (b)  $\lambda_{ii}$  is a square matrix,  $0 \leq i \leq m$ , and
- (c) every row of  $\lambda_{i+1i}$  contains a nonzero entry.

**Proof.** It follows at once from the definitions that M takes the form  $M = \begin{pmatrix} x & z \\ 0 & Y \end{pmatrix}$  where X has the described form. By (1.10) we know that A(a) = A'(a), and this means that the intersection matrix for  $\Delta'$  takes the form  $\begin{pmatrix} U & W \\ 0 & V \end{pmatrix}$  (with respect to the given arrangement of the orbitals) with U an  $m \times m$  block. Therefore, by (4.2), Z = 0.

Conversely, we have

(4.6) If by simultaneous row and column permutations applied to the last r-2 rows and columns M is brought to the form  $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ Y \end{pmatrix}$  with  $X = (\lambda_{ij})$  satisfying (a), (b) and (c) of (4.5), then, renumbering the orbitals accordingly we have that the circles of finite radius about a are given by (4.4) (and hence by (4.5) that Z = 0).

In particular,

(4.7) G has finite diameter with respect to  $\Delta$  if and only if M is irreducible; in this case the diameter of G is one less than the number of diagonal blocks  $\lambda_{ii}$  in the form (4.5).

By (1.10) this implies

(4.8) G is primitive if and only if  $M_{\alpha}$  is irreducible for all  $\alpha = 1, 2, ..., r - 1$ . The intersection matrix  $M_{\alpha}$  can be obtained from the incidence matrix  $B_{\alpha}$  in the following way. Arrange the points of  $\Omega$  according to the  $G_{\alpha}$ -orbits and consider the corresponding blocking of  $B_{\alpha}$ . Each block has constant column sum, and we see that in fact the matrix  $\hat{B}_{\alpha}$  obtained from  $B_{\alpha}$  by replacing each block by its column sum is precisely  $M_{\alpha}$ . Putting  $L = (l_0, l_1, ..., l_{r-1})^t$ , we have as a first consequence

(4.9)  $M_{\alpha}L = l_{\alpha}L$ , i.e.,  $M_{\alpha}$  has L as an eigenvalue corresponding to the eigenvalue  $l_{\alpha}$ . If G has finite diameter with respect to  $\Gamma_{\alpha}$  then the subdegrees are uniquely determined by this equation.

**Proof.** We have  $B_{\alpha}X = l_{\alpha}X$ ,  $X = (1, 1, ..., 1)^t$ , so  $\hat{B}_{\alpha}\hat{X} = l_{\alpha}\hat{X}$ , and  $M_{\alpha} = \hat{B}_{\alpha}$ ,  $L = \hat{X}$  (the notation being self-explanatory). If G has finite diameter with respect to  $\Gamma_{\alpha}$  then  $M_{\alpha}$  is irreducible by (4.7), so L is uniquely determined as the positive eigenvector with first component 1 corresponding to the maximal eigenvalue  $l_{\alpha}$  (by the Perron-Frobenius theory).

Each matrix X in the commuting algebra C of the permutation representation of G has its rows and columns indexed by the points of  $\Omega$  and so has a blocking according to the arrangement of the points of  $\Omega$  into  $G_a$ -orbits. The blocks have constant column sum, and denoting by  $\hat{X}$  the  $r \times r$  matrix obtained by replacing each block by its column sum, we obtain an algebra homomorphism of C onto a subalgebra  $\hat{C}$  of the algebra of all  $r \times r$  matrices. (Here we are applying an unpublished theorem of Wielandt. For completeness a proof of Wielandt's theorem is indicated in an appendix at the end of this paper.) But by (4.3) the matrices  $M_x = \hat{B}_x$ ,  $\alpha = 0, 1, ..., r - 1$ , are linearly independent. Hence by (2.2) the homomorphism is an isomorphism

$$C = \langle B_0, B_1, ..., B_{r-1} \rangle \approx \hat{C} = \langle M_0, M_1, ..., M_{r-1} \rangle.$$

As a first consequence we have

(4.10) The matrices  $M_0$ ,  $M_1$ ,...,  $M_{r-1}$  span an algebra  $\hat{C}$ , which is commutative if and only if the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation are inequivalent.

**Proof.**  $\overline{C}$  is commutative if and only if C is commutative, and commutativity of C is equivalent to the inequivalence of the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation (cf. [9], Theorem 29.3).

A second important consequence is

(4.11)  $M_{\alpha}$  and  $B_{\alpha}$  have the same minimum polynomial,  $\alpha = 0, 1, ..., r - 1$ . Now we can prove that

(4.12) The following are equivalent:

- (a) the minimum polynomial of M has degree r.
- (b) the powers of M span  $\hat{C}$ .
- (c) the powers of A span C.
- (d) the eigenvalues of M are simple.

*Proof.* We prove that (a) implies (d). The implications (d)  $\Rightarrow$  (c)  $\Rightarrow$  (b)  $\Rightarrow$  (a) are immediate using (4.11).

If the minimum polynomial of M has degree r then by (4.11),

$$C = \langle I, A, A^2, \dots, A^{r-1} \rangle.$$

Since C is commutative we know that the permutation representation  $\Delta$  has r inequivalent irreducible constituents  $\Delta_0 = 1, \Delta_1, ..., \Delta_{r-1}$ . Choose a nonsingular matrix P such that

$$P^{-1} \Delta P = ext{diag}\{ arDelta_0 extbf{,} arDelta_1 ext{,...,} arDelta_{r-1} \}$$

Then

$$P^{-1}AP = \operatorname{diag}\{\theta_0, \theta_1 I_{f_1}, \dots, \theta_{r-1} I_{f_{r-1}}\}$$

where  $f_i$  is the degree of  $\Delta_i$  and  $\theta_0 = k$ ,  $\theta_1, ..., \theta_{r-1}$ , as eigenvalues of A, are eigenvalues of M. If now  $k_{\alpha}$  is the  $\alpha$ th class sum of G then  $\Delta_i(k_{\alpha}) = \omega_i(k_{\alpha}) I_{f_i}$  where  $\omega_i$  is the linear representation of the center of the group algebra of G corresponding to  $\Delta_i$ . Thus

$$P^{-1} \Delta(k^{\alpha}) P = \operatorname{diag}\{\omega_0(k_{\alpha}), \omega_1(k_{\alpha}) I_{f_1}, \dots, \omega_{r-1}(k_{\alpha}) I_{f_{r-1}}\}.$$

Now  $\Delta(k_{\alpha}) \in C$  so

$$arDelta(k_{lpha})=\sum_{q=0}^{r-1}x_{lpha q}A^{q}$$

where the  $x_{\alpha q}$  are uniquely determined rational numbers. Hence we have  $\omega_i(k_{\alpha}) = \sum x_{\alpha q} \theta_i^{q}$  which means that for each *i*,  $\omega_i$  is determined by  $\theta_i$ . But the  $\omega_i$  are distinct since the  $\Delta_i$  are inequivalent. Hence the  $\theta_i$  are distinct.

At the same time we see that

(4.13) If the minimum polynomial of M has degree r then there is a one-to-one correspondence between the eigenvalues of M and the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation, preserving conjugacey, and the multiplicity of an eigenvalue of M as an eigenvalue of A is the degree of the corresponding irreducible constituent.

We remark that in case the minimum polynomial of M has degree r, so that M has simple eigenvalues, C is the full commuting algebra of M. Hence in this case we can determine the  $M_{\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha = 0, 1, ..., r - 1$ , from M as the unique matrices commuting with M whose first rows contain only a single nonzero entry 1. At the same time we will, of course, determine the subdegrees and the pairing of the orbitals.

### 5. Multiplicities of the Eigenvalues of A

Define vectors  $\eta_q = (\eta_{q0}, \eta_{q1}, ..., \eta_{qr-1}), q \geqslant 0$ , by

$$\eta_0 = (1, 0, ..., 0), \, \eta_{q+1} = \eta_q M. \tag{5.1}$$

(5.2) THEOREM. trace  $A^q = n\eta_{\sigma 0}$ ,  $q \ge 0$ , where n is the degree of G.

**Proof.** Write  $A^q = \sum \lambda_{q_j} B_j$ , then trace  $A^q = n\lambda_{q0}$ , and  $M^q = \sum \lambda_{q_j} M_j$ . Now  $M_j M = \sum \mu_{j'\alpha'} M_\alpha$  since the first row of  $M_j$  has all entries **0** except for a 1 in the j'-position. Hence  $M^{q+1} = \sum \lambda_{qj} \mu_{j'\alpha'} M_\alpha$  and therefore  $\lambda_{q+1i} = \sum \lambda_{qj} \mu_{j'i'}$ . This can be written as  $\lambda_{q+1} = \lambda_q P M P$  where  $\lambda_\alpha = (\lambda_{\alpha 0}, \lambda_{\alpha 1}, ...)$  and P is the permutation matrix representing the pairing of the orbitals. Then  $\lambda_{q+1} P = \lambda_q P M$  so that  $\eta_q = \lambda_q P$ , giving  $\eta_{q0} = \lambda_{q0}$ .

If now  $\rho(x)$  is a polynomial such that  $\rho(M) = 0$  then we know that  $\rho(A) = 0$ by (4.11). If  $\theta$  is a root of  $\rho(x)$  of multiplicity *m* then the multiplicity of  $\theta$ as an eigenvalue of *A* is

trace 
$$\rho_0(A)/\rho_0(\theta)$$
, (5.3)

where  $\rho_0(x) = \rho(x)/(x - \theta)^m$  (cf. [2], Lemma 3.4). Since the trace of  $\rho_0(A)$  can be computed from M by (5.2), we have

(5.4) If  $\theta$  is a root of a polynomial  $\rho(x)$  such that  $\rho(M) = 0$ , then the multiplicity of  $\theta$  as an eigenvalue of A is determined by M according to (5.3) and (5.2).

Combining this with (4.14) we get

(5.5) THEOREM. If M has simple eigenvalues  $\theta_0 = k, \theta_1, ..., \theta_{r-1}$ , then the degrees  $x_0 = 1, x_1, ..., x_{r-1}$  of the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation of G are determined by M, namely, they are given by

$$x_i = \text{trace } f_i(A) / f_i(\theta_i), \quad i = 0, 1, ..., r - 1,$$

where  $f_i(x) = f(x)/(x - \theta_i), f(x)$  being the characteristic polynomial of M. Putting  $N = (\eta_{ij}) = (\eta_0, \eta_1, ...)^t$ , the recursion (5.1) can be written as

$$SN = NM$$
 with  $S = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & 0 & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$ . (5.6)

Taking  $N_0$  to be the  $r \times r$  matrix consisting of the first r rows of N we have (5.7)  $N_0M = CN_0$  where C is the companion matrix of the characteristic polynomial f(x) of M.

From (5.7) we have  $M(adjN_0) = (adjN_0)C$ , and hence, since M has

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column sum k,  $k(XadjN_0) = (XadjN_0) C$  where X = (1, 1, ..., 1). Writing  $adjN_0 = (\eta_{ij}^*)$  and putting

$$g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \sigma_j x^j, \qquad \sigma_j = \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \eta_{ij}^*,$$

it follows that

$$(x-k)g(x) = \sigma_{r-1}f(x).$$
(5.8)

Note that  $N_0$  is nonsingular if and only if the minimum polynomial of M has degree r, and in this case we have

$$M_{i'} = \sum \eta^{ij} M^{j}, \qquad N_0^{-1} = (\eta^{ij}).$$

## 6. GROUPS OF MAXIMAL DIAMETER

We now assume that  $\Delta = \Gamma_1$  is self-paired, and write  $k = l_1$  as before. We shall say that G is a group of *maximal diameter* (with respect to  $\Delta$ ) if G has the largest possible finite diameter with respect to  $\Delta$ , namely r - 1. In this case the  $G_a$ -orbits coincide with the circles with center a and all are self-paired. By (4.5) and (4.6) we have

(6.1) THEOREM. G is of maximal diameter if and only if by simultaneous row and column permutations applied to the last r-2 rows and columns M can be put in tridiagonal form with all super- and subdiagonal entries  $\neq 0$ . Putting M into this form is equivalent to renumbering the orbitals so that  $\Gamma_q(a) = \Lambda_q(a), q = 1, 2, ..., r - 1$ .

Suppose now that G is a group of maximal diameter with respect to  $\Delta$  and assume that the orbitals have been arranged in accordance with (6.1). Then M is a tridiagonal matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ k & z_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & z_2 & \cdot \\ & y_2 & \cdot \\ & & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \ddots & x_{r-1} \\ & & & y_{r-2}z_{r-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $x_{i+1}y_i \neq 0$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq r-1$ . By (4.2),  $x_{q+1}l_{q+1} = y_q l_q$ ,  $q \geq 1$ , and hence

$$l_{q} = \frac{y_{q-1}y_{q-2}\cdots y_{1}}{x_{q}x_{q-1}\cdots x_{2}} k, q \ge 1.$$
(6.2)

By (3.1),

$$y_q \leqslant stx_{q+1}, q \geqslant 1.$$
 (6.3)

From the well-known recursion for the characteristic polynomial f(x) of the tridiagonal matrix M it is deduced that M has r distinct eigenvalues (all of which are real). Hence (4.13) and (5.5) are immediately applicable, giving, in particular, that the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation are of multiplicity 1 and that their degrees are given by (5.5).

The following determination of the characteristic polynomial of M is convenient for some applications. In our present case  $N_0$  is nonsingular so we have  $MN_0^{-1} = N_0^{-1}C$ . For  $0 \le m \le r - 1$  define

$$g_m(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m \sigma_j^{(m)} x^j, \qquad \sigma_j^{(m)} = \sum_{i=0}^m \eta^{ij},$$

where  $N_0^{-1} = (\eta^{ij})$ . Then  $g_0(x) = 1$ ,  $g_1(x) = x + 1$  and  $(\det N_0) g_{r-1}(x) = g(x)$ . Put

$$X_m = (\underbrace{1, 1, ..., 1}_{m}, 0, ..., 0);$$

then

$$X_m M = (\underbrace{k, k, \dots, k}_{m-1}, \alpha, \beta, 0, \dots, 0)$$

with  $\alpha = x_{m-1} - z_{m-1}$  and  $\beta = x_m$ . Hence the *j*th entry in the vector  $X_m M N_0^{-1}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} k\sigma_{j}^{(m-2)} + \alpha\eta^{m-1j} + \beta\eta^{mj} &= \sigma_{j}^{(m)} + (k-1)\sigma_{j}^{(m-2)} \\ &+ (\alpha-1)\eta^{m-1j} + (\beta-1)\eta^{mj}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the *j*th entry of  $X_m N_0^{-1}C$  is  $\sigma_{j-1}^{(m-1)}$ . (Since *M* is tridiagonal,  $N_0$  is lower triangular and hence so is  $N_0^{-1}$ .) Equating, multiplying by  $x^j$ , and summing over *j*, we get

$$g_m + (k-1)g_{m-2} + (\alpha - 1)(g_{m-1} - g_{m-2}) + (\beta - 1)(g_m - g_{m-1}) = xg_{m-1}$$
  
since  $\sum_j \eta^{vj} x^j = g_v - g_{v-1}$ ,  $v = 1, 2, \dots$ . Hence, since  $k - \alpha = y_{m-1}$ , we have

$$x_m g_m(x) = (x + \alpha_m) g_{m-1}(x) - y_{m-1} g_{m-2}(x), \qquad m \ge 2$$

with  $\alpha_m = x_m - z_{m-1} - x_{m-1}$ . Therefore, putting

$$G_m(x) = x_m x_{m-1} \cdots x_1 g_m(x),$$

we have

(6.6)  $G_m(x) = (x + \alpha_m) G_{m-1}(x) - x_{m-1}y_{m-1}G_{m-2}(x), m \ge 2$ , with  $\alpha_m = x_m - x_{m-1} - x_{m-1}$  and  $G_0(x) = 1$ ,  $G_1(x) = x + 1$ . And by (5.8), since  $G_m(x)$  is monic,

(6.7) The characteristic polynomial of M is

$$f(x) = (x - k) G_{r-1}(x).$$

Note that  $f_{m+1}(x) = (x - k) G_m(x)$  is the characteristic polynomial of the matrix obtained by truncating M after m + 1 rows and columns and replacing  $z_m$  by  $z_m + y_m$  to make the column sum k. Also, it is easily seen directly that G(A) = F and hence that f(A) = 0.

As a first illustration we consider the symmetric group  $S = S^{\Omega}$  on  $\Omega$ ,  $|\Omega| = n \ge 2$ , which (for each  $k, 1 \le k \le n$ ) acts faithfully and transitively on the set  $\Omega(k) = \{A \subseteq \Omega \mid |A| = k\}$ . Since the action of S on  $\Omega(k)$  is equivalent to that on  $\Omega(n - k)$  we assume that  $1 \le k \le n/2$ .

For  $A \in \Omega(k)$  and  $1 \leq k \leq l \leq n/2$ , the number of  $S_A$ -orbits in  $\Omega(l)$  is k + 1. Namely, for each  $t, 0 \leq t \leq k$ , the sets  $B \in \Omega(l)$  such that  $|B \cap A| = t$  constitute an  $S_A$ -orbit, and all are accounted for in this way. Hence if  $\pi_k = \sum e_\lambda \zeta_\lambda$  and  $\pi_l = \sum f_\lambda \zeta_\lambda$  are the permutation characters of S acting on  $\Omega(k)$  and  $\Omega(l)$ , respectively, the sums being over the irreducible characters  $\zeta_\lambda$  of S, a well-known result on the theory of permutation representations (see, e.g., [3]) gives

$$\sum e_{\lambda}f_{\lambda}=k+1.$$

Taking k = l we see that S has rank k + 1 as a permutation group on  $\Omega(k)$ , the  $S_A$ -orbits for  $A \in \Omega(k)$  being

$$\Gamma_i(A) = \{ B \in \Omega(k) \mid | B \cap A \mid = k - i \} \quad (i = 0, 1, ..., k)$$

Each of these orbits is self-paired since  $B \in \Gamma_i(A)$  implies  $A \in \Gamma_i(B)$ . If  $1 \leq i \leq k-1$  and  $B \in \Gamma_i(A)$ , we see easily that  $\Gamma_1(B) \cap \Gamma_{i+1}(A) \neq \emptyset$  and that  $\Gamma_1(B) \subseteq \Gamma_{i-1}(A) + \Gamma_i(A) + \Gamma_{i+1}(A)$ . Hence S has maximal diameter with respect to  $\Gamma_1(A), \Gamma_j(A)$  being the circle of radius j about A, j = 1, 2, ..., k. [Note, however, that S is not primitive on  $\Omega(n/2)$ , n even.] Now it follows by (4.13) and the paragraph following (6.3) that each  $e_{\lambda} = 0$  or 1, and that  $\sum e_{\lambda} = k + 1$ . Taking  $1 \leq k < l \leq n/2$  we have, therefore, that  $e_{\lambda} = 1$  implies  $f_{\lambda} = 1$ . Hence

(6.9) THEOREM ([7], Lemma 3). There exist distinct nontrivial irreducible characters  $\zeta_1, ..., \zeta_{[n/2]}$  of S such that  $\pi_k = 1 + \zeta_1 + \cdots + \zeta_k$ ,  $1 \le k \le [n/2]$ .

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An interesting example is provided by Janko's new simple group [6] of order 175, 560. According to [6], this group (let us denote it by J) has a maximal subgroup of order 660 isomorphic with  $L_2(11)$ . It can be seen, using results in [6], that the corresponding representation of J as a primitive group of degree 266 has rank 5 and subdegrees 1, 11, 110, 132, and 12. The matrix M of intersection numbers with respect to the orbital of length 11 is already determined by the subdegrees. For the given arrangement of the subdegrees we get, using (4.2) and (4.9), that

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 11 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 & 4 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 6 & 5 & 11 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

hence J is of maximal diameter. The characteristic polynomial of M is

$$f(x) = (x - 11)(x^4 + 2x^3 - 20x^2 - 27x + 44)$$
  
= (x - 11)(x - 1)(x - 4)(x^2 + 7x + 11)

with roots

$$\theta_0 = 11, \theta_1 = 1, \theta_2 = 4, \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \theta_3 \\ \theta_4 \end{array} \right\} = \frac{-7 \pm 5^{1/2}}{2}.$$

The matrix  $N_0$  is

Applying (5.5) to find the degrees  $x_0 = 1, x_2, x_3, x_4$  of the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation we find

$$f_1(x) = f(x)/(x-1) = x^4 - 8x^3 - 50x^2 + 143x + 484;$$

so by (5.4), trace  $f_1(A) = 266 [231 - 50 11 + 484] = 266 \cdot 165$ , and  $f_1(1) = 570$ . Hence  $x_1 = 77$ . In the same way we get  $x_2 = 76$ ,  $x_3 = x_4 = 56$ . This is consistent with the character table of [5]. From (4.13) we see that the two characters of degree 56 must be conjugate, settling a question raised in Section 30 of [9]. As has been noted by several people, this also gives a counter example to Frame's conjecture (cf. [9], Section 30) since

$$266^3 \frac{11 \cdot 110 \cdot 132 \cdot 12}{77 \cdot 76 \cdot 56 \cdot 56}$$

is not a square.

Using the remark at the end of Section 4 we find for  $M_2$ ,  $M_3$ , and  $M_4$ , respectively,

0	1	0	0	0	1			0	) 1	0	0	0	1
110	45	40	45	55	110			132	66	66	60	55	132
0	4	10	5	0	11			0	55	54	60	55	110
0	54	60	55	55	132			0	) 5	6	0	11	11
0	6	0	5	0	12			0	) 5	6	12	11	12
				0	1	0	0	0	1				
				12	0	1	0	0	12				
				0	11	5	6	12	132				
				0	0	5	6	0	110				
				0	0	1	0	0	11.				

The columns after the vertical lines indicate the arrangements of the  $J_a$ -orbits into circles. The diameters are, respectively, 2, 2, 3.

# 7. Some Applications

For the applications to be given in this section we need to consider the partial difference equation

$$h_m(x) = (x - (u + v)) h_{m-1}(x) - uvh_{m-2}(x), \quad m \ge 2$$
 (7.1)

with

and

$$h_0(x) = 1, h_1(x) = x - v.$$

The solution  $\frac{1}{2}$  can be written in terms of the polynomials  $k_m(x)$  defined by

$$\begin{aligned} k_{2h}(x+2+x^{-1}) &= \frac{x^{2h}-1}{x^{h-1}(x^2-1)} \\ k_{2h+1}(x+2+x^{-1}) &= \frac{x^{2h+1}-1}{x^{h}(x-1)} \end{aligned} \qquad (h \ge 0).$$

First observe that

$$k_{2h}(x) = k_{2h-1}(x) - k_{2h-2}(x)$$

$$(h \ge 1). \quad (7.2)$$

$$k_{2h+1}(x) = xk_{2h}(x) - k_{2h-1}(x)$$

Now define polynomials  $\gamma_m(x) = \gamma_m(x, u, v)$  by

$$\gamma_{2h}(x) = x(x - (u + v))(uv)^{h-1} k_{2h} \left( \frac{(x - (u + v))^2}{uv} \right)$$
  
$$\gamma_{2h+1}(x) = x(uv)^h k_{2h+1} \left( \frac{(x - (u + v))^2}{uv} \right)$$
 (h \ge 0). (7.3)

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Using (7.2) we can verify that

$$\gamma_m(x) = (x - (u + v)) \gamma_{m-1}(x) - uv\gamma_{m-2}(x), \quad m \ge 2.$$
 (7.4)

Thus the  $\gamma_m(x)$  satisfy the recursion (7.1) but not the initial conditions, for  $\gamma_0(x) = 0$ ,  $\gamma_1(x) = x$ . Define polynomials  $h_m(x) = h_m(x, u, v)$  by

$$h_0(x) = 1,$$
  
 $h_m(x) = \gamma_m(x) - vh_{m-1}(x), \quad m \ge 1.$ 
(7.5)

so that  $h_1(x) = x - v$ . Now we verify at once by induction that

$$\gamma_m(x) = (x - u) h_{m-1}(x) - uv h_{m-2}(x), \quad m \ge 2,$$
 (7.6)

from which it follows that the  $h_m(x)$  solve (7.1).

Observe finally that

$$h_m(x, u, u) = u^m k_{2m+1}\left(\frac{x}{u}\right), \qquad m \ge 0. \tag{7.7}$$

For when u = v, it is easily verified using (7.2) that the polynomials defined by (7.7) solve (7.1)

We now return to the consideration of a transitive group G of rank r and put  $\Delta = \Gamma_1$ . Let us look at the case in which M has form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ u(v+1) & u-1 & \cdot & & \\ & uv & \cdot & 1 & \\ & & \cdot & u-1 & 1 \\ & & & uv & u(v+1)-1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Put  $\tilde{A} = A + (v + 1)I$ , then the entry in the (a, b)-position of  $A^{q}$  is

$$ilde\eta_{qj} = \sum\limits_{q=0}^{j} \, (v+1)^{q-j} \, \eta_{qj}$$
 ,  $ilde\eta_{0j} = \delta_{0j}$  .

Putting  $\tilde{N} = (\tilde{\eta}_{qj})$  and  $T = (\binom{q}{j}(v+1)^{q-j})_{q,j}$ , we have  $\tilde{N} = TN$ , so by (5.2),  $\tilde{N}\tilde{M} = S\tilde{N}$  with  $\tilde{M} = M + (v+1)I$ . But this is the recursion considered in Lemma 2.5 of [2], so, in the notation of [2],

$$\tilde{\eta}_{qj} = [(1+u)^{q-1}(1+v)^q(1-uv)]_{-1}^{q-j}, \quad 0 \leq q \leq 2r-2-j.$$

In particular,

trace 
$$\tilde{A}^q = n[(1+u)^{q-1}(1+v)^q(1-uv)]_{-1}^{q-1}, \quad 0 \leq q \leq 2r-2.$$
 (7.8.)

Now put  $H_m(x) = G_m(x - (v + 1))$  where the  $G_m(x)$  solve the recursion (6.6) corresponding to our given matrix M. Then the  $H_m(x)$  solve (7.1), so  $H_m(x) = h_m(x, u, v)$  as defined in (7.5). By (6.7),

(7.9) The characteristic polynomial  $\rho(x)$  of  $\tilde{A}$  is  $\rho(x) = (x - (y + y)(y + 1))h + \rho(x + y)(y + 1)h$ 

$$p(x) = (x - (u + b)(b + 1)) n_{r-1}(x, u, b).$$

(7.10) THEOREM. If the intersection matrix M has the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ u(u+1) & u-1 & 1 \\ & u^2 & u-1 \\ & & u^2 \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & u-1 \\ & & & & u^2 & u^2+u-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with u > 1 then r = 2, i.e., G is doubly transitive (of degree  $u^2 + u + 1$ ).

**Proof.** By (7.9) and (7.7) the characteristic polynomial for  $\tilde{M}$  is

$$\rho(x) = (x - (u + 1)^2) u^{r-1} k_{2r-3} \left(\frac{x}{u}\right)^{r-1} k_{2r-3} \left(\frac{x}$$

Hence, since we have the formula (7.8) for the trace of  $\tilde{A}^q$  the analysis of ([2], Section IV) is directly applicable, giving 2r - 1 = 3 or r = 2.

It can be shown that for  $r \ge 3$ , *M* has the form of (7.10) with u = s = t if and only if **P** (as defined in Section 2) is a nondegenerate (2r - 1) - gon. Then Theorem 1 of [2] can be directly applied, but of course (7.10) is a stronger result in our context.

A curious consequence of (7.10) is

(7.11) COROLLARY. Let G be a transitive permutation group of rank r with subdegrees 1,  $u^{2\alpha-1}(u + 1)$ ,  $\alpha = 1, 2, ..., r - 1, u > 1$ . Then G is doubly transitive.

**Proof.** Using (4.2) and (4.9) it is easily seen that in this case M has the form of (7.10).

(7.12) THEOREM. If M has the form  

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ u(v+1) & u-1 & 1 \\ & uv & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & uv & (u-1)(v+1) \end{pmatrix}$$

then r = 2, 3, 4, 5 or 7, and if u > 1 and v > 1 then  $r \neq 7$ .

*Proof.* We may assume that  $r \ge 3$ . Again we work with

$$\tilde{A} = A + (v+1) I$$

and  $\tilde{M} = M + (v + 1) I$ , and obtain from Lemma 2.5 of [2] that

trace 
$$\tilde{A}^q = [(1-u)^{q-1} (1-v)^q (1-uv)]_{-1}^q \quad (0 \leq q \leq 2r-3).$$

By (5.7) and (6.6) we find that the characteristic polynomial  $\rho(x)$  for  $\tilde{M}$  is given by (x - (u + 1)(v + 1)) h(x) where

$$h(x) = (x - u) h_{r-2}(x) - uv h_{r-3}(x)$$

 $h_m(x) = h_m(x, u, v)$  as defined in (7.5). Hence by (7.6)

$$\rho(x) = (x - (u + 1)(v + 1)) \gamma_{r-1}(x),$$

where  $\gamma_m(x)$  is defined by (7.3). Now the analysis of ([2], Sections V-VII) is directly applicable, giving 2r - 2 = 4, 6, 8, or 12 with  $2r - 2 \neq 12$  if u > 1 and v > 1.

Actually the analysis of [2] gives more, namely, in case r = 4, uv is a square, while if r = 5, 2uv is a square (cf. Theorem 1 of [2]).

If  $r \ge 3$ , it can be shown that M has the form of (7.12) with u = s, v = t, if and only if **P** is a generalized (2r - 2) - gon.

The analog of (7.11), proved in the same way, is

(7.13) COROLLARY. If G is a transitive permutation group of rank r with subdegrees 1,  $u^{\alpha}v^{\alpha-1}(v+1)$ ,  $\alpha = 1, 2, ..., r-2$ , and  $u^{r-1}v^{r-2}$ , then the conclusions of (7.12) hold.

### Appendix

We indicate here a proof of a simple but very useful result due to Wielandt (unpublished), essential use of which was made in Section 4.

Let H be an intransitive group of permutations on a finite set  $\Omega$ . Let D be the permutation representation and let C be the commuting algebra of D. Arrange the points of  $\Omega$  according to the H-orbits, so that, if there are t of these, D(x) takes the form

$$D(x) = \text{diag}\{D_1(x), D_2(x), ..., D_t(x)\}$$

for  $x \in H$ . If  $X = (X_{ij})_{1 \le i, j \le t}$  is the corresponding blocking of  $X \in C$ , then

$$X_{ij}D_j(x) = D_i(x) X_{ij} \qquad (1 \leq i, j \leq t),$$

from which it follows that  $X_{ij}$  has constant column sum. Moreover, there exists a nonsingular matrix P such that

$$P^{-1}XP = egin{pmatrix} \hat{X} & 0 \ 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\hat{X}$  is obtained from X by replacing each block  $X_{ij}$  by its column sum. We see this by reducing D to irreducible constituents and suitably rearranging these. Now it follows that

The mapping  $X \to \hat{X}$  is an algebra homomorphism of C onto a subalgebra  $\hat{C}$  of the algebra of all  $t \times t$  matrices.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> This is one of the results presented to the Conference on Finite Groups held in East Lansing and Ann Arbor in March of 1964.