# 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 $\Delta(a)^{g}=\Delta\left(a^{g}\right)$ 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 $A^{q}, q \geqslant 0$, 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 onc-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.

[^0]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

$$
\Gamma_{i}(a)^{r}=\Gamma_{i}\left(a^{\theta}\right) \text { for all } a \in \Omega, \quad g \in G, i=0,1, \ldots, r-1
$$

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) $\Delta(a)^{a}=\Delta\left(a^{g}\right)$ 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, $\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{r-1}$ are the orbitals of $G$. The lengths $l_{i}=\left|\Gamma_{i}\right|, i=0,1, \ldots, r-1$ are called the subdegrees of $G$, their sum is the degree of $G, n=l_{0}+l_{1}+\cdots+l_{r-1}$.
Each orbital $\Delta$ of $G$ has a mirror-image $\Delta^{\prime}$ defined by

$$
\Delta^{\prime}(a)=\left\{a^{\sigma^{-1}} \mid a^{0} \in \Delta(a)\right\} \quad(a \in \Omega)
$$

([9], Section 16). $\Delta^{\prime}$ is again an orbital of $G$ of the same length as $\Delta$, and $\Delta^{n}=\Delta$. The correspondence $\Delta \leftrightarrow \Delta^{\prime}$ 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 $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{q}$ of $q 1$ points of $\Omega$ such that $x_{0}=a$, $x_{q}=b$ and $x_{i} \in \Delta\left(x_{i-1}\right), i=1, \ldots, q$. We define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \rho(a, b)=\text { the length of the shortest path from } a \text { to } b, \text { or } \infty \\
& \text { if there is no path from } a \text { to } b .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then we have at once that

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

and

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

If we define $\rho^{\prime}$ in the same way as $\rho$, with $\Delta^{\prime}$ in place of $\Delta$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(a, b)=\rho^{\prime}(b, a) \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is because $a \in \Delta(b)$ implies $b \in \Delta^{\prime}(a)$.
From the relation $\Delta(a)^{g}=\Delta\left(a^{g}\right)$ we see that $G$ is a group of isometries of $\rho$, that is,
(1.4) $\rho\left(a^{g}, b^{g}\right)=\rho(a, b)$ for $g \in G$.

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

$$
\rho(a, \Gamma(a))=\rho\left(a, a^{g}\right)=\rho\left(a^{g^{-1}}, a\right)=\rho\left(\Gamma^{\prime}(a), a\right)
$$

that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(a, \Gamma(a))=\rho\left(\Gamma^{\prime}(a), a\right) . \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now put

$$
\Lambda_{q}(a)=\{x \in \Omega \mid \rho(a, x)=q\}, \Lambda_{q}^{\prime}(a)=\{x \in \Omega \mid p(x, a)=q\} .
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda_{q}(a)^{g}=\Lambda_{q}\left(a^{g}\right) \text { and } \Lambda_{q}^{\prime}(a)^{g}=\Lambda_{q}^{\prime}\left(a^{g}\right) \text { for } g \in G \tag{1.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

and
(1.7) $\Lambda_{q}(a)$ is a union of $G_{a}$-orbits while $\Lambda_{q}{ }^{\prime}(a)$ is the union of the $G_{a}$-orbits paired with those in $\Lambda_{9}(a)$.

Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda_{a+1}(a) \subseteq \sum_{x \in \Lambda_{q}(a)} \Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{a \leqslant q+1} \Lambda_{\alpha}(a) \tag{1.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\sum_{x \in \Lambda_{q}^{\prime}(a)} \Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \geqslant q-1} A_{x}^{\prime}(a) .
$$

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

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 $x \in \Lambda_{q}{ }^{\prime}(a)$ and $b \in \Delta(x)$ then $q=\rho(x, a) \leqslant \rho(x, b)+\rho(b, a)=1+\rho(b, a)$ so $\rho(b, a) \geqslant q-1$. That is $\Delta(x) \subseteq \sum_{\alpha \geqslant q-1} \Lambda_{\alpha}^{\prime}(a)$.

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

$$
\max \rho(a, b)=\max \rho^{\prime}(a, b)
$$

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 $\Lambda(a)^{g}=\Lambda\left(a^{g}\right)$ 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 $\Delta(a)$ and $H$ is the smallest subgroup of $G$ containing $G_{a}$ such that $a^{H} \cap \Delta(a) \not \equiv \emptyset$. Writing

$$
\Lambda^{\prime}(a)=\left\{x \in \Omega \mid \rho^{\prime}(a, x)<\infty\right\}
$$

we have
(1.10) $\quad \Lambda(a)=\Lambda^{\prime}(a)$.

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

$$
\Delta^{\prime}(x) \subseteq \Lambda(x)=\Lambda(a)
$$

for all $x \in \Lambda(a)$, and therefore $\Lambda^{\prime}(a) \subseteq \Lambda(a)$. 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 $G_{a} \leqslant H \neq G$ 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 $\Delta(a) \leqslant a^{H}$. 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 $\Lambda_{q}(a)$ and $\Lambda_{q}{ }^{\prime}(a)$ 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

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

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 $B_{i}=\left(\beta_{a b}^{(i)}\right)$ for the orbital $\Gamma_{i}$ of $G$ is defined by

$$
\beta_{a b}^{(i)}=\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { if } a \in \Gamma_{i}(b), \\
& 0 \text { otherwise. }
\end{aligned}
$$

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 wuith all entries 1 ). Moreover - cf. [9], Theorem (28.4) -
(2.2) $B_{0}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r-1}$ is a basis for the commuting algebra of the permutation representation of $G$,
and
(2.3) If $\Gamma_{i}^{\prime}=\Gamma_{i^{\prime}}$, then $B_{i}{ }^{t}=B_{i^{\prime}}$.

Let us consider a particular orbital $\Delta \neq \Gamma_{0}$, say $\Delta=\Gamma_{1}$, and put $A=B_{1}, \alpha_{a b}=\beta_{a b}^{(1)}$, so that

$$
\alpha_{a b}=\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { if } a \in \Delta(b), \\
& 0 \text { otherwise. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$A$ is the incidence matrix of the block design $\mathbf{A}$ 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 $\mathbf{A}$. The group $G$ is represented as a group of collineations of $\mathbf{A}$ according to the action of $G$ on $\Omega \times \Omega$. The group $\mathfrak{G}$ of all permutations of $\Omega$ which induce collineations of $\mathbf{A}$ 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. $\mathfrak{5}$ 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 $\mathbf{A}$.

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

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

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 $a+c \leqslant a+b$, whence $a+c=a+b$. It follows that $G_{a+b}$ is doubly transitive on the points of $a \div b$ 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=s(t+1) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that if $G$ has rank 2 then $s=n-1, t=0$.)
We may consider the incidence structure $\mathbf{P}$ 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 $\mathbf{P}$ with the rows indexed by the points and the columns by the lines then $P P^{t}=A+(t+1) I$. The structure $\mathbf{P}$ 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 diametcr $d$ with respect to a self-paired orbital $\Delta \neq \Gamma_{0}$. We observe that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\Lambda_{q+1}(a)\right| \leqslant s t ; \Lambda_{q}(a)^{\prime} \leqslant(k-1)\left|\Lambda_{q}(a)\right|, \quad q \geqslant 1 . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

Now $\left|\Lambda_{1}(a)\right|=|\Delta(a)|=s(t ;-1)$, so (3.1) gives

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

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

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

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

$$
\left|\Lambda_{q+1}(a)\right| \leqslant k\left|\Lambda_{q}(a)\right|
$$

so

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

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

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

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

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

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{i 0}^{(\alpha)}=\delta_{i_{\alpha}} l_{\alpha}, \mu_{0 i}^{(\alpha)}=\delta_{i_{\alpha^{\prime}}} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(where $\Gamma_{\alpha^{\prime}}=\Gamma_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime}$, the orbital paired with $\Gamma_{\alpha}$ ). Moreover, ${ }^{1}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
l_{j} \mu_{i j}^{(\alpha)}=l_{i} \mu_{j i}^{\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)} \quad \text { and } \quad l_{i} \mu_{k^{\prime} i}^{(j)}=l_{j} \mu_{i^{\prime} j}^{(k)}=l_{k} \mu_{j^{\prime} k}^{(i)} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. A pair $(b, c)$ is such that $b \in \Gamma_{j}(a)$ and $c \in \Gamma_{x}(b) \cap \Gamma_{i}(a)$ if and only if $c \in \Gamma_{i}(a)$ and $b \in \Gamma_{\alpha}{ }^{\prime}(c) \cap \Gamma_{j}(a)$. Counting these pairs gives $l_{j} \mu_{i j}^{(\alpha)}=l_{i} \mu_{j i}^{(\alpha)}$, and combining this with $\mu_{i j}^{(\alpha)}=\mu_{a j}^{(i)}$ from (4.1) [or directly, counting the triplets ( $a, b, c$ ) with $b \in \Gamma_{i}(a), c \in \Gamma_{j}(b)$ and $\left.a \in \Gamma_{k}(c)\right]$ 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 $M_{\alpha}=\left(\mu_{i j}^{(\alpha)}\right)_{i, j}$ 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 $M_{0}, M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r-1}$ are linearly independent and $\sum_{\alpha} M_{\alpha}=\hat{F}$, the matrix whose ith row is $\left(l_{i}, l_{i}, \ldots, l_{i}\right)$, $i=0,1, \ldots, r-1$.

Focusing attention on a particular orbital $\Delta \neq \Gamma_{0}$, say $\Delta=\Gamma_{1}$, we put $M=M_{1}$ and write $\mu_{i j}=\mu_{i j}^{(1)}$. As before we put $k=l_{1}$ and $A=B_{1}$.

[^1]Arrange the $G_{a}$-orbits into circles of increasing radius about $a$ (with respect to $\Delta$ ) and number the orbitals accordingly, so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda_{q}(a)=\sum_{c_{q} \leqslant i<c_{q+1}} \Gamma_{i}(a) \quad(1 \leqslant q \leqslant m) \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\rho\left(a, \Gamma_{i}(a)\right)=\infty$ for $i \geqslant c_{m+1}$. 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 $M=\left(\begin{array}{cc}X & 0 \\ 0 & Y\end{array}\right)$ with $X=\left(\lambda_{i j}\right)_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant m}$ and

$$
\lambda_{i j}=\left(\mu_{\alpha \beta}\right)_{c_{i} \leqslant c<c_{i+1}: c, \leqslant \beta<c_{i+1}}
$$

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

Proof. It follows at once from the definitions that $M$ takes the form $M=\left(\begin{array}{cc}X & \bar{Z} \\ 0 & Y\end{array}\right)$ where $X$ has the described form. By (1.10) we know that $\Lambda(a)=\Lambda^{\prime}(a)$, and this means that the intersection matrix for $\Delta^{\prime}$ takes the form ( $\left.\begin{array}{cc}U & W \\ 0 & V\end{array}\right)$ (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 $\left(\begin{array}{ll}X & \underset{Y}{Z} \\ 0 & Y\end{array}\right)$ with $X=\left(\lambda_{i j}\right)$ 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 $\lambda_{i i}$ 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 $\alpha=1,2, \ldots, r-1$.

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 $G_{a}$-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 $L=\left(l_{0}, l_{1}, \ldots, l_{r-1}\right)^{t}$, 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 $B_{\alpha} X=l_{\alpha} X, X=(1,1, \ldots, 1)^{t}$, 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 $M_{\alpha}=\hat{B}_{\alpha}, \alpha=0,1, \ldots, r-1$, are linearly independent. Hence by (2.2) the homomorphism is an isomorphism

$$
C=\left\langle B_{0}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r-1}\right\rangle \approx \hat{C}=\left\langle M_{0}, M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r-1}\right\rangle .
$$

As a first consequence we have
(4.10) The matrices $M_{0}, M_{1}, \ldots, M_{r-1}$ span an algebra $\hat{C}$, which is commutative if and only if the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation are inequivalent.

Proof. $\mathcal{C}$ 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, $\alpha=0,1, \ldots, r-1$. 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),

$$
C=\left\langle I, A, A^{2}, \ldots, A^{r-1}\right\rangle
$$

Since $C$ is commutative we know that the permutation representation $\Delta$ has $r$ inequivalent irrcducible constituents $\Delta_{0}=1, \Delta_{1}, \ldots, \Delta_{r-1}$. Choose a nonsingular matrix $P$ such that

$$
P^{-1} \Delta P=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\Delta_{0}, \Delta_{1}, \ldots, \Delta_{r-1}\right\}
$$

Then

$$
P^{-1} A P=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\theta_{0}, \theta_{1} I_{f_{1}}, \ldots, \theta_{r-1} I_{f_{r-1}}\right\}
$$

where $f_{i}$ is the degree of $\Delta_{i}$ and $\theta_{0}=k, \theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{r-1}$, as eigenvalues of $A$, are eigenvalues of $M$. If now $k_{\alpha}$ is the $\alpha$ th class sum of $G$ then $\Delta_{i}\left(k_{\alpha}\right)=\omega_{i}\left(k_{\alpha}\right) I_{f_{i}}$ where $\omega_{i}$ is the linear representation of the center of the group algebra of $G$ corresponding to $\Delta_{i}$. Thus

$$
P^{-1} \Delta\left(k^{\alpha}\right) P=\operatorname{diag}\left\{\omega_{0}\left(k_{\alpha}\right), \omega_{1}\left(k_{\alpha}\right) I_{f_{1}}, \ldots, \omega_{r-1}\left(k_{\alpha}\right) I_{r_{r-1}}\right\}
$$

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

$$
\Delta\left(k_{\alpha}\right)=\sum_{q=0}^{r-1} x_{\alpha q} A^{q}
$$

where the $x_{\alpha \beta}$ are uniquely determined rational numbers. Hence we have $\omega_{i}\left(k_{\alpha}\right)=\sum x_{\alpha q} \theta_{i}{ }^{q}$ 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 $M_{\alpha}, \alpha=0,1, \ldots, r-1$, from $M$ as the uniquc 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 Eigenvalles of $A$

Define vectors $\eta_{q}=\left(\eta_{q 0}, \eta_{q 1}, \ldots, \eta_{a r-1}\right), q \geqslant 0$, by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta_{0}=(1,0, \ldots, 0), \eta_{q+1}=\eta_{q} M . \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(5.2) Theorem. trace $A^{q}=n \eta_{70}, q \geqslant 0$, where $n$ is the degree of $G$.

Proof. Write $A^{q}=\sum \lambda_{q j} B_{j}$, then trace $A^{q}=n \lambda_{q 0}$, and $M^{q}=\sum \lambda_{0 j} M_{j}$. Now $M_{j} M=\sum \mu_{j^{\prime} \alpha} M_{\alpha}$ since the first row of $M_{j}$ has all entries 0 except for a 1 in the $j^{\prime}$-position. Hence $M^{q+1}=\sum \lambda_{q j} \mu_{j^{\prime} \alpha} M_{\alpha}$ and therefore $\lambda_{q+1 i}=\sum \lambda_{q j} \mu_{j^{\prime} i^{\prime}}$. This can be written as $\lambda_{q+1}=\lambda_{q} P M P$ where $\lambda_{\alpha}=\left(\lambda_{\alpha 0}, \lambda_{\alpha 1}, \ldots\right)$ 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 $\eta_{q 0}=\lambda_{q 0}$.

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{trace} \rho_{0}(A) / \rho_{0}(\theta), \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho_{0}(x)=p(x) /(x-\theta)^{m}$ (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 0 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 $\theta_{0}=k, \theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{r-1}$, then the degrees $x_{0}=1, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}$ of the irreducible constituents of the permutation representation of $G$ are determined by $M$, namely, they are given by

$$
x_{i}=\operatorname{trace} f_{i}(A) / f_{i}\left(\theta_{i}\right), \quad i=0,1, \ldots, r-1,
$$

where $f_{i}(x)=f(x) /\left(x-\theta_{i}\right), f(x)$ being the characteristic polynomial of $M$.
Putting $N=\left(\eta_{i j}\right)=\left(\eta_{0}, \eta_{1}, \ldots\right)^{t}$, the recursion (5.1) can be written as

$$
S N=N M \quad \text { with } \quad S=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 1 & &  \tag{5.6}\\
& 0 & 1 & \\
& & \ddots & \ddots \\
& & & .
\end{array}\right)
$$

Taking $N_{0}$ to be the $r \times r$ matrix consisting of the first $r$ rows of $N$ we have
(5.7) $N_{0} M=C N_{0}$ where $C$ is the companion matrix of the characteristic polynomial $f(x)$ of $M$.

From (5.7) we have $M\left(a d j N_{0}\right)=\left(\operatorname{adj} N_{0}\right) C$, and hence, since $M$ has
column sum $k, k\left(\operatorname{Xadj} N_{0}\right)=\left(X \operatorname{Xadj} N_{0}\right) C$ where $X=(1,1, \ldots, 1)$. Writing $\operatorname{adj} N_{0}=\left(\eta_{i j}^{*}\right)$ and putting

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

it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x \quad \text { k) } g(x)=\sigma_{r-1} f(x)\right. \tag{5.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $N_{0}$ is nonsingular if and only if the minimum polynomial of $M$ has degree $r$, and in this case we have

$$
M_{i^{\prime}}=\sum \eta^{i j} M^{j}, \quad N_{0}^{-1}=\left(\eta^{i j}\right) .
$$

## 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 $\Gamma_{q}(a)=\Lambda_{q}(a), q=1,2, \ldots, r-1$.

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

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
0 & 1 & & & \\
k & z_{1} & x_{2} & & \\
& y_{1} & z_{2} & \cdot & \\
& & y_{2} & \cdot & \cdot \\
& & & \ddots & \cdot x_{r-1} \\
& & & y_{r-2} z_{r-1}
\end{array}\right)
$$

with $x_{i+1} y_{i} \neq 0,1 \leqslant i \leqslant r-1$. By (4.2), $x_{q+1} l_{q+1}=y_{q} l_{q}, q \geqslant 1$, and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
l_{q}=\frac{y_{q-1} y_{q-2} \cdots y_{1}}{x_{q} x_{q-1} \cdots x_{2}} k, q \geqslant 1 \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (3.1),

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{q} \leqslant s t x_{q+1}, q \geqslant 1 \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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).
'I'he following determination of the characteristic polynomial of $M$ is convenient for some applications. In our present case $N_{0}$ is nonsingular so we have $M N_{0}^{-1}-N_{0}^{-1} C$. For $0 \leqslant m \leqslant r-1$ define

$$
g_{m}(x)=\sum_{j=0}^{m} \sigma_{j}^{(m)} x^{j}, \quad \sigma_{j}^{(m)}=\sum_{i=0}^{m} \eta^{i j}
$$

where $N_{0}^{-1}=\left(\eta^{i j}\right)$. Then $g_{0}(x)=1, g_{1}(x)=x+1$ and $\left(\operatorname{det} N_{0}\right) g_{r-1}(x)=g(x)$. Put

$$
X_{m}=(\underbrace{1,1, \ldots, 1}_{m}, 0, \ldots, 0)
$$

then

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

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

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

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 $x^{5}$, and summing over $j$, we get
$g_{m}+(k-1) g_{m-2}+(\alpha-1)\left(g_{m-1}-g_{m-2}\right)+(\beta-1)\left(g_{m}-g_{m-1}\right)=x g_{m-1}$
since $\sum_{j} \eta^{v j} x^{j}=g_{v}-g_{v-1}, v=1,2, \ldots$. Hence, since $k-\alpha=y_{m-1}$, we have

$$
x_{m} g_{m}(x)=\left(x+\alpha_{m}\right) g_{m-1}(x)-y_{m-1} g_{m-2}(x), \quad m \geqslant 2
$$

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{m}(x)=\left(x+\alpha_{m}\right) G_{m-1}(x)-x_{m-1} y_{m-1} G_{m-2}(x), m \geqslant 2, \text { with } \alpha_{m}= \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$ $x_{m}-z_{m-1}-x_{m-1}$ 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 scen directly that $G(A)=F$ and hence that $f(A)=0$.

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

For $A \in \Omega(k)$ and $1 \leqslant k \leqslant l \leqslant n / 2$, the number of $S_{A^{-}}$-orbits in $\Omega(l)$ is $k+1$. Namely, for each $t, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant k$, 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 (sce, 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

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

Each of these orbits is self-paired since $B \in \Gamma_{i}(A)$ implies $A \in \Gamma_{i}(B)$. If $1 \leqslant i \leqslant k-1$ 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 $A$, $j=1,2, \ldots, k$. [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 $1 \leqslant k<l \leqslant n!2$ we have, therefore, that $e_{\lambda}=1$ implics $f_{\lambda}==1$. Hence
(6.9) Theorem ([7], Lemma 3). There exist distinct nontrivial irreducible characters $\zeta_{1}, \ldots, \zeta_{[n / 2]}$ of $S$ such that $\pi_{k}=1+\zeta_{1}+\cdots+\zeta_{k}, 1 \leqslant k \leqslant[n / 2]$.

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

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

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =(x-11)\left(x^{4}+2 x^{3}-20 x^{2}-27 x+44\right) \\
& =(x-11)(x-1)(x-4)\left(x^{2}-7 x+11\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with roots

$$
\theta_{0}=11, \theta_{1}=1, \theta_{2}=4,\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\theta_{3} \\
\theta_{4}
\end{array}\right\}=\frac{-7 \pm 5^{1 / 2}}{2}
$$

The matrix $N_{0}$ is

| 1 |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 11 | 0 | 1 |  |  |
| 0 | 21 | 4 | 5 |  |
| 231 | 40 | 67 | 45 | 55. |

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

$$
f_{1}(x)=f(x) /(x-1)=x^{4}-8 x^{3}-50 x^{2}+143 x+484
$$

so by $(5.4)$, $\operatorname{trace} f_{1}(A)=266[231-5011+484]=266 \cdot 165$, 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{m}(x)=(x-(u+v)) h_{m-1}(x)-u v h_{m-2}(x), \quad m \geqslant 2 \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
h_{0}(x)=1, h_{1}(x)=x-v
$$

The solution ${ }_{E}^{7} \mathrm{can}$ be written in terms of the polynomials $k_{m}(x)$ defined by

$$
\begin{aligned}
k_{2 h}\left(x+2+x^{-1}\right) & =\frac{x^{2 h}-1}{x^{h-1}\left(x^{2}-1\right)} \quad(h \geqslant 0) \\
k_{2 h+1}\left(x+2+x^{-1}\right) & =\frac{x^{2 h+1}-1}{x^{h}(x-1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

First observe that

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

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
(h \geqslant 1) . \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now define polynomials $\gamma_{m}(x)=\gamma_{m}(x, u, v)$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
\gamma_{2 h}(x) & =x(x-(u+v))(u v)^{n-1} k_{2 h}\left(\frac{(x-(u+v))^{2}}{u v}\right) \\
\gamma_{2 h+1}(x) & =x(u v)^{n} k_{2 h+1}\left(\frac{(x-(u+v))^{2}}{u v}\right) \tag{7.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Using (7.2) we can verify that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{m}(x)=(x-(u+v)) \gamma_{m-1}(x)-u v \gamma_{m-2}(x), \quad m \geqslant 2 . \tag{7.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\begin{align*}
h_{0}(x) & =1 \\
h_{m}(x) & =\gamma_{m}(x)-v h_{m-1}(x), \quad m \geqslant 1 . \tag{7.5}
\end{align*}
$$

so that $h_{1}(x)=x-v$. Now we verify at once by induction that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{m}(x)=(x-u) h_{m-1}(x)-u v h_{m-2}(x), \quad m \geqslant 2, \tag{7.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

from which it follows that the $h_{m}(x)$ solve (7.1).
Observe finally that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{m}(x, u, u)=u^{m} k_{2 m+1}\left(\frac{x}{u}\right), \quad m \geqslant 0 . \tag{7.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & & & \\
u(v+1) & u-1 & \ddots & & \\
& u v & \ddots & 1 & \\
& & & u-1 & 1 \\
& & & u v(v+1)-1
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

$$
\tilde{\eta}_{a j}=\sum_{q=0}^{j}(v+1)^{\alpha-j} \eta_{q j}, \tilde{\eta}_{0 j}=\delta_{0 j} .
$$

Putting $\tilde{N}=\left(\tilde{q}_{q j}\right)$ and $T=\left(\left({ }_{j}^{q}\right)(v+1)^{q-j}\right)_{q, j}$, we have $\tilde{N}=T N$, 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],

$$
\tilde{\eta}_{q j}=\left[(1+u)^{q-1}(1+v)^{q}(1-u v)\right]_{-1}^{q_{1}^{-j}}, \quad 0 \leqslant q \leqslant 2 r-2-j .
$$

In particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{trace} \tilde{A}^{q}=n\left[(1+u)^{q-1}(1+v)^{q}(1-u v)\right]_{-1}^{q-1}, \quad 0 \leqslant q \leqslant 2 r-2 . \tag{7.8.}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $A$ is

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

(7.10) Theorem. If the intersection matrix $M$ has the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & & & \\
u(u+1) & u-1 & 1 & & \\
& u^{2} & u-1 & \ddots & \\
& & u^{2} & \ddots & 1 \\
& & & \ddots & \\
& & & & u^{2} \\
& u^{2}+u-1
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

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

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

It can be shown that for $r \geqslant 3, M$ has the form of (7.10) with $u=s=t$ if and only if $\mathbf{P}$ (as defined in Section 2) is a nondegenerate $(2 r-1)-$ 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 $1, u^{2 \alpha-1}(u+1), \alpha=1,2, \ldots, r-1, u>1$. 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

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 1 & & & \\
u(v+1) & u-1 & 1 & & \\
& u v & \ddots & \ddots & \\
& & \ddots & \cdot & \\
& & & \cdot & 1 \\
& & & & v v \\
& & (u-1)(v+1)
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

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

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

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

$$
\operatorname{trace} \tilde{A}^{q}=\left[(1-u)^{q-1}(1-v)^{q}(1-u v)\right]_{-1}^{q} \quad(0 \leqslant q \leqslant 2 r-3)
$$

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

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

$h_{m}(x)=h_{m}(x, u, v)$ 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 $2 r-2=4,6,8$, or 12 with $2 r-2 \neq 12$ if $u>1$ and $v>1$.

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

If $r \geqslant 3$, it can be shown that $M$ has the form of (7.12) with $u=s$, $v=t$, if and only if $\mathbf{P}$ is a generalized $(2 r-2)$ - 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 $\left.1, u^{\alpha} v^{\alpha-1}(v+1), \alpha=1,2, \ldots, r-2\right)$, 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

$$
D(x)=\operatorname{diag}\left\{D_{1}(x), D_{2}(x), \ldots, D_{t}(x)\right\}
$$

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

$$
X_{i j} D_{j}(x)-D_{i}(x) X_{i j} \quad(1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant t)
$$

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

$$
P^{-1} X P=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\hat{X} & 0 \\
0 & *
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

The mapping $X \rightarrow \hat{X}$ is an algebra homomorphism of $C$ onto a subalgebra $\hat{C}$ of the algebra of all $t \times t$ matrices. ${ }^{2}$

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[^2]
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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ The author is indebted to $M$. Suzuki for pointing out this improvement of his original statement.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ This is one of the results presented to the Conference on Finite Groups held in East Lansing and Ann Arbor in March of 1964.

